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Migration in Ghana

A COUNTRY PROFILE 2009



Schweizerische Eidgenossenschaft
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THE AFRICAN CAPACITY
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Prepared for IOM by
Peter Quartey



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Acronyms

ACP	African, Caribbean and Pacific
ADHA	Additional Duty Hours Allowance
CWI	Core Welfare Indicators
DRC	Development Research Centre
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
ERP	Economic Recovery Programme
EU	European Union
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
GAR	Greater Accra Region
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GIPC	Ghana Investment Promotion Centre
GIS	Ghana Immigration Service
GoG	Government of Ghana
GSE	Ghana Stock Exchange
GLSS	Ghana Living Standards Survey
GMHP	Ghanaian Migrant Health Professionals
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
HDI	Human Development Index
HDR	Human Development Report
HIPC	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
ISSER	Institute of Statistical, Social and Economic Research
JHS	Junior High School
MIDA	Migration for Development in Africa
MMB	Migration Management Bureau
MTOs	Money Transmitter Operators
MU	Migration Unit
NAPRM-GC	National African Peer Review Mechanism Governing Council
NCTE	National Council for Tertiary Education
NDPC	National Development Planning Commission

NMB	National Migration Bureau
NTE	Non-Traditional Exports
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
SSNIT	Social Security and National Insurance Trust
TII	Trade Intensity Index
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNPD	United Nations Population Division

Foreword

Over the past three years, IOM has prepared Migration Profiles for 32 countries in different parts of the world, including Eastern Europe, the Black Sea region, South America, and Africa.

Migration Profiles were first proposed by the European Commission (EC) in *Communication on Migration and Development* in 2005. According to the document, Migration Profiles should be statistical reports providing information on a range of issues related to migration in the European Union's partner countries. They were conceived of as tools for the EC to inform community-assistance programmes for third countries in the field of migration, as well as poverty-reduction strategies.

In Western and Central Africa, IOM takes the original migration profile concept further. In IOM's "Migration in West and Central Africa: National Profiles for Strategic Policy" project, Migration Profiles were conceived of as more than just statistical reports; they were also intended to be government-owned tools for facilitating policy development.

The main objective of this research and capacity-building project is to enhance the governmental capacities of ten target countries in West and Central Africa to promote a coherent and proactive policy approach to migration, by developing "National Migration Profiles" that will serve as a framework for data collection and analysis in support of strategic policy planning at the national and regional levels. With financial support from the EC, the Swiss Federal Office for Migration, and the Belgian Development Cooperation, IOM is implementing this project in Democratic Republic of the Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, and Senegal. Migration Profile reports are also prepared for Cape Verde and Cameroon.

The National Migration Profile reports are a key result of this project. These reports bring together existing information from different sources in a structured manner, and provide a comprehensive overview of key international migration and socio-economic development trends in the target countries. They also identify data gaps and potential strategies to improve data collection for policy planning purposes.

It is important to note that the preparation of these National Migration Profiles went beyond mere information collection. Data and information relevant to migration is often stored in many different locations, both inside

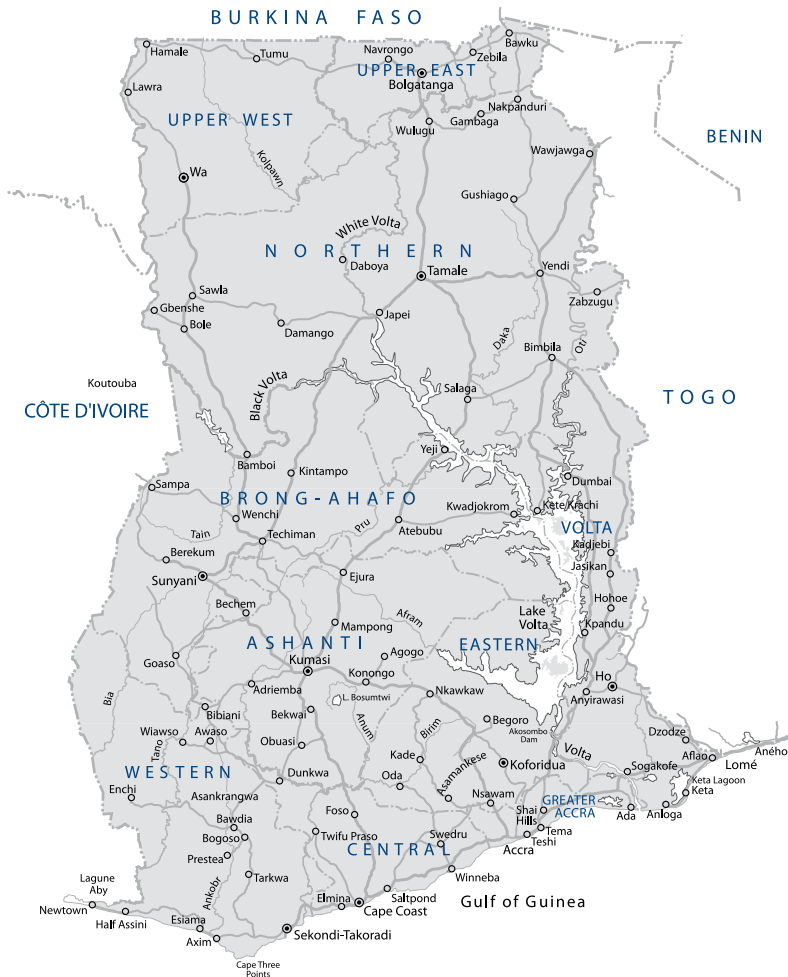
and outside governmental structures. Each target country therefore established inter-ministerial technical working groups (TWGs) to facilitate the collection of relevant information from different entities. The TWGs also enabled the governments to provide input to the report at every stage of the drafting process, and to consider more broadly a coherent approach to data collection and policy development. The completed drafts of the National Migration Profiles were presented at National Policy Planning Workshops, enabling governments to issue recommendations on future policy development and improved data collection. The National Migration Profile reports are thus the outcome of broader government-supported processes that aim to enhance the use of data for policy development. These reports go further than simply present data. Through such mechanisms as the TWGs and National Policy Planning Workshops, the reports are also a tool to better inform and advance policy planning on international migration in the target countries.

In order to remain an effective information tool for policy making, Migration Profile reports need to be updated regularly and used for policy development. The sustainability of the governmental mechanisms established for preparing Migration Profiles remains a key challenge. The baseline data on which the reports draw and the reporting format also need to be improved to allow for a more sophisticated analysis of migration-related trends. The “Migration in West and Central Africa: National Profiles for Strategic Policy Development” project has started to address these challenges, but further interventions are required to ensure that Migration Profiles remain a regularly updatable information tool for policy development.

This report would not have been possible without the contributions of a number of people. We would like to thank: national expert Peter Quartey of the Centre for Migration Studies, University of Ghana, for drafting the report; Rudolf Anich, Jobst Koehler, and Timon Van Lidth for coordinating, reviewing, and editing the Migration Profile reports; Pierpaolo Capalbo and Maud Bonnet for research assistance in the final stages; IOM focal point and IOM office in Ghana for providing additional information; and last but not least, the government officials who provided valuable input to the report at different stages.

Abye Makonnen
Regional Representative
Mission with Regional Functions
Dakar, Senegal

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GHANA - Basic Facts	
Population (2008)	22,900,927
Total area	238,537 km ²
GDP per capita PPP, 2005 (USD)	2,480
Human Development Index (HDI) rank (2005)	135 of 177
Net migration rate (2000-2005)	0.1 / 1,000 population

Source: UNPD, 2008; UNDP, 2008; GSS, 2002, 2009

Executive Summary

Emigration from Ghana

Ghanaian migration has increasingly become extra-regional, since the decline of Nigeria as a major destination for Ghanaian migrants in the 1980s. Although the majority of Ghanaian emigrants (71%) still stay within West Africa, a growing proportion is migrating to a diverse range of countries outside the region (DRC, 2007). According to 2008 Ministry of Foreign Affairs estimates, Ghanaian migrants can be found in more than 33 countries around the world. After West African countries, the most important countries of destination for Ghanaian emigrants are the United States (7.3%) and the United Kingdom (5.9%) (DRC, 2007). Estimates of the Ghanaian emigrant population range from 1.5 million (Twum Baah, 2005) to 3 million (Black et al., 2003).

Since the 1990s, skilled migration from Ghana, especially to developed countries in the North, has been accelerating. Ghana has the highest emigration rates for the highly skilled (46%) in Western Africa (OECD, 2005; Docquier and Marfouk, 2005). The medical professions are particularly affected by emigration. It is estimated that more than 56 per cent of doctors and 24 per cent of nurses trained in Ghana are working abroad (Clemens and Pettersson, 2006). The overall skill level of Ghanaian emigrants is relatively high. According to some estimates, 33.8 per cent of emigrants from Ghana living in Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries possessed medium skills, while 27.6 per cent had high skills (EU, 2006). Only 3 per cent of Ghanaian emigrants had no skills.

Many Ghanaians acquire their skills at foreign universities. The latest available figures suggest that almost 8 per cent of Ghanaian university students studied abroad in 2006. Although this marks a decrease from 2004, when 11.8 per cent of Ghanaian students studied abroad, the proportion of Ghanaians enrolled in foreign universities is still substantial (UNESCO, 2008). Public scholarship programmes may unintentionally encourage this trend by providing support only to students and academic staff that study abroad.

While many Ghanaians leave for more far-reaching destinations, many of them also return either temporarily or permanently to Ghana. The proportion of Ghanaians among persons who arrived in Ghana from 2000 to 2007 steadily increased from 18.6 per cent to 34.6 per cent. Of the 1,090,972 Ghanaians who left Ghana from 2000 to 2007, only 153,632 did not return within that period.

Departure statistics show that the majority of resident Ghanaians leave for commercial activities, followed by spouses and child dependents (Quartey, 2006).

An important result of growing emigration is the dramatic increase in official remittance flows. The Bank of Ghana estimates that remittances to Ghana increased from USD 476 million in 1999 to USD 1.5 billion in 2005. This trend has been affected by the economic downturn in the developed world. The Bank of Ghana reports a 7.3 per cent decrease in remittances in the first quarter of 2009 compared to the same period in 2008 (USD 1.9 billion).

In relation to economically motivated migration, forced migration from Ghana is insignificant and has been declining over the past decade. The number of Ghanaian asylum seekers and recognized refugees under the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees' (UNHCR) protection has decreased from 15,879 in 2003 to only 6,717 in 2007 (UNHCR, 2008).

Although emigration has been increasing at a faster rate than immigration since 1990, Ghana continues to be an important country of destination. According to recent census-based estimates, the migrant population, i.e. foreign-born population, still constitutes 7.6 per cent of Ghana's total population in 2005. Net migration rate (per thousand persons) for 2000-2005 was positive at 0.1 compared to the -0.6 recorded in the previous five-year period (UNPD, 2008).

Immigration to Ghana

The majority of immigrants to Ghana come from Africa. In 2000, 58.9 per cent of non-Ghanaian residents were nationals from Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) countries, while 23 per cent of immigrants came from African countries outside ECOWAS. According to border statistics from the Ghana Immigration Services, Europeans constituted the largest group of non-African arrivals (15.3%), followed by North Americans (9.7%), from 2000 to 2007 (GIS, 2008).

Students make up a significant proportion of the immigrants to Ghana. In 2007, 8.5 per cent of resident permits were granted to students. Students represented a particularly large proportion among permit holders from ECOWAS countries, almost 25 per cent. The foreign student population at the University of Ghana rose steadily from 1.5 per cent in 2001-02 to 3.8 per cent in 2006-07.

While the overall immigrant population has remained relatively stable over the last two decades, the number of asylum seekers and refugees has dramatically increased, from 11,721 in 2001 to 34,950 in 2007. In 2007, Ghana hosted the

largest refugee population in the West African sub-region. Representing 77.3 per cent of the total refugee population in Ghana, Liberians accounted for much of the increase in the number of refugees in Ghana. According to UNHCR (2008), 40 per cent of the refugees from Liberia and Togo were minors (persons under 18 years old). In 2008, Ghana received fewer asylum seeker and refugees (18,206), but the country remains host to the fourth-largest population of asylum seekers and refugees in the region.

Socio-economic context of migration

As more young people enter Ghana's labour market than ever before, the pressure to migrate may increase unless employment opportunities for young labour market entrants improve. Ghana's labour force is expected to grow faster than its population over the next decade. While Ghana's annual population growth rate – one of the lowest in the sub-region – is projected to remain at 2.2 per cent, its labour force is estimated to increase yearly by 2.9 per cent for the next 15 years (GSS, 2005b). Although the economy has grown steadily over the past few years, from 5.2 per cent in 2003 to 6.3 per cent in 2007, labour-intensive sectors such as manufacturing have been growing more slowly and are therefore unable to absorb the expanding labour force. According to 2000 census data, unemployment especially affects the young and those with no schooling (49%).

The domestic labour force in Ghana is not only growing but also becoming more educated. The net enrolment ratio in primary school has increased steadily from 86.4 per cent in 2003/04 to 90.8 per cent in 2006/07, indicating that more young people (below 14 years old) remain in school rather than seek employment. At the other end of the educational spectrum, more and more workers are enrolled in graduate and postgraduate programmes, especially at private universities. The Gross Enrolment Ratio in tertiary education increased from 3 per cent in 2004 to 5 per cent in 2005 (UNESCO, 2007). In light of these trends, skilled emigration is likely to remain an important policy concern, unless work conditions and employment opportunities for the highly skilled improve.

Lack of career development and poor working conditions seem to be important motivations for the highly skilled to migrate, especially for those in the medical professions. A study on the migration intentions of health workers, for example, showed that the opportunity for further training figure quite prominently in their reasons to migrate (Agyei and Quartey, 2008). Although reliable data on its actual impact is still lacking, highly skilled emigration is likely to have exacerbated already existing labour shortages in critical sectors such as health and education. Over 60 per cent of faculty positions at polytechnics and

40 per cent of those in public universities are vacant. In 2000, it was estimated that only 49 per cent of the needed workforce in the health sector was available and this situation is unlikely to have changed greatly over the years (Nyonator et al., 2004). Hospitals and other institutions of higher learning are struggling hard to retain staff, partly due to emigration.

Policy framework governing migration

Although Ghana does not have an explicit migration policy, it has introduced several initiatives to deal with specific migration issues. For example, the *Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper II (GPRS II)* identifies the Ghanaian diaspora as a potential source of funding. Ghana's missions abroad have been tasked to devise strategies to mobilize the Ghanaian diaspora and their resources for national development. A number of concrete measures have also been introduced to facilitate the return of the diaspora, such as a Representation of Peoples Amendment Law and relevant provisions concerning dual citizenship, which allow Ghanaians abroad to hold dual nationality and vote in general elections in Ghana.

Nevertheless, these initiatives often remain uncoordinated; they are sponsored by various donors and implemented by different ministries. This can result in duplication and incoherence in the government's approach to migration. The recent creation of a National Migration Bureau (NMB) inter-ministerial team/steering committee, later renamed Migration Unit (MU), under the auspices of the Ministry of Interior is an important step towards addressing these issues.

An important task of the inter-ministerial MU team is to formulate a comprehensive national migration policy, so that the fragmented legal framework governing migration could be streamlined. A fully fledged national migration policy would also facilitate ongoing efforts to mainstream migration into development plans.

The prospective MU will be supported by technical committees on Migration and Economic Development; Labour and Irregular Migration; and Migration Policy, Information, and Research. The preparation and updating of Migration Profiles will be the responsibility of the last thematic group. By regularly updating the Migration Profiles, an inter-ministerial body such as the MU can encourage wider information-sharing on migration within the government.

Data gaps

In order to facilitate updates to the Migration Profile, the timeliness, processing, and analysis of migration data need to be improved. Most migration data is census data that is usually collected every ten years and therefore often outdated. While GIS collects a wealth of administrative data on entries, departures, and registration, the lack of data disaggregated by sex, age, and other relevant characteristics makes meaningful analysis difficult. The government also has no accurate data on Ghanaians abroad and irregular migration. Household survey data is a valuable source of migration information but often remains underutilized. For example, in West Africa, Ghana's 2005 Living Standard Measurement Survey is considered as one of the best examples of a general household survey that features migration and remittance questions (IOM, 2008a). However, the survey still awaits full analysis. Future Migration Profiles could make better use of the data provided by national household surveys.

Résumé

L'émigration ghanéenne

La migration ghanéenne est devenue de plus en plus extrarégionale, depuis le déclin, dans les années 1980, du Nigéria comme destination majeure pour les émigrants ghanéens. Bien que la majorité des migrants ghanéens (66,4 %) demeurent au sein de l'Afrique de l'Ouest, une proportion croissante migre dans divers pays en dehors de la région (DRC, 2007). Selon les estimations du ministère des affaires étrangères 2008, les migrants ghanéens se trouvent dans plus de 33 pays. Après les pays d'Afrique de l'Ouest, les principaux pays de destination des migrants ghanéens sont les Etats-Unis (7,3 %) et le Royaume Uni (5,9 %). Les estimations de la population émigrante ghanéenne vont de 1,5 million (Twum Baah, 2005) à 3 millions (Black et al., 2003).

Depuis les années 1990, la migration qualifiée, spécialement en direction des pays développés du nord, s'est accélérée. Le Ghana a le plus haut taux d'émigration de personnes hautement qualifiées (46 %) en Afrique de l'Ouest (OCDE, 2005 ; Docquier et Marfouk, 2005). Les professions médicales sont particulièrement touchées par l'émigration. On estime que plus de 56 % des médecins et 24 % des infirmiers formés au Ghana travaillent à l'étranger (Clemens et Pettersson, 2006). Le niveau général de qualification des migrants ghanéens est relativement haut. Selon certaines estimations, 33,8 % des émigrants ghanéens vivant dans des pays de l'OCDE sont moyennement qualifiés et 27,6 % sont hautement qualifiés (EU, 2006). Seuls 3 % des émigrants ghanéens n'ont pas de qualification.

De nombreux ghanéens se forment dans des universités étrangères. Les derniers chiffres disponibles indiquent que plus de 8 % des étudiants ghanéens ont étudié à l'étranger en 2006. Bien qu'illustrant une diminution par rapport à 2004, où 11,8 % des étudiants ghanéens étudiaient à l'étranger, la proportion de ghanéens inscrits dans des universités étrangères est toujours substantielle (UNESCO, 2008). Le programme public d'attribution des bourses encourage de façon non-intentionnelle cette tendance en ne fournissant des aides qu'aux étudiants et personnel académique étudiant à l'étranger.

Bien que de nombreux ghanéens partent pour des destinations lointaines, beaucoup d'entre eux reviennent soit de façon temporaire soit de façon permanente au Ghana. La proportion de ghanéens parmi les personnes qui sont arrivées au Ghana de 2000 à 2007 a augmenté progressivement de 18,6 % à 34,6 %. Sur les 1 090 972 ghanéens ayant quitté le Ghana entre 2000 et 2007,

seuls 153 632 ne sont pas rentrés au cours de cette période. Le département des statistiques montre que la majorité des résidents ghanéens partent pour des activités commerciales, suivis par leurs épouses et enfants (Quartey, 2006).

L'une des conséquences importantes de cette émigration croissante est l'augmentation des flux de transferts de fonds officiels. La Banque du Ghana estime que les transferts en direction du Ghana sont passés de 476 millions de dollars E. -U. à 1,5 milliard en 2005. Bien qu'arrivant à des estimations plus faibles en raison de méthodes de calcul différentes, la Banque Mondiale a également enregistré une augmentation des flux de transferts entrant de 32 millions de dollars E. -U. à 128 millions de dollars E. -U. en 2007. Cette tendance a été touchée par la crise dans les pays développés. La Banque du Ghana signale une diminution de 7,3 % des transferts sur les quatre premiers mois de 2009 par rapport à la même période en 2008 (1,9 milliard de dollars E. -U.).

Par rapport à la migration pour raisons économiques, la migration forcée en provenance du Ghana est quasi-inexistante et a décliné ces 10 dernières années. Le nombre de demandeurs d'asile et de réfugiés ghanéens sous la protection du HCR a diminué de 15 879 en 2003 à 6 717 en 2007 (UNHCR, 2008).

Bien que l'émigration ait augmenté à un rythme plus rapide que l'immigration depuis 1990, le Ghana continue d'être un pays de destination important. Selon les estimations récentes, basées sur des recensements, la population migrante, c'est-à-dire née à l'étranger, constitue 7,6 % de la population totale du Ghana en 2005. Le taux net de migration (pour 1000 personnes) sur la période 2000-2005 était positif de 0,1 par rapport au -0,6 enregistré sur les cinq années précédentes (UNDP, 2008).

L'immigration au Ghana

La majorité des immigrants au Ghana viennent d'Afrique. En 2000, 58,9 % des résidents étrangers au Ghana étaient originaires des pays de la CEDEAO et 23 % venaient de pays africains hors CEDEAO. Selon les statistiques aux frontières des services ghanéens de l'immigration, les européens constituaient la part la plus importante des arrivées non-africaines (15,3 %) suivis des nord-américains (9,7 %) de 2000 à 2007 (GIS, 2008).

Les étudiants constituent une part significative des immigrants au Ghana. En 2007, 8,5 % des permis de résidence ont été attribués aux étudiants. Les étudiants représentent une large proportion des détenteurs de permis des pays de la CEDEAO, près de 25 %. Le taux d'étudiants étrangers à l'université du Ghana a monté progressivement de 1,5 % en 2001-2002 à 3,8 % en 2006-2007.

Alors que la population immigrante générale est restée relativement stable ces vingt dernières années, le nombre de demandeurs d'asile et de réfugiés a augmenté de façon spectaculaire, de 11 721 en 2001 à 34 950 en 2007. En 2007, le Ghana a accueilli le plus grand nombre de réfugiés dans la sous-région ouest africaine. Représentant 77,3 % du total des réfugiés au Ghana, les libériens comptent pour la plus grande partie de l'augmentation du nombre de réfugiés au Ghana. Selon le HCR (2008), 40 % des réfugiés du Liberia et du Togo étaient mineurs (personnes de moins de 18 ans). En 2008, le Ghana a reçu moins de demandeurs d'asile et de réfugiés (18 206), mais le pays reste l'hôte de la quatrième plus grande population de demandeurs d'asile et de réfugiés dans la région.

Le contexte socio-économique de la migration

Etant donné qu'un nombre plus important de jeunes gens entrent sur le marché du travail ghanéen qu'auparavant, la pression pour migrer peut s'accroître à moins que les opportunités d'emploi pour les jeunes entrant sur le marché du travail ne s'améliorent. On s'attend à ce que la force de travail du Ghana augmente plus vite que la population au cours des dix années à venir. Alors que le taux de croissance annuel de la population du Ghana – l'un des plus bas de la sous-région – est censé rester à 2,2 %, on estime que sa force de travail augmenterait tous les ans de 2,9 % les 15 prochaines années (GSS, 2005b). Bien que l'économie ait augmenté progressivement ces dernières années, de 5,2 % en 2003 à 6,3 % en 2007, les secteurs à forte intensité de main d'œuvre tels que l'industrie manufacturière ont crû beaucoup plus lentement et ne sont donc pas capable d'absorber la force de travail croissante. Selon les données du recensement de 2000, le chômage touche tout particulièrement les jeunes et ceux n'ayant pas de formation scolaire (49 %).

La force de travail nationale au Ghana non seulement augmente mais devient également de plus en plus qualifiée. Le taux net de scolarisation primaire est passé de 86,4 % en 2003-2004 à 90,8 % en 2006-2007, ce qui indique que plus de jeunes (de moins de 14 ans) reste à l'école plutôt que de chercher un emploi. De plus en plus de travailleurs sont également engagés dans des programmes d'étude de 2ème ou 3ème cycles, particulièrement dans des universités privées. Le taux brut de scolarisation dans l'enseignement supérieur a augmenté, passant de 3 % en 2004 à 5 % en 2005 (UNESCO, 2007). Au regard de ces tendances, l'émigration qualifiée va probablement rester une importante préoccupation politique, à moins que les conditions de travail et les opportunités d'emploi pour les personnes hautement qualifiées s'améliorent.

Le manque de perspectives de carrière et les mauvaises conditions de travail semblent être des motivations importantes pour les personnes hautement qualifiées dans leur choix de migrer, notamment pour les professions médicales. Une étude sur les intentions migratoires des travailleurs de la santé, par exemple, a montré que les opportunités de disposer de formations complémentaires figurent de façon importante dans les raisons de la migration (Agyei et Quartey, 2008). Bien que des données fiables sur son impact actuel manquent encore, l'émigration hautement qualifiée risque d'exacerber la pénurie de main d'œuvre déjà existante dans des secteurs critiques tels que la santé ou l'éducation. Plus de 60 % des postes dans les écoles polytechniques et 40 % de ceux dans les universités publiques sont vacants. En 2000, on estimait que seulement 49 % de la main d'œuvre nécessaire dans le secteur de la santé était disponible et la situation n'est pas prête de changer dans les années à venir (Nyonator et al., 2004). Les hôpitaux et autres institutions à personnel hautement qualifié luttent pour retenir leur personnel, en partie en raison de l'émigration.

Le cadre politique de la gestion des migrations

Bien que le Ghana ne dispose pas d'une politique migratoire explicite, il a introduit plusieurs initiatives traitant de sujets spécifiques relatifs à la migration. Par exemple, le document stratégique relatif à la croissance et à la réduction de la pauvreté II (GPRS II – Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper II) identifie la diaspora ghanéenne comme une potentielle source de financement. Les missions du Ghana à l'étranger ont été chargées de concevoir des stratégies pour mobiliser la diaspora ghanéenne et leurs ressources pour le développement national. Des mesures concrètes ont également été introduites pour faciliter le retour de la diaspora, telles que « Representation of Peoples Amendment Law » et des dispositions relatives à la double nationalité, qui permettent aux ghanéens vivant à l'étranger de disposer de la double nationalité et de voter aux élections générales au Ghana.

Néanmoins, ces initiatives sont rarement coordonnées ; elles sont financées par divers donateurs et mises en œuvre par différents ministères. Il en résulte des chevauchements et des incohérences dans l'approche gouvernementale en matière migratoire. La création récente d'un comité de pilotage interministériel pour la migration, appelée Migration Unit (MU), sous la direction du ministère de l'Intérieur est un pas important vers le traitement de cette question.

Une tâche importante de l'équipe du MU est de formuler une politique migratoire nationale détaillée afin de simplifier le cadre légal actuellement fragmenté qui régit la migration. Une politique migratoire nationale à part

entière faciliterait les efforts à venir pour intégrer la migration dans les plans de développement.

L'équipe du MU sera soutenue par des comités techniques sur la migration et le développement économique ; le travail et la migration irrégulière ; politique, information et recherche en matière migratoire. La préparation et la mise à jour des profils migratoires seraient de la responsabilité du dernier comité technique. Par la mise à jour régulière des profils migratoires, un organe interministériel tel que le MU peut encourager un plus grand partage sur la migration au sein du gouvernement.

Les lacunes statistiques

Afin de faciliter la mise à jour du profil migratoire, la fréquence, le traitement et l'analyse des données ont besoin d'être améliorés. La plupart des données migratoires sont issues de recensements qui ont lieu généralement tous les 10 ans, les données sont donc souvent périmées. Bien que les services ghanéens de l'immigration collectent un grand nombre de données administratives sur les entrées, les départs, les enregistrements, le manque de données désagrégées par sexe, âge et autres caractéristiques pertinentes rend une analyse poussée difficile. Le gouvernement n'a également pas de données précises sur les ghanéens à l'étranger et sur la migration irrégulière. Les données issues d'enquêtes auprès des ménages sont des sources intéressantes d'informations relatives à la migration mais elles sont généralement sous-utilisées. Par exemple, en Afrique de l'ouest, l'enquête ghanéenne « 2005 Living Standard Measurement Survey » est considérée comme l'un des meilleurs exemples d'enquêtes générales auprès des ménages qui traite des questions relatives à la migration et aux transferts (IOM, 2008a). Cependant, l'enquête est toujours en attente d'une analyse complète. Les futurs profils migratoires devraient permettre une meilleure utilisation des données fournies par les enquêtes nationales auprès des ménages.

PART A: Introduction

This first part (Part A) of this Migration Profile aims to set the scene regarding the development conditions in Ghana and how migration has evolved over the past few years. Part B provides an overview of the socio-economic conditions of the country, such as demographic changes, the economic environment, labour market, and human capital, in order to understand possible links with the migration patterns in Ghana.

Part C analyses the current migration situation in the country and presents the most recent trends in the number and type of migrants, irregular migration, diasporas living abroad, and remittances. Drawing on information and data previously presented, the next part (Part D) tries to provide an explanation of key migration trends, indicating the main push and pull factors driving migration and possible future trends in migration.

Part E gives an overview of the national institutional and policy framework governing migration (domestic legislation, institutional actors, bilateral and multilateral cooperation, etc.) and evaluates the usefulness of existing migration policies and programmes in managing migration. Part F presents the impact of migration on development. It specifically focuses on the effectiveness of migration policies in enhancing migration's effect on development.

The concluding part summarizes the main findings revealed by available data on current migration trends. It indicates existing data gaps, offers potential strategies to improve migration statistics, and presents key recommendations to help policy makers improve current migration management.

A.1 Development reality

Ghana's development hinges on the concept of providing pro-poor growth and development strategies. There have been various development initiatives and processes such as Vision 2020, GPRS I, II, Millennium Challenge Account Compact, as well as public-private sector and civil society/community partnerships, which often operate in parallel, without coordination. The National Development Planning Systems Act 1994 (Act 480) is an important national legislation concerning development. There are signs that Ghana could achieve some of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), especially that of halving poverty by 2015, as long as the effects of the global financial crisis do not derail the country's exceptional progress.

• MDG One: Poverty

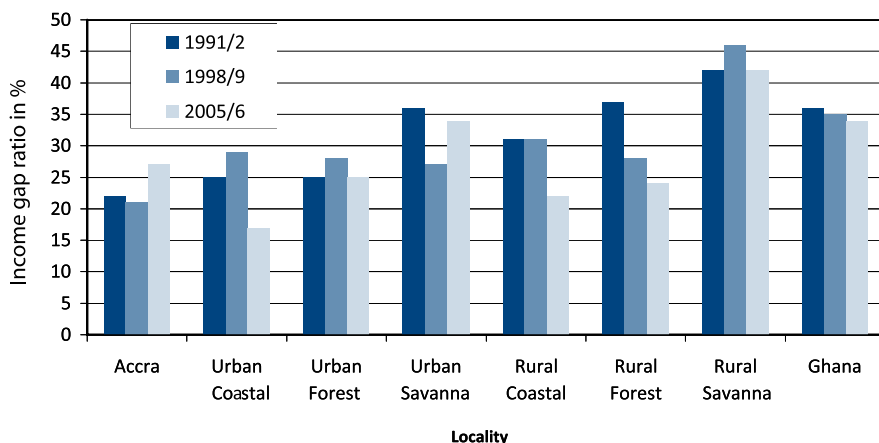
MDG One aims to reduce poverty by 50 per cent between 1990 and 2015. According to the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS), there was a decline in poverty from 52 per cent in 1988/89 to 39.5 per cent in 1998/99 and 28.5 per cent in 2005/06 (GSS, 2008). It is noteworthy that the decline in poverty occurred with significant improvements in economic growth performance over the years. However, one key aspect of poverty trends in Ghana has been the widening inequality between regions, between districts or localities within the same district. For instance, between 1991/92 and 1998/99, it was observed that the decline in poverty was unevenly distributed. Poverty reduction was concentrated in Greater Accra and forest localities. In other areas, rural and urban poverty fell moderately, except in the urban savannah (GSS, 2007: 9). However, the trend changed. In 2005/06, poverty worsened in Accra, while there were significant improvements in most other areas.

Based on a poverty line of GH¢ 370.8 (USD 338), the poverty incidence in the rural savannah fell from 73.0 per cent in 1991/92 to 70.0 per cent in 1998/99 and 60.1 per cent in 2005/06. Meanwhile, poverty in the rural forest fell from 61.6 per cent in 1991/92 to 38.0 per cent in 1998/99 and 27.7 per cent in 2005/06. Comparing poverty in Accra, statistics for the urban forest and the urban savannah clearly points to a significant disparity between the North and the South¹ in terms of poverty and inequality. According to Aryeetey and McKay (2004:12), despite progress made in recent times, there remain high levels of deprivation in the northern savannah compared with the south. In 1998/99, about 42.2 per cent of all households in the lowest income quintile in Ghana were located in the rural savannah, although they accounted for only 20.6 per cent of the overall population.

Although aggregate poverty has declined over the years, the depth of poverty remains unchanged for the poor. The income gap ratio indicates that the average consumption level of poor households falls below the poverty line. This gives some indication of how intense the poverty is in the country. Figure 1 shows that average consumption among the poor in Ghana was about 34 per cent below the upper poverty line in 2005/06. This was only a slight improvement in poverty levels compared to the 35 per cent recorded in 1998/99. With respect to the extremely poor, the depth of poverty has remained relatively stable from about 30.0 per cent in 1998/99 to about 31.3 per cent in 2005/06 (GSS, 1999).

¹ Rural and urban savannah (North); forest and coastal areas (South)

Figure 1: Income gap ratios (P1/P0) by locality, 1991/92, 1998/99 and 2005/06 (poverty line equal to GH¢ 370.89)



Source: GSS, 2006

• MDG Three: Gender parity

MDG Three aims to achieve gender parity (ratio of boys to girls in primary, secondary, and tertiary education), as well as ensure that women's participation in government is improved. A linear trend analysis of gender parity ratios suggest that the target of achieving 100 per cent gender parity will not be achieved by 2015. Table 1 presents the trend in gender parity in Ghana's educational system from kindergarten to Junior High School (JHS) in the period between 2003/04 and 2006/07. Data for the same period for secondary and tertiary levels were not readily available.

Table 1: Gender parity in the national educational system, 2003/04-2006/07

Level of education	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07
Kindergarten	0.98	0.98	1.03	0.99
Primary	0.93	0.93	0.95	0.96
Junior High School	0.88	0.88	0.93	0.91

Source: NDPC, 2008; ISSER, 2008

The agricultural sector is the single largest sector of employment. The proportion of women aged 15 and above whose main jobs were in the agricultural sector remained fairly constant at 51 per cent in 1998/99 and 2005/06 (Table 2). The majority of workers were self-employed. The incidence of self-employment among women declined between 1998/99 and 2005/06 from about 69 per cent to 61 per cent. The majority of self-employed women and men did not employ others. Less than 10 per cent of women were in regular paid employment. There

was high incidence of unpaid family labour among women, and this type of work was the main job of almost 30 per cent of the women surveyed (Ghana Statistical Service, 2006).

Table 2: Employment by status in main job, 1998/99 and 2005/06 (%)

Working status	1998/99		2005/06	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Paid employee	23.1	6.7	26.9	8.6
Non-agricultural self-employed	18.1	38.9	14.2	35.9
Non-agricultural unpaid family worker	1.2	2.5	0.6	2.0
Agricultural self-employed	48.1	29.8	44.2	24.7
Agricultural unpaid family worker	9.2	22.1	11.1	26.5
Domestic employee	-	-	0.1	0.3
Apprentice	-	-	2.7	2.0
Other	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.1

Source: GSS, 1999, 2008

• MDG Six: HIV/AIDS and malaria

Progress towards achieving the MDG target of reversing the spread of HIV/AIDS and other communicable diseases has also proved elusive. Among pregnant women aged 15-24, the HIV prevalence rate was 1.9 per cent in 2006 and 2.25 per cent in 2007 (Ghana AIDS Commission, 2008). As shown on Table 3, the prevalence rates for the three age categories (15-19, 20-24, and 25-29 years old) declined marginally between 2005 and 2007. The rates were also not too different from figures recorded in the 1990s. Efforts to reduce the impact of malaria in Ghana have had mixed results. While the total number of fatalities among pregnant women and children continue to decrease – a sign of improved access to health care programmes and facilities – the total number of reported cases of malaria has increased steadily. More than 5.2 million new cases of malaria were reported in 2007, compared to 3.3 million new cases in 2004 (MOH, Malaria Control Programme Report, 2007).

Table 3: HIV prevalence among pregnant women (15-29 years old), 2005-2007 (%)

Age group	2005	2006	2007
15-19	0.8	1.4	1.6
20-24	2.4	2.4	2.9
25-29	3.6	4.2	3.5
Overall	2.7	3.2	2.6

Source: GAC, NAACP, 2007

- **MDG Eight: Net ODA as a percentage of OECD/DAC donors' gross national income**

The importance of aid in Ghana is reflected in the size of inflows as a percentage of government budgets and gross national income. The ratio of aid to government expenditure increased from 11.3 per cent in 1982 to 98.6 per cent in 1989, and declined thereafter to 50 per cent in 1993. In 2006, ODA financed about 28.1 per cent of government expenditure. Aid as a proportion of gross national income was 13.6 per cent in 1991, 10.3 per cent in 1995, 12.4 per cent in 2000, and 9.2 per cent in 2006 (World Bank, 2006). The decline in the aid-GDP ratio is due to improvements in GDP growth over the years, fuelled by increased actual aid disbursements. Aid to Ghana has been rising in recent years, with actual disbursements up from USD 833 million in 2003 to USD 1,176.47 million in 2006. The rise in aid to finance capital investment clearly indicates that external aid is substituting for productive state expenditures, particularly those on fixed capital formation. It also supports the view that Ghana has become quite dependent on aid (Aryeetey et al., 2003).

- **Human Development Index**

Ghana is currently in the medium human development category, according to the *2004 Human Development Report (HDR)* of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). The country ranked 131st out of 175 countries in 2004 (HDR, 2004), from 129th in 2003. Ghana's Human Development Index (HDI) has improved consistently since 1975, rising from 0.442 in 1975 to 0.533 in 2006 (HDR, 2008). In 2008, Ghana ranked 142nd out of 179 countries. The rankings do not reflect improved HDI scores; hence, other countries may have fared better than Ghana. Another point worth mentioning is that although the indicators of socio-economic development point towards improvement in recent years, poverty and lack of access to basic services are still rampant, particularly in the northern regions of Ghana.

- **Adult literacy**

In 2006, literacy rates for adult males and females were 64 per cent and 71 per cent, respectively. This varies directly within the wealth quintiles. Whereas in the richest wealth quintile, 81 per cent of females and 85 per cent of males were literate, in the poorest wealth quintiles, only 30 per cent of females and 38 per cent of males were literate (GSS Multi Indicator Cluster Sample Survey, 2006). According to the UNDP (2008), the adult literacy rate for Ghana was 57.9 per cent from 2000 to 2005.²

² Estimates from UNDP represent annual averages for 2000-2005.

- **Gross Enrolment Index (GEI)**

Combined primary, secondary, and tertiary gross enrolment was 50.7 per cent (UNDP, 2007/08). Table 4 presents the trends in gross enrolment from kindergarten to JHS between 2003 and 2007.

Table 4: Gross enrolment in national educational system, 2003/04-2006/07 (%)

Level of education	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07
Kindergarten	54.6	60.1	75.2	83.6
Primary	86.3	87.5	92.7	93.7
Junior High School	70.2	72.8	74.7	77.4

Source: NDPC, 2008

A.2 Main migration patterns

Migration from Ghana has followed the trajectory described in migration-hump literature (Martin, 2005). As economic indicators improved, migration from Ghana increased considerably, particularly from the mid 1980s. Ghana's migration history is both dynamic and complex, and rooted in historical antecedents. The country has had a long history and tradition of population mobility. International migration within West Africa, and between the region and the rest of the continent, goes back to time immemorial. Four distinct phases of international migration in Ghana have been identified in Anarfi et al. (2003) as discussed below:

- **Period of minimal emigration**

From pre-colonial times to the late 1960s, Ghana was the destination of choice for many migrants, especially West Africans. The massive extraction of minerals and cultivation of cocoa in the southern part of Ghana (then Gold Coast) attracted labour migrants from neighbouring countries, including Burkina Faso, Togo, Benin, and Nigeria. This situation continued after independence and Ghana was labelled a country of immigration. Until the late 1960s, Ghana generally experienced net immigration with little international migration, mainly for education, training, trading, and foreign services.

- **Period of initial emigration (1970-1980)**

International migration among Ghanaians accelerated as a result of the economic hardship that the country experienced in the 1970s. During this

period, the country witnessed the emigration of professionals such as teachers/lecturers, lawyers, and administrators to countries like Uganda, Botswana, Nigeria, and Zambia, where their services were in high demand. During this period, Nigeria was experiencing an oil boom and therefore served as a migration pole, attracting migrants.

- **Phase of large-scale emigration (1980-1990)**

By the 1980s, migration had become a coping strategy for individuals and families. The period witnessed large-scale emigration of Ghanaians for unskilled, semi-skilled and highly skilled labour (Anarfi et al., 2000). During this era, there was an influx of Ghanaians to Côte d'Ivoire and Nigeria. About two million Ghanaians departed for these countries between 1974 and 1981, with the highly skilled accounting for a significant proportion (Rimmer, 1993). The movements were accelerated by economic decline, evidenced by the fall in real wages, shortage of basic goods and services, and high inflation, among others. (van Hear, 1998). In addition, cross-border movements within the West African sub-region were boosted by the enactment in 1979 of the ECOWAS³ Protocol on the free movement of persons, residence, and establishments. In addition to labour migrants, there were many Ghanaian migrants who fled the country as a result of political persecution, confiscation of property, imprisonment without trial, and executions. According to Bump (2006), UNHCR registered over 90,000 Ghanaian asylum applications between 1982 and 1991, making Ghana one of the top ten countries of origin of forced migration at that time.

- **Period of intensification and diasporization of Ghanaians (1990s)**

The 1990s witnessed an increased emigration to Europe and North America. Nevertheless, migration to West Africa and other African countries remained the most important in terms of numbers. This could also be ascribed to the decline of Nigeria as a migration pole. Ghanaian emigrants are well dispersed across the globe.

³ The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) is a regional group of West African countries. Its mission is to promote economic integration in "all fields of economic activity, particularly industry, transport, telecommunications, energy, agriculture, natural resources, commerce, monetary and financial questions, social and cultural matters..." The following 15 states constitute ECOWAS: Benin, Burkina Faso, Capo Verde, Côte D'Ivoire, Gambia, Ghana, Liberia, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togolese Republic, Guinea, and Guinea-Bissau, <http://www.ecowas.int/>.

PART B: Analysis of the socio-economic context of migration

B.1 Demographic changes

- **Volume**

Ghana's total population increased from 6.7 million in 1960 to 18.9 million in 2000 (GSS, 2002). The 2008 mid-year estimates of the GSS put the total population of Ghana at 22,900,927 (GSS website). This figure is projected to reach 23,458,811 by 2010 and 31,311,437 in 2025, if current fertility levels and stable mortality trends are sustained (GSS, 2005a). The *2000 Census Report* revealed that females outnumber males (97.9 males to 100 females). The projection from GSS indicates that the male ratio would increase from 97.9 males to 100 females recorded in 2000 to 99.1 males to 100 females by 2025. Table 5 presents the population age distribution by sex in the year 2000.

Table 5: Age distribution of the population by sex, 2000

Age Group	Males	Females	Total
0-14 years old	41.9	40.7	41.3
15-64	52.8	54.1	53.4
65+	5.3	5.2	5.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: GSS, 2002

In view of the gradual fertility decline, the labour force growth rate of 2.2 per cent will be higher than the overall population growth rate. This will likely result in a decline in the number of people under 15 years old relative to those who are above 64 years old. The dependency ratio of the population was 87.3 in 2000, compared with 96.2 in 1984 (GSS, 2002). This is also expected to further decline to 81 by 2025.

- **Density and urbanization**

With a total land area of 238,537 square kilometres, average density based on the 2000 Population Census is 79.3 persons per square kilometre. This represents a 52.5 per cent increase over the average density of 52 persons per square kilometre in 1984. On the basis of the 25-year projected population of 31,311,437, average density would be 131.3 persons per square kilometre. Population is not evenly distributed among the ten administrative regions. In

terms of density, the Greater Accra Region (GAR) is the most densely populated, with 895.5 persons per square kilometre, while the Northern Region has the lowest density, with 25.9 persons per square kilometre (GSS, 2002).

The proportion of the population residing in urban areas increased from 32 per cent in 1984 to 43.8 per cent in 2000, and is projected to exceed 50 per cent of the total population by 2010 (GSS, 2005a). The growth trend shows that the proportion of urban dwellers is rising rapidly. For instance, the 4.6 per cent intercensal growth rate for the urban population recorded between 1984 and 2000 outstripped the overall population growth rate of 2.7 per cent recorded over the same period (GSS, 2002). Table 6 compares the total and urban population and their respective growth rates for the period 1960-2000.

Table 6: Growth of total and urban population, 1960-2000

	Total Population		Urban Population		
	Population	Intercensal Growth Rate	Population	Intercensal Growth Rate	% of Total Population
1960	6,725,815	-	1,553,663	-	23.1
1970	8,559,313	2.4	2,473,641	4.7	28.9
1984	12,296,081	2.6	3,934,745	3.3	32.0
2000	18,912,079	2.7	8,283,490	4.6	43.8

Source: GSS, 2002

Although there were 364 urban settlements in 2000, there is a high concentration of urban population in ten key settlements of administrative, industrial, and commercial importance. In particular, there is a growing concentration of population in three cities, namely, Accra, Kumasi, and Sekondi-Takoradi. More than one-third of all urban residents in Ghana live in these three cities. According to GSS (2002), with the exception of Greater Accra and Ashanti regions, all the other regions have less than 50 per cent of their populations residing in urban areas. The GAR remains the most urbanized, with about 90 per cent of its population residing in urban areas in 2000. Three of the ten largest settlements in Ghana, namely Accra, Ashiaman, and Tema, are located in the region.

- **Population growth rate**

Between 1984 and 2000, the total population of Ghana increased by 53.8 per cent, and the average intercensal growth rate rose from 2.6 per cent in 1984 to 2.7 per cent in 2000 (see Table 6). Although the current average annual growth rate of 2.7 per cent is lower than the average for the West African sub-region, it

far exceeds averages for the world (1.5%) and developing countries (2.0%) (GSS, 2002). The population is projected to grow by 2.2 per cent between 2000 and 2025 (GSS, 2005a).

The fertility rate declined from 6.4 children per woman in 1988 to 5.2 in 1999, and stabilized at 4.4 children per woman in 1998 and 2003 (GSS, 2004). There are significant differences in the fertility rate between urban (3.1 children per woman) and rural (5.6 children per woman) residents. Similarly, there are regional variations in the level of fertility, ranging from 2.9 children per woman in the Greater Accra to 7.0 children per woman in the Northern Region (GSS, 2004). The regions with fertility rates lower than the overall average include the Greater Accra (2.9 children per woman), Eastern (4.3 children per woman), and Ashanti (4.1 children per woman) regions. The level of fertility in Ghana is inversely related to the level of educational attainment and income quintile. For instance, the rate of fertility ranged from 6.4 children per woman in the lowest quintile to 2.8 children per woman in the highest quintile. In terms of educational attainment, fertility varies from 6.0 children for women without formal education to 2.5 children for women with at least secondary education (GSS, 2004). Furthermore, fertility levels among women below 35 years old fell by almost 25 per cent between 1988 and 1998.

In terms of mortality by sex, the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) reports that maternal mortality in 2007 stood at 224 deaths per 100,000 live births (NDPC, 2007). The mortality rate for children below five years old was 111 deaths per 1,000 children.

- **Net migration**

According to border statistics from the GIS, more persons entered than left Ghana in 2005 and 2006 (see Table 7). UNPD data confirm this trend for the 2000-2005 period.⁴ However the net migration rate has been and is likely to remain negative. From 2005 to 2010 the net migration rate (per thousand persons) is projected to be -0.4. This means that Ghana is primarily a country of out-migration than in-migration. In detail, compared to 1995 when the net migration rate was -10.3, current net migration is more balanced, indicating that Ghana received more migrants over the past decade.

⁴ According to UNPD data, the net migration per 1,000 population is positive, 0.1, i.e. more people migrated to than from Ghana in the period from 2000 to 2005. Estimates from the UNPD represent annual averages for five-year periods.

Table 7: Migration to and from Ghana, 2005-2006

Year	Disembarkation	Embarkation	Gross Migration	Net Migration
2005	428,274	391,633	819,907	36,641
2006	491,657	439,750	931,407	51,907

Source: GIS, 2008

- **Naturalization**

In 2000, a total of 3.9 per cent of the population of Ghana acquired Ghanaian citizenship by naturalization (GSS, 2002). In 2006, there were 858 cases of renunciation of Ghanaian citizenship as against 36 cases of naturalization/registrations in 2007. In addition, 216 dual citizenship applications were processed in 2006 (Ministry of the Interior, 2007).

- **Conclusion**

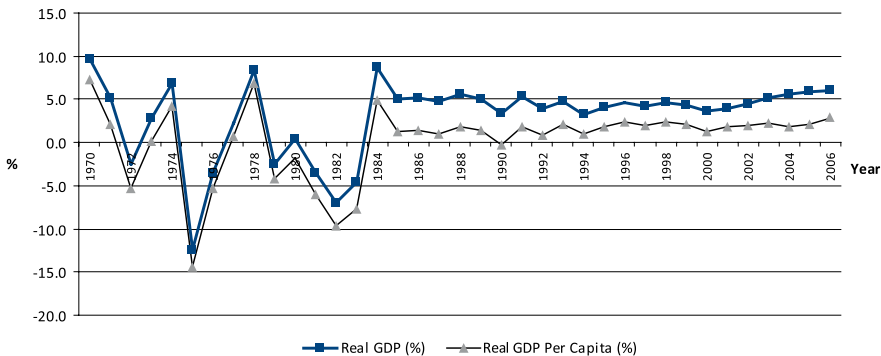
In conclusion, the population growth rates and trends outlined above have significant implications on poverty. Ghana's population has been growing at the rate of about 2.7 per cent, while per capita income growth averages around 2.9 per cent per annum. The net change is very minimal; hence, Ghana has to grow at a rate of between 8 to 10 per cent per annum to achieve middle-income status by 2015. The current growth rate and the income inequality patterns explain the high levels of poverty in Ghana.

B.2 Economic environment

The economy of Ghana has witnessed significant and steady growth following the economic reforms pursued in the 1980s. These reforms include the Economic Recovery Programme (ERP) and Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) under the guidance of the World Bank and International Monetary Fund. Economic growth rose to 6.3 per cent in 2007, from 5.8 per cent in 2004 and 5.2 per cent in 2003 (ISSER, 2008).

Between 1990 and 2000, economic growth averaged 4.5 per cent per annum. Prior to the economic reforms, however, growth was oscillatory (see Figure 2). On the basis of past growth trends, there is considerable reason to be optimistic about future trends in growth and poverty reduction. Poverty has declined from 52 per cent in 1991 to 28.5 per cent in 2005/06 (GSS, 2008; ISSER, 2008). Although poverty incidence has declined, there remains a large proportion of the population living below the poverty line. Furthermore, there is widespread inequality between the North and the South, and also within regions and districts.

Figure 2: Real GDP and real GDP per capita growth rates, 1970-2006 (%)



Source: World Bank, 2007

In spite of attaining remarkable macro-economic indicators, growth in savings and investment remains relatively low. The yearly average rate of inflation declined from about 40 per cent in 2000 to 10.9 per cent in 2006 and 10.7 per cent in 2007. The contribution of various sectors to the gross domestic product (GDP) in 2007 was as follows: agriculture (34.7%), industry (26.1%), and services (30.5%). The growth rates for the various sectors were 8.2 per cent for services, 7.4 per cent for industries, and 4.3 per cent for agriculture (ISSER, 2008).

The basic structure of the Ghanaian economy has not changed significantly as the country continues to export raw materials such as cocoa, minerals, timber, and recently, some semi-processed goods. According to ISSER (2008), cocoa, minerals, and timber accounted for three-quarters of Ghana's export revenue of USD 4,194.7 million in 2007 (ISSER, 2008). Ghana imports crude oil, food, drugs, and equipment, including domestic and industrial appliances, to facilitate economic activities.

• Fiscal policy and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI)

The core of Ghana's fiscal policy is to preserve an improved debt situation while raising financial resources required for implementing the development programmes indicated in *Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy* (NDPC, 2008). In view of this, fiscal policy aims to avoid deficits in order to prevent inflationary pressures. Domestic revenue mobilization has been intensified to meet development needs. The components of tax revenue include direct, indirect, royalties, and international trade taxes. Tax revenue accounted for over 70 per cent of revenue to the government in 2007 (ISSER, 2008). Total revenue collected, particularly tax revenue, has been increasing over the past decade, while total government expenditure has been rising to match the demands of the growing

population and the need to accelerate growth. Consequently, revenue collection has been far less than government expenditure, thus government has to rely on aid to finance its expenditures. Although the capacity of the revenue collection agencies has improved, there is a lot of room for improvement, i.e. include the informal sector in the tax system.

FDI into Africa, including Ghana, has been low and has often gone to the extractive sectors of the economy, namely mining and construction. Nevertheless, with the economic and political stability recorded so far and with the prospect of oil, FDI is likely to increase in the coming years. There has been a steady flow of FDI to the economy since the setting up of the Ghana Investment Promotion Centre (GIPC) by Act 478, 1994. A total of USD 4,173.60 million was mobilized between September 1994 and December 2006. The total investment outlays from foreign sources in 2007 amounted to GH¢ 407.1 million or USD 340 million (Republic of Ghana, 2007).

The establishment of the Ghana Stock Exchange (GSE) and the GIPC has facilitated the flow of funds into the economy. The GSE All-Share Index has increased considerably since 2003. In spite of the escalating crude oil price and the energy crisis that the economy experienced in 2007, the volume of trading increased by 192.2 per cent from GH¢ 98.29 million in December 2006 to GH¢ 287.22 million in December 2007. Thus, market capitalization rose from GH¢ 11,220.86 million in December 2006 to GH¢ 12,368.60 million in December 2007 (ISSER, 2008).

- **Informal economy**

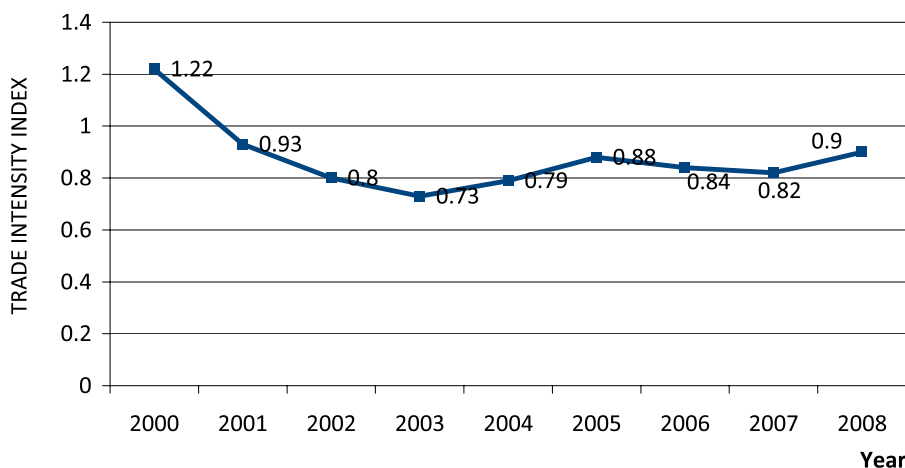
Ghana's informal sector broadly comprises small-scale enterprises in the agriculture, manufacturing, and services sectors. Many of these enterprises are self-employed and they account for about 22 per cent of GDP. In the non-agricultural sector, the informal sector accounts for about 52 per cent (trade), 28 per cent (industry), 12 per cent (services) and 8 per cent (transport). The informal sector is the main source of employment in the economy. In 2000, a total of 6.7 million people were engaged by the informal sector and this represented 80 per cent of the labour force. Females made up 52 per cent of the 6.7 million informal-sector operators (GSS, 2002). The informal sector serves as a refuge for those who do not find jobs in the formal sector, especially the unskilled labour force. Whereas agriculture and related activities constitute the main informal sector in rural areas, trading, artisanship, and services dominate the urban informal sector (ISSER, 2003).

- Trade

Data on “openness” (a measure of a country’s level of trade with the rest of the world) shows that Ghana’s trade openness index has not expanded significantly. In 2002, Ghana’s Trade Intensity Index was 0.80, but it declined to 0.73 the following year and increased to 0.90 in 2008 (see Figure 3). Over the years, the composition of Ghana’s main export commodities remains unchanged, with cocoa, minerals, and timber as the major items. Minerals form the major contributor, but the issue of export revenue retention (60-80%) poses a challenge to Ghana.

Although Ghana maintains an export-led growth strategy, translating relative macroeconomic stability into successful export-led growth has been a major problem. In 2000-2005, Ghana’s total import bill rose by some 90 per cent, while exports rose by only 41 per cent, with the resultant trade gap widening by more than 200 per cent. The sharp decline in merchandise exports-to-GDP from 50 per cent in 2000 to 26 per cent in 2005 and 28 per cent in 2007 clearly shows that Ghana decreased its exports.

Figure 3: Trade Intensity Index, 2000-2005



Source: ISSER, 2008

Ghana’s exports amounted to USD 4,194.7 million against imports of USD 8,073.6 million in 2007. Whereas the trade deficit⁵ was USD 3,878.9 million, the overall balance registered a surplus of USD 413.1 in 2007. The EU market is the

⁵ This refers to the difference between trade in goods. The overall balance measures the difference in trade in goods and services between Ghana and its trading partners.

leading source of imports to Ghana, accounting for 20.1 per cent of total imports in 2007. Key trade partners among EU member states include the UK, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Spain, Belgium, and France. Together, they accounted for 20 per cent of imports and over 40 per cent of exports between 2002 and 2007 (ISSER, 2008). In view of this, Ghana is a party to the EU-African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) economic partnership agreement (interim agreement). A major challenge to trade between Ghana and the EU are the agricultural subsidies that account for about 40 per cent of EU agricultural production cost (ISSER, 2008).

Another component of trade worth mentioning is non-traditional exports (NTE).⁶ Non-traditional export revenue has increased from USD 404.4 million in 1999 to USD 588.9 million in 2003. Since 2000, most NTEs have gone to Europe rather than African markets. In 2003, 59 per cent of total NTE went to EU and 23 per cent went to Africa. Ghana's trading partners have not changed but they trade within ECOWAS, particularly Nigeria. By the end of the first quarter of 2003, the three major import destinations were Nigeria, Côte d'Ivoire, and the UK. By the end of March, 2003, the three major export destinations were the Netherlands (16.3%), the UK (11.3%), and Germany (6.6%). It is important to note that trade with China is increasing.

B.3 Labour market

- **Recent developments in the labour market**

Ghana passed the Labour Act in 2003 (Act 651) which, among other things, aims to consolidate laws pertaining to labour recruitment, employers, trade unions, and industrial relations. The Labour Law also has a provision for the establishment of the Labour Commission to regulate labour practices and settlement of industrial disputes. Currently, the Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment is working on a labour migration policy for the country. A social security system is in place in Ghana, to which all formal sector employees, except those with security agencies and senior members of the country's universities, are required by law to contribute. Employers are mandated to pay a total of 17.5 per cent of gross monthly salary (a contribution of 5 per cent from employee and 12.5 per cent from the employer) to the Social Security and National Insurance Trust (SSNIT) – Social Security Law, 1991 (PNDCL 247). Recently, Parliament has passed the Pensions Bill for the operation of a three-tier pension scheme in

⁶ Non-traditional exports are commodities which are not considered as the country's main exports such as cocoa, gold, and timber. They include processed and semi-processed goods, handicrafts, pineapples, mangoes, chillies, shea butter, etc.

order to deal with inadequacy of pensions and also incorporate informal sector operators.

- **Labour force growth rate**

Both the proportion of the population formed by economically active persons and the labour force growth rate fluctuated within the period 1960-2000. Table 8 shows that the labour force growth rate rose from 1960 to 2000 (GSS, 2005b:285).

Table 8: Growth of active population, 1960-2000

Year	Total Population	Active Population	Active Population as % of Total Population	Growth Rate Active Population*
1960	6,725,815	2,723,955	40.5	-
1970	8,559,313	4,543,348	53.0	2.1
1984	12,296,081	5,580,104	45.4	3.8
2000	18,912,079	8,292,114	43.8	2.5

Source: GSS, 2002

* See GSS, 2005a

In terms of gender, the growth rate for the female labour force increased from 3.5 per cent (1960-1970) to 4.8 per cent (1970-1984). On the other hand, the growth rate for the male labour force rose from 1 per cent from 1960-1970 to 2.8 per cent from 1970-1984. Between 1984 and 2000, the labour force growth rate for males and females declined to 2.7 per cent and 2.3 per cent, respectively.

According to the GSS projection based on the 2000 population, the size of the labour force would double from 8.3 million in 2000 to 16.9 million in 2025 (GSS, 2005b). This implies that the country's labour force would grow at an annual average rate of 2.9 per cent, compared with the 2.2 per cent growth rate for the total population. In terms of the gender distribution of the labour force, the projected annual growth rates for males and females are 2.9 per cent and 2.8 per cent, respectively.

In terms of regional distribution of the labour force in 2000, more than a third (36%) was in the Ashanti and GAR (see Annex I, Table 29). On average, two out of every three economically active persons⁷ (2:1) in Ghana reside in rural areas (GSS, 2005b). The *2000 Population and Housing Census Report* (GSS, 2002)

⁷ Economically active persons are eligible individuals who either are employed or are actively seeking employment.

revealed that only two out of the ten regions have a higher proportion of their labour force in urban areas. These were the Greater Accra and Ashanti regions, with 88 per cent and 51 per cent of their labour force residing in urban areas, respectively. This is due to the fact that these regions are economically powerful and therefore attract a high number of internal and international migrants.

- **Activity and employment**

Activity rate is the generally accepted indicator applied in the measurement of the economically active population. There are three main indicators, namely crude,⁸ general,⁹ and refined¹⁰ activity rates. Table 9 shows fluctuations in the various activity rates computed from the 1960, 1970, 1984, and 2000 censuses.

Table 9: Activity rates by sex, 1960-2000 (%)

Year	Sexes	Crude	General	Refined
1960	Both sexes	41	73	74
	Male	49	89	90
	Female	31	57	58
1970	Both sexes	39	74	74
	Male	44	84	84
	Female	34	64	65
1984	Both sexes	45	82	83
	Male	45	84	84
	Female	46	82	83
2000	Both sexes	44	75	76
	Male	45	77	78
	Female	43	73	75

Source: GSS, 2005, pp. 290

The crude activity rates for males were relatively higher than that for females between 1960 and 2000, except in 1984. Comparatively, the activity rates were higher in 1984 than all the census years. According to GSS (2005b), the differences among the activity rates for 1960, 1970, and 1984 could be explained by the emigration of Ghanaians during those years. Due to the economic downturn, many Ghanaians migrated to other countries in search of greater economic opportunities, instead of engaging in local activities. However, the slight decline in activity rate between 1984 and 2000 is primarily attributed to the expansion in educational facilities, especially at the secondary and tertiary

⁸ It refers to the number of economically active population divided by the total population (GSS, 2005)

⁹ The general activity rate refers to the number of persons in the various working ages (15 years old and above) (GSS, 2005).

¹⁰ The refined activity rate expresses the share of employed and unemployed people in comparison with the working age population (15-64 years old). It gives an indication of how many people of working age are actively participating in the labour market (GSS, 2005).

levels. This resulted in many young people (those above 14 years old) remaining in school rather than seeking employment (GSS, 2006). In recent years, the proportion of workers entering tertiary institutions has increased, indicating a higher proportion of adults within the student population. For instance, the number of persons pursuing graduate programmes (graduate diplomas, master's and doctoral studies) has increased remarkably. Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS) 5 data also revealed that males had a slightly higher activity rate (54.9%) than females (53.4%) in 2005/06. According to GSS (2006), with respect to location of residence, the economic activity rate in rural areas (58.6%) was remarkably higher than that in urban localities (47.3%).

Table 10: Male and female labour participation rate by region, 1970-2000 (%)

	1970		1984		2000	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Ashanti	83.5	71.7	82.9	84.7	78.6	75.2
Brong Ahafo	86.1	72.9	84.6	84.3	80.3	78.2
Central	80.2	71.3	80.9	84.4	74.4	74.0
Eastern	80.4	72.2	81.4	84.9	76.7	74.5
Greater Accra	84.4	78.8	81.0	73.9	73.1	68.6
Northern	88.9	30.2	89.5	68.2	79.3	69.4
Upper East	86.1	30.3	89.7	80.6	74.5	64.8
Upper West	-	-	-	-	78.1	70.4
Volta	78.4	73.7	79.7	85.0	73.1	71.7
Western	85.4	71.7	84.7	85.7	79.1	75.4

Source: GSS, 2005, pp. 292

Note: Figures for Upper East in 1970 and 1984 include those for the Upper West region.

Table 10 shows that participation in economic activity by administrative regions was consistently higher for males than females throughout the period 1970-2000. This could be attributed to the fact that women undertake domestic activities and men are considered the “bread winners”. The variation between males and females was relatively high in the three northern regions in 1970. Although, these rates improved appreciably in 1984 and 2000, they were still lower compared to the rates in other administrative regions such as Greater Accra, Ashanti, and the Brong Ahafo.

• Unemployment

The 1984 Census showed that 2.8 per cent of the population was unemployed, compared with 10.4 per cent recorded in the year 2000. Although the rise in the rate of unemployment in 2000 was experienced by both sexes and localities, it was remarkably higher in urban areas (12.8%) compared with rural areas (8.6%). In urban areas, the unemployment rate among males and females stood at 12.4 per cent and 13.1 per cent, respectively. Similarly, rural

areas recorded 8.3 per cent and 8.9 per cent rates of unemployment among males and females, respectively.

The distribution of unemployment rate by region and locality, based on the *2000 Population and Housing Census*, are provided in Annex I (Table 31). There was significant variation in the rates of unemployment between urban and rural areas as well as between regions. The overall unemployment rates in the Ashanti, Greater Accra, Upper East, and Upper West regions exceeded the national average of 10.4 per cent.

The rate of unemployment recorded in the Ashanti, Greater Accra, Upper East, and Upper West regions was higher than the national average (12.8%) for urban areas. Only three regions, namely the Greater Accra, Upper East, and Upper West had rural unemployment rates relatively higher than the overall average of 8.6 per cent (see Annex I, Table 31).

With respect to educational attainment, the unemployment rate is higher among persons with no formal education and middle/JSS leavers. For instance, unemployment is higher among females with low levels of education than those who have attained at least secondary education. The rate of unemployment by educational attainment and sex in the year 2000 is presented in Table 2.

Analysis of the rate of unemployment according to age, based on the *2000 Population and Housing Census* (GSS, 2002), revealed that unemployment is largely a phenomenon among the youth. The unemployment rate was relatively higher among those aged 25-44 for both males and females, followed by persons aged 15-24. This situation poses a serious challenge to Ghana's quest for progressive social and economic transformation, since the energies and skills of an important section of the Ghanaian population remain underutilized.

- **Level of income**

The GLSS 5 report estimated that the annual average household income in 2006 was USD 1,327.00 and per capita income was USD 433.00. There are variations between rural and urban areas as well as between regions. Whereas the GAR recorded the highest per capita income of USD 591, the Upper West Region had the lowest per capita income of USD 141. In terms of place of residence, it was also found that households in urban localities had relatively higher per capita income (USD 561.00), compared to those in rural localities, whose average income was USD 331.00 (GSS, 2006).

In terms of sources of income, agriculture accounts for 35 per cent, followed by wage employment (29%) and self-employment (25%). Remittances received by households represent about 10 per cent of household income. Meanwhile, it has been reported that per capita income reached USD 661.00 in 2007, poverty incidence ratio declined, and extreme poverty dropped from 39.5 per cent in 1991/92 to 28.5 per cent in 2005/06 (NDPC, 2008:11).

B.4 Human capital

- **Literacy rate**

The *2000 Population and Housing Census Report* shows that only 53.3 per cent of the population (aged 15 years and above) were literate in either English or a known Ghanaian language (34.2% were literate in both). The level of literacy is higher for males than females in all regions. In terms of locality, the level of literacy is higher in urban than rural areas. The Greater Accra, Eastern, and Ashanti regions had lower levels of illiteracy than the national average (45.9%). The Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire Survey (GSS: CWIQ, 2003) reported male and female illiteracy rates of 25.9 per cent and 37.4 per cent, respectively (NDPC, 2005).

The net enrolment ratio in primary schools increased steadily from 86.4 per cent in 2003/04 to 90.8 per cent in the 2006/07 academic year. The net enrolment ratio in primary schools for girls also rose from 68.1 per cent in 2005/06 to 88.7 per cent in 2006/07. Similarly, the ratio for boys rose from 69.6 in 2005/06 to 79.8 per cent in 2006/07. At the JHS level, overall net enrolment stood at 50.7 per cent in 2006/07, as against 41.6 per cent in 2005/06. The net enrolment ratios for males and females were 51.7 per cent and 49.7 per cent, respectively, in the 2006/07 academic year (ISSER, 2008).

- **Level of education**

In terms of educational attainment, almost half of the population (47.7%) had no formal education. Table 11 presents the educational attainment of the population by gender, based on the 2000 Population and Housing Census.

Table 11: Level of educational attainment by sex, 2000 (%)

Level of educational attainment	Males	Females	Total
None/ Pre-school	42.5	52.7	47.7
Primary	18.8	18.3	18.6
Middle/JSS	23.1	19.1	21.1
Secondary	7.4	4.7	6.0
Vocational/Technical	2.6	1.8	2.2
Post-Secondary	1.8	1.3	1.5
Tertiary	3.8	1.9	2.8
Total students	8,541,943	8,740,602	17,282,545

Source: GSS, 2005

• Quality of education

Quality of education measured in terms of pupil-teacher ratio improved steadily in the last decade at the primary and JHS level. For instance, the pupil-teacher ratio for primary schools in 2005/06 and 2006/07 academic years were 35 and 34, respectively (see Table 12). In the case of Junior High Schools, the ratio was 19 pupils per teacher in 2005/06 and 17 pupils per teacher in 2006/07. Table 12 compares the pupil-teacher ratios of primary and Junior High Schools for the 2003/04 to 2006/07 academic years.

Table 12: Pupil-teacher ratio, 2003/04-2006/07 (%)

Level of education	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07
Primary	34.0	34.9	35.7	34.0
Junior High School	18.6	19.0	19.4	17.9

Source: NDPC, 2008; ISSER, 2008

• Opportunity to access educational system

Efforts to increase access to education in Ghana include the payment of a capitation grant,¹¹ a school feeding programme covering 400,000 pupils nationwide (pilot basis), free rides on the Metro Mass Transit System (MMTS) in the metropolis, supply of textbooks and furniture, and subsidized feeding fees for boarding students. The Ghana Education Trust Fund (GETFund) and Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) funds have made it possible to expand and improve educational infrastructure at all levels, particularly at the secondary and tertiary levels (NAPRM-GC, 2007). In view of these efforts, overall enrolment has increased throughout the country. In order to improve enrolment of girls,

¹¹ Grant provided by government under the fee-free policy for pupils in public basic schools nationwide. This covers items such as culture, sports, and school's internal development fees.

school uniforms, bags, and stationery were distributed to girls in districts with low gender parity indices (NDPC, 2008).

At the tertiary level, Ghanaian citizens are exempted from paying tuition in all public universities and polytechnics. In addition, they are able to access loan facilities from SSNIT and Students Loan Trust (with interest, in addition to having three SSNIT contributors as guarantors), in order to pay for residential and academic facilities as well as other costs. Graduate students in public universities receive bursary and thesis grants from the government in addition to loan facilities. Some institutions also grant study leave (with and without pay) to enable their staff to upgrade their knowledge and skills either at home or abroad. There are a number of private schools (basic to tertiary level) and those who could not enrol in the public institutions have this option.

- **Identified skill shortage**

Ghana still faces an acute shortage of trained health workers in spite of an improvement in human resources in the health sector. According to the Ghana Health Service (2008), the doctor-population ratio has improved from 20,036 in 2001 to 13,683 in 2007. Similarly, nurse-population ratio has improved from 1,728 in 2001 to 1,458 in 2007 (Ghana Health Service, 2008). Yet overall the ratio of doctors and nurses to the population still remains high (also see Part F1).

The government's efforts to expand access to quality health services through the establishment of a National Health Insurance Scheme are severely constrained by the shortage of trained health professionals. The number of doctors and nurses is inadequate to ensure health care for the growing number of attendees. According to GIS, the country also faces a shortage of civil engineers. Foreign firms in the construction sector have to bring in expatriates to execute contracts in Ghana.

Although it is difficult to determine the volume of skilled emigration from Ghana within the educational sector, it is believed to be on the rise. An indication of this trend is the number of untrained teachers and vacant positions in the tertiary sector. Manuh et al. (2005) observed that about 40 per cent of faculty positions in public universities and over 60 per cent of positions in polytechnics were vacant, causing deterioration in the student-academic staff ratios established by the National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE). The proportion of trained teachers at kindergarten (KG), primary and Junior High Schools has also been deteriorating from their 2003/04 levels. This situation poses a serious challenge to efforts to improve the quality of education in the country (see Table 13).

Table 13: Proportion of trained teachers, 2003/04-2006/07 (%)

Level of Education	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07
Kindergarten	37.9	32.1	33.1	35.6
Primary	73.9	72.4	70.8	62.1
Junior High School	84.2	83.5	85.5	77.2

Source: ISSER, 2008

PART C: Analysis of the migration situation in the country

C.I Immigrants

- **Sources of data used**

The sources of data used in this section include the GSS and the Ghana Immigration Service's (GIS) databases on immigration. GSS undertakes a survey of all residents in Ghana during censuses and makes the results available in the Census Report. GIS gathers information on immigrants from the embarkation and disembarkation forms completed by persons travelling to and from Ghana at the various entry and exit points (see Annex I, Table 32). This section also draws on the results of specialized migration surveys or multi-topic surveys, where available.¹² Other sources include foreign missions in Ghana and the databases of institutions such as the United Nation High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), United Nations Population Division (UNPD), World Bank, International Organization for Migration (IOM), and the European Union (EU). However, due to the porous nature of the country's borders, it is difficult to obtain accurate statistics.

- **Definition of immigrant in the quoted sources**

The GIS's definition of immigrant is a person who moves into another country for the purpose of settlement, that is, for stays of six months and above. GIS therefore deals with immigrants who appear before an immigration officer at the ports of entry. In most cases, legal immigrants who have been granted residence permits are registered. However, the GSS counts all foreign citizens residing or in transit in Ghana, irrespective of the person's legal status during the census.

C.I.I Total number of immigrants

The *2000 Population and Housing Census Report* put the non-Ghanaian resident population at 740,191 representing 3.9 per cent¹³ of the total population, while the latest UNPD statistics show that the foreign-born population constituted 7.6 per cent of the total population in 2005, a slight decrease from 7.7 per cent

¹² Please see Schachter (2008) for a review of surveys in West Africa.

¹³ Non-Ghanaian residents do not include naturalized Ghanaians which represent an additional 3.9 per cent of the total population (GSS, 2002).

five years earlier.¹⁴ The annual growth rate of the migrant stock has also slowed. From 2000 to 2005, the migrant population grew by only 2.1 per cent, compared to 7.4 per cent from 1995 to 2000. The growth rate for 2005 to 2010 is estimated to remain at 2.1 per cent (UNPD, 2008). Female migrants accounted for 41.8 per cent of the total migrant stock in both 2000 and 2005.

According to the Bilateral Estimates of the Development Research Centre, University of Sussex,¹⁵ in terms of composition, a total of 58.9 per cent of non-Ghanaian residents were nationals from neighbouring West African countries. Whereas in 2000, 23 per cent of the foreign residents were nationals of African countries other than ECOWAS, 18.1 per cent of them were non-Africans. Immigrants from Mali and Burkina Faso were the most numerous in Ghana, accounting for 13.4 per cent and 11.2 per cent of the total number of non-Ghanaian residents, respectively. Border statistics from GIS confirm census-based statistics that most of the arrivals to Ghana are from other African countries (see Table 14).

Table 14: Arrivals and departures by region/country of origin, 2000-2007 (%)

Region/Country	Arrivals (%)	Departures (%)
Ghana	24.5	34.2
Other African countries	18.2	19.6
Europe	7.8	10.2
North America	7.3	12.0
Asian	4.9	3.4
Australia	0.6	1.3
Other	36.7	19.2
Total Number	4,451,271	3,642,201

Source: GIS, 2008

According to GIS data, a total of 35,118 resident permits were issued in 2007, compared with 32,304 in 2006. A further analysis of GIS data revealed that the total number of ECOWAS residents¹⁶ was 6,197, representing 17.6 per cent of total permits issued in 2007.¹⁷

¹⁴ The estimates refer to the mid-point of the year indicated.

¹⁵ The Bilateral Estimates are based on data from the 2000 census round collected by UNDP.

¹⁶ This refers to other ECOWAS citizens or nationals who have obtained resident permits from Ghana.

¹⁷ This refers to data collected from Ghana Immigration Service (GIS) in 2009.

C.I.2 Types of immigrants

- Refugees/asylum seekers

According to the UNHCR, Ghana hosted the fourth-largest refugee population in the West African sub-region in 2008, after Senegal, Côte d'Ivoire, and Guinea. More than 31,000 refugees and asylum seekers reside in its territory. The majority are people fleeing armed conflicts in Liberia, Sierra Leone, and Côte d'Ivoire. In 1993, Ghana played host to 150,000 refugees, mostly Liberians and Sierra Leoneans (Anarfi et al., 2003; Bump, 2006). The refugee population in Ghana rose from 11,721 in 2001 to 53,524 in 2005, and declined to 34,950 in 2007 and to 18,206 in 2008 (UNHCR, 2009a). Table 15 presents the number of refugees in Ghana from 2001 to 2008 and their nationalities. An overwhelming majority (86.7 per cent) of the total number of refugees at the end of 2008 were Liberians.

Table 15: Distribution of refugees in Ghana by country of origin, 2001-2008

Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Liberia	8,865	28,298	42,466	40,853	38,684	35,653	26,967	15,797
Sierra Leone	1,998	4,316	943	632	125	103	101	132
Sudan	16	23	3	12	579	600	595	392
Togo	842	819	534	542	14,136	8,517	7,243	1,796
Other	70	48	1	14	13	65	52	89
Total	11,791	33,514	43,947	42,053	53,537	44,938	34,958	18,206

Source: UNHCR, 2008, 2009a

Whereas the majority of refugees from Togo and Liberia were females, the number of females among Sudanese refugees formed a minority. Similarly, minors (persons under 18 years old) constituted over 40 per cent of refugees from Togo and Liberia, compared with just 14 per cent of the Sudanese refugees who were minors (UNHCR, 2007).

Ghana hosts most of the refugees in the Gomoa Budumburam Camp in the Central Region and Krisan Camp in the Western Region. Whereas the Gomoa Budumburam Camp is mainly inhabited by Liberian refugees, the residents of the Krisan camp are made up of Rwandans, Sudanese, and Ivoirians. The Gomoa Budumburam Camp and Krisan Camp account for 76 per cent and 4 per cent of the refugees and asylum seekers in the country, respectively. The Togolese refugees are hosted in communities in the Volta Region and account for 16 per cent. Furthermore, about 4 per cent of the refugees are residing in urban areas in and around the capital city, Accra.

Table 16 presents asylum seekers in Ghana from 2001 to 2007. There was a steep increase in the number of asylum seekers from 497 in 2004 to 14,016 in 2005. Since then the numbers have levelled off and dramatically dropped in 2007. This trend continued in 2008 with 490 pending cases of asylum seekers (UNHCR, 2009b). An overwhelming majority of the asylum seekers in Ghana from 2001 to 2007 were nationals from neighbouring countries in the West African sub-region, including Liberia, Togo, and Côte d'Ivoire. In 2007, females accounted for 35 per cent of Ivorian asylum seekers, while minors accounted for 16 per cent.

Table 16: Distribution of asylum seekers in Ghana by country of origin, 2001 - 2007

Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Liberia	-	-	-	-	-	1,051	-
Sudan	4	10	15	190	365	33	-
Côte D'Ivoire	-	350	3,526	182	56	-	160
Togo	165	211	446	125	13,595	3,683	-
Other nationals	-	-	-	-	-	821	280
Total	169	571	3,987	497	14,016	5,588	440

Source: UNHCR, 2007

Since the beginning of April 2008, UNHCR has assisted with the repatriation of some 7,500 Liberians. Others are returning without the assistance of UNHCR. Similarly, 3,500 Togolese refugees were repatriated within the framework of the Tripartite Agreement signed in April 2007. In addition, UNHCR has provided assistance for 330 refugees comprised of Togolese, Sudanese, and Liberians who needed continued international protection to relocate to a third country (secondary movement) (UNHCR, 2009c).

The Government of Ghana has decided that the Gomoa Buduburam and Krisan refugee camps should be closed down. With regard to the former camp, the UNHCR Ghana Office based its decision on the fact that it was difficult to manage an open settlement, especially one that was very close to the national capital. Hence, UNHCR Ghana is working with the GoG and the ECOWAS Secretariat to enable Liberian refugees who intend to be integrated locally to do so under the ECOWAS protocol for free movement of persons (right to integrate) (UNHCR, 2008). In the meantime, UNHCR states it will continue to support structural reforms in Buduburam, such as improvements to living conditions and the integration of the site into the community. UNHCR further states that finding durable solutions for refugees remaining in Krisan camp is one of its key objectives, along with assisting Togolese refugees to integrate locally.

Some refugees in Buduburam and Krisan camps, however, continue to insist that resettlement is the only durable solution for them (UNHCR, 2009c).

All refugee operations are to be undertaken as a coordinated effort between UNHCR and the Ghana Refugee Board. Within the framework of the UN Country Team, an ad hoc task force on durable solutions for refugees has been created to work with the Government on post-repatriation issues. Since 2007, UNIDO, FAO, and UNHCR have cooperated on a two-year programme to help support refugees and their host communities in Buduburam and Krisan (UNHCR, 2009c).

• Labour Migrants

Traditionally, Ghana has been a net immigration country, with migrants mainly from Togo, Burkina Faso, Nigeria, and Côte d'Ivoire (Quartey, 2006). Ghana is home to Fulani cattle herders and seasonal workers from the West African states such as Burkina Faso, Niger, and Mali. Internal migration, especially North-South migration, has been an important direction of flow in Ghana and indeed the entire West Africa since the pre-colonial era. One of the reasons for this phenomenon is the different ecological zones in the sub-region. In Ghana, it has also been observed that the cattle herdsman in the savannah ecological zone send their animals to the south, specifically the forest and the coastal belts, during the dry season to look for pasture. This activity has been a source of tension and conflict between local crop farmers and the non-Ghanaian nomadic pastoralists (EC, 2006).

Unfortunately, available employment data cannot be disaggregated into migrant and non-migrant categories. Most of the immigrants in Ghana work mainly in the industry and services sectors, with a small fraction engaged in agricultural activities. The Immigration Act empowers the GIS to receive applications for working permit from non-Ghanaian residents and grant them, in accordance with the law set by the Immigration Quota Committee. Thus, a work permit is mandatory for a foreigner to work in Ghana, be it in a multinational company or not. There are sizeable numbers of Koreans and Chinese engaged in the fishing sector using trawlers along the coast. According to data obtained from the GIPC, there are also some expatriates working in the mining and construction sectors.

• Students

A total of 2,992 foreign students were granted resident permits in 2007, representing 8.5 per cent of all such permits granted. While 24.6 per cent of

the permit holders from ECOWAS member states were students, 5.1 per cent of other nationalities were granted permits to study in Ghana. There has been an increase in the number of foreign students in Ghana (GIS, 2008). For instance, the proportion of foreign nationals studying at the University of Ghana (UG), rose from 1.5 per cent in 2001/02 to 3.8 per cent in 2006/07 (University of Ghana, Public Affairs, 2008). In 2007/08, the University of Ghana admitted 1,142 foreign students from 42 countries. The majority of these foreign students were Africans (Table 17).

Table 17: Foreign students admitted into the University of Ghana, 2007/08

Country	Students	%
Nigeria	527	46.1
United States	353	30.9
Botswana	28	2.5
Liberia	20	1.7
Togo	24	2.1
Benin	19	1.6
Other nationalities	171	14.9
Total	1,142	100

Source: University of Ghana, 2008

• Tourists and visitors

Ghana has recorded an overall growth in the number of tourists visiting the country in recent years. Since 2001, more than three million persons have visited the country. The main sources of attraction include Ghana's ancient forts and castles, rich tropical vegetation, tropical climate, and natural sites such as waterfalls. The relative peace and stability within the country and the proverbial Ghanaian hospitality also play key roles in attracting tourists to Ghana. In addition to efforts to improve infrastructure, events like Emancipation Day celebrations draw a significant number of tourists.

The number of tourists rose by 25 per cent from 438,833 in 2001 to 550,000 in 2003. It declined to 428,533 in 2005 and increased to 586,612 in 2007 (ISSER, 2003, 2008). Ghana's dream of using her golden jubilee celebration of independence to attract one million tourists in 2007 did not materialize. The main sources of tourists from overseas to Ghana were the UK, US, Germany, and France. According to ISSER (2008: 173), Africans account for 34 per cent of tourists to Ghana compared to Europeans (25%).

C.1.3 Irregular immigration

A total of 19,082 immigrants who were staying in Ghana illegally were deported to their respective countries of origin. The number of illegal immigrants detected increased from 1,035 in 2001 to 7,922 in 2004, and then declined to 1,297 in 2007 (see Table 18). Table 18 presents reported fraud cases involving immigrants in Ghana between 2001 and 2007. GIS recorded a total of 3,880 cases of fictitious documentation pertaining to travelling papers (passports, birth certificate, etc.), visa fraud, impersonation, and false endorsement from 2001 to 2007. In addition, there were 1,266 stowaways and 4,636 inadmissible persons in Ghana between 2001 and 2007. According to GIS, more than 27,000 irregular immigrants were deported from Ghana from 2001 to 2007.

Table 18: Reported fraud cases involving immigrants in Ghana, 2001-2007

Type	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	Total
Fictitious Documentation	270	245	254	131	57	242	253	1,452
Visa Fraud	33	70	57	46	22	146	140	514
Impersonation	62	35	58	43	88	104	83	473
False Endorsement	23	21	14	14	48	16	39	175
Stowaways	189	288	221	122	40	101	305	1,266
Drug-related	9	6	4	3	64	0	0	86
Inadmissible	472	459	519	631	881	990	684	4,636
Staying Illegally	1,035	2,882	1,880	7922	1,573	2,493	1,297	19,082
Total	2,093	4,006	3,007	8912	2,773	4,092	2,801	27,684

Source: GIS, 2008

Note: Fictitious documentation pertains to travel documents.

- **Number of foreign victims of human trafficking/smuggling (VoT) identified**

It has also been observed that many Nigerian, Burkinabe, and Ivorian women who are trafficked into Europe for sexual exploitative sex work transit in Ghana (EU, 2006).

From 2003 to 2008, the IOM has assisted 651 VoT in the country. All the cases recorded by the International Organization for Migration refer to Ghanaian citizens. Following a peak reached in 2004, when 280 VoT were assisted, the numbers declined to 36 in 2008. The majority of VoT were internally trafficked for labour exploitation; two-thirds of the VoT were males (see Annex I, Table 35).

- **Voluntary return of immigrants**

The number of immigrants in Ghana who returned to their respective countries from 2001 to 2007 is shown in Table 19. The number slightly decreased from 366,468 in 2000 to 334,330 in 2002, with a larger decrease in 2001 to 234,546. The number then declined again to 236,031 in 2003. It rose to 397,192 in 2007, with a slight decrease in 2006. Unfortunately, the data have not been disaggregated by sex and age (GIS, 2008).

Table 19: Voluntary return of immigrants from Ghana, 2000-2007

Immigrants	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Africans	85,883	119,841	43,368	69,160	75,067	81,751	105,529	134,366
Europeans	37,650	26,673	47,980	42,320	41,123	44,801	58,008	73,381
N. Americans	120,209	26,673	36,797	42,454	41,259	44,936	58,015	67,426
Asians	6,388	8,600	13,255	15,994	15,558	16,895	21,653	26,934
Australians	24,937	1,646	1,336	3,984	3,875	4,209	5,399	3,522
Others	91,401	51,113	191,794	62,119	60,389	65,734	84,629	91,563
Total	366,468	234,546	334,530	236,031	237,271	258,326	248,604	397,192

Source: GIS, 2008

C.2 Emigrants

- **Sources of data used**

The sources of data used include GSS, GIS, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and the European Union. GSS is responsible for the collection, processing, and analysis of population information in Ghana. On the other hand, GIS gathers information from persons, both Ghanaians and non-Ghanaians, entering or leaving the country through the completion of embarkation and disembarkation forms by persons travelling to and from Ghana. International sources of data used include UNDP, World Bank, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the European Union, and the population census reports of the countries of destination.

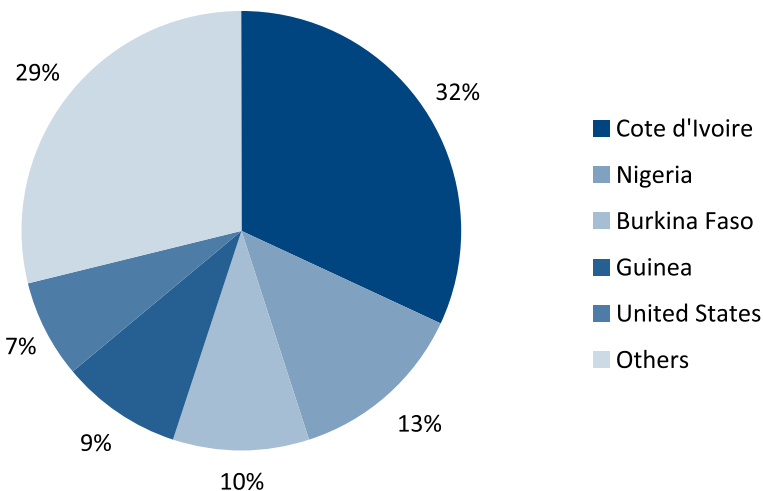
- **Definition of emigrant as used in the sources**

The term “emigrants”, as used in this report, refer to Ghanaians who reside outside the country for a reasonable period (at least three months). The term therefore takes into account only primary migrants and excludes second-generation migrants.

C.2.1 Total number of emigrants

According to census-based data (census round 2000) from receiving countries provided by the Development Research Centre of the University of Sussex, there were 957,883 Ghanaians outside the country in 2005, representing 4.6 per cent of total estimated population. In terms of destination, 689,431 Ghanaians – over 71 per cent of the total number of Ghanaian emigrants – live in ECOWAS countries (DRC, 2007). The principal destination remains Côte d'Ivoire, with 305,648 Ghanaian residents, followed by Nigeria and Burkina Faso with 125,052 and 93,320 Ghanaian residents, respectively. These three nations account for 55 per cent of the total number of Ghanaian citizens residing abroad (see Figure 4 below). In 2006, it was estimated that 189,461 Ghanaians were residing in OECD countries, and this represented less than one per cent of the estimated total population of 22,113,000 in Ghana (OECD Migration Database, 2006). The US and the UK were the host countries for the majority of Ghanaian emigrants in the OECD area, with 69,995 and 57,172 emigrants respectively, representing over 67 per cent of the total.

Figure 4: Ghanaians emigrants by country of destination, 2000 (%)



Source: DRC, 2007

Note: These estimates are based on 2000 Census Round data (1995-2005)

Based on information from the various embassies in Ghana on Ghanaian emigrants living outside the country, it is estimated that there are 461,549 Ghanaians living in Europe and North America. Ghanaians living in other African countries are estimated at one million. Based on this information, Twum-Baah

(2005:68) estimated that there are 1.5 million Ghanaians living outside the country, and not 3 million as reported in some publications (*EU Cover Notes*, cited in Twum-Baah 2005 and Black et al., 2003). However, this estimate excludes Ghanaians in the Gulf States and Asia. Both GSS and GIS do not have data on Ghanaians living abroad. Recent data from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs indicates that there are 107,487 Ghanaians who have registered with Ghana Missions in 33 countries, and puts estimates at more than half a million.

Table 20 presents the number of Ghanaians residing in some European and North American countries. These figures are not comparable with those in the Sussex database because they refer to different years, except for Italy where a lower figure was reported for 2005 in the Sussex database.

Table 20: Ghanaian nationals residing in Europe and North America, 1999-2006

Country	Emigrants	Year
UK	96,650	2006
USA	67,190	2000
Italy	34,499	2005
Germany	20,636	2004
Canada	17,070	2001
Netherlands	12,196	2007
Spain	12,068	2006
France	4,096	1999

Source: *www.ines.es* (Spain); *www.istat.it* (Italy); *www.ined.fr* (France); *www.cbc.nl* (Netherlands); Labour Forces Survey 2006 (UK); Federal Statistical Office, 2004 (Germany); Canadian Citizenship and Immigration Office, 2001 (Canada); and Census Bureau, 2000 (USA)

Data from the GIS for the period 2000 to 2007 reveals that, with the exception of years 2003 and 2004, there has been consistent growth in the number of Ghanaian citizens who left the country.

The total number of Ghanaians who left the country for more than six months and did not return between 2000 and 2007 were 153,632. They accounted for 0.67 per cent of the total population of 22,900,927 (2008 mid-year estimates by GSS). Table 21 presents the migration statistics of Ghanaians (percentage of the total population) from 2000 to 2007.

Table 21: Arrivals/departures of Ghanaian nationals to/from their country of origin, 2000-2007

Year	Arrival	% of Population	Departures	% of Population
2000	85,683	0.45	110,718	0.59
2001	128,201	0.68	121,159	0.64
2002	110,376	0.58	158,212	0.84
2003	145,878	0.77	143,367	0.76
2004	136,766	0.72	139,349	0.74
2005	125,594	0.66	151,716	0.80
2006	162,624	0.86	162,624	1.04
2007	195,817	1.04	224,372	1.19
Total	1,090,972	5.77	1,244,604	6.59

Source: GIS, 2008

Data on departures from Ghana shows that resident Ghanaians leaving for commercial activities form the majority of all nationals moving abroad, followed by spouses and child dependents (Quartey, 2006). It must be noted that this trend has not changed considerably over the years. Also, in the visitor category, tourists, people in transit and those going on business trips abroad were in the majority (Twum-Baah, 2004).

C.2.2 Types of emigrants

- **Ghanaian refugees/asylum seekers**

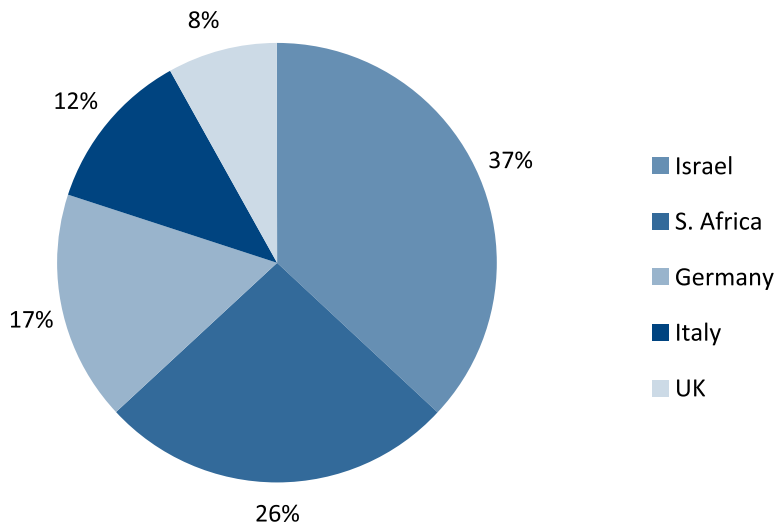
Between 1981 and 1992 (the onset of constitutional rule), Ghana was ranked high among the countries of origin for forced migrants, with 97,536 Ghanaians applying for asylum in industrialized countries. In fact, Ghana was among the most important African countries in terms of applications for asylum to Europe (EU, 2006). This has been ascribed to perceived politically motivated fears, which resulted in many Ghanaians fleeing and seeking international protection. According to Anarfi et al. (2003), between 1982 and 2001, Ghana ranked thirtieth in asylum applications to developed countries. Twum-Baah (2005) also indicated that in 2001, 15,644 Ghanaians, representing 5.2 per cent of EU's estimated 3 million Ghanaian immigrants, were asylum seekers. There were about 11,000 Ghanaian refugees in ECOWAS countries in 2001 and most of them were in Togo.

Ghanaians who sought refuge overseas increased from 13,592 to 15,879 between 1995 and 2003. However, there has been a remarkable decline from 15,879 refugees in 2003 to only 5,060 in 2007. This trend was reversed in 2008, when more than 13,000 Ghanaian refugees were recorded to be living abroad.

Togo was the principal destination for Ghanaian refugees, with more than 61 per cent (8,113) of refugees (UNHCR, 2009a).

A total of 1,796 Ghanaians were seeking asylum at the end of 2007. This number slightly increased in 2008, with 2,016 cases recorded (UNHCR, 2009b). An analysis of asylum and refugee status determination by country of asylum revealed that Germany, Israel, Italy, the Republic of South Africa, and the UK were the main destinations. Figure 5 presents the proportion of asylum applications and the countries where asylum was sought in the year 2007.

Figure 5: Asylum applications of Ghanaian nationals by country of asylum, 2007 (%)



Source: UNHCR, 2008

Out of 1,796 Ghanaians who sought asylum in 2007, 959 had their applications rejected (accounting for 53.4% of all applications) and 37 applications (2.1%) were approved.

- **Labour migrants**

The *2006 UK Labour Forces Survey Report* revealed that most Ghanaian migrants had work permits and 80 per cent of them were employed. The UK hosts a significant percentage of skilled Ghanaians, particularly lecturers, doctors, and nurses (Dovlo, 2004). The *2000 US Census Report* revealed that the

majority of people born in Ghana¹⁸ who were in the US were in the economically active age group.¹⁹ Males and females accounted for 53 per cent and 40 per cent of the economically active population, respectively (US Census Bureau, 2000).

In terms of age, it is evident that young adults are more likely to emigrate than older people. Twum-Baah (2005) reported that in 2000, over 30 per cent of the Ghanaians living in the Netherlands were below 15 years old; 17.1 per cent were between 15 and 29 years old; and 41.5 per cent were 30 to 34 years old. The rest were aged 45 and above. Renee (2005) said that less than 10 per cent of Ghanaians living in the Netherlands were over 45 years old. In England and Wales, it was reported that 10.2 per cent of Ghanaian residents were aged between 0 and 19; 27.2 per cent fall within the 20-34 age range; 30.3 per cent were between 35 and 44 years old; and 28.9 per cent were 45-64 years old. The US Census Bureau (2000) found that only 6.4 per cent of people born in Ghana in the US were below 14 years old. This conforms to the general demographic structure of the immigrant population.

A gender analysis of Ghanaian emigrants shows that the proportion of females is below 40 per cent (Twum-Baah, 2005). It is worth mentioning that although migration-related policies are not gender-specific, evidence suggests that because of customary practices and the distinct roles performed by males and females, they are affected differently by the regulations in force.

Classified according to skill level, Ghanaian emigrants ranged from highly skilled, medium-skilled, low-skilled, and unskilled workers. According to the EU (2006), 33.8 per cent of emigrants from Ghana had medium skill, while 27.6 per cent possessed high skill. According to Quartey (2006), Docquier and Marfouk (2005), and OECD (2005), Ghana has a skilled expatriate rate of 46 per cent. This represents the highest skilled emigration rate in the world after Haiti, for countries with a population higher than 5 million people. On the other hand, while 24.2 per cent of Ghanaian emigrants were low-skilled, a small fraction (3.6%) did not have any recognizable skills.

In terms of area of employment, Ghanaian emigrants work in various sectors. The health sector absorbs the largest number of Ghanaian emigrants in OECD countries (19% of the total), followed by the manufacturing sector (18%). Other targeted sectors include wholesale, which employs 12 per cent of the total Ghanaians abroad, and real estate, which employs 9 per cent. In the

¹⁸ The census includes only the foreign-born population; people born in Ghana to a U.S. citizen parent are considered native and are not included.

¹⁹ Economically active defined by the US Census Bureau as those who are 16 years old and older.

health sector, women comprise the majority. They account for 13 per cent of the total number of emigrants in this sector, compared to 6 per cent for men (OECD, 2008).

In the health sector, Ghanaian emigrants work as medical officers, dentists, pharmacists, laboratory technicians, environmental health specialists, nurses and midwives, and care assistants, among others. In the educational sector, Ghanaian emigrants include lecturers, researchers, students, and administrative staff (OECD, 2005; Docquier and Marfouk, 2006). According to Clemens and Pettersson (2006), 1,639 Ghanaian-born physicians, representing 56 per cent of the total number, are living and working abroad. Eighty-seven per cent of these physicians are settled in the US and the UK. Similarly, 24 per cent of Ghanaian-born nurses (4,766) are working abroad, mostly in the US and UK. However, in the Netherlands, most Ghanaians work as manual labourers (Bos-Jones, 2005).

• Students

The number of Ghanaian students pursuing tertiary education abroad had been steadily increasing, from 4,661 in 2000 to 8,090 in 2004. In subsequent years, however, the total number has stabilized, registering at 8,416 in 2005 and 8,064 in 2006 (UNESCO, 2006). The outbound mobility ratio²⁰ has also remained stable after reaching its peak in 2004, when 11.8 per cent of the Ghanaian students enrolled in tertiary education were abroad. It is reported that 1,900 Ghanaian students were pursuing tertiary education in EU countries in 2001 and another 4,238 in OECD countries (EU, 2006). The US and the UK remain the most targeted countries by Ghanaians. There were 3,272 Ghanaian students in the US and 2,894 students in the UK in 2006 (UNESCO, 2006). According to the Scholarships Secretariat, in August 2008, scholarships were offered to 1,110 Ghanaian students around the world (see Annex I, Table 34). Morocco and Russia emerged as the favourite destination countries of undergraduate students, accounting for 47.4 per cent and 30.9 per cent of students, respectively. The UK is the favourite destination of graduate students on government scholarship, accounting for almost 53 per cent of students.

Besides these scholarship beneficiaries, there are many Ghanaian students in developed countries who are being sponsored by their relatives, friends, and institutions, among others. Unfortunately, there are no statistics on this category of students.

²⁰ The outbound mobility ratio is the number of students from a given country studying abroad as a percentage of the total tertiary enrolment in that country.

- **Tourists and visitors**

Ghanaians abroad constituted a total of 28 per cent of all tourists who left Ghana in 2003. The *GLSS 5 Report* (GSS, 2006) revealed that most Ghanaians on outbound overnight trips visit ECOWAS countries (71.6%), relative to 25.9 per cent who visit countries outside Africa. A gender analysis of the data shows that more males than females went on outbound same-day trips to ECOWAS countries, while slightly more females than males embarked on outbound overnight trips. However, higher proportions of females went on both outbound same-day trips and overnight trips outside Africa.

- **Family reunification**

Quartey (2006) indicates that female migrants more than male migrants have benefited from provisions in the destination countries that favour family reunion. For instance, information from the German Embassy indicates that those who live legally in Germany either got their residence permit through successful asylum applications or through family reunion (Twum-Baah, 2004). Similarly, the increase in the number of Ghanaian emigrants in the Netherlands between 1992 and 1999 is mainly due to family reunion and chain migration (58%), asylum seekers (16.5%), and labour migration (26%).

C.2.3 Irregular emigrants

In West Africa, no other country in the region has taken the place of Côte d'Ivoire as a labour migration pole since its decline. This has led to an upsurge and shift in the migration landscape. Many Ghanaian emigrants have expanded their geographical view by exploring destinations in Europe, North America, and elsewhere in southern and northern Africa, with South Africa and Libya as key migration poles. Some of the transiting countries for emigrants bound for Europe and North America include Senegal, the Gambia, Morocco, and Libya. Most of these migrants travel by land, and a substantial proportion die on their way through the desert from thirst, hunger, and physical exhaustion. They also suffer harassment from robbers and rebels in the desert. The successful trans-Saharan migrants undertake manual jobs as they wait for arrangements to cross the Mediterranean Sea (trans-Mediterranean migration) in transit to southern Europe (De Haas, 2007).

Given the nature of trans-Saharan migration, there are no official statistics on the number of persons involved. In 2004, Malians, Senegalese, Gambians, and Ghanaians accounted for 27,000 migrants apprehended by the Moroccan police.

According to the CIREFI database, 2,541 Ghanaian illegal emigrants were apprehended in Europe in 2007. Italy and Spain were the countries with the highest number of arrests, with 953 and 744 arrests, respectively (CIREFI, 2009).

- **Forced return**

A total of 2,194 and 2,000 Ghanaian migrants were deported in 1993 and 1994, respectively (Van Hear, 1998). According to GIS data, a total of 19,132 Ghanaian emigrants were deported between the years 2001 and 2007. The number of deportees fluctuates and does not follow any clear pattern. The year 2004 saw the repatriation of the largest number of Ghanaian emigrants during the period. It accounted for over 40 per cent of all the persons of Ghanaian origin deported into the country from 2001 to 2007. Table 22 presents the number of Ghanaians repatriated from abroad between 2001 and 2007.

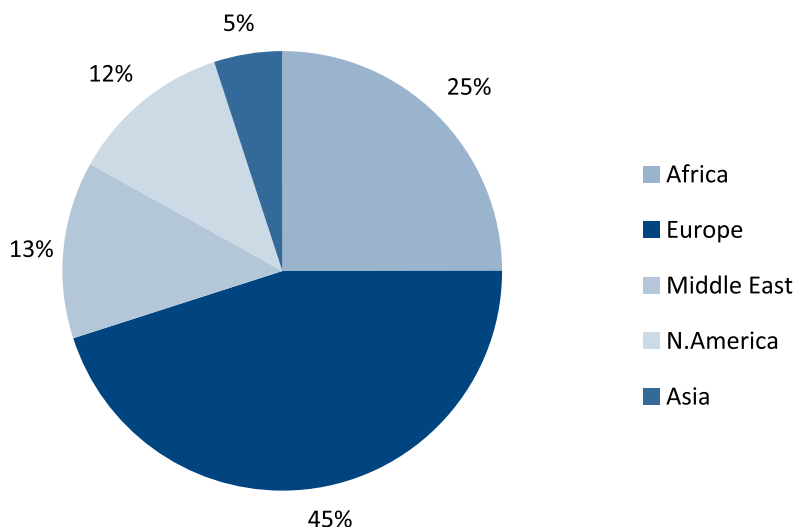
Table 22: Ghanaians emigrants deported from abroad, 2001-2007

Year	Number	%
2001	1,035	5%
2002	2,882	15%
2003	1,880	10%
2004	7,922	42%
2005	1,573	8%
2006	2,493	13%
2007	1,347	7%
Total	19,132	100%

Source: GIS, 2009

From January to June 2008, a total of 693 Ghanaians were deported from various countries around the world. The majority of them were deported from Europe, followed by Africa, Middle East, and North America. Figure 6 presents the relative proportions of Ghanaians deported by region of repatriation.

Figure 6: Repatriation of Ghanaian nationals by region, January-June 2008



Source: GIS, 2008

About two-thirds (64%) of Ghanaians were deported from the UK (23%), Libya (20%), the US (11%), and Saudi Arabia (10%) (GIS, 2008).

- **Trafficking and smuggling**

Ghana has been described as a source, transit, and destination country for women and children trafficked for the purposes of sexual exploitation, and domestic and commercial labour (US Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons, 2006).

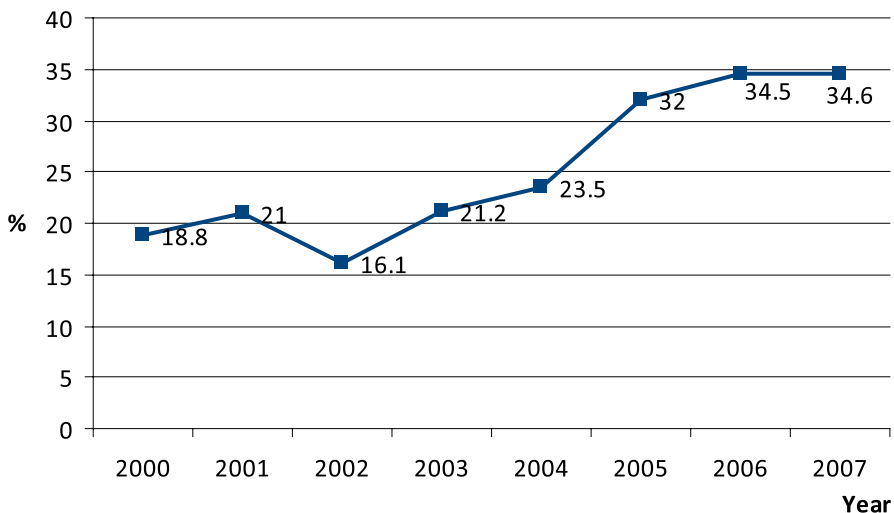
It is also believed that Ghanaian women and girls are trafficked to Europe, particularly Germany, Italy, and the Netherlands, for sexual exploitation. Some also end up in involuntary domestic servitude in the Middle East. Countries of transit for trafficked Ghanaians include Nigeria, Côte d'Ivoire, Libya, Belgium, the Netherlands, and the US. In addition, Togolese and Nigerians are trafficked through Ghana (Daily Graphic Report, 2005).

- **Voluntarily return of Ghanaian emigrants**

According to GIS (2008), a total of 1,244,604 Ghanaian citizens left Ghana between 2000 and 2007 and 1,090,972 of them returned. Thus, 153,632

Ghanaians, representing 12.3 per cent of all Ghanaians who left the country, did not return during the period under review, as against 87.7 per cent who returned home. It was estimated that 10 per cent of the stock of emigrants in any given year returns to Ghana (GSS, 1999). The number of Ghanaian nationals who arrived in the country between 2000 and 2007 represents 24.5 per cent of all arrivals during that period. Of the total number of persons who entered Ghana, the percentage of Ghanaians who returned rose from 18.8 per cent in 2000 to 34.6 per cent in 2007. Figure 7 presents the proportion of Ghanaians among persons who arrived in Ghana from 2000 to 2007.

Figure 7: Ghanaian nationals among arrivals in Ghana, 2000-2007 (%)



Source: GIS, 2007

Through IOM's Assisted Voluntary Return and Reintegration Programme (AVRRP), a total of 762 Ghanaian emigrants have been assisted to return home between 2002 and 2008. Through the use of the case referral system, the emigrants were assisted with passage from their destination countries, counselled and given business advice to enable them reintegrate into their communities. Forty-six per cent of the emigrants who returned through AVRRP received reintegration assistance. Table 24 presents the number of returnees and successfully reintegrated migrants according to their destination countries.

Table 23: Ghanaian emigrants who returned home through AVRPP, 2002-2008

	Assisted Returnees		Reintegrated Returnees	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per Cent
Libya	591	77.6	201	57.3
United Kingdom	137	18.0	122	34.7
Belgium	10	1.3	8	2.3
Morocco	7	0.9	7	2.0
Malta	6	0.8	6	1.7
Switzerland	4	0.5	3	0.8
Ireland	3	0.4	1	0.3
Italy	2	0.3	2	0.3
Kenya	1	0.1	0	-
Czech Rep.	1	0.1	1	0.3
Total	762	100.0	351	100.0

Source: IOM, 2009

Note: Estimates of visa overstayers, estimates of total irregular foreign workers by sector is unavailable.

- **Main areas of employment of irregular emigrants**

Most Ghanaian emigrants in North Africa are less wealthy and skilled than their counterparts in Europe. In view of the hazardous nature of trans-Saharan migration, the persons involved are likely young and male.²¹ They mostly engage in trading, particularly of local foodstuff, jewellery, and other ornaments. Others also engage in petty trading of household items (De Haas, 2007).

C.3 Diasporas

- **Definition of diasporas**

Diasporas are defined as populations of migrant origin who are scattered among two or more destinations, between which they develop multifarious links involving flows and exchanges of people and resources: between the homeland and destination countries, and among destination countries (Van Hear et al., 2004). There is an analytical distinction between diaspora and migrant organizations, which have been described as organizations consisting mainly of migrants and their descendants, regardless of the specific activities of such organizations. However, in practice, the terms are often used interchangeably in different national contexts.

²¹ Unfortunately, there is no data confirming this impression of irregular migration.

There is no official definition of diaspora in Ghana, but it is accepted that there are two diasporas: the Ghanaian diaspora and the African-American diaspora. According to the Ministry of Tourism, Ghana has no explicit policy on diaspora affairs. In spite of this, there are some efforts to encourage both the Ghanaian and African-American diasporas to return and contribute to development (see Part E).

In particular, since 2002, IOM has been involved in projects that aim to involve the Ghanaian diaspora in the country's development efforts. MIDA (Migration for Development in Africa) Ghana and the subsequent MIDA Ghana Health II and III targeted Ghanaian health and other professionals primarily residing in the Netherlands and the UK in order to give them an opportunity to transfer their knowledge, skills and experience to the health care sector in Ghana through assignments to be carried out in the country. No reliable data are available concerning the size of the Ghanaian diasporas (please see Part C2).

C.4 Remittances

Remittances have been noted to play an important role in national development. Several studies (GSS, 2006; Addison, 2005, Muzzacato, 2004; and Quartey, 2006) have highlighted the transfer of remittances and its role in improving livelihoods in migrant households and in the decision-making process.

In 2005, the Bank of Ghana estimated the level of remittances²² at USD 1.5 billion, compared to USD 479 million in 1999. This amount is more than the FDI and Official Development Assistance to Ghana, and more than a third of Ghana's GDP. Remittances to Ghana by professional skilled migrants in the UK were estimated at between USD 1,000 and USD 14,000 per annum (Nuro, 1999). Total remittances in 2007 were USD 6.89 billion, compared to USD 5.78 billion in 2006. Private inward remittances (remittances to individuals and NGOs only) increased from USD 1.74 billion in 2006 to USD 3.7 billion in 2007 (Bank of Ghana data, 2008).

According to the World Bank,²³ remittances²⁴ account for just 0.8 per cent of Ghana's GDP, with a total inflow of USD 117 million in 2007 and USD 128 million in 2008. Therefore, although increasing over the years, remittances remain fundamentally marginal to the overall economy.

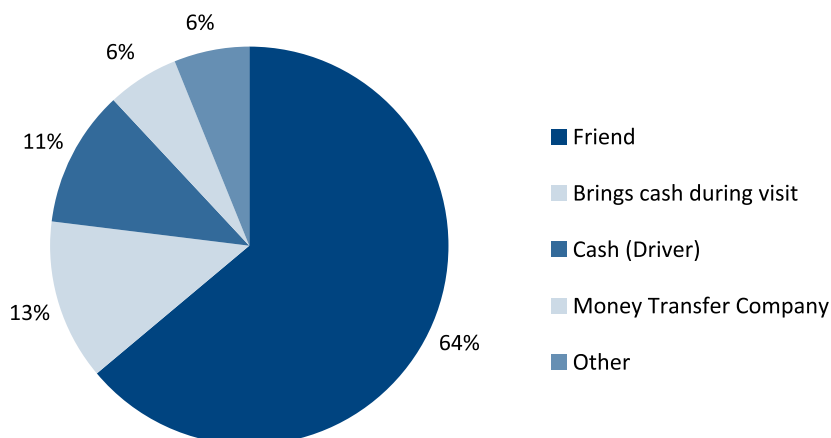
²² Remittances, in the definition provided by the Bank of Ghana, are "monetary and other cash transfers sent from emigrants to their families and communities in the country of origin."

²³ World Bank staff estimates are based on the International Monetary Fund's *Balance of Payments Statistics Yearbook 2008*.

²⁴ World Bank statistics on remittances include: workers' remittances, compensation of employees, migrant transfers and credits.

Private inward remittances sent through banks accounted for 85.2 per cent of total private inward remittances, compared with 92 per cent in 2006. A significant proportion of remittances are sent through informal means, but this is difficult to capture. Page and Plaza (2006) estimate that unrecorded remittances account for 73 per cent of total remittances in Sub-Saharan Africa, compared to 45-60 per cent in Latin American and Caribbean (LAC), East Asia and Pacific (EAP), and Europe and Central Asia (ECA) regions. Large flows through informal channels reduce development impact in terms of financial sector deepening, credit multiplier, savings, and investment. Flows outside the formal system raise issues of money laundering and other financial crimes. Also, it is estimated in the fourth *Ghana Living Standards Survey (GSS, 1999)* that remittances in cash accounted for 20 per cent of total private inward remittances (Quarthey, 2006).

Figure 8: Means of transfer of remittances to Ghana, 2005 (%)



Source: Orozco et al., 2005

Note: Based on a survey of 315 remittance senders

Muzzacato (2004) observed that remittances affect Ghana mainly through investment in housing, and indirectly through the spill-over effects on a large number of other businesses, such as restaurants, and other hospitality services, such as those for funerals etc. The GLSS 3 and 4 report that remittances significantly improved household welfare (GSS, 2000). The bulk of remittances are mainly allocated for private consumption purposes and recurrent expenditure, e.g. living expenses, school fees, hospital bills, marriage, funerals, repayment of debts and repayment of cost for migrating abroad, and other social activities, such as the financing of community-level projects. According to estimates shown in Table 24, between 17 per cent and 25 per cent of remittances is used for small businesses, housing development, and other investment purposes (Quarthey, 2006; also refer to Asiedu, 2003; Black et al., 2003). Thus, migrant remittances

enhance private-sector growth through its impact on the financing of small- and medium-scale enterprises.

Table 24: Uses of migrant remittances in Ghana, 2005

Uses	N	%
Living Expenses	79	48
School Fees	45	27
Working Capital	6	4
Investment for Sender	22	13
Funeral	2	1
Other Social Activities	5	3
Others	7	4
Total	166	100

Source: Quartey, 2006

• The global financial crisis and remittances

The global financial crisis, a crisis that emerged in developed countries, has already spread to the developing world. Forecasts of growth in developing countries have been downgraded significantly and questions linger as to the depth and duration of the crisis, the countries that will be most affected, and the channels through which this might work. Ghana, for instance, has lost money directly from the financial crisis. The World Bank has categorized Ghana as one of the countries considered most vulnerable to the global financial crisis.²⁵

To assess the impact of the global financial crisis on remittances, it is important to compare the quarterly remittances figures for 2007 and 2008. Remittances declined between the first and second quarters of 2008, but increased marginally thereafter until the last quarter of 2008. However, the volume of remittances for the last quarter of 2008 was less than the first quarter figure – a clear signal that the global financial crisis has affected inflows. Secondly, whereas remittances grew by 40.2 per cent in the first quarter of 2007 and 28.25 per cent in the second quarter of 2008, the third- and fourth-quarter comparison clearly indicated a decline in inflows. The percentage change between the fourth quarter of 2007 and 2008 was significantly high (14.4%).²⁶

²⁵ www.odi.org.uk/resources/download/3308.pdf

²⁶ See ISSER (2009), *State of the Ghanaian Economy in 2008*, Chapter 3

PART D: Factors driving migration

D.I Main characteristics of current migration trends

Ghanaian migration has increasingly become extra-regional, since the decline of Nigeria as a major destination for Ghanaian migrants in the 1980s. Although the majority of Ghanaian emigrants (71%) still stay within the region of West Africa, a growing proportion is migrating to a diverse range of countries outside the region (DRC, 2007). According to 2008 Ministry of Foreign Affairs estimates, Ghanaian migrants can be found in more than 33 countries around the world. After West African countries, the most important countries of destination for Ghanaian emigrants are the US (7.3%) and the UK (5.9%) (DRC, 2007). Estimates of the Ghanaian emigrant population range from 1.5 million (Twum Baah, 2005) to 3 million (Black et al., 2003).

Skilled migration from Ghana, especially to developed countries in the North, has accelerated since the 1990s. Ghana has one of the highest emigration rates for the highly skilled (46%) in Western Africa (OECD, 2005; Docquier and Marfouk, 2005). The medical professions are particularly affected by emigration. It is estimated that more than 56 per cent of doctors and 24 per cent of nurses trained in Ghana are working abroad (Clemens and Pettersson, 2006). The overall skill level of Ghanaian emigrants is relatively high. According to some estimates, 33.8 per cent of emigrants from Ghana living in OECD countries possessed medium skill, while 27.6 per cent had high skill (EU, 2006). Only 3 per cent of Ghanaian emigrants had no skills.

Many Ghanaians acquire their skills at foreign universities. The latest available figures suggest that almost 8 per cent of Ghanaian university students studied abroad in 2006. Although this marks a decrease from 2004 when 11.8 per cent of Ghanaian students studied abroad, the proportion of Ghanaians enrolled in foreign universities is still substantial (UNESCO, 2006). Public scholarship programmes may unintentionally encourage this trend by providing support only to students and academic staff who study abroad.

While many Ghanaians leave for more far-reaching destinations, many of them also return either temporarily or permanently to Ghana. The proportion of Ghanaians among the persons who arrived in Ghana steadily increased from 18.6 per cent in 2000 to 34.6 per cent in 2007. Of the 1,090,972 Ghanaians who left Ghana from 2000 to 2007, only 153,632 did not return within that period. Departure statistics show that the majority of resident Ghanaians leave for commercial activities, followed by spouses and child dependents (Quartey, 2006).

In relation to economically motivated migration, forced migration from Ghana is insignificant and has been declining over the past decade. The number of Ghanaian asylum seekers and recognized refugees under UNHCR's protection has drastically decreased from 15,879 in 2003 to only 6,717 in 2007 (UNHCR, 2008).

Traditionally, Ghana has been a net immigration country, with migrants coming mainly from Togo, Burkina Faso, Nigeria, and Côte d'Ivoire. Although emigration has been increasing at a faster rate than immigration since the 1990, Ghana continues to be an important country of destination. According to recent census-based estimates, the migrant population, i.e. foreign-born population, constituted 7.6 per cent of the total population in 2005, representing only a marginal decrease (0.1) from 2000 figures. With regard to migrant trends in Ghana, more people immigrated than emigrated from 2000 to 2005. This was in contrast with the trend from 1995 to 2000, when net migration was negative at -0.6 (UNPD, 2008).

The majority of immigrants to Ghana come from Africa. In 2000, 58.9 per cent of non-Ghanaian residents were nationals of ECOWAS countries, while 23 per cent of immigrants came from African countries outside ECOWAS. According to border statistics from the GIS, Europeans comprised the largest group of non-African arrivals (15.3%) from 2000 to 2007, followed by North Americans (9.7%) (GIS, 2008).

Students make up a significant proportion of immigrants to Ghana. In 2007, 8.5 per cent of resident permits were granted to students. Students accounted for a particularly large proportion of permit holders from ECOWAS countries (almost 25%). The foreign student population at the University of Ghana rose steadily from 1.5 per cent in 2001/02 to 3.8 per cent in 2006/07.

While the overall immigrant population has remained relatively stable over the last two decades, the number of asylum seekers and refugees has dramatically increased, from 11,721 in 2001 to 34,950 in 2007. In 2007, Ghana hosted the largest refugee population in the West African sub-region. Liberians account for much of the increase in the number of refugees in Ghana, representing 77.3 per cent of the total refugee population in the country. Forty per cent of the refugees from Liberia and Togo were minors (persons under 18 years old) (UNHCR, 2008). This trend was partially reversed in 2008, when numbers declined to a little more than 18,000 asylum seekers and refugees. Nevertheless, Ghana still hosts the largest population of refugees and asylum seekers in the region.

Although there is a lack of accurate data on Ghanaians residing abroad, it is believed that there is no significant variation between the sexes. The societal norms and traditions of most ethnic groups are believed to impact the migration decision-making process, by making it more difficult for women to move (Treveh, 1997). However evidence suggests that figures for women's emigration tend to be similar to those for men (Twum-Baah, 2005). In 2007, 45 per cent of Ghanaian emigrants in OECD countries were female (OECD, 2008).

D.2 Identifying the key drivers of migration and possible future trends

There are multiple drivers of migration to and from Ghana, including economic, social and political factors, and they work at different levels – individual, household, community, national, regional, and global levels. This section will mainly focus on the national, regional, and global levels, using some of the information provided in Part A.

One important driver of migration is limited employment opportunities, especially for young labour market entrants. An important finding of Part B is that Ghanaians employed in OECD countries tend to be predominantly in the productive ages (20-45 years old), suggesting that young adults are particularly likely to migrate as a result of the lack of employment opportunities at home. This trend is likely to continue. Ghana's annual population growth rate – one of the lowest in the sub-region – is projected to remain at 2.2 per cent. However, the country's labour force is estimated to increase yearly by 2.9 per cent for the next 15 years (GSS, 2005b). More young adults are expected to enter the labour market over the next decade than ever before. Unless economic growth absorbs this growing demand for labour, the pressure to migrate among young adults is likely to persist and increase in the medium term. Although the economy has been growing steadily in the past few years, from 5.2 per cent in 2003 to 6.3 per cent in 2007, labour-intensive sectors such as manufacturing has been growing more slowly and is already unable to absorb current labour force growth. According to 2000 census data, unemployment especially affects the young.

Previous sections of this report have shown that the highly skilled are particularly likely to leave Ghana. This finding is not surprising, as there appears to be a correlation between the likelihood to migrate and skill level. Usually the more skilled a person is, the more likely he or she is to migrate. On this assumption, educational trends are likely to have an impact on migration.

There are indications that the domestic labour force in Ghana is not only growing but also becoming more educated. The net enrolment ratio in primary school has increased steadily from 86.4 per cent in 2003/04 to 90.8 per cent in 2006/07, indicating that more young people (those below 14 years old) remain in school rather than seek employment. At the other end of the educational spectrum, more and more workers are enrolled in graduate and postgraduate programmes, especially at private universities. The Gross Enrolment Ratio in tertiary education increased from 3 per cent in 2004 to 5 per cent in 2005 (UNESCO, 2007). In light of these trends, skilled emigration is likely to remain an important policy concern, unless work conditions and employment opportunities for the highly skilled improve.

Case studies suggest that lack of career development and poor working conditions are important motivations for the highly skilled to migrate, especially those in the medical professions. A study on the migration intentions of health workers, for example, showed that the opportunity for further training figure quite prominently in the reasons to migrate (Agyei and Quartey, 2008). Buchan and Dovlo (2004) also found that doctors complained of a prolonged process of specialization during which there was no promotion at different stages of achievement. According to them, nurses deplored the lack of opportunities to acquire additional qualifications during their employment.

Recognizing that poor working conditions and low salary are important concerns for health care professionals, the government has introduced various financial measures such as the additional duty hours allowance (ADHA) to improve salaries in the health care sector.²⁷ Yet it is unlikely that such measures will make up for the huge income differential that exists between Ghana and developed countries. Vujicic et al. (2004), for instance, found that the wage differential between nurses in Ghana and their counterparts in Canada and Australia were as much as 14 times. For doctors, the wage differential was as much as 25 times.

Higher wages coupled with better opportunities to migrate to developed countries also act as an important pull factor for highly skilled migrants. Many

²⁷ This fund, introduced in 1998 and initially directed to doctors, in particular junior doctors, has been extended to include all workers in the health sector. This scheme effectively increased the wages of health workers from 75 per cent to 150 per cent, depending on position and area. In 1999, before the introduction of the ADHA, the average monthly salary of junior and senior doctors in Ghana was USD 199 and USD 272, respectively. Despite the salary increase, interviews with health care workers have revealed general dissatisfaction with the policy change. Different types of workers were treated differently, resulting in increased animosity and tension among workers (*Assessment of the ADHA Scheme: Final Report*, Ghana Ministry of Health, The Capacity Project, 2007).

OECD countries actively recruit highly skilled migrants to address their own labour market shortages. Various recruitment schemes make it easier for foreign students to acquire a work permit and permanent resident status in OECD countries. According to a recent OECD report, in 2007, almost three-quarters of international students in OECD countries who decide to remain after completing their academic programmes do so in order to receive a work permit (OECD, 2007). This policy trend is likely to continue as developed countries increasingly face a labour supply gap due to an aging workforce.

However, Ghana not only sends but also attracts migrants. An important factor behind immigration to Ghana is the relative peace, security, and political stability in the country; Ghana is often described as an oasis of peace in West Africa. This condition has and will continue to attract migrants from the sub-region, especially those fleeing political unrest and conflict. Ghana, with 18,206 refugees in 2008, is host to the fourth-largest refugee population in West Africa (UNHCR, 2009).

Increasing immigration to Ghana has also been attributed to broader shifts in the migration landscape, as a result of the decline of Côte d'Ivoire as a migration pole due to social and political instability and the resulting economic deterioration (De Haas, 2007).

Alongside improved governance, Ghana has also registered steady progress and development in the past decade, and this situation has led to an improved business environment. These developments and the recent discovery of oil around Cape Three Points, located near the border with Côte d'Ivoire, are also likely to spur on labour immigrants.

PART E: Effectiveness of migration policies in managing the migration phenomenon

E.I Overview of the national institutional and policy framework governing migration

Currently, Ghana does not have a national migration policy. However, the need for one has been recognized, and a NMB inter-ministerial team/steering committee, later renamed Migration Unit (MU), has been created to this end. The committee is comprised of 12 members, including the Minister of State of the Ministry of the Interior or his/her representative, who act as chairpersons at meetings. The Executive Secretary of the MU is a member/secretary of the Steering Committee. The other ten members are high-ranking government officials from various ministries who were nominated by their respective ministers. The MU inter-ministerial team, under the auspices of the Ministry of the Interior, is working towards the formulation of a national migration policy for Ghana. Furthermore, MU, in collaboration with the NDPC, is pursuing its objective of integrating migration into Ghana's development agenda. However, in the absence of a national migration policy, Ghana regulates migration from and to the country through legislations such as the Immigration Act, the Constitution, and the ECOWAS Protocol on Free Movement, to mention but a few.

E.I.I Overview of recent migration policy developments

- **Ongoing policy initiatives to create a migration policy framework**

The above-mentioned Migration Unit (MU), set up at the Ministry of the Interior with cabinet approval in 2006, aims to facilitate migration policy formulation, as well as monitor and evaluate existing laws and procedures on emigration and immigration. To facilitate the activities of the MU, three thematic working groups with functions of technical committees were formed. These themes revolve around Migration and Economic Development, Labour and Irregular Migration, and Migration Policy, Information and Research. The Migration Profiles Project falls directly under the last theme.

A Migration Profiles Technical Working Group (TWG) has been formed to work on the project. This group has a mandate to ensure government support for the preparation of a National Migration Profile for Ghana. The National Migration Profile shall serve as a policy tool for developing national migration policy.

There is also an inter-ministerial team that is working on the AENEAS 2006 Labour Migration Project. The LMP has already begun crafting a labour migration policy. Drafting of the policy will involve a roadmap that is currently in the process of being developed, after an extensive national assessment of labour migration policies, legislation, structures, and practice in Ghana. Involved in this exercise are the ministries of Employment and Social Welfare; Interior; Foreign Affairs; Finance and Economic Planning; and Tourism. Other institutions involved are GSS, GIS, Ghana Trades Unions Congress, and National Population Council. These government officials were trained to develop labour migration policies, with support from the EU and IOM.

There is a Migration Management Bureau (MMB), which is managed by the GIS and IOM, and supported by the Danish Government and UNDP. Under the Danish-sponsored programme, the functions of the MMB are to create awareness and organize campaigns by providing potential and transit migrants with information on the dangers associated with irregular migration and the benefits of safe travel. According to the Ministry of Interior, under the UNDP-sponsored project, the MMB is likewise involved in awareness-creation and outreach programmes. In addition, it has established a Migration Consultation Centre in Sunyani.

- **Other programmes related to migration and development and how they fit in the national policy framework**

The Ministry of Tourism organizes Emancipation Day celebrations each year. The objective of this programme is to sensitize and attract the African-American diaspora to visit, stay, and invest in Ghana. The first-ever Homecoming Summit for Ghanaians living abroad was organized by the GoG in July 2001. It attracted over 500 Ghanaians residing abroad. The theme for the Summit was “Harnessing the Global Ghanaian Resource Potential for Accelerated National Development.” This was principally a strategic investment promotion activity to encourage the Ghanaian diaspora to invest in the development of the country.²⁸

The IOM Programme for Return and Reintegration of Qualified African Nationals was implemented in 1995 and sponsored by the European Commission. Eleven African countries were involved in the project, including Ghana. The aim of the project was mainly to strengthen the human-resource base of recipient African countries that suffer from deficiencies in vital human resources, thereby complementing, reinforcing and strengthening the capacity-building process and institutional development of the receiving countries. Under the project,

²⁸ Information gathered from the Ministry of Tourism, 2009

many job vacancies were identified in cooperation with various private and government sectors.

Additional projects that have a similar focus are the MIDA Health Ghana Project II (2005-07) and III (2008-12). They are Dutch Government-sponsored brain gain initiatives for the health sector in Ghana. Under these projects, migrants with an educational and/or professional background in health care are encouraged to undertake temporary placements in health care institutions in Ghana, with the principal aim of helping to build capacities in the Ghanaian health sector. As a supplementary sustainable aspect of mitigating brain drain, health professionals in Ghana were provided with the opportunity to do internships in university hospitals or other health institutions in the Netherlands. The main aim of the MIDA projects is to utilize the available skills, expertise and experience of Ghanaian migrant health professionals (GMHP) in the Netherlands and other European countries for the benefit of the Ghanaian health sector.

EI.2 Overview of domestic legislation

Table 25: National legal framework guiding migration decisions in Ghana

Instrument	Details
Legal Provisions	<p>Ghana does not currently have a migration policy. However, it regulates migration through the following legal instruments:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Provisions enshrined in the 1992 Constitution 2. Immigration Act, 2000 (Act 573) 3. Immigration Regulations, 2001 (L.I. 1691) 4. Citizenship Act, 2000 (Act 591) 5. Refugee Law 1992 (PNDCL 30) 6. Labour Act, 2003 (Act 651) 7. Labour Regulations, 2007 (L.I. 1833) 8. Children's Act 560 (1998) 9. Human Trafficking Act, 2005 (Act 694) 10. Representation of People's Amendment Act 2007 (Act 669) 11. Ghana Investment Promotion Centre Act, 1994 (Act 478) 12. The Ghana Investment Promotion Centre (Promotion of Tourism) Instrument, 2005 (L.I. 1817) 13. Immigration Quota Committee
Regulations	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Disembarkation must be done upon approval by an Immigration Officer. 2. All travellers to and from Ghana are required to complete embarkation and disembarkation forms at the exit and entry points. 3. Foreigners from non-ECOWAS states are required to acquire a visa before entering Ghana. 4. Immigrants in Ghana are required to acquire resident and work permits in order to stay and work. 5. Immigrants from ECOWAS member states do not require a visa in order to enter Ghana and can stay up to 90 days without a residence permit. 6. A person must enter or leave Ghana at an authorized point, and shall produce valid travelling documents and completed prescribed forms.

E.1.3 Description of institutional actors involved in migration management

Table 26: Institutional framework guiding migration decisions in Ghana

Institution	Functions
Ministry of Interior	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responsible for policies, monitoring, and regulation of immigrants in Ghana • Supervising GIS and Ghana Refugee Board in their operations pertaining to immigrants and refugees, respectively • Coordinate the activities of the Migration Unit
Ghana Immigration Service	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advise the government on issues pertaining to migration to and from Ghana • Implementation of laws, policies and regulations on migration to and from Ghana • Through GIS, the Ministry of Interior issues residence and work permit for immigrants in Ghana through the Immigration Quota Committee • Processing of applications submitted by foreigners who intend to acquire Ghanaian citizenship, either through naturalization or marriage • Processing of applications made by Ghanaians who either want to renounce their Ghanaian citizenship or dual citizenship • Constitutional mandate to prosecute and repatriate or deport any immigrant who has entered Ghana without approval (prohibited person) • Responsible for patrolling Ghana's borders in order to prevent entry of inadmissible persons and human trafficking as well as illegal trade
Ghana Refugee Board	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responsible for the processing of asylum applications and granting of asylum in Ghana • Works closely with UNHCR to address the needs of asylum seekers and refugees in Ghana
Ministry of Foreign Affairs, NEPAD and Regional Integration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responsible for the protection of Ghana's interest and Ghanaians abroad • The Ministry has a Migration Bureau that gathers and analyses data on Ghanaian emigrants • The Legal, Multilateral and Passport Department of the Ministry works closely with the Ghana Immigration Service in the processing of Ghanaian Passport • Responsible for the issuance of entry visa to foreigners intending to visit Ghana
Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coordinates the activities of inter-agency groups working to combat human trafficking • Monitors and evaluates the effects of migration activities on the welfare of women and children
Ghana Police Service	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arrest and prosecution of immigrants involved in criminal activities
Judiciary Service	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responsible for the determination of whether an immigrant should be expelled from Ghana or not
Centre for Migration Studies Regional/ Institute for Population Studies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research on the dynamics and complexities of both internal and international migration • Training of experts through academic programmes and short courses • Dissemination of research findings through conferences, workshops, seminars, expert group meetings, and publications • Advocacy

Ministry of Tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supervises the Ghana Tourist Board and Ghana Museums Board • Organizes emancipation day celebrations • Liaises with the African-American diaspora community • Encourages the return of African-American diaspora
National Population Council	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responsible for population management under Act 485 • Interpret and review population policy; integrate population policy into the development process
Ministry of Finance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preparation of national budgets • Disbursements of funds to MDAs • Oversight responsibility over Bank of Ghana

• Role of non-governmental actors and international organizations in migration policy

The relevant international organizations in Ghana involved in migration and development include IOM, UNFPA, UNDP, ILO, the European Commission, and the World Bank. They provide support for capacity building through equipment, training, and sharing of information.

The Liberian Refugee Welfare Council liaises with the Ministry of the Interior on matters affecting Liberian refugees in the country. The African-American Association of Ghana, which boasts hundreds of members, is working with the government on a number of issues pertaining to the return and reintegration of the African-American diasporas. There are also associations of Ghanaians in various countries that deal with Ghana missions on specific issues pertaining to their welfare. These associations usually organize themselves to meet and interact with key government officials who visit the countries in which they function.

E.2 Analysis of migration policy coherence

• Policy coordination

Coordination among the relevant ministries, departments, and agencies on migration issues is weak. Issues are dealt with in an ad hoc manner. This sometimes results in duplication of functions and the international agencies have to deal with several institutions. Currently the Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment is preparing a labour migration policy. This is different from the team working²⁹ on the formulation of the national migration policy.

²⁹ These are representatives of key institutions working on migration or related activities. They include the Bank of Ghana, Ministry of Interior, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Finance, etc.

- **Mainstreaming migration into development plans**

Ghana has a poverty reduction strategy paper dubbed *Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper II (GPRS II)*, which sets out the government's strategy for wealth creation in order to reduce poverty. GPRS II has identified the Ghanaian diaspora as a potential source of funding. In view of this, Ghana missions abroad have been tasked to devise strategies for mobilizing the Ghanaian diaspora and their resources for national development.

Among other things, the key contributions of the Ghanaian diaspora that have been identified and need to be explored for national development include the group's potential as a market for NTE and as a source of capital for investment (finance, technology transfer, skills, etc.). Members of the diaspora could also act as ambassadors for Ghanaian culture, promoting the country's food, clothing, music, and films, among others.

The revised population policy recommends a review of laws and procedures governing immigration and emigration, to ensure that they are in consonance with Ghana's contractual obligations under international agreements and treaties. It also provides for incentives to encourage the voluntary return of highly skilled Ghanaian emigrants and enable them to contribute to local development.³⁰

- **Diaspora and development**

Among countries in sub-Saharan Africa, Ghana has been proactive in highlighting the key role that the Ghanaian diaspora plays in national development. In July 2001, the government convened the Homecoming Summit as part of political efforts to encourage Ghanaians abroad to return home and contribute to the country's development through investment in the economy. It is estimated that 1,600 Ghanaians, mainly professionals, participated in the Homecoming Summit. This resulted in a decision to set up a Non-Resident Ghanaian Secretariat at the GIPC. However, according to the GIPC, seven years after the summit, the office has yet to be set up.

In 2000, Ghana enacted the Dual Citizenship Act (Act 591), followed by the Citizenship Regulations in 2001 (L.I. 1691), to allow Ghanaian immigrants to acquire foreign nationality without losing their Ghanaian citizenship. According to the Ministry of the Interior, a total of 5,903 Ghanaians were granted dual citizenship status between January 2003 and August 2008. In addition, the

³⁰ Information gathered from Ghana Health Service, 2009

Representation of People's Amendment Law was enacted to allow Ghanaians residing abroad to participate in the democratic process by voting in the general elections. Furthermore, the Ministry of Tourism was mandated to facilitate integration of the diaspora. Although Ghana has yet to enact a policy on the diaspora, efforts are being made to persuade the descendents of former slaves in the US, Latin America, and the Caribbean to make Ghana their home – to visit, invest, send their children to be educated in Ghana and even spend their retirement there.

In pursuit of this objective, the Ghana Immigration Act (Act 573) contains a provision for the conferment of right of abode on persons of African descent in the diaspora (Section 17, sub-section 1b). An application is required and the following factors are taken into consideration: the character of the individual, his or her criminal record, independent sources of funds, and potential to contribute to Ghana's development, among others. According to GIS, there are also proposals for a special lifetime visa for the diasporas and the relaxation of the citizenship requirement to facilitate the acquisition of the Ghanaian passport (dual citizenship).

The government is interested in cultivating diaspora relations, but its approach to the Ghanaian diaspora has been uneven. The Ministry of Tourism is in charge of liaising only with the African-American diaspora community. No other ministry or government agency is in charge of cultivating ties with the rest of the diaspora.

Nonetheless, the contribution of Ghanaians abroad to the development of their home country is enormous. They are a key stakeholder in national development through various community-level development projects. Unfortunately, these efforts have not been formalized or structured.

E.3 Regional and international cooperation

Table 27: International treaties on migration that are guiding migration decisions in Ghana

Protocol/Treaty	Nature of Protocol/Treaty
UN Conventions	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li data-bbox="355 292 1081 366">1. 1951 UN Convention Pertaining to the Status of Refugees, 1967 protocol as well as 1969 convention governing the specific aspects of refugee problems in Africa. Declaration of Cartagena on Refugees. <li data-bbox="355 372 1081 495">2. The Worst Forms of Child Labour 1999 (ILO Convention 182) This convention seeks to eliminate the worst forms of child labour and Ghana ratified it in 2000. The 1992 Constitution, Children’s Act (Act 560) and Labour Act (Act 651) strictly prohibit the engagement of children in any activity that undermines their health, education/training and total development. <li data-bbox="355 500 1081 672">3. UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) - Article 28 of the 1992 Constitution specifically spells out rights and freedoms guaranteed to children in Ghana. The Constitution placed responsibility on Parliament to enact laws to ensure survival, development and protection of children, including their right to protection from engaging in work that constitutes a threat to their health, education/training and overall development. One of such laws enacted by Parliament is the Children’s Act of 1998 (Act 560). <li data-bbox="355 677 1081 878">4. Minimum Age Convention 1973 (ILO Convention 138) This Convention aims to end child labour and progressively raise the minimum age of employment to a level that utilizes the fullest physical and mental development of young persons. Although Ghana has not ratified the Convention, the 1992 Constitution, Children’s Act, 1998 (Act 560) and Labour Act, 2003 (Act 651) prohibit exploitation and employment of children in Ghana. The Children’s Act defines a child as any person below the age of 18 years old and states that the minimum age of employment is 15 years old. <li data-bbox="355 883 1081 1107">5. Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (ILO Convention 29/abolition of forced labour Convention, 1957 (ILO Convention 105) Whereas ILO Convention 29 seeks to bring down the use of forced and compulsory labour in all forms, Convention 105 prohibits forced and compulsory labour. Ghana ratified Convention 29 and 105 in 1957 and 1958 respectively. Subsequently, the 1992 Constitution and Labour Act contain provisions that reflect the principles and norms of these conventions. Specifically article 116 -7 of the Labour Act (Act 651) and article 16 of the 1992 Constitution states clearly that no person shall be held in servitude or required to perform forced labour. <li data-bbox="355 1113 1081 1352">6. Equal remuneration convention, 1951 (ILO convention 100) and Discrimination (employment and occupation) Convention, 1958 (ILO convention 111) While Convention 100 seeks to ensure payment of equal remuneration for equal work done by men and women, Convention 111 seeks to promote equality of opportunities and treatments pertaining to employment and thereby eliminate discrimination. Ghana ratified Convention 100 and 111 in 1968 and 1960 respectively. Consequently, the 1992 Constitution prohibits any form of discrimination based on race, gender, religion, ethnicity, etc. (Article 17 of the 1992 Constitution). Article 68 of the Labour Act also requires equal pay for equal work without distinction of any kind.

	<p>7. Other Conventions on Migrant workers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 1990 Convention on the Rights of Migrants Workers and members of their families. - 1949 Convention concerning Migration for Employment and 1975 Convention concerning Migration in Abusive conditions and the Promotion of Equality of Opportunity and Treatment of Migrant Workers - 2000 UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime - 2002 Protocol against Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air - 2002 Protocol to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking of persons, especially women and children
ECOWAS Protocol (1979)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Free Movement of persons, Rights of Residence and Establishment within member states, - ECOWAS plan of action to deal with the menace of human trafficking in the sub-region. Ghana has enacted the Human Trafficking Law in 2005 (European Commission, 2006).

• Migration Partnerships

Ghana works closely with regional bodies, international organizations, and selected countries on issues pertaining to emigration and immigration. Ghana is implementing the ECOWAS Protocol on the Free Movement of Persons, as well as the Commission's efforts to combat human trafficking following the adoption of the ECOWAS Plan of Action in 2002. In addition, the African Union's protocols on migration both within and out of Africa are taken into consideration in the country's migration decisions (Ghana Migration Profile, 2006).

As a member of UN and signatory to its conventions, Ghana takes steps to ensure that all decisions on migration into and out of the country are in conformity with the spirit and letter of those conventions. In view of this, Ghana collaborates with UN agencies dealing with migration, including the UNFPA, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), and the International Labour Organization (ILO). Furthermore, Ghana cooperates with a number of multilateral institutions such as IOM, World Bank, and the EU in the area of migration and development through institutional capacity building, staff training, provision of equipment, research grants, etc. For example, the EU Commission in Ghana sponsored the preparation of the Ghana migration profile in 2006. Currently, a Ghana labour migration policy is being prepared with the support of the EU, IOM and GoG. Ghana has draft agreements on labour migration with some destination countries of Ghanaian emigrants, including Italy, Spain, and Libya.

E4. Overall assessment of the migration policy context

Due to the absence of a national migration policy, issues pertaining to

migration are dealt with in an ad hoc manner. Whenever there is an issue on migration that requires serious attention, a team is assembled from the various ministries, departments, and agencies. Once the issue is addressed, the ad hoc body is disassembled and experience/training gained in the process is often lost.

Lack of coordination is another issue that affects the country's efforts toward effective management of migration and development. Due to the absence of an explicit migration policy and effective coordination of migration, it would appear reasonable to conclude that Ghana is not proactive in handling migration issues. Decisions on migration to and from the country often address problems that have occurred in the past. This could also be blamed on the poor institutional framework for migration.

The government has recognized the issue of coordination by establishing an inter-ministerial Migration Unit under the auspices of the Ministry of Interior. At this stage, it is too early to say what impact this measure will have as the proposed Migration Unit still awaits proper implementation. It is however essential that the relevant ministries are prepared to dedicate appropriate resources in order for the Unit to be an effective coordination mechanism. Given the different priorities of ministries, inter-ministerial support for the Migration Unit may not always be forthcoming and may pose a challenge for the workings of the Unit.

Another challenge for the government is that of skill certification. Many labour-recruiting countries require certification of the labour migrant's skill, which many artisans and other medium-skilled labourers in Ghana lack. For example, firms in the Netherlands and Spain have approached the government for butchers. However, it has proved difficult to recruit interested persons who possess the requisite certificates. The labour market and the vocational education system need to be improved and aligned with efforts to develop a national policy.

Many initiatives concerning the Ghanaian diaspora have been dedicated to encouraging the diaspora's involvement in development activities at home, while fewer activities are aimed at improving protection for migrants abroad. A coherent migration policy would also need to develop effective mechanisms to address the protection needs of Ghanaian migrants abroad.

PART F: Evaluating the consequences of migration and migration policy on development

F.1 Impacts of migration on the socio-economic development of the country

Migration is often analysed in the context of the “push-pull model”, which looks at the push factors that drive people to leave their countries and the pull factors that attract them to their new destinations. Discussions on the consequences of migration tend to focus on the negative impact on the sending (source) country alone. However, migration creates both opportunities and risks for the sending and receiving countries. Therefore, there is a need for a holistic approach in analyzing the impact of migration on development. Migration has become an integral part of the survival strategies of many households in Ghana. The consequences of migration can be both negative (shortage of medical personnel and other manpower) and positive (remittances, brain gain, etc.). Positively, migration has contributed to sustainable development through remittances, skill and knowledge transfer, investment, knowledge transfer, and diaspora networks.

- **Remittances**

Remittances from Ghanaian emigrants contribute significantly to the improved well-being of their compatriots at home. According to the *GLSS 5 Report*, remittances account for 10 per cent of household income in Ghana (GSS, 2000). As discussed in PART C4, the bulk of remittances are dedicated to private consumption purposes and recurrent expenditure such as living expenses, school fees, hospital bills, marriage, funerals and other social activities. Remittances also go toward the repayment of debts and repayment of costs for migrating abroad. Muzzacato (2004) observed that remittances affect Ghana through investment in housing. The spill-over effect on a large number of businesses also helps to create jobs. As explained in PART C4, it is estimated that between 17 per cent and 25 per cent of remittances are used to finance small businesses, housing development, and other investment purposes (Quartey, 2006; Asiedu, 2003; Black et al., 2003). Thus, migrant remittances enhance the growth of the private sector through their impact on the financing of small- and medium-scale enterprises. Migration can be a form of poverty reduction as migrants tend to return to their home countries with more capital and education. Return migration can also be a path to job creation, by self-employment on return, or by employing other Ghanaians.

The extent of the impact of remittances on poverty reduction is unclear, as remittances do not necessarily go to the poorest population. The *GLSS 5 Report* (GSS 2008) shows that relatively better off regions receive more remittances (e.g. Ashanti, 16.1%) than poorer regions (Northern, 5.4%; Upper East, 2.8%; and Upper West, 3.3%). In 2006, remittances accounted for 8.1 per cent of the income received by the lowest wealth quintile, compared to 11.5 for the highest wealth quintile. Nevertheless, in areas where they are received, remittances have an important distributive effect because they reach rural areas and are mostly received by women. As observed by GSS (2008: 127), children are the main recipients (beneficiaries) of remittances from abroad. Among children in both rural and urban areas, females benefited from more remittances than their male counterparts in urban and rural localities. Siblings form the second-largest group of beneficiaries of remittances in Ghana.

- **Shortage of skilled persons**

Ghana is ranked as the African country with the largest cumulative loss of tertiary-educated emigrants (Manuh et al., 2005). Although reliable data on the actual scale of skilled emigration within the education sector is lacking, universities and other institutions of higher learning are struggling to retain staff, partly due to emigration. Over 60 per cent of faculty positions at polytechnics and 40 per cent of those in public universities are vacant. The lack of university lecturers at institutions of higher learning has negative implications for the quality of education. According to the NCTE, the Student-Academic Staff Ratio in all disciplines exceeds approved norms. The situation is worse for the faculty of education, where the ratio is 82:1 instead of 15:1. However, the ratio is relatively better for the faculty of medicine at 1:8 instead of 1:7, due to lower student intake.

Currently, student-teacher ratios are much higher than the proposed and approved standards (see Table 28) in all faculties except medicine (due to lower intake). Table 28 presents the student-academic staff ratios at publicly funded universities.

Table 28: Student-academic staff ratio and norms in public universities, 2006/07

Faculty	Student Enrolment	Academic Staff	Student-Teacher Ratio	Approved Norms	Proposed Norms
Science	30,427	1,006	30:1	12:1	18:1
Medicine	2,310	233	10:1	8:1	12:1
Humanities	39,782	729	55:1	18:1	27:1
Pharmacy	685	35	19:1	12:1	15:1
Education	15,268	268	57:1	15:1	23:1
Total	88,445	2,271	39:1	NA	NA

Source: NCTE, 2008

In order to prevent further deterioration of educational standards and working conditions for staff, universities are forced to hire retired staff on short-term contracts. In terms of age, about 40 per cent of faculty staff of the public universities is above 45 years old. The aging faculty situation in public universities has led to the engagement of retired staff on a contract basis to address the shortage. Staff on contract constitutes about 10 per cent of the total number of faculty members (Manuh et al., 2005). The effects of the exodus of lecturers and research staff include excessive workload, less time for research, and prolonged service, which all undermine the quality of education at the tertiary level.

Student migration is another phenomenon that is believed to be on the rise in Ghana as well as in other ACP countries (IOM, 2002; Manuh et al., 2005). According to OECD (2002), *“student mobility is a potential flow of qualified workers, either in the course of studies or through subsequent recruitment. Student flows represent a form of migration of qualified labour and are also a precursor to subsequent migrations, mainly of human resources in science and technology.”* (Quoted in Piyasiri, 2002: 3).

In the health sector, Ghana required an estimated total workforce of 43,000 to meet the health needs of its population. However, only 2,211 doctors and 19,051 nurses, representing 49 per cent of the needed workforce, were available in 2000 (Nyonator et al., 2004). In 2002, the attrition rate³¹ among health professionals in Ghana was estimated at 3.7 per cent for doctors, less than one per cent for pharmacists, and 4.2 per cent for professional nurses/midwives (MOH, 2002). The emigration of nurses and doctors compared to other health professionals is considered a serious problem, due to their critical role in the health delivery system and their relative high visibility. The migration of nurses and doctors from Ghana has consequences for health delivery and the well-being of Ghanaians.

In addition, while the emigration of Ghanaian sportsmen, particularly football players, has provided enhanced training and other opportunities for individual players, it has also led to a decline in the performance of local football clubs and affected national development, given the contribution of sports to the Ghanaian economy (Manuh et al., 2005).

Generally, it is argued that the loss of skilled and experienced labour from developing countries further widens the gap between the countries of origin and destination. This is because the shortage of human capital in key sectors such as

³¹ Percentage rate reflecting the loss of personnel due to resignation, retirement, migration, sickness, death, etc. within a specific period of time

industry, health, and education hampers productivity and economic growth. It also leads to higher wages for the remaining skilled labour in response to their scarcity, thereby exacerbating income inequality. A case in point is the industrial action brought by the National Association of Graduate Teachers (NAGRAT) in 2006 for the upward adjustment of their emolument, in order to eliminate distortions created by increased remuneration for health workers. Moreover, the establishment of a highly skilled diaspora may give rise to a vicious cycle of human capital flight by constituting a pole of attraction for highly skilled workers, thereby facilitating the movement of others (UNFPA, 2004).

Migration nonetheless has the potential to mitigate the impact of skill loss, otherwise known as brain *drain*, by fostering remittances, the exchange and transfer of ideas, skills, and technologies back to their countries of origin. As an example, emigration of the highly skilled could motivate and enable other people to pursue higher education or skills training in anticipation of higher returns by filling the supply gap created. Eventually, there would be an overall increase in human capital within the country. Increased enrolment and the recent establishment of private nursing training colleges in Ghana are clear examples of this phenomenon.

A 1995 migration survey (Twum-Baah et al., 1995) indicated that 30 per cent of return migrants received some form of formal education abroad. Half of these return migrants received university education in their host country. Therefore, the return of highly trained manpower can contribute to human capital formation. Migration brings about a loss of human capital, but it also provides an opportunity for the acquisition of skills, experience, and knowledge, resulting in brain gain. Migration is also a potential resource for the socio-economic development of home countries. It can be an asset or liability, depending on how return migration takes place.

- **The family system**

Migration has social costs; it adversely affects families, particularly when the spouse or children are left behind. Migration creates a pool of single-parent families, since most of the time only one parent works outside their home countries and leaves the spouse and children behind. ILO (2004) observes that when mothers migrate, the consequences can even be more serious as their children oftentimes “*drop out of school or find themselves in vulnerable situations of neglect and abuse, including incest.*” Some emigrant couples from Ghana tend to send their children back home (these children are known as “postal babies”) to be cared for by relatives and friends. In response to the peculiar needs of such

children, some institutions with boarding or hostel facilities are being set up by the private sector. Furthermore, the separation of couples, in some instances, results in extramarital affairs, which create social tension. Additionally, those who migrate without proper documents may feel compelled to enter extramarital relations in order to regularize their stay (Manuh et al., 2005). Families in the diaspora also face tensions due to the socio-cultural adjustment that they have to undergo.

- **Networks and local development**

Ghana as a migration sending country benefits from diaspora networks through improved communication, trade relations, and capital flows between the sending and host countries. For example, in Ghana, the Akyem state has benefited from diaspora associations in the UK, the US, Canada, and other countries, through the provision of assistance in environmental projects (SEND, 2004). It has also become a practice for traditional leaders in Ghana to visit nationals abroad to solicit assistance towards development projects in their home communities.

Ghanaians abroad have made enormous contributions to mobilizing and transferring resources to improve the welfare of their counterparts at home. They are a key stakeholder in national development through various community-level development projects. There are many diaspora-supported development projects through the decentralized local government system or chieftaincy institution in the areas of health, education, skills training, etc. (SEND, 2004). For instance, the Korle-bu Teaching Hospital has received enormous support from the diaspora in recent times. Unfortunately, these efforts have not been formalized. Recently, the Ghana High Commissions in Sierra Leone and the UK initiated programmes to mobilize funds from the Ghanaian diaspora toward national development.³²

F.2 Impacts of migration policies on the development of the country

Ghana has enacted the Dual Citizenship Act (Act 591) and the Citizenship Regulations 2001 (L.I. 1691), which enable Ghanaian immigrants to acquire foreign nationality without losing their Ghanaian citizenship. Consequently, a total of 5,903 Ghanaians were granted dual citizenship status between January 2003 and August 2008 (Ministry of Interior, 2008). The enactment of the Law has

³² Also see <http://www.modernghana.com>

significantly encouraged the diasporas' interest and participation in local politics. Based on anecdotal evidence, a number of Ghanaian migrants are reported to have participated in the 2008 elections either directly or by funding political parties. In addition, the Representation of Peoples Amendment Law has been enacted to allow Ghanaians residing abroad to participate in the democratic process by voting in the general elections. Unfortunately, despite passage of the law, its implementation did not take off in the 2008 elections. Thus, the diaspora could only vote in Ghana provided they have registered in Ghana (also see Part C4).

PART G: Conclusions

G.1 Main findings on current migration trends

Migration to and from Ghana has closely followed the trend in economic performance and, to some extent, internal political instabilities of the past. In the colonial and early years of independence, when Ghana was considered as a relatively prosperous country, it was a country of immigration, attracting immigrants from neighbouring ECOWAS states. With the decline in the economy, many Ghanaians emigrated to look for better opportunities abroad. Currently, Ghana is described as an emigration country as more Ghanaians than non-Ghanaians leave than enter the country. Ghanaians also migrate to more diverse sets of destinations than ever before.

The emigration of Ghanaians has intensified over the past decades, especially to developed countries in the North. A significant proportion of the Ghanaian South-North migration is highly skilled. Forty-six per cent of tertiary-educated Ghanaians emigrate, mostly to the US and Europe (Docquier and Marfouk, 2005). Although reliable data on its actual impact is still lacking, highly skilled emigration is likely to have exacerbated already-existing labour shortages in critical sectors such as health and education. As discussed in Part F, over 60 per cent of faculty positions in polytechnics and 40 per cent of those in public universities are vacant (Manuh et al., 2005). In 2000, it was already estimated that only 49 per cent of the needed workforce in the health sector was available. This situation is unlikely to have changed greatly since then (Nyonator et al., 2004). Hospitals and other institutions of higher learning are struggling hard to retain staff, partly due to emigration.

Because of its skilled nature, South-North migration receives a great deal of policy attention. It is important to bear in mind, however, that more Ghanaians leave for African countries than for OECD countries. Seventy-one per cent of all Ghanaian migrants abroad stay in the West African region (DRC, 2007). The composition and contribution to the development of Ghana is poorly understood due to lack of data in the host countries in the West African region.

South-South migration also dominates immigration to Ghana. Approximately, 3.9 per cent of the total population are non-Ghanaian citizens, 82 per cent of whom are from Africa (GSS, 2002). Although non-Ghanaian immigrants from other parts of Africa make up a substantial and growing proportion of the Ghanaian population, their impact on the Ghanaian society and economy is not known due to lack of disaggregated labour market information and other social statistics.

Reliable data on emigration and immigration is important to support ongoing policy initiatives. Although Ghana does not have an explicit migration policy, it has introduced a set of initiatives to deal with specific migration issues. For example, regarding the Ghanaian diaspora, Ghana's *Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper II (GPRS II)* identifies the Ghanaian diaspora as a potential source of funding. Ghana missions abroad have been tasked to devise strategies to mobilize the Ghanaian diaspora and their resources for national development. A number of concrete measures have also been introduced to facilitate the return of the diaspora, such as new regulations concerning dual citizenship and the Representation of Peoples Amendment Law to allow Ghanaians abroad to hold dual nationality and to vote in general elections in Ghana.

A key policy issue is the coherence and coordination of these different initiatives. Different initiatives are sponsored by different donors and implemented by different ministries. This can create duplication and incoherence within the government's approach to migration. The government has recognized the issue of coordination by establishing an inter-ministerial Migration Unit under the auspices of the Ministry of Interior. The Migration Unit will also be in charge of updating Migration Profiles. At this stage, it is too early to say what impact of this measure will be as the proposed Migration Unit still awaits proper implementation. Yet it is an important step towards a more coherent and proactive approach towards migration management.

G.2 Recommendations on how to improve migration statistics

- **Data gaps and problems encountered**

One of the main data gaps is the absence of accurate statistics on the number of Ghanaians living outside the country. In addition, some of the immigrants and emigrants enter or leave the country through unauthorized routes. Since Ghana's borders are not effectively patrolled, it becomes difficult to obtain information on some movements. In view of this, many immigrants are staying in the country without permission and they are therefore not reflected in the GIS database. For instance, some nationals of ECOWAS member states enter the country as short-term emigrants but often stay beyond the mandatory 90 days.

Existing data from GIS does not permit a meaningful analysis due to the fact that the characteristics of immigrants and emigrants are not provided. The

data collected from persons arriving in and departing from Ghana has not been disaggregated by sex, age, occupation, level of education, etc. Also, GIS is unable to provide information on the characteristics (age, sex, nationality, educational attainment, marital status, occupation, etc.) of immigrants who applied for or are granted residence permit. Additionally, porous border controls and the use of unauthorized routes by emigrants and immigrants make it difficult to get accurate migration data.

Limited organization, coordination, and data sharing among the institutions that deal with immigrants and emigrants are a further weakness in policy formation. Due to security problems, foreign missions do not make information pertaining to their nationals and Ghanaians in their respective countries easily available. For instance, there is no institution in Ghana with the mandate to obtain information on visas issued and those overstaying their visas. Although GSS collects information about the population during census, it does not update the database regularly to provide current trends within census periods (ten years). Data is most of the time provided two or three years later, when it is almost outdated.

Other challenges include lack of willingness or cooperation on the part of bureaucrats in providing data, poor storage of national data in a user-friendly form, lack of support to institutions involved in data collection and research, as well as poor coordination among donors, MDAs and research and teaching centres to build on existing data and information.

- **Recommended actions/strategies to improve migration data**

In order to improve migration data, GIS requires capacity building to enable it to function effectively. Among other things, there is the need to recruit and train personnel with skills in statistics and information communication technology to enhance data gathering, entry, processing, and analysis.

More specifically, there is a need to redesign the embarkation and disembarkation forms that travellers are asked to complete in order to ensure the collection of relevant data. For instance, travellers are required to state occupation in their passports, which could differ from their current occupation.

Efforts should also be made to enable Ghanaians abroad, irrespective of their status, to register online with the Ghanaian missions in their destination countries. This could be done by designing a webpage and advertising it thoroughly.

Also, there should be effective collaboration between MDAs and research institutions such as ISSER and the Centre for Migration Studies to harmonize migration data collection or database.

- **Suggestions of how to update the national migration profile for Ghana**

The National Migration Profile should be updated regularly, at least every two years. Subsequent revisions should include data from a national migration survey (internal and international migration) and should constitute a panel. This could be done by interviewing the same households over time to ascertain dynamics. The GLSS 5 has some information on migration and remittances and steps should be taken to improve this dataset. Also, the GIS collects information on arrivals and departures from Ghana and this can be organized into a user-friendly format for updating the profile.

G.3 Recommendations regarding migration management

Migration can positively affect economic development if properly managed. It is therefore necessary that the appropriate policy environment is created to maximize the benefits and minimize the risks of migration. Properly managed migration should aid persons who have been forcibly displaced, prevent the exploitation of migrants, restrict illegal movements, and maintain mutually beneficial ties between those who have left and those who remained behind. To this end, managing migration in Ghana will involve obtaining a more precise reading of the actual number of Ghanaian migrants overseas.

The elements of migration management are complex and involve short-, medium-, and long-term measures. The government's policy towards retaining doctors by providing them with incentives to stay is commendable and such incentives could be extended to other professions that are short in supply and critical for national development.

Thus, a starting point for the country is to ensure an integrated and holistic approach for the development and implementation of migration management policy, involving major partners to engage in this migration policy arena, especially government, private sector, civil society, and trade unions at the country level.

It is also vital to promote and strengthen the impact of migration both for countries of origin and transit, by making sure that migration policies are part of comprehensive global policies and strategies. Donors and development

organizations must work in a coordinated manner to support migration policies and related activities. Currently, these activities lack coordination, resulting in the duplication of efforts.

In order to benefit from remittances, skills transfer and investment opportunities, it is necessary to create and maintain links between migrants and their countries of origin, and to tap into their potential by encouraging them to contribute human and financial capital to the development of their home communities. Migrants could make best use of economic opportunities at home if internal mobility is facilitated by both the source and host countries and communities. The outward transfer of remittances through MTOs such as Western Union and Moneygram is currently restricted. This poses a serious limitation for diaspora members who wish to invest in Ghana.

More importantly, a database on migration information should be created. Such database will incorporate research into the reasons why people move or do not move to assist in designing effective migration policies.

In conclusion, there is a need for a comprehensive migration policy to coordinate the various actors in the migration process. Such a policy should be informed by careful and comprehensive data collection. This migration profile for Ghana is part of this larger data collection effort.

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ANNEX I: Statistics

Table 29: Regional distribution of labour force, 1970-2000 (%)

Region	1970	1984	2000
Ashanti	21.0	17.1	19.4
Brong Ahafo	12.0	9.8	9.9
Central	10.3	9.3	8.1
Eastern	17.2	14.0	11.2
Greater Accra	10.9	11.6	16.6
Northern	10.4	8.4	8.8
Upper East	11.5	6.4	4.3
Upper West	-	3.6	2.9
Volta	12.3	10.0	8.4
Western	9.2	9.8	10.3
Overall	38.9	45.4	43.8
Overall Population	8,559,313	12,296,081	18,912,079
Labour force	4,543,348	5,580,104	8,292,114

Source: GSS, 2005b

Table 30: Rate of unemployment by level of educational attainment and sex, 2000 (%)

	Males	Females	Total
None	44.7	39.2	49.9
Pre-school	0.2	0.2	0.2
Primary	5.7	5.2	6.2
Middle/JSS	29.5	31.6	27.4
Secondary	9.6	11.8	7.6
Vocational/Technical	4.8	5.6	4.0
Post-secondary	2.8	3.1	2.5
Tertiary	2.7	3.2	2.1
Unemployed	863,740	421,722	442,018
Labour force	8,292,114	4,170,609	4,121,505
Population	18,912,079	9,357,382	9,554,697

Source: GSS, 2005b

Table 31: Rate of unemployment by region and locality, 2000 (%)

Region	Urban	Rural	Total
Ashanti	14.4	8.1	11.3
Brong Ahafo	10.0	5.8	7.3
Central	10.2	6.9	8.1
Eastern	10.2	7.5	8.4
Greater Accra	13.0	9.7	13.4
Northern	12.7	8.5	9.5
Upper East	14.9	21.0	20.1
Upper West	18.6	14.3	15.0
Volta	9.0	7.0	7.5
Western	12.4	6.8	8.8
Overall	12.8	8.6	10.4
Labour force	3,631,946	4,660,168	8,292,114
Population	8,2742,70	10,637,809	18,912,079

Source: GSS, 2005

Table 32: Arrivals and departures from/to Ghana by nationality, 2000-2007

NATIONALITIES	2000		2001		2002		2003	
	ARR	DEP	ARR	DEP	ARR	DEP	ARR	DEP
AFRICANS								
GHANAISANS	85,683	110,718	128,201	121,159	110,376	158,212	145,878	143,367
IVORIANS	18,687	11,168	33,865	30,043	6,191	3,873	18,056	7,420
BURKINABES	1,917	10,044	9,755	4,536	9,603	2,669	9,117	7,750
NIGERIANS	28,489	40,753	44,929	53,884	24,718	22,768	50,146	30,998
LIBERIANS	5,932	7,575	16,343	11,845	4,898	6,757	10,247	11,624
SOUTH AFRICANS	2,270	2,458	3,100	3,113	3,625	2,844	7,987	3,875
TOGOLESE	5,906	13,885	21,681	16,420	5,643	4,457	13,676	7,493
<i>Total</i>	<i>148,884</i>	<i>182,726</i>	<i>257,874</i>	<i>224,590</i>	<i>165,054</i>	<i>201,580</i>	<i>255,107</i>	<i>212,527</i>
EUROPEANS								
FRENCH	2,912	4,658	5,215	4,750	4,270	4,757	4,993	3,441
GERMANS	6,064	5,844	7,810	6,368	9,161	6,817	8,860	8,007
DUTCH	6,682	6,191	8,197	6,146	10,498	10,240	9,374	7,623
BRITISH	11,589	20,957	23,330	61,476	23,969	26,166	18,414	23,249
<i>Total</i>	<i>27,247</i>	<i>37,650</i>	<i>44,552</i>	<i>78,740</i>	<i>47,898</i>	<i>47,980</i>	<i>41,641</i>	<i>42,320</i>
N. AMERICANS								
AMERICANS	13,603	116,322	28,421	22,403	34,402	32,225	36,469	34,873
CANADIANS	2,969	3,887	4,361	4,270	4,270	4,568	9,286	7,581
<i>Total</i>	<i>16,572</i>	<i>120,209</i>	<i>32,782</i>	<i>26,673</i>	<i>38,672</i>	<i>36,793</i>	<i>45,755</i>	<i>42,454</i>
ASIANS								
CHINESE	1,455	1,684	1,962	1,945	2,511	1,706	4,125	4,309
INDIANS	2,586	3,116	4,737	3,848	4,752	6,271	8,948	7,919
LEBANESE	1,558	1,588	2,826	2,807	3,531	5,278	4,668	3,766
<i>Total</i>	<i>5,599</i>	<i>6,388</i>	<i>9,525</i>	<i>8,600</i>	<i>10,794</i>	<i>13,255</i>	<i>17,741</i>	<i>15,994</i>
OTHERS								
AUSTRALIANS	1,363	24,937	1,537	1,646	1,548	1,336	4,450	3,984
OTHER NATIONALITIES	256,610	91,401	263,552	51,113	320,046	191,794	324,276	62,119
<i>Total</i>	<i>257,973</i>	<i>116,338</i>	<i>265,089</i>	<i>52,759</i>	<i>321,594</i>	<i>193,130</i>	<i>328,726</i>	<i>66,103</i>
GRAND TOTAL	456,275	477,186	609,822	407,772	584,392	492,738	688,970	387,477

Table 32: Arrivals and departures from/to Ghana by nationality, 2000-2007 (con't)

NATIONALITIES	2004		2005		2006		2007	
	ARR	DEP	ARR	DEP	ARR	DEP	ARR	DEP
AFRICANS								
GHANAIAANS	136,799	139,349	125,594	151,716	162,624	195,711	195,817	224,372
IVORIANS	16,921	15,065	15,530	16,402	20,149	21,158	25,550	24,277
BURKINABES	8,550	7,532	7,850	8,201	10,164	10,575	11,939	10,422
NIGERIANS	47,025	30,130	43,173	32,803	55,902	42,316	56,702	56,987
LIBERIANS	9,680	11,299	6,720	12,301	11,294	15,868	13,037	15,712
SOUTH AFRICANS	7,420	3,766	8,980	4,100	9,034	5,290	9,127	9,670
TOGOLESE	12,825	7,275	11,774	7,944	15,246	10,322	17,364	17,298
<i>Total</i>	<i>239,220</i>	<i>214,416</i>	<i>219,621</i>	<i>233,467</i>	<i>284,413</i>	<i>301,240</i>	<i>329,536</i>	<i>358,738</i>
EUROPEANS								
FRENCH	4,709	3,332	3,925	3,666	5,516	4,856	8,581	9,055
GERMANS	8,293	7,789	7,593	8,458	9,907	10,836	12,188	13,462
DUTCH	8,807	7,405	8,107	8,074	10,421	10,579	13,250	12,832
BRITISH	17,279	22,597	15,878	24,603	20,507	31,737	30,650	380,32
<i>Total</i>	<i>39,088</i>	<i>41,123</i>	<i>35,503</i>	<i>44,801</i>	<i>46,351</i>	<i>58,008</i>	<i>64,669</i>	<i>73,381</i>
N. AMERICANS								
AMERICANS	34,200	33,896	31,399	36,904	40,656	47,605	49,224	56,715
CANADIANS	8,719	7,363	8,019	8,032	10,333	10,410	9,097	10,711
<i>Total</i>	<i>42,919</i>	<i>41,259</i>	<i>39,418</i>	<i>44,936</i>	<i>50,989</i>	<i>58,015</i>	<i>58,321</i>	<i>67,426</i>
ASIANS								
CHINESE	3,841	4,200	3,491	4,534	4,648	5,724	5,627	6,377
INDIANS	8,381	7,701	7,681	8,370	9,995	10,748	10,765	12,383
LEBANESE	4,384	3,657	3,816	3,991	5,191	5,181	7,154	8,174
<i>Total</i>	<i>16,606</i>	<i>15,558</i>	<i>14,988</i>	<i>16,895</i>	<i>19,834</i>	<i>21,653</i>	<i>23,546</i>	<i>26,934</i>
OTHERS								
AUSTRALIANS	4,166	3,875	4,034	4,209	4,973	5,399	2,965	3,522
OTHER NATIONALITIES	240,109	60,389	78,890	65,734	101,639	84,629	101,858	91,563
<i>Total</i>	<i>244,275</i>	<i>64,264</i>	<i>82,924</i>	<i>69,943</i>	<i>106,612</i>	<i>90,028</i>	<i>104,823</i>	<i>95,085</i>
GRAND TOTAL	582,108	376,620	392,454	410,042	508,199	528,948	580,895	621,564

Source: GSS, 2008

Table 33: Ghanaian emigrants by destination, 2008

Country of Residence	Registered	Estimate	Detainees
Sri Lanka	60	-	-
Senegal	4,500	-	1
Cape Verde	500	-	4
Gambia	2,000	-	-
Morocco	400	-	5
United Kingdom	46,046	300-500,000	-
Malaysia	150	-	4
Thailand	-	150-200	41
Philippines	-	30-35	3
Brunei	1	-	-
Timor-Leste (UN Mission)	12	-	-
Belgium	16,000	-	22
Luxemburg	24	-	-
French Guiana	1,400	-	-
Guinea-Bissau	300	-	-
Brazil	200	-	-
Spain	11,605	20,000	241
Cuba	40	-	4
Panama	5	-	-
Jamaica	73	-	2
Trinidad and Tobago	150	-	8
Barbados	13	-	2
Mali	3,390	5,000	4
Germany	20,392	-	108
Estonia	1	-	-
Czech Republic	110	-	-
Hungary	65	-	1
Slovenia	50	-	-
Total	107,487	25,735	450

Source: Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2008

Table 34: Ghanaian students on scholarship to study abroad, 2007/08

Country	New students	Continuing Students		Total
		Undergraduates	Graduates	
Algeria	10	27	10	47
Australia	-	-	3	3
Canada	-	-	9	9
China	9	3	13	25
Cuba	17	36	4	57
Czech Republic	4	20	1	25
Germany	1	-	9	10
Hong Kong SAR	-	-	1	1
Morocco	45	198	4	247
Russian Federation	32	129	2	163
South Africa	-	-	2	2
Singapore	-	-	1	1
Turkey	5	5	-	10
United Kingdom	20	-	100	120
United States	3	-	31	34
Language students (max. one year; various destinations)	357	-	-	357
Total	503	418	190	1111

Source: National Scholarships Secretariat, August 2008

Table 35: Number of VoT assisted in Ghana, 2003-2008

		2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Total
GENDER	MALE	102	182	74	36	20	27	441
	FEMALE	48	98	33	15	7	9	210
TYPE OF EXPLOITATION	SEXUAL EXPLOITATION	0	0	0	1	2	0	3
	LABOUR EXPLOITATION	150	280	107	50	25	36	648
TYPE OF TRAFFICKING	INTERNAL TRAFFICKING	150	280	107	50	25	36	648
	INTERNATIONAL TRAFFICKING	0	0	0	1	2	0	3
ORIGIN	GHANAIAN	150	280	107	51	27	36	651
	FOREIGNER VOT EXPLOITED IN GHANA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL		150	280	107	51	27	36	651

Source: IOM, 2008a

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