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Gendered Governance of Mining-Induced Resettlement in Ghana: Perceptions and Implications for Natural Resource Livelihoods

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Abstract
This study examines the gendered perception of the governance of mining-induced resettlement (MIDR) in Ghana, focusing on the Newmont Ahafo project at the Asutifi North District. Despite making a substantial economic contribution to Ghana, the extraction of mineral resources has resulted in massive land grabs and development-induced displacement, impacting thousands of individuals and households. MIDR often results in severe socio-economic impacts such as landlessness, loss of livelihood, food insecurity, and community disarticulation. Affected individuals are usually treated as a homogenous group, ignoring different gender roles and needs, even though policies promote involvement in resettlement procedures and acknowledge differential impacts. By employing a mixed-methods case study design that includes interviews with key informants and surveys of 221 households, the study explores how resettled communities view the governance of the process through inclusiveness, legitimacy, and transparency. Findings reveal that although both genders are adversely affected, women experience disproportionate impacts related to marginalization, loss of traditional livelihoods (e.g., backyard gardens, forest resources), and disruption of social support networks, often leading to increased vulnerability and economic dependence. In order to guarantee long-term results for impacted communities, the study emphasizes the urgent need for enhanced, gender-sensitive participatory approaches in resettlement planning and execution.

Keywords
Mining-Induced Displacement and Resettlement, Gendered Perception, Governance, Livelihood, Ghana

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1. Introduction

Mineral resource extraction plays a vital role in the economic development of most developing countries and Ghana is not an exception. For example, the Ghana Chamber of Mines (2014) revealed that approximately 27.04% of national tax revenues come from the mining sector. The growing industrial surface mining operations in Ghana and the resulting land grabs have raised major issues regarding Ghana's compulsory takings statutes in the context of mining. Compulsorily taking land if not adequately compensated for leads to landlessness, loss of livelihood and increased poverty (Larbi et al., 2004). Development-induced displacement and resettlement (DIDR) is a major issue globally. Terminski (2015) discusses how development-induced displacement and resettlement is a major socio-economic issue linked with loss or significant reduction in the access to natural resources on which communities depend on. Large scale extraction of natural resources like mining, forestry projects, construction and operation of development and infrastructure ventures such as the construction of dams, roads and bridges as well as irrigation projects require land usually in large quantity. One common result of such projects

is the disruption and displacement of communities. Terminski (2015) estimates that globally, approximately 15 million people are displaced every year as a result of these development projects. Mining-induced displacement and resettlement (MIDR) as an aspect of DIDR involves, mostly, the involuntary movement of affected people from their original abode and/or socio -economic activities. In particular, mining-induced resettlement is an extensive process of planning and implementing the relocation of people, households and communities from one location to another due to mining projects, and all the associated activities such as the provision of compensation, livelihood restoration, and restoring or improving the social conditions of the community (Kemp, 2015; Vanclay, 2017; Wilson, 2019). Despite all the benefits Ghana derives from mining (i.e. the significant contribution to GDP; foreign exchange; employment opportunities, infrastructure development etc.), it has also had devastating effects with regards to displacing local people. On the international scale, the total number of involuntary resettlements caused by mining activity remains unaccounted for (Terminski, 2012). Downing (2002) in his book, "avoiding new poverty - mining -induced displacement and resettlement", suggests that the rate of MIDR is far greater than reported. According to the Bank-wide review of projects involving involuntary resettlements, mining was the cause of 10.3 percent of development-induced displacement worldwide. The issue of forced resettlement as a result of mining of minerals exists in all continents. As with the other causes of MIDR, it is local people who are largely affected by this phenomenon (Terminski, 2012). In Ghana, most communities have been victims of displacement and resettlement resulting from development including mining. Communities such as Obuasi, Damang, Teberebe and New Atuabo in the Tarkwa-Nsuaem Municipality, have also been affected by MIDR. Newmont's Akyem and Ahafo projects have also affected communities within their concessions. Adam (2019) shared that the Ghana Chamber of Mines revealed that eight separate MIDR events had occurred between 2005 and 2015, and these events caused the displacement of almost 12,700 persons or 2,540 households (Adam, 2019). Ghana Gold Fields Limited forcefully removed 20,000 to 30,000 people from their homes. Such displacement of people in these areas was accompanied by problems like inadequate compensation, joblessness, and loss of farmlands (Doso et al., 2015). The absence of community participation in the design and execution of resettlement plans usually lead to the marginalization of local people's views and interests (Conde & Le Billon, 2017). This has resulted in growing local resistance and community-company conflicts against MIDR projects. The issue of resistance against mining projects has developed into an important element of contemporary discourse on MIDR (Wilson, 2019). Current policies on MIDR encourage participation and involvement in the resettlement processes. A key emphasis within the World Bank and IFC guidance is upon early and ongoing participation by and consultation of affected people in resettlement planning and implementation. The World Bank in its Operational Manual on Involuntary Resettlement (OP/BP 4.12) demands that developers recognise and include project-affected people, ensuring that consultation is free of "manipulation, interference, and coercion". The Asian Development Bank and the IFC require consultation and participation from affected people. They indicate that consultation with PAP is the starting point for all mining resettlement activities. Resettlement affected people may be anxious about losing their livelihoods and communities or not be well prepared for complex negotiations over their entitlements. Participation in the resettlement planning process helps to reduce their worries and gives affected people an opportunity to partake in key decisions that will affect their lives. Projects are mandated to build the capacity of project-affected people and to put in place measures that empower project affected persons to contribute and share in the resettlement processes (ADB, 2012; World Bank, 2017). Participatory processes must be understanding of the local cultural context and supported by a gender analysis to ensure that women are able to participate in and influence resettlement, and contribute to the decision-making process (Vanclay, 2017). It is an assumption that choice plus better resettlement planning, participation as well as resourcing will eventually increase the chances of successful resettlement projects (Adam, 2019). However, existing studies have not explored in-depth the impact of development projects on different groups of people. Project affected people have rather been regarded as a genderless entity, instead of recognising that women and men have different needs and interests. Recent studies have shown that women and men experience displacement and resettlement in markedly different ways, with women often facing more severe economic, social, and psychological impacts (Melketo et al., 2023). Despite constituting a significant share of the informal mining workforce in Sub-Saharan Africa, women are frequently excluded from compensation schemes, decision-making, and post-resettlement livelihood recovery processes (Ofosu et al., 2024). In Ghana specifically, coping behaviours adopted by project-affected women demonstrate the compounding effects of disrupted access to land, labour, and social support systems (Peprah & Amoako, 2022). In broader displacement contexts across Africa, nearly half of all displaced women experience some form of gender-based violence, a situation made worse by weak protection structures and disjointed service delivery (Issaka & Amoah, 2024). Furthermore, regional assessments have revealed persistent gender gaps in resettlement programmes, with displaced women remaining underserved in terms of access to land, security, services, and meaningful participation

in planning and implementation processes (Intergovernmental Authority on Development [IGAD], 2025). There exists extensive literature on mining-induced displacement and resettlement (Adam, 2019; Owen & Kemp, 201 6; Terminski, 2012, 2015; Wilson, 2019; Yankson, 2010). For instance, Yankson (2010) report on how mining and resettlement affect economic activities and causes loss of farm lands, local livelihoods and grazing land. Some studies showed how resettlement affects the environment. For example, Schmidt-Soltau (2003) and Tan and Yao (2006) indicate how resettlement has resulted in unsustainable farming methods and destruction to local vegetation as a result of intensive agricultural activities and threat to forest resources stemming from overdependence on fuelwood. Conversely, there are limited empirical studies on how governance is mainstreamed into the resettlement process particularly, the influence of governance on the resettlement process and how that affects women and men since literature indicates that each gender experiences resettlement impacts differently. In other instances, researchers have explicitly established the links between the failure of resettlement programs and the weaknesses of the project's livelihood reconstruction approach; but have focused their interests on the emergence of social conflicts or social movements that have followed (Adam et al., 2015). In an empirical study on the determinants of social conflicts in the mining sector, Haslam and Tanimoune (2016) express that livelihood concerns, competition for arable land, and scarcity of agricultural opportunities aggravate tension and conflicts between mining companies and local communities. This explores the involvement of affected people in the resettlement planning process and their perception of the process by using good governance as the framework for analysis. Hence, the thrust of the study was to explore how resettled communities perceive the resettlement process through the lens of Lockwood et al.'s (2019) good governance principles of Legitimacy, Transparency, Accountability, Inclusiveness, Fairness, Integration, Capability and Adaptability. This is to understand the governance of the resettlement process from a gendered perspective. Specifically, it examines the gender-based perception of the governance of the resettlement process under the Newmont Ahafo project at the Asutifi North District of Ghana. There are several scholarly works on MIDR (e.g. Owen, 2014; Kemp et al., 2017; Wilson, 2019; Adam, 2019; Asiamah, 2015; Vu, 2012; Rahim, 2019). Kemp and Owen (2013) suggest that the inability of mining companies to offer better livelihood opportunities can affect community-company relations. These connections can turn into several social risks as well as threaten the sustainability of the entire mining industry worldwide and also affect the prospects of economic benefits that communities and governments want from mining investments. Therefore, research into better outcomes is essential (Adam, 2019). The study informs mining companies and other stakeholders on the perception of the resettlement community with respect to the governance of the resettlement process and how affected persons can properly be engaged and involved in planning sustainable resettlement projects. Following the introduction, section two provides a review of relevant literature and a framework for the study. Section three describes the study area and the methodology. Section four presents the results and an analysis of the data. Section five concludes the study with key arguments and recommendations.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Development-Induced Displacement and Resettlement

Globally, Development-induced displacement and resettlement (DIDR) is a significant issue. Terminski (2015) discusses how development -induced displacement and resettlement (DIDR) is a major socio-economic issue linked with loss or significant reduction in the access to natural resources on which communities depend. Large scale extraction of natural resources such as mining as well as large scale forestry projects and construction of infrastructure projects such as dams, roads and bridges as well as irrigation projects require land usually in large size. One common result of such projects is the disruption and displacement of communities. Terminski (2015) estimates that about fifteen million people are displaced every year because of these development projects. For example, dam projects, according to Koenig (2001) are the best studied example of development-induced displacement and resettlement (DIDR). They displace people from the reservoir area and disrupt social systems and ecosystems both upstream and downstream. Among World Bank projects that involved displacement, 63% of the people displaced were done so by dams (World Bank, 1994). They are, however, not the only reason for DIDR. Over four decades of scholarships show that displaced people often experience extreme levels of poverty and struggle with impoverishment. It has been clear that those displaced by development initiatives have usually not benefited from them. Instead, they are more often impoverished, as they lose economic, social, and cultural resources while the new benefits go to others (Koenig, 2001; Adam, 2019). For instance, in India, it was reported that mining accounted for the displacement of more than 2.5 million people between 1950 and 2000 (Terminski, 2013). Its impact in Africa dates back to the early 1950s. The building of the Akosombo Dam on the Volta River is one of the most remarkable example of involuntary displacement in Africa. The outcome of this construction was that over 80,000 individuals were resettled. Approximately 52 new dwellings were constructed to serve the needs of the affected displaced people from more than 700 flooded communities. The direct effects of the construction of

the dam were the flooding of a part of the Volta River Basin and its upstream fields as well as the creation of the Volta Lake, which covers 3.6% of the total land area of Ghana (Terminski, 2013). The construction of a harbour in Tema in the 1950s affected over 12000 people (Acio , 2019). Asamoah (2012) found that, due to oil and gas projects, farmers in the Western Region of Ghana had been displaced and this has also caused livelihood stresses as they lost their livelihoods and the compensation packages provided were not adequate. He also noted that the projects have not been able to provide the people with alternative livelihood options thus increasing their vulnerability (Asamoah, 2014).

2.2 Mining-Induced Displacement and Resettlement

Mining-induced displacement and resettlement (MIDR) as a form of DIDR which involves internal displacement as a direct result of the creation or expansion of mining areas. In a Bank -wide review of projects, Terminski (2013) indicates that mining has caused 10.3 percent of displacement and resettlement globally. Just like the other causes of DIDR, it is local people who are especially affected by this problem (Terminski, 2013). Mining displacement and resettlement have often resulted in negative socioeconomic and environmental impacts including loss of access to land and psychological and sociocultural stress (Agyei, 2007; Cernea, 2000; September 2010; Terminski, 2012). Studies further revealed that MIDR is frequently accompanied by losses of livelihoods and lead to the impoverishment of the displaced people (Agyei, 2007; September 2010). These impoverishments or impacts are manifested through several interlinked impacts such as landlessness, homelessness, joblessness, loss of access to common property resources, marginalisation, food insecurity, morbidity and mortality, social disarticulation and uncertainty (Patel et al., 2015). Terminski (2013) discovered in his study that the mining of coal, bauxites, iron, diamonds, gold and copper is a frequent cause of development-induced displacement in Africa. For example, mining in the Tarkwa area in Ghana caused the displacement of about 30,000 people between 1990 and 1998 (Terminski, 2013). Similarly, between 2013 and 2015 the Abosso Goldfields resettled 4 households (an average of 16 persons). Newmont Ahafo Mines also displaced between 10,000 and 20,000 landlords during the first and second phases of the company's operations respectively (Ghana News Agency, 2008). While both males and females are affected by mining-induced displacement and resettlement, there is evidence to show that women experience these impacts differently relative to men (Lahiri-Dutt, 2012; Mehta & Srinivasan, 2000). Recent studies continue to draw attention to the differentiated experiences of MIDR, particularly from a gendered and governance perspective. Van der Ploeg and Vanclay (2017) emphasise the importance of a human rights-based approach to displacement, arguing that project-affected people, especially women, must be recognised as rights -holders within governance processes. Owen and Kemp (2021) also note that contemporary resettlement practices often fail to fully address the rebound risks and longer-term socio-economic marginalisation experienced by displaced populations. Furthermore, the World Bank's updated Environmental and Social Framework (2023) reiterates the need for inclusive, accountable, and transparent stakeholder engagement in all phases of resettlement, with special attention to vulnerable groups such as women, migrants and the elderly. These recent contributions reaffirm earlier concerns about how governance, when poorly executed, exacerbates existing inequalities and creates new vulnerabilities, especially in rural agrarian contexts like those observed in Ghana. With landlessness, whole or part of previously inhabited land may be lost. There is also the issue of lack of access to common property resources. The result of lack of access to resources that communities depend on is a fall in the economic productivity of villages along with adverse social changes. Kemp et al. (2013) revealed in their study that, landlords have been relegated to tenants due to loss of lands. Landlessness also occurs because of the scarcity of land as well as the inability of resettlers to own land titles due to the high cost of land. Farmers are unable to travel to distant farmlands because of the cost involved (Ackuayi et al., 2014; Terminski, 2012). Change in land use, size and quality as a result of resettlement affected resettled women in a way that makes them further impoverish ed (Bui et al., 2013; Phonepraseuth, 2012). Relocation as a result of mining may result in loss of economic power, redundancy of skills, loss of markets, and breakdown of economic networks. As a result, the risk of losing employment is high (September, 2010). For instance, with the Newmont Akyem project, tenants and caretaker farmers have been rendered jobless due to the disengagement of their services by landowners (Kemp et al, 2013). In the same way, Kemp et al. (2013) found out that petty traders and food vendors who were mostly women and have been resettled suffered job losses because of the low patronage of their goods and services at their new location, forcing them to close down their businesses. Some studies also report the loss of jobs and lack of employment opportunities for most residents in the resettled areas (Lilywhite et al., 2015; Madebwe et al., 2011).

2.2.1 Resettlement

Resettlement deals with physical, pre-planned relocation, including proper support mechanisms, as well as social support, in the new relocated location (Terminski, 2013). According to the UN (2005), resettlement can only be voluntary, if it is based on the Free, Prior, and Informed Consent (FPIC) of the affected people. FPIC is a concept that is widely accepted as an effort to provide an opportunity for local or indigenous people to easily participate in decisions making process of activities that affect them.

Schmidt-Soltau and Brockington (2007) assert that FPIC enables rights bearers to state their rights while the onus lies on duty -bearers to ensure that the criteria for "free," "prior," and "informed" are truly met by educating the NGOs and government agencies facilitating the decisions, preventing forced implementation of FPIC. In the various definitions, two different dimensions emerge and these are; resettlement can either be voluntary, meaning, the people will be willing to move because of the effects of a development project or involuntary if the people are forced to move. The World Bank (2004) defines resettlement as involuntary when affected people cannot exercise informed consent or power of choice. Affected people are believed to provide informed consent when they are engaged and have a comprehensive understanding of the implications and consequences of the decision to resettle and also agree to be resettled. The power of choice also indicates that the affected people will not experience any negative consequences should they decide not to be resettled. The International Finance Cooperation (IFC) defines involuntary resettlement in the following terms: "Resettlement is considered involuntary when affected individuals or communities do not have the right to refuse land acquisition that results in displacement . This occurs in cases of: (i) lawful expropriation or restrictions on land use based on eminent domain (Such restriction may include restrictions of access to legally designated nature conservation areas) and (ii) negotiated settlements in which the buyer can resort to expropriation or impose legal restrictions on land use if negotiations with the seller fail" (IFC, 2012). The term "resettlement" is used in situations where relocation is dependent on earlier plans with public consultations with affected individuals, normally in addition to enough support systems in the new place that affected people will be resettled. The costs of physical relocation and the depletion of former resources are consequently compensated for by the support received in the new location. As a research and practice field, resettlement' similarly tackles concerns related to economic displacement, which happens when there is no need to physically move people . However, their income generating strategies or their means of making a livelihood are negatively affected by activities of land -taking projects (e.g., fishing grounds, loss of access to farmland etc.) (Vanclay, 2017). Ramsey (2017) underscores that depending on the circumstance, resettlement can cover the acquisition of land and physical structures, relocation, and/or the economic rehabilitation of displaced persons to improve – or at least restore – livelihoods and living standards. In Ghana, resettlement is another legal requirement of a mining leaseholder if the activities will involve the displacement of inhabitants. According to Minerals and Mining (Compensation and Resettlement) Regulations, 2012 section 6(1), it states: "subject to the Act, where the operations of the holder of a mining lease involve the displacement of inhabitants shall be resettled by the holder on suitable alternative land and the resettlement shall have regard to the economic well -being and socio-cultural values of the persons to be resettled, with the objective to improve the livelihoods and standards of the living of those persons".

3. Materials and Methods

3.1 Study Area

The study was carried out at the Ola Resettlement Village in the Asutifi North District of the Ahafo Region (Figure 3.1) . The district lies between latitude 6° 40' and 7° 15' North and Latitude 2° 15' and 2° 45' West. It shares boundaries with Sunyani Municipal to the North, Tano North and South to the Northeast, Dormaa East district to the Northwest, Dormaa Central Municipal to the West, Asutifi South district to the Southeast and Asunafo North Municipal to the southwest. The district covers a total land area of 936 km2 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010) . The population of the district according to the 2010 population and housing census is 52,259 with 26,76 males, and 25,498 females (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). The majority of the people depend on farming as their source of livelihood and the major means of employment. The population consists of farmers with limited income because of low output from small family farms.

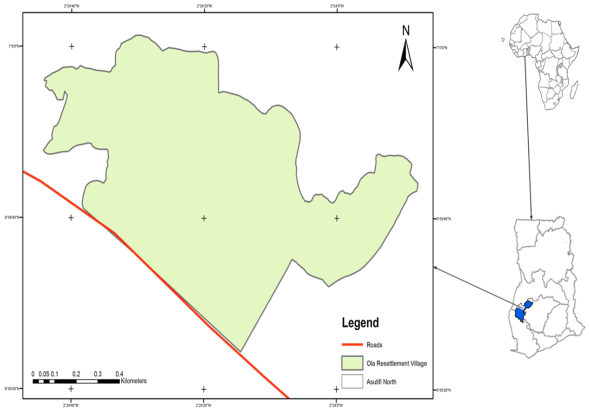

Figure 1. Study Area Source: Author's construct 2021

The district lies within the moist semi-deciduous forest zone marked by double maxima rainfall accounting for agricultural activities as the dominant land use (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). Agriculture is the dominant livelihood activity, accounting for about 66.7% of the labour force. This reflects in the agrarian nature of the local economy. Major food crops produced include cereals, legumes, plantain, yam, cocoyam, vegetables and cassava . Women make a large part of the agricultural workforce and generate the majority of non -farm income.

Over 90% of those who engage in non - agricultural activities are still involved in agriculture as a secondary livelihood activity (Antwi et al., 2017; Ghana Statistical Service, 2010; Newmont RAP, 2005). Newmont Ghana Gold Limited's (NGGL's) Ahafo Mine project is located within the Asutifi District of the Ahafo Region of Ghana, West Africa. The Ahafo mine is Newmont's first African operation. The Project Area is located approximately 300 km northwest of the capital city, Accra, 107 km northwest of Kumasi, and 55 km south of Sunyani. The Ahafo Project presently covers 774 square kilometers of land under the mining and prospecting licenses and 834 square kilometers of land covered by reconnaissance licenses and an approximate 48km strike length. It has two sections, Ahafo North and Ahafo South, all consisting of 11pits. Active mining commenced at the Ahafo south mine in January 2006 with commercial production beginning in July 2006. As of December 2010, the mine had 10 million ounces of gold reserves. The Ahafo project produced its first gold in 2006 and is expected to last for 20 years. It is an open-pit mining project, which destroys much more land than underground mining. The Ahafo project covers approximately 2,426 ha of farmland. As a result, a large number of people in that area have been affected. Roughly, 10,000 people in 10 communities in the vicinity of the mining have been directly affected and displaced by the project. According to the RAP report, impacted people are classified as 'physically displaced' or 'economically displaced'. The figures show that 5,185 people were physically displaced losing both residential buildings and cropped fields in the mine area, and 4,390 people were economically displaced through the loss of cropped fields (Mares, 2012; RAP, 2005). The Ahafo South Project has impacted approximately 1,705 households farming 2,426 hectares of land and 862 completed structures. Newmont constructed 402 resettlement houses with improved quality and associated facilities, in two planned and permitted resettlement communities close to the two main towns in the project area: Kenyasi No. 2 and Ntotroso. The Amoma Project was initiated in June 2008 to develop the fourth and final pit for the Ahafo South Project . The Amoma Project impacted 1,892 households. 1,538 households were compensated for the loss of crops or land, 758 households were compensated for unoccupied structures at a replacement valuation rate, and 55 households were resettled at the Ntotroso resettlement community. The Subika Pit Expansion Project was initiated in May 2009 to extend the life of mine of the Ahafo Project. This expansion required an additional 69.9 hectares of land in the Subika East area. 196 farmers were compensated for the loss of crops/land, 927 individuals were compensated for unoccupied structures at a replacement valuation rate, and 44 households were resettled in the Kenyasi No.1 and Kenyasi No. 2 resettlement sites. The Company has been working with these resettled communities to ensure that resettlement community infrastructure is maintained. The objective was to establish sustainable systems managed by the resettlement communities themselves and the District Assembly (Newmont Ghana-RAP, 2013).

3.2 Case Study Design

The study adopted a case study research design to examine the effects of mining activities of a mining company (Newmont Ghana Gold Limited) and its resettlement process particularly the governance aspect of the process as a case to study . May (2010) considers the case study as best suited for exploring the complex social phenomenon of the governance of the resettlement, using the OLA community as a case. The real-life nature of the current study which strives for a deep understanding of MIDR, resettlement, governance of the resettlement process justifies the adoption of the case study approach. In effect, the case study involves mixing qualitative and quantitative techniques, approaches, methods, language or concepts into a single study" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Particularly, Creswell (2012) proposed that combining both the qualitative with the quantitative technique could provide more meaning and depth to aid the exploration of issues in this case.

3.3 Data Collection Instruments

Two instruments were developed for the data collection: a semi -structured interview guide and a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed to elicit information from respondents who had lost their former dwellings as a result of Newmont's mining operations. The interviews focused on the key informants being government officials, opinion leaders who were either members of the Resettlement Negotiation Committee or community representatives. Key informants included 5 opinion leaders and 2 members from the Municipal Assembly who were also part of the Resettlement Negotiating Committee (Table 1). Key informants were chosen because of their direct involvement in the case study, and they have background information that was important for the questionnaire development . The opinion leaders had an understanding of the impact of the project on the people and had special knowledge with regard to the resettlement process. The Municipal Assembly representatives were part of the RNC and were privy to complaints from the affected people about their representatives as well as having first-hand knowledge of the resettlement planning and implementation. The information gathered from the key informants was able to aid in the construction of the questionnaire to make it relevant to the study. Interviewing each key informant took two hours.

A structured questionnaire was developed based on the literature on mining-induced displacement and resettlement and good governance (September, 2010; Terminski, 2013; Vu, 2012; Kemp et al., 2013; Lockwood et al., 2010; Asiama, 2015). The questionnaire covers the following:

Table 1. Respondents and key informants Selected

Key informants	No.
Household respondents	221
Assembly man	1
Opinion Leaders	4
District Stool Lands Officer	1
District Physical Planning Officer	1

Source: Field Survey, 2021

- Demographic characteristics of the respondents such as age, gender, occupation, income, marital status, ethnicity, religion etc.
- Effects of resettlement on the selected community.
- Extent of involvement in the resettlement process.
- Perception of the governance of the resettlement process using the criteria for good governance. The respondents assessed these criteria using a 5-point Likert scale. Likert scales permitted respondents to show the extent to which they agree with a statement to measure opinions, beliefs, and attitudes. The scale ranged from "strongly disagree" to strongly agree.

Pretesting of the questionnaire was undertaken on the 8th of April, 2021 to test its reliability by ensuring that errors identified were rectified. Ten questionnaires were administered at the Ntotroso resettlement village with similar experience as the case study. The pre-test helped reshape the questions to guarantee clarity.

3.4 Determination of Sample Size

The formula by Yamane (2009) $n = N/(1+Ne^2)$ was used to calculate the sample size. In the formula, n= corrected sample size, N = population size, and e = Margin of error (MoE), e = 0.05 based on the research condition. Thus, applying the formula for a population of 1,200 affected people.

$n = 1200/1 + 1200(.05)2$

$\approx$ 300 households

The sample size, therefore, was 300 affected people. Project Affected People in the area is approximately 12,000 and the sample size was 300 however because affected households were not willing to be interviewed, this study was only able to interview 221 of the affected population. The study used convenience sampling. With convenience sampling, the elements in the sample are selected by the researcher on the basis that the respondents meet certain realistic requirements like easy accessibility, geographical proximity, they happen to be in the right place at the right time and are willing and ready to participate in the study (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016). The reason for choosing this technique was that it was difficult reaching the respondents. They are mostly farmers, who leave home early (i.e., before 6 am) in the morning for farming and get home late at night (i.e., after 6 pm). Those who have to travel far to their farms most times sleep on the farms. Some of those who were present were not willing to be interviewed either because of research fatigue or believing that Newmont sent the researcher to fish for information from them under the disguise of being a researcher. The administration of the questionnaires at the Ola resettlement site began on the 12th of April, 2021 and ended on the 21st of April, 2021. The questionnaire was administered in the local dialect (i.e., Twi) which was familiar with the researcher and the respondents at their homes . The smaller sample size and the reliance on convenience sampling reduced representativeness and limits generalisability and are acknowledged as limitations. While the study provides useful insights into PAPs experiences, these methodological constraints should be considered when interpreting the quantitative results.

3.5 Ethical Considerations

The following ethical considerations were fully observed throughout the study : (i) seeking informed consent; (ii) assurance of anonymity and confidentiality; and (iii) guaranteeing privacy and safety of research participants and informants. All respondents and informants in this study were allowed the freedom to voluntarily participate or leave the interview at any point in time if they wished to . Interviews were audio -recorded with permission.

3.6 Data Analysis

Each variable in the questionnaires was coded and entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25. Basic statistics were used to explore demographic characteristics of respondents including age, gender, educational background, and marital status. The output of the analysis covering frequencies, means and standard deviation were displayed in tables. Further Independent -samples t -test analysis was conducted to examine the differences in how each gender experiences MIDR effects as well as perceptions of the governance of the resettlement process based on gender. Lastly, the audio recordings of the interviews from the informants were transcribed and saved as word files. Each transcript was read again and coded manually. The codes were accumulated and regrouped into a list of common themes or concepts with appropriate references from the texts and these materials were used for supporting and justifying identified thematic areas. The varied themes that appeared from the data were summarised as indicated in the results section.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Out of the estimated sample of 300 respondents, 221 respondents were sampled. The majority of the respondents were males (60.6%) while female respondents accounted for the remaining 39.4%. Most of the respondents were between 25 and 64 years of age as indicated in Table 4.1. This is important in situations where respondents were supposed to give a retrospective account of their experiences of the resettlement process. From the data, it was found that a large percentage of respondents fell within the prime working -age group of 25 -54 years representing 62.4% while the mature working age group of 55 -64 years represented 53% of the respondents. The elderly group of respondents were over 65 years, representing 30% of the sample. As evident in Table 2, the majority of respondents (48.9%) have no formal education while 18.1% had primary education, 23.5% had been educated up to middle school, 7.7% of respondents had attended senior high school/SSS while tertiary graduates represented 1.9%. The educational background of the respondents was found to be generally low. A person's educational attainment correlates with their level of understanding of contemporary issues, and this enhances their participation in matters of governance and decision-making . The low level of education explains the poor capacity of the mining-affected communities to partake in negotiations for compensation (Burgi & Kumi, 2018). Even though a low level of education may not necessarily mean a lack of negotiating skills nor is it a sign of lack of economic capacity, it nonetheless equips project-affected people with the relevant information on which to base their negotiation decisions. It may probably be the reason why local communities are unable to gain employment with the mining company as this has rendered them unskilled and therefore unqualified for skilled or permanent jobs with mining companies. This educational gap also presents important implications for ensuring "free, prior, and informed consent" (FPIC) as required by global standards in involuntary resettlement. Genuine FPIC requires that affected people not only receive information but are also able to understand it and make voluntary, informed decisions. Given this, the study ensured that all research tools were administered in Twi and explained in simple, accessible terms to participants. Nonetheless, the limitation persists: without deliberate efforts to build capacity within affected communities, particularly for those with low literacy levels, the ability to fully engage in decision-making and claim entitlements remains constrained. This finding suggests the need for future resettlement processes to include structured community education and participatory training, particularly for women and migrants, to help bridge the gap between formal policies and practical implementation of FPIC. With regards to marital status, 80.5% of the respondents were married, 2.7% were single, while 12.2% of them were widowers/widows and 4.5% of them were divorced. This observation suggests that there are lots of responsibilities on the heads of the households and resettlement may potentially pose a risk to them. They possibly face impoverishment especially if resettlement planning and execution were poorly done . About 45.7% of the respondents were Ewes. They constituted 28.5%, Bonos were 5.9% while Northerners were 18.1%. The other ethnicities were Akyims (0.9%) and Akuapems (0.9%). This signifies that the majority of the respondents (project-affected people) were migrants from other parts of the country without legal rights over the land. As a result, the mining company did not deal directly with them but the traditional authority and families with ownership rights over the land during the resettlement process , giving little attention to the migrants who utilized the land for agricultural and other purposes . One of the migrant caretakers mentioned that:

> "*Newmont's activities have affected our lives so badly especially those of us who are not from here and do not own the lands. The farms we work on for our livelihoods to support our homes were taken without any compensation. Only the owners of the land/landlords were compensated and resettled. Most of these landlords/landowners did not give us some of the money or share the accommodations with us since we were no longer working for them*"

In a study by Vanclay (2017), he mentioned that some of the people located in a zone marked for resettlement may not have legal or customary tenure over the dwellings or land they occupy or utilise. He further explained that the international standards stipulate that the people have rights and they should be included in the resettlement process. He adds that even if they are not eligible to the full compensation package of the value of the house or land, they should however not be caused to become homeless as a consequence of the project's land acquisition needs and they should be supported in relocating and in re-establishing their livelihoods elsewhere.

In terms of occupation, farming remains the major source of employment and livelihood for the respondents . Table 4.1 shows that 80.1% of the respondents were engaged in crop farming as their main employment. The proportion engaged in farming is high as the area is endowed with fertile soil and a favourable climatic condition that supports the cultivation of both cash and food crops (GSS, 2010). This means that land is a very important resource for the people. Therefore, mining posed a serious threat to their livelihood and food security. The results revealed that the respondents were engaged in other secondary economic activities (non-farming). The most common secondary activity was trading, in which 10.9% of respondents were involved . The other activ-

ities were chainsaw operation (0.5%), artisans (2.7%), and teaching (0.5%) . 2.3% of the respondents work in the mining sector in various positions while 3.2% of the respondents were also unemployed. Table 3 below presents details of the socio-economic characteristics of respondents.

Table 2. Socio-Demographic characteristics of respondents.

Variable	Sample Size (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	134	60.6
Female	87	39.4
Age		
Prime working age (25-54)	138	62.4
Mature working age (55-64)	53	24
Elderly (65+)	30	13.6
Education		
No Education	108	48.9
Primary School	40	18
Middle School/JHS/JSS	52	23.5
Senior Sec. School/SHS	17	7.7
Tertiary	2	1.9
Occupation		
Farming	177	80
Non-farming	44	20
Marital Status		
Single	6	2.7
Married	178	80.5
Divorce	10	4.5
Widow/Widower	27	12.2
Ethnicity		
Indigenes	63	28.5
Migrants	158	71.5

Source: Field Survey, 2021

4.2 Resettlement Effects and Gender

This section examines the impacts of resettlement on the respondents. When asked about how resettlement has affected them, 91.9% of the respondents mentioned landlessness as an issue they were facing. 81% of them mentioned food insecurity and 75.1% listed loss of access to common resources. Also, 63.3% of the respondents mentioned joblessness while 32.6% of them said community disarticulation. Increased morbidity and mortality, interruption to education, marginalisation and homelessness followed at 16.3%, 9%, 8.6% and 7.2% respectively as indicated in Table 3.

Table 3. Resettlement effects

Effects	Sample Size (n)	Response	
		Yes (%)	No (%)
Landlessness	221	91.9	8.1
Homelessness	221	7.2	92.8
Food Insecurity	221	81	19
Joblessness	221	63.3	36.7
Marginalisation	221	8.6	91.4
Loss of access to common property resources	221	75.1	24.9
Increased morbidity and mortality	221	16.3	83.7
Community disarticulation	221	32.6	67.4
Interruption to education	221	9	91

Source: Field Survey, 2021

The results in Table 2 show that resettlement equally affected both men and women. As shown in Table 2, resettlement is adversely affecting both men and women in all areas of effects measured. However, even though they experience resettlement in terms of marginalization and morbidity and mortality, there were observed statistically significant differences between them. Studies show that people experience the effects of resettlement in a gendered way (Behrman et al., 2011; Mathur (2006); Lahiri-Dutt, 2012, Schopp, 2020). The effects of resettlement are sometimes biased with females being hard hit more than males (Mandishekwa & Mutenheri, 2020). Women are often burdened with several issues during and after the resettlement processes. Aside from losing their livelihoods, they also have to deal with traditionally assigned household tasks at the same time. Losing their livelihoods place them in a vulnerable situation and they become dependent on their husbands. This affects their ability to make decisions on their own. When women are faced with community disarticulation, their vulnerability increases this is because their safety nets are destroyed. Studies show that resettlement programs have generally intensified and strengthened existing gender inequalities within the relocated communities (Mandishekwa & Mutenheri, 2020). While Table 2 presents a general overview of the resettlement effects on both men and women, Table 3 introduces a more nuanced perspective by revealing statistically significant differences in specific areas such as marginalisation and morbidity/mortality. This suggests that, although both genders were broadly affected, women experienced disproportionate impacts in terms of health vulnerability and social exclusion. This aligns with the governance principle of inclusiveness, which appears to have been weakly applied in the planning and implementation of the resettlement. For instance, the limited involvement of women in decision -making structures and the absence of gender -specific support mechanisms meant that their distinct needs were not fully accounted for, thereby exacerbating their post-resettlement vulnerabilities. The lack of transparency in the allocation of resources such as farmland and housing also deepened tensions, particularly among migrant and female -headed households who were already marginalised within traditional land ownership systems. These governance gaps reflect broader issues of accountability and fairness that are central to Lockwood et al.'s (2010) good governance framework.

The findings in Table 3 confirms the assertion by Mathur (2013) that women become vulnerable in resettlement areas. In his opinion, many women lose their livelihoods because they normally take part in informal businesses as well as cultivate backyard gardens and they lose these when they are resettled. He added that the loss of neighbours and kin deepens their vulnerability as they depend on them for social assistance. Another dimension provided by Behrman et al. (2011) on the effects of resettlement on gender especially women is the lack of

Table 4. Resettlement effects based on gender

Resettlement Effects	Gender				
	Male		Female		
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Alpha Value
	%	%	%	%	
Landlessness	93.3	67	89.7	10.3	0.34ns
Homelessness	6.7	93.3	8	92	0.71ns
Food Insecurity	82.8	17.2	78.2	21.8	0.39ns
Joblessness	64.2	35.8	62.1	37.9	0.75ns
Marginalization	11.9	88.1	3.4	96.6	0.03*
Loss of access to common property resources	75.4	24.6	74.7	25.3	0.91ns
Increased morbidity and mortality	20.1	79.9	10.3	89.7	0.05*
Community disarticulation	35.8	64.2	27.6	72.4	0.20ns
Interruption to education	10.4	89.6	6.9	93.1	0.37ns

Source: Field Survey, 2021, NB: ns =statistically non-significant differences, * = significant

land rights and their subordinate position in the house or community. He also agrees that women suffer from being resettled away from friends, neighbours and relatives whom they rely on for social support and assistance. As mentioned above, 91.9% of participants lamented that there was limited access to land for farming. As a result, they had to pay exorbitant prices for farmland. They share the belief that resettlement had created a situation where they are forced to travel long distances in search of farmland. In effect, the exorbitant prices on farmland and distance travelled to access farmlands make engaging in farming for their livelihood uncertain. One of the respondents had this to say:

> *"Resettling us in this new environment has affected our farming activities because the parcel of land we got was small and securing new farming areas has been difficult because all the available areas are being farmed by the owners we came to meet here. For us, because farming has been our lifestyle, the land is everything to us. Now we have access to small areas of farmland, and these areas do not produce enough for us".*

Vanclay (2017) and Owen and Kemp (2014) assert that because of the strong attachment of local people to the land, there is the possibility of negative after -effects/risks when they are forcibly resettled elsewhere. Vanclay (2017) also found in his study that for people whose livelihoods depend on the land, losing the land ends in the loss of their sustenance or means of living. He added that if farmers can find the land of equal or better quality, restoring or improving their livelihoods may be possible. In terms of food security, mining activities compete with farming for land, and this has limited access to arable land for farming. As observed, 81.1% of respondents said they were experiencing food insecurity, and this was related to limited access to farmland in the resettled area. They mentioned that though Newmont Ghana Gold Limited instituted the Agriculture Improvement and Land Access Programme to ensure affected farmers have access to land for crop farming , the price of land as well as the distance they have to travel deterred many of them from accessing those farmlands. Also, they noted that they no longer have backyard gardens to augment food production, and they suffer low yields from their new farms because they are smaller-size farms. One of the women explained that:

> *"Even though we had farms, we also had backyard gardens where we came from. We rely on the gardens to complement what we harvest from our main farms. In this new environment, apart from the challenge of accessing farmlands, we cannot even have backyard gardens where we live because there is no area around to farm. This makes it difficult for us to make income from the low production from the small -size farms we have outside where we live now. Making it difficult to have enough food to feed our families and pay bills like electricity and school fees".*

The inability to maintain backyard gardens in the resettlement community has significant implications for women's livelihoods and autonomy. These small plots, though often undervalued in formal compensation frameworks, served as a vital buffer against food insecurity and a source of supplemental income, especially for women who used the produce for household consumption or petty trading. The loss of these spaces has not only affected nutritional intake but also increased women's economic dependence on male partners or other family members. This reduction in women's income-generating capacity limits their bargaining power within the household and constrains their ability to make independent financial decisions, a key indicator of gendered vulnerability. Moreover, the increased cost and time involve d in accessing distant farmlands places additional strain on women, who also bear the burden of domestic responsibilities. This underscores a failure to integrate gendered livelihood dynamics into resettlement planning and reflects gaps in both the capability and adaptability dimensions of governance as conceptualised in Lockwood et al.'s framework. The results in Table 2 show that resettlement affected both men and women in nearly all categories of impact. However, while the frequency of responses appears similar, Table 3 reveals statistically significant gender differences in specific areas such as marginalisation and morbidity/mortality. This suggests that, although both groups are broadly affected, the depth and nature of the impacts vary. Women, for instance, reported lower access to social support and experienced more disruption to caregiving responsibilities and health outcomes, particularly due to increased stress, food insecurity, and overburdening of domestic roles. Men, on the other hand, expressed loss primarily in terms of formal land ownership and economic roles. These nuanced distinctions align with the literature (Lahiri -Dutt, 2012; Mandishekwa & Mutenheri, 2020), which shows that gender roles and responsibilities shape how resettlement is experienced, even

when the indicators appear uniform. The presentation of results in both tables should therefore be understood as complementary: Table 2 highlights the widespread nature of the impacts, while Table 3 reveals how these impacts are unequally experienced by gender. The experience of low produce from their small -size farms, combined with lack of backyard gardens account for households' food and income insecurity in the new environment. The inability of households to produce enough for household consumption and to sell for income has contributed to food and income insecurity, affecting other household decisions such as paying school fees and electricity bills. The District Physical Planning Officer of Asutifi North Municipal Assembly explained that the experience of low food production has the potential to affect food security in the district. He remarked that:

> *"Looking at the way things are going , it will soon affect food production at the district as people are finding it difficult to find land to farm and those who can afford , have to commute long distances to be able to farm".*

The experience of low food production was also observed by Yankson (2010) and Kemp et al. (2013). They noted that displacement and resettlement affect food productivity and cited lack of farmland as a major factor. Concerning joblessness, the study found that caretaker farmers and tenant labourers have lost their source of livelihoods as a result of resettlement in a new environment where farming is a challenge . Others, such as herbalists and traditional healers who depended on the forest for its medicinal and spiritual values as sources of income have been impacted economically. An elderly woman also shared her sentiments by saying that :

> *"We used to sell firewood and palm oil but we ca n no longer do that, and we can also not get any jobs to do. We are home now , not doing anything as we cannot afford land around here to farm".*

A study by Kemp (2013) found out that tenants and caretaker farmers had become jobless because new landowners do not patronise their services. The study also revealed that petty traders and food vendors who were resettled had suffered job losses due to the low patronage of their goods and services at the resettlement sites compelling them to abandon their businesses. A woman mentioned that:

> *"I used to have a stall where I sell petty things but when we moved here, I couldn't sell again. I have no job now. Just sitting at home all day doing nothing".*

In terms of loss of access to common property resources, another major factor that contributes to impoverishment in the resettled community is limited access to and utilization of forest resources . The loss of common property resources affects women disproportionately. According to Lahiri -Dutt (2012), because women depend on and utilise more common property resources for domestic tasks like cooking, washing and cleaning, their ability to effectively maintain the home may potentially be compromised. In addition, because women depend on this forest -based work like selling charcoal and firewood, picking and selling wild fruits and vegetables to make their income and have easy to access resources like firewood, fodder, loss of access to these common resources affects not only the women but their families as well(Lahiri-Dutt, 2012).

In this case, the study revealed that 75.1% of respondents complained of loss of livelihoods because of lack of access to forest resources from which they derived firewood , bushmeat, palm fruit s and medicine. They noted having access to these resources in their former locations . However, they have been resettled in a new environment where accessing these resources is difficult, resulting in loss of food and income. This concern was articulated by the Assemblyman, who explained that:

> *"We have been moved far from the forest which has been the source of herbs and medicinal plants as well as bushmeat. The forest has been the community's sustenance. Lack of access to it in the new place has been a major issue for us".*

One of the women respondents complained that:

> *We have to walk far to get firewood or buy charcoal and this is expensive. We are already suffering from the number of things we have to buy here.*

Another respondent shared a similar sentiment about the lack of access to common property resources when he said:

> *"We have been deprived access to free mushroom, hunting, medicinal plants and other resources we were freely accessing or depending on at our old village. Most of us could depend on the forest for bushmeat and we were never buying meat. Over here at the resettlement site, the cost of meat and medicine is so expensive, and we spend a lot on these things".*

For poor people, loss of access to common property resources represents a major form of income and livelihood deterioration. This observation supports Cernea (2000)'s argument that the use of local common resources

is an important economic strategy for many indigenous communities. These resources enable them to carry out many of their daily economic activities: fishing, collecting firewood and food. As a result, losing access deepens their impoverishment. The loss of social safety nets is a common risk in mining-induced displacement and resettlement. Resettlement has had grave consequences for families as a close -knit social unit. New housing arrangements for resettled villages have disrupted long -established family networks in the community . Long -standing bonds and friendships with neighbours have been disrupted due to resettlement. In some cases , the housing units provided by Newmont has not conformed to the size of households. For example , a family with more rooms and large space was resettled in a house with a few rooms in a crowded space. Many of the respondents at the resettlement community complained of inadequate room space as well as external open space for domestic activities. An opinion leader lamented that:

> *"Most of our family members and neighbours who lived close to each other have been resettled far from each other. Some of them have also sold their houses and left either because of the hardships or to farm elsewhere".*

Another respondent added that:

> *"In the village, my neighbour used to carry my baby and take care of the kids while I go to the forest to find firewood, snails and mushrooms to sell to gain a little income to support my husband. We also used some of the snails and mushrooms for food in my house. Now, I don't have that support over here so now I don't work. We are suffering".*

Resettlement has disorganised some families . Marriages have collapsed because of resettlement. Heads of families who opted for relocation in place of resettlement collected cash compensation, absconded with the money and abandoned their families. Some of the men also accused mineworkers of using their wealth to "steal" their partners, wives and girlfriends.

4.3 Extent of Involvement in the Resettlement

Mining affected communities are expected to actively participate in the various levels of decision making, from planning to implementation. This is important for lessening the risks associated with mining-induced resettlement and for ensuring the sustainability of their livelihoods. It is for this reason that the study sought to find out the extent of involvement of the people in the resettlement process. This aligns with Reddy et. al. (2015), that "the 'active participation of people'" in the resettlement process is essential if there is to be any possibility of risk management and livelihood restoration. There is evidence to suggest that the more people are involved in decisions about how, where, and when they move, the more likely they are able to adapt to the situation and recover from the stress associated with being resettled" (Reddy et al. 2015). While meetings were held in Twi to enhance accessibility, limited literacy, and negotiation capacity constrained genuine informed consent. Respondents indicated that they often relied on local leaders or signed documents without fully understanding them, raising concerns about the depth of FPIC in practice. These challenges in understanding and providing informed consent highlight how governance of the resettlement process was experienced differently by men and women. Building on this, the study further explored respondents' perceptions of governance across key principles:

- **Legitimacy:** Women felt excluded from decision-making: "Decisions were made without asking women".
- **Transparency:** Many respondents lacked information about the resettlement process: "We were not told how compensation was calculated."
- **Accountability:** Participants expressed doubts about authorities' responsiveness: "No one listens when we report problems."
- **Participation/Inclusiveness:** Women reported limited involvement in planning: "We only learn about changes after they happen."
- **Equity/Fairness:** Gender disparities in benefits were noted: "The men got priority in receiving land and support."

These perceptions indicate weaknesses across governance principles, with women experiencing greater exclusion and inequity. The observed gendered impacts can be traced to specific governance failures. Lack of transparency in compensation allowed men greater access to resources, while women's concerns were often overlooked. Weak accountability meant grievances, especially those of women, went unaddressed. Limited participation excluded women from decision-making, and insufficient planning capacity led to delays and inequities. For example, lack of transparency in compensation processes meant women, who often lacked formal land rights, were excluded from direct payments. Weak planning capacity also undermined women's backyard farming and petty trading more severely than men's livelihoods. Together, these shortcomings contributed to differential outcomes for men and women during the resettlement process. These insights provide important context for interpreting the overall outcomes of the resettlement process.

5. Conclusion

With a particular focus on the Newmont Ahafo project in Ghana, this study critically explored how gendered

perceptions of the governance of mining-induced resettlement (MIDR) are expressed. Findings underscore that while both men and women are profoundly impacted by MIDR, women often experience disproportionate adverse effects. Key impacts include pervasive landlessness, food insecurity, joblessness, loss of access to common property resources, and community disarticulation. Due to marginalization, the loss of traditional livelihoods such as backyard gardens and forest resources (such as firewood, medicinal plants, and wild fruits), and the disruption of important social support networks, women are particularly vulnerable. Furthermore, migrant populations, often lacking legal tenure over land, are particularly vulnerable, frequently receiving no compensation despite their reliance on the land for livelihoods. The central argument is that project-affected people are often treated as a homogeneous group, overlooking critical gender-specific needs and roles, despite policies advocating for differentiated impact recognition and participation. The study underscores how urgently better gender-sensitive participatory methods for planning and carrying out resettlement is needed. To ensure sustainable outcomes, mining companies and stakeholders must better understand community perceptions of the resettlement governance process, specifically integrating principles of legitimacy, transparency, and inclusiveness from a gendered perspective. In order to successfully restore livelihoods and rebuild society, it is imperative that all impacted parties - particularly women and migrants - be appropriately involved and have their unique needs met. Based on the findings, directions for further studies include evaluating the long-term effectiveness of gender-sensitive livelihood restoration programs post-resettlement, focusing on economic self-sufficiency and social well-being. Also, there is the need to conducting comparative analyses of governance frameworks across different mining regions to identify best practices for ensuring equitable and inclusive MIDR processes for diverse affected populations, particularly vulnerable groups like migrant women. In practical terms, mining companies and state actors should consider adopting the following gender-sensitive governance strategies in future resettlement processes :

1. establish gender-disaggregated monitoring and evaluation systems to track differential impacts and participation levels;

2. create inclusive platforms that ensure women, especially from migrant and landless households, are actively involved in FPIC-related dialogues and decision-making bodies such as Resettlement Negotiation Committees;

3. design targeted livelihood restoration programs that reflect women's pre-resettlement economic activities, including support for backyard gardening, petty trading, and informal forest-based enterprises; and,

4. implement culturally appropriate communication tools (e.g., visual aids, radio, local drama) to engage low-literacy populations in understanding their rights and options. These steps will not only enhance legitimacy and inclusiveness but also promote more sustainable and equitable outcomes in mining induced resettlement governance.

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