

1 Abstract

2 Changes in land cover have persisted throughout the history of mankind, and are the direct and indirect
3 consequence of human actions to secure essential resources. Understanding direct and indirect factors that
4 influence land use cover change (LUCC) is essential for modelling future LUCC in developing countries. The
5 study analyses local drivers of LUCC in Southwestern Ghana using the mixed-method approach. The approach
6 aided in identifying key drivers of LUCC, using different research strategies for comparisons through
7 confidence level analysis and Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP). We used expert interviews, literature review
8 and geostatistical tools to ascertain causative factors triggering such unprecedented changes. Geospatial analysis
9 depicted a decline in forests (-1.65 km²yr⁻¹.) and areas covered by waterbodies (-0.55 km²yr⁻¹.). A remarkable
10 increase in built-up (+25.77 km²yr⁻¹.) and farmlands/shrubs (+7.4km²yr⁻¹.) areas were also observed. Population
11 growth, expansion of settlements and infrastructure, coupled with agricultural expansion are at the centre of the
12 LUCC-environment nexus, based on the confidence level table. A steady increase in surface temperature can be
13 attributed to the unprecedented LUCC over the past 50 years. Socio-economic development in Southwestern
14 Ghana is fuelling interest in the relation between LUCC and environmental change. Biophysical, cultural and
15 technological factors are also considered key drivers despite the “medium-to-very low confidence” in results
16 generated. They could potentially impact climate-sensitive sectors that significantly modify land-use systems
17 from the pessimists and optimist’s perspective. We, therefore, propose further analyses of LUCC drivers with
18 medium to very low confidence levels.

19

20 **Keywords:** Land Use Cover Change, Drivers, Confidence level, AHP, Southwestern Ghana

21

22 1. Introduction

23 Land use and forest management remain pivotal in achieving the United Nations’ Sustainable Development
24 Goals (SDGs). Studies have comprehensively reflected on the linkage between ‘Sustainability’ and Forest
25 Transition Theory ‘FTT’ (Rudel et al. 2010; Turner et al. 2007; Mather et al. 1998). When viewed through the
26 lens of the SDGs, making gains in FTT application may complement global efforts at achieving SDGs 1 (No
27 Poverty), 2 (End Hunger), 13 (Climate Action), and 15 (Life on Land) in various ways. Meyfroidt and Lambin
28 (2011), in their research on FTT, reinforced the connection between land use change dynamics and the FTT
29 concept, as seen in earlier studies such as Foley et al. (2005). Arguably, both studies implicitly and explicitly
30 provide opportunities for forest transition to ‘reinstate’ poorer, forest dependent populations into more
31 favourable socio-economic positions as access to natural capital becomes possible. This must however, be
32 supported by enabling factors, mainly a corruption free system. There is also a possibility for a non-realisation
33 of the ‘full potential’ of natural resource access alone in reducing poverty, considering arguments brought
34 forward by studies which explore the five capitals model (Fig.1) (Gazzola and Querci, 2017; Sim et al. 2004;
35 Angelsen and Wunder 2003; Smith and Scherr 2002; Hyden 1998). They argued that effective poverty reduction
36 is achieved when access to all five capitals (Fig.1) (Gazzola and Querci 2017) exist, hence, possibly
37 undermining positive forest transition outcomes in poverty alleviation; highly possible in the tropics and less
38 developed countries.

39 Systems responsible for sustainable use of forest resource are essential (Damnyag et al. 2017; FAO 2013) in
40 themselves, and for contributing to forest transition (Waggoner and Ausubel 2001). In the same vein, forest
41 transition can contribute to sustainable forest resource management (Lambin and Meyfroidt 2011). Land cover
42 requires robust use of the elements of Sustainable Forest Management (SFM); “extent of forest resources; forest
43 biodiversity; forest health and vitality; productive functions of forest resources; protective functions of forest
44 resources; socio-economic functions of forests; legal, policy and institutional framework” (FAO 2013). Various
45 studies support the central idea that efforts geared at the SFM elements remain critical for a fair forest resource
46 use regime across all facets of socio-economic status, underscored by transparency in the context of forest
47 transition (Rudel et al. 2020; Southworth et al. 2012; Lambin and Meyfroidt 2011; Meyfroidt and Lambin
48 2011). Concepts of “ecoconsumerism” (Meyfroidt and Lambin 2011), and “new corporate environmentalism”
49 (Nasi and Frost 2009), re-emphasise rigorous SFM approaches through forest transition. These ensure land
50 cover related benefits mainly ecosystem/ecological service advantages, and forest product use benefits among
51 others become, and remain (if existent), reality.

52 The human-environment relationship varies in time and space. LUCC is often caused by an interplay of multiple
53 factors (Tolessa et al. 2019; Lambin and Meyfroidt 2011; Sim 2004). The dynamic interactions result in diverse
54 chains and trajectories of change, depending upon the specific environmental, social, technological, political and
55 historical contexts from which they arise. In response to the growing demands of human survival and
56 developmental needs, the earth 's surface is continuously altered. Changes in land cover have persisted
57 throughout the history of mankind, and are the direct and indirect consequence of human actions to secure
58 essential resources (Mensah et al. 2019; Acheampong et al. 2018). Firstly, this may have occurred through
59 clearing of land for farming activities and hunting. These events accelerated substantially with the birth of
60 agriculture, resulting in the extensive clearing (deforestation) and management of terrestrial systems. More
61 recently, economic growth through industrialization has encouraged the concentration of human populations
62 within urban areas (urbanization) and the depopulation of rural areas, accompanied by the intensification of
63 agriculture in the most productive lands and the abandonment of marginal lands (Damnyag et al. 2017; Saad et
64 al. 2013; Ellis and Pontius 2010; Kusimi 2008). Biodiversity among other ecosystem end-points and functions
65 are often reduced dramatically by LUCC. When land is transformed from a primary forest to a farm, the loss of
66 forest species within deforested areas occurs. Similarly, undisturbed environments are relatively transformed to
67 more intensive uses, including livestock grazing, selective tree harvest and so on (Ellis and Pontius 2010).

68 Generally, using GIS and remote sensing techniques to identify, monitor and analyse changes on land are
69 essential in supporting state policies aimed at enhancing efficient utilization of land and other natural resources.
70 The Southwestern region of Ghana hosts two-thirds of Ghana's high forest zone and is the most endowed in
71 natural resources among the sixteen (16) administrative regions in Ghana. We undertook this study to analyse
72 the main drivers of LUCC in Southwestern Ghana using the mixed-method approach (MMA) (1970-2020). The
73 MMA employs both qualitative and quantitative strategies to identify and analyse both direct and indirect
74 factors that influence LUCC. It does not only detect changes but also validates information on dynamics in
75 environmental issues that provide strategic directions for policy-makers and inform the choices of local
76 communities. The present study identifies experts as relevant stakeholders, whose knowledge could be tapped to
77 enhance the understanding of land use systems in Southwestern Ghana. Contextually, only few studies have
78 attempted to quantify non-spatial/indirect drivers of LUCC (Kleemann et al. 2017; Jacobs et al. 2015; MA
79 2005). Long term residents and expert opinions are key in understanding why land use in the study area is
80 constantly changing, since the triggering effects constitute direct and indirect drivers of LUCC (Kleemann et al.
81 2017). Surprisingly, indirect drivers of LUCC cannot be quantified using spatial or economic tools. Hence, the
82 present study sought to employ the MMA to quantify both spatial and non-spatial drivers, aimed to enhance
83 comparisons, consistency and confidence in study findings.

84 **2. Methodology**

85 *2.1 Study area*

86 The study was conducted in Southwestern Ghana as part of a broad study that analysed spatiotemporal
87 development of land use systems and climate variability in Ghana between 1970 and 2020. The study domain
88 (Fig.2) is located on latitude 5.3902°N and longitude 2.1450°W. It currently covers an approximate surface area
89 of 23,921 km² (9,236 sq. mi) representing about 10 percent of Ghana's total land surface area. About 75 per cent
90 of Ghana's high forest vegetation among other natural resources can be found in the region. The study area is
91 embedded with two administrative regions; Western North and Western region.

92 *2.2 Image classification of land use systems*

93 In this study, six Landsat images archived for the given period (1970-2020) (Table 1) from Landsat 5 MSS,
94 Landsat 4 TM, Landsat 5 TM, Landsat 7 ETM+ and Landsat 8 OLI/TIRS were acquired from the United States
95 Geological Survey's (USGS) website (<http://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/>). ArcGIS 10.6, ENVI 5.0 and 5.3 were
96 used for the image pre-processing. Other image pre-processing procedures which were performed include image
97 calibration, layer stacking and supervised classification (Table 2).

98 *2.3 Change Detection Analysis*

99 Change detection analysis was run to ascertain the regularity of land use systems and its drivers in southwestern
100 Ghana (1970-2020). The present study applied image differencing, NDVI, post-classification and GIS

101 techniques in determining the spatiotemporal development of land use systems in the area. LUCC was computed
 102 based on the following expressions:

$$103 \quad \text{Change} \in \text{LUCC} (x^2) = \frac{\text{LUCC}_{\text{Current year}} - \text{LUCC}_{\text{Past year}}}{\text{LUCC}_{\text{Past year}}} \dots \text{Eqn 1}$$

$$104 \quad \% \text{Change} \in \text{LUCC} (x^2) = \frac{\text{LUCC}_{\text{Current year}} - \text{LUCC}_{\text{Past year}}}{\text{LUCC}_{\text{Past year}}} \times 100\% \dots \text{Eqn 2}$$

$$105 \quad \text{Rate of Change} \in \text{LUCC per year} = \left[\left(\frac{\text{LUCC}_{\text{Current year}} - \text{LUCC}_{\text{Past year}}}{\text{LUCC}_{\text{Past year}}} \right) \times 100\% \right] \div 50 \text{ years} \dots \text{Eqn 3}$$

106 The change detection statistics for the study period (1970-2020) was obtained using pixel count, area in km² and
 107 percentages for the purpose of analysis. This facilitated the generation of statistical data of change occurrence
 108 over the years in relation to each class.

109 2.4 Temperature analysis

110 2.4.1 Image Calibration (Radiance)

111 Radiometric correction (radiance) was done to rectify atmospheric effects and enhance clarity. There may be
 112 stripes in some of the images acquired; hence, subjected to gap-filling. Gap-filling was done for images that may
 113 have had stripes in them. Distortions in images were removed in the calibration process.

114 2.4.2 Digital Number (DN) to Radiance

115 The ETM+ DN values range between 0 and 255. A conversion of DN to spectral Radiance was done according
 116 to Coll et al. (2010) as retrieved from USGS Landsat User handbook. The mathematical expression below was
 117 used to determine the radiance for the study area.

$$118 \quad L_{\lambda} = \frac{(LMAX_{\lambda} - LMIN_{\lambda})}{(QCALMAX - QCALMIN)} \times (DN - QCALMIN) + LMIN_{\lambda} \dots \text{Eqn. 4}$$

120 Where L_{λ} is cell value as radiance in $W/(M^2 * sr * \mu m)$;

121 $LMAX_{\lambda}$ is the sensor spectral radiance that is scaled to $(QCALMAX)$ in $W/(M^2 * sr * \mu m)$; $LMIN_{\lambda}$ is the
 122 sensor spectral radiance that is scaled to $(QCALMIN)$ in $[W/(M^2 * sr * \mu m)]$. $(QCALMAX)$ is the
 123 maximum quantized calibrated pixel value to $LMAX_{\lambda}$ [DN], $(QCALMIN)$ is the minimum quantized
 124 calibrated pixel value corresponding to $LMIN_{\lambda}$ [DN]; and QCAL is the quantized calibrated pixel value [DN].
 125 Equation 4 can be observed from header files ETM+ and TM datasets from USGS website. The LMIN and
 126 LMAX are the spectral radiances for each band at digital numbers (DN) 1 and 255 for Landsat 7 ETM+, 1 and
 127 65535 for Landsat 8 OLI/TIRS. λ is the wavelength. This was done using ArcGIS 10.6.

128 Conversion of Spectral Radiance (L_{λ}) to Kelvin with emissivity value:

$$129 \quad T = \frac{K_2}{\ln \left(\frac{K_1 * E}{L_{\lambda}} + 1 \right)} \dots \text{Eqn. 5}$$

130 Therefore, k_1 and k_2 become a coefficient determined by effective wavelength of a satellite sensor. ETM+ and
 131 TM Thermal Band Calibration Constants (Avdan & Jovanovska 2016; Ghulam, 2010) are depicted in Table 2.1
 132 and Table 2.2.

133

134
$$BT = \frac{K_2}{\ln\left[\left(\frac{K_1}{L_\lambda}\right) + 1\right]} \dots \text{Eqn. 6}$$

135 *2.4.3 Conversion of Spectral radiance (L_λ) to Kelvin with emissivity value from Landsat 8*

136 ENVI 5.0 software was used for the correction of thermal band 10 in order to remove atmospheric distortions
 137 from the thermal infrared data. Since temperature is required in Degree Celsius ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) (T_c), results for various
 138 temperatures must be converted from Kelvin (K) (T_B) to degree Celsius ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) (T_c). Conversion of Kelvin to
 139 Degree Celsius:

140
$$T_c = T_B - 273.15 \dots \text{Eqn. 7}$$

141 Where T_B is value at satellite brightness temperature (K) and T_c is temperature in Degree Celsius.

142 *2.5 Data Collection*

143 A semi-structured questionnaire was designed and administered to some experts in the study area. It was
 144 categorized into six (6) sections (Annex III). “Experts” in this study is defined as individuals with extensive
 145 knowledge and experience in relation to the scope of this study and have lived or worked in the area for more
 146 than 20 years. In-depth interviews were conducted among 30 experts to ascertain the major drivers of LUCC.
 147 Experts were chosen based on willingness and availability to contribute to the study.

148 *2.6 Data Analysis*

149 *Mixed-method approach (MMA): Remote sensing analysis, expert interviews and literature review*

150 The approach was primarily used in IPCC’s fifth assessment report to validate the inconsistencies, associated
 151 with the various working groups’ reports on indirect drivers of LUCC (Kleemann et al. 2017; Jacobs et al.
 152 2015). The present study therefore sought to employ this appropriate technique to achieve its main objective.
 153 Excel and Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS Inc. Chicago, USA, version 16) software were
 154 employed to capture, clean and analyse the data collected. Descriptive statistics were employed in the analysis
 155 of data. Categorical variables were measured in percentages. Results from respondents’ knowledge were used to
 156 validate the outcome from satellite imagery over the study period. This clearly delineate major influences for the
 157 given period along with associated changes (consequences). The MMA designed for this study is presented in
 158 Fig.3.

159 *2.6.1 Confidence Level Analysis*

160 To express the validity and reliability of findings, we adopted the confidence level approach provided by
 161 Kleemann et al. (2017), Jacobs et al. (2015), based on Mastrandrea et al. (2011) for the IPCC AR5 and the
 162 Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MA, 2005). They employed a combination of agreement and evidence
 163 levels to evaluate confidence in the validation of findings. This parameter is important in ironing the degree of
 164 inconsistencies or inaccuracies in various approaches used. The present study modified the matrix model from
 165 the aforementioned studies by specifying the level of agreement and level of evidence for the respective
 166 methods (Table 3 and Table 4).

167 *2.7 Accuracy Assessment*

168 *Ground truthing*

169 Ground truthing sampled points were taken using a Mobile Data Collection Application (MDC). The samples
 170 were imported unto the Southwestern Ghana shapefile in ArcMap for verification. Samples taken for each class
 171 (Table 2) were divided/distributed based on area coverage. Thus, bare land (70), built-up areas (177),
 172 waterbodies (20), forests (104) and farmlands/shrubs (153) sampled points were taken from the field, making a
 173 total of five hundred and twenty-four (524) samples. The map for the sampled points for the various land cover
 174 types are shown in Annex IV. Therefore, accuracy assessment for this study was calculated as:

175
$$\text{Accuracy Assessment (A. A)} = \left[\left(\frac{ASP}{TSP} \right) \times 100 \dots \text{Eqn. 8} \right]$$

176 where:

177 ASP = Number of sample points that accurately falls on each required feature (ASP=493).

178 TSP = Number of total sample points generated (TSP=524).
 179 A.A = Accuracy Assessment [(493/524) X 100 =94.08%].
 180 Therefore, the present study had 94% accuracy over the study period considering the samples collected.

181 2.8 Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) model for Land Use Cover Change

182 The AHP is an analytical tool that uses hierarchical structures to present a problem, analyze and advance
 183 priorities for alternatives based on the judgment of the user with the aim of solving complex problems (Saaty,
 184 1980). This is based on pair-wise comparisons. Evaluation criteria and their weights are obtained per their
 185 importance. AHP analysis proceeds through the six steps (Saaty, 1980) as cited by Danumah et al. (2016):
 186 Breaking a complex unstructured problem down into its component factors; development of the AHP hierarchy;
 187 paired comparison matrix determined by imposing judgments; assigning values to subjective judgments and
 188 measuring the relative weights of each criteria; synthesize judgments to determine the priority variables and
 189 checking for consistency in assessments and judgments. The unique basic quality of AHP is the calculation of
 190 consistency ratio which reduces bias to a larger extent and determine how logical results are. If consistency ratio
 191 is less than or equal to 0.1, then the factor is considered as acceptable consistency. However, AHP approach is
 192 built on three levels as evident in Fig 3.1. Level 0 is linked to the main objective of the study; Level 1 shows
 193 criteria analysis which constitute biophysical and proximate/underlying factors whereas Level 2 lists the
 194 elements that constitute the biophysical and proximate factors (Danumah et al, 2016; Nejad et al. 2015;
 195 Chakraborty & Joshi, 2014; Pourghasemi et al. 2014; Saaty, 1980).
 196

197 2.8.1 Principles for selecting each weight factor (AHP)

198 The reason is to build a matrix to express the relative values of biophysical and proximate factors responsible
 199 for land use land cover change in a hierarchy. Experts of these judgments are assigned a number according to
 200 Saaty's scale. A basic, but very reasonable assumption is that if for example element A is very strongly
 201 important than element B then A is assigned 7, whereas B becomes less important than A and B is valued at 1/7.
 202 A pair-wise comparison was carried out for all listed factors and their relative weights were calculated
 203 (eigenvector). Finally, the consistency ratio (CR) was calculated to determine whether consistency in results
 204 have been relative to large samples of purely random results. Therefore, a CR > 0.1 indicates the judgements
 205 maybe unreliable and the whole exercise must be re-conducted.

206 2.8.2 Pairwise Comparison

207 The binary combination is based on Saaty's (1980) proposition to compare risk and impact elements whilst the
 208 pairwise comparison is the basic element of AHP process. For pairing in each criterion, the preferable element is
 209 weighted on the scale ranging from 1 (equally good) to 9 (absolutely better), whereas the less preferred element
 210 is assigned a weight, reciprocal to this value. Each score shows how better element "X" meets criterion "Y".
 211 The ratings are normalized, and their consistency are being calculated (Table 4.1).
 212

213 2.8.3 Development and Prioritization Matrix

214 Developing and prioritizing matrix are done to determine the eigenvectors (V_p) of each criterion for each item
 215 as expressed in eqn.9 where;

$$216 \quad V_p = n \sqrt{W_1 \times \dots \times W_n} \dots \text{eqn}(9)$$

217 n represents the number of parameters. W_n ratings are the main parameters. The criteria weight (C_p) is
 218 measured as:

$$219 \quad C_w = \frac{V_p}{V_p 1 + \dots + V_p n} \dots \text{eqn}(10)$$

220 The sum of criteria weights (C_w) of all parameters of a matrix equals 1 and expressed as a percentage.
 221 Normalize the matrix by dividing each element by the sum of the column as well as finding the average value of
 222 each line to determine the priority vector [C]. Multiply each column of the matrix by the priority vector that
 223 corresponds to decide the overall priority [D].

224 Moreover, each global priority is divided by the priority vector that corresponds to it to find the rational priority
 225 [E]. Equation 11 shows how the maximum Eigen Value (λ_{max}) is calculated;
 226

$$227 \quad \lambda_{max} = \frac{[E]}{n} \dots \text{eqn}(11)$$

228 and Consistency Index (CI) is measured as:

$$229 \quad CI = (\lambda_{max} - n) / (n - 1) \dots \text{eqn}(12)$$

230
231 The CR is calculated using eqn. (13). The ratio of consistency is the probability that the croak is accomplished
232 in a random manner. When $CR \leq 10\%$, the results are considered to be pragmatic. However, a $CR > 10\%$
233 indicates the need to revise the entire process again.

234
$$CR = \frac{CI}{RI} \dots \text{eqn}(13)$$

235 **(RI)** represents the random index. The values for the random index (RI) are depicted in Table 4.2.

236

237 3. Results

238 3.1 Sociodemographic characteristics of respondents

239 Majority of the respondents interviewed were males (87%) whilst the remaining quota (13%) represented
240 females in SW Ghana (Table 5). The distribution below (Table 5) shows 53% of respondents had an age range
241 of 26-40 years while 47% ranged between 41-65 years. In terms of educational background, 27% of respondents
242 had attained secondary education while 73% had obtained tertiary education with various degrees. Also, most
243 (73%) of the respondents had been living or working in the study area for (± 28) years. The remaining quota
244 (27%) on the other hand asserted they have been living or working in the area for (± 10) years.

245 3.2 Drivers of Land Use Cover Change

246 An array of factors that influence land cover types at the local, regional, national, continental and global scales
247 are often anthropocentric and biophysical in nature. We identified over eight (8) major factors (proximate/
248 underlying) that drive LUCC in Southwestern Ghana. Key historical events along with some direct and
249 underlying (indirect) drivers of LUCC as well as transitions are the implications of altercations drawn from the
250 findings of existing literature (Table 7), expert interviews (Table 9) and spatial analysis generated for the present
251 study (Fig.4). Results presented in Table 6 shows an area coverage for each class (sq.km) and evidence of
252 considerable LUCC patterns in Southwestern Ghana between 1970 and 2020 (Fig.4). The main land use feature
253 that increased progressively over the study period was built-up and farmlands/shrubs (Fig.6, Fig.9 and Fig.10).
254 Additionally, bare land, waterbodies and forest areas experienced dynamic ebb over the given study period.

255 3.3 Temperature Analysis

256 Fig. 5 indicates temperature range on average was between 27.78° C and 20.23 ° C in the 1970s. However, the
257 average temperature range for 1980s was between 30.44° C and 27.78 ° C, which could be attributed to
258 biophysical factors (i.e., famine that occurred in the 1980s), which caused significant rise in surface
259 temperatures in the study area. The range for the 1990s was between 28.88° C and 25.45 ° C. Average
260 temperature range for 2000, 2010 and 2020 were between 30.12° C and 23.67° C, 31.66° C and 24.44° C, as well
261 as 33.76° C and 24.54° C, respectively.

262

263 Generally, the overall conversions of LUCC systems (land cover changes between periods) as depicted in Fig. 6
264 and Fig. 7 indicate bare land decreased at a rate of 18.06% (with 0.36% decline per year), built-up increased at a
265 rate of 1288.36% (with 25.77% increase per year), waterbodies declined by 27.39% (with 0.55% decline per
266 year), farmlands and shrubs increased by 369.81% (at a rate of 7.4% increase each year) whilst forests over the
267 study period declined by 82.41% (at a rate of 1.65% each year) as illustrated in Fig.7. Summary of existing
268 literature on major events and land use studies in Southwestern Ghana (1970-2020) are presented in Table 7.
269 Table 8 presents description of experts' rank on most influential drivers of LUCC in the study area whilst Table
270 9 shows confidence level analysis based on the MMA to ascertain local drivers of LUCC.

271 3.4 AHP Drivers of Land Use Cover Change

272 The risk factors stated by the study comprised biophysical and proximate/underlying drivers that influence
273 LUCC in Southwestern Ghana (Tables 10 and 10.1).

274

275 3.4.1 Interpretation of results

276 The value of Consistency ratio (CR) of the drivers on the pair-wise matrix is 0.01. Therefore, it can be
277 concluded that the outlined drivers in the pair-wise matrix is reasonably consistent. Hence, these criteria weights
278 can be used (Table 10.1): High Temperature (**HT**) is given 30.88% weight representing the highest ranked
279 biophysical driver and in descending order of severity, Bushfires/Wildfires (**BFW**) having 22.62% weight,
280 Unpredicted/Fluctuations in rainfall patterns (**UFRP**) given 17.80% weighting, Floods (**FI**) and Famine (**F**)
281 assigned 11.16% weighting respectively, whereas soil quality (**SQ**) obtained 6.37% weighting.

282 3.4.2 Proximate or Underlying Drivers of Land Use Cover Change

283 Pairwise comparison matrix of proximate/underlying factors are presented in Table 10.2. Table 10.3 shows the
284 calculated consistency of proximate/underlying drivers of LUCC. Deforestation (**D**), Settlements (**S**)
285 Mining/infrastructure (**MI**); Migration (**M**) and Population Growth and Distribution (**PGD**) are given 12.94%
286 respectively; Agriculture Expansion (**AE**) and Poverty (**P**) again received 7.34% weightings; Wood Extraction
287 (**WE**) and Setting up Profit Oriented Industries (**SPOI**) obtained 4.12% weightings while Technology (**T**);
288 Weak Governance, Monitoring & Enforcement Mechanisms (**WGMEM**) and Cultural Values, Behaviours and
289 Beliefs (**CVBB**) received 4.12% weightings. Fig. 8 was designed based on the weightings assigned to elements
290 against pairwise comparisons. The pair-wise matrices were normalized, and their consistency were calculated as
291 shown in Tables 10, 10.1, 10.2 and 10.3.

292 4. Discussion

293 4.1 Land use cover change in Southwestern Ghana

294 Per the conversions in various land cover types observed in Fig.4, Fig.6, Fig. 9, Fig. 10 and Fig.11, there is
295 evidence of expansion in farmlands/shrubs and built-up areas over the given study period. Additionally,
296 previous studies and experts' assertion highlighted in Table 7 and 8 respectively, illustrate recurrent changes in
297 the study area. Findings based on geo-statistical analysis illustrated drastic increase in farmlands/shrubs
298 (+369.81%) and built-up areas (+1288.36%) at the expense of a reduction in forested areas (-82%), waterbodies
299 (-27%) and bare land (-18.06). Conversely, 73% of experts asserted that there has a decline in forest areas in
300 Southwestern Ghana over the past 50 years. Results agree with the standpoints of Kusimi (2008), Damnyag et
301 al. (2017), Kleemann et al. (2017), Acheampong et al. (2018) and Mensah et al. (2019), who attributed loss of
302 forests areas over the past few decades to several socio-economic factors like rapid urbanization, population
303 growth and distribution, agriculture and infrastructure expansion.

304 4.2 Identified drivers of LUCC based on Confidence level results

305 In this study, results from expert interviews revealed the substantial increase in built-up areas. Specifically,
306 settlements and infrastructure are linked to the rapid growth in human population. All the respondents affirmed
307 there had been a remarkable increase in human population over the past 50 years. The rapid growth in
308 population based on experts interviewed were attributed to migration of people from other regions and towns of
309 neighbouring countries. 53% of the experts asserted migration was the main cause of increasing population in
310 the region, while 13% revealed high birth rate as the cause; with 33% attributing the reason to both migration
311 and high birth rate. During the course of the interview, it was revealed people primarily migrated to
312 Southwestern Ghana due to the region's endowment in natural resources. Most common activities constitute
313 illegal small-scale mining, farming and construction works. Majority (77%) opined population growth
314 exacerbated pressure on land, mineral and forest resources in the region. Hence, the conversion of forest, bare
315 land and areas covered by waterbodies into built-up (Fig.6).

316 Considering the outcome presented in Table 9, it is evident that there is robust evidence and high agreement
317 between the three methods. Therefore, experts' assertion of some proximate and underlying economic factors
318 like deforestation of trees for foreign exchange and other domestic purposes, mining and oil exploration,
319 population growth, poverty, migration among others, corroborate with the results of the spatial analysis (Fig.4)
320 (Fig.6) and some previous studies conducted in Southwestern Ghana (Kusimi (2008); Damnyag et al. (2017);
321 Kleemann et al. (2017); Acheampong et al. (2018) and Mensah et al. 2019). It can clearly be stated that there is
322 "very high confidence" in the aforementioned drivers identified in this study. Results proved these economic
323 driving forces causing the unprecedented LUCC in the region are influenced by some macro and micro-
324 economic factors, primarily state policies, aimed towards poverty alleviation or improving living standards, as
325 presented in Table 7. Intensification and extensification of agricultural activities (Table 9) (Fig.4 and Fig.6) in
326 the area over the study period have been linked to the citizenry resorting to use of traditional and reserved lands
327 and forest reserves (encroaching protected areas) as well as other natural resources as the last resort to
328 employment. Experts revealed deforestation in the area was on the ascendancy due to extensiveness of farming
329 activities. They further revealed an increase in producer price of some commodities like cocoa on the
330 international and domestic markets in recent times motivated most locals to venture into farming. This has
331 resulted in cash cropping regimes, having a bearing on land cover change in the area. Among the major crops
332 cultivated in the area as revealed by the experts and existing literature (Damnyag et al. Al 2017; Noponen et al.
333 2014) constitute cocoa rubber, plantain, cassava and cocoyam. However, unfavourable climatic conditions
334 coupled with rapid increase in illegal small-scale mining commonly known in local terms as "Galamsey
335 (connotes gather and sell)", have propelled most of the youth to venture into mining instead of agriculture today.

336 Moreover, geospatial analysis presented in Fig.4 and Fig.6 between 1980 and 2000 presents significant changes
337 through a reduction in areas covered by natural forests, and a substantial increase in farmlands/shrubs and built-
338 up areas. Ghana in the early 1980s, specifically 1983 experienced famine along with recorded incidents of
339 wildfires which claimed several forests and farmlands, thereby influencing prevailing micro-climatic conditions,
340 specifically temperature. Post-famine period saw the formulation and effective implementation of an “Economic
341 Recovery and Stabilization Program (ERP) in 1983” that boosted agriculture with the intention of enhancing
342 food production and improving living standards. Provision of basic amenities and construction of quality
343 transportation networks was intensified. These policies within the said period caused several conversions and
344 modification of several land cover types. Despite the amplitude of several structural transformation programs to
345 change Ghana’s economy (2000-2020) from a raw to a manufacturing/industrialized economy, the country’s
346 commitment and zeal to achieve the SDGs 1, 2, 13 and 15 in recent years have significantly altered land use
347 systems and prevailing micro-climatic conditions in the region (Table 7) (Fig.5) (Abbam et al. 2018; Aduah and
348 Baffoe, 2013; Aduah et al. 2012; Logah et al. 2011). It was during the 1980-2000 era that natural factors
349 significantly influenced modification of land cover systems. From the lens of the pessimists, despite increasing
350 temperature (Fig.5) and recorded incidents of flood events in recent periods (Abbam et al. 2018; Damnyag et al.
351 2017), major events like prolonged dryness/famine, wildfires, flooding among others, have minimum influence
352 on causing significant changes in land use systems. This however, reflected in responses given by the experts
353 interviewed. As observed in Table 8, biophysical factors (5th) were ranked as the least influential factor that
354 could drive LUCC in Southwestern Ghana. Among the factors ranked by experts as most influential local
355 drivers were economic (1st), socio-cultural (2nd), political (3rd) and technological (4th) factors. Results from the
356 table of confidence (Table 9) exhibited “very high-to-very low confidence” in some biophysical factors like
357 temperature, bushfires, floods and soil quality, respectively. The distribution shows there was limited evidence
358 provided by at least one method. Hence, providing “very high-to-very low confidence” for most direct and
359 indirect drivers identified using the three (3) methods. There was however no spatial information on other
360 natural factors other than temperature, which may partly influence confidence in results despite expert
361 interviews and previous studies presenting evidence and agreement levels. With “very high confidence” changes
362 in temperature based on spatial analysis, expert interviews and literature review (Table 7) (Table 9) (Fig.5)
363 (Abbam et al. 2018; Aduah and Baffoe 2013; Aduah et al. 2012) show temperature as a climatic variable with
364 spatiotemporal attributes capable of driving LUCC. In the same vein, there was agreement in results from the
365 expert interviews and existing literature, in relation to other contributory factors like institutional/political
366 (governance structures, monitoring and enforcement mechanisms), technology (science and research,
367 agroforestry, climate-smart agriculture, mining operations, transportation networks and technical efficiency) as
368 well as cultural and behavioural (lifestyle, beliefs, traditions and perception) factors. Evidence from these two
369 methods coupled with the level of agreement between them proved there is “medium confidence” in the drivers
370 identified. This eventually shows evidence provided to ascertain major influences of LUCC are valid and
371 reliable based on the use of both qualitative and quantitative strategies to determine direct and indirect drivers of
372 LUCC.

373 Some experts were of the view that political and technological factors could sooner or later become dominant
374 drivers from the pessimist and optimist perspective. They attributed reasons to current trends and advocacy for
375 intensive scientific research and innovation to enhance productivity to meet global demands. We considered
376 technological, cultural and behavioural factors which are often overlooked or deemed irrelevant in other LUCC
377 studies as drivers that could be further analysed and addressed against uncertainties or the unknown in future.
378 Based on the aforementioned reasons, it is becoming increasingly evident that biophysical (emanating from
379 climate disturbances/stressors), cultural and technological factors that had “medium-to-very low confidence”
380 (Table 9) could potentially influence food security, water resources and livelihoods in the near future. For
381 instance, steady increase in surface temperature (Fig.5) as observed in the study area shows modification in land
382 cover types or land use systems have influenced prevailing microclimatic conditions in the region. Therefore,
383 these parameters cannot be overlooked since in the distant future, they could be dominant in causing significant
384 changes to land cover systems and forest resources. The overall aim of this study was to assess local drivers
385 influencing LUCC in Southwestern Ghana using the mixed-method approach. The MMA approach affords
386 researchers, the general public, policy-makers and development strategists the avenue to make comparisons, and
387 combine data using different methods to gain a comprehensive view in the overall status of a country, region or
388 locality. We therefore admonish the adoption of this framework, adapted and modified from Kleemann et al.
389 (2017), Jacobs et al. (2015), Mastrandrea et al. (2011) and MA (2005) in ensuring accuracy, consistency and
390 reliability of results using standardized means.

391 Table 11 presents the strengths and limitations of individual methods that could affect the validity and reliability
392 of findings used in our study. Consequently, the adoption of MMA for analysing the main drivers of LUCC
393 provides the needed platform for comparative studies. In the present study, we demonstrated that a combination
394 of expert interviews, literature review and spatial analysis can be used to assess and improve confidence in

395 results. Expert interviews through the use of questionnaires bridged paucity of information or gaps in existing
396 literature and spatial analysis. Geospatial analysis provided vivid details of changes on the ground (Rindfuss and
397 Stern 1998). This complements the limitation of subjectivity in the other two qualitative research strategies.
398 Again, results from most qualitative research strategies are often regarded as less reliable based on several
399 discretionary factors (Haradhan 2018; Queirós et al. 2017). Weight of importance are given to outcomes
400 generated by quantitative tools. Qualitative methods used in this study aim at deepening our understanding on
401 factors that cannot be quantified with a high rate of flexibility and exploratory analysis (Haradhan 2018; Queirós
402 et al. 2017). Contextually, satellite imagery is limited in identifying indirect/underlying factors that drive LUCC.
403 Here, we resorted to merge both strategies (Table 9), adhering to the strengths of these methods and restricting
404 the limitations in the use of these methods to ensure “high confidence” in findings.

405 **5. Conclusion**

406 The paper primarily analyses local drivers that influence LUCC in Southwestern Ghana using the mixed method
407 approach. Through this comprehensive study, we demonstrated using existing literature, geospatial analysis and
408 expert interviews can enhance confidence and reliability of results generated using three (3) methods.
409 Understanding direct and indirect drivers of LUCC along with its dynamics and prospect are essential in
410 attaining United Nation’s Sustainable Development Goals. Advocacy and concerns in the wake of our changing
411 climate and observable changes in earth system propel the need for further research that improves existing
412 knowledge, innovation and inform decision of development practitioners among other relevant stakeholders.
413 Based on results obtained using the MMA, it can be concluded that:

- 414 • Southwestern Ghana has experienced significant changes in land cover systems, with evidence in the
415 decline of its forests, bare land and areas covered by waterbodies.
- 416 • A substantial increase in built-up and farmlands/shrubs areas was observed in the region through the spatial
417 analysis.
- 418 • Population growth, expansion of settlements and infrastructure, coupled with agricultural expansion are at
419 the centre of LUCC-environment nexus, based on the confidence level table.
- 420 • Change in prevailing microclimatic conditions, specifically surface temperature can be attributed to the
421 unprecedented LUCC over the past 50 years.
- 422 • Biophysical, cultural and technological factors can be considered as key drivers despite the “medium-to-
423 very low confidence” in results obtained, as they could potentially impact climate sensitive sectors that
424 could significantly modify land use systems.

425 We presented an objective and a detailed framework to enhance reliability and validity of study findings using
426 confidence level analysis. The underlying theories for the present study are anchored in sustainable livelihood
427 frameworks, FTT, land-use management and sustainable development. Therefore, the key drivers of LUCC that
428 poses threats to livelihoods, ecosystem functions and endpoints can be examined holistically using an
429 interdisciplinary approach to solve basic problems that stem regions without incurring unintended consequences.
430 The present study hereby proposes further analyses of LUCC drivers with “medium to very low” confidence
431 levels for further action.

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439

440 **Conflict of Interest**

441 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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