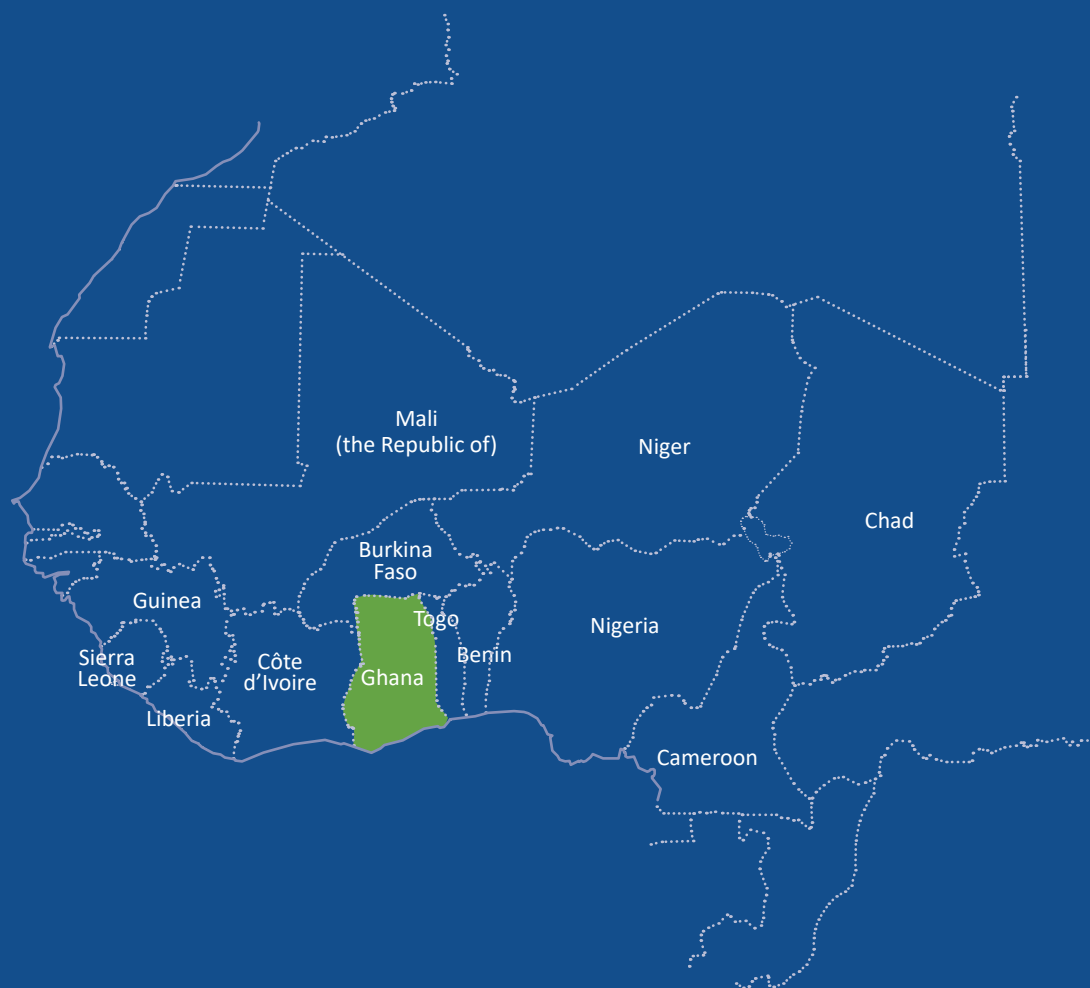


Migration in Ghana

A COUNTRY PROFILE 2019



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FOREWORD

Increasing attention has been given to migration globally over the past two decades and has translated into actions being taken by many governments to maximize its benefits to their economies and minimize its negative impacts. The inclusion of migration in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of the 2030 Agenda is an indication of the importance attached to it in development planning and practice at the international level. Some regional and subregional blocs, such as the European Union, the African Union and the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), have also placed migration and migration-related issues high on their agendas.

Policy response to migration has, however, been largely sustained by limited knowledge about migration data. Estimates indicate that globally, the number of international migrants increased from 156 million in 1990 to 222 million in 2010 and reached 258 million in 2017. As a percentage of the world's total population, it increased from 2.8 per cent in 2000 to 3.3 per cent in 2017. Internal migration has also been a major feature of the world's population. Currently, more than half of the world's population lives in urban areas, and internal migration has contributed to the growth of many towns and cities worldwide.

Remittances, particularly cash flows from migrants overseas, have perhaps been given the greatest attention, as evidence suggests that migrant remittances from international sources constitute a substantial portion of the gross domestic product (GDP) of some migrant-sending countries. In 2018, remittance flows totalled USD 689 billion globally, about 77 per cent (equivalent to USD 529 billion) of which were transfers to low- and middle-income countries. Remittance transfers to Ghana through formal channels increased from USD1.5 billion in 2005 to USD 3.54 billion in 2017. Remittances are now larger than official direct assistance (ODA) in the developing world, according to a number of sources.

Notwithstanding the benefits of migration, its negative impacts have not failed to receive the attention of governments and policymakers, among others. Migration has contributed to vulnerability, inequality and social exclusion for migrants and, sometimes, their families. The impact of the loss of skills in migrants' places of origin (usually referred to as "brain drain") has been highlighted by pessimists in the migration–development debate. Attention has also been drawn to the plight of irregular migrants, refugees and internally displaced persons in various circumstances. Increasing human trafficking, smuggling and loss of human life in the course of migration is another cause for concern.

Policies designed to manage migration and address the challenges associated with it require accurate, timely and accessible data and other forms of information on migrants and the migration process. Lack of or limited access

to migration data, particularly disaggregated data, has been a bane for policy and programme implementation in various aspects of migration in many countries, including Ghana. Moreover, even though data from administrative sources, censuses and surveys, among other sources, exist, some are not disaggregated or processed and are therefore not user-friendly. Addressing the challenges associated with the production and use of migration data has been an area of priority for some governments and agencies working in the field migration – and one approach has been the development of country migration profiles.

The migration profile is an evidence-based document to guide migration policy. It was first introduced by the European Commission in 2005 to address the lack of evidence on the impact of its migration-related projects, with the purpose of investigating the situation and its associated problems. Migration profiles have evolved and have been supported by IOM in several countries, and are currently categorized as either “standard” or “extended” in terms of their scope. However, content has been relatively similar, with the following elements and information present in both types: executive summary, key statistics, modules on migrant stocks, migrant characteristics, data on flows and trend impacts, as well as the dynamics of migration, including migrants as actors in the process. The migration profile has evolved from being merely the result of statistical analysis and source of migration statistics and analysis, to a process that involves various key stakeholders through the use of recommended but adjustable templates.

Ghana had its first migration profile in 2009. It remained a major reference document for policymakers, academia and migration-related sectors. The 2019 Ghana Migration Profile is a timely document that will support migration management, which is prioritized on Ghana’s development agenda and, concretely, in efforts being made to achieve national development goals, including those on or related to migration. This current edition is an extended migration profile and covers all longstanding and emerging issues in migration in Ghana. Data are disaggregated and, therefore, user-friendly. It is expected that it will be useful to all stakeholders in the migration sector and others.

The development of the Migration Profile was undertaken by all key stakeholders in the migration sector to ensure that it serves as a handbook for managing migration in the country.



Ambrose Dery (Member of Parliament)
Minister of the Interior
Republic of Ghana

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The development of the Ghana Migration Profile involved the collaborative efforts of many organizations, institutions and individuals.

The author would like to express special gratitude to the Technical Working Group (TWG) comprising government ministries, departments and agencies, civil society organizations, members of the academia and other stakeholders who contributed to the development of the Migration Profile, namely: the Ministry of the Interior and its Migration Unit, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Regional Integration and its Diaspora Affairs Unit, the Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations and its Labour Department, the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Justice and the Attorney-General's Department, the Ministry of Trade and Industry, Ghana Immigration Service, the Bank of Ghana, Ghana Statistical Service, the National Development Planning Commission, the National Population Council, the National Identification Authority, Ghana Refugee Board, Ghana Police Service, the Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Creative Arts, the Trades Union Congress of Ghana, and the National Disaster Management Organization. The timely provision of data and other information by these key stakeholders made the production of this Migration Profile possible.

Special appreciation also goes to the Diaspora Affairs Office of the Office of the President of the Republic of Ghana, for its support to the validation of the Migration Profile. We thank all the experts who honoured the invitation to the validation meeting and made their contributions towards the development of the Migration Profile.

The development of the Ghana Migration Profile would not have been possible without the support of the European Union through the Ghana Integrated Migration Management Approach (GIMMA) Project, jointly implemented by IOM and Ghana Immigration Service (GIS). For the printing of the document, we are also thankful for the support from the European Union and ECOWAS Commission within the framework of the "Support to Free Movement of Persons and Migration in West Africa" (FMM West Africa) Project.

Lastly, our gratitude goes to Ms Sylvia Lopez-Ekra, Chief of Mission of IOM Ghana, Togo and Benin, as well as IOM staff who provided administrative and technical support, specifically Ms Kazumi Nakamura (Project Manager), Mr Kojo

Wilmot (National Officer), Ms Benedetta Mangialardo and Mr Ethan Way for the review of the various drafts, and to the IOM's Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (GMDAC) for their guidance and collaboration.

We hope that in expressing our gratitude to all, we have not missed anyone who have contributed in various ways to help us achieve our goal of making it possible for the Ghana Migration Profile to be owned by the Government and the people of Ghana. We thank everyone who supported the process and who was involved in its production.

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ACRONYMS

| | |
|--------|---|
| AHTU | (Ghana) Anti-human Trafficking Unit |
| AVRR | assisted voluntary return and reintegration |
| CTDC | Counter-Trafficking Data Collaborative |
| DECMMA | Deltaic Vulnerability and Climate Change: Management and Approach |
| US DOS | US Department of State |
| ECOWAS | Economic Community of West African States |
| EEV | emergency entry visa |
| EUTF | European Union Emergency Trust Fund for Africa |
| FIMS | Foreigners' Identity Management System |
| GIMMA | Ghana Integrated Migration Management Approach |
| GIPC | Ghana Investment Promotion Centre |
| GIS | Ghana Immigration Service |
| GNCM | Ghana National Commission on Migration |
| GPS | Ghana Police Service |
| GRB | Ghana Refugee Board |
| GSS | Ghana Statistical Service |
| IDMC | Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre |
| IDP(s) | internally displaced person(s) |
| IJM | International Justice Mission |
| ILO | International Labour Organization |
| IPO | International Programmes Office (University of Ghana) |
| MELR | (Ghana) Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations |
| MFARI | (Ghana) Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Regional Integration |
| MOE | (Ghana) Ministry of Education |
| MoGCSP | (Ghana) Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection |
| MOI | (Ghana) Ministry of the Interior |
| MPI | Migration Policy Institute |
| MTO | money transfer operator |
| NAB | National Accreditation Board of Ghana |
| NADMO | National Disaster Management Organisation |

| | |
|---------|---|
| NGO | non-governmental organization |
| NIA | National Identification Authority |
| NMP | (Ghana) National Migration Policy |
| OECD | Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development |
| SDG(s) | Sustainable Development Goal(s) |
| TEI(s) | technical education institution(s) |
| UN DESA | United Nations Department of Social and Economic Affairs |
| UNHCR | United Nations (Office of the) High Commissioner for Refugees |
| UNODC | United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime |
| UNWTO | United Nations World Tourism Organization |

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

A country of origin, transit and destination, Ghana faces both opportunities and challenges posed by migration. This complexity is apparent in the main findings of the Ghana Migration Profile, which include country-specific migration trends, migration impacts and migration-related legal frameworks. The Migration Profile concludes with a set of recommendations which aim to bolster the Government's efforts to establish a robust legal framework to facilitate safe, orderly and regular migration.

PART A: Migration Trends

This part uses a combination of national, subregional, regional and international data sources that, taken together, offer a more comprehensive picture of migration trends in Ghana than any single data source could offer alone.

Immigration

- **Stock:** There were 466,780 international migrants in Ghana in 2019. The vast majority of these migrants were from ECOWAS countries, with the largest numbers coming from Togo (101,677), Nigeria (79,023) and Côte d'Ivoire (72,728). This pattern was likely to have been heavily influenced by the ECOWAS Protocol on Free Movement of Persons. (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA), 2019)
- **Flows:** A total of 956,372 persons entered Ghana in 2018. After Ghanaians, the largest groups entering Ghana were Nigerians (82,648), Americans (78,144) and British nationals (49,085). (Ghana Immigration Service (GIS), 2019)
- **Labour immigration:** The GIS issued a total of 11,060 work permits (GIS, 2017b). In 2015, the employment rate of international migrants in Ghana (71.6%) was higher than the overall national average (67.9%) (Ghana Statistical Service (GSS), 2016).
- **Asylum seekers:** There were 503 first-instance applications for asylum in Ghana in 2018. This was a drop from 20,113 in 2011 and was mainly due to stabilizing political conditions in neighbouring Côte d'Ivoire. (United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), 2019)
- **Refugees:** There were a total of 11,891 refugees in Ghana in 2018, mainly from Côte d'Ivoire, Togo and Liberia (UNHCR, 2018).

Emigration

- **Stock:** There were 970,625 Ghanaians living outside Ghana in 2019 (UN DESA, 2019). Male emigrants outnumbered their female counterparts by 6 per cent; the main regions of origin were Ashanti and Greater Accra (GSS, 2013). African countries accounted for 49 per cent of Ghanaian emigrant stocks, with Nigeria being the top destination country. Outside of the continent, the top countries of destination were the United States and the United Kingdom (UN DESA, 2019).
- **Flows:** A total of 914,984 persons departed Ghana in 2018 (GIS, 2019). States in the Gulf Region and the Middle East have become relatively popular destinations for Ghanaian emigrants, in part due to an increased demand for domestic workers, who tend to be women (Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations (MELR), 2018).
- **Labour emigration:** It is estimated that a staggering 46.9 per cent of tertiary-educated Ghanaians emigrated in 2000, mostly to the United States and Europe (Docquier and Marfouk, 2005).
- **Asylum seekers:** The number of Ghanaians seeking asylum abroad reached 5,635 in 2018. This was a sharp drop from the figure (17,503) during the previous year – 7,121 in Italy alone. (UNHCR, 2019)
- **Refugees:** The number of refugees decreased slightly between 2012 and 2018 – from 24,298 in 2012 to 18,036 at the end of 2018. Togo, Italy and France were the top host countries throughout this period. (UNHCR, 2019)

Additional migration categories and themes

- **Voluntary return:** IOM assisted a total of 620 Ghanaians (564 men and 56 women) to return home voluntarily in 2018. The number is significant, considering that between 2012 and 2017, the total number of beneficiaries assisted to return was only 1,241.
- **Forced return:** A total of 774 Ghanaians were forcibly returned from different countries for various reasons, including those related to security and non-compliance with the immigration laws of destination countries (GIS, 2017).
- **Internal migration:** In 2015, the proportion of internal migrants in urban areas exceeded those in rural areas, with more women (58%) than men (42%) (GSS, 2016). Majority of Ghanaians stated that they migrated internally due to family- (64.7%) or work-related (24.8%) reasons (GSS, 2010).
- **Internally displaced persons (IDPs):** In 2018, there were 61,000 new IDPs due to disasters in Ghana, 56,000 of them displaced by flooding (Internal

Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC), 2019). There were also 5,000 new IDPs due to conflict and violence triggered by land disputes between ethnic communities in the country's northern region (IDMC, 2019).

- **Irregular migration:** In 2017, the GIS refused entry into Ghana to a total of 175 foreigners. In the same year, 30 persons were accused of irregular stay, of whom 18 were repatriated. The GIS also recorded that 1,056 Ghanaians were refused entry into various countries in 2017 and returned to Ghana. (GIS, 2018)
- **Human trafficking:** Ghana is a source, transit and destination country of victims of human trafficking. The Government reported identifying 348 potential victims of trafficking (252 were children) in 2018. In addition, the Government reported initiating 82 investigations into suspected human trafficking, compared to 113 investigations in 2017 and 137 in 2016. (US Department of State (DOS), 2016, 2017 and 2018)
- **Human trafficking within Ghana:** A study on the prevalence of child trafficking in selected communities in the Volta and Central Regions indicated that children from nearly one third of the 1,621 households surveyed had been subjected to trafficking, primarily in fishing and domestic servitude (US DOS, 2018).
- **Cross-border human trafficking:** The Counter-Trafficking Data Collaborative (CTDC) reported a total of 1,206 identified Ghanaian victims of human trafficking from 2005–2017 around the world (CTDC, 2017).
- **Smuggling:** There are no reliable estimates of the volume of human smuggling in or out of Ghana, although it is suspected that there are extant smuggling routes from Ghana to the Gulf States, Europe and the United States, among others.
- **Stateless persons:** There are no comprehensive statistics on the number of stateless persons in Ghana, or West Africa more generally, and there is no data from UNHCR on this.
- **Migrant deaths and disappearances:** While confirmed deaths of Ghanaian nationals through the IOM Missing Migrants Project are few (1 in 2018; 5 in 2017), the actual numbers are likely higher than those recorded.
- **International students in Ghana:** Increasing numbers of international students are registered in Ghana, with as many as 12,978 in 2017. The majority of these students came from Nigeria (70.3%), Gabon (3.9%), Côte d'Ivoire (3.3%) and the Congo (3.3%). (UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS), 2018)
- **Ghanaian students abroad:** In 2017, 12,559 Ghanaian students were studying abroad. The main countries of destination for these students were the United States (2,990), the United Kingdom (1,389), the Ukraine (1,000), Canada (924) and South Africa (651). (UIS, 2018)

- **Diaspora:** Data on the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of members of the Ghanaian diaspora is patchy and comes mainly from ad hoc studies. One study on the Ghanaian diaspora in the United States estimated that of the 250,000 Ghanaian immigrants and children living there in 2015, approximately 40 per cent were already United States citizens (Migration Policy Institute and Rockefeller–Aspen Diaspora Program, 2015).
- **International tourists:** Arrivals of international tourists to Ghana increased between 2000 and 2015, as Ghana became an increasingly popular tourist destination (World Tourism Organization, 2017).

PART B: Impact of Migration

Most evidence and research on the impact of migration from around the world, including Ghana, focuses on its impact at the community or national level. Commonly researched topics include the effects of migration on wages, employment and other labour market outcomes, GDP and fiscal balance. On the other hand, few studies focus on the effects of migration at the individual level and, specifically, on migrants themselves.

Migration and demographic development

- Ghana has a negative net migration, estimated at –503,845 in 2019 (UN DESA, 2019).

Migration and economic development

- **Contributions of immigrants:** The contribution of immigrants in Ghana, a high proportion of whom were of working age, to the country's GDP was estimated at 1.5 per cent in 2010 (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and International Labour Organization (ILO), 2018).
- **Remittance inflows:** In 2018, Ghana received over USD 3.5 billion in remittances (World Bank, 2019). The most significant countries of origin of remittances in 2017 were the United States, Nigeria and the United Kingdom (World Bank, 2018). Around 79.1 per cent of households surveyed in 2015 indicated that the remittances they received were primarily used to meet daily needs (IOM, 2017a). This section of the report also discusses the relatively high cost of sending remittances to Ghana.

- **Remittance outflows:** In 2017, an estimated USD 1,282,000 million was remitted from Ghana to other countries (World Bank, 2019). Eight of the top ten receiving countries were in Africa and corresponded largely to the main countries of origin of immigrants in Ghana.
- **Internal remittances:** There is a dearth of research on internal remittance flows in Ghana (Torvikey, 2012). More reliable data on internal remittances, including those sent via mobile money transfers, are needed, as well as new methodologies to capture this data.
- **Contributions of tourists:** Tourism is currently the third largest foreign exchange source after merchandise exports and remittances from abroad (GSS, 2015). In both rural and urban communities, tourism is one of the main sources of income and a prominent factor in the creation of employment.

Migration and the labour market

- **Labour immigration:** A large majority (71.6%) of the international migrant population in Ghana were employed in 2015. Economic development in Ghana has been enhanced by immigrant workers, the majority of whom work in the agriculture, forestry, and fishing sectors. (GSS, 2016)
- **Emigration of health workers:** Emigration of health workers from Ghana has been common over the past two decades. A 2013–2014 study, which surveyed 592 nurses from 12 hospitals across Ghana, showed that 48.9 per cent intended to emigrate.
- **Internal migrants and labour markets:** Rural–rural migration in Ghana has contributed to the growth of the cocoa industry and the cultivation of other food and cash crops. On the other hand, while rural–urban migration has long been associated with opportunities for migrants to enjoy better living standards, rapid urbanization and the associated poor sanitation and overcrowding in neighbourhoods have, in turn, resulted in health and other challenges.

Migration and human development

- **Education:** The Government began to implement the Free Senior High School Policy in August 2017, allowing students to graduate from public senior high school without paying school fees, irrespective of their nationality or migrant status.
- **Poverty:** Migration from rural areas to towns and cities has contributed to urban transformation. Rapid economic growth has brought about a decline in total poverty incidence to below 25 per cent in 2013 (below

11% in urban areas). While a reduction in poverty has been experienced in urban areas as a consequence of job creation, rural areas have benefited from out-migration through remittances inflows from urban areas and higher profits for agricultural producers due to food price increases (World Bank, 2015).

- **Health:** Many Ghanaians overseas remit money that their families may use for health care; 16.4 per cent of inflows of remittances in Ghana are used to purchase medicine and pay medical bills (GSS, 2014). Migration, however, can also lead to increased vulnerabilities, including health risk factors such as disease and abuse.

Migration and the environment

- **Climate change:** Ghana has been severely affected by climate change in the past 10 to 15 years. Climate change has increased the frequency of natural hazards (especially floods) throughout the country, which, in turn, have led to disasters and changes in migration patterns (IOM, 2017b).
- **Environmental impact of urbanization:** Large scale rural–urban migration in Ghana has resulted in rapid urbanization, accompanied by high pressure on urban infrastructure and the proliferation of informal settlements.

Society

- **Attitudes towards migrants:** Some 57 per cent of Ghanaians claim to support the free movement of people to work or trade within the ECOWAS region. While this proportion is lower than some other countries in Western Africa, it is high in comparison with Southern, Central and North Africa. (OECD and ILO, 2018; and Afrobarometer, 2016)

PART C: Migration Governance

Ghana's key national policies, legislative frameworks and institutional arrangements, as well as engagement with actors and processes originating both within and outside the country, form the basis of its migration governance.

National policy framework

To work towards a strategic, whole-of-government approach to the management of internal, intraregional and international migration, Ghana developed and launched its first National Migration Policy (NMP) in 2016 and the *GIS Legal Handbook* in 2017. The NMP and the *GIS Legal Handbook* outline

all the legal frameworks on, or relating to, migration in the country. Relevant policy interventions in the country include:

- In response to evidence of different types of abuses that many Ghanaian migrant domestic workers in Gulf States face, the Government has placed a temporary ban on the recruitment of Ghanaian domestic workers to Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates.
- The Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection, in collaboration with the Government of Canada and UNICEF, launched the National Plan of Action for the Elimination of Human Trafficking in Ghana, 2017–2021.
- The National Labour Migration Policy was validated in December 2018 and approved by the Cabinet in 2020. The policy is expected to be a framework that guides the management of labour migration within, into and out of Ghana.
- The Government of Ghana was supported in the development of a National Migration Data Management Strategy to improve access to quality, credible, timely and disaggregated migration data to support evidence-based policymaking and implementation.
- With support from ECOWAS and the Spanish Government, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Regional Integration commissioned the development of the Diaspora Engagement Policy in 2015 to enhance the participation of Ghana's diaspora community in the development in Ghana.
- A National Migration Platform was set up within the Foreign Ministry in 2017 to promote safe and orderly migration from Ghana, among other objectives, with collaborating partners.

PART D: Summary, Policy Implications and Recommendations

Finally, recommendations are made in the areas of migration governance, migration mainstreaming in development policy and migration data.

Recommendations for the migration governance framework

This Migration Profile strongly recommends the establishment of an official institutional framework, as outlined in the NMP, for the implementation of the NMP. The NMP recommends not only that a National Migration Commission be established but also resourced to play a key role in migration management in the country.

Recommendations for mainstreaming migration in development policy

- The Government should resource the Ghana Statistical Service to mainstream migration into relevant surveys, including the 2020 Census. This will lay the foundation for evidence-based migration mainstreaming in the country.
- Bilateral and multilateral agreements should be considered between Ghana and key countries of origin and destination to contribute to the reduction in the high costs of remittances and, in turn, maximize the benefits of migration.
- The elimination of human trafficking and irregular migration should generally be treated with urgency to protect women and children, who are usually the victims. Efforts should aim to sustain the campaign against the practice and involve communities so that they can own the anti-human trafficking and related policies and programmes.
- Fast-track and facilitate procedures for returning health workers to work and practice in Ghana.
- Do more to measure, anticipate and report on internal migration trends in the future, especially in the health, labour and education sectors.
- To reduce irregular migration, bilateral agreements should be signed with countries that need labour so that temporary and managed migration can replace undocumented migration among the youth. Such initiatives should be considered a priority in the efforts to reduce irregular migration.
- Tools for monitoring and enhancing policy coherence – and especially for monitoring progress towards the Sustainable Development Goals and national development goals – including IOM’s Migration Governance Indicators and the Migration Profile, should continue to be leveraged.
- Policies addressing migration should consider the unique vulnerabilities of child migrants, their characteristics and the dynamics of child migration. An immediate strategy will be to have a census or survey of child migrants and the conditions in both destination areas and origin of child migrants for effective strategies to be implemented to manage child migration in the country.
- Policies such as the draft Diaspora Engagement Policy should be adopted to address specific issues.

- Research on the migration–climate change nexus has been conducted (an example of which is the so-called “Deltas, Vulnerability and Climate Change: Management and Approach (DECMMA) Project”, of which the University Ghana is a member). Given the great influence that climate change has on migratory movements in Ghana, even when the association is considered to be indirect, more interdisciplinary research on this nexus is needed.

Recommendations concerning improvements to migration data and the overall evidence base

- Ensure the National Migration Data Management Strategy, established with support from IOM, is fully functional and feeds into future updates of this Migration Profile.
- Promote and maximize the use of existing national data sources: population censuses, surveys and other administrative sources.
- Conduct a nationally representative household survey to better understand the role and impact of the diaspora on development, remittance transfers received through informal channels and social remittances.
- Analyse, publish and disseminate census and survey results and produce detailed metadata to support better understanding of the data and the application thereof.
- Make accessible online available national data on migration and provide regular updates and revisions to reflect trends in a timely manner.
- Update the Migration Profile approximately every five years to produce updated and accessible migration data that can support evidence-based policy and programmes for migration management in Ghana.
- Establish data exchange mechanisms between government ministries and international partners on various migration topics, and with major destination countries of Ghanaian nationals, to obtain information on emigrants and the Ghanaian diaspora.
- Conduct analyses and produce research on various migration and migration-related topics, especially particular aspects of migration and development, ensuring that the migrant is kept at the centre of the analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Located in Western Africa, Ghana borders Togo to the east, Burkina Faso to the north, and the Côte d'Ivoire to the west. With several peaceful transitions of power since 1993, the country is a beacon of democracy in the region. Ghana has also enjoyed sustained economic growth, gaining middle-income country status in 2010. A member of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), Ghana implements the 1979 Protocol on Free Movement of Persons, which stipulates the right of ECOWAS citizens to enter, reside and establish economic activities in the territory of other member States.

Being a country of origin, transit and destination for migration flows, the migration dynamics of Ghana are complex. Prevalent trends in recent years have included a high number of Ghanaian youth irregularly migrating to Europe and the Middle East; significant incidence of child trafficking in the fishing sector around Lake Volta; and increased attention to policies that aim to harness the benefits of migration, including through the engagement of the Ghanaian – and, more broadly, African – diaspora. Ghana is one of the largest recipients of remittances in sub-Saharan Africa – essential income for ordinary citizens spent predominantly on food, health and education. Internal rural–urban migration, including of women migrants, is increasingly common, motivated in large part by economic reasons. Environmental changes also shape migration patterns: flooding and coastal erosion, for example, cause population displacement.

Acknowledging the importance of migration as a human development issue, the Government of Ghana has taken several steps to enhance migration governance. In 2005, it passed the Human Trafficking Act (Act 694), amended in 2009 through Act 784. It is supplemented by the Human Trafficking Prohibition (Protection and Reintegration of Trafficked Persons) Regulations (Legislative Instrument 2219) promulgated in November 2015. In 2016, the Government adopted the first National Migration Policy, thereby establishing a framework around which to further legislate on the issue of migration. Since then, numerous policy documents have been adopted, such as the National Migration Data Management Strategy and the Standard Operations Procedures to Combat Human Trafficking (with an Emphasis on Child Trafficking). Additional policies are currently in the final stages of development, such as the Diaspora Engagement Policy and the National Labour Migration Policy, recently validated by the Cabinet.

The aforementioned legislative activities are a clear indication of the Government's commitment to achieving migration-related Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and, specifically, SDG Target 10.7 to "facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies." Government efforts towards enhanced migration governance also contribute to the achievement of the 23 objectives set out in the recently adopted Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration – the first intergovernmental, negotiated agreement that comprehensively addresses the challenges and opportunities of international migration. The establishment of the SDGs and the Global Compact for Migration highlights the fact that migration is firmly placed on the international agenda as an issue of importance that demands to be addressed in a comprehensive and planned manner. Indeed, while migration was perceived in a largely negative light in the past, governments around the globe are increasingly recognizing its potential to be a key contributor to poverty reduction and sustainable development.

PART A: MIGRATION TRENDS

This part presents key figures and information on migration in Ghana. This includes information on key migration trends, immigrant and emigrant stocks and flows, labour migration, asylum seekers, refugees, stateless persons, diaspora members, return migration, internal migration and displacement, irregular migration, human trafficking, smuggling of migrants, migrant deaths and disappearances, and student mobility.

Accurate, reliable and timely migration data is scarce, both in Ghana and across the world. Poor availability, comparability and collection frequency of migration data can sometimes be linked to inadequate resources and weak technical capacity of agencies responsible for data collection, analysis and dissemination at the national level. This part uses a combination of national, subregional, regional and international¹ data sources that, taken together, offer a more comprehensive picture of migration trends in Ghana than any single data source could offer alone.

Major national providers of migration data in Ghana include the Ghana Immigration Service (GIS), the Labour Department of the Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations (MELR), the Ministry of the Interior (MOI), the Ministry of Education, the Ghana Refugee Board (GRB), the Diaspora Affairs Unit and Ghana diplomatic missions abroad under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Regional Integration (MFARI), the Ghana Investment Promotion Centre (GIPC), the National Identification Authority (NIA), the Bank of Ghana, the Human Trafficking Secretariat of the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection (MoGCSP), the Anti-human Trafficking Unit (AHTU) of the Ghana Police Service (GPS), and the National Disaster Management Organisation (NADMO), among others. These ministries, agencies and organizations were instrumental in the production of this report.

The aforementioned national sources were sometimes only able to contribute a portion of the data they collect towards this report. In addition, these data were often not harmonized or aggregated, or were relatively outdated. This part, therefore, also relies on data from relevant international organizations, such

¹ In this report, the terms “region” and “subregion” corresponds to the United Nations geographic divisions, (i.e. Africa is a “region” made up of the subregions of Western, Eastern, Northern, Southern and Central Africa). Some country groupings smaller than United Nations geographic regions are also referred to as “regions”, for example, the “Gulf region” and “ECOWAS region”, as it is not customary to refer to them as subregions.

as the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA), the United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and the International Organization for Migration (IOM), as well as regional bodies such as Eurostat. Many of these data sources can be especially helpful, as they offer data that are comparable across countries and years.

A.1. INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Ghanaian migration trends take place in the context of ever-evolving global migration dynamics. The global stock of international migrants (the total number of people residing in a country other than their country of birth) increased from 173 million in 2000 to 222 million in 2010, and reached 272 million in 2019, representing about 3.5 per cent of the world's population at the time (UN DESA, 2019). Meanwhile, the proportion of international migrants in the world population has increased only slightly over the past decades: 3.5 per cent in 2017 compared to 2.8 per cent in 2000 (UN DESA, 2017b).²

A.2. IMMIGRATION

A.2.1. Historical background

Immigration in Ghana dates to the caravan period, which began in the eighth century, when traders from Nigeria and the Niger migrated temporarily or seasonally to Ghana, some settling permanently in what was then the British colony of the Gold Coast. More recently, during the colonial and early post-independence periods, migration to Ghana often consisted of people seeking employment in the agricultural and mining sectors, mostly temporarily or seasonally. These immigrants left communities of descendants in their trail who have often maintained strong links to their ancestors' cultures, languages and more. (Antwi-Bosiakoh, 2011; and Anarfi et al., 2000)

In addition, Lebanese immigrants have settled in Ghana from as far back as the late 1800s (Cheaib, 2015). Poverty in Ottoman Greater Syria pushed many to move to the Americas and many Lebanese boarded boats to southern France, from where they would depart. It is thought that many were then duped into boarding boats to Western Africa, rather than to the Americas. These boats were diverted to or temporarily docked in Western African ports, such as those in what are now Ghana and Côte d'Ivoire. Eventually, Lebanese populations who

² For an overview of global migration trends on the below topics and more, see IOM's Global Migration Indicators 2018, available at https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/global_migration_indicators_2018.pdf.

had settled in Ghana began to spread to other parts of Western Africa. Many generations later, they now constitute some of the largest immigrant groups in several countries in the subregion, for example, Sierra Leone. Following India's partition in 1947, Indian nationals also settled in Ghana.³ It is likely that many Lebanese and Indians throughout the generations have acquired Ghanaian citizenship, such that the size of these groups is difficult to measure today. Lastly, movement of Chinese nationals to the Gold Coast dates to the first decade of the twentieth century, with large numbers arriving in Ghana as temporary or permanent immigrants after the 1970s as a result of trade agreements between Ghana and China (Amoono, 2013; and Adjavon, 2013).

Migrants coming to Ghana during the colonial and early independence period were mainly in pursuit of employment and trading opportunities. In response to anti-immigrant sentiment (as some considered migrants an economic threat), the Government of Ghana in 1969 responded with the Aliens Compliance Order, which stipulated that all immigrants without a valid residence permit would be subject to deportation after a two-week notice period. The implementation of this order resulted in the largest mass deportation of foreigners in Ghana's history. While the exercise resulted in the deportation of immigrants mostly from Benin, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Mali, Niger, Nigeria and Togo, nationals from other African countries were also affected. (Peil, 1974)

The 1960 population census, which was conducted before the implementation of the Aliens Compliance Order, showed that foreigners constituted 12 per cent of the total national population of Ghana. Since then, the foreign-born population has decreased to around 3 per cent, according to the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) (2015).

³ Sources on this are limited, but see, for example: Indian Association of Ghana, History of Organization section, available at <http://iaghana.com/Home/GhanaDetails/History%20of%20Organization>; and J. Rajesh, "Ghana's unique African-Hindu temple", *BBC News*, 29 June 2010, available at www.bbc.com/news/10401741.

Who is a migrant?

While there is no single internationally agreed upon definition of migration, there is broad consensus that it involves the movement of people across a recognized political boundary to establish permanent or semi-permanent residence. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) defines “migrant” as “an umbrella term, not defined under international law, reflecting the **common lay understanding of a person who moves away from his or her place of usual residence, whether within a country or across an international border, temporarily or permanently, and for a variety of reasons.** The term includes a number of well-defined legal categories of people, such as migrant workers; persons whose particular types of movements are legally defined, such as smuggled migrants; as well as those whose status or means of movement are not specifically defined under international law, such as international students” (IOM, 2019a). For statistical purposes, according to the United Nations Department of Social and Economic Affairs (1998), an international migrant is “**any person who changes his or her country of usual residence for a period of three months or more (short-term migrant) or twelve months or more (long-term migrant).**”⁴ While internal migration involves a change of residence within a country, international migration involves a change of residence between countries.

Drivers of migration are complex and often interlinked. An international migrant may be somebody who has left his or her country to, among other reasons, work or seek employment, undertake an educational programme, (re)join his or her family, escape conflict, or some combination of these. An internal migrant may also be any “type” of migrant – a person internally displaced as a result of conflict or disaster, as well as a trader relocating his or her business to another part of the country, for example.

A.2.2. International migrant stock

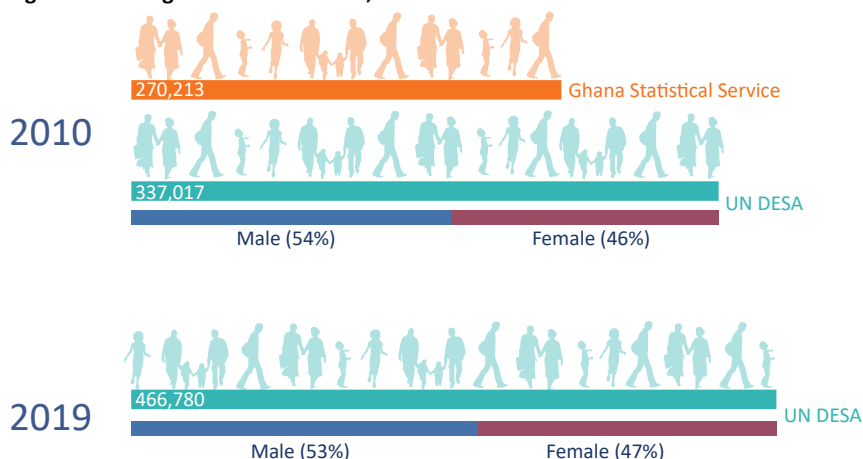
The total number of international migrants in a country at a point in time constitutes its international migrant stock (United Nations Department of Social and Economic Affairs (UN DESA), 2017). National data on immigrant stocks in Ghana are obtained from two major national sources: the 2010 Population and Housing Census and the Ghana Living Standards Survey. An international source of data on this is the UN DESA Database, which provides estimates of international migrant stocks. As the last census in Ghana was conducted in 2010, UN DESA estimates from as recently as 2019 are used in this section. Different methodologies employed by different sources (and at both national and international levels) to produce statistics and data on migrant stocks mean that figures and/or estimates may not match. Porous borders and the informal nature of many migration movements in the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) region, as a result of historical patterns and the Free Movement Protocol, also make it difficult to collect accurate data on migrants living in and moving into Ghana. The actual stock of immigrants, therefore, may be larger than available estimates.

⁴ According to UNSD, “temporary travel abroad for purposes of recreation, holiday, visits to friends and relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimage does not change a person’s country of usual residence.” For more information, see, for example: UN DESA, *Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration Revision 1* (Washington, D.C., 1998). Available at https://unstats.un.org/unsd/publication/seriesm/seriesm_58rev1e.pdf.

According to UN DESA, there were 466,780 international migrants in Ghana in 2019 – an increase of over a third from the figure (337,017) recorded in 2010 (Figure 1). The international migrant stock as a percentage of the country's total population has risen very slightly over the last few decades – from 1.1 per cent in 1990 to 1.5 per cent in 2019. (UN DESA, 2019)

In 2019, over four fifths (83.6%) of international migrants in Ghana were nationals of other countries in the ECOWAS region (and increased 75.3% from 2017. Togo (101,677), Nigeria (79,023) and Côte d'Ivoire (72,728) were the top three countries of origin. This is unsurprising given the ECOWAS Protocol on the Free Movement of Persons, which promotes free movement in the region for nationals of ECOWAS member States.

Figure 1a. Immigrant stock in Ghana, 2010 and 2019



Source: GSS, 2013; and UN DESA, 2019.

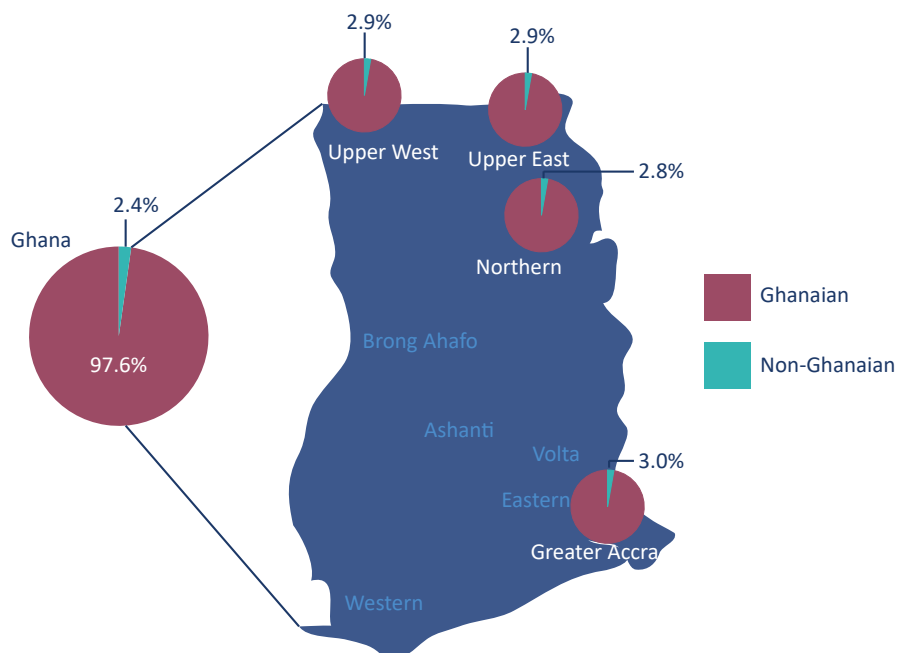
Figure 1b. Top countries of origin of immigrants in Ghana, 2019



Source: GSS, 2013; and UN DESA, 2019.

Of the total population in Ghana recorded by the GSS in 2010, 2 per cent were non-Ghanaians (GSS, 2013). The region with the highest proportion of non-Ghanaians was Greater Accra (3.0%), followed by the northerly regions of Upper East (2.9%), Upper West (2.9%) and Northern (2.8%) (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Non-Ghanaian population (% of total) in four regions of Ghana, 2010



Source: GSS, 2013.

Note: This map is for illustration purposes only. The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the International Organization for Migration.

A.2.3. Migrant inflows

Migration flow data captures the number of migrants entering (inflows) and leaving (outflows) a country over a specific period, such as one year (UN DESA, 2017a). National data on migrant flows may come, for example, from border-crossing checkpoints of the GIS. At the international level, UN DESA collects data on migration flows, although there is no flow data available for Ghana.

In 2018, the GIS recorded the entry of 956,372 persons into Ghana; the figure for 2017 was 971,861 and for 2016 was 932,579. Inflows increased steadily throughout the last decade, except for a drop during the 2013–2014 period due to the Ebola outbreak (GIS, 2016; and GIS, 2018). In 2018, the largest groups entering Ghana (after Ghanaians) were Nigerian (82,648), American (78,144)

and British nationals (49,085). These same set of countries comprised the top three in 2017, but with Nigerians taking second place: Americans (74,225), Nigerians (54,988) and British nationals (47,648) (Table 1). While these data provide valuable information on patterns of migrant inflows to Ghana over time, they are not comprehensive. For example, those who enter Ghana outside of official border crossings are not included in these figures; also, some people may have entered and left the country several times.

Table 1. Recorded arrivals in Ghana by nationality, 2018

| Country of nationality | Arrivals | Percentage of total |
|------------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Ghana | 286 157 | 29.92 |
| Nigeria | 82 648 | 8.64 |
| United States | 78 144 | 8.17 |
| United Kingdom | 49 085 | 5.13 |
| India | 23 426 | 2.45 |
| China | 19 729 | 2.06 |
| Côte d'Ivoire | 17 825 | 1.86 |
| Germany | 17 755 | 1.86 |
| South Africa | 16 550 | 1.73 |
| Burkina Faso | 13 479 | 1.41 |
| Liberia | 13 445 | 1.41 |
| Netherlands | 12 722 | 1.33 |
| France | 12 253 | 1.28 |
| Canada | 12 134 | 1.27 |
| Togo | 9 728 | 1.02 |
| Lebanon | 6 848 | 0.72 |
| Australia | 4 922 | 0.51 |
| Others | 279 522 | 29.23 |
| Total | 956 372 | 100.00 |

Source: GIS, 2019.

In 2018, the GIS issued a total of 166,078 permits to foreigners – a 16.5 per cent increase from the number issued in 2017 (137,873). Categories of these permits included residence, work, re-entry, diplomatic and emergency/transit visa, among others. The number of permits issued has increased in parallel to the number of arrivals over the years, from 112,395 in 2015 to 130,820 in 2016 (GIS, 2016; and GIS, 2017).

Majority of permits issued in both 2017 and 2018 were either emergency entry visas (EEVs) or transit visas (EEVs and transit visas are issued on arrival to passengers who are unable to obtain visas from Ghanaian missions abroad due to time or other constraints, or the absence of consular services). Residence permits were the next largest category. In 2018, 71,577 of the former and 45,311 of the latter were issued (GIS, 2019). With the exception of re-entry, all other categories of visas and permits saw an increase in issuance from 2017 to 2018.

In addition to GIS data, relevant annual registration figures in Ghana have also been collected through the Foreigners' Identity Management System (FIMS), which has been operational since 2013. FIMS provides information on foreign nationals who are issued residence permits in Ghana, and FIMS data shows that new registrations have declined continuously from 34,316 in 2013 to 10,966 in 2018. At the same time, however, registration renewals have increased (registration cards are renewable annually), which indicates that many of these migrants are choosing to stay in Ghana for extended periods (Table 2).

Table 2. Foreigners' Identity Management System annual registration figures, 2013–2018

| Year | First issuance | Renewals |
|--------------------------------|----------------|----------|
| 2018 (as of 30 September 2018) | 10 966 | 18 095 |
| 2017 | 14 473 | 21 629 |
| 2016 | 14 627 | 20 180 |
| 2015 | 15 904 | 19 258 |
| 2014 | 25 960 | 12 754 |
| 2013 | 34 316 | No data |

Source: NIA, 2018.

Note: First issuance – Non-Ghanaian citizens being registered for the first time.

Renewals – Non-citizens who have been registered prior to the current year and have lived in the country for a period of one year after registration.

By the end of 2017, a total of 23,934 Chinese and 15,810 Nigerian nationals were registered in FIMS, making them the two largest groups by nationality. They were followed by nationals of India, the United States, Lebanon, the United Kingdom, Germany, South Africa, Gabon and France (Table 3).

Table 3. Top 10 countries of origin of foreigners registered in FIMS, 2017

| Country of origin | Total registered in FIMS |
|-------------------|--------------------------|
| China | 23 934 |
| Nigeria | 15 810 |
| India | 12 052 |
| United States | 6 103 |
| Lebanon | 3 129 |
| United Kingdom | 3 061 |
| Germany | 2 746 |
| South Africa | 2 195 |
| Gabon | 1 663 |
| France | 1 447 |

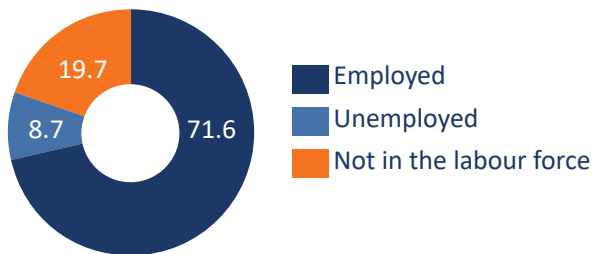
Source: NIA, 2018.

Note: Figures are as of 31 December 2017.

A.2.4. Labour immigration

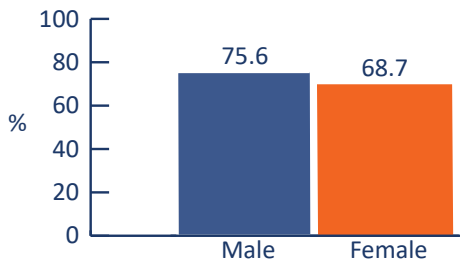
The GIS issued a total of 11,060 work permits in 2010, compared to 12,344 in 2016 (GIS, 2017b). In 2015, the employment rate of international migrants in Ghana was higher than the overall national average of 67.9 per cent. Close to three quarters (71.6%) of immigrants who were of working age were employed (Figure 3). In addition, employment rates among immigrants were higher for males (75.6%) than females (68.7%), and for both sexes in rural areas (75.1%) than in urban areas (68.9%) (Figures 4 and 5).

Figure 3. Percentage distribution of immigrants by employment status, 2015



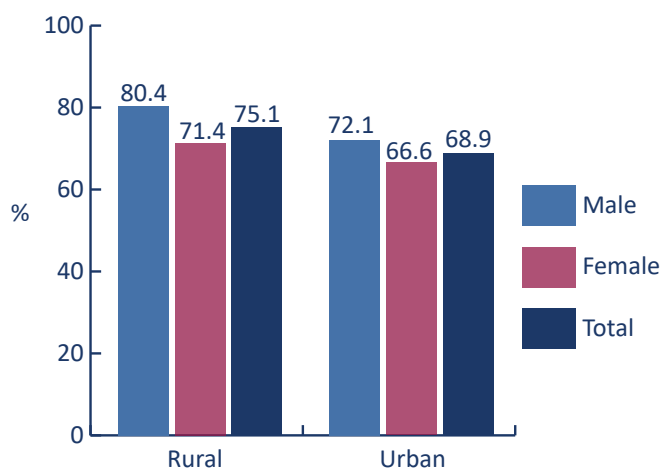
Source: GSS, 2016.

Figure 4. Immigrant employment rates (%) by sex, 2015



Source: GSS, 2016.

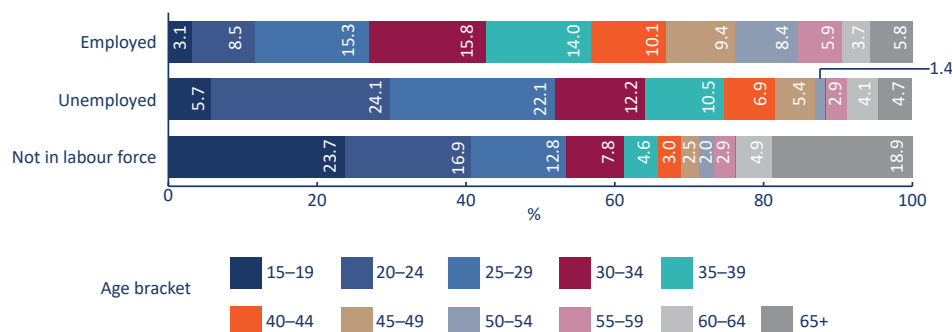
Figure 5. Rural versus urban immigrant employment rates (%), 2015



Source: GSS, 2016.

Immigrants 30 to 34 years old constituted the largest percentage (15.8%) of the employed, working-age immigrant population in Ghana in 2015, followed by the 25–29 (15.3%) and the 35–49 (14%) groups. Among the unemployed population, the largest group of immigrants were 20 to 24 years old (24.1%), followed by the 25–29 group (22.1%). Immigrants 15 to 19 years old accounted for the largest age cohort (23.7%) of migrants not in the labour force. (Figure 6)

Figure 6. Age structure of the age-15+ immigrant population by employment status, 2015

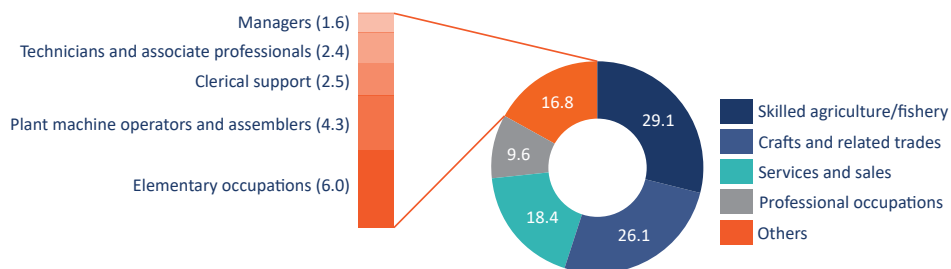


Source: GSS, 2016.

Almost 9 out of 10 (90%) employed working-age immigrants in 2015 were employed in the private sector, with the rest in the public sector. Among those employed in the private sector, the most common occupations were in the skilled agriculture and fishery sector (29.1%), crafts and related trades (26.1%), and

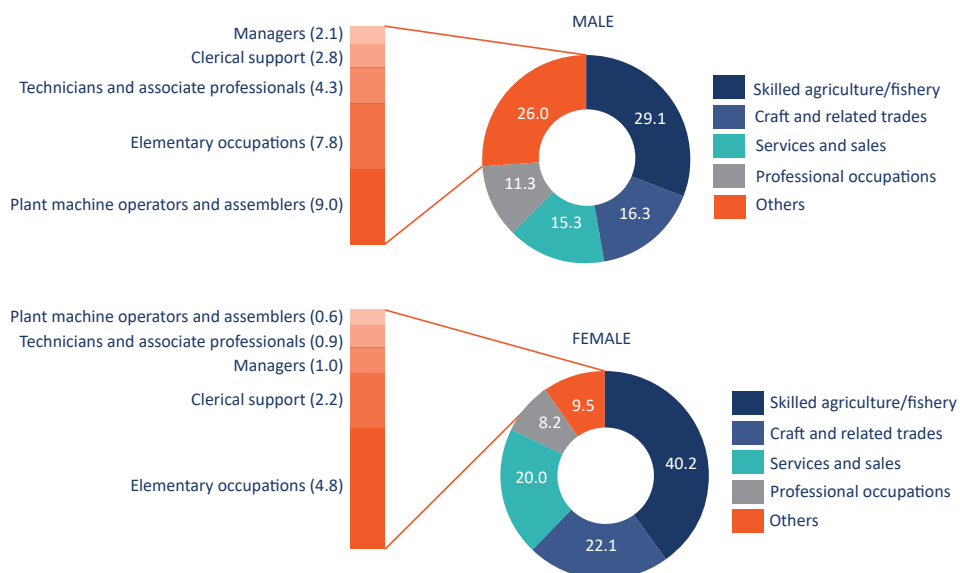
services and sales (18.4%). A higher proportion of female than male immigrants were occupied in skilled agriculture and fishery, while male immigrants were more likely to work as plant machine operators and assemblers, as well as in elementary occupations. (Figures 7a and 7b)

Figure 7a. Distribution (%) of age-15+ immigrants in the private sector, 2015



Source: GSS, 2016.

Figure 7b. Distribution (%) of age-15+ immigrants in the private sector by sex, 2015



Source: GSS, 2016.

Relevant insights on immigrants' occupations may be obtained from FIMS to complement data from the GSS. FIMS data for 2013 to 2017 show that among immigrants registered in the system and holding residence permits, the most common occupations were student, engineer and manager (Table 4). The difference in data is explained by the fact that not all residence permit applications are made through FIMS.

Table 4. Top ten occupations of FIMS-registered migrants, 2017

| Occupation | Total registered |
|------------------------------|------------------|
| Student | 12 220 |
| Engineer | 11 858 |
| Manager | 11 511 |
| Unemployed | 8 480 |
| Partner (housewife) | 4 576 |
| Religious worker (full-time) | 3 747 |
| Entrepreneur/Own business | 3 120 |
| Accountant | 1 821 |
| Teacher | 1 376 |
| Retiree | 1 313 |

Source: NIA, 2018.

Note: Figures are as of 31 December 2017.



Target 8.8: Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment.

A.2.5. Asylum seekers in Ghana

There were 503 first-instance applications for asylum in Ghana in 2018 – a huge drop from 20,113 in 2011. Côte d'Ivoire, owing to internal political turmoil, was the top country of origin for individuals applying for asylum in Ghana in 2011, accounting for 17,985 first-time applications (89% of the total) (UNHCR, 2019). By 2018, applications from Côte d'Ivoire decreased to 132 (26% of the total). Most new asylum applications to Ghana in recent years have come from other countries in the Western African subregion, such as Sudan, Cameroon, Central African Republic and Togo, as well as the Syrian Arab Republic, and were driven mainly by instability and political crises in these countries of origin.

In 2018, a total of 1,300 persons had pending asylum or refugee status applications to Ghana. Of this number, 345 were from Côte d'Ivoire and 229 were from Sudan (UNHCR, 2019). National data on asylum seekers residing in Ghana differ from UNHCR records. This is because the databases of the UNHCR and the GRB have not been synchronized until recently, making it difficult to report accurately, and in a timely manner, changes in the number, nationality and status of people assisted. At any rate, records show that many individuals spend more than a year in destination countries as asylum seekers.

According to the GRB, a total of 524 asylum seekers arrived in Ghana from January 2017 to mid-November 2018. The top three countries of origin for that year were Cameroon (with 96 asylum seekers), Sudan (94) and Eritrea (60). Non-African applicants included nationals of the Syrian Arab Republic (56), Turkey (47) and Pakistan (26). Of the total number, 370 (70.6%) were male. (GRB, 2019)



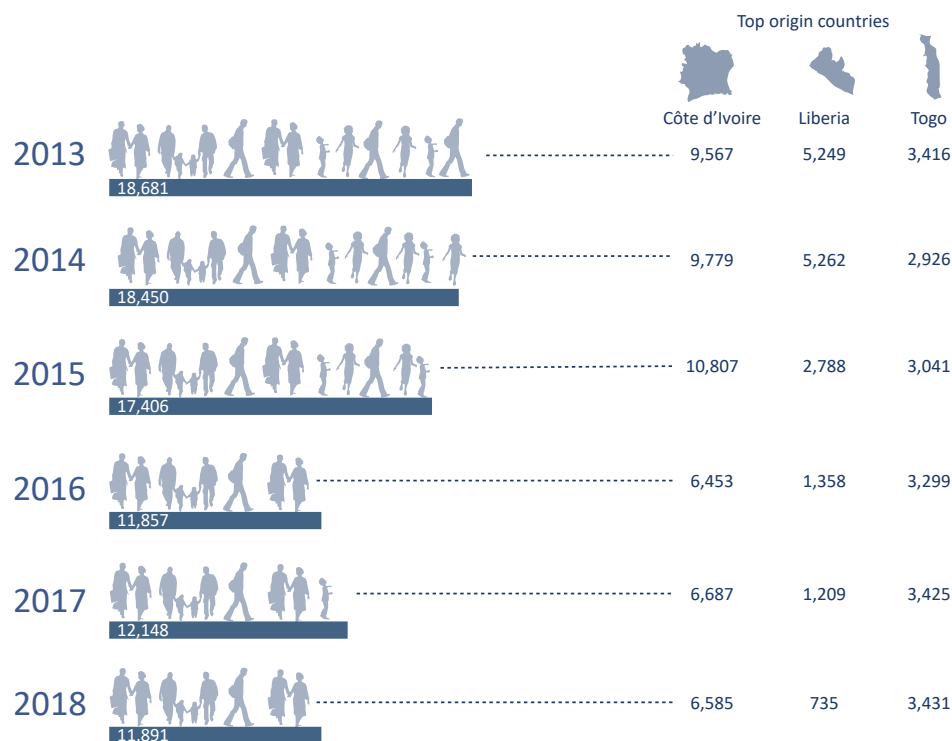
Target 1.3: Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage for the poor and the vulnerable.

A.2.6. Refugees in Ghana

UNHCR reported a total of 11,891 refugees in Ghana in 2018,⁵ many of whom had been hosted in the country for many years (UNHCR, 2018). Countries of the Western African subregion – specifically, Côte d’Ivoire, Togo and Liberia (Figure 8) – continue to be major countries of origin for refugees fleeing to Ghana due to its geographic proximity and relative political and social stability, as well as its cultural and linguistic ties to ethnic groups in countries across the subregion. In addition, pre-colonial and early independence movements into Ghana from other countries in the subregion account for the development of transnational social networks that have facilitated the movement of asylum seekers over the years (GRB, 2017).

⁵ As of April 2019. Refer to the UNHCR Operational Portal for Refugee Situations for updated data: <https://data2.unhcr.org/en/country/gha>.

Figure 8. Refugee population of Ghana, 2013–2018



Source: UNHCR, 2019.

Note: These numbers include both refugees and individuals in refugee-like situations.

1 NO POVERTY



Target 1.3: Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage for the poor and the vulnerable.

A.3. EMIGRATION

A.3.1. Historical background

Emigration from Ghana has been characterized by various trends over time. An economic crisis in 1965 triggered movements, characterized mostly by labour emigration to other African countries. Larger-scale emigration began in the 1980s following poor economic conditions in Ghana and in response to labour shortages in neighbouring countries (Anarfi et al., 2000).

Early post-independence emigration from Ghana was undertaken mostly by emigrants seeking to further their education in European and American universities. This phase was also characterized by the State-sponsored studies of young undergraduates and postgraduates in Eastern Europe and the former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (or “Soviet Union”), driven by the foreign policy of Kwame Nkrumah’s Government and facilitated by the ties between the newly independent state and the Soviet Union (Thompson, 1969). Starting in the 1970s, the already-common emigration of Ghanaians to other countries in the Western African subregion grew even further. These other countries, particularly Nigeria, attracted teachers and various categories of labour migrants (Awumbila et al., 2014).

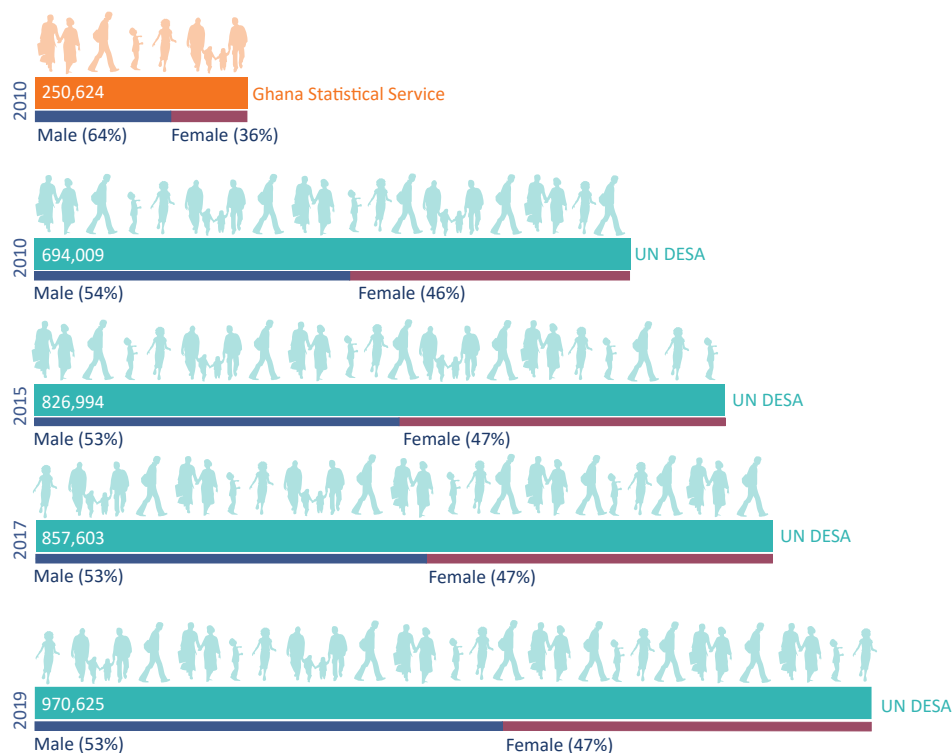
Macroeconomic changes in the 1980s and 1990s under Ghana’s Structural Adjustment Programme and the Economic Recovery Programme led to large-scale redundancies in the public sector and, consequently, another wave of emigration to destinations in Europe and North America, as well as new destinations such as Saudi Arabia, Lebanon and China. Migration to Western African destinations and countries in Eastern and Southern Africa continued. In 1983, Nigeria expelled over 1 million Ghanaians as part of a wider policy of migrant expulsion prompted by a variety of sociopolitical factors (Afolayan, 1988).

Emigration of Ghanaian health workers to Europe and North America increased in recent decades and began to be referred to as the “exodus of health workers” (Quartey, 2009; Asibir, 2004; and Nyonator and Dovlo, 2004). By the early 2000s, policies and measures had been adopted by the Government in Ghana to stem the departure of health workers mainly, including remuneration for overtime work and extended working hours. Under the Single Spine Salary Structure of 2007, these policies were later expanded to cover other sectors and benefit other categories of public workers. (The emigration of health workers in more recent times is explored further in Part B.) More recent destinations of Ghanaian labour emigrants include the Middle East and the Gulf States, where many, including female domestic workers, seek employment opportunities.

A.3.2. Emigrant stocks

The number of Ghanaians living outside of Ghana grew from 716,044 in 2010 to 970,625 in 2019 – an increase of 26.2 per cent (UN DESA, 2019). Male emigrants outnumbered their female counterparts by eight percentage points in 2010 and by six percentage points in 2019 (53% versus 47%) (Figure 9).

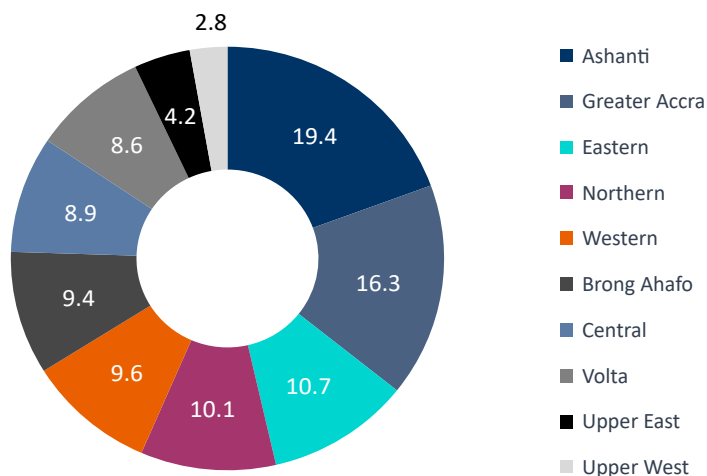
Figure 9. Ghanaian emigrant stock, 2010, 2015, 2017 and 2019



Source: GSS, 2013; and UN DESA, 2019.

Questions pertaining to emigration were included in the Ghana 2010 Population and Housing Census. Respondents were asked if any member(s) of their household had moved to destinations outside of Ghana at least six months prior to the census being conducted (GSS, 2013). The results of the census indicate that, in 2010, there were a total of 250,623 Ghanaians residing abroad (about 1% of Ghana's total population) (Figure 10). The Ashanti and Greater Accra regions were the main places of origin of Ghanaian emigrants, constituting half of the total number. The primacy of these regions can be explained by the fact that they were the two most populated regions in 2010; moreover, the two regions are the most urbanized in the country and serve as stepping-stone for international migration (Figure 10). However, this figure is a significant underestimate of the total number of Ghanaian emigrants, as it only includes those who were resident outside of Ghana for six months or more before the census was conducted and its accuracy relied, in turn, on the accuracy of household members' responses to the census survey. Entire households moving abroad were thus not accounted for, for example.

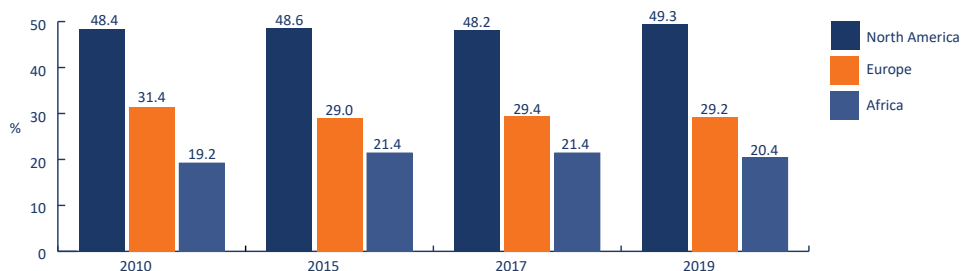
Figure 10. Regional shares (%) of the total population of Ghana, 2010



Source: GSS, 2013.

For the years 2010, 2015, 2017 and 2019, Africa had more Ghanaian emigrants than other regions, hosting 49 per cent of the total number, with Europe and North America trailing behind (29% and 20%, respectively) (Figure 11). Within Africa, Western Africa was the most popular destination subregion for Ghanaian emigrants; 96 per cent of the total number of Ghanaian emigrants in Africa resided there in 2019, reflecting a history of mobility of Ghanaians within the subregion and, likely, the effects of the ECOWAS Protocol (Figure 12).

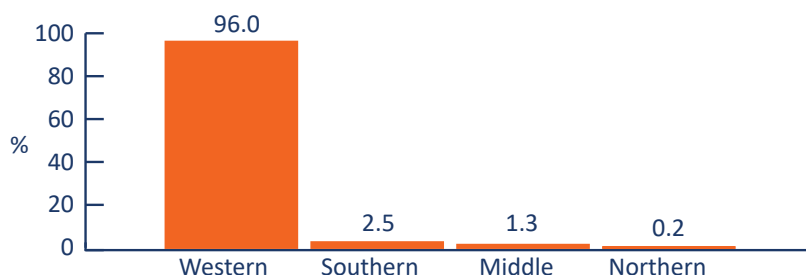
Figure 11. Distribution (%) of Ghanaian emigrants among the top three destination regions, 2010, 2015, 2017 and 2019



Source: UN DESA, 2019.

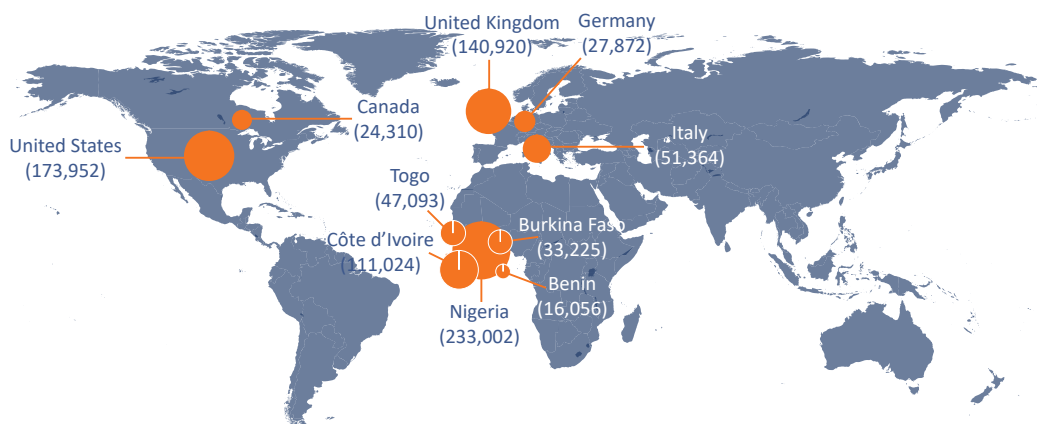
Note: Figures do not total 100 per cent on year, as other destination regions (approx. 1%) are not represented in the graph.

Figure 12. Distribution (%) of Ghanaian emigrants by destination within Africa, 2019



Source: UN DESA, 2019.

Figure 13. Top ten countries with the largest Ghanaian immigrant stocks, 2019

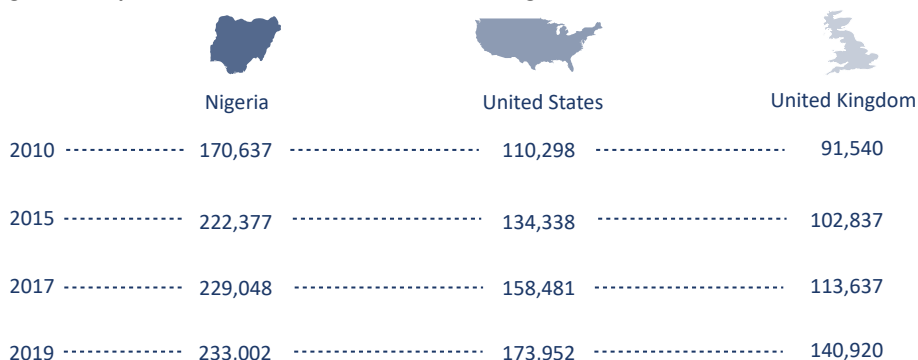


Source: UN DESA, 2019.

Note: This map is for illustration purposes only. The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the International Organization for Migration.

Historical data shows that Nigeria, the United States and the United Kingdom have constantly ranked as the top three countries of destination. In 2019, almost one out of every four Ghanaian emigrants (24.0% or 233,002) was living in Nigeria, making it the top country of destination. The top country of destination outside of Africa, and second globally, was the United States, home to 17.9 per cent or 173,952 Ghanaian nationals. The United Kingdom hosted the largest Ghanaian population in Europe and the third largest globally, with 140,920 or approximately 14.5 per cent of Ghana's total emigrant stock (Figures 13 and 14).

Figure 14. Top destination countries for Ghanaian emigrants, 2010, 2015, 2017 and 2019



Source: UN DESA, 2019.

A.3.3. Migrant outflows

The GIS recorded a total of 914,984 departures from Ghana in 2019 (GIS, 2019), compared to 990,313 in 2018. After Ghanaians, the largest number of departures recorded by a single group in 2018 consisted of Nigerian (74,492), American (72,749) and British nationals (47,473) (Table 5). (These nationalities match the top destination countries of Ghanaian emigrants – and in the same order – described in Section A.3.2.) The vast majority of these departures took place through the Kotoka International Airport in Accra.

Table 5. Departures from Ghana by nationality, 2018

| Country of nationality | Total | Percentage |
|------------------------|---------|------------|
| Ghana | 296 720 | 32.43 |
| Nigeria | 74 492 | 8.14 |
| United States | 72 749 | 7.95 |
| United Kingdom | 47 473 | 5.19 |
| India | 22 187 | 2.42 |
| China | 18 913 | 2.07 |
| Germany | 17 804 | 1.95 |
| South Africa | 15 367 | 1.68 |
| Côte d'Ivoire | 12 698 | 1.39 |
| Liberia | 12 536 | 1.37 |
| Netherlands | 12 501 | 1.37 |
| France | 11 812 | 1.29 |
| Burkina Faso | 11 503 | 1.26 |
| Canada | 11 195 | 1.22 |

| Country of nationality | Total | Percentage |
|------------------------|----------------|---------------|
| Togo | 7 628 | 0.83 |
| Lebanon | 6 825 | 0.75 |
| Australia | 4 703 | 0.51 |
| Other countries | 257 878 | 28.18 |
| Total | 914 984 | 100.00 |

Source: GIS, 2019.

An additional source of migrant outflow data until 2018 was the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (However, data is limited to Ghanaian migrants in OECD countries only.) The top ten OECD countries of destination for Ghanaians in 2018 were the United States, Italy, Germany, Spain, Canada, Turkey, the Netherlands, Belgium, Republic of Korea and Japan (Table 6).⁶ Between 2000 and 2017, the number of Ghanaians emigrating to OECD countries rose from 12,859 to 23,633 (Figure 15), with the United States, Italy and Germany as key destination countries.

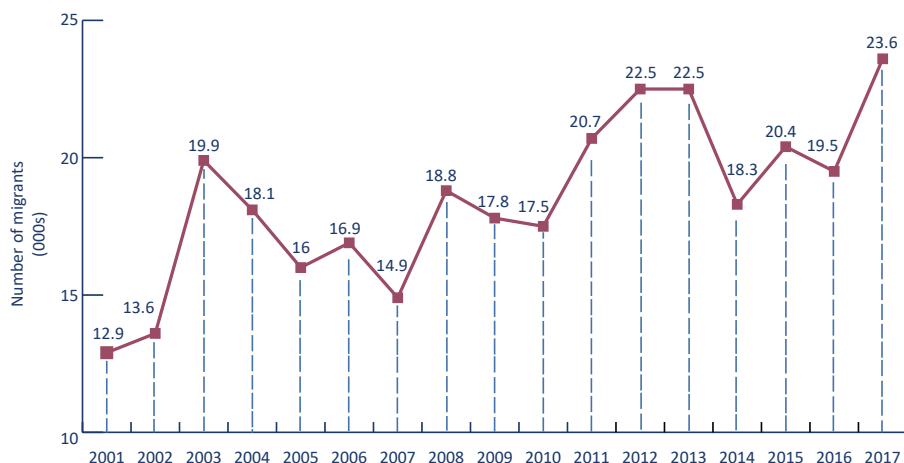
Table 6. Top ten OECD destination countries for Ghanaian migrants, 2017

| Country of destination | Flows of Ghanaian migrants |
|------------------------|----------------------------|
| United States | 8 455 |
| Italy | 5 968 |
| Germany | 3 785 |
| Spain | 1 233 |
| Canada | 685 |
| Turkey | 477 |
| Netherlands | 471 |
| Belgium | 399 |
| Republic of Korea | 389 |
| Japan | 311 |

Source: OECD, 2019.

⁶ Note that Table 6 does not include data for the United Kingdom.

Figure 15. Flows of Ghanaian migrants to OECD countries, 2001–2017



Source: OECD, 2019.

The most recent national data on migration flows from Ghana, specifically for the 2015–2016 period, comes from MELR (2018)⁷ and shows that some States in the Gulf region (and the Middle East at large), namely, Saudi Arabia, Qatar and Jordan, have become relatively popular destinations for Ghanaian emigrants. UN DESA data on international migrant stocks in the region record no Ghanaians in 2019, save for 27 in Jordan. This discrepancy illustrates how national and international flow and stock data can differ across sources and/or that there are different dimensions of the migration process.

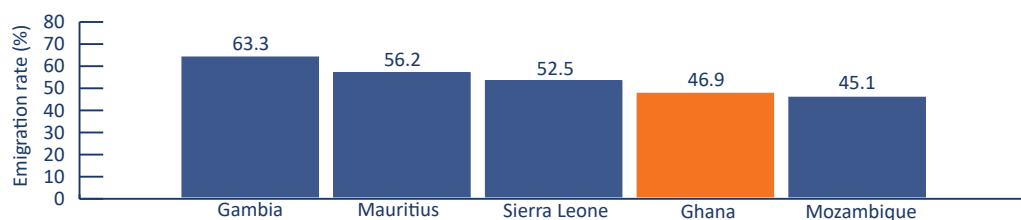
The said MELR data also shows that the gender composition of emigrant flows changed during the two-year period. In 2015, more than three times the number of men (1,357) than women (398) migrated to the Gulf States. The gender inequality was reversed in 2016, as the number of men decreased by about one quarter and the number of women increased by more than twofold (1,069 versus 1,303). In 2017, significantly more Ghanaian women (903) emigrants travelled to Gulf States than men (686). This shift was mainly due to an increased demand for domestic workers, who tend to be women. Based on national data from 2017, almost all women travelling to Gulf States, mostly Saudi Arabia, were prospective domestic workers. Among Ghanaian men migrating to all Gulf States in the same year, popular occupations included labourer, mason and steel fixer. (MELR, 2018)

⁷ It is important to note that the figures provided by the MELR are official figures. Anecdotal evidence suggests that movements to the Middle East may also take place irregularly and are, therefore, not recorded.

A.3.4. Labour emigration

It was estimated that in 2000, a staggering 46.9 per cent of tertiary-educated Ghanaians emigrated, mostly to the United States and Europe (Docquier and Marfouk, 2005) (Figure 16). According to estimates from 2006, 33.8 per cent of Ghanaian emigrants living in OECD countries at the time were classified as medium-skilled workers, while 27.6 per cent were highly skilled (Asare, 2012, citing the European Union, 2006).

Figure 16. Top five highest tertiary-educated emigration rates (%) in Africa, 2000



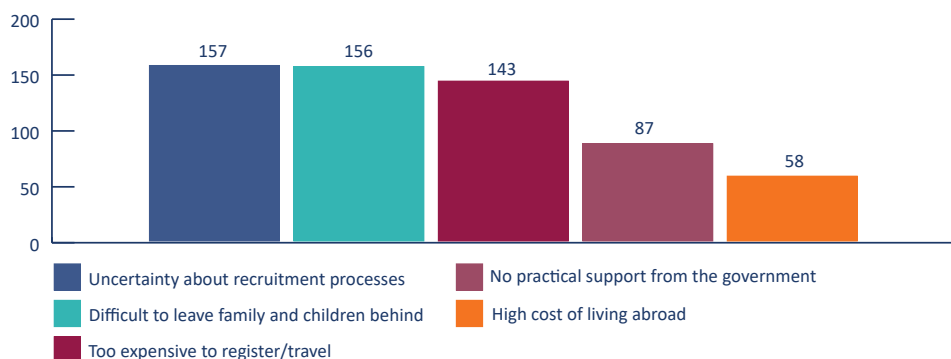
Source: Docquier and Marfouk, 2005.

The emigration of highly skilled workers from Ghana, especially health workers, has received a great deal of attention from policymakers and the general public alike. Studies by Anarfi et al. (2010) and Teye et al. (2015) indicate that the migration of health workers from Ghana has increased since the 1980s. According to Awumbila et al. (2014, citing IOM, 2009), an estimated 56 per cent of doctors and 24 per cent of nurses trained in Ghana were working in developed countries, mainly in Europe and North America, in 2009.


A study of the Ghana Registered Nurses Association and the Ghana Health Services Workers' Union in 2011 examined why some health workers decide not to migrate (Figure 17). The most common reasons are of a practical nature and included concerns about the uncertainty of the recruitment process and the difficulty of leaving families and children behind. Travel expenses and the cost of registering with recruitment agencies were also commonly cited factors.⁸

⁸ Note that reasons for not migrating may differ today and that the findings of the 2011 study were based on responses from 503 interviewees, which was not a representative sample.

Figure 17. Reasons given by Ghanaian health workers for choosing not to migrate, 2011




Source: Pilliger, 2011.



8 DECENT WORK AND ECONOMIC GROWTH

Target 8.8: Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment.



3 GOOD HEALTH AND WELL-BEING

Target 3c: Substantially increase health financing and the recruitment, development, training and retention of the health workforce in developing countries, especially in least developed countries and small island developing States.

A.3.5. Ghanaian asylum seekers abroad

Data shows the volume of Ghanaians seeking asylum abroad fluctuating yearly from 2012 to 2018, when they totalled 5,635.9. This was a sharp drop from the 17,503 recorded the year before – 7,121 of whom in Italy alone. (Figure 18)

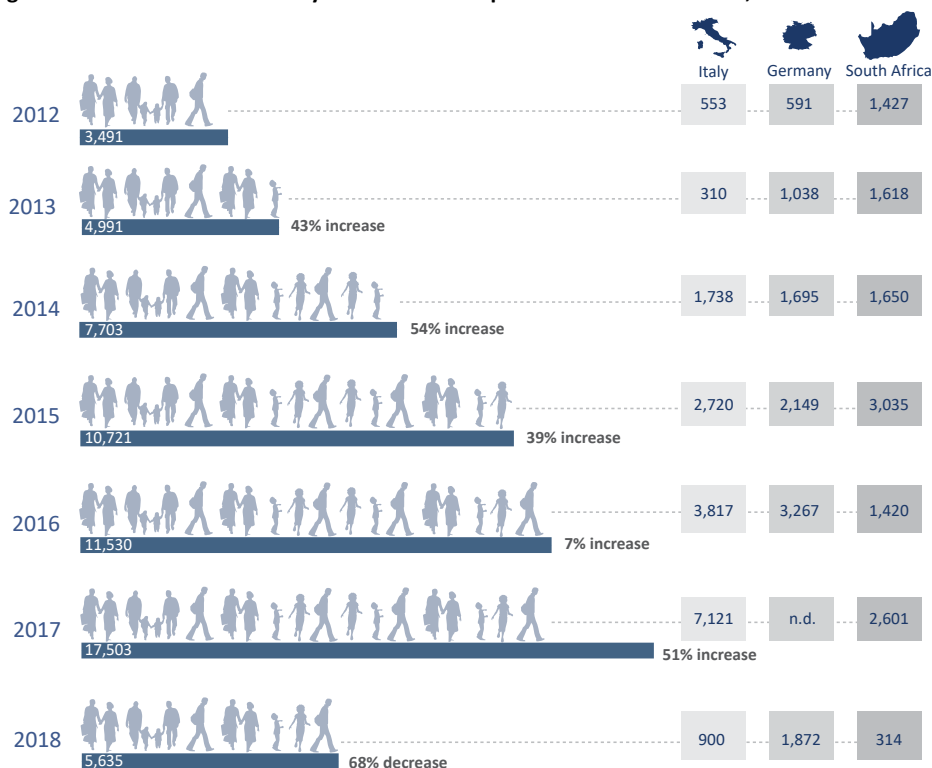
Brazil was as a key destination country in 2017 with over 2,000 applicants, although it received just 178 applicants in 2018. While little information is available on this phenomenon, there has been evidence that Western African

⁹ This includes first-instance applications with both UNHCR and governments, as well as applications under new judicial, administrative or other government agency review, and repeat or reopened applications.

migrants are increasingly travelling to Brazil and other Latin American countries. (Freier, 2018)

There is little quality data available on the reasons why Ghanaian individuals seek asylum. As of 2018, there are over 12,500 Ghanaian applications pending status determination around the world, with 5,972 in Italy, 2,557 in South Africa, 2,305 in Brazil and 1,913 in Germany (UNHCR, 2019).

Figure 18. Stocks of Ghanaian asylum seekers in top countries of destination, 2012–2018



Source: UNHCR, 2019.

1 NO POVERTY



Target 1.3: Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage for the poor and the vulnerable.

A.3.6. Ghanaian refugees abroad

A significant number of Ghanaians are recognized as refugees around the world every year. A general downtrend was observed from 2012 to the end of 2018 (from 24,298 to 18,036). Togo, Italy and France were the top host countries throughout this period.



Target 1.3: Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage for the poor and the vulnerable.

A.4. ADDITIONAL MIGRATION CATEGORIES AND THEMES

A.4.1. Return migration

While large numbers of Ghanaians emigrate each year, smaller (yet significant) numbers return, either voluntarily or forcibly. The return and reintegration of migrants unwilling or unable to remain in destination or transit countries has gained increased political significance in recent years around the world, including in Ghana.

This Migration Profile draws from IOM data on assisted voluntary returns and studies on the experiences of migrants and reasons for return, as well as annual reports provided by the GIS. While these sources help understand the phenomenon, some data gaps remain, including, for example, in the socioeconomic characteristics of these migrants and on different aspects of their reintegration.



Target 1.4: By 2030, ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance.

10 REDUCED INEQUALITIES



Target 10.7: Facilitate orderly safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies.

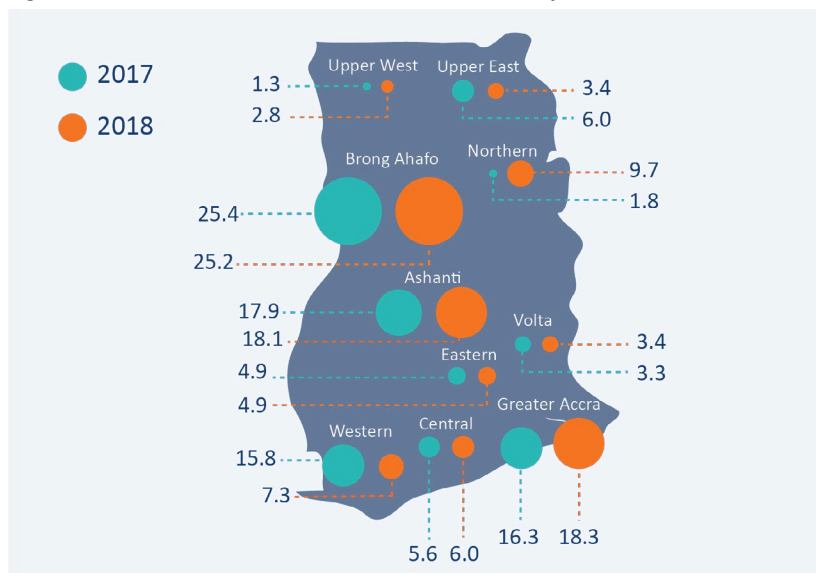
A.4.1.2. Voluntary return

In recent years, many Ghanaian nationals have returned to Ghana, either autonomously or through assistance programmes that target the various stages of return – pre-departure from the host country, transit and arrival. In Ghana, among other countries around the world, IOM manages assisted voluntary return and reintegration programmes aimed at providing “administrative, logistical or financial support, including reintegration assistance, to migrants unable or unwilling to remain in the host country or country of transit and who decide to return to their country of origin.” (IOM, 2019a)

Anecdotal evidence suggests that large numbers of nationals return through their own means. It is difficult to provide accurate and comprehensive numbers, but IOM assisted a total of 620 Ghanaians (564 men and 56 women) to return home voluntarily in 2018. This number is significant, considering that between 2012 and 2017, a total of 1,241 beneficiaries were assisted to return – 634 (585 men and 49 women) in 2017 alone. The recent surge in returns includes large numbers of Ghanaian returnees from Libya: between June 2017 and December 2018, a total of 816 (761 men and 55 women) Ghanaians stranded in Libya, majority of whom were being held in detention centres, were assisted by IOM to return home voluntarily.

In 2018, 25.2 per cent of IOM-assisted returnees were originally from the Brong Ahafo region, 18.3 per cent from Greater Accra and 18.1 per cent from Ashanti. The percentage of migrants returned to the Western region fell significantly from the year before. (Figure 19)

Figure 19. Relocation of Ghanaian returnees assisted by IOM, 2017 and 2018



Source: IOM Ghana, 2019.

Note: Figures shown are percentages of total returnees each year. Around 1 per cent of returnees' return regions are unidentified. This map is for illustration purposes only. The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the International Organization for Migration.

Reintegration assistance through IOM programmes may consist of in-kind assistance, support in establishing small businesses and/or further education, through either a school or vocational training. Reintegration activities also include provision of psychosocial counselling, medical assistance, referrals to support programmes and monitoring of the reintegration process. Projects operate on an individual, collective or community level. IOM Ghana's return and reintegration support for returnees coming from transit countries, implemented in collaboration with the Government of Ghana, is part of the European Union–IOM Joint Initiative for Migrant Protection and Reintegration in Ghana, which began in June 2017 and is funded through the European Union Emergency Trust Fund (EUTF) for Africa.

A.4.1.3. Forced return

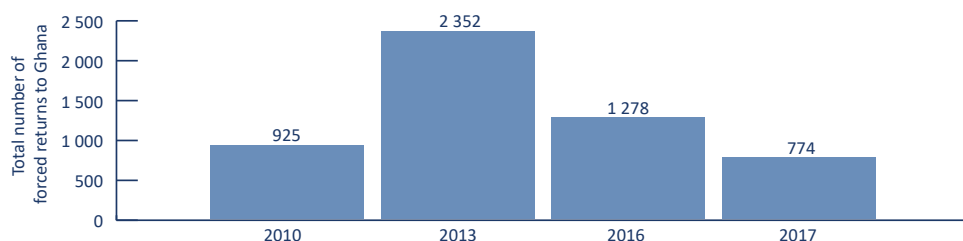
Forced return is defined as the compulsory return of an individual to his or her country of origin, or to a transit or third country, through an administrative or judicial act (IOM, 2019a). While no comprehensive policy on forced return exists, the Government of Ghana provides (limited) support to forced returnees on arrival, in the form of, for instance, allowances for onward transportation and (limited) medical support for vulnerable cases.

In Ghana, ad hoc interventions by institutions like the GIS, NADMO and MFARI have highlighted the need for a comprehensive policy on managing forced return and reintegration of nationals. This is fully in line with the National Migration Policy, which recommended that the Government should adopt specific strategies to address the policy gap. (MOI, 2016)

According to the 2017 GIS Annual Report, 774 Ghanaians were forcibly returned from various countries for different reasons, including security-related ones and non-compliance with immigration laws. This number represents a decrease from 2010 (925), 2013 (2,352) and 2016 (1,278). (Figure 20)

It is difficult to discern patterns as regards forced returns, as the main countries from which Ghanaians are forcibly returned have changed over the years. In 2013, the vast majority (68%) of the 2,352 Ghanaian forced returnees returned were returned from Libya.

Figure 20. Forced returns of Ghanaians, 2010, 2013, 2016 and 2017



Source: GIS, 2010, 2016 and 2017.

There is no regular or comprehensive monitoring or data collection on the profiles and socioeconomic situations of forced returnees once they are back in Ghana. However, some evidence suggests they often experience difficulties on return, including in establishing secure livelihoods, and may attempt to migrate again (Kleist, 2018).

In cases of both forced and voluntary returns, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and international organizations operating in Ghana offer services to help returnees to reintegrate, for example, through counselling, training and job placement assistance (through engagement with a network of employers). For example, Returnees Diasporas Integrated Development Organization, Hamburg–Ghana Bridge, Sahara Hustlers Association and the Returnee Diaspora, African Development Organization for Migration, Scholars in Transit, the European Union and IOM (through various activities under EUTF (see Part C for more information)) and the German Society for International Cooperation, through IOM and its Ghanaian–German Centre for Jobs, Migration and Reintegration.

A.4.2. Internal migration

Ghana has a high number of internal migrants. The results of the 2000 and 2010 censuses both indicate that a greater proportion of people moved between regions (interregional migration) than within regions (intra-regional migration). This implies that internal movements in Ghana are characterized more by long-distance than short-distance movements. The results further indicate that the volume of internal migration has increased in Ghana since 2000. (Table 7)

Table 7. Ghanaian migrants, by type of migration and sex (number and %), 2000 and 2010

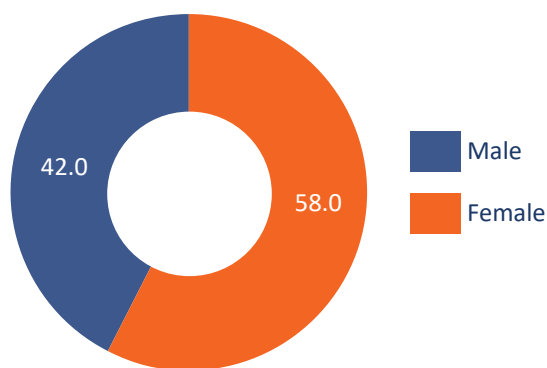
| Migration status | 2000 | | | 2010 | | |
|------------------------|-------------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| | Total | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female |
| Non-migrant | 12 054 443 | 5 865 651 | 6 188 792 | 15 565 662 | 7 681 865 | 7 883 797 |
| | (69.8%) | (69.7%) | (69.9%) | (65.9%) | (66.8%) | (65.0%) |
| Intra-regional migrant | 1 884 940 | 863 551 | 1 021 389 | 3 581 264 | 1 606 025 | 1 975 239 |
| | (10.9%) | (10.3%) | (11.5%) | (15.1%) | (14.0%) | (16.3%) |
| Interregional migrant | 3 318 599 | 1 680 682 | 1 637 917 | 4 486 397 | 2 209 990 | 2 276 407 |
| | (19.2%) | (20.0%) | (18.5%) | (19.0%) | (19.2%) | (18.7%) |
| Total | 17 257 982 | 8 409 884 | 8 848 098 | 23 633 323 | 11 497 880 | 12 135 443 |
| | (100.0%) | (100.0%) | (100.0%) | (100.0%) | (100.0%) | (100.0%) |

Source: GSS, 2013.

Note: Persons categorized as Ghanaians by birth in the census include those with dual nationality.

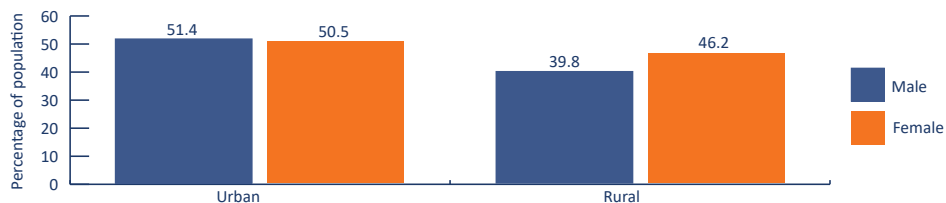
The GSS (2016) reported that in 2015, the proportion of internal migrants in urban areas (50.9%) exceeded those in rural areas (43.3%); in addition, there were more female (3,742,626) than male (2,745,438) internal migrants (Figure 21). Moreover, while close to half (46.2%) of the female population in rural areas were internal migrants, only 39.8 per cent of their male counterparts were internal migrants (Figure 22). In rural Ghana, there were higher shares of women in both the migrant and non-migrant populations (the non-migrant population is about 55% female and 45% male) (GSS, 2016).

Figure 21. Sex distribution (%) of Ghana's internal migrants, 2015



Source: GSS, 2016.

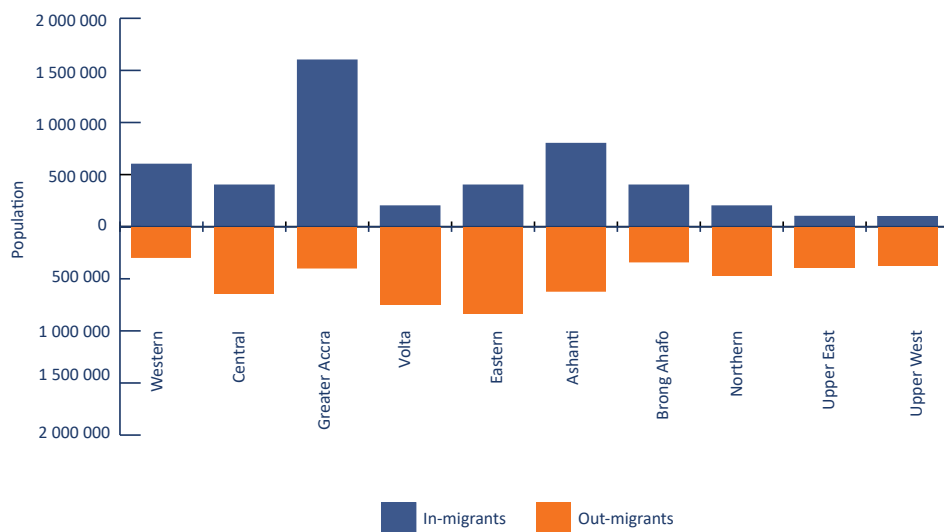
Figure 22. Sex distribution (%) of Ghana's rural and urban internal migrant populations, 2015



Source: GSS, 2016.

The 2010 census showed that the Greater Accra, Ashanti, Western and Brong Ahafo regions hosted the largest volumes of internal migrants (Figure 23). The Eastern, Volta and Ashanti regions, on the other hand, had the largest volumes of out-migrants.

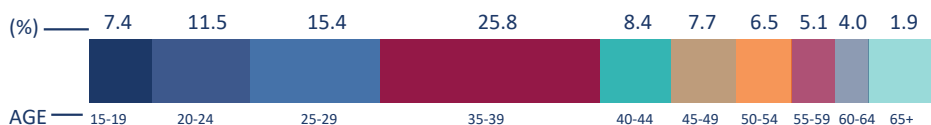
Figure 23. In-migrants and out-migrants by region of Ghana, 2010



Source: GSS, 2013.

In 2015, more than half (52.7%) of the internal migrant population of Ghana were 20 to 39 years old (Figure 24).

Figure 24. Age structure of the internal migrant population 15 years and older, 2015

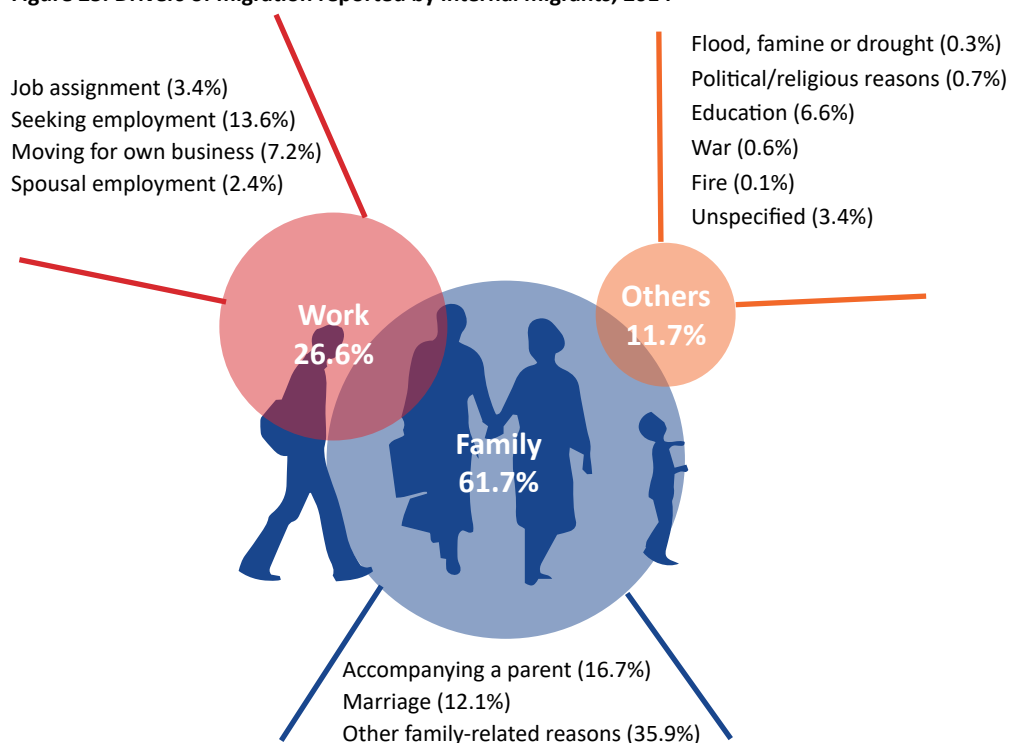


Source: GSS, 2016.

Note: The 30–34 age cohort is missing in the source.



In the Ghana Living Standards Survey (Round 6), majority of internal migrants stated that the move was prompted by family- (61.7%) or work-related (26.6%) reasons (Figure 25). It is important to note that while many migrants perceived their decision to migrate as being linked to economic and food security reasons, these may ultimately be traced to loss of livelihood due, for instance, to climate change (Warner et al., 2012; and Tschakert et al., 2010).

Figure 25. Drivers of migration reported by internal migrants, 2014



Source: GSS, 2014.

A.4.3. Internally displaced persons

| | |
|---|--|
| <p>1 NO POVERTY</p>  | <p>Target 1.3: Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage for the poor and the vulnerable.</p> |
| <p>13 CLIMATE ACTION</p>  | <p>Target 13.1: Strengthen resilience and adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards and natural disasters in all countries.</p> |

Over the years, natural disasters have been the main cause of internal displacement in Ghana. According to the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC), the number of people displaced by extreme flooding gradually fell after a peak of 52,000 in 2009. In 2018, there were 61,000 new displacements due to disasters, 56,000 of which were due to flooding. In the same year, there were, in addition, 5,000 people newly displaced due to conflict and violence triggered by land disputes between two ethnic communities in the Northern region. IDMC estimated a total of 5,000 internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Ghana in 2018 (IDMC, 2019). Another source, NADMO, estimates that over 1 million persons were either killed, injured or affected by natural disasters (mainly floods, rain and windstorms) from 2010 to 2017.

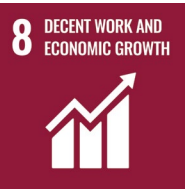

A.4.4. Irregular migration

Data on the stock, flows and characteristics of irregular migrants are notoriously patchy and unreliable. There are legal implications to irregular migration and, as such, much of it is carried out covertly. Migrants with an irregular status, therefore, are not easily identified through traditional data sources, such as housing records, work permits, censuses and surveys. As a result, law enforcement-related and other proxy data, for example, the number of apprehended irregular arrivals and arrests of smugglers, are sometimes used to estimate the scale of and trends in irregular migration. These estimates, however, do not provide the full picture.

Irregular migrants include those apprehended for unauthorized entry through a country's border or whose presence, stay and/or employment are unauthorized, such as after the expiration of their visas. "Irregularity" refers to a migrant's legal status according to the laws of the country and is itself subject to change. Major sources of relevant information and data on irregular migration in Ghana include the GIS, which collects them from official registers and other administrative repositories, and national and regional statistical and security agencies outside of Ghana (e.g. Eurostat and Frontex).

The GIS refused entry into Ghana to 175 foreigners in 2017; 209 were denied entry in 2016, when, in addition, 30 persons were accused of irregular stay, 18 of whom were repatriated. The agency also recorded 1,056 Ghanaians who were refused entry into various countries in 2017 and returned to Ghana. The number represents a decrease of 15.2 per cent from the 1,245 recorded in 2016. (GIS, 2018)

A.4.5. Human trafficking

| | |
|---|--|
|  | Target 5.2: Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking, sexual and other types of exploitation. |
|  | Target 8.7: Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labour in all its forms. |
|  | Target 16.2: End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children. |

According to the United Nations Convention on Transnational Organized Crime and its protocols on trafficking in persons and migrant-smuggling:

“Trafficking in persons” shall mean the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.” (United Nations, 2000a and 2000b)

The Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000, as amended, defines “severe forms of trafficking in persons” as either:

- (a) “[S]ex trafficking in which a commercial sex act is induced by force, fraud, or coercion, or in which the person induced to perform such an act has not attained 18 years of age”;
- (b) “[T]he recruitment, harbouring, transportation, provision, or obtaining of a person for labour or services, through the use of force, fraud, or coercion for the purpose of subjection to involuntary servitude, peonage, debt bondage, or slavery.”

This section presents key figures and trends in human trafficking within, from and to Ghana. Although the data is imperfect, available sources provide a broad picture of human trafficking trends in Ghana. This report relies on data from various sources (national and international), including the AHTU and organizations such as IOM and the International Justice Mission (IJM), as well as Eurostat’s database for data on victims of trafficking in Europe.

A.4.5.1. Human trafficking within Ghana

Ghana is a source, transit and destination country of victims of human trafficking. The Government reported identifying 348 potential victims of trafficking in 2018 (of which 252 were children). Of the total number, the GPS identified 285 potential victims, of which 242 potential victims of labour trafficking. Most of these were children (231) and were mostly boys (190). Additionally, the GIS identified 55 potential victims – of which 39 were of labour trafficking, almost half of whom were adult Ghanaian women (United States Department of State (DOS), 2018).

In 2018, the Government reported initiating 82 investigations into suspected human trafficking, compared to 113 in 2017 and 137 in 2016, although it must be noted that the decrease in these figures does not necessarily mean there were fewer trafficking victims through the years. Of these, the AHTU reported 67 investigations of potential trafficking crimes – 48 involving suspected labour trafficking, mostly of Ghanaian children within Ghana, with the remaining

19 involving sex trafficking, nearly all of which were the transnational trafficking of Nigerian women and girls.¹⁰

Ghanaian boys and girls are subjected to conditions of forced labour within the country in various sectors: fishing, domestic service, street-hawking, begging, portering, artisanal gold mining and agriculture (including in cocoa-growing areas). Children from northerly regions are vulnerable to forced labour when they are sent by their parents to work in the south during the dry season. Ghanaian girls (and, to a lesser extent, boys) may become victims of sex trafficking, particularly to urban areas. (US DOS, 2018)

Child trafficking is especially prevalent in the Volta Region (US DOS, 2017). In 2013, more than half (57.6%) of children working in the southern part of Lake Volta were trafficked for the purposes of labour (IJM, 2016); one fifth of all children observed in a study were six years old or younger (Table 8). In a study on the prevalence of child trafficking in selected communities in the Volta and Central Regions, children from nearly one third of the 1,621 households surveyed had been subjected to trafficking, primarily in fishing and domestic servitude. Research has shown that boys as young as five years old are forced to work in dangerous conditions there (including deep-diving), with many suffering waterborne infections. There is evidence that girls are involved in cooking, cleaning and preparing fish for market sale, and are often vulnerable to sexual abuse (US DOS, 2018).

Table 8. Trafficking of children across Lake Volta, 2013

| Status | Number of children | Percentage of total |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| Trafficking cases | 444 | 57.6 |
| Suspected trafficking cases | 287 | 37.2 |
| Confirmed trafficking cases | 157 | 20.4 |
| Not trafficked | 327 | 42.4 |
| Total | 771 | 100.0 |

Source: IJM, 2016.

¹⁰ The GIS reported investigating 14 suspected trafficking cases, of which 10 were suspected labour trafficking cases, and 4 were suspected sex trafficking cases (US DOS, 2019). The Government reported initiating 13 prosecutions in 2018 (compared to 29 in 2017 and 11 in 2016), including 9 labour trafficking cases and 4 sex trafficking cases, against 42 alleged traffickers. Of these, the Government prosecuted 30 defendants for alleged labour trafficking and 12 defendants for alleged sex trafficking. The GPS and GIS prosecuted 30 alleged traffickers and state attorneys prosecuted 12. Despite these numbers, convictions remain low. In 2018, the Government convicted seven traffickers, four for labour and three for sex trafficking. All convicted traffickers received prison terms ranging from five to seven years. Limited resources and capacity to produce evidence and strong dockets to support investigated cases partially account for the limited numbers of convictions.

In a survey conducted in the Volta Region, only 4.7 per cent of respondents understood child trafficking to be a human rights violation (IOM, 2016). This may have to do with the ubiquitous cultural practice of placing children in the care of non-biological parents (institutional fostering) prompted by, for example, domestic instability, migration or death of parents, or the child's own desire to acquire skills, learn a trade or be an apprentice, in preparation for a future career. In certain cases, these arrangements can lead to the exploitation of the child. Indeed, parents and relatives who hand over their children to traffickers are not always aware of the details of such arrangements, such as where their children are being sent and the true nature of the work they are engaged in (ILO-IPEC, 2013). Organizations such as IOM and UNICEF have undertaken initiatives in Ghana to raise awareness of human trafficking in communities and other stakeholders. In 2018, for example, IOM trained 500 government officials from the Volta, Central and Greater Accra Regions to strengthen their capacity to protect victims of trafficking, including in the identification of victims, based on its Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) to Combat Human Trafficking in Ghana, with an Emphasis on Child Trafficking.¹¹

A.4.5.2. Cross-border human trafficking

Ghana is an exporting country of forced labour and commercial sex work, with Ghanaian women and children trafficked to Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, France, Gambia, Germany, Israel, Kuwait, Lebanon, Nigeria, the Russian Federation, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, the Syrian Arab Republic, the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, and the United States for forced labour and forced prostitution (Ghana AHTU, 2017).

It is not clear how many Ghanaian victims of trafficking there are outside of Ghana. The Counter-Trafficking Data Collaborative (CTDC) reported a total of 1,206 identified Ghanaian victims of human trafficking around the world from 2005 to 2017 (CTDC, 2017). It must be noted that CTDC collects data on identified trafficking victims, which may vary from actual numbers (usually an undercount). Therefore, as explained previously, this seeming downtrend does not necessarily mean fewer trafficking victims through the years.¹²

¹¹ IOM, "IOM launches standard operating procedures to combat human trafficking in Ghana", press release, 5 March 2018 (Geneva). Available at www.iom.int/news/iom-launches-standard-operating-procedures-combat-human-trafficking-ghana.

¹² For more data on human trafficking, refer to the Migration Data Portal of IOM's Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (GMDAC), available at <https://migrationdataportal.org/themes/human-trafficking>.

The GIS intercepted a total of 35 victims of trafficking travelling from Ghana to the Gulf region in 2017. Among these victims, 22 were Ghanaians, 7 were Nigerian, 5 were Ivorian and 1 was Togolese; around two thirds of them were men and one third were women (GIS, 2018).

Eurostat records the number of first residence permits issued by European Union countries to victims of trafficking – they, however, represent only a very small portion of the total trafficked population. A total of 197 residence permits were issued by European Union countries to victims of trafficking from Ghana, with Italy and the Netherlands accounting for the highest numbers (Eurostat, 2017).

There is also evidence of Ghana being a destination country for victims of human trafficking. These victims include women and girls from China, Côte d'Ivoire, Benin, Burkina Faso and Nigeria trafficked for sexual exploitation, as well as workers from Western African countries trafficked for labour, especially in the agriculture and domestic work sectors (US DOS, 2018). Lastly, a 2017 project by MoGCSP in support of street children identified children from Mali and the Niger being forced into the sex trade (MoGCSP, 2019).

A.4.6. Smuggling

Migrant smuggling refers to “the procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State Party of which the person is not a national or permanent resident” (United Nations, 2000); it differs from human trafficking in that it does not require an element of exploitation, coercion or violation of human rights. Unlike trafficking in human beings, smuggling of migrants must involve the crossing of an international border, and may be consensual, although it is likewise often unsafe. It is important to note that although not always present, exploitation may be part of smuggling; reliance on smugglers makes migrants, both men and women, particularly vulnerable to abuse and/or exploitation (IOM, 2016).

Despite an increased international focus on smuggling, the data required to understand and measure smuggling of migrants remains scarce (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), 2014). As such, data from specific corridors and proxy indicators (e.g. apprehensions of irregular migrants) are often used to estimate the scale of smuggling.

There are no reliable estimates of smuggling into or out of Ghana, although it is suspected that there are smuggling routes from Ghana to the Gulf States, Europe and the United States. Anecdotal sources indicate that smugglers are used for several aspects of the migration undertaking: planning and decision-making, travel logistics, and integration at the destination (Akwei, 2017; and Ghana AHTU, 2017). In Ghana, low patronage of birth registration and other systems for the processing and issuance of identity documents (which are usually required for regular migration) are also linked to the use of smugglers (NIA, 2017).¹³ Similarly, restrictive immigration policies in countries of destination and the absence of regular migration channels are often seen as obstacles by potential migrants, who may then resort to middlemen, especially when they do not have a sufficient level of education (Akwei, 2017; and Ghana AHTU, 2017).

A.4.7. Stateless persons

There are no comprehensive statistics on the number of stateless persons in Ghana (or Western Africa more generally), and there is no data at all from UNHCR on this.¹⁴ However, the data situation may improve as various actors continue to advocating for the Ghanaian Government's ratification of the Convention on Statelessness. At the same time, planned studies to map statelessness are promising to shed more light on the phenomenon (Manby, 2016; and UNHCR, 2016).



Target 1.3: Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage for the poor and the vulnerable.

¹³ Only 63 per cent of children under 5 years of age were reported as registered in 2011; in rural areas, this figure falls to 55 per cent (UNHCR, 2017). Although registration of children at birth has been on the agenda of the Ministry of Children, Gender and Social Protection in recent years, especially following the adoption of the Abidjan Declaration in February 2015 by 15 ECOWAS countries, registration and coverage in Ghana have not yet improved (Bingley, 2017).

¹⁴ According to *UNHCR Statistical Yearbook 2016*, there are 694,115 stateless people in West Africa, of which 694,000 from Côte d'Ivoire. The number is based on a Government estimate. No numbers were recorded for Ghana.

A.4.8. Migrant deaths and disappearances

The East, West and Central Mediterranean routes refer to various sea journeys that commonly serve as corridors for migrants, including Ghanaians, coming from East and Western Africa to Europe. These routes are often dangerous, with 2,299 deaths in the Mediterranean Sea recorded in 2018 and 1,090 in 2019 as of the start of November 2019, (IOM, 2019b).

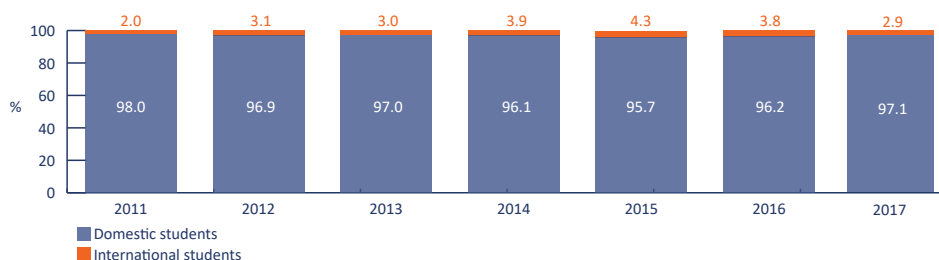
It is important to note that missing migrants far outnumber recorded deaths. Countless people disappear during their journeys – in shipwrecks in the high seas, at remote land borders, in the Sahara Desert or in various other place at the hands of criminal gangs and organizations. Many deaths are simply not recorded or, even if so, not officially recognized, especially when the deceased migrant does not carry any identity document. While confirmed deaths of Ghanaian nationals through the IOM Missing Migrants Project are few (1 in 2018 and 5 in 2017), the actual number is likely to be higher.

A.4.9. Students

A.4.9.1. International students in Ghana

Increasing numbers of international students are being registered in Ghana in recent years, the highest in 2017 (12,978). The student inbound mobility rate¹⁵ to Ghana has increased from 2 per cent in 2011 to almost 3 per cent of total tertiary education enrolment in 2017 (Figure 26). During this year, the vast majority (70.3%) of international students came from Nigeria (9,127), followed by Gabon (509), Côte d'Ivoire (434) and the Congo (426) (Figure 27).

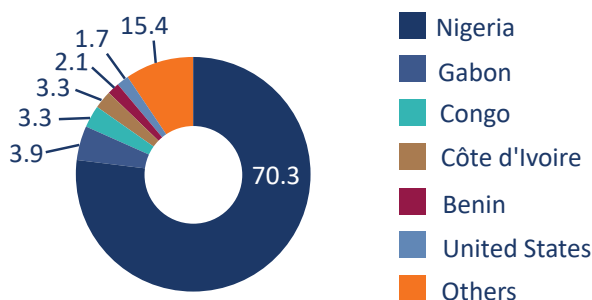
Figure 26. Inbound student mobility rate, 2011–2017



Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), 2018.

¹⁵ Inbound mobility rate is the number of students from abroad studying in a country, expressed as a percentage of total tertiary enrolment in that country, as defined by UNESCO (UNESCO Institute of Statistics, “Inbound mobility rate – definition”, available at <http://uis.unesco.org/node/334676>.)

Figure 27. Main countries of origin of international students in Ghana, 2017



Source: UIS, 2018.

The National Accreditation Board (NAB) of Ghana reported that there were 1,887 male and 1,320 female international students in tertiary educational institutions (TEIs) throughout the country during the 2012–2013 academic year (NAB, 2015). While the report is now outdated, it provides a useful national snapshot of international student enrolment in Ghana. International students made up 1 per cent of the student population in public TEIs. Around 80 per cent of these international students were from Western Africa, and only approximately 8 per cent were from countries outside the continent, mainly, the United States, Germany, Norway, the Republic of Korea, France, the United Kingdom and Canada (NAB, 2015).

Majority of international students in Ghana originated from Western African countries – Nigeria, Sierra Leone and Liberia, among others that were affected by the Ebola outbreak. When the epidemic was contained, inbound student mobility from these countries rose drastically. Similar trends attributable to the containment of the Ebola outbreak were observed at the Centre for International Programmes of the University of Cape Coast.

Ghanaian universities, including the University of Ghana (Legon) have initiated programmes to internationalize their student bodies. The affiliation of Wisconsin University College and a few other foreign private universities with Ghanaian state universities has also contributed to the increase in international or international student numbers over the last five years (University of Ghana – International Programmes Office (IPO), 2017; and Kwakye, 2016).

Foreign enrolment in private TEIs has been overwhelmingly African. During the 2012–2013 academic year, 88.7 per cent of international students in private TEIs were from Western Africa and 10.7 per cent from the rest of the continent; as such, almost all (99.4%) international students in private TEIs

were from Africa (compared to 88% in public TEIs). During the same period, 82 per cent of enrolment in private TEIs in Ghana consisted of Ghanaians. While more than a tenth (12.0%) of international students in public TEIs were from outside of Africa, the proportion in private TEIs was very small (0.6%). (MOE, 2017)

The breakdown of the origin countries of international students in Ghana largely mirrors that of other categories of immigrants in the country: Most come from the rest of Africa, particularly Western Africa. The attractiveness of Ghanaian TEIs to Western African students is also linked to the free movement and residence protocols of ECOWAS.

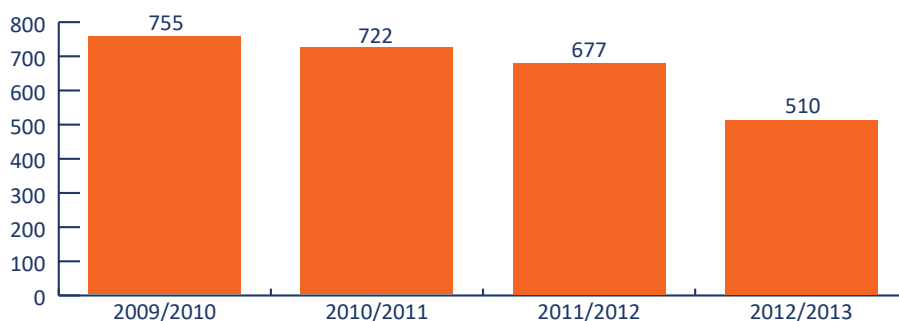
Specific policies of some tertiary education institutions in Ghana attract students from across Western Africa. The University of Ghana, for example, has lower fees for students from Western Africa (and the rest of Africa) compared to all other countries (except, of course, Ghana). As a result, there have been high application rates to the university of African students in various programme categories (Table 9), particularly those from Western Africa. The percentage of the student population that are international students increased from 1.5 per cent during the 2001–2002 academic year to 3.8 per cent during the 2006–2007 academic year. Students who enrolled from the 2009–2010 and 2012–2013 academic years, totalling 2,664, come from over 60 countries around the world, but the majority were from Western Africa. The total number of international students at the University of Ghana decreased slightly from the 2011–2012 to the 2012–2013 academic year (Figure 28). Most regular students were from Nigeria, while most visiting students were from the United States.

Table 9. International student enrolment at the University of Ghana by category, 2009–2013

| Academic year | Visiting students | Regular students | Graduate students | English proficiency students | Research affiliates | Occasional students | Total |
|---------------|-------------------|------------------|-------------------|------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-------|
| 2009–2010 | 539 | 114 | 36 | 58 | 3 | 5 | 755 |
| 2010–2011 | 460 | 147 | 48 | 20 | 2 | 45 | 722 |
| 2011–2012 | 482 | 112 | 60 | 15 | -- | 8 | 677 |
| 2012–2013 | 291 | 75 | 76 | 42 | 9 | 17 | 510 |

Source: University of Ghana – International Programmes Office (IPO), 2017.

Figure 28. International student enrolment at the University of Ghana, 2009–2013



Source: IPO, 2017.

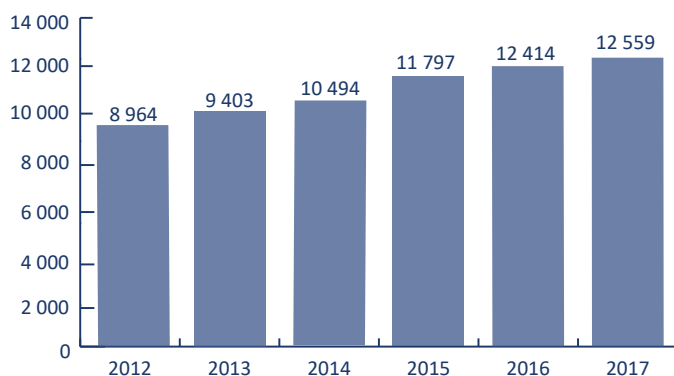
Unlike regular international students, seasonal and short-term international students were mostly from higher-income countries. Data obtained from the International Programmes Office of the University of Ghana (2017) on the composition of their seasonal international student population during the first semester of the 2017–2018 academic year indicated the United States as the top country of origin (117 students, or 78% of the total), followed by Germany (7.3%) and 12 other countries in Europe and Asia.

A.4.9.2. Ghanaian students abroad

A total of 12,559 Ghanaian students were studying abroad in 2017 (Figure 29). This figure was an increase by 42 per cent of the figure recorded in 2011 (8,869). The main countries of destination for Ghanaian students were the United States (2,990), the United Kingdom (1,389), Ukraine (1,000),¹⁶ Canada (924), and South Africa (651).

¹⁶ The high number of Ghanaian students in Ukraine (the third most popular destination country for Ghanaian students abroad) is largely due to students pursuing low-cost university education in fields like medicine and engineering. Visa requirements and cost of living also contribute to the popularity of the destination country.

Figure 29. Ghanaian students abroad, 2012–2017



Source: UIS, 2018.

An increasing number of Ghanaian students have accessed scholarships in Asian countries such as China, India and the Republic of Korea in recent years. Japan has also been a destination of Ghanaians seeking opportunities to pursue further studies (UIS, 2018).



Target 4b: By 2020, substantially expand globally the number of scholarships available to developing countries, in particular least developed countries, small island developing States and African countries, for enrolment in higher education, including vocational training and information and communications technology, technical, engineering and scientific programmes, in developed countries and other developing countries.

A.4.10. Diaspora

The active involvement of diasporas in issues related to development, such as poverty reduction, economic growth, trade and post-crisis recovery, has been increasingly recognized over the past few decades (IOM, 2013). Although there is no universally acknowledged definition of “diaspora”, the Migration Policy Institute (MPI) and IOM have posited that it consists of:

“Emigrants and their descendants, who live outside the country of their birth or ancestry, either on a temporary or permanent basis, yet still maintain affective and material ties to their countries of origin.” (IOM and MPI, 2012)

The African Union has defined “African diaspora” as follows:

“The African Diaspora consists of peoples of African origin living outside the continent, irrespective of their citizenship and nationality and who are willing to contribute to the development of the continent and the building of the African Union.” (African Union, 2018)

The National Migration Policy of Ghana defines the term as:

“Individuals and members of networks, associations and communities who have left their country of origin but maintain links with their homeland.” (MOI, 2016)

The size of the Ghanaian diaspora can be estimated from emigrant stocks in host countries around the world. However, it is important to note that these stocks are often underestimated. While many people of Ghanaian descent may still have connections (emotional, cultural, familial, etc.) to Ghana, they are not necessarily Ghanaian citizens, instead holding only the citizenship of the host country, or that of another country. Needless to say, it is difficult to estimate the sizes of diaspora communities.

Data on the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the Ghanaian diaspora is patchy, coming mainly from ad hoc studies. A study by MPI and the Rockefeller–Aspen Diaspora Program (RAD) (2015) estimated that of the 250,000 Ghanaian immigrants and their children living in the United States in 2015, approximately 40 per cent were United States citizens. Further, 83 per cent of the second generation of Ghanaian immigrants were less than 18 years old, and 88 per cent of Ghanaian immigrants were of working age (i.e. 18–64 years old).



Target 3c: Substantially increase health financing and the recruitment, development, training and retention of the health workforce in developing countries, especially in least developed countries and small island developing States.

10 REDUCED
INEQUALITIES



Target 10c: By 2030, reduce to less than 3 per cent the transaction costs of migrant remittances and eliminate remittance corridors with costs higher than 5 per cent.

17 PARTNERSHIPS
FOR THE GOALS



Target 17.3: Mobilize additional financial resources for developing countries from multiple sources.

17 PARTNERSHIPS
FOR THE GOALS



Target 17.16: Enhance the global partnership for sustainable development.

A.4.11. International tourists

Arrivals of international tourists to Ghana increased between 2000 and 2015 as Ghana became an increasingly popular tourist destination. According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), total arrivals of international tourists in Ghana have increased especially since 2005 (UNWTO, 2017).

PART B: IMPACT OF MIGRATION

This part examines available evidence on the link between migration and development in Ghana from studies and data collected in the areas of demography, economics (including labour markets), human development, the environment and society. It must be noted that the impacts of migration in these areas, and vice versa, are far-reaching, complex and difficult to measure (IOM, 2011).

Voluntary migration usually presents high development potential for the migrant and his or her household, particularly by offering new professional, educational and personal opportunities. Beyond this, migration also holds key development opportunities for origin and host communities and countries, for example, via the transfer of skills and assets, including remittances.

The nexus between migration and development has never been more relevant globally. The inclusion of migration in the United Nations' 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, as well as the Global Compact for Peaceful, Orderly and Regular Migration, call upon actors at all levels to better understand and leverage on the migration–development nexus. There is currently no internationally agreed-upon definition of “development”, but IOM considers it as “a process of improving the overall quality of life of a group of people, and in particular expanding the range of opportunities open to them” (IOM, 2011).

Research and evidence on the impact of migration from around the world, including Ghana, are focused either on the community or national level. Much research focuses on the effects of migration on wages, employment and other labour market outcomes, as well as on GDP and fiscal balance. However, few studies focus on the effects of migration at the individual level – specifically, on migrants themselves. One quantitative study in 2015 found that internal migrants in Ghana living in Agbogbloshie (a district of Accra that hosts a large e-waste dumpsite), showed improved outcomes along several determinants of well-being, namely, income, education and employment. The study showed that even as these migrants incurred high costs to their migration, including those of a financial and occupational nature (e.g. exposure to toxic substances), migration had a net positive effect on their overall well-being (Adamtey et al., 2015). When evaluating the development impacts of migration, considering migrants and their well-being should be central to any analysis. More of such studies should, therefore, be encouraged.

B.1. MIGRATION AND DEMOGRAPHIC DEVELOPMENT

17 PARTNERSHIPS
FOR THE GOALS



Target 17.18: By 2020, enhance capacity-building support to developing countries [...] to increase significantly the availability of high-quality, timely, and reliable data, disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts.

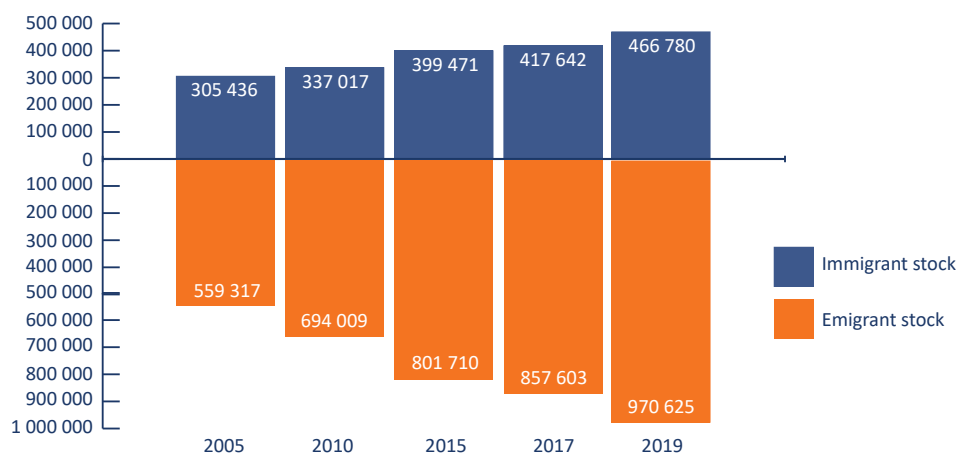
10 REDUCED
INEQUALITIES



Target 10.7: Facilitate orderly safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies.

International migration is an important contributor to changes in population size and distribution. In the case of Ghana, the number of emigrants exceeds that of immigrants (UN DESA, 2019). Figure 30 presents Ghana's net migration rates for 2005, 2010, 2015, 2017 and 2019; the most recent figures confirm that Ghana continues to experience negative net migration, with an estimated 503,845 Ghanaians leaving in 2019 (Figure 30).

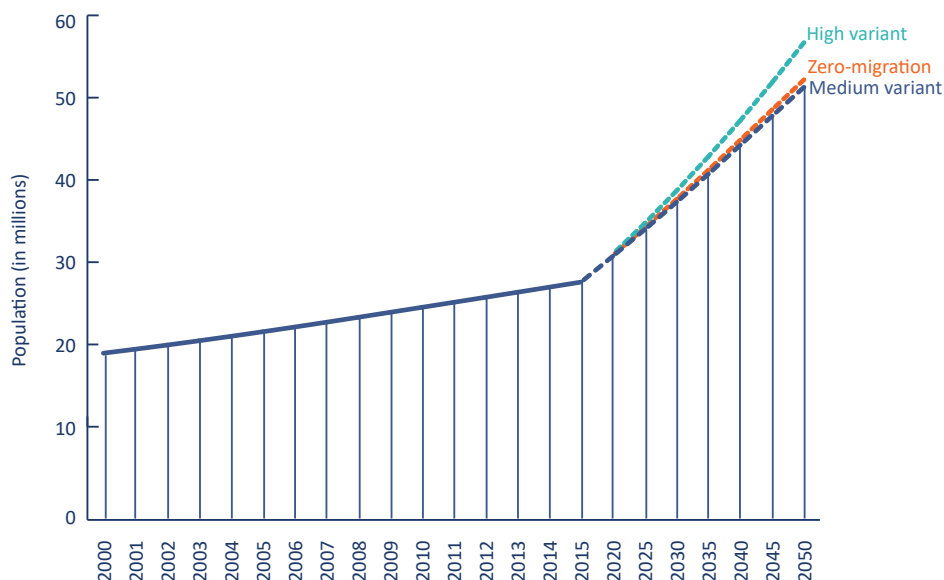
Figure 30. Net migration rate from Ghana, 2005, 2010, 2015, 2017 and 2019



Source: UN DESA, 2019.

Although Ghana's population is young and the fertility rate is high, UN DESA estimates indicate that a zero-migration scenario would cause a greater increase in population (52,180,000) compared to a medium-fertility variant (51,958,000) (UN DESA, 2017b). This may be attributed to the fact that Ghana's net migration rate is negative, contributing to a lower population scenario, compared to a zero-migration scenario in the country (Figure 31).

Figure 31. Population projections for Ghana in high-variant, medium variant and zero-migration scenarios



Source: UN DESA, 2017a.

According to the results of Ghana's 2010 Population and Housing Census, Ghana's population increased by 30.4 per cent from 18,912,079 in 2000 to 24,658,823 in 2010. The data also indicated that the most populous region was Ashanti, with 4,780,280 persons (19.4% of the country's population), followed by Greater Accra, with a population of 4,010,054 (16.3%). The least populous region is Upper West, with 1,046,545 persons, or about 4 per cent of Ghana's population. The 2017 population projection was estimated at 28,956,587 by the GSS.

Emigration and return migration could have other demographic effects on Ghana, although these have been less explored to date. One of the few efforts in this regard was study comparing the fertility patterns of Ghanaian migrant women in the United Kingdom and the Netherlands with non-migrant women

in Ghana. It found that the migrant women postponed their first childbirth and had fewer children overall compared to the non-migrants, which may partly be explained by the former having higher levels of education (Wolf and Mulder, 2018). Why fertility decisions change among Ghanaian migrants, how the length of their stay abroad shapes such decisions, and how circular migration or return migration affects them, are some possible topics for further research.

B.2. MIGRATION AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Internal and international migration has had a profound effect on the economic development of Ghana and will continue to do so. For example, remittance inflows from Ghanaians abroad are an important income stream for many and can help meet everyday needs and contribute to investment in communities. Similarly, immigrants working and living in Ghana contribute to the economic vitality of their host communities (and, ultimately, the country as a whole) by paying taxes, supporting and offering services, and bringing capital and needed skills to Ghana.

The development of the Ghanaian economy also influences migration to, from and within the country. For example, lack of meaningful employment at home may drive young people to seek better opportunities abroad or elsewhere in Ghana. New policy may spur economic growth, which can, in turn, attract migrants of various skill levels from within and outside of Ghana, as well as enable prospective migrants gather the resources required for emigration. This part examines the available evidence base for a better understanding of the nexus between migration and development in Ghana.

B.2.1. Contributions of immigrants





Immigrants make large contributions to Ghana's economy through various impacts on labour markets, economic growth and public finance. Impacts on labour markets will be explored in more detail in later sections; this section will focus on the effects on economic growth and public finance.

The contribution of immigrants (a large share of whom are of working age) to the Ghanaian GDP was estimated at 1.5 per cent in 2010. This contribution to GDP is mainly in the trade and mining sectors through, for example, job creation, revenue generation and transfer of skills. (OECD and ILO, 2018)

Immigrants also contribute to public finance. A joint OECD–ILO study found that while native-born individuals contributed more to the total national

revenue in both 2006 and 2013, the fiscal contribution of foreign-born individuals was higher on a per capita basis in both years. (For example, the net foreign-born contribution per capita was estimated at -1.9 per cent of GDP in 2013, compared to -8.8 per cent of GDP for the native-born.) This difference is mostly because the Government spends less per capita on immigrants than on native-born individuals. (OECD and ILO, 2018)

B.2.2. Remittance inflows

| | |
|---|--|
|  | <p>Target 10c: By 2030, reduce to less than 3 per cent the transaction costs of migrant remittances and eliminate remittance corridors with costs higher than 5 per cent.</p> |
|  | <p>SDG1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere.</p> |
|  | <p>SDG3: Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages.</p> |
|  | <p>SDG4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all.</p> |

Many Ghanaian emigrants have maintained strong ties with their families, friends and other social networks in Ghana. Remittances, particularly cash transfers, have been the most tangible contribution of the diaspora to the home country (IOM, 2017c). In-kind and social remittances are also thought

to be significant, although concrete data on non-cash transfers to the country are lacking. Through these and other activities, emigrants help ensure their continued participation in the economic, social, political, religious, and other spaces as transnational migrants (Quartey, 2009; and Asiedu, 2005).

Remittances to Ghana are transferred through formal and informal channels. Informal channels, such as friends and relatives of recipients bringing money to Ghana on short visits, constitute a significant, albeit unknown, proportion of the true sum of remittances (IOM, 2017c). There are several reasons for the choice of informal channels, for example: (a) not all senders or recipients of remittances have bank accounts, which formal channels often require; (b) irregular migrant status in the country of residence of either the sender or the recipient may preclude or discourage the use of formal channels, which often require the presentation of identification or documents; and (c) formal channels are often deemed inconvenient and viewed with a lack of trust (IOM, 2017c). High transaction costs are also commonly understood to be a main factor for the avoidance of formal channels. The main formal channels for sending remittances in Ghana include money transfer operators (MTOs) and telecommunication companies. In Ghana, the wide distribution networks of MTOs enable remittance recipients to more easily access funds, which help to explain their relative popularity (IOM, 2017c). Major MTOs providing services in Ghana include Western Union, Cigue, Express Money Transfer, MoneyGram, Ria, Small World, Unity Link and Vigo. The data presented in the succeeding paragraphs describe only remittances sent formally.

Ghana is a major receiving country for migrant remittances, receiving over USD 3.5 billion in formal remittances in 2018 (World Bank, 2019). As such, the Ghanaian diaspora is a major contributor to the country's economic development. Almost 2 per cent of household income in Ghana comes from formal remittances, its total annual value estimated at GHC 1,803.88 million (roughly USD 402,700) in 2013 (GSS, 2014). The Bank of Ghana (which serves as the country's central bank) regularly reports on the volume of formal remittance inflows based on data provided by MTOs. Obviously, these figures do not provide the full picture of remittance inflows, as they do not include transfers through informal channels.¹⁷

Remittances are an important part of Ghana's economy and economic development. Throughout the 2004–2017 period, the volume of remittances

¹⁷ For further discussion on how and why national and international data on remittances often differ, see, for example: IOM's GMDAC, Migration Data Portal – Remittances section. Available at <https://migrationdataportal.org/themes/remittances#data-sources>.

climbed from USD 1,287 million to USD 3,536 million. While nominal GDP decreased slightly from 2014 to 2015, remittances increased by nearly 150 per cent during the same period and made up 13.2 per cent of Ghana's GDP in 2015 (Table 10 and Figure 32). The Bank of Ghana accounts for the increase as being the result of improved data collection tools on remittances that year. However, as the trend does not continue, it is not clear how to interpret this.

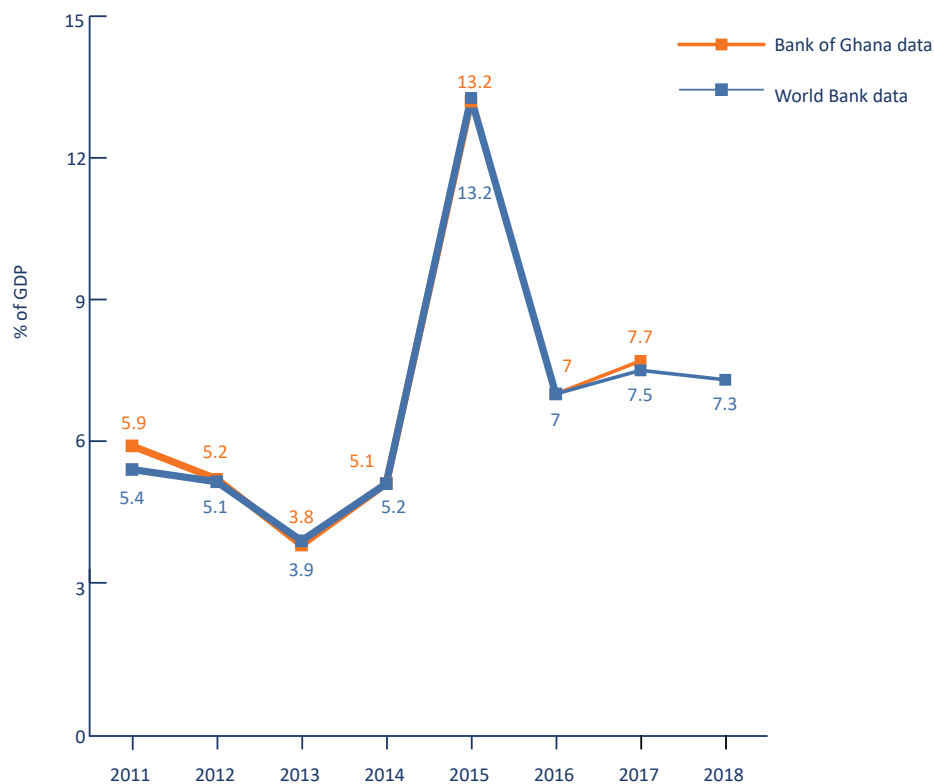
Table 10. Remittances inflows to Ghana, 2004–2016

| Year | Inbound remittances (USD millions) | Nominal GDP | Remittances as a percentage of GDP |
|------|---------------------------------------|-------------|---------------------------------------|
| 2004 | 1 287.0 | 8 862.5 | 14.5 |
| 2005 | 1 549.7 | 10 718.5 | 14.4 |
| 2006 | 1 644.5 | 12 721.1 | 12.9 |
| 2007 | 1 833.8 | 24 702.3 | 7.4 |
| 2008 | 1 970.4 | 28 527.3 | 6.9 |
| 2009 | 1 788.4 | 26 169.1 | 6.8 |
| 2010 | 2 211.7 | 29 866.0 | 7.1 |
| 2011 | 2 368.7 | 39 517.0 | 5.9 |
| 2012 | 2 155.5 | 41 459.0 | 5.2 |
| 2013 | 1 864.0 | 48 678.0 | 3.8 |
| 2014 | 2 007.8 | 38 775.0 | 5.1 |
| 2015 | 4 982.4 | 37 687.0 | 13.2 |
| 2016 | 2 979.9 | 42 654.0 | 7.0 |
| 2017 | 3 536.4 | 45 912.0 | 7.7 |

Source: Bank of Ghana, 2017.

Remittances as a percentage of Ghana's national GDP has fluctuated over the years; aside from a spike in 2015 to 13.2 per cent from the previous year, it mostly swung between 5 to 7 per cent over the last ten years (Figure 32). Globally, remittances as a share of national GDP dropped by 0.03 per cent from 2011 to 2013. An overall drop was observed for Ghana as well – specifically, from 14.5 per cent in 2004 to 7 per cent in 2016, according to data from the Bank of Ghana. However, this seeming downtrend is primarily the result of a rapidly growing GDP, rather than a decline in remittance transfers itself.

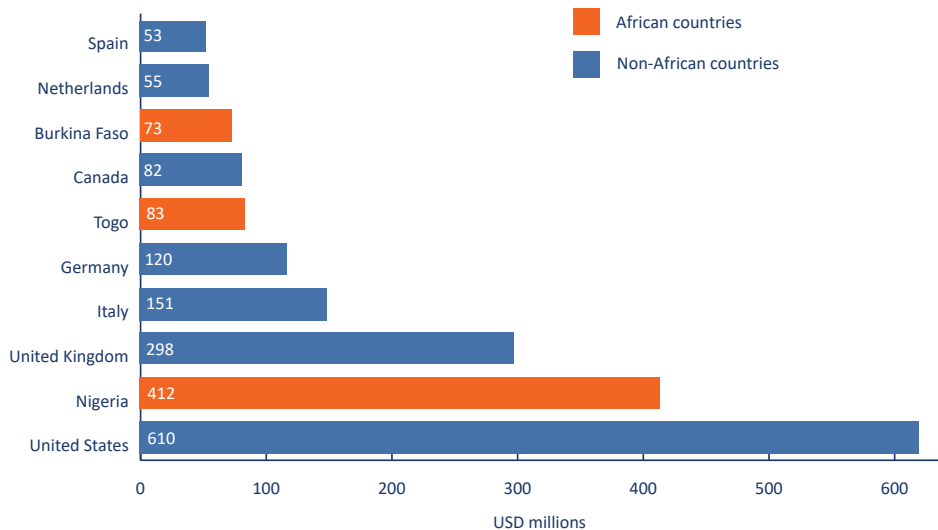
Figure 32. Remittance inflows as a share (%) of GDP, 2011–2017



Source: Bank of Ghana, 2018; and World Bank, 2017.

The most significant countries of origin of remittances to Ghana in 2017 were the United States, Nigeria, the United Kingdom, Italy, Germany, Canada, Togo, Burkina Faso, the Netherlands and Spain (Figure 33). Thus, contrary to popular belief that remittances come mainly from Europe and North America, the data shows that a significant proportion of remittances to Ghana comes from other African countries, especially neighbouring countries such as Nigeria, Togo and Burkina Faso.

Figure 33. Bilateral remittance estimates to Ghana, 2017

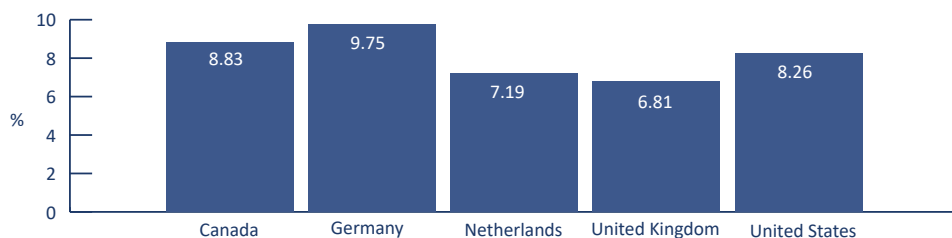


Source: World Bank, 2018.

Note: Estimates were made using migrant stocks, host country incomes, and origin country incomes (USD millions).

The cost of sending remittances to Ghana as a percentage of the remittance amount is relatively high. In 2017, for instance, the average cost of sending USD 200 to Ghana was almost USD 20 (or almost 10%). This is many times higher than that recommend by SDG Target 10c, which aims to reduce remittance transaction costs to less than 3 per cent of the amount remitted and eliminate remittance corridors with costs higher than 5 per cent. However, some of the most expensive cost corridors globally correspond to major countries of destination of Ghanaian migrants. Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States – all major destinations of Ghanaian immigrants – are among the most expensive countries to send money from (Figure 34).

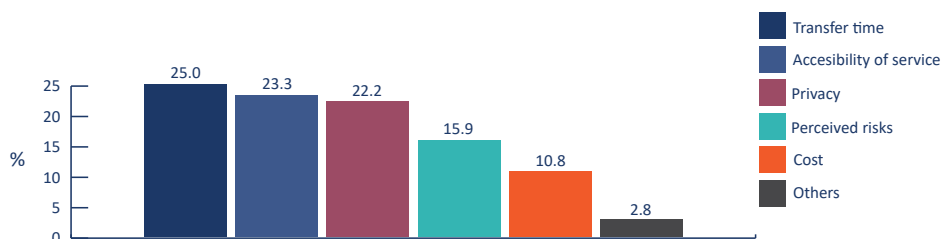
Figure 34. Percentage cost of transferring USD 200 to Ghana from major migrant destination countries, Q3 2019



Source: World Bank, 2019.

One study showed that for households receiving remittances, transfer time (25%), accessibility of service (23.3%) and privacy (22.2%) were the main concerns related to receiving remittances (Figure 35). There is, however, no comparative analysis of the concerns of Ghanaian remittance senders across countries.

Figure 35. Major challenges encountered by households with receiving remittances, 2015



Source: IOM, 2017a.

Evidence shows that the main uses of remittances in both urban and rural areas of Ghana were child-related expenses, and that a larger share of remittances was used on boys than girls (GSS, 2014). As remittances spent on children are mostly for school fees, the gender imbalance can be explained by the fact that boys are more likely than girls to be sent to school. Of the parents and spouses who receive remittances, women outstripped men as the main recipients in both urban and rural settings (Table 11); this can be explained by important cultural dynamics and gender roles in receiving households.¹⁸

Table 11. Recipients of remittances, 2012–2013

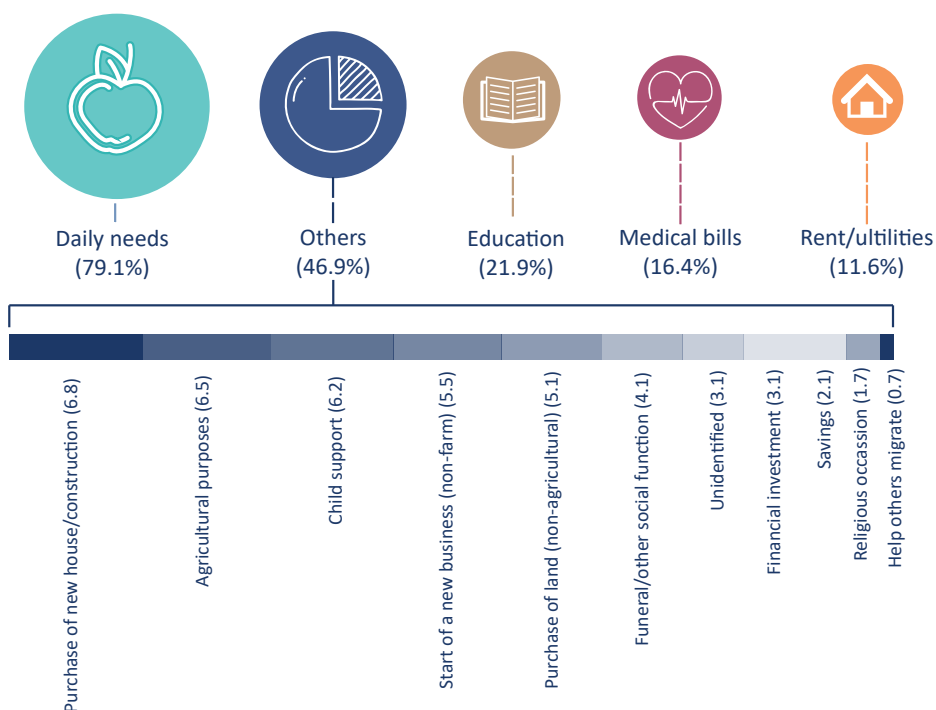
| Relationship of non-household member to head | Urban | | Rural | | Ghana | |
|--|-------|--------|-------|--------|-------|--------|
| | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| Parent | 21.6 | 38.3 | 10.1 | 27.7 | 16.2 | 34.4 |
| Spouse | 0.8 | 13.2 | 1.1 | 14.1 | 0.9 | 13.5 |
| Child | 36.3 | 19.6 | 54.1 | 30.2 | 44.6 | 23.5 |
| Brother/sister | 19.5 | 8.2 | 17.6 | 9.4 | 18.6 | 8.7 |
| Other relative | 16.6 | 16.2 | 13.3 | 14.0 | 15.1 | 5.4 |
| Non-relative | 5.1 | 4.3 | 3.8 | 4.7 | 4.5 | 4.5 |

Source: GSS, 2014.

¹⁸ See, for example: J.K. Teye et al., “Gendered dynamics of remitting and remittance use in Northern Ghana”, Migrating Out of Poverty working paper, March 2017 (Sussex, United Kingdom, University of Sussex School of Global Studies). Available at <https://opendocs.ids.ac.uk/opendocs/handle/20.500.12413/14863>.

Almost four out of five (79.1%) households surveyed in IOM's Baseline Assessment of Household Remittances¹⁹ in 2015 indicated that the cash remittances they received were primarily used to meet daily needs (IOM, 2017a) and less frequently invested through, for example, a business (5.5%) or a financial instrument (3.1%) (Figure 36). Monitoring the use of cash remittances in the country is relevant in addressing how the Government can work towards achieving the SDGs, particularly Goals 1, 3 and 4. That remittances are primarily used to cover daily expenses suggests that further efforts could be undertaken to encourage greater use of remittances for development-related endeavours (e.g. investments in financial products such as insurance and savings).

Figure 36. Uses of remittances in Ghana, 2015



Source: IOM, 2017a.

Note: Respondents typically provided more than one answer.

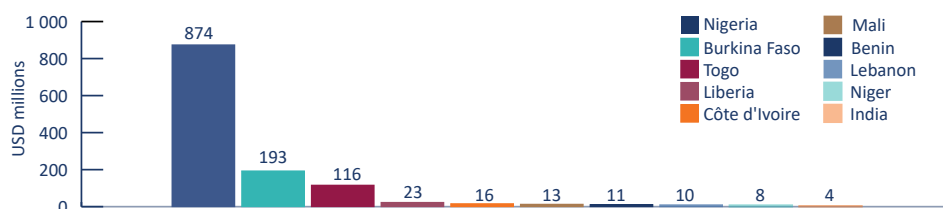
To better leverage remittances for the country's development, including more effectively channelling remittances into investments, a financial inclusion policy and a draft diaspora engagement policy are being developed. The policies are expected to serve as national reference frameworks in this regard.

¹⁹ IOM, "IOM study in Ghana finds remittances nearly doubled household incomes in 2016", press release, 4 November 2017. Available at www.iom.int/news/iom-study-ghana-finds-remittances-nearly-doubled-household-incomes-2016.

B.2.3. Remittance outflows

In 2017, an estimated total of USD 1,282,000 million was remitted from Ghana to other countries (World Bank, 2019). Largely mirroring the main countries of origin of immigrants in Ghana, eight of the ten top-receiving countries were in Africa (Figure 37). Nigeria was the top recipient (USD 874 million), followed by Burkina Faso (USD 193 million).

Figure 37. Main receiving countries for remittance outflows (in USD millions), 2017



Source: World Bank, 2019.

While figures seem to fluctuate at around 6 per cent, the cost of transferring USD 200 from Ghana to Nigeria in the third quarter of 2019 was over 16 per cent of this amount. This is much higher than the 3 per cent recommendation under SDG Target 10c (World Bank, 2019). The reason for the steep increase has not been clear.

B.2.4. Internal remittances

There is a dearth of research on internal remittance flows in Ghana (Torvikey, 2012). While official international remittances are documented by the Bank of Ghana and estimated by the World Bank, there is no available source of information on internal remittances in the country. There is some data on mobile money transfers from service providers, but it is not disaggregated according to the migration status of the senders. Moreover, such data is not readily available, not to mention the quality is often unreliable. More reliable data on internal remittances, including those sent via mobile money transfers, are needed, and new methods for capturing these data should be investigated.

The findings of a study by Torvikey (2012) at the household level in the Mepe District of the Volta Region indicated a larger volume of remittances received by households from internal than international sources. While the study sample was very small (one district in Ghana), more similar evidence would


show there may be scope for policies that seek to leverage internal remittances for countrywide development. In this regard, a study in 2015 showed that internal migrants living in two informal settlements in Accra acted as agents of development for their respective regions of origin by sending remittances and investing, but that the precise effects were difficult to capture and/or measure (Awumbila et al., 2014).

B.2.5. Contributions of tourists

Tourism is currently the third largest foreign exchange source after merchandise exports and remittances from abroad. In both rural and urban communities, tourism is a main source of income and a prominent factor in the creation of employment. The retail sector, for instance, benefits extensively from demand created by visitors. The growth of the tourism sector does not only depend on international tourists, but also on rising incomes and changing lifestyles among the Ghanaian population (leading to increased local tourism), the development of tourism infrastructure, and policy and regulatory support from the Government. (GSS, 2015)

The growth rate of the tourism industry has been high since 2008, and the sector has brought in increasing revenue that form a significant part of GDP. Many activities in the tourism sector are labour-intensive, which makes it a major source of employment generation (Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture (MOTAC), 2019; and GSS, 2015).

B.3. MIGRATION AND THE LABOUR MARKET



Target 8.8: Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment.

Labour market dynamics influence and, in turn, are influenced by migration trends. Migrants may move abroad or to another region within the country to seek employment, and legislation that either restrict or open up a market may cause a shift in migratory movements. Reliable and disaggregated data on the interrelationships between migration, migrants and various labour markets is critical in governing labour migration to benefit both migrants and labour markets in Ghana.

B.3.1. Labour immigration

As mentioned in Part A, more than two thirds (71.6%) of the international migrant population in Ghana were employed in 2015. In fact, several sectors that are key to Ghana's economic progress, such as agriculture, rely heavily on migrant participation in the labour market. Economic development in Ghana has been enhanced by immigrant workers in occupations such as services and sales, skilled agriculture, fishery and forestry work, and crafts and related trades. (GSS, 2016)

Some Ghanaian workers in the trade sector, specifically in retail, claim they face competition from migrant businesses, particularly those of Nigerian and Chinese migrants. To date, however, there are no empirical studies on or evidence of the presence of migrant workers in Ghana having any negative effects on the employment opportunities of Ghanaians (OECD and ILO, 2018).

Immigrants in Ghana are often strongly represented in many fast-growing sectors, and the share of foreign-born workers with tertiary education has been increasing. Evidence shows that mismatches in skills (apart from overqualification in some occupations, such as clerical work) are not a major constraint on migrants' ability to contribute in Ghana. Since 2013, male, foreign-born workers have been earning higher wages as a whole, and at every educational level, when compared to their native-born counterparts. On the other hand, however, foreign-born women consistently earn lower wages than native-born women (OECD and ILO, 2018).

B.3.2. Labour emigration

The emigration of skilled labour from Ghana is a key challenge to Ghana's development. It is important that the Government considers collecting data on the categories of workers who have left and are leaving Ghana. This way, strategies can be implemented to minimize the negative impacts and maximize the benefits of these movements.

B.3.2.1. Emigration of health workers

The emigration of health workers from Ghana has been common over the past two decades; over 24 per cent of nurses who were trained in the country in 2009 left to work abroad (IOM, 2009; and Allen, 2015). In a 2013–2014 survey of 592 nurses from 12 hospitals throughout the country, 48.9 per cent intended to emigrate. A study by Pilliger (2011, p. 13), which used data from the Ghana

Nurses and Midwives Council, indicated that 71.0 per cent of nurses leaving Ghana between 2002 and 2005 left for the United Kingdom and the United States. A 2011 survey of nurses and midwives indicated that factors influencing the decision to migrate included low levels of pay, poor working conditions, difficult working environments, inadequate opportunities for career development and promotion, low motivation, stress and low social status attached to care work.²⁰

There were just over 22,000 nurses in the country in 2010, representing a nurse–patient ratio of just under 10 nurses for every 10,000 population. Since 2003, a nationwide effort to recruit nurses has been underway, but levels remain inadequate to meet the health needs of the population. The persistently low numbers of nurses in the health sector have also resulted in nurses working long hours in stressful conditions (Pilliger, 2011, citing the Ghana Ministry of Health, 2009, and Africa Workforce Observatory, 2010). Statistics from the Ghana Health Service’s 2014 Annual Report indicates that there is still a shortage of human resources in the health sector. There was one doctor for every 9,045 persons, one nurse for 959 persons and one midwife for 1,374 women of reproductive age in 2014 (Ghana Health Service, 2015).

Meanwhile, the number of licensed nurses and midwives has been increasing. For example, available statistics indicates an overall increase in the number of all categories of licensed nurses from 2010 to 2015, with the exception of the registered general nursing category, which declined (Asabir, 2018). This is an indication that more nurses are still needed to deliver health-care services to Ghana’s growing population, and probably more nurses have been emigrating from Ghana. Indeed, the studies cited in the previous paragraphs indicate that high migration intention exists among the nurses surveyed (Allen, 2015).

The emigration of medical professionals is seen as a development challenge by many, mainly because it undermines health-care provision in the origin country. It could result in shortages of these professionals, and, indeed, there is a low doctor–patient ratio in Ghana. The WHO defines a “critical threshold” of 23 medical professionals per 10,000 population (or 2.3 per 1,000 population). In 2010, the latest year for which data is available, the figure for Ghana was 0.96 per 1,000 (WHO, 2018). However, it is necessary to further contextualize this emigration and its impacts on national development. In many countries, the lack of health professionals tends to be mainly due not to emigration directly, but other factors, such as weak staff management and uneven geographic distribution of

²⁰ For more detailed information on the emigration of health workers and its consequences, refer to the Migration and Health section of the IOM website at www.iom.int/migration-health.

health-care workers across the country.²¹ There is no straightforward causal link between these figures and the emigration of health professionals, and, in fact, many national health indicators often conceal structural inequalities in access to health services that usually exist independently of such emigration. It has been established, for example, that many rural communities in some countries have limited or no access to nurses and/or doctors.

There are some positive effects of the emigration of medical professionals.²² Returning health workers can share valuable health-related knowledge through training they received overseas, introduce new positive health practices or establish clinics and hospitals. Efforts to leverage the development potential of Ghanaian health workers abroad have been made through the Migration for Development in Africa Programme implemented by IOM in partnership with the Dutch and Ghanaian Governments. The most recent project aims to encourage Ghanaian health professionals in the diaspora to return, permanently or temporarily, to Ghana. Those who return perform voluntary services in their areas of specialization and transfer knowledge to the Ghanaian health sector. Moreover, the participants are offered specialized short-term training opportunities in the Netherlands. (IOM, 2014)

However, many health worker returnees return to Ghana for the purpose of retiring. Those who return with the intention of continuing their practice are met with difficulties when transferring benefits (e.g. social security or pension) earned in the destination country. Further, returning nurses who leave the public sector may find themselves demoted to lower ranks and end up with lower salaries. Physicians returning with greater expertise than their local counterparts sometimes face these same barriers (IOM, 2014). There are many barriers faced by returning health-care workers that need to be addressed in order to recapture and integrate the necessary expertise into the Ghanaian health-care system. One further common issue is the non-recognition of medical credentials and certifications acquired abroad, or the difficulties relating to their accreditation. Health education and health education accreditation systems vary across countries around the world, and recognition of medical credentials and certifications acquired abroad is not automatic. Consequently, certificates issued under a certain system or in one country may not be acceptable in another.

²¹ Michael A. Clemens, "Do visas kill? Health effects of African health professional emigration", Center for Global Development Global Center, March 2007. Available at https://assets.aspeninstitute.org/content/uploads/files/content/images/file_Clemens_Do_visas_kill_3_.pdf.

²² See, for example: Michael A. Clemens and Gunilla Pettersson, "Medical leave: A new database of health professional emigration from Africa", Center for Global Development working paper, August 2006. Available at www.researchgate.net/publication/5003552_A_New_Database_of_Health_Professional_Emigration_from_Africa.

B.3.3. Internal migrants and labour markets

Rural–rural migration in Ghana has contributed to the growth of the cocoa industry and cultivation of other food and cash crops. Rural–urban migration has been associated with an opportunity for migrants to enjoy better living standards, while the challenges of rapid urbanization and the associated poor sanitary conditions and overcrowded neighbourhoods have, in turn, brought about health challenges.

Rural–urban migration in Ghana has led to a labour shift towards jobs with higher marginal productivity. Migration, furthermore, has enabled a structural transformation away from subsistence agriculture and, thus, has boosted Ghana’s economy. Between 1992 and 2010, employment in industry and the services sector grew from 38 per cent to 59 per cent as a result of this transformation. According to the World Bank, this labour shift accounted for more than one tenth of all of Ghana’s GDP growth during the said period, and even greater in more recent years. (World Bank, 2014)

The impact of rural–urban migration on the commercial agriculture sector has been significant. The export of food crops, such as yams, plantains and chilies, among others, began a few decades ago and have been sustained, especially as migrant labour supply continued to be directed towards agricultural production (University of Ghana – Institute of Statistical, Social and Economic Research (ISSER), 2013). Mechanization of agriculture has been limited in Ghana; as such, the sector remains characterized by intensive labour.

Cocoa continues to be Ghana’s key export commodity. Its contribution to merchandise export earnings from 2012 to 2016, although fluctuating, has been relatively high (ISSER, 2017, pp. 90–92). The growth of the cocoa industry is explained largely by the availability of migrant labour (internal and international) on cocoa farms. As such, migrant labour during the harvest period is crucial for cocoa farmers, especially since there is less available “family labour” as more children attend school. Smaller household sizes (an average of 3.5 members) in 2017 (UN DESA, 2017a) meant less family labour available to perform farm work: In rural Ghana, 32.5 per cent of the workforce are contributing family workers (GSS, 2016).

B.4. MIGRATION AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

B.4.1. Education

4 QUALITY EDUCATION



Target 4.1: By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes.

4 QUALITY EDUCATION



Target 4.2: By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and preprimary education so that they are ready for primary education.

According to Ghana's 2010 Population and Housing Census, 74.1 per cent of the total population aged 11 years and older are literate. Two thirds (67.1%) of the population can read and write, and while only 20.1 per cent can read and write English, 57.3 per cent of the population can read and write in at least one Ghanaian language. A higher percentage of males (80.2%) than females (68.5%) are literate. The results of the 2010 Population and Housing Census indicate that migrants have a slightly higher literacy rate than non-migrants. The literacy rates of intraregional migrants (79.4%) and interregional migrants (76.0%) also exceed that of non-migrants (72.3%).

Ghana provides migrants with access to education in all public schools. Ghana's 1992 Constitution guarantees all children in Ghana the right of access to public primary and secondary school, regardless of their migration status, by law. Until August 2017, free education was available from primary to junior secondary school. The Government began to implement the Free Senior High School Policy in August 2017, which allows students, irrespective of nationality or migration status, to graduate from public senior high school without paying any school fees. To access college and university education, a prospective student needs to provide information on his or her migration status, for instance, by producing proof that he or she is a permanent resident of Ghana, in which case the same student fees apply as those for Ghanaian nationals.

B.4.2. Poverty²³



Target 1.3: Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage for the poor and the vulnerable.

Migration from rural areas to towns and cities has contributed to urban transformation, as previously explained. Urbanization, consequently, has been an important factor in Ghana's successful efforts to reduce poverty. Rapid economic growth brought about a decline in total poverty incidence to below 25 per cent and below 11 per cent in urban areas in 2013. While a reduction in poverty has been experienced in urban areas as a consequence of job creation, rural areas have benefited from out-migration of labour surplus, remittances inflows from urban areas and higher food prices that have resulted in higher profits from farm produce (World Bank, 2014). It must be noted, however, that there is little reliable data supporting and analysis examining these presumptive links between migration and poverty in Ghana.

B.4.3. Health

There are both positive and negative impacts of migration on the health of the Ghanaian population and migrants themselves. Returning Ghanaian health workers may spread knowledge and practices acquired abroad. Also, Ghanaians overseas remit money that their families may use towards health care; the GSS (2014) reported, for example, that 16.4 per cent of inflows of remittances in Ghana are used to purchase medicine and pay medical bills. Furthermore, migration can be an adaptive measure for individuals to improve their livelihoods and well-being; in this sense, migration can indirectly improve the health outcomes of migrants and, often, their families.

Migration does not always result in better health outcomes for migrants; it may also lead to increased vulnerabilities, including health risks such as disease and abuse. Irregular migrants are often particularly vulnerable, as they may not have access to medical care or health insurance, lack knowledge of their rights to health and security services at their destination and/or on the move, or find

²³ See also the section on remittances earlier in this chapter.

themselves subjected to poor and dangerous conditions, such as lack of clean water, poor diet and exploitation (IOM, 2014).

While there is little reliable and generalizable data available on the subject, the migration–health nexus in Ghana is a fairly active area of research and there exists a small but diverse body of targeted studies on topics such as the effects of rural–urban migration on infant and child mortality, and subjective health and well-being of different types of migrants.

B.5. MIGRATION AND THE ENVIRONMENT

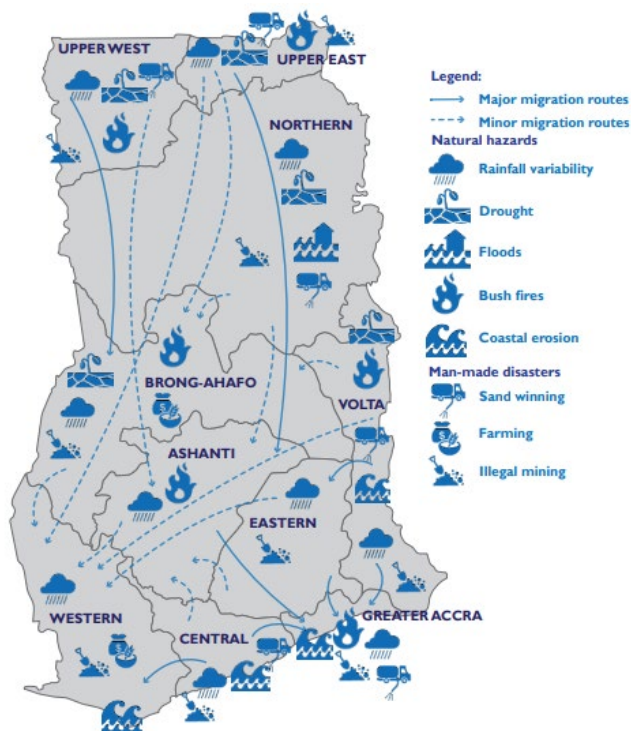
The link between migration and the environment has received increasing attention from researchers, policymakers and the general public over the past few decades. Specific issues include the effects of environmental degradation and climate change on mobility patterns, and the impacts of migration on the environment through, for example, rapid urbanization.

B.5.1. Climate change

Ghana has been severely affected by climate change in the past 10 to 15 years. Climate change has increased the frequency of natural hazards (especially floods) throughout the country, which, in turn, have led to disasters and changes in migration patterns. As mentioned in Part A, many Ghanaian IDPs move as a result of climatic events, particularly floods. Man-made hazards have also contributed to livelihood loss and food insecurity, increasing migration within and out of the country. (IOM, 2017b)

The most recent available data, from 2014, indicate that the informal agriculture sector employs 33 per cent (a little over 3 million) of the working population (GSS, 2016). Farmers from Ghana’s northerly regions (Northern, Upper West, and Upper East) have traditionally engaged in seasonal migration to the southern parts of the country when there are no crops to harvest or plant. However, the combined impacts of natural and man-made hazards have caused agricultural labour migrants to move further south or completely change livelihoods (IOM, 2017b). Evidence shows that migration is often used as a coping mechanism when household food security is compromised (IOM, 2017b). It is important to note that while migrants may often perceive their decision to migrate as primarily driven by economic and food security-related factors, the root causes can often be traced back to the effects of climate change (Warner et al., 2012; and Tschakert et al., 2010).

Figure 38. Climate change impacts and migration routes in Ghana



Source: IOM, 2017b.

Note: This map is for illustration purposes only. The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the International Organization for Migration.

As Figure 38 shows, Ghana's regions experience different types of climatic events, which may affect mobility patterns. For instance, the northerly regions are increasingly experiencing more drought, flood, bush fires and pest/disease outbreaks; the central regions (such as Brong Ahafo, Ashanti, Eastern and Volta) are experiencing outbreaks and infestations due to drought and flooding; and rapid urbanization is causing coastal erosion in the south (Asante and Amuakwa-Mensah, 2015; Choudhary et al., 2016; Akugudu et al., 2012; and Yaro, 2013).

Despite a decline in annual average rainfall from 1960 to 2008, floods have become more intense as the amount of rain during any one event has increased, (Tschakert et al., 2010). Flooding is a key cause of displacement in Ghana and, as indicated in the section on IDPs, instances of flooding and other disasters have increased.

Adaptation to changing environmental conditions also accounts for some rural–rural and rural–urban migration within Ghana. In the north, where the dry season is relatively long (sometimes lasting more than six months), farming households often send family members southward for seasonal work as a livelihood adaptation strategy. Such seasonal migration has historically contributed to the availability of labour in the cocoa industry, as this cash crop, produced mostly in southern Ghana, is harvested during the dry season. As a matter of fact, the earliest years of the cocoa industry was characterized by internal migrants' acquisition of agricultural land across southern Ghana to cultivate cocoa.²⁴

Climate change impacts communities negatively by, for example, causing competition between them. For example, the Fulani, a pastoral ethnic group, are looking for water and pasture for their cattle more intensively following changes in climate conditions over the past decades, often clashing with Ghanaian farmers (Tonah, 2017) (see box article on p. 71: **Conflict between Fulani herdsman and local farmers**).

B.5.2. Environmental impact of urbanization

Large scale rural–urban migration in Ghana has resulted in rapid urbanization, accompanied by high pressure on urban infrastructure and proliferation of informal settlements. This can be a particularly serious issue for settlements along the coast. According to the Government of Ghana, “the decline of the population of Keta (a town in the Volta Region) is due mainly to sea erosion which caused population movements out of the town and also affected commercial and other activities” (Modern Ghana, 2020). Despite coastal erosion being a natural phenomenon, erosion trends have been largely aggravated by human-induced factors (such as rapid urbanization). Coastal erosion primarily affects the Central, Volta, Greater Accra and Western Regions. The projected sea-level rise of 34.5 cm by 2060 could cause a 57 per cent loss in Ghana's coastline (IOM, 2017b), permanently displacing communities and exacerbating rapid urbanization and its impacts.

Research from a project on climate change adaptation and migration in the Volta Delta implemented by the Regional Institute for Population Studies of the University of Ghana (project name: Deltas, Vulnerability and Climate Change: Migration and Adaptation (DECCMA),) indicates that migration has been a major climate change adaptation feature among populations in delta areas. Overall, migration will continue to be used as adaptation strategy by households

²⁴ See 3.2: Internal migration and the labour market about migration and the cocoa industry in Ghana.

in the delta, where climate change impacts have already led to increased out-migration. The study found out that large numbers (40%) of inhabitants from these areas, mostly young people, have migrated away or intend to do so. The project has shown that migration is climate-related and/or a result of livelihood concerns associated with climate change. (Collaborative Adaptation Research Initiative in Africa and Asia, 2018)

Poor or patchy sanitation in urban areas can also contribute to greenhouse gas emissions (Howard et al., 2016). Moreover, unauthorized construction in waterways makes urban centres more prone to flooding and other environmental disasters. In combination with poor drainage and waste disposal, among other factors, removal of vegetation from urban areas, especially along slopes, has increased sediment outflows, which have, in turn, led to increased flooding in urban centres. In June 2015, 68 people died in a flood-and-fire disaster at the Kwame Nkrumah Circle, one of the busiest and lowest-lying areas of Accra, where many migrant-owned businesses are located (*Daily Graphic*, 2015). Similar incidents happen frequently in the migrant-populated informal settlement of Agbogbloshie, where flooding easily causes destruction of property, population displacement and casualties (Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery, 2017).

B.6. MIGRATION AND SOCIETY

B.6.1. Attitudes towards migrants

Ghana is a relatively welcoming country for migrants to settle in, and many different migrant communities have co-existed with Ghanaians for years. Some 57 per cent of Ghanaians support the free movement of people to work or trade in the countries of the ECOWAS region. While this figure is lower than other countries in Western Africa, it is high compared to the proportion of people supporting similar freedoms within the economic communities of Southern, Central and Northern Africa. (OECD and ILO, 2018; and Afrobarometer, 2016)

There are a few isolated examples in Ghana of tension between migrants and the local populace. Migration has led to the development of ethnic enclaves in destination areas and, consequently, ethnic segregation and access to land, jobs and services (often also drawn along ethnic lines) has at times aggravated social tensions (Tonah, 2017).

More commonly, tension has arisen in response to migrants' participation in different industries and labour markets. Certain industries have had or continue to have restrictions for migrants, ostensibly to prevent unfair competition and protect local interests. Some Ghanaians have played a role in facilitating illicit employment of foreign nationals, for example, through the practice of "fronting." This takes various forms, including the registration of a foreign-owned business under the name of a Ghanaian or under a Ghanaian name. These Ghanaians are financially rewarded by the foreign nationals that they front for. This has sparked criticism from groups such as the Ghana Union of Traders Association. In addition, there have been incidents of migrants, often of Chinese origin, engaging in small-scale mining, in partnership with Ghanaians, even though they are legally prohibited from doing so (Amoono, 2013). These mutually beneficial relationships between migrants and local miners or Ghanaian nationals have caused local tensions (Crawford et al., 2015). In some cases, these migrants have been accused of displacing native labour, introducing corruption into Ghana's resource management sector and smuggling gold from the country (Crawford et al., 2013). Environmental degradation and pollution resulting from small-scale mining have led to the practice being banned altogether.

Several banks, as well as wholesale trade businesses, have been established in Ghana by South African and Nigerian migrants or enterprises. While many of these businesses employ Ghanaians, they have nevertheless stirred local tensions, with claims by GUTA that the Government has failed to address grievances. For example, Chinese retail goods are typically cheaper, causing insecurity among Ghanaian traders (Adjavon, 2013). Certain sectors, including members of the general public, thus oppose the entry of foreign businesses in the country, including through demonstrations (OECD and ILO, 2018).

Conflict between Fulani herdsmen and local farmers



The relationship between the pastoral Fulbe nomadic community, popularly known as “Fulani herdsmen”, and various host farming communities in Ghana has seen high levels of tension in past years. There has often been mistrust between the two sides, sometimes resulting in violent clashes and even injuries and deaths (Tonah, 2017). Members of the Fulani community are not considered Ghanaian citizens and are, therefore, unrecognized in the census. Media and public discourse are dominated by negative views of the Fulani, in support of native Ghanaian communities (Tonah, 2017; Bukari and Schareika, 2015, citing Turner et al., 2011; and Baidoo, 2014). Stereotypes and prejudices against the Fulani depict them as violent and uncivilized (Bukari and Schareika, 2015).

The Fulani have often faced national and local policies that aim to expel them from Ghanaian territory. “Operation Cow Leg”, implemented over the years in response to ongoing issues regarding Fulani herdsmen, involves “evacuation” of the Fulani and their cattle from communities in which clashes have taken place. Other local policies, which result in evictions of the Fulani and confiscation of their property, have also received support, especially from communities where herder–farmer conflicts typically occur. These measures have been described by some researchers as reflecting and deepening the social exclusion and discrimination that the Fulani have historically experienced.

The plight of the Fulani may prompt amendments to ECOWAS, African Union and international protocols on migration and migrants that Ghana has been a signatory to. It has been documented that various Fulani groups have inhabited the savannah zone of the Sahel region of Western Africa, which comprises Nigeria, the Niger, Senegal, Chad, Guinea, Mauritania, Mali, Burkina Faso, Benin and Côte d’Ivoire (Bukari and Schareika, 2015, citing Turner et al., 2011; and Oppong, 2002). Including Fulani in the census would be helpful in informing land-use planning and other policies that address the needs of both Fulani and Ghanaian citizens, as the geographic distribution of the Fulani in Ghana would be known. Others argue that government recognition of the Fulani as one of the many ethnic groups of Ghana could mitigate the social conflict (Olaniyan et al., 2015).

PART C: MIGRATION GOVERNANCE

This part provides an overview of Ghana's key national policies, legislative frameworks and institutional arrangements that concern migration and its governance, as well as engagement with actors and processes originating both within and outside the country.

| | |
|---|---|
|  | Target 10.7: Facilitate orderly safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies. |
|  | Target 17.16: Enhance the global partnership for sustainable development, complemented by multi-stakeholder partnerships that mobilize and share knowledge, expertise, technology and financial resources, to support the achievement of the sustainable development goals in all countries, in particular developing countries. |

C.1. NATIONAL POLICY FRAMEWORK

Working towards a strategic, whole-of-government approach to the management of internal, intraregional and international migration, Ghana developed and launched its first National Migration Policy (NMP) in 2016 and the *GIS Legal Handbook* in 2017. The NMP (MOI, 2016) and the *GIS Legal Handbook* (GIS, 2017) outline all the legal frameworks relating to migration in Ghana. This section is based primarily on these two sources, in addition to supplementary information on policies and programmes provided by various government ministries, departments and agencies.

Ghana formally launched the NMP in April of 2016. NMP elaboration was facilitated by the Government of Ghana, through the Inter-Ministerial Steering Committee on Migration (IMSCM) under the MOI, with support from the Centre for Migration Studies of the University of Ghana, as well as various stakeholders, including IOM, UNDP and the European Union. The NMP recommends the establishment of a specialized commission (more below) with the aim to effectively manage migration for development (MOI, 2016).

The NMP serves as the country's official migration strategy document. The NMP's main goal is to promote the benefits and minimize the costs of internal and international migration to and from Ghana. It also calls for the need to link migration and national development goals through mainstreaming, in order to implement the development agenda in Ghana more effectively (MOI, 2016). The NMP specifically aims to:

- (a) Ensure effective coordination of existing migration-related policy and legislation;
- (b) Develop programmes, strategies and interventions that will enhance the potential of migration for socioeconomic development;
- (c) Promote and protect the interests, rights, security and welfare of citizens and migrants within and outside of Ghana;
- (d) Set up the appropriate legislative and institutional frameworks for a comprehensive approach to migration management;
- (e) Facilitate the production and dissemination of accurate, relevant and timely data on migration within, into and from Ghana;
- (f) Promote a comprehensive and sustainable approach to migration management;
- (g) Counter xenophobia, racism, discrimination, ethnocentrism, vulnerability and gender inequality within and outside of Ghana.

The NMP also calls for the establishment of the Ghana National Commission on Migration (GNCM) in order to provide an effective institutional framework with the responsibility of overseeing implementation of the NMP. An action plan,²⁵ furthermore, is proposed for the NMP's implementation with the aim to achieve policy objectives (MOI, 2016). The Government of Ghana is currently taking the first steps towards the establishment of the GNCM.

Relevant policy interventions in the country include:

- (a) In response to evidence of different types of abuses that many Ghanaian migrant domestic workers in Gulf States face,²⁶ the Government has placed a temporary ban on the recruitment of Ghanaian domestic workers for deployment to Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Qatar, Oman and the United Arab Emirates. The ban was announced by the Minister of Employment and Labour Relations in January

²⁵ For more detailed information on the Action Plan and its key action areas, refer to the National Migration Policy document, available at www.migratingoutofpoverty.org/files/file.php?name=national-migration-policy-for-ghana.pdf&site=354.

²⁶ Visa-20 is issued solely to labour migrants seeking to travel to the Gulf States as house helps or domestic workers (Akwei, 2017).

2017. Evidence is mixed on the efficacy of the ban, as some studies have shown that it has pushed the migration of prospective domestic workers through informal channels; some Ghanaians continue to travel to Gulf States for domestic work using indirect routes through Togo, Nigeria and Ethiopia, or through unlicensed recruitment agencies. (Akwei, 2017)

- (b) MoGCSP, in collaboration with the Canadian Government and UNICEF, has launched the National Plan of Action for the Elimination of Human Trafficking in Ghana, 2017–2021. Accordingly, training of law enforcement agencies and transport unions, such as the Ghana Public Road Transport Union, has been conducted to enhance their contribution against human trafficking (MoGCSP, 2017).
- (c) The National Labour Migration Policy was validated in December 2018 and approved by Cabinet in 2020. The document is expected to be a framework that can guide management of labour migration within, into and out of Ghana.
- (d) The Government of Ghana was supported in the development of a National Migration Data Management Strategy to improve access to quality, credible, timely and disaggregated migration data to support evidence-based policymaking and implementation. The signing of a memorandum of understanding between all stakeholders working in the area of migration further paved the road to increased capacity in migration data collection, analysis and dissemination. It is envisioned that the data and analysis that will be produced and shared through this process will feed into future updates of the Ghana Migration Profile.
- (e) With support from ECOWAS and the Spanish Government, MFARI commissioned the development of a Diaspora Engagement Policy in 2015 to enhance the participation of Ghana's diaspora community in development in Ghana. The policy is yet to be adopted by Parliament, but the Government has already established a Diaspora Relations Office within the Office of the President. In collaboration with the diaspora, the Diaspora Relations Office launched a National Service Scheme for the second- and third-generation diaspora (i.e. diaspora youth), with the purpose of engaging them in the affairs of Ghana. It is expected that diaspora youth will become more likely to identify with the home country through the scheme and subsequently participate in Ghanaian development efforts. The Diaspora Relations Office has also launched a magazine, *The Ghana Diaspora*, as a means of communication on diaspora affairs. The first issue was published for the months of January to March 2018.

- (f) Collaborating with partners, MFARI set up a National Migration Platform in 2017 to promote safe and orderly migration from Ghana, among other objectives. The platform has representation from several government ministries, departments and agencies. This effort is in line with a recent attempt to engage the media in migration reportage in Ghana. Over 100 media personnel from four regions (Greater Accra, Western, Ashanti and Northern) have been trained for the purpose. A European Union-sponsored training workshop that ran from September to December 2017, with the theme, “Investigative Journalism on Free Movement and Migration”, was managed by IOM and implemented by Media Response, an association of media professionals in collaboration with the Centre for Migration Studies. The workshop was attended by frontline journalists working with some of the leading media agencies in the country, including *Daily Graphic*, Ghana Broadcasting Corporation, Ghana News Agency, Information Services Department, as well as private media practitioners from the Ghana Independent Broadcasters Association.
- (g) In 2016, the National Development Planning Commission began to develop a 40-year, long-term (2018–2057) development plan for Ghana. It is a strategic framework designed to include four ten-year, medium-term plans to be reviewed by Parliament, to ensure that the framework remains current and relevant over the 40-year period. Migration has been acknowledged and included in the long-term plan. With a change of government in 2017, the long-term plan has not been part of the public discourse on development planning and practice.

C.2. NATIONAL MIGRATION AND MIGRATION-RELATED LEGISLATION

Since the adoption of the 1992 Constitution, migration in Ghana has been managed through both provisions in the Constitution, as well as national legislation and regulations. Some of these include:

- (a) Petroleum (Exploration and Production) Act, 1984, which grants immigration quotas (by specified numbers of expatriate personnel) to holders of petroleum rights and exemptions from taxes on financial remittances;
- (b) Revised 1994 Population Policy, which acknowledges the role of migration in development and the voluntary return of highly skilled

emigrants for national development; and recognizes development-related issues, problems and challenges presented by internal migration and rapid urbanization due to rural–urban and urban–ward migration;

- (c) Refugee Law of 1992 (PNDC 30), which established the Ghana Refugee Board to manage refugee affairs and grants refugee status in accordance with the 1951 Refugee Convention and the 1967 Refugee Protocol, as well as the Organization of African Unity 1969 Convention;
- (d) Ghana Investment Promotion Centre Act of 1994 (Act 478), which established the GIPC to encourage and promote investment in Ghana, including from the diaspora;
- (e) Ghana Free Zone Act, 1995 (Act 504), which established free zones for development and grants resident permits to foreign workers who wish to work in these designated free zones;
- (f) Immigration Regulations of 2001 (L.I. 1691), which grant permission for entry, residence and employment, and decides on the removal of foreigners, as well as recognizes diaspora members' eligibility for citizenship;
- (g) Minerals and Mining Act, 2006 (Act 703), which grants immigration quotas (by specified numbers of expatriate personnel) to holders of mineral rights and exemptions from taxes on financial remittances;
- (h) Representation of the Peoples (Amendment) Act 2006 (Act 669), which allows Ghanaian emigrants to participate in the democratic process by voting in general elections;
- (i) National Youth Policy, 2010, which recognizes youth as a national resource and the “future” of the country, and as having a propensity for engaging in internal migration and emigration, and which acknowledges the challenges of unemployment, rural–urban migration and urbanization;
- (j) National Ageing Policy, 2010, which deals with effective management of ageing-related issues in relation to migration, among others;
- (k) National Urban Policy Framework, 2012, which provides a comprehensive framework for the facilitation and promotion of the sustainable development of Ghanaian urban centres.

Select relevant legal instruments are discussed in more detail in the sections that follow.

C.2.1. 1992 Constitution

The 1992 Constitution permits citizenship by birth and marriage. Article 21g guarantees free movement of Ghanaian citizens within Ghana. This legal provision, together with the ECOWAS Treaty, ensures that movement is restricted neither by Ghanaian law nor international commitment. In 1996, the Constitution was amended to allow dual citizenship for Ghanaians, whereby they can hold the citizenship of another country, so long as that country likewise allows dual citizenship. Alongside other legal instruments, it also contains information on how migration and related phenomena can be addressed.

C.2.2. Citizenship Act, 2000 and Citizenship Regulations, 2001 (L.I. 1960)

Following Ghana's obligation to the ECOWAS Treaty, Ghana passed the Immigration Act, 2000 (Act 573) (supplanting a previous immigration law), which includes provisions for the granting of permission for entry, residence and employment, and for the removal of foreign nationals. Section 3 is on entry into Ghana; Section 8, on prohibited immigrants; Section 13, on residence permits; and Section 15, on indefinite resident status for foreigners.

The process for the acquisition of Ghanaian citizenship is laid down in the 1992 Constitution. The Citizenship Act, 2000 and the Citizenship Regulations, 2001 (L.I. 1690) further stipulate requirements for acquisition of citizenship by naturalization. Citizens of other nations who desire to acquire Ghanaian citizenship are permitted to do so through these means.

C.2.3. Immigration Act, 2000 (Act 573), Immigration (Amendment) Act, 2012 (Act 848) and Immigration Regulations, 2001 (L.I. 1691)

All laws relating to conditions and place of entry, admission, residence, employment and removal of persons from Ghana are stipulated in the Immigration Act, 2000, the Immigration (Amendment) Act, 2012 and the Immigration Regulations, 2001. Regulations on the right of abode and citizenship, for example, on indefinite residence status, are also included. The GIS applies stipulations on immigration and management of the borders of Ghana.

Despite the implementation of the immigration acts, persons still sometimes use unauthorized routes to enter Ghana. Common languages (especially those spoken along border areas), historical ties (such as a common

experience of colonial rule), among other factors and processes, encourage Africans, especially from Western Africa, to enter Ghana with or without any documentation. Ghana's signing of migration protocols of the ECOWAS and the African Union, among others, accounts for the ease with which immigrants arrive in the country. Consequently, border management has been a major task for the Customs Excise and Preventive Service, MOI, GIS, and other government ministries, departments and agencies whose activities involve maintaining security in the country.

C.2.4. Refugee Law, 1992

The arrival of refugees from Western African countries beginning in the late 1980s prompted the Government of Ghana to respond with a national legal framework to establish definitions pertaining to refugees and their status, and to manage their entry, admission and settlement in the country. The treatment of the status of refugees in the United Nations Convention on Refugees was adopted by the Ghana Refugee Law of 1992. A refugee board was set up to apply the act to manage refugee issues, such as the granting of refugee status to persons fleeing to the country.

C.2.5. Human Trafficking Act, 2005 (Act 694) and Human Trafficking (Amendment) Act, 2009 (Act 784)

In response to rampant human trafficking and smuggling of migrants in Ghana, the Human Trafficking Act, 2005 (Act 694) and the Human Trafficking (Amendment) Act, 2009 (Act 784) were adopted to address the challenges posed to victims – and to wider society – as a result of the practice. Human trafficking is defined comprehensively in the act and includes practices carried within and across the borders of the nation (Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs, 2005, p. 3): "... the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring, trading or receipt of persons within and across national borders". The use of threat, force and other forms of coercion, and the giving and receiving of payments and benefits to achieve the purpose, are also spelled out in the definition, so as to include both traffickers and a range of persons who are involved in the practice. The act was later amended and the Human Trafficking Management Board and the Human Trafficking Secretariat were established to address the crime.

The AHTU (of the Ghana Police Force) and the Anti-human Trafficking Desk (of the GIS) were established to prevent the crime of human trafficking, arrest offenders and investigate cases in Ghana. The Human Trafficking Secretariat

at the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection is mandated to have a coordinating role to protect victims, for instance, through the provision of shelter services.

C.2.6. Ghana Investment Promotion Centre Act, 1994 (Act 478)

From the 1980s, the Government sought external support to address the challenges faced by the local economy, leading to significant emigration from the country. Investment in the economy was sought and the Ghana Investment Promotion Centre (GIPC) was then set up, with a mandate to attract investment into the country (as specified in the Ghana Investment Promotion Act, 1994 (Act 478)). GIPC targets investments from both foreigners and the Ghanaian diaspora into a variety of sectors. Investment in the free zones and the mining sector are outside its jurisdiction, however. The act also contains provisions regarding investment in all other sectors and prohibitions on the engagement of foreigners in retail trade, among other issues.

C.2.7. Minerals and Mining Act, 2006 (Act 703)

The mining sector is important to the Ghanaian economy, specifically in terms of employment and foreign exchange earnings. The Mineral and Mining Act, 2006 (Act 703) is expected to provide guidelines for managing the sector. The Minerals Commission and the Chamber of Mines play key roles in the sector, as they are involved in the issuance of permits to both Ghanaian and foreign entities investing in the sector and ensuring their adherence to environmental protection regulations. Environmental impacts, such as land degradation and pollution of bodies of water, are especially associated with small-scale mining. The presence of foreign entities, which use more powerful equipment, in the small-scale mining subsector (particularly gold mining) has created challenges for the local stakeholders.

C.2.8. Free Zone Act, 1995 (Act 504)

The Free Zone Act, 1995 (Act 504) was enacted to enable the establishment of free zones in Ghana for the promotion of economic development and investment opportunities for both nationals and foreigners. Foreigners with work and residential permits are encouraged to invest in free zones that are not under the jurisdiction of the GIPC through incentives – tax concessions, investment guarantees, transfers of profits, guarantees against expropriation and operation of foreign currency accounts.

The Ghana Free Zones Board was created as the statutory body to manage and implement the Free Zones Programme, which began in 1996. One of its functions is to facilitate the granting of permits to foreigners. The Ministry of Trade and Industry oversees the work of the board (Ayamdoo, 2017).

Priority areas of investment under Ghana's Free Zones Programme include:

- (a) Food and agricultural products processing (fruit, vegetables and cacao);
 - (b) Information and communication technology (data processing, transcription, call centres, software development and computer assembly);
 - (c) Textiles and apparel manufacturing (including accessories for the garment industry and footwear);
 - (d) Seafood processing;
 - (e) Jewellery and handicrafts production;
 - (f) Light industry and assembly;
 - (g) Metal fabrication;
 - (h) Floriculture.
- (Ayamdoo, 2017)

The free zone concept may become one of the best ways for Ghana to benefit from immigrant business activities in the country. According to the Ghana Free Zones Board (2017, p. 1), out of the 201 licensed free zone companies, 63 (31%) were joint ventures between Ghanaian and non-Ghanaian entities, while 56 free zone companies (28%) were purely indigenous (see Annex III for further documents on the free zones).

C.2.9. The National Identity Register Regulation

The Government of Ghana introduced an identification register backed by an Act of Parliament in 2006 that aims to have each citizen registered and issued an identity card by the NIA. The register has also started to include foreigners residing and employed in the country. The mandate of the NIA is derived from Section 2 of the National Identification Authority Act, 2006 (Act 707).

C.2.10. Labour Act, 2003 (Act 651) and Labour Regulations, 2007 (L.I. 1833)

Employment and migration in the private sector have been issues of great public concern regarding migration governance in Ghana, particularly with respect to immigrants. Ghana has legal frameworks that govern private employment agencies within the country and apply to migrants and non-migrants alike, namely, the Labour Act, 2003 (Act 651) and the Labour Regulations, 2007 (L.I. 1833).

A private employment agency is defined in Regulations 3(1) and 41 of the Labour Regulations, 2007 (L.I. 1833) as “any corporate body which acts as an intermediary for the purpose of procuring employment for a worker or recruiting a worker for an employer.” The services that may be provided by private employment agencies under the law are:

- (a) Services for matching offers and applications for employment without the private employment agency becoming party to the employee relationship which may arise from there;
- (b) Services consisting of employing workers, with a view to making them available to a third party (user enterprise);
- (c) Services relating to job-seeking that do not set out to match specific offers of applications for employment (e.g. mere provision of information), with such services to be determined by a competent authority after consulting the most representative employers’ and workers’ organizations.

C.2.11. Representation of the People’s (Amendment) Act (ROPAA) (Act 699)

It is the recognition of the role of the diaspora in development, in particular, that led to the enactment of the Representation of the People’s (Amendment) Act (Act 699) in 2006, which extended voting rights to the Ghanaian diaspora. ROPAA is yet to be implemented. Meanwhile, the “right to abode” provision in the Immigration Act, 2000 (Act 573, Section 17), allows the Ghanaian diaspora (and any person of African descent) to stay in Ghana indefinitely when they apply for this provision. The dual citizenship provision in Regulation 10 of the Citizenship Regulations, 2001 (L.I. 1690) provides further rights to the diaspora.

However, Section 16 indicates that dual citizens cannot receive the following appointments unless they renounce their non-Ghanaian citizenship:

- (a) Ambassador or High Commission;
- (b) Secretary to the Cabinet;
- (c) Chief of Defence Staff or any Service Chief;
- (d) Inspector-General of Police;
- (e) Commissioner, Customs, Excise and Preventive Service;
- (f) Director of Immigration Service;
- (g) Any other office specified by an Act of Parliament.

C.2.12. National Population Policy

Since the adoption of a national policy on population in 1969, various government administrations have addressed migration issues (migration is the third component that determines population growth rate, after fertility and mortality). The National Population Policy was revised in 1994 and then again in 2004. Implementation of the policy has focused largely on fertility, reproductive health and mortality over the years. The current review of the policy mentions and sets targets in areas such as internal and international migration, labour migration, IDPs, refugees and asylum seekers, and human trafficking (National Population Policy, 2017).

C.2.13. Children's Act, 1998 (Act 560)

Topics relating to child well-being are addressed by various government ministries, departments and agencies, for instance, by the MOE, Ghana Education Service and MoGCSP (for child labour and child trafficking), among others. The policies supporting the roles of the various government ministries, departments and agencies working on children's issues were consolidated into the Children's Act, for which the main implementing body is MoGCSP. International recommendations were also incorporated so that the country could conform to international standards.

Additionally, a "Child and Family Welfare Policy" by MoGCSP, in collaboration with UNICEF, was adopted to design child and family welfare programmes and activities to more effectively prevent and protect children from all forms of violence, abuse, neglect and exploitation, including trafficking.

C.3. INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK

Ghana's NMP outlines the institutional framework that should be introduced vis-à-vis migration policy and programming, beginning with the establishment of the GNCM. Once established, the GNCM will serve as a body to manage migration and migration-related issues across all ministries in the country and will consist of representatives from the Government, academia, NGOs, civil society and interest groups. The NMP Action Plan defines clear responsibilities for the stakeholders involved in implementing it. The functional implementation of the policy is the responsibility of the National Migration Unit of the MOI.

Table 12 lists the institutions and organizations indicated in the NMP institutional framework to play key roles in migration management in Ghana. They are to contribute to the implementation of certain strategies in the NMP.

Table 12. Strategic areas in migration management and implementing entities

| Strategic area ^a | Implementing entities |
|--|---|
| Institutional, policy and legal framework | GNCM, NDPC, National Migration Unit (MOI), Ministry of Justice (MOJ), Office of the Attorney General (OAG), MFARI |
| Internal migration and urbanization | National Migration Unit (MOI), Ministry of Finance, NDPC, Savannah Accelerated Development Authority (SADA), NPC, Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development, NADMO, academic and research institutions |
| Emigration: brain drain, brain circulation and brain waste | MOH, MOE, MELR, National Migration Unit (MOI), academic and research institutions |
| Migration and development: diaspora resources including remittances, brain gain of return migrants | MOF, MOI, BOG, MFARI, MELR, GIPC, academic and research institutions |
| Border management | National Migration Unit (MOI), GIS |
| Irregular migration: human trafficking and migrant smuggling | MoGCSP, MOJ, OAG, National Migration Unit (MOI), GIS, AHTU, MFARI, MIMR |
| Migration and cross-cutting issues: gender, vulnerable groups, tourism, and cultural heritage | MoGCSP, MOTAC, MCTA |
| Migration, the environment and climate change | MESTI, EPA, MOFA, MLNR, MFAD, MOTAC, SADA, Academic and research institutions |
| Migration data and information management | GSS, GIS, MFARI, National Migration Unit (MOI), GPS, MELR, academic and research institutions |
| Migration and international cooperation | MFARI, National Migration Unit (MOI), MOJ, OAG, MELR |

Note: ^a These strategic areas in migration management are those identified in Ghana's National Migration Policy.

C.4. REGIONAL, SUBREGIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL FRAMEWORKS

Migration management in Ghana, as with most other countries, is governed by frameworks at various levels – regional, subregional and international. Instruments that stipulate definitions, standards, roles and responsibilities for good migration management include treaties, conventions, protocols, agreements and action plans, some of which have been mentioned in previous sections and are discussed in greater detail in this section.

C.4.1. Regional framework

Two regional (i.e. African-level) instruments have been adopted by the Government of Ghana, namely, the 1981 African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights and the Kampala Convention.

C.4.1.1. 1981 African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights

The charter gives every individual the right to equal protection under the law and prohibits the mass expulsion of non-nationals.

C.4.1.2. Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention)

Signed by the heads of State and Government of the member States of the African Union in 2009, the convention presents five objectives:

- (a) Promote and strengthen regional and national measures to prevent or mitigate, prohibit and eliminate root causes of internal displacement, and provide durable solutions;
- (b) Establish a legal framework for preventing internal displacement, and for protecting and assisting internally displaced persons in Africa;
- (c) Establish a legal framework for solidarity, cooperation, promotion of durable solutions and mutual support between States parties, in order to combat displacement and address its consequences;
- (d) Provide for the obligations and responsibilities of States parties, with respect to the prevention of internal displacement and protection of, and assistance, to internally displaced persons;
- (e) Provide for the respective obligations, responsibilities and roles of armed groups, non-State actors and other relevant actors, including civil society organizations, with respect to the prevention of internal displacement and protection of, and assistance to, internally displaced persons.

Further, Ghana has ratified the African Union Convention Governing Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa (1969) and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990).

C.4.2. Subregional framework

The Government of Ghana has adopted various subregional instruments guiding migration management in Ghana. These include the Lagos Plan of Action for the Economic Development of Africa (1980–2000), ECOWAS Treaty (1975), ECOWAS Protocol relating to the Free Movement of Persons, Residence and Establishment (1979), ECOWAS Protocol on Education and Training (2003), ECOWAS Common Approach on Migration (2008), and ECOWAS Regional Action Plan for the Elimination of Child Labour.

C.4.2.1. Lagos Plan of Action for the Economic Development of Africa (1980–2000)

The action plan urges all African Regional Economic Communities (RECs) to work towards regional integration, aiming to coalesce into the African Economic Community by 2028.

C.4.2.2. ECOWAS Treaty (1975) and the Protocol relating to the Free Movement of Persons, Residence and Establishment (1979)

On 28 May 1975, a treaty establishing the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) was signed in Lagos, Nigeria by sixteen ECOWAS nations, including Ghana. The treaty aims to strengthen economic integration in the region through the free movement of goods, capital and people, as well as to consolidate States' efforts towards peace, stability and security. Four years after the signing of the ECOWAS Treaty, States adopted the Protocol relating to the Free Movement of Persons, Residence and Establishment. The Protocol proposed a three-phased approach over 15 years:

- (a) Phase I, guaranteeing the right of entry and providing for the abolition of visas;
- (b) Phase II, guaranteeing the right of residence;
- (c) Phase III, guaranteeing the right of establishment.

The ECOWAS Treaty has proven to be challenging in some areas. Progress in the second and third phases has suffered from the regional decline in economic performance in the 1980s and well into the twenty-first century (Adepoju

et al., 2005). The monitoring of its implementation has also proven challenging. Only about half of the Member States have established national committees to monitor the implementation of the ECOWAS protocols (Adepoju et al., 2005).

Despite flaws in its implementation, the 1979 ECOWAS Treaty has had an important impact in the region. The free movement of persons, goods and services has facilitated trade and business in the economic bloc. Labour mobility has become easier, enabling seasonal employment. Student mobility has also been made easier in the tertiary education sector and those seeking short-term language programmes may enter any ECOWAS country without a visa for 90 days.

Article 27 of the treaty states that “Member States shall by agreement with each other, exempt Community citizens from holding visitors’ visas and residence permits and allow them to work and undertake commercial and industrial activities within their territories”. Article 3 of the revised version (1997) provides for “the removal, between Member States, of obstacles to the free movement of persons, goods, services and capital, and to the rights of residence and establishment”. (MOI, 2016)

C.4.2.3. ECOWAS Protocol on Education and Training (2003)

Signed in 2003, the protocol is a pact among ECOWAS member States to work cooperatively in the areas of education and training. Especially relevant to the issue of migration is Article 2(i), which calls for the “simplification and ultimate elimination of immigration formalities in order to facilitate the free movement of students and workers within the Region for the specific purposes of study, teaching, research and any other pursuits to education or training” (ECOWAS, 2003).

C.4.2.4. ECOWAS Common Approach on Migration, 2008

This protocol was adopted in Ouagadougou in 2008 at the Thirty-third Ordinary Session of the Authority of Heads of State and Government. The Common Approach is a strategic document to better manage migration in West Africa. It contains guidelines on irregular migration, counter-trafficking, the free movement of persons, the link between migration and development, labour migration, migrants’ rights and gender.

C.4.2.5. ECOWAS Regional Action Plan for the Elimination of Child Labour

Signed in 2008, the Regional Action Plan supports the ECOWAS Commission and member States to adopt mechanisms, with the goal of eliminating child labour, especially its worst forms, while reinforcing their cooperation and capacity in addressing the problem (ECOWAS and ILO, 2008, p. 8). The Regional Action Plan aims to “eliminate the worst forms of child labour in West Africa by 2015, while laying foundations for complete elimination of child labour” (ECOWAS and ILO, 2008, p. 5).

C.4.3. International framework

The international framework is made up of global processes (i.e. inter-State consultative mechanisms) and multilateral agreements on migration.

C.4.3.1. Global processes

Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration

On September 2016, Heads of State and Government from the 193 United Nations Member States adopted the New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants and recognized the need for a comprehensive approach to migration. As a result of the New York Declaration, United Nations Member States agreed to cooperate in the elaboration of a Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration, adopted in December 2018. Ghana is signatory to the Global Compact. Via 23 objectives, the Global Compact calls for improved migration data and strengthened migration governance and specific recommendations across specific areas, from smuggling to remittances, migration detention, human trafficking, labour migration and many others.

2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2030 Agenda)

The adoption of the 2030 Agenda by the 193 United Nations Member States in 2015 marks the first time that migration is formally recognized as a development topic and is integrated into the global development agenda. The 2030 Agenda provides a framework to address the complex and dynamic relationship between migration and development. Ghana is committed to working towards achieving the SDGs.

The central reference to migration is made in Target 10.7, which calls to “facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies.” Many other targets also directly reference migration and, for others, migration is a cross-cutting issue. Overall, implementation of the SDGs provides an opportunity to protect and empower mobile populations to fulfil their development potential and benefit to individuals, communities and countries around the world. Specific references to migration in the SDGs include:

- (a) **Target 4b:** By 2020, substantially expand globally the number of scholarships available to developing countries (in particular, least developed countries, small island developing States and African countries), for enrolment in higher education (including vocational training and information and communication technology, technical, engineering and scientific programmes) in developed countries and other developing countries.
- (b) **Target 5.2:** Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation
- (c) **Target 8.7:** Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking, and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and, by 2025, end child labour in all of its forms.
- (d) **Target 8.8:** Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers (in particular, women migrants) and those in precarious employment.
- (e) **Target 10c:** By 2030, reduce to less than 3 per cent the transaction costs of migrant remittances and eliminate remittance corridors with costs higher than five per cent.
- (f) **Target 10.7:** Facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies.
- (g) **Target 16.2:** End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence and torture against children.
- (h) **Target 17.16:** Enhance the global partnership for sustainable development, complemented by multi-stakeholder partnerships that mobilize and share knowledge, expertise, technology and financial resources, to support the achievement of the sustainable development goals in all countries, particularly in developing countries.

- (i) **Target 17.17:** Encourage and promote effective public, public–private and civil society partnerships, building on the experience and resourcing strategies of partnerships.
- (j) **Target 17.18:** By 2020, enhance capacity-building support to developing countries, including for least developed countries and small island developing States, to increase significantly the availability of high-quality, timely and reliable data, disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migration status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts.

C.4.3.2. International treaties and multilateral agreements

The United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights

Adopted in 1948, declaration affirms the universal rights and freedoms to which all human beings, including migrants, are entitled. While Article 13 of this declaration permits emigration, it does not guarantee immigration or entry into a destination country (MOI, 2016).

Miscellaneous

Several other international instruments that impact migration governance that the Government of Ghana has ratified:

- (a) 1990 Convention on the Protection of the Rights of Migrant Workers and Members of their Families;
- (b) 2002 Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air;
- (c) 2002 Protocol to Prevent, Suppress, and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children;
- (d) Several international conventions relating to the environment and climate change, including:
 - (i) Rio Declaration, signed in 1992;
 - (ii) Kyoto Protocol, signed in 1997;
 - (iii) Cancun Agreement, signed in 2010;
 - (iv) Paris Agreement, signed in 2015 (Ghana was the first sub-Saharan African signatory country).

It must be noted that Ghana has not ratified the 1954 United Nations Convention relating to the Status of Stateless Persons.

C.5. INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

17 PARTNERSHIPS
FOR THE GOALS



Target 17.16: Enhance the global partnership for sustainable development, complemented by multi-stakeholder partnerships that mobilize and share knowledge, expertise, technology and financial resources, to support the achievement of the sustainable development goals in all countries, in particular developing countries.

C.5.1. International Organization for Migration

The International Organization for Migration has been active in Ghana since 1987 and has collaborated with the Government of Ghana on efforts to effectively manage migration through a wide variety of strategies and programmes. IOM works with its partners to meet the growing migration challenges, and to advance the understanding of migration issues in Ghana, encourage social and economic development through migration, and uphold the human dignity and well-being of all migrants. The IOM Ghana Mission Office, the Canadian Visa Application Centre and the Migration Health Assessment Centre are all located in Accra. (IOM Ghana, 2018)

IOM began its work in Ghana with programmes supporting the institutional capacity-building needs for the implementation of the second phase of the Return of Qualified African Nationals Programme (1988–1992). The programme facilitated the return of African nationals, including Ghanaians, to contribute to the socioeconomic development in Ghana. (IOM Ghana, 2018)

IOM manages a broad range of migration governance programmes in support of the Government of Ghana's efforts in the areas of voluntary return and reintegration, refugee resettlement, migrant health, global health security, counter-trafficking and counter-smuggling, border management, safe migration, travel services for migrants, migration and development, emergency assistance and capacity-building. (IOM Ghana, 2018)

C.5.2. Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees is an active organization in Ghana that advocates for the rights of all refugees and asylum seekers within the country, ensuring they have full access to international protection and basic services. In Ghana, UNHCR has its Country Office in Accra and a field office in Takoradi. UNHCR works with the Government of Ghana through the MOI, GRB, GIS and other relevant government bodies in ensuring that refugees and asylum seekers in Ghana have access to international protection, as well as basic services.

Based on its work and observations on Ghana's refugee population, UNHCR provides recommendations to the Government for its management of asylum seekers and refugees. Key recommendations are under the themes of: (a) local integration and durable solutions, (b) ratification of conventions for the protection of refugees, asylum seekers, and stateless persons, and (c) adoption of the National Action Plan to End Statelessness.²⁷ UNHCR is involved in a range of programmes in Ghana, including, for example, ongoing efforts on the voluntary return of Ivorian refugees.²⁸

C.5.3. International Labour Organization

The International Labour Organization works with the Government of Ghana and other partners to implement various initiatives and projects. These may include assisting in the rights of various vulnerable groups in the workplace, including migrant workers, and victims of trafficking through its work on child labour.

C.5.4. UNICEF

UNICEF has collaborated with several government ministries, departments and agencies, Ghana's development partners (United States and Canada, among others) and international agencies such as IOM to implement counter-trafficking programmes in Ghana. For example, it has supported MoGCSP and the Government of Canada in drafting and launching the National Plan of Action for the Elimination of Human Trafficking in Ghana, 2017–2021.

²⁷ For all recommendations, refer to: UNHCR, "Submission by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees for the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights' Compilation Report: Ghana", universal periodic review, third cycle, twenty-eighth session (Geneva, UNHCR, 2017).

²⁸ See, for example: UNHCR, "Ghana", fact sheet, July/August 2018. Available at <https://data2.unhcr.org/en/documents/download/66176>.

C.5.5. European Union

The Delegation of the European Union to Ghana is part of the European External Action Service and is one of more than 130 delegations throughout the world. The delegation is mandated to:

- (a) Actively promote the values and policies of the European Union, in an open and equal partnership manner with the Government and people of Ghana;
 - (b) Deepen the political dialogue on all issues of mutual interest and strengthen the partnership;
 - (c) Implement the European Union Common Foreign and Security Policy, the development and trade policies focusing on poverty alleviation and the promotion of democracy, human rights and the rule of law, as well as the smooth and gradual integration of developing countries into the world economy;
 - (d) Inform Ghana about the policies and programmes of the European Union, as well as its institutions and values;
 - (e) Support regional integration of ECOWAS, as well as the planned development of pan-African policies, programmes and institutions.
- (European Union, n.d.)

Key programmes

European Union-funded projects in Ghana cover areas such as governance, education, human rights and security. The European Union Emergency Trust Fund for Africa is one such key initiative. Its primary aims include strengthening capacities of national and local authorities in migration management, assisting the voluntary return of migrants, promoting awareness of the risks of irregular migration, and addressing the root causes of irregular migration in Africa.²⁹ In Ghana, the overall objective of the project is to contribute to strengthening the governance of migration and ensuring the sustainable reintegration of returning migrants in Ghana. More specifically, the project aims to:

- (a) Support Ghana in improving the reintegration of returning migrants and strengthening national structures and capabilities in terms of managing reintegration in a dignified and sustainable manner;

²⁹ European Commission, International Cooperation and Development section. Available at https://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/regions/africa/eu-emergency-trust-fund-africa_en.

- (b) Enable migrants and potential migrants to make informed decisions about their migration journey and to sensitize communities on migration;
- (c) Strengthen migration data and communication on migration flows, routes and trends, as well as on the needs and vulnerabilities of migrants in the targeted countries, in order to support evidence-based policies and programme design.

Prior to the European Union–IOM Joint Initiative for Migrant Protection and Reintegration in Africa, the Ghana Integrated Migration Management Approach (GIMMA), funded through the Tenth European Development Fund of the European Union, supported the Government of Ghana in the management of complex migration challenges in the country.³⁰

³⁰ For more information on GIMMA, see: IOM, “GIMMA: Ghana Integrated Migration Management Approach”, information sheet, January (Accra, 2016). Available at www.iom.int/sites/default/files/country/docs/ghana/GIMMA-Information-Sheet-January-2016.pdf.

PART D: SUMMARY, POLICY IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

D.1. SUMMARY AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

Migration has proven to be an important part of Ghana's development and is increasingly being recognized as part of its development strategy. Migration affects all sectors in the country, which, in turn, affect migration dynamics. These impacts can present challenges, as well as opportunities.

In the agriculture sector, for example, international and internal migrants often provide a great proportion of the labour force necessary for production. In some cases, the agriculture sector can provide livelihoods to those who may have been displaced because of environmental factors and climatic events. Despite the clear contributions of migrants to various sectors of the Ghanaian economy, in some cases large movements of labour migrants, including in the context of rapid urbanization, and the growth of the sectors in which they work have brought about problematic environmental challenges. Efforts to mainstream migration into cross-sectoral governance structures could afford Ghana an opportunity to maximize the benefits of migration while reducing its potential adverse effects. Similarly, more should be done to forecast internal migration trends, in order to help plan accordingly in the health, labour, education and urban planning sectors and mainstream migration into them.

Ghanaian emigrants have settled in a diversity of destination countries. Countries in Western Africa, Europe and North America have remained popular destinations. The movement of skilled labour, especially of health workers, out of the country has resulted in some brain drain. Greater policy and programming efforts could be made to facilitate the return of skilled migrants and enable them to put their diverse skills and capital to best use. The impact of emigration on Ghana's development can also be seen through remittances, which flow into Ghana in high volumes and often constitute crucial parts of households' total incomes.

The rates of different types of human trafficking, particularly, sex and labour trafficking of children, may be high in Ghana. There is often low awareness of these phenomena and knowledge of how to prevent and address them.

Comprehensive, timely and quality data on migration in Ghana are rarely available from national sources, and international sources are often more useful. Much migration data is not disaggregated by age, sex, educational status, occupation and skill level. This lack of useful, timely data is a setback in the efforts to manage migration in Ghana. It is hoped that improved data collection and sharing mechanisms, anticipated in 2018, will represent a considerable change for migration management in the country and subsequent updates to the Ghana Migration Profile.

Ghana has robust national frameworks for migration governance and has introduced several legal instruments, policies and interventions at the national level to address migration issues in the country. Moreover, the Ghanaian Government is signatory to several conventions and protocols on migration at the regional and international levels and works on migration issues with many regional and international actors. It is expected that Ghana will align its approach to migration management with the SDGs and other global and regional frameworks that govern migration and to which it is a signatory.

D.2. RECOMMENDATIONS ON THE MIGRATION GOVERNANCE FRAMEWORK

The successful design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of migration-related policies and programmes hinges on a coherent plan by all relevant stakeholders in Ghana. This report strongly recommends the establishment of an official institutional framework for the implementation of the NMP. As recommended by the NMP, a Ghana National Migration Commission should be established and sufficiently resourced so it can assume the key role in migration management in the country.

- (a) The commission should advocate for the implementation of protocols and policies that have been ratified but are not fully acted upon. It should also recommend and ensure that the Government proceeds with the ratification of others that are also relevant.
- (b) (There are parliamentary caucuses on demography, health and security that may help to monitor progress towards specific NMP outcomes. A caucus on migration should eventually be formed, considering the importance attached to migration in development and governance today, globally and in Ghana.
- (c) Tools that can be used to enhance policy coherence and monitor progress towards the SDGs and other development goals at the

national level (e.g. IOM's Migration Governance Indicators and the Ghana Migration Profile), should continue to be leveraged on.

- (d) There should be a drive to delegate responsibility for various areas of the NMP among the respective government ministries, departments and agencies, including for the development of specific policies, as needed.
- (e) This report recommends regular updates to the Ghana Migration Profile, under the leadership of the Migration Commission, which will ensure that policymakers have access to relevant and up-to-date migration data and analysis to inform their decision-making. Good practices from other countries, such as making legal provisions for updating the Migration Profile, should be explored.
- (f) Representatives from the MOI, GSS, GIS, MELR, MFARI, GRB and the Diaspora Affairs Office (under the Office of the President) should be actively involved in updating the Migration Profile.

D.3. RECOMMENDATIONS ON MAINSTREAMING MIGRATION INTO DEVELOPMENT POLICY

The following recommendations are made in light of the findings of this current investigation:

- (a) The Government should resource the GSS to mainstream migration into relevant surveys, including the 2020 census. This will lay a foundation for the mainstreaming of migration in the country based on evidence.
- (b) Bilateral and multilateral agreements should be considered between Ghana and key countries of origin and destination that would contribute to the reduction in remittance transaction costs and, in turn, maximize the benefits of migration.
- (c) The elimination of human trafficking and irregular migration should generally be treated with urgency to protect women and children, who are usually the victims, from those who perpetuate this practice. Efforts should aim at sustaining the campaign against the practice and involving communities so that they can own the anti-trafficking law and related policies and related programmes.
- (d) Fast-track and facilitate procedures for returning health workers to work and practice in Ghana.
- (e) Do more to measure, anticipate and report on internal migration trends in the future, especially in the health, labour and education (schools) sectors.

- (f) To reduce irregular migration, bilateral agreements should be signed with countries that need labour in the agricultural and service sectors, so that temporary and managed migration can replace undocumented migration among the youth. Such initiatives should be considered a priority for reducing irregular migration, as the creation and development of employment opportunities will lead to even more migration in the short term, since more potential migrants will have financial resources to pay for the costs of travel.
- (g) Tools to monitor and enhance policy coherence – and especially those that aid in monitoring progress towards the achievement of the SDGs and development goals outlined at the national level (e.g. IOM's Migration Governance Indicators and the Ghana Migration Profile) – should continue to be leveraged.
- (h) Policies addressing migration should consider the characteristics and vulnerabilities of child migrants, as well as the dynamics of child migration. Before effective child migration management can be implemented in the country, an immediate action step will be to have a census or survey of child migrants and conditions at both destination and origin.
- (i) Policies, such as the draft Diaspora Engagement Policy, should be adopted to address specific issues on the diaspora.
- (j) Research on the migration–climate change nexus should continue to be conducted (one such project in the past was the Deltaic Vulnerability and Climate Change: Management and Approach (DECMMA) Project, which the University of Ghana participated in). Even when the association between the two is considered only as indirect, more interdisciplinary research on the migration–climate change nexus is needed, given the influence that climate change ultimately has on migratory movements in Ghana. The DECMMA Project involved action research, which enabled dissemination of the findings and community initiatives to appreciate the findings. Such an approach is recommended for future research on the climate change–migration nexus in other ecological zones.

D.4. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVEMENTS IN MIGRATION DATA AND THE OVERALL EVIDENCE BASE

The Government of Ghana has various ministries, departments and agencies that produce data. However, much of the data remains inaccessible to the public (and even across ministries), with available data often patchy and

of inconsistent quality. Many critical data gaps remain to be bridged through improved data collection, analysis and dissemination. The migration data that are available are rarely disaggregated by characteristics critical to policymakers (age, sex, education, profession, skills and skill level, among others).

There is also some reluctance among stakeholders to share data, as the responsibility for granting access to data might not be clearly attached to a particular government office, department or unit, nor follow a pre-established, official procedure. As such, some government entities were not willing to share data on agreed-upon migration indicators during this current investigation. Consequently, internationally compiled and disseminated data (that is, by international organizations and third countries) were generally relied upon during the preparation of this report, as not all timely data, disaggregated by age, sex, and country of birth and citizenship, could be secured from national data producers alone.

Although the GSS was able to provide data on many topics, the fact that the last census was in 2010 rendered these data less than timely. The upcoming 2020 census, which will also include key migration questions, is expected to be a significant source of relevant migration data. Furthermore, other data sources were rarely able to supplement census data due to the lack of the data requested, unavailability and challenges of comparability. However, the signing of a memorandum of understanding for data-sharing – hopefully in the near-future – between key migration actors in the country is meant to ensure that these data gaps are bridged. It is expected that the data and analysis that will be produced through the National Migration Data Management Strategy, which was initiated under the GIMMA Project, will feed into future updates of the Ghana Migration Profile and towards implementing, monitoring and review of the NMP. To this end, the following are recommended:

- (a) Ensure the National Migration Data Management Strategy, as established by the GIMMA Project, is fully functional and feeds into future updates of the Migration Profile.
- (b) Promote and maximize the use of existing national data sources – population censuses, surveys and administrative sources.
- (c) Conduct a nationally representative household survey to better understand the role and impact of the diaspora, transfers received through informal channels and social remittances.
- (d) Analyse, publish and disseminate census and survey results and produce detailed metadata to support better understanding of the data and applications thereof.

- (e) Make accessible online available national data on migration and publish regular updates and revisions in order to reflect trends.
- (f) Update the Migration Profile approximately every five years to produce updated and accessible migration data that can support evidence-based policies and programmes for migration management in Ghana.
- (g) Establish data exchange mechanisms between government ministries and international partners on various migration topics, and with major destination countries for Ghanaian nationals, to obtain information on emigrants and the Ghanaian diaspora.
- (h) Conduct analysis and produce research on various topics on migration, particularly on certain aspects of the migration–development nexus, keeping the migrant at the centre of the analysis.

ANNEXES

Annex I: Glossary³¹

assisted voluntary return and reintegration (AVRR)

Administrative, logistical or financial support, including reintegration assistance, to migrants unable or unwilling to remain in the host country or country of transit, and who decide to return to their country of origin.

Note: In the context of AVRR, voluntariness is assumed to exist if two conditions apply: (a) freedom of choice, which is defined by the absence of physical or psychological pressure to enrol in an AVRR programme; and (b) an informed decision, which requires the availability of timely, unbiased and reliable information upon which to base the decision. In some cases, an assessment may be needed by qualified professionals to determine the extent to which a person is capable to take such a free and informed decision, and who, should the person lack such a capacity, could legally take the decision on his or her behalf. AVRR programmes may provide different levels of assistance to reintegration; in some cases, they don't provide any assistance to this effect.

asylum seeker

An individual who is seeking international protection. In countries with individualized procedures, an asylum seeker is someone whose claim has not yet been finally decided on by the country in which he or she is seeking asylum. Not every asylum seeker will ultimately be recognized as a refugee, but every recognized refugee is initially an asylum seeker. (United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), 2006)

emigrant stock

The total number of emigrants from a given country at a particular time. (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA), 2017c)

emigration

The act of moving from one's country of nationality or usual residence to another, such that the country of destination effectively becomes his or her new country of usual residence.

³¹ Unless otherwise indicated in parentheses, definitions are derived from: IOM, *Key International Migration Law No. 34: Glossary on Migration* (Geneva, 2019). Available at https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/iml_34_glossary.pdf.

facilitated migration

Regular migration that has been encouraged or supported by State policies and practices, or by the direct assistance of international organizations to make the act of migration and residence easier, more transparent and more convenient.

Note: Facilitated migration may, for example, take the form of a streamlined visa application process, government-assisted labour migration or pre-departure orientation programme.

forced migration

A migratory movement which, although the drivers can be diverse, involves force, compulsion or coercion.

Note: While not an international legal concept, this term has been used to describe the movements of refugees, displaced persons (including those displaced by disasters or development projects), and, in some instances, victims of trafficking. At the international level, the use of this term is debated because of the widespread recognition of the fact that a continuum of agency exists rather than a voluntary–forced dichotomy and that it might undermine the existing legal international protection regime.

(right to) freedom of movement

In human rights law, a human right comprising three basic elements: (a) freedom of movement within the territory of a country and to choose one's residence, (b) the right to leave any country, and (c) the right to return to one's own country. (United Nations, 1948)

In the context of free movement agreements, the freedom of entry and residence into another State that is a party to the agreement.

Note: Under human rights law, the right to freedom of movement does not entail the right to enter and remain in a State that is not the individual's own country, except when the State has an obligation to admit the person under international law (e.g. in application of the principle of non-refoulement). Article 12 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (adopted 16 December 1966, and entered into force 23 March 1976) describes this right as follows: "(1) Everyone lawfully within the territory of a State shall, within that territory, have the right to liberty of movement and freedom to choose his residence; (2) Everyone shall be free to leave any country, including his own; (3) The above-mentioned rights shall not be subject to any restrictions except those which are provided by law, are necessary to protect national security, public order, public health or morals or the rights and freedoms of others, and are consistent with the other rights recognized in the present Covenant. (4) No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of the right to enter his own country". As noted in the United Nations Human Rights Committee's General Comment No. 27: "The wording of Article 12, Paragraph 4, does not distinguish between nationals and aliens ('no one'). Thus, the persons entitled to exercise this right can be identified only by interpreting the meaning of the phrase "his own country." The

scope of “his own country” is broader than the concept of “country of his nationality.” It is not limited to nationality in a formal sense, that is, nationality acquired at birth or by conferral; it embraces, at the very least, an individual who, because of his or her special ties to or claims in relation to a given country, cannot be considered to be a mere alien. [...] The language of Article 12, Paragraph 4, moreover, permits a broader interpretation that might embrace other categories of long-term residents, including, but not limited to, stateless persons arbitrarily deprived of the right to acquire the nationality of the country of such residence. Since other factors may, in certain circumstances, result in the establishment of close and enduring connections between a person and a country, States parties should include in their reports information on the rights of permanent residents to return to their country of residence” (United Nations, 1999). Freedom of movement is also a key right of nationals of States parties to a regional free-movement regime (e.g. European Union, Economic Community of West African States, Mercado Común del Sur (Mercosur) and the Caribbean Community).

immigrant stock

The total number of international migrants present in a country at a particular time (UN DESA, 2017c).

international migrant

Any person who is outside a State of which he or she is a citizen or national, or, in the case of a stateless person, his or her State of birth or habitual residence. The term includes migrants who intend to move permanently or temporarily, and those who move in a regular or documented manner, as well as migrants in irregular situations.

Note: The first part of the definition is also the one used in the Global Migration Group Principles and Guidelines, supported by practical guidance, in the context of human rights protection of migrants in vulnerable situations. For statistical purposes, UN DESA defines an “international migrant” as “any person who changes his or her country of usual residence.” The UN DESA definition excludes movements that are due to “recreation, holiday, visits to friends and relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimages.” (UN DESA, 1998, para. 32)

internally displaced persons (IDPs)

Persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border. (United Nations, 1998)

Note: While the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement (United Nations, 1998) are not binding, they have become an authoritative reference on how States should respond to internal displacement. Adopted by the then Human Rights Commission, the Guiding Principles have been endorsed by the United Nations General Assembly at the 2005

World Summit Outcome through a draft resolution (A/60/L.1, of 20 September 2005, specifically, in para. 132), widely used as an advocacy tool by international organizations and non-governmental organizations, translated into two binding documents at the regional level in Africa (namely, the African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) (adopted on 23 October 2009, entered into force on 6 December 2012) and the Great Lakes Protocol on the Protection and Assistance to Internally Displaced Persons (adopted on 30 November 2006, entered into force 21 June 2008), and incorporated in the policies and legislation of a number of States.

irregular migration

Movement of persons that takes place outside the laws, regulations, or international agreements governing the entry into or exit from the State of origin, transit or destination.

Note: Although a universally accepted definition of irregular migration does not exist, the term is generally used to identify persons moving outside regular migration channels. The fact that they migrate irregularly does not relieve States from the obligation to protect their rights. Moreover, categories of migrants who may not have any other choice but to use irregular migration channels can also include refugees, victims of trafficking and unaccompanied migrant children. The fact that they use irregular migration pathways does not imply that States are not, in some circumstances, obliged to provide them with some form of protection under international law, including access to international protection for asylum seekers fleeing persecution, conflicts or generalized violence. In addition, refugees are protected under international law against being penalized for unauthorized entry or stay if they have travelled from a place where they were at risk. (United Nations, 1951, Art. 31(1))

labour migration

Movement of persons from one State to another, or within their own country of residence, for the purpose of employment.

In line with the definition of “migrant”, labour migration is defined as covering both migrants moving within the country and across international borders. This choice is also justified by the significant number of persons moving within the same country for work purposes who sometimes face the same barriers or challenges faced by international migrants, such as discrimination and difficulties in integration. Although such challenges may be greater for migrants moving across borders, they are likewise not totally absent for internal migrants. migrantAn umbrella term, not defined under international law, reflecting the common lay understanding of a person who moves away from his or her place of usual residence, whether within a country or across an international border, temporarily or permanently, and for a variety of reasons. The term includes a number of well-defined legal categories of people, such as migrant workers;

persons whose particular types of movements are legally defined, such as smuggled migrants; as well as those whose status or means of movement are not specifically defined under international law, such as international students.

Note: At the international level, no universally accepted definition for “migrant” exists. The present definition was developed by IOM for its own purposes and is not meant to imply or create any new legal category. Two approaches are generally adopted to define the term “migrant”: (a) the inclusivist approach, adopted, among others, by IOM, considers the term “migrant” as an umbrella term covering all forms of movement; (b) the residualist approach excludes from the term “migrant” those who flee wars or persecution (Carling, n.d.). For the purpose of collecting data on migration, UN DESA defines “international migrant” as “any person who changes his or her country of usual residence” (UN DESA, 1998, para. 32). The UN DESA definition excludes movements that are due to “recreation, holiday, visits to friends and relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimages” (UN DESA, 1998, para. 32). Specific definitions have also been developed by UN DESA to identify short- and long-term migrants (see relevant entries).

migration

The movement of persons away from their place of usual residence, either across an international border or within a State.

The number of migrants entering or leaving entering and leaving (inflow and outflow) a country over the course of a specific period, usually one calendar year (UN DESA, 2017c).

migration governance

The combined frameworks of legal norms, laws and regulations, policies and traditions, as well as organizational structures (subnational, national, regional and international) and the relevant processes that shape and regulate States’ approaches with regard to migration in all its forms, addressing rights and responsibilities and promoting international cooperation. (IOM, 2015; and United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), 2014)

Note: The definition provided draws from a definition developed by OHCHR and the one which is provided in IOM’s Migration Governance Framework (MiGOF), endorsed by IOM Member States on 24 November 2015 through Council Resolution No. 1310. IOM’s view is that good migration governance “adheres to international standards and fulfils migrant’s rights; formulates policy using evidence and a ‘whole-of government’ approach; engages with partners to address migration and related issues” (IOM, 2015, p. 6). The objectives of sound migration governance should be to seek to “advance the socioeconomic well-being of migrants and society; to provide an effective response to the mobility dimension of crises; and to ensure that migration takes place in a

safe orderly and dignified manner” (Ibid.). States are the primary actors in migration, mobility and nationality issues and have the responsibility of governing migration at the national and international levels. However, other actors – citizens, migrants, international organizations, the private sector, unions, non-governmental organizations, community organizations, religious organizations and academia – also contribute to migration governance (Ibid., p. 4). As such, migration governance has both a national and a global dimension. Global governance has been defined as the “norms, rules, principles and decision-making procedures that regulate the behaviour of States (and other transnational actors)” (Betts, 2011, p. 4). According to the Global Commission on International Migration, “in the domain of international migration, governance assumes a variety of forms, including the migration policies and programmes of individual countries, inter-State discussions and agreements, multilateral [forums] and consultative processes, the activities of international organizations, as well as relevant laws and norms” (Global Commission on International Migration, 2005, p. 65).

refugee (mandate)

A person who qualifies for the protection of the United Nations provided by UNHCR, in accordance with UNHCR’s Statute and, notably, subsequent United Nations General Assembly’s resolutions clarifying the scope of UNHCR’s competency, regardless of whether or not he or she is in a country that is a party to the 1951 Convention or the 1967 Protocol – or a relevant regional refugee instrument – or whether or not he or she has been recognized by his or her host country as a refugee under either of these instruments. (UNHCR, 2011a, para. 16)

refugee (prima facie)

Persons recognized as refugees, by a State or UNHCR, on the basis of objective criteria related to the circumstances in their country of origin, which justify a presumption that they meet the criteria of the applicable refugee definition. (UNHCR, 2006, p. 17)

Note: “While refugee status must normally be determined on an individual basis, situations have also arisen in which entire groups have been displaced under circumstances indicating that members of the group could be considered individually as refugees. In such situations, the need to provide assistance is often extremely urgent and it may not be possible for purely practical reasons to carry out an individual determination of refugee status for each member of the group. Recourse has therefore been had to so called ‘group determination’ of refugee status, whereby each member of the group is regarded prima facie (i.e. in the absence of evidence to the contrary) as a refugee” (UNHCR, 2011a, para. 44).

remittances (migrant)

Private international monetary transfers that migrants make, individually or collectively.

Note: Remittances are primarily sent to people in countries of origin with whom migrants maintain close links, although, in some cases, they are also sent to relatives in other countries of destination. Increasingly, the terms “social remittances” or “social capital transfer” are used in the context of transfers of non-monetary value as a result of migration, such as transfer of knowledge, know-how, networking and skills.

resettlement (refugees)

The transfer of refugees from the country in which they have sought protection to another State that has agreed to admit them – as refugees – with permanent residence status. (UNHCR, 2011b, p. 3.)

Note: Resettled refugees will usually be granted asylum or some other form of long-term resident rights and, in many cases, will have the opportunity to become naturalized citizens.

trafficking in persons

The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of a person, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, or of abduction, fraud, deception, abuse of power or position of vulnerability of the trafficked person, or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of the trafficked person to be controlled by another, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude, or the removal of organs. (United Nations, 2000b, Art. 3(a))

Note: Article 3 of the Trafficking Protocol also stipulates that: “[t]he consent of a victim of trafficking in persons to the intended exploitation set forth in subparagraph (a) of this article shall be irrelevant where any of the means set forth in subparagraph (a) have been used” Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, Supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (United Nations, 2000b, Art. 3(b)). Trafficking can also happen within State borders.

Annex II: Institutional Framework for the National Migration Policy

| National Migration Policy strategic area | Implementing ministries, departments and agencies, and other organizations |
|---|--|
| Institutional, policy and legal framework | Ghana National Commission on Migration (GNCM) National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) Migration Unit of the Ministry of the Interior (MOI) Ministry of Justice (MOJ) and the Office of the Attorney General (OAG) Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Regional Integration (MFARI) |
| Internal migration and urbanization | GNCM NDPC Migration Unit (under the MOI) Savannah Accelerated Development Authority (SADA) National Population Council (NPC) Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MLGRD) National Disaster Management Organization (NADMO) Ministry of Finance (MOF) Academic and research institutions |
| Emigration: brain drain, brain circulation and brain waste | MFARI MOI Ministry of Health (MOH) Ministry of Education (MOE) Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations (MELR) Academic and research institutions |
| Migration and development: diaspora resources, including remittances and brain gain through return migrants | MOI MOF MFARI MELR Bank of Ghana Ghana Investment Promotion Centre (GIPC) Academic and research institutions |
| Border management | Ghana Immigration Service (GIS) (under MOI) |

| National Migration Policy strategic area | Implementing ministries, departments and agencies, and other organizations |
|--|---|
| Irregular migration: human trafficking and migrant smuggling | MFARI MOJ and OAG GIS and the Anti-Human Trafficking Unit (AHTU) of the Ghana Police Service (all under MOI) Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection (MoGCSP) Ministry of Information and Media Relations (MIMR) |
| Migration and cross-cutting issues: gender, vulnerable groups, tourism and cultural heritage | MoGCSP Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture (MOTAC, formerly the Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Creative Arts) Ministry of Chieftaincy and Traditional Affairs (MCTA) |
| Migration, the environment and climate change | MOTAC SADA Ministry of Environment, Science, Technology and Innovation (MESTI) and its Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) Ministry of Food and Agriculture (MOFA) Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources (MLNR) and its Forestry Commission Ministry of Fisheries and Aquaculture Development (MFAD) Academic and research institutions |
| Migration data and information management | GIS MFARI MOI MELR Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) Ghana Police Service Academic and research institutions |
| Migration and international cooperation | MOI MFARI MOJ and OAG MELR |

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