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# GHANA 2021 POPULATION AND HOUSING CENSUS



## *Thematic Report*

# MIGRATION



The AFRICA We Want



THE COORDINATED PROGRAMME OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT POLICIES 2017-2024  
AN AGENDA FOR JOBS: CREATING PROSPERITY AND EQUAL OPPORTUNITY FOR ALL



TRANSFORMING OUR WORLD  
THE 2030 AGENDA FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT



GHANA STATISTICAL SERVICE  
MARCH 2023



# GHANA 2021 POPULATION AND HOUSING CENSUS PUBLICATIONS

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	Illiteracy in Ghana: Trends, Patterns, and Correlates
	Girl Child: Status and Vulnerabilities
	Childhood Vulnerabilities in Ghana
	<b>Thematic Report on Migration</b>
Volume 5	Analytical Reports
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## PREFACE

Migration has been an enduring component of the world's history and demographic process. Migrants move within their own country and between countries; some people move for short periods, others permanently; some are forced to move, others do so voluntarily; some people move with high levels of financial and human capital, others are not so well endowed; and so on.

People move from one place to another for several reasons some of which include improvement of living, enhancement of economic opportunities, political factors, conflicts, drought and other environmental problems, conditions, and accessibility of social services.

For the first time the United Nations has included issues on migration in the framework for post 2015 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) by making seven references to migrants because of the importance of migration. SDGs 10 and 11 (Reduce inequality within and among countries and make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient, and sustainable), are direct calls on governments to address migration-related problems faced by people who are involved in it.

Migration can transform the individuals who move, the societies they move into and even the societies they leave behind. As migration trends and patterns on the continent and in the world kept changing, the Government of Ghana recognized the need to address migration issues comprehensively and in cooperation with other countries. This led to the development of the national migration policy in 2016.

Currently, the Government of Ghana is creating a database for migration management and has brought on board all key stakeholders to contribute to it in the form of regular reporting. The database will serve as reference point for evidence-based policy formulation, development of strategies, programmes, and activities for effective migration governance. The thematic report on migration feeds into this endeavour. The report touches on the levels, trends and regional differentials in internal migration, determinants of internal migration in Ghana and their evolution over the past two censuses.

In general, the importance of census data for the socio-economic development of a country cannot be overemphasised. Data from the 2021 Population and Housing Census (PHC) will serve as reference for the distribution of resources, government services and the allocation of government funds among various regions and districts for effective planning and evidenced-based decision making.

The 2021 PHC Thematic Report on Migration is one of the thematic reports aimed at making data available to planners and decision makers at regional and national levels. The objective of this report is to describe, analyse and provide explanation for patterns, trends, and the future perspective of both internal and external migration in Ghana. The report dwells mainly on the 2021 PHC, supported with data from previous ones, mainly those of 2000 and 2010. Conclusions and recommendations from this report are expected to serve as a basis for improving the quality of life of migrants, both internal

and external, through evidence-based policy formulation, planning, monitoring and evaluation of developmental goals and intervention programmes.

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## ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AU	African Union
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EU	European Union
GPRS	Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy
GNCM	Ghana National Commission on Migration
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IOM	International Organisation on Migration
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MER	Migration Effectiveness Ratio
MMDAs	Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies
NMP	National Migration Policy
PHC	Population and Housing Census
ROPAL	Representation of the People's Amendment Law
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

# CHAPTER ONE

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Migration occupies an important place in the process of compilation, analysis and dissemination of national data, not only because it is one of the components of population change, but also because it is integral to development, for both individuals and nations (UN, 2009). The World Bank (2009) affirms that migration is essential to the efficient and effective functioning of cities and regions, labour markets and communities. Migration is one demographic phenomenon which is not easy to conceptualise, thereby making accurate data on the phenomenon generally scanty.

Nonetheless, the central role played by migration in the livelihood and advancement strategies of both rural and urban populations has not been lost on planners and policy makers. As a result, for several decades, the United Nations has recommended that nations include in their census undertakings questions to elicit migration information. In compliance, Ghana has been including migration questions in all censuses since 1960.

As part of its mandate, the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) has been collecting, compiling, and analysing socio-economic data and ensures that these are made available to users. This has necessitated the regular publishing of data from administrative records to complement information from censuses and surveys. Following the completion of the most recent Population and Housing Census (PHC) in June 2021, GSS released the first product, the Preliminary Report, in September 2021. The report contains provisional results of the census and provides information on population size, sex composition and household size by region. It also includes the number and types of structures, their level of completion and their use.

To enhance the utilisation of the 2021 census data, GSS is, in addition to publishing statistical tables, conducting further analysis of the data and preparing thematic reports. Conclusions and recommendations from these reports are expected to serve as a basis for improving the quality of life of Ghanaians through evidence-based policy formulation, planning and monitoring of development goals and implementation of intervention programmes.

Among the expected outputs from the 2021 PHC data are national, regional and district analytical reports. In addition, there will be several thematic and analytical reports, one of which is this report on migration. To maximise the use of census as a source of migration statistics, the UN recommends, among other things, that the data collected are fully analysed, evaluated, and disseminated. Countries are also enjoined to seek a possibility of integrating a census with other administrative sources of data. It is in line with this, that a separate detailed analysis of the 2021 PHC data on migration has been undertaken.

## 1.1. Background and Context

Ghana is set within the West African sub-region where there are a broad range of ecosystems, bioclimatic regions, and habitats from rainforest to desert. The natural features of the sub-region and the responses of people to the patterns of its biophysical resources through human land uses all tend to be arranged along east-west belts. While there is virtually no variation in the bioclimatic regions from east to west, there are wide variations from north to south. In response, movement of people in the sub-region for livelihood support has generally been from north to south. This pattern of movement has further been re-enforced by the location of natural resources with the south being better endowed than the north. To a very large extent, this bigger pattern of bioclimatic regions is replicated, albeit on a smaller scale, within Ghana, and this has shaped the movement of people over the years along similar lines.

Like most of West Africa, the northern part of Ghana has only one rainy season, which lasts from one to six months. The area of two rainy seasons, a long one and a shorter one, is limited to the southern part of the country. Thus, Ghana experiences two types of rainy seasons, the single maximum type in the north, and the double maxima type in the south. Altogether, there are nine ecological zones in Ghana, which could be broadly categorised into three vegetation zones, namely, the high forest zone, the transitional zone, and the savannah zone (Hall and Swane, 1981). The savannah zone and the transitional zone together cover two-thirds of the country (15.6 million hectares) and they cover the middle to the northern part of the country.

From the foregoing, the patterns of migration that have evolved over the years, both within the country and between Ghana and other countries in the West African sub-region, could be appreciated. It is further enhanced when it is looked at through the lens of the so-called push-pull model for the explanation of the causes of migration. In its most limited form, the push-pull model consists of some negative or push factors in the country of origin, or the usual place of residence in a part of a country, that cause people to move away, in combination with other positive or pull factors that attract migrants to a receiving country or part of a country. Some of the push factors may include economic, social, and political hardships in poorer countries or deprived areas within a country, while the pull factors may include the comparative advantages in richer countries or better endowed areas within a country.

Based on this model the fundamental assumptions are that the more disadvantaged a place is, the more likely it will push out migrants, and that, given inequalities, there will be migration. This then explains the historical movement of people from the less endowed northern part of the country to the better endowed southern part. At the sub-regional level, it also explains Ghana's changing fortunes in the attraction of migrants over the years. Studies have observed that swings in migration in West Africa are determined by the changes in economic conditions within the sub-region. When economic conditions are good in a country, it attracts migrants, when conditions deteriorate, it sends away migrants. Until the 1960s, Ghana was the leading destination for migrants in the West African sub-region when it was overtaken by Cote d'Ivoire. Currently, Ghana's migration

situation has been complex, serving as a receiving country, a sending country, and a transit country for migrants at the same time.

Ghana's population which stood at 6,726,815 in 1960, almost tripled to 18,912,079 in 2000 and increased to 30,832,019 in 2021, growing at an average rate of 2.5% per annum over the period. Up to 2000, majority of Ghana's population lived in rural areas. In 2010, for the first time, more than half (50.9%), of Ghana's population lived in urban areas and the proportion increased to 56.7% in 2021.

Ghana's political scene has seen some turbulent years in the past, with governments changing from civilian to military rules and vice versa. However, since the inception of its fourth republic in 1993, there have been several peaceful transitions of power, and the country is hailed as a beacon of democracy in the West African sub-region. Ghana also gained middle-income status in 2010, the result of sustained economic growth since the 1990s. A member of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), Ghana has been implementing the 1979 Protocol on Free Movement of Persons, which stipulates the right of ECOWAS citizens to enter, reside and establish economic activities in the territory of other member states.

Ghana adopted the decentralisation policy of government in 1988 and went on to establish district assemblies to implement national policies related to governance, education, health, and agricultural development at the local level. As late as 2018 there were ten administrative regions in Ghana. The former ten regional boundaries were officially established in 1987, when the Upper West Region was inaugurated as the country's newest administrative region. Until then, Upper West Region had already functioned as an administrative unit since the break-up of the Upper Region in December 1982, prior to the 1984 census. Then on 27 December 2018, a referendum was held on the creation of six new regions and all proposed new regions were approved, bringing the total number of regions to sixteen just before the 2021 census (which was originally scheduled for 2020). The sixteen regions are further divided for administrative purposes into 261 metropolitan, municipal and district assemblies (MMDAs).

## **1.2. Policies and Programmes that Have Contributed to Migration Management in Ghana**

Ghana was without a comprehensive Migration Policy document until 2016 and managed migration in an ad hoc manner until then. Migration, both internal and external, was regulated by certain provisions in the 1992 Constitution of Ghana, the Immigration Act 2000 (Act 573) and its relevant Legislative Instrument, Citizenship Act 2000 (Act 591), Labour Act, and the Representation of People's Amendment Law (ROPAL), amongst others. To ensure that government's efforts at managing movement of people into and out of, and within the country remain coordinated in a comprehensive manner, the Migration Unit within the Ministry of the Interior was created in 2009 to coordinate migration and its related activities in Ghana.

As migration trends and patterns on the continent and in the world kept changing, the Government of Ghana recognised the need to address migration issues



comprehensively and in cooperation with other countries. This is premised on the fact that migration is a fundamental requirement for responsible national governance and effective international relations. Ghana, therefore, developed a National Migration Policy (NMP) which seeks, among other things, to address the plight of vulnerable Ghanaian migrants worldwide, particularly those trafficked for domestic purposes for implementation.

The Policy, which was the first to be formulated since Ghana's independence in 1957, was framed against the backdrop of several policy frameworks both national and international, including the Constitution of Ghana, Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS) 1 & 2, Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (2010-2013), and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The policy was anchored within the context of the 2006 African Union (AU) Strategic Framework for Migration and the 2008 ECOWAS Common Approach on Migration. The NMP has comprehensive policy guidelines and principles which assist other key stakeholder organisations in the sphere of migration management to formulate and implement their own national migration policies in accordance with their priorities and resources. For instance, the Ghana National Labour Migration policy was drafted out of the NMP. Currently, the Diaspora Engagement Policy is being drafted to protect and support the diaspora community, confirming the commitment of government to ensure effective and efficient migration management in Ghana.

Other policies which contribute to migration management in Ghana include the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), ECOWAS Protocol on Free Movement of Persons and Goods, ratified conventions and protocols (International Convention for the Suppression of the traffic of women and children, ILO Convention No. 118 concerning Equality of Treatment (social security) 1962, etc.). Simply put, the Government considers AU priorities, policies, Agenda 2063, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and international migration management policies and standards in managing migration,

Over the past few years Government's focus has been to enhance the potential of migration for Ghana's development. The various policies and programmes being implemented aim to ensure effective coordination of existing migration-related policies and legislations, promote and protect the interests, rights, security and welfare of citizens and migrants within and outside Ghana, and create an enabling platform for national, regional, and global migration dialogue to counter xenophobia, racism, discrimination, ethnocentrism, vulnerability, and gender inequality within and outside Ghana.

Currently, Government is creating a database for migration management in which all key stakeholders have been brought on board to contribute in the form of regular reporting. The database will serve as reference point for evidence-based policy formulation, development of strategies, programmes and activities for effective migration governance.

Most importantly, the Government has initiated steps towards the establishment of the Ghana National Commission on Migration (GNCM) as stipulated in the NMP to serve as an advisory body on issues pertaining to migration and its related issues.

Further to this, Government's flagship programmes (Free Senior High School [SHS]); One District-One Factory; and Planting for Food and Jobs, to mention a few) have been intensified to create more employment opportunities to reduce irregular migration. For instance, the free education programme seeks to equip the youth with relevant skills to make them more employable and thereby discourage them from engaging in irregular migration. Noteworthy is the coherent coordination between government institutions responsible for migration management at local and national levels. Government continues to build capacity of border authorities to strengthen and facilitate safe, orderly, and regular migration, and put in place measures to protect vulnerable migrants, maximise and improve efficiency of remittance transfer mechanisms. Also, strategies and policies to strengthen diaspora participation in Ghana's development agenda is ongoing.

The governance of migration requires cooperation among the many different actors in the field. To effectively coordinate migration and its related issues for efficient migration governance, there is always the need for technical and financial resources.

Ghana continues to take measures to ensure that decisions on migration into and out of the country are in line with the UN conventions of which Ghana is a signatory. There is, therefore, collaboration between Ghana and the various UN agencies dealing with migration, including the UNFPA, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), and the International Labour Organisation (ILO) as well as multilateral institutions such as IOM, World Bank and the EU. The UN agencies and multilateral institutions provide support for the development of policies, return and reintegration, capacity building in migration management amongst others. Ghana maintains engagement and collaboration with development partners for effective migration governance.

### **1.3. Objectives of the Report**

The main objective of this report is to describe, analyse and provide explanation for patterns, trends, and the future perspective of both internal and external migration in Ghana. The report dwells mainly on the 2021 Population and Housing Census (PHC), supported with data from previous ones, mainly those of 2000 and 2010. Specific objectives of this report are to:

- a) Analyse the levels, trends and regional differentials in internal migration, determinants of internal migration in Ghana and their evolution over the past two censuses.
- b) Describe the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of migrants and their living conditions.
- c) Compute migration indicators (in migration rates, out migration rates, gross migration rates, net migration rates, migration effectiveness ratios) and the difference between intra- and inter-regional migration and other types of migration.
- d) Analyse the contribution of internal migration to urbanisation and population growth in the regions.

- e) Analyse immigration by age, sex, country of origin, place of birth, duration of stay, main reason for moving to Ghana, economic activities (employment and unemployment), occupation, industry, employment status, employment sector.
- f) Analyse emigration by age, sex, country of destination, year of departure (or duration of stay abroad) and main reason for travelling.
- g) Propose policies and programmes needed to address observed problems in the management of migration in Ghana.
- h) Propose the review of concepts used to measure migration in Ghana.
- i) Propose areas for further research on migration in Ghana.

The report considers previous recommendations from censuses and either revises or reinforces them to throw some light on migration in Ghana for the purpose of policymaking and planning.

## **1.4. Methodology**

The 2021 PHC is the main source of data for the analysis of the report. Mainly for purposes of comparison, references are made to data from previous censuses, particularly the last two, 2000 and 2010. Earlier publications on the 2021 PHC have given detailed information on the methods and procedures used to conduct the census, including the Preliminary Report, and several volumes on Fertility and Mortality, Water and Sanitation, ICT, etc. Other supporting information, such as causes of migration and changes therein were gathered from previous studies on migration by GSS (e.g., GSS 1995; 2013) and some researchers and individuals. Variables for internal migration were derived from Nationality (Question P03), Birthplace (Questions P05 and P06); Place of Residence (Questions P07 to P08a-c) [See Table 1.1 for further information on definitions]. Variables for external migration were derived from the Section on Emigration (Questions E01 and E02a-h). Questions were asked of household members who had been living continuously, or intended to live continuously, outside the country for at least 12 months. These were linked to variables from other sections of the questionnaire including Socio-demographic Characteristics, Literacy and Education, Economic Activity, Information and Communication Technology (ICT), Housing, Water and Sanitation, and Difficulties in Performing Activities.

**TABLE 1.1: DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS**

<b>2010 PHC Question</b>	<b>Migrant Determination</b>	<b>Non-migrant</b>	<b>2021 PHC Question</b>	<b>Migrant Determination</b>	<b>Non-migrant</b>
<p><b>P05 BIRTHPLACE:</b> Was (NAME) born in this town/village? If Yes, go to P07.</p>	<p>Person enumerated in a place different from the place where s/he was born</p> <p><i>A NO answer is a migrant.</i></p>	<p>Person enumerated in the place where s/he was born</p> <p><i>A YES answer is a non-migrant.</i></p>	<p><b>Census P05</b> Was [NAME] born in this village/town? Yes.....1 <b>(GO TO P07)</b> No.....2</p>	<p>Person enumerated in a place different from the place where s/he was born</p> <p><i>A NO answer is a migrant.</i></p>	<p>Person enumerated in the place where s/he was born</p> <p><i>A YES answer is a non-migrant</i></p>
<p><b>P06 BIRTHPLACE:</b> In what region or country was (NAME) born?</p>	<p>Person enumerated in a place different from the place where s/he was born</p> <p>Internal migrant = person born in Ghana outside the place of enumeration</p> <p>International migrant = person born outside Ghana</p> <p><i>All respondents are migrants.</i></p>		<p><b>P06</b> In which district or country was [NAME] born?  <b>GO TO P08a</b></p>	<p>Person enumerated in a place different from the place where s/he was born</p> <p>Internal migrant = person born in Ghana outside the place of enumeration</p> <p>International migrant = person born outside Ghana</p> <p><i>All respondents are migrants.</i></p>	
<p><b>P07 LIVING IN THIS TOWN/VILLAGE:</b> Has (NAME) been living in this town or village since birth? If Yes, go to P09.</p>	<p>Person who has not lived in the place of enumeration for her/his entire life</p> <p><i>A NO answer is a Migrant.</i></p>	<p>Person who has lived in the place of enumeration for her/his entire life</p> <p><i>A YES answer is a non-migrant.</i></p>	<p><b>P07 LIVING IN THIS VILLAGE/ TOWN</b> Has [NAME] been living continuously in this village or town since birth? Yes.....1 <b>(GO TO P09)</b> No.....2</p>	<p>Person who has not lived in the place of enumeration for her/his entire life</p> <p><i>A NO answer is a migrant.</i></p>	<p>Person who has lived in the place of enumeration for his/her entire life</p> <p><i>A YES answer is a non-migrant</i></p>
<p><b>P08 NUMBER OF YEARS LIVED IN THIS TOWN/VILLAGE:</b> For how long has (NAME) been living in this town or village?</p>	<p>Person who has lived in the place of enumeration for a period less than her/his Age</p>	<p>Person who has lived in the place of enumeration for her/his entire life</p>	<p><b>P08a NUMBER OF YEARS LIVED IN THIS VILLAGE/TOWN</b> For how long has [NAME] been living continuously in this village or town?</p>	<p>Person who has lived in the place of enumeration for a period less than her/his age</p>	<p>Person who has lived in the place of enumeration for her/his entire life</p>

Source: Adapted from Lattof et al., 2018, Page 1190

Simple descriptive analysis, largely bi-variate, is used to describe patterns of migration as well as variations and differences in migration by region and some socio-demographic variables as described above. A few projections have been made to capture migration outlook and these have been complemented with some trend analysis. Comparisons are made among different groups of migrants as well as between migrants and non-migrants. The national coverage of the census could allow the analysis to be made at both the national and sub-national levels. However, in this report the analysis was limited to the regional level because of certain challenges at the district level. Key among them was the frequent changes of district boundaries, although this was not limited to the districts only during the 2021 PHC. Just before the beginning of the 2021 PHC, six new regions were created, bringing the total number of regions to 16. Demarcating the new regions out of the old ones to which they belonged has been made since no districts were broken up in the process of the creation of the new regions. The extent of the analysis of migration and related issues in this report goes only as far as the questions asked in the census would allow. As much as possible data from other sources have been used to supplement those from the censuses.

## **1.5. Limitations**

There are a few limitations that could affect the final report, especially when comparing data from different censuses. Firstly, in the 2010 Population and Housing Census, the reference period for the migration question was 6 months or more but during the 2021 Population and Housing Census, the period was 12 months or more.

Again, the question on usual place of residence of migrants was not asked during the 2000 and 2010 censuses, but this question was asked during the 2021 PHC. During the 2010 Population and Housing Census, questions on household members who have travelled outside the country were limited to persons 15 years and older, while in the 2021 PHC, the question covered each member of the household irrespective of age. Also, reasons for migrating within the country was asked during the 2021 PHC but not during the 2000 and 2010 censuses. During the 2021 census, the migration information was collected at the district level compared to the 2000 and 2010 censuses where the information was collected at the regional level.

Information on emigrants was collected from their former household members who are living in Ghana. The proxy response could lead to inaccurate information. In a situation where the entire household has travelled outside the country, no information would have been obtained, and this could lead to undercount of the emigrant population. In addition, available studies (UN, 2017; 2010) show that the emigration module cannot provide an accurate count of the total number of emigrants residing abroad. Nonetheless, emigrants who left the country in recent years (up to about 5 years before the census), and those who keep close ties with members of the households they left can be relatively well-covered.

Lastly, during the 2000 and 2010 PHC, there were 10 administrative regions. In 2021, six additional regions were created making them 16 regions. This will certainly create challenges in aligning populations to their places of origin and to determine trends and patterns of migration.

## **1.6. Structure of the Report**

The report consists of six chapters. Chapter one starts with an introduction which is followed with the background information providing context, and the objectives of the report. The chapter also outlines the methodology used to conduct the analysis, some limitations, and the structure of the report. The second chapter puts migration in Ghana in a historical perspective. The chapter begins with the explanation of working concepts and definitions of migration as used in the report, with the view to establishing the uniqueness of the report to Ghana. It is followed with information on migration into and out of Ghana and ends with a discussion on the causes and consequences of migration in Ghana. The chapter then brings out some emerging issues in migration in Ghana and ends with a discussion of the role of migration in the development of the country. The third chapter looks at the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of migrants. This is followed by the analysis of patterns, trends, and differentials in migration with emphasis on patterns of migration over time, regional variation in migration, intra- versus inter-regional migration, migration and urbanisation, migration and living standards, in chapter four. There is a section in the chapter on the non-Ghanaian population, which describes their basic characteristics. Chapter five focuses on emigration from Ghana and brings out the characteristics of emigrants, their regional distribution, and country of destination, year of departure and reasons for emigrating. The final chapter summarises key findings and makes some policy recommendations and implications.

## CHAPTER TWO

### 2. MIGRATION IN GHANA IN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

#### 2.1. Introduction

Migration has been pivotal to Ghana's socio-economic development over the years, yet not much attention has been accorded to it at policy level until recently. While distinct international and internal patterns of movement could be identified, there are also points where the two types of migration merge or become almost indistinguishable. One other aspect of migratory movements in Ghana is that they are closely linked to those of the West African sub-region, and indeed the whole of Africa. This is underscored by Prothero's observation that migratory movements have been a feature of Africa in the past and one of its most important demographical features at the present day (Prothero, 1960). The Trans-Saharan caravan routes are among the earliest evidence of major interaction between West and North Africa for trading and exchange of scholars. Some major trading centres on this route were found in present-day Ghana, including Salaga and Yendi. Contacts with Europeans from the 1400s brought some new dimensions into the phenomenon and new patterns of movements were created (Ofosu-Mensah, 1999). Thus, well before independence in 1957, the patterns of migration in West Africa as they relate to Ghana, had already been established and these have largely persisted until today.

Ghana was a preferred destination for many non-nationals mainly from other African countries in the colonial period and during the early years of independence (Anarfi, et al., 2003). The colonial administrators initiated moves to exploit the country's rich natural resources, and this opened the door for an influx of migrant labourers from other countries in the West African sub-region (Ofosu-Mensah, 1999). This trend continued into the early years of independence when the new indigenous government embarked on massive construction efforts as a way of improving the life of its people (Nyame, Grant, and Yakovieva, 2009). It was also in line with the first president's open-door policy in the interest of African unity (Kaba, 2017). The *laissez faire* approach to international migration was given a jolt in 1966 when the first president was overthrown in a coup d'état, which ushered in a period of political instability. By the end of the 1960-70 decade the country's economy had started experiencing a downturn and aliens were partly blamed for this. There was thus an open call for government to take a serious look at the place of aliens in the Ghanaian economy. In response, the government passed the Aliens Compliance Order in November 1969, which gave all undocumented non-nationals in the country two weeks to regularise their stay or leave the country.

The government's approach to internal migration was not any different. Policy response seemed to portray rural to urban migration as the most important in terms of volume and impact, although available literature points to the contrary. Urban unemployment is blamed on the influx of migrants from the rural to urban areas. In terms of crimes and conflicts, all the flashpoints in the cities and large towns tend to be the areas largely

settled by migrants. Examples are Nima, Sodom and Gomorrah (Old Fadama), and Ashaiman in Greater Accra and Aboabo in Kumasi. Similarly, most of the areas prone to civil conflicts tend to be areas where migrants settle in large numbers and where the conflicts come in the form of struggle over land (Boone and Duku, 2012). In view of these, internal migration in Ghana has generally not received any positive assessment.

Some credit, however, is given to international migration on the issue of foreign earnings by government through remittances. While the role of remittances in providing foreign exchange is often acknowledged in glowing terms, it is often done without explicitly giving migration any recognition. Measures that were taken in the past to streamline issues related to migration were largely ad hoc, such as the series of homecoming summits, until they culminated in the Ghana Diaspora Celebration and Homecoming Summit in 2019, dubbed “The Year of Return”. The country promulgated a migration policy only as late as 2016 and a diaspora engagement policy is nearing its completion, overseen by the Diaspora Affairs, Office of the President (Ministry of Interior, 2016).

## **2.2. Brief Overview of the Theoretical Literature**

It is generally agreed that there is no integrated theory on the process of migration, but rather a set of partial theories and models that have been developed from different disciplinary viewpoints. One of such, which is of relevance to the Ghanaian situation, is the dual economy model of development (Lewis, 1954; Niels-Hugo and Dorte, 1999). This theory classifies development into a modern one which is normally urbanised and a rural subsistence economy. It also stipulates that there is surplus labour in the subsistence economy leading to marginal productivity of labour being zero, with a relatively low subsistence wage. The modern industrial wage is higher than the subsistence wage because of continuous investment, higher profits, and pressure from unionised labour. This wage differential motivates people to move from rural to urban areas. Such migration will continue until the rate of growth of demand for labour in the modern sector is greater than the growth of the rural population. The factors at play agree with the “push” and “pull” factors affecting migration, which are mentioned earlier. The push factors force migrants to areas of destination. The rural-urban wage differentials serve as both push and pull factors for migration. The wage differential is the main factor for rural-urban migration which leads to urbanisation of towns to cities and expansion of cities to megacities.

There are other bodies of theory which see migration as an investment decision, specifically as a form of human capital investment (Sjaastad, 1962; Schwartz, 1976 in GSS, 1995). The assertion is that individuals move to take advantage of location-specific lifetime stream of earnings. In their application of the theory, Harris and Todaro (1970) developed the notion that expected real earnings motivate migration. Expected earnings are the product of real earnings level for those who acquire employment and the probability that the employment search is successful. This theory explains how high rates of urban unemployment can discourage rural-urban migration. Inversely, the theory shows how high rates of migration can remain rational even in the face of urban unemployment, provided that urban real wages are pegged sufficiently high relative to



rural wages. In Africa, and Ghana for that matter, unemployment rates may matter for the better-educated potential migrants (GSS 1995). Ultimately, prices of services, such as transport costs, land rents, prices of utilities and infrastructure, such as water, education and health facilities, may be important factors in rural-to-urban migration.

The human capital theory is a model of the voluntary migration theory where individuals perceive migration to be in their self-interest. Voluntary mobility is viewed as an investment in which costs are borne in the early period to obtain returns over a longer period. This means, if benefits at destination exceed cost (both monetary and psychic) we assume that people will decide to move or change jobs or both. If the inverse happens, in that, the discounted stream of benefits is not as large as the costs, people are less likely to move.

From the human capital theory, within which the investment decision is taken, several factors determining migration emerge. These include individual, personal characteristics such as age, schooling/education or training, cost of migration and pressure of population. The theory predicts that:

- a) Mobility will be higher among youth, because there are greater potential returns from any investment in the youth than the aged, since the youth have a longer period for benefits to be realised;
- b) Unmarried people are more likely than the married to migrate, and among the married, those without children are more likely to move;
- c) Within the same age group, the more educated are likely to move;
- d) As migration costs (information cost, more costs of transportation towards moving, cost of trips and search costs in the urban area) rise, flow of migration will fall; and
- e) Community level factors which influence the individual's stream of returns such as:
  - i. The pressure of population which results in higher man/land ratios thereby increasing poverty and influencing rural out-migration;
  - ii. The low rate of investment in agriculture, fragmentation of land ownership, inequalities in the distribution of land and productive assets, institutional mechanisms which discriminate in favour of owners of wealth and a pattern of relative prices, investment and technological change biased against labour that make the incomes of the small-scale rural farmers and farm hands relatively worse off, leading to migration into the urban areas; and
  - iii. Factors which improve the conditions of urban areas, such as "bright lights" or entertainments, better education, health, communication, and government policies which subsidise urban consumption, act as pull factors to increase migration into urban areas.

The human capital theory relates to voluntary job mobility or quits. Some of the predictions of the theory are as follows:

- A worker will have a higher probability of quitting a low-wage job than a higher paying one, all things being equal;
- Workers will have a higher probability of quitting if it is relatively easy for them to obtain a better job quickly, that is, when labour markets are tight;
- Workers will flow from low wage to higher wage jobs; and

- Incomes of people who migrate, are higher than they would have been in the absence of migration.

All these assumptions are not different from the other theories like the dual economy model and the investment decision theories. All such theories try to predict the occurrence of certain factors at both the rural areas to push people out and other factors at the urban areas to pull them to the urban centres. These theories consider the decision to move to be based on such factors with little attention to the treatment of the decision-making process of humans as rational beings and may take several decisions within particular circumstances that might not fit into such models.

One theory that points to the shortcomings in the theories outlined is the work by Sen (1999) who stated that literature on push and pull forces often ascribes reasons for migration to singular causes or forces such as demographic, ecological, economic, political, and social. He argued that the combined desires of mankind transcend these categories with one major aim, which is, "aspirations towards a better and humane life" which encapsulates the notion of development. Development is the process of expanding the real freedoms that people enjoy. Development requires the removal of major sources of un-freedom such as poverty, tyranny, poor economic opportunities as well as systematic social deprivation, neglect of public facilities as well as intolerance of repressive states (Sen, 1999). This framework asserts that the human as a rational being has aspirations of development that the push and pull factors and the other associated theories have not reflected well. So, people may not move in the context of push and pull factors due to their aspirations, but rather, if the push factors hinder their aspirations and the pull factors provide environments to help realise their aspirations, they are more likely to move. So, aspiration towards a better and humane life is the key to mobility of people. Therefore, an integration of all these theories may provide better scope and understanding of migration and human mobility in general as compared to reliance on one theory.

## **2.3. Concepts and Definition of Migration**

A better understanding of migration as a phenomenon requires a proper understanding of some key concepts. In this report some basic concepts used have been briefly clarified to lay the ground for the definition of migration. The concepts include migration "origin" and "destination" and "internal" versus "international" migration.

### **2.3.1. Origin and destination**

Every residential move affects two places at the same time, an "origin," which is the place from where the person moves and a "destination", that is the place where the specific move ends. These are sometimes called the place of departure and the place of arrival respectively. The origin and destination of a residential move can be in the same country/area or in different countries/areas.

### 2.3.2. International versus internal migration

A migratory move that involves the crossing of a national boundary is referred to as international migration. The person who did the movement is called an emigrant, from the perspective of his/her country of origin and an immigrant from that of the country of destination. However, when the origin and destination of a specific migratory move are in the same country the move is regarded as an internal migration irrespective of the distance covered. In internal migration the person who migrates from a particular place is referred to as an out-migrant from that area and as an in-migrant in the area of destination.

The distinction between internal and international migration is important because the latter is usually more difficult to accomplish than the former which implies the motivation to move may have to be much stronger. To cross an international border is far more likely to involve a change of language, customs, and politics in general, a change of lifestyle and world view than is a move within a country. By way of taking care of commuters and sojourners who may also cross international boundaries, the concept of long-term immigrants has been developed within the definition of international migrants, which includes all persons who arrive in a country during a year and whose length of stay in the country of arrival is more than one year (Kraly & Warren, 1993).

Internal migration can be classified into four main types, rural-rural, rural-urban, urban-urban and urban-rural. It can also be analysed based on intra (across) and inter (within) movements. Intra-regional migration is the movement of the population between localities within an administrative region, whereas inter-regional migration is the movement of population between different regions of a country. Information regarding migration is often elicited based on place of birth classified as place of usual residence, or place of residence at a fixed prior date, often five years, or current place of residence. The various types of migration including seasonal, step, stage, chain, return can take any of the patterns/types mentioned. For instance, seasonal migration has been related to agriculture and the practice of transhumance. An example is when nomads move in search of pasture and water for their animals during the dry season. This is commonly practised by cattle ranchers in the dry savannah belt in northern Ghana. This form of migration is usually rural-rural. Farmers and labourers in the savannah areas in the north migrate to southern Ghana during the dry season when agricultural activities have come to a halt, to work and wait for the rains to resume in the northern part of the country so that they could go and cultivate their farms. There are instances when labourers move from rural areas to urban areas or even to other rural areas where they can engage in some economic activity.

Another pattern/type of migration is rural to rural migration, which usually occurs among farmers who migrate from one farming community to another to cultivate crops and this is noticeable among cash crop farmers. This has occurred in Ghana where people migrated from the Ashanti and Eastern regions to Brong Ahafo and Western regions to set up farms such as cocoa farms. Migration due to agricultural activity has led to various types of migration including rural-rural, rural-urban, and urban-rural.

### **2.3.3. Temporary circular migration**

A household that is in a rural or peri-urban setting can have one or more members out as temporary migrants who remit money back from another place of work, which is usually urban. This is known as circular migration and is the predominant type of migration in most of sub-Saharan Africa (Cordell, et. al., 2021). A migration is considered circular when the migrant considers the place of origin as the usual place of residence (de jure) and stays connected to the “sending” household through communication, regular return visits and with a high likelihood of monetary or non-monetary remittances.

### **2.3.4. Defining migration**

Migration can be defined as the permanent change of residence or the movement of people in space often involving a change in the usual place of residence. This usually brings about the detachment from the organisation of activities at one place (the place of origin) and the movement of the total round of activities to another place (the place of destination) (Goldscheider, 1971). A migrant is, therefore, a person whose current usual place of residence is different from his/her place of birth or previous place of residence. Thus, migration has within it elements of both space and time or distance and duration. Spatially, the movement must cross a definite geographical or administrative boundary. In terms of time, there must be a permanent or sustained sojourn in the place of destination. The essential character of migration is thus that it involves a change in place of abode, or place of “usual” residence, a taking-up of life in a new or different place. Statistically this is often captured in terms of duration of stay at the destination. In all Ghanaian censuses prior to the 2021 PHC, all persons who were staying outside their place of birth for six months or more were regarded as internal migrants. Similarly, those who had stayed abroad for six months, or more were regarded as emigrants. In the 2021 PHC the duration of stay was changed to 12 months for both internal and international migration [GSS, 2021].

### **2.3.5. Measuring migration**

Migration is, by nature, a difficult variable to measure. One reason is that it is not a single event but is one that is typically continuous and often repetitive. The multidimensional and multidirectional characteristics of migration today, as well as its temporary and circular patterns, require sophisticated data-collection systems and methodologies for which many countries, including Ghana, lack the capacity to do. In exploring internal migration there are usually three key questions that are necessary, and these are:

- a) What movements take place in spatial terms? i.e., intra- versus inter-regional
- b) Who are involved in the population movements?
- c) Why do the movements take place?

However, these are often not covered in censuses. Questions on place of birth and duration of residence are attempts to cover some of these issues. It is worth noting that all migrants are movers, but not all movers are migrants.

## **2.3.6. Migration in Ghana – Brief Historical Perspective**

### **2.3.6.1. Internal Migration<sup>1</sup>**

Historically, Ghana has shifted between being a country of immigration, to one of emigration, and now one that combines both. Some authors also add the fact that Ghana is a transit country. There is such a close relationship between immigration and the country's development that at some stages the difference between internal and international migration is blurred. Nonetheless, we can still identify some patterns that are clearly internal or international.

As disclosed earlier, the Trans-Saharan caravan routes are among the earliest evidence of major interaction between West and North Africa for trading and exchange of scholars (Boahen, 1966). Long before the European incursion into West Africa, there was already established a peaceful movement of people across ethnic boundaries (Batuta, 1929; Africanus, 1896). Thus, the presence of Europeans on the West Coast from 1400 onwards disrupted the then existing north-south movement of people and goods. What the contact with the Europeans did was to create new patterns of movement, first through slave trade and later colonisation, within the sub-region and with the rest of the world (Boahen, 1966). The new dynamics that emerged have largely continued to the present day to more extended destinations and with varied actors.

Like emigration, migration movements within Ghana and from the rest of the West African sub-region date back to the period long before colonisation. During this period, trading activities were linked to flows of traders from neighbouring territories, who brought ivory, kola nuts, cattle, sheep, hides or wild animals and clothes to Salaga market for sale. Clapperton (1929) also described the presence in the town of Kaiama, of a caravan consisting of upward of 1,000 men and women, and as many beasts of burden on their way back to Hausa land after a long trip to Gonja and Asante in present day Ghana. Migration, both within and across borders, has long been a significant livelihood strategy for Ghanaians (Anarfi and Jagare, 2008; Kabki 2007). This is expected to continue in the coming years in Ghana as a major livelihood-enhancing strategy for many people irrespective of the geographical location in the country.

### **2.3.6.2. Pre-colonial era**

In the period preceding 1874, although areas with definite British or French influence had been established, nations in the West African sub-region with clear-cut boundaries as they are known today were not well established. In the absence of national boundaries, there was no clear distinction between internal and international migration. Early migration in Ghana could be said to have taken various forms and were associated with internecine warfare, trade, and colonisation of new lands and slavery. During this period,

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<sup>1</sup> This section is taken from Anarfi, J.K. and Kwankye, S.O., 2009, Independent Migration of Children in Ghana, pp. 7-44, (with a few updated facts and figures where necessary), with the kind permission of the authors.

entire villages, ethnic groups, and clans were known to have moved to escape the ravages of internecine warfare. Almost every ethnic group in present-day Ghana was affected by these wars (see Buah, 1980). Similarly, population expansion and internal struggles together with the desire for independent existence compelled several Akan units within Bono Kingdom to migrate southwards to found new settlements. Some of these were Denkyira, Twifo, Akwamu, Asante, Akyem and Fante (Buah, 1980; Boahen, 1966).

An examination of the wars which were fought in the area which constitutes present-day Ghana indicates that almost all the states engaged in warfare either on a small scale or on a wide scale and in all these wars, prisoners were captured. The wars were based on conquest, expansion, aggression, retaliation, and domination. Names of states mentioned frequently in documents are the Mole Dagbani states in the north and the Akyem, Akwamu, Denkyira, Fante and Asante states in the south. States that were weaker militarily were almost always at the mercy of stronger, more powerful, and more organised states, and were either forced to flee from their agricultural or mineral-rich lands or forcibly annexed and "incorporated" into various kingdoms.

Gold-endowed areas or territories were exposed to the jealousy and malevolence of other states. Many ethnic communities which existed mainly as tribes or kingdoms in Ghana used gold not only as a medium of exchange to trade in various goods and services but also as an embodiment of power, wealth and influence of various tribal groups or states (Ofosu-Mensah, 1999; Institute of African Studies, 1969). Many of the internecine wars, which were fought in Ghana before European contact, were, in part deeply rooted in the quest by some states not just to extend their influence and territorial boundaries but even more importantly, conquer mineral-rich lands (Nyame and Grant, 2007; Ofosu-Mensah, 1999). The Adanses who derived their wealth and prosperity from the abundant gold which the area possessed and from their central location as market, suffered the most in this way. As a result of these wars, sections of the people migrated to other lands. The Akyems moved eastwards, others crossed the Pra River southwards and established themselves into kingdoms like those of Asen Apemanin (Buah, 1980). Additionally, the wars of Sumaila Ndewura Jakpa in the seventeenth century in Northern Ghana led to the dispersal of the Guans to other parts of the country (Boahen, 1975).

The Gold Coast also witnessed great political changes and developments between the eleventh and eighteenth centuries. Various ethnic groups within the territory and others who migrated from outside into the area, built formidable states and kingdoms. The process resulted in the enslavement of conquered peoples. This period of state building coincided with the introduction of the Atlantic Slave Trade, which was introduced to the Gold Coast in the sixteenth century by the Portuguese, to meet the demand for labour in the New World (America). Other Europeans such as the Dutch, British, Danes, Prussians, and French followed suit (Perbi, 1997; Boahen, 1966).

Commercial migration connected with trade also featured during this period. The differences in ecological conditions necessitated exchange of goods such as salt, livestock, various food items, etc. (Addo, 1975). Indigenous tribes in the forest areas of

Ghana traded in salt and other commodities with coastal states, which also occasioned minor migration of people from the hinterland to the coastal areas. On the other hand, during the Trans-Saharan Trade in the seventeenth century, traders from Adanse, Asante, Denkyira, and others used to go to Banda and Bono areas because they became the centres for the trade in gold, slaves, and kola nuts (Daaku, 1970).

Another reason which accounted for the migration of people during the colonial era was the search for new lands safe for settlements and fertile for farming. From the 1860s, a flood of land-hungry migrant farmers from Ga, Anum, Akwapim and Krobo inundated the vast expanse of rich and empty agricultural lands of Akyem Abuakwa. Private individuals were also attracted to Akyem Abuakwa by the seemingly unlimited economic possibilities held out in an era of legitimate trade by the vast expanse of fertile, unoccupied agricultural lands of the region (Addo-Fening, 1997).

Political exiles also moved out of the Asante State in 1818, 1824 and 1832 and again in 1874-5 and settled on Akyem Abuakwa land (Addo-Fening, 1997). Escaping or running away from a cruel ruler's territory also accounted for migration of people before the European contact. The Ewes migrated to present Ghana from Notsie (in Benin), due to the cruelty of King Agorkorli, their overlord. Virtually, all the ethnic groups in present-day Ghana claim to have immigrated from somewhere to their present location (Boahen, 1975). It can be said that migration during this period was seen as population movement in response to human needs like favourable ecological conditions, fertile land for agriculture, shelter, and trade as well as greater security during tribal warfare.

### **2.3.6.3. Colonial period**

Commercial migration, which is the movement of people for the purpose of trade, gained momentum in the colonial era (Sudarkasa, 1974-75). The situation resulted from the relative peace that prevailed in the region following the end of inter-tribal wars, and the establishment of better lines of communication. Some of the migrants to Ghana, including many from Niger, Mali and Nigeria, were self-employed traders rather than wage labourers (Rouch, 1959). A study of market traders in Accra in 1960 also documented the presence of a sizeable population of immigrant traders from Nigeria, Niger and Mali working in the city's markets (Nypan, 1960). The activities of commercial migrants continued from the pre-colonial era to the early 1970s when it dwindled because of the Aliens Compliance Order (1969), as well as the enactment of the Ghana Business Promotion Act 334 of August 1, 1970, which was also used as a means of reducing activity of commercial migrants in the country (Anarfi, et. al., 2000).

In addition to trading, the development of gold mines and cocoa farms also attracted many migrants from the late nineteenth century to the second half of the twentieth century into the country. In the view of Amin (1974:75), 'of the regions which benefited from the contribution of the permanent migration, Southern Ghana is outstanding'. He further stated that the migrants were predominantly unmarried young male adults who mainly went into agriculture and mining in the areas of attraction. Mabogunje (1972) also identifies a similar pattern and explains it as a natural reaction to the geography of

West Africa, which is such that the southern forest is more favourable to economic development than the savannah north. He also recognised Ghana as the major attractive centre for migrants in West Africa.

The relative success of exploration and development in the mining industry under the British colonial administration fuelled massive infrastructural development in roads in what is now the Western, Ashanti and, to some extent, Eastern and Central regions. The demand for labour in the mining industry far outstripped supply in what used to be a predominantly agrarian economy in these areas. It is known that in many cases, indigenous people or local labour force were either unwilling or unable to supply the labour requirements (Adepoju, 2005). The shortfall in labour supply, improvements in road networks and communication infrastructure, and less stringent inter-regional border controls, among other factors, provided the necessary impetus and demand which encouraged a wave of immigrants from neighbouring British, French and German colonies into the Gold Coast in search of work (Nyame and Grant, 2007; Ofosu-Mensah, 1999).

According to Adepoju (2005), migration flows which occurred on cocoa farms and the mining centres were a direct outcome of the policies of the colonial powers. Songsore (1983) argues that the centre-periphery structure that emerged over the colonial space-economy was to serve the interest of the metropolis. The policies of colonial powers as a matter of fact ensured that certain nodes were created to facilitate the production of raw materials such as gold, cocoa, timber, rubber, coffee, etc., needed by the industrial sector in Britain. The colonial authority, therefore, devised mechanisms to attract labour from the hinterlands, principally the Northern Savannah Agro-Ecological Zone (Nabila, 1985).

The most important demand for labour in the Gold Coast during the colonial era came from commercial agriculture and mining. The main export producing regions were unable to supply all the labour they needed from local sources, so extra hands had to be imported from other parts of the country and other West African colonies. For example, in the middle of 1909, the labour shortage was described by the authorities as "acute". The 1910 Annual Report of the West African Chamber of Mines complained that "all the local supply of native labourers was exhausted, and the industry was faced with a shortage". This problem came about because the Akan mine labourers resented underground work. They believed that underground mining was associated with unfriendly spirits. In addition, they viewed underground mining as a low status activity associated with slaves and therefore, socially degrading. In addition, the Akan could reasonably subsist on cultivation of traditional food crops (yams, cocoyam, cassava, bananas, plantain, and green vegetables) supplemented by hunting and fishing. Consequently, there was no pressing need for them to sell their labour to Europeans to be able to earn a living.

The cocoa boom of the 1930s worsened the shortage of labour to work underground. The high influx of migrant labourers from the Northern Territories towards the end of 1922 was the result of the outbreak of famine. Reports reaching the Chief Commissioner spoke



of growing threat of famine in North Mamprusi, Builsa and Zuarungu districts where villagers were reported to be eating grass weed. Due to the famine, many young men between the ages of fifteen and thirty-five were forced to migrate in search of work in the mines (Ababio, 1999). Another reason that accounted for this migration was the need to satisfy social obligations such as the payment of dowries and bride wealth. Migrant workers were actively recruited by the colonial authorities. The reduction in the supply of Kru labourers due to the development of rubber plantations in Liberia (Szerezewski, 1965) and the unwillingness of the Akans to work underground made the mining companies consider importation of unskilled labourers from the north. The Northern Territories were not deemed by the colonial regime to have direct economic value; hence in the 1920s they were designated as a labour reserve for the supply of economical labour for the mines and general labour in the cities (Guggisberg, 1920).

The period 1919-1924 saw the acceleration of labour recruitment in the Northern Territories. When Guggisberg launched his development plan in November 1919, he calculated that a labour force of 27,000 men would be needed and suggested that a special recruiting scheme in the Northern Territories should be organised. During that period, the cocoa industry also required intensive labour and provided inducements in the form of high wages (Ofosu-Mensah, 1999). The period of inactivity in the Northern Territories corresponded to the time of peak agricultural demands in the cocoa regions of the forest zone, so that labourers from the Northern Territories could migrate to the south to work on seasonal basis and return home for the single growing season. This form of migration has been occurring in the country since the beginning of the twentieth century. For example, in 1945, about 46,000 labourers migrated from the Northern Territories to the south and by 1954, this kind of seasonal migration involved more than 200,000 labourers from the Northern Territories (Abdulai, 1999). As observed by Killick (1966), there could not be many countries in the world in which migrant labour had been as important as it was to the Ghanaian economy. This is because the dry season in the north coincided with the maximum demand for labour on cocoa farms in the forest belt. In addition, many farmers had migrated from the Ashanti, Brong Ahafo, Eastern and Volta regions to the Western Region to cultivate cocoa.

#### **2.3.6.4. Post-colonial era**

After independence in 1957, while Ghana continued to attract migrants from other African countries due to its relative affluence, the influx from the north continued unabated. Internal population movement in Ghana continued after independence particularly rural to urban migration. In 1960, roughly 23 percent of the population could be classified as urban, and in 2000 the proportion was over 43 percent. Migration from rural areas accounted for much of this growth, especially in the 1960s. This was largely due to the growth of industrial activities in the urban centres in the 1960s. Thereafter, high rates of natural increase in the urban population became a significant factor in urbanisation.

While those with skills and adequate level of education move to the national and regional capitals, the less educated have continued to move instead to the mining and

cocoa growing areas. According to the 1960 Census Report, the Northern<sup>2</sup> and Volta regions recorded net losses of enumerated native born of 157,000 and 95,000 respectively, while Ashanti, Greater Accra and Brong Ahafo received over 10,000 people each. The 1984 Census Report, however, revealed that Northern, Greater Accra and Brong Ahafo regions recorded net increases in their shares of the total population, while the rest of the regions experienced declines. Quite significant is Greater Accra's share of the total population, which increased from 7.3 percent in 1960 to 10 percent in 1970 and further to 11.6 percent in 1984.

There has been a remarkable increase in the number of West Africans living in urban areas since the end of the Second World War. In Ghana for example, the proportion of the population living in urban centres of more than 20,000 people, rose from 7 percent to 11 percent during the period between 1950 and 1960. As of the year 2000, 27.4 percent of Ghana's 18.9 million people were living outside their places of birth. Intra- and inter-regional migrants formed 9.9 percent and 17.5 percent respectively of the total population (Ghana Statistical Service, 2002). However, there are remarkable variations in terms of the proportion of the population formed by intra- and inter- regional migrants in the total population of the regions.

### **2.3.7. International migration**

The closeness between internal and international migration observed above is mainly with respect to immigration. Over the years, immigrants into Ghana, particularly those from the West African sub-region, easily merged with the nationals and joined the internal mobility of labourers. The aim of this section, therefore, is to briefly examine the history of emigration from Ghana. Based on the available evidence, four distinct phases have been identified in the international history of emigration from Ghana. These are:

- a) a period of minimal emigration,
- b) a period of initial emigration,
- c) a phase of large-scale emigration,
- d) a period of intensification and diasporisation of Ghanaians

From pre-colonial times up to the late 1960s, Ghana enjoyed relative economic prosperity and was the destination of many migrants from neighbouring West African Countries (Anarfi, 1982). During the period under consideration, international movement from Ghana involved a relatively small number of people, most of whom were students and professionals. Most of these movements were to the United Kingdom and other English-speaking countries due to colonial links and for linguistic reasons (Anarfi, Awusabo-Asare, and Nsowah-Nuamah, 2000). For instance, immigration data indicate that in 1967 there were only about 100 Ghanaian immigrants in Canada (Owusu, 2000). Some Ghanaian professionals also served in the public services of Gambia, Botswana,

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<sup>2</sup> The Northern Region included the Upper East and Upper West regions.

and Sierra Leone. Also, Ghanaians, mostly from fishing communities, were known to have migrated across international boundaries to Benin and Ivory Coast (Odotei, 2000).

The initial emigration of Ghanaians started after 1965. From that period Ghana experienced an economic crisis of an unprecedented magnitude (Anarfi, Awusabo-Asare, and Nsowah-Nuamah, 2000). This was manifested in a balance of payments deficit, growing unemployment, and social malaise. The decline of the economy made Ghana unattractive to both foreigners and citizens. By 1970, the proportion of foreigners in Ghana had declined from 12.3 percent in 1960 to 6.6 percent. This trend was also the result of the Aliens Compliance Order of 1969, whereby non-Ghanaians without valid documents were expelled from the country. In the period following that Côte d'Ivoire continued as one of the dominant points of destination in the sub-region.

By the end of the decade, many Ghanaians were travelling outside the country in search of jobs. Most of these emigrants were professionals such as teachers, lawyers, and administrators, some of whom were invited by countries such as Uganda, Botswana, Nigeria, and Zambia to assist with their national development after independence (Anarfi, Awusabo-Asare, and Nsowah-Nuamah, 2000). Others returned to work in the countries where they were trained when the economic conditions in Ghana began to be unfavourable. In addition, there were those who travelled initially for education and/or training but stayed behind after their programme of study. There were also a small number of Ghanaians who were born abroad and either stayed behind when their parents returned to Ghana or went back when they were old enough or could afford to travel on their own.

The phase of the large-scale emigration began in the early 1980s when unskilled and semi-skilled Ghanaians left the country at an alarming rate in search of jobs in neighbouring West African Countries (Anarfi, 1982). The number of professionals migrating also increased in response to the demand for their labour abroad and at a time when the economy had collapsed and there were shortages of basic items including detergents and food. Migration then became one of the basic survival strategies adopted by individuals and families to enable them to cope with difficult economic conditions.

In the early 1980s unofficial figures put the average number of Ghanaians who migrated into Nigeria at about 300 per day (Anarfi, 1982). As of December 1980, about 150,000 Ghanaians had registered with the Ghana High Commission in Lagos, beside the thousands more who did not care to register. The nature of the migration was such that the country lost much of its trained personnel. For example, in the early 1980s, about 13 percent of the 163 paid up members of the Ghana Institute of Architects had addresses in Nigeria. It was also estimated that around the same period, about 50 percent of the architects trained in the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology had migrated to Nigeria. Similarly, the 1975 census of Côte d'Ivoire recorded over 42,000 Ghanaians in that country. In 1986, the number of Ghanaians in Côte d'Ivoire was

estimated to be between 500,000 and 800,000 (Anarfi, Awusabo-Asare, and Nsowah-Nuamah, 2000).

The migration was aggravated by a loss of faith in Ghana's future due to bad governance of both the civilian and military regimes. The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) formed in 1975 precipitated further Ghanaian emigration to neighbouring West African countries. One of the objectives of the regional organisation was to facilitate freedom of movement, residence, and employment within the community. It is estimated that about two million Ghanaians emigrated between 1974 and 1981, mainly from the south.

Another indication of the number of Ghanaians who travelled outside is derived from the estimated number of Ghanaians among people deported from Nigeria in 1983. It is estimated that of the two million people deported from Nigeria in 1983, between 900,000 and 1.2 million were Ghanaians. This figure excludes professionals and their dependents who were not affected by the deportation exercise.

Adeku's in-depth analysis of Ghanaian emigrants in major world regions from the 1984 census returns, indicated that the number of emigrants at that time was 39,000, and this accounted for 0.3 percent of the total resident population (Adeku, 1995). Of that number, 47 percent were females, contrary to the popular view that women were less likely to emigrate. In fact, women dominated short distance emigration to nearby countries, accounting for 64 percent, 57 percent and 56 percent respectively of the Ghanaian emigrants in Côte d'Ivoire, Burkina Faso, and Togo, whereas a higher proportion of men travelled further afield. In terms of age, female migrants were younger on the whole than male migrants. For instance, at that time, the mean age of the female migrants fell between 15 and 24 years, while for men it was between 25 and 34 years.

The exodus of Ghanaians to neighbouring countries continued through the 1990s to recent times. Nonetheless, this most recent phase of the migration of Ghanaians is more importantly characterised by their diasporisation, which had begun in the middle of the 1980s. Van Hear classifies Ghana as one of the ten countries involved in producing a 'new diaspora' in recent times (Van Hear, 1998). Since the 1990s, large numbers of Ghanaians have moved to major cities such as London, Amsterdam, Hamburg, and New York (Black et al., 2003). According to the UK Home Office, Ghana was among the top ten sending countries to the UK in 1996, and in the decade 1990–2001 about 21,485 Ghanaians entered the UK. Meanwhile, North America has become increasingly dominant as a destination for Ghanaians, whilst the Ghana diaspora lives in many more countries around the world. From 1986 to 2001, 49,703 Ghanaians immigrated to the United States of America (USA). By 2001, about 104,000 Ghanaians were living in the USA, whilst 114,335 were registered in Canada. Data from the Ghana Immigration Service also indicate that more than 2,000 Ghanaians were deported from 58 countries around the world in 1993 (Van Hear, 1998). Ghanaian international migrants have also assumed transnational identities and, together with their families, they live transnational lives. That is, they maintain double engagement with their countries of destination and the home country.

Several reasons explain this continued exodus. Overall, there is a long history of emigration from Ghana to other West African states, as well as to Europe and North America for various reasons including employment, education, and training (Nuro, 1999). Initially, few of the migrants went as economic migrants. However, the increase in international outmigration in the late 1970s and early 1980s has been attributed to economic decline and political instability (Fosu, 1992; Alderman, 1994). By the mid-1980s, the economy of Ghana was growing at a negative rate. To halt the decline, the government introduced a Structural Adjustment Programme, which included staff redeployment and the withdrawal of subsidies on social services such as health, transport, and education. The unemployment and other hardships that occurred with the withdrawal of subsidies created conditions for further emigration.

Initially, Nigeria became a major point of destination for Ghanaians. But with the expulsions of Ghanaians from Nigeria in 1983 and 1985, the destination countries of migrants became more diverse, particularly for professionals. Furthermore, some professionals took advantage of the then strong value of the Nigerian Naira to accumulate financial resources to enable them travel to Europe, America, and other African countries while the semi-skilled workers tried to go wherever they could. It is estimated that between 1975 and 1981, Ghana may have lost about 14,000 qualified teachers, among them 3,000 university graduates (Rado, 1986). Both less and well qualified Ghanaians migrated to work in developing and developed countries as economic refugees, the latter group constituting the mass “brain drain” from Ghana to the North, or what others call “brain exchange” among developing countries. These highly qualified individuals migrated for a variety of reasons including lack of job satisfaction at place of origin, poor salary structure and prospects, and lack of motivation (Gould, 1993; Nuro, 1999).

After the mid-1990s, there was some evidence of return migration to Ghana. This was attributed partly to the improvement in the Ghanaian economy vis-à-vis the economies of the neighbouring countries that once attracted Ghanaians (World Bank, 1994) as well as restrictions on Ghanaians travelling abroad (for instance, those travelling to the EU countries) and repatriation of those without valid documents. Nonetheless, a second generation of Ghanaians living abroad is also growing, often settling there, but maintaining links and identifying with Ghana.

## **2.3.8. Migration Causes and Consequences**

### **2.3.8.1. The causes of migration**

The causes of migration are complex, multilevel in nature, difficult to determine and not easy to generalise like the concept of migration itself. The decision to migrate has often been a response to a combination of factors. While a lot of emphasis has been placed on economic factors as the main causes of migration, the causal perpetuation factors in migration are both economic and non-economic in nature (Kok et al., 2003). For policy purposes, it is important to understand the causes and consequences of migration. However, census data do not provide a suitable basis for determining the causes of

migration. There is, therefore, the need to purposely undertake migration surveys to comprehensively appreciate the reasons why people move and others from the same area do not.

The main reasons behind the movement of people from rural to urban areas can be explained in terms of economic, social, and cultural forces — search for social and cultural amenities and freedom from traditional family elders' restrictions. The growth of industries in urban centres such as Accra, Kumasi, and Sekondi-Takoradi, which created employment opportunities in those areas, have triggered the movement of people to these areas. Income levels in the rural areas are very low compared to the urban areas. As a result, the gap between the welfare of rural dwellers and their urban counterparts is very wide. For instance, a 1999 study found that the average wage in the urban areas in Ghana was two or three times the average agricultural income (Abdulai, 1999). Meanwhile, the main occupation in the rural areas is agriculture.

Many young people in rural areas are unwilling to remain there to practise farming after graduating from junior and senior high schools perhaps because of the big wage differential between urban and agricultural incomes. They rather move to the urban areas in search of non-existent white-collar jobs. Some young men and women are also enticed by the display of wealth by friends and relatives who return from the urban areas during Christmas and other festive seasons, to also move to the urban areas.

Most people move to urban areas to free themselves from traditional family systems and elders' restrictions in the rural areas. This reason has emerged in many studies of the movement of young girls from the north to the south of the country (Anarfi and Kwankye, 2009). Rigid parental control and expectation, and harsh social sanctions cause people to move.

Other factors are related to the demographic dynamics of the country. The high population growth rate in Ghana within the last three decades has generally increased the domestic supply of labour and, in areas like the Upper East Region, has put pressure on the available cultivable land, thereby encouraging out-migration (Abdulai, 1999). The steady decline in the general fertility coupled with a similar decline in mortality of the country has led to the growth of a large number of young adults who are ready to work, a situation referred to as demographic dividend (Kwankye et al, 2021). As more and more of these young people get educated, they become, as it were, misfits in the rural areas and naturally move to the urban areas for sustenance.

The country's macro-economic policies, directly or indirectly, have influenced rural-urban migration. Through urban-biased policies, the terms of trade have consistently been against agriculture and the rural areas, contributing to wide rural-urban income differentials. Urban-biased policies which include over-valued exchange rates, industrial protection and cheap food policies discriminated against agriculture in particular and rural areas in general. These policies suppressed farm prices and rural incomes, encouraging a shift of labour out of agricultural production and subsequent increase in rural-urban migration. However, macro-economic and sector-specific policy reforms

initiated in 1983 contributed to improving the domestic terms of trade in favour of the rural sector, thereby encouraging some urban-rural migration. Some of the recent agricultural policies, such as Planting for Food and Jobs, which planned to ensure guaranteed prices for agricultural items produced, can help to improve the situation further. Rural-urban migration in the country has been largely induced by the expectation of higher wages in the destination area and is entirely consistent with the principle of comparative advantage.

Sometimes it becomes necessary to distinguish between forces that are operating in the origin area and those operating in the destination that eventually compel one to move. Some scholars have found that depressed social conditions at the place of origin are more compelling motivations for rural people to migrate than economic factors (Ewusi, 1986). However, once they decide to migrate, the choice of a destination is primarily based on the economic opportunities available at the end. In that respect, the social conditions prevailing at their place of origin act as the main push factor while the economic opportunities available in a particular town act as the pull factor attracting migrants to that locality (Johnson, 1974).

A survey on internal migration and urbanisation in Ghana revealed that over 80 percent of the respondents gave economic reasons for migrating from their previous location, suggesting that income differentials contribute significantly to internal migration in the country (GSS, 1995). The pattern of internal migration in the country has also been influenced by the stark differences in the level of poverty between the north and the south, as well as their respective capacities to respond to new economic opportunities.

There are now three distinct geographic zones in Ghana, the creation of the pattern of socioeconomic development in the country, which has also been dictated by the distribution of the country's natural resources. These are the coastal zone dominated by Accra-Tema and Sekondi-Takoradi; a middle zone with Kumasi as its centre; and the northern savannah zone. The coastal zone is the most industrialised and urbanised area in the country and has been the converging point of internal migration since the beginning of the last century. Accra as the nation's capital attracted many administrative and other service workers. With the opening of a deep seaport in Takoradi in 1927, Sekondi-Takoradi became a leading point of attraction for migrants in addition to Accra along the coast. In the 1960s, the development of Tema Port and township shifted the focus of migration back to the Accra-Tema metropolitan areas. The middle zone, with its forest, mining and agricultural potentials was the centre of the old Ashanti Empire. With its natural resource endowment, the middle belt became an area of rapid socio-economic development in the 1980s. Kumasi, the capital of the Ashanti Region, became a dominant centre in the country and the focus of migration from the savannah belt (Nabila, 1986).

The northern savannah zone, accounting for about half the land area of Ghana, has almost always been a net out-migration area<sup>3</sup>. With its scanty seasonal rainfall, very little natural resource endowment, the absence of any large-scale industrial activities, and general neglect, the area has been a labour reserve for the cocoa and the mining industries in the middle and the developed coastal zones respectively. The relative affluence of the coastal zone and the middle belt created focal points for migration, first within the country and subsequently outside the country. The rapid expansion of the economy in the 1960s also provided impetus for international migration, initially to pursue further education in most cases (Nabila, 1986).

In addition to wage differentials, the overconcentration of development opportunities and welfare services in towns has made them relatively more attractive. The towns have been the focus of investments in productive enterprises such as factories and investment in infrastructure such as water supplies or medical services. These developments have made urban areas more attractive, thereby encouraging rural-urban migration (Ewusi, 1986). For example, the urban population growth rate between 1960 and 1970 was 4.7 percent per annum while the national average was 2.4 percent. The urban growth rate declined to 3.3 percent between 1970 and 1984 but was still much higher than the national average of 2.6 percent. Subsequently, the urban growth rate declined from 4.6 percent between 1984 and 2000 to 4.2 percent between 2000 and 2010, and further declined to 3.1 percent between 2010 and 2021, much higher still than the national growth rates of 2.7, 2.5 and 2.1 percent per annum over the same periods.

Another factor that has encouraged increased labour movement across space is the dramatic improvement in transportation and communication. This has made many places accessible and has reduced the cost of transport and communication drastically. The extension of the road network into rural areas has opened up many hitherto inaccessible areas. The improved communication system has widened the social networks of prospective migrants, thereby reducing the risks and costs associated with migration. It has also improved information dissemination, thus increasing the chances of rural residents locating jobs in the urban centres (Abdulai, 1999).

There have been some empirical studies which have supported the role of transportation in facilitating migration in Ghana. For example, Beals and Menezes (1970) have shown how reduced transport costs accelerated migration between the north and the south in the 1960s and 1970s. Johnson (1974) has also shown that the number of migrants between Greater Accra and each of the remaining regions in the country is inversely proportional to the distance between them. If distance is equated with transport cost, then it means the inflow of migrants from other regions to Greater Accra Region is influenced by transport costs. Similarly, a study of migration from the Upper East Region to southern Ghana for a period of at least one year in the late 1980s revealed that around one-half of all working age males and 15 percent of working age females were

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<sup>3</sup> It was only in the 1984 census that the Northern Region had a positive population change in the 1970 – 1984 inter-censal period



involved (Cleveland, 1991). A World Bank study, *Voices of the Poor Report on Ghana*, also observed that urban and rural young people feel they have no choice but to leave home in search of work. They asserted that if they could successfully generate remittances in migration, it could likely make the difference between food security and a lack of it for their families (Kunfaa, 1999).

Other studies have also revealed that family-related issues too have contributed to migration in Ghana. A nationwide survey conducted by Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) in 1995 revealed that as high as 64 percent of the rural-urban migrants moved to join their families. In most cases women migrate to join their husbands. In the Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS) of 1998/99, 60 percent of migrants cited marriage or other family reasons as the cause of their migration. Only 25 percent cited work as a reason. The results obtained, however, need to be interpreted with caution. For example, the GSS household sample included members who were at least seven years old, whilst the GLSS included all household members over 15 years. In both cases, this means many dependents of parents who migrated for economic reasons may have been classified as having moved for family reasons.

As noted above, there is evidence that policy reforms initiated in 1983 which altered the domestic terms of trade in favour of the rural sector led to reverse migration, as urban dwellers returned to the farm. This turnaround was captured in a survey by the Ghana Statistical Service, working with the World Bank on current and prior employment for over 8,000 individuals in Ghana (see Abdulai, 1999). The study revealed that among individuals who had changed occupations during the period, those moving from non-agricultural jobs into agricultural jobs outnumbered those moving in the opposite direction by a ratio of two-to-one (Abdulai, 1999). The difference could be attributed to a significant reverse migration from urban to rural areas after the reform programme was initiated. It must be explained, however, that not every agricultural occupation implies rural residence nor do all non-agricultural occupations suggest urban residence.

### **2.3.9. Consequences of migration**

Migration from northern to southern Ghana has been a long tradition, dating back to the colonial period when cheap labour from Northern Ghana moved seasonally or permanently to the mines, cocoa farms, and other sectors in the south (Nabila, 2001). Literature mentions the important role the migrants involved in this movement have played in the development of the country. It is believed that the positive effects of these movements on the areas of destination were to the detriment of the sending areas. Many researchers have alluded to this development as one of the factors responsible for the underdevelopment of the northern half of the country. This can also be seen as a chicken and egg relationship. Was it the outmigration of the male adults from the north which caused the underdevelopment of the area, or was it the underdevelopment which pushed the people out? Whichever way we look at it, there is a little bit of truth in both sides of the argument. Such a stalemate, however, calls for a more thorough study of the phenomenon to unravel the truth surrounding the long-standing north-south migration of people.

More recent migration from northern to southern Ghana has included children who seek employment in large cities, particularly, Accra, the capital city, and Kumasi. This new development could be characterised as children following the trails of their fathers. This phenomenon has caught the attention of researchers, policy makers and the media. Perhaps because of its newness and uniqueness, several studies have been conducted on child migrants and have revealed a lot of consequences on the child migrants themselves, the origin and the destination areas (Kwankye et al, 2007; Anarfi et al, 2003; Anarfi and Kwankye, 2009).

Migration entails risks and vulnerabilities to migrants, particularly young females. As a transforming experience, it can improve or worsen the position of young women in families and society. Many young migrant women from the north get involved in headload carrying or “kayayei” as an adaptive response to poverty, and this could increase their vulnerability to poverty and health risks. Some are exposed to sexual exploitation which further exposes them to sexually transmitted diseases including HIV and AIDS. The young migrants, especially those from the north, mainly work in the informal sector and are largely self-employed. Nonetheless, they also suffer some exploitation from adults who utilise their services (Anarfi et al, 2006). The environment in which they operate is also infested with drug peddling and abuse. The study on migrant children revealed that most of the males who operate on the streets in Accra get involved in drug abuse (Anarfi and Antwi, 1995).

In many parts of the world, the right of the migrant child is easily compromised, and his vulnerability increases. There is also the perception that children living on their own are either at risk or a threat to public order, which may jeopardise their conditions (Martins, 1992). Studies have observed that, some migrant children who make the streets their home in the capital city suffer periodic police raids (Anarfi and Antwi, 1995). Those who do not have relatives and friends in Accra live in informal settlements such as kiosks, uncompleted houses, and shacks. Sanitary conditions in such places are very bad as they usually have no access to public toilets and bath houses. Migrant street children are, therefore, forced to pay money for every little service, including visiting the toilet, having a bath, and even sleeping in front of shops. As a result, the need to get money all the time, and by all means, compels the children to do anything, both legal and illegal.

Studies have found that most independent child migrants eventually return to their places of origin. Many return voluntarily but quite a few are compelled to return to either take care of sick parents or to take custody and develop a family property such as land. The studies of Anarfi and Kwankye (2009) observed that when they return the independent child migrants are better off in terms of personal possessions, at least in the short run than their non-migrant counterparts. Their only problem, however, is that the public opinion about the migration of these young people to the cities of the south is not very favourable among the still very traditional elders of the home communities. In particular, they complain about the sexual immorality of the return migrants and the fact that some of the girls return with illegitimate children and sexually transmitted infections including HIV and AIDS.

A recent study found some element of trafficking in the north-south migration of children, especially among girls (Clay-Warner, et al, 2021). The study defined trafficking as the procurement of labour through force, fraud, or coercion. It observed that trafficked victims also commonly experience violence, which results in physical health problems through both injury and traumatic stress. These can affect the physical health of the victims decades after the violence has occurred.

It has been found that most of the child migrants migrated with the open or tacit support of their parents, and that the main motive of these independent child migrants was to acquire certain personal properties and return to lead new and better lives in the origin areas. As to whether they are able to achieve their objectives is still not fully answered. Other important issues also beg for answers. For example, it is not known under what circumstances they return and in what condition? On their return, how different are they from their non-migrant counterparts? Do they encounter any challenges trying to re-integrate into the home society? Most importantly, has the free secondary education policy in its current form affected the patterns and trend of the migration of children from the north to the south of the country? While the above questions are important in themselves, answers to them will also throw some light on the costs and benefits of the independent migration of children.

## CHAPTER THREE

### 3. CHARACTERISTICS OF MIGRANTS

#### 3.1. The General Population

##### 3.1.1. Demographic and socio-economic characteristics

The 2021 PHC shows that of a total of 30,832,019 people enumerated, 71.1 percent were non-migrants<sup>4</sup> and the remaining 28.9 percent were migrants<sup>5</sup>. The proportion of migrants in the population is much higher in the rural areas (33.9%) than urban areas (22.2%). Majority of the migrants (52.5%) were females compared with 47.5 percent who were males. This is almost a reflection of the total population, which also shows a female majority, albeit reduced (50.7% versus 49.3%). Among the non-migrants, however, there is virtually no difference in the proportions among females and males (50.9% and 49.1%, respectively).

The age composition of the migrant population is markedly different from the total population's and that of the non-migrants' (Table 3.1). First, the migrants are much older than the total population and non-migrants. The median age of the migrants is 29 years compared with 21 years for the total population and 18 years for the non-migrant population. Secondly, while the age distribution of the migrant population peaks at the 20-39-year age bracket, that of the non-migrant population is at the 0-19-year age bracket. Among the migrants, the proportion of the population in the 20-39 age bracket is much higher in the urban (44.8%) than rural areas (39.7%).

**TABLE 3.1: POPULATION BY AGE GROUP, SEX, MIGRATION STATUS AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Age group	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>All Locality Types</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
0-4	12.2	12.6	11.9	15.6	15.8	15.4	4.0	4.3	3.8
5-9	12.2	12.5	11.8	14.6	14.9	14.3	6.1	6.3	5.9
10-14	10.9	11.3	10.6	12.5	12.9	12.1	7.0	7.0	7.0
15-19	10.7	10.9	10.6	10.6	10.9	10.2	11.2	10.8	11.5
20-24	9.5	9.5	9.6	8.8	8.8	8.8	11.4	11.3	11.6
25-29	8.5	8.3	8.7	7.4	7.3	7.5	11.3	10.9	11.7
30-34	7.7	7.6	7.8	6.5	6.5	6.6	10.7	10.5	10.8
35-39	6.6	6.6	6.7	5.5	5.4	5.5	9.4	9.5	9.4
40-44	5.2	5.3	5.1	4.4	4.4	4.4	7.3	7.6	7.0

<sup>4</sup> A non-migrant is a person whose place of residence at the census date was the same as the place of birth.

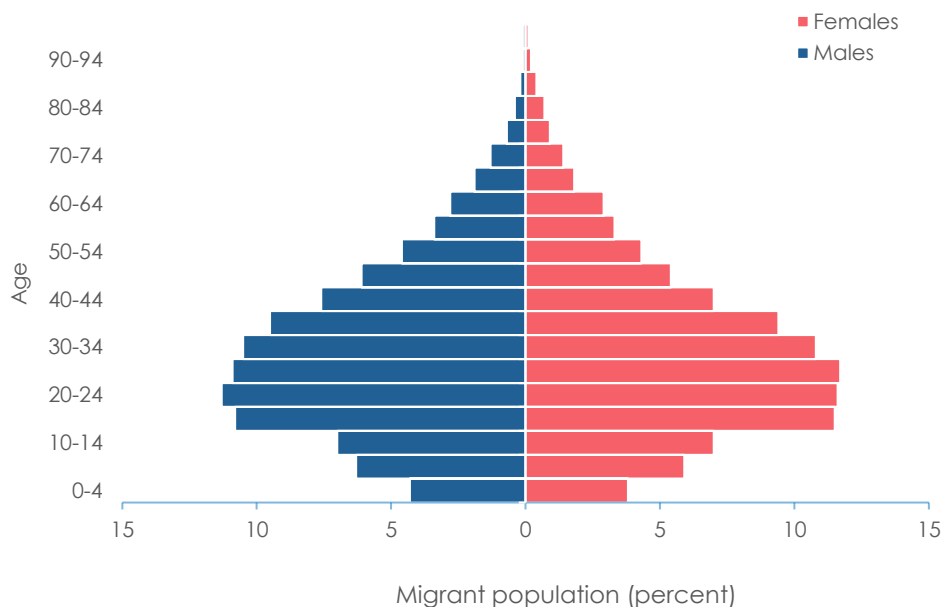
<sup>5</sup> A migrant is a person whose place of residence at the census date differs from his place of birth.

Age group	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
45-49	4.1	4.2	4.0	3.4	3.5	3.4	5.7	6.1	5.4
50-54	3.3	3.2	3.3	2.8	2.7	2.9	4.5	4.6	4.3
55-59	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.1	1.9	2.2	3.4	3.4	3.3
60-64	2.2	2.0	2.3	1.9	1.7	2.0	2.9	2.8	2.9
65-69	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.9	1.9	1.8
70-74	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.4
75-79	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.9
80-84	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.7
85-89	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4
90-94	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2
95+	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Median age	21	21	22	18	17	18	29	29	29
Urban									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
0-4	11.1	11.6	10.7	14.8	15.3	14.4	3.8	4.1	3.6
5-9	11.1	11.5	10.8	13.9	14.3	13.5	5.8	6.0	5.7
10-14	10.2	10.3	10.1	11.9	12.1	11.7	6.9	6.7	7.1
15-19	10.9	10.8	11.0	10.4	10.6	10.2	11.8	11.3	12.3
20-24	10.3	10.2	10.3	9.3	9.2	9.3	12.2	12.2	12.2
25-29	9.3	9.1	9.5	8.1	7.9	8.2	11.7	11.4	12.0
30-34	8.5	8.4	8.5	7.2	7.2	7.2	11.0	10.9	11.0
35-39	7.2	7.2	7.2	6.0	5.9	6.0	9.6	9.7	9.4
40-44	5.5	5.7	5.3	4.6	4.7	4.5	7.2	7.6	6.8
45-49	4.3	4.4	4.1	3.6	3.6	3.5	5.6	6.0	5.2
50-54	3.3	3.2	3.3	2.8	2.7	2.9	4.2	4.3	4.1
55-59	2.4	2.3	2.5	2.1	1.9	2.2	3.1	3.1	3.1
60-64	2.1	2.0	2.2	1.8	1.7	2.0	2.6	2.5	2.7
65-69	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.7
70-74	1.0	0.9	1.1	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.2
75-79	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.8
80-84	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.6
85-89	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.3
90-94	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
95+	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1
Median age	23	22	23	19	18	20	28	29	28
Rural									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
0-4	13.7	13.9	13.6	16.4	16.2	16.5	4.4	4.8	4.1
5-9	13.5	13.8	13.1	15.5	15.6	15.3	6.6	7.0	6.2
10-14	11.9	12.5	11.3	13.2	13.8	12.7	7.3	7.7	6.9
15-19	10.6	11.0	10.1	10.8	11.3	10.2	9.8	9.9	9.8
20-24	8.6	8.5	8.7	8.3	8.3	8.2	10.0	9.4	10.4
25-29	7.4	7.3	7.6	6.6	6.7	6.5	10.4	9.7	11.0

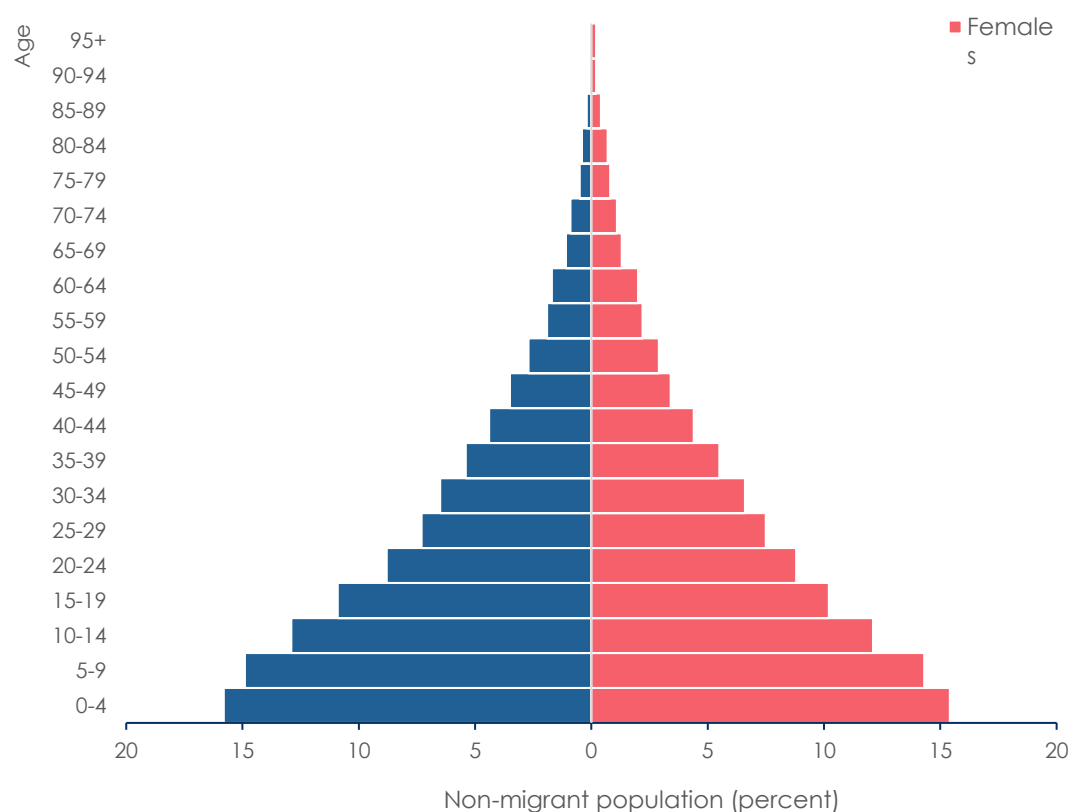
Age group	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
30-34	6.7	6.6	6.9	5.8	5.8	5.8	10.1	9.7	10.4
35-39	5.9	5.8	6.0	5.0	4.9	5.0	9.2	9.2	9.2
40-44	4.9	4.8	4.9	4.1	4.0	4.2	7.5	7.6	7.4
45-49	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.3	3.3	3.3	6.1	6.4	5.8
50-54	3.3	3.2	3.4	2.8	2.7	2.9	5.1	5.2	4.9
55-59	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.1	2.0	2.2	3.8	4.0	3.7
60-64	2.2	2.1	2.4	1.9	1.8	2.1	3.3	3.4	3.3
65-69	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.4	2.1	2.3	2.0
70-74	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.7	1.7	1.7
75-79	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.1
80-84	0.7	0.5	0.9	0.6	0.4	0.8	0.8	0.6	1.0
85-89	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.5
90-94	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2
95+	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2
Median age	20	19	20	17	16	17	30	30	30

Figure 3.1 presents the age distribution of the migrant population and shows a narrow base indicating a small proportion of children below age 15 in the population, and a bulging mid-section which indicates a high concentration of young adults between the ages of 15 and 49 years. In effect, there is a high concentration of the people in the economically active age bracket of the migrant population.

**FIGURE 3.1: THE AGE PYRAMID OF THE MIGRANT POPULATION**



**FIGURE 3.2: THE AGE PYRAMID OF THE NON-MIGRANT POPULATION**



### 3.1.2. Marital status

The largest proportion of the migrants (47.3%) have never married, which is slightly higher than that of the total population (44.9%) and the non-migrant population (40.4%) [Table 3.2]. This pattern is repeated in both the urban and rural areas. The proportion of never married is higher among male migrants (53.8%) than female migrants (41.0%). Male migrants are more likely to be never married (53.8%) than their non-migrant counterparts (46.0%). Not only is the proportion of married lower among the migrants (35.9%) than the non-migrants (43.2%), but also the proportion that has registered their marriages is lower still among migrants (5.3%) than the non-migrants (11.5%). While undergoing the process of settlement at their destinations, migrants are known to enter into informal conjugal relationships as part of their survival strategies (Anarfi, 1993).

**TABLE 3.2: POPULATION 12 YEARS AND OLDER BY MARITAL STATUS, MIGRATION STATUS, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Marital Status	Total			Migrant			Non-Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>All Locality Types</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Never married	44.9	51.1	39.0	47.3	53.8	41.0	40.4	46.0	35.4
Informal/living together	7.5	7.1	7.8	7.4	6.9	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.8
Married	38.5	37.3	39.6	35.9	34.8	37.0	43.2	42.0	44.2
Married (Registered)	7.4	7.4	7.4	5.3	5.2	5.4	11.2	11.5	10.9

Marital Status	Total			Migrant			Non-Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Married (Not registered)	31.1	29.9	32.2	30.6	29.6	31.6	31.9	30.5	33.2
Separated	1.9	1.4	2.3	1.9	1.5	2.4	1.7	1.4	2.0
Divorced	2.5	1.8	3.2	2.5	1.8	3.3	2.5	1.9	3.1
Widowed	4.8	1.3	8.1	4.9	1.3	8.5	4.6	1.4	7.5
<b>Urban</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Never married	48.5	54.0	43.5	50.6	56.7	44.9	45.5	49.9	41.5
Informal/living together	6.3	6.1	6.5	6.3	6.0	6.6	6.3	6.1	6.4
Married	36.5	35.9	37.1	34.2	33.2	35.2	39.9	40.0	39.8
Married (Registered)	9.9	10.0	9.9	7.4	7.3	7.4	13.7	14.1	13.4
Married (Not registered)	26.6	25.9	27.2	26.8	25.9	27.7	26.2	26.0	26.4
Separated	1.8	1.3	2.3	1.9	1.4	2.4	1.7	1.2	2.2
Divorced	2.4	1.5	3.2	2.4	1.5	3.2	2.4	1.5	3.2
Widowed	4.4	1.2	7.4	4.6	1.2	7.8	4.2	1.2	6.8
<b>Rural</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Never married	39.7	47.2	32.3	43.5	50.5	36.2	30.0	37.9	23.2
Informal/living together	9.1	8.4	9.8	8.6	7.8	9.4	10.3	10.0	10.7
Married	41.2	39.1	43.3	37.9	36.6	39.2	49.7	46.2	52.8
Married (Registered)	3.8	3.8	3.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	6.1	6.3	6.0
Married (Not registered)	37.4	35.4	39.4	35.0	33.7	36.3	43.6	39.9	46.8
Separated	1.9	1.6	2.2	2.0	1.6	2.4	1.7	1.7	1.7
Divorced	2.7	2.2	3.2	2.7	2.0	3.4	2.7	2.6	2.8
Widowed	5.4	1.5	9.2	5.3	1.4	9.3	5.5	1.6	8.8

### 3.1.3. School attendance

Majority of migrants (53.6%) have attended school in the past, compared with about 40.0 percent of the total population and only 33.7 percent of the non-migrant population (Table 3.3). The proportions are higher for males than females among all three categories of population and in all locality types.

**TABLE 3.3: POPULATION 3 YEARS OR OLDER BY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE, MIGRATION STATUS, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

School Attendance	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>All Locality Types</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Never attended	20.8	17.0	24.4	22.3	18.8	25.8	17.3	12.8	21.4
Attending Now	39.5	41.2	37.8	44.0	45.8	42.2	29.1	30.2	28.1
Attended Past	39.7	41.7	37.8	33.7	35.4	31.9	53.6	57.0	50.5
<b>Urban</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Never attended	13.2	9.7	16.5	14.8	11.2	18.3	10.4	7.1	13.4
Attending Now	41.2	42.8	39.6	46.4	48.4	44.5	31.7	32.5	31.0



School Attendance	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Attended Past	45.6	47.4	43.9	38.8	40.5	37.2	57.9	60.4	55.6
<b>Rural</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Never attended	30.8	26.4	35.2	30.7	27.0	34.6	31.1	24.4	37.1
Attending Now	37.2	39.2	35.3	41.4	43.0	39.6	23.9	25.6	22.3
Attended Past	31.9	34.4	29.5	27.9	30.0	25.7	45.0	50.0	40.6

### 3.1.4. Level of education

The same pattern observed in school attendance in Table 3.3 is reflected in the level of education attained (Table 3.4). Among the non-migrants, a large majority (60.7%) have attained just basic education, compared with 49.6 percent of the migrants. On the contrary, more than twice as much of migrants (16.2%) as non-migrants (7.4%) have attained tertiary level of education. Similarly, much larger proportions of migrants (25.1%) than non-migrants (17.2%) have attained secondary level education. The pattern is the same for both males and females and in both types of localities. The general picture is that migrants appear to be better educated than non-migrants and the general population at large.

**TABLE 3.4: POPULATION 3 YEARS OR OLDER BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, MIGRATION STATUS, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Level of Education	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>All Locality Types</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Nursery	2.7	2.6	2.7	3.4	3.3	3.5	1.1	1.1	1.1
Kindergarten	7.1	7.0	7.1	9.0	8.8	9.2	3.0	3.0	3.0
Primary	27.0	25.6	28.6	31.1	29.7	32.5	18.5	16.4	20.5
JSS/JHS	25.0	23.6	26.5	25.1	24.1	26.3	24.6	22.5	26.7
Middle	5.1	5.5	4.7	4.5	4.8	4.2	6.5	7.1	6.0
SSS/SHS	17.6	18.3	16.8	15.5	16.4	14.5	22.2	22.7	21.7
Secondary	2.1	2.4	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.4	2.9	3.4	2.4
Voc/Technical/Commercial	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.0	1.1	1.0	2.3	2.3	2.2
Post middle/secondary Certificate	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.7	0.7
Post middle/secondary Diploma	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.1	1.0	1.1	2.1	1.9	2.3
Tertiary-Higher National Diploma	2.4	2.7	2.0	2.1	2.4	1.7	3.1	3.5	2.6
Tertiary - Bachelor's Degree	5.9	6.9	4.8	4.1	4.8	3.3	9.7	11.5	7.8
Tertiary - Postgraduate Certificate/Diploma	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.5	1.3	1.7
Tertiary - Master's Degree	0.8	1.1	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.3	1.6	2.1	1.0
Tertiary - Doctoral Degree	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.1
Other	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.1

Level of Education	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>Urban</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Nursery	2.8	2.8	2.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	1.1	1.2	1.1
Kindergarten	6.1	6.2	6.0	8.1	8.1	8.1	2.6	2.7	2.6
Primary	22.6	21.2	24.1	26.9	25.7	28.2	15.3	13.4	17.2
JSS/JHS	23.1	21.5	24.8	23.2	21.9	24.7	22.9	20.8	25.0
Middle	5.0	5.0	5.0	4.4	4.4	4.3	6.1	6.2	6.0
SSS/SHS	20.5	21.2	19.8	18.3	19.2	17.5	24.2	24.7	23.7
Secondary	2.5	2.8	2.2	2.1	2.3	1.8	3.2	3.7	2.8
Voc/Technical/Commercial	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.4	1.4	1.4	2.6	2.6	2.6
Post middle/secondary Certificate	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.8
Post middle/secondary Diploma	1.6	1.4	1.8	1.3	1.2	1.4	2.1	1.8	2.4
Tertiary-Higher National Diploma	2.9	3.3	2.5	2.5	2.9	2.2	3.5	4.1	3.0
Tertiary - Bachelor's Degree	8.0	9.3	6.5	5.9	6.9	4.8	11.6	13.7	9.4
Tertiary - Postgraduate Certificate/Diploma	1.1	1.0	1.3	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.6	1.4	1.8
Tertiary - Master's Degree	1.1	1.5	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.5	2.0	2.6	1.3
Tertiary - Doctoral Degree	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.4	0.1
Other	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1
<b>Rural</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Nursery	2.4	2.3	2.5	2.8	2.6	3.0	1.1	1.0	1.1
Kindergarten	8.7	8.3	9.1	10.1	9.6	10.7	3.8	3.7	3.9
Primary	34.4	32.5	36.5	36.8	35.0	38.8	26.6	23.8	29.5
JSS/JHS	28.1	26.9	29.4	27.8	26.9	28.7	29.0	26.7	31.4
Middle	5.3	6.2	4.4	4.6	5.2	3.9	7.7	9.5	5.8
SSS/SHS	12.8	13.9	11.6	11.5	12.7	10.0	17.0	17.7	16.4
Secondary	1.3	1.7	0.9	1.1	1.4	0.8	2.0	2.6	1.4
Voc/Technical/Commercial	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.5	1.5	1.7	1.2
Post middle/secondary Certificate	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.6	0.6	0.6
Post middle/secondary Diploma	1.1	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.6	2.1	2.1	2.0
Tertiary-Higher National Diploma	1.5	1.8	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.1	1.9	2.2	1.6
Tertiary - Bachelor's Degree	2.4	3.0	1.7	1.7	2.1	1.1	4.7	5.9	3.4
Tertiary - Postgraduate Certificate/Diploma	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.3	1.2	1.2	1.3
Tertiary - Master's Degree	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.6	0.9	0.3
Tertiary - Doctoral Degree	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.0
Other	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1

### 3.1.5. Economic activity

The economic activity status of the population represents all persons of either sex who supply their labour to produce economic goods and services. This includes persons who were economically active or economically inactive at the time of the census. The economically active includes both the employed and the unemployed, and therefore represents the labour force of the population at the time of the census. Table 3.5 indicates that the proportion economically active was significantly higher among the migrants (63.6%) than the total population (58.1%) and the non-migrant population (54.8%). The proportions are much higher among males (70.0%, 63.5% and 59.9% respectively) than among females. Among the migrants, the proportion economically active is higher in the rural areas (65.7%) than the urban areas (62.6%), and higher among males (74.6%) than females (58.1%). Within the labour force, the proportion unemployed is lower among the migrants (6.4%) than the total population (7.8%) and the non-migrant population (8.6%). In all the categories of population, the proportions unemployed are higher among females than males.

**TABLE 3.5: POPULATION 15 YEARS AND OLDER BY ECONOMIC ACTIVITY STATUS, MIGRATION STATUS, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Activity status	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>All Locality types</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Labour force	58.1	63.5	53.0	54.8	59.9	50.0	63.6	70.0	57.9
Employed	50.3	56.1	44.7	46.2	51.6	41.0	57.2	64.3	50.9
Unemployed	7.8	7.3	8.2	8.6	8.3	9.0	6.4	5.7	7.0
Population outside labour force	41.9	36.5	47.0	45.2	40.1	50.0	36.4	30.0	42.1
<b>Urban</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Labour force	58.5	63.4	54.0	55.6	60.3	51.2	62.6	67.8	57.9
Employed	50.2	55.4	45.4	46.1	50.9	41.6	55.9	61.8	50.6
Unemployed	8.3	8.0	8.6	9.5	9.5	9.6	6.6	6.0	7.2
Population outside labour force	41.5	36.6	46.0	44.4	39.7	48.8	37.4	32.2	42.1
<b>Rural</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Labour force	57.4	63.6	51.5	53.9	59.3	48.5	65.7	74.6	58.1
Employed	50.4	57.2	43.8	46.4	52.4	40.2	59.8	69.6	51.4
Unemployed	7.1	6.4	7.7	7.6	6.9	8.2	5.8	4.9	6.6
Population outside labour force	42.6	36.4	48.5	46.1	40.7	51.5	34.3	25.4	41.9

### 3.1.6. Occupation

Proportion of migrants in the various occupations are higher than the non-migrants except the skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers. The proportion of migrants who are managers (2.5%), is also higher than that of non-migrants (1.6%); similarly, the proportion of migrants who are professionals (10.7%) is higher than that of non-migrants (6.7%) [Table 3.6]. A similar relationship could be found between migrants who are technicians and associate professionals (2.4%) and their non-migrant counterparts (1.3%), as well as clerical support workers (2.6% versus 1.7%). The proportions are quite

similar between migrants and non-migrants among services and sales workers, craft and related trades workers, and plant and machine operators and assemblers' occupational groups.

The differential patterns between migrants and non-migrants, and among the various occupational groups is almost repeated in the urban and rural areas. However, the urban proportions are a little higher than those of all the localities together, and more distinctly higher than those of the rural areas. That reveals that migrants who are managers and professionals, as well as those who are technicians and associate professionals, are more concentrated in urban than rural areas.

**TABLE 3.6: POPULATION 15 YEARS AND OLDER BY MIGRATION STATUS, MAJOR OCCUPATION, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Occupation	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>All Locality Types</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Managers	2.0	2.4	1.6	1.6	1.9	1.3	2.5	3.1	1.9
Professionals	8.4	8.8	7.9	6.7	7.2	6.1	10.7	11.2	10.2
Technicians and associate professionals	1.7	2.0	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.1	2.4	2.8	2.0
Clerical support workers	2.1	2.1	2.0	1.7	1.8	1.6	2.6	2.7	2.5
Service and sales workers	26.5	12.4	43.2	24.1	10.4	40.8	29.9	15.4	46.3
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers	32.0	35.4	28.0	38.3	42.5	33.2	23.2	25.1	21.1
Craft and related trades workers	16.1	21.1	10.3	16.0	20.4	10.7	16.3	22.1	9.7
Plant and machine operators, and assemblers	6.2	11.2	0.4	6.0	10.6	0.3	6.6	12.0	0.4
Elementary occupation workers	4.8	4.3	5.3	4.2	3.7	4.9	5.5	5.3	5.7
Other occupations	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.1
<b>Urban</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Managers	2.8	3.4	2.2	2.4	2.8	1.9	3.3	4.1	2.5
Professionals	11.1	11.8	10.4	9.8	10.5	9.0	12.6	13.2	12.0
Technicians and associate professionals	2.6	3.0	2.1	2.0	2.3	1.7	3.2	3.7	2.6
Clerical support workers	3.1	3.2	2.9	2.7	2.8	2.5	3.5	3.6	3.4
Service and sales workers	35.3	17.9	54.8	33.2	15.8	53.1	37.6	20.4	56.8
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers	11.6	13.9	8.9	16.4	19.6	12.8	5.9	7.2	4.5
Craft and related trades workers	20.3	27.6	12.1	20.8	27.7	12.8	19.7	27.4	11.2
Plant and machine operators, and assemblers	7.7	14.2	0.4	7.5	13.8	0.4	7.9	14.7	0.5
Elementary occupation workers	5.3	4.6	6.0	4.9	4.1	5.7	5.8	5.2	6.4
Other occupations	0.3	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.6	0.2
<b>Rural</b>									

Occupation	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Managers	0.8	1.0	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.6	1.0	1.3	0.8
Professionals	4.4	4.8	3.9	3.0	3.5	2.4	7.0	7.4	6.5
Technicians and associate professionals	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.3	1.0	1.1	0.9
Clerical support workers	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.8	0.9	0.7
Service and sales workers	13.9	5.0	25.2	13.2	4.4	24.8	15.3	6.1	26.0
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers	61.4	64.7	57.3	64.4	68.0	59.6	56.0	58.3	53.3
Craft and related trades workers	10.1	12.2	7.5	10.3	12.1	7.9	9.7	12.2	6.8
Plant and machine operators, and assemblers	4.1	7.1	0.3	4.1	7.0	0.2	4.0	7.1	0.4
Elementary occupation workers	4.0	3.9	4.1	3.5	3.2	3.9	5.0	5.4	4.5
Other occupations	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.0

### 3.1.7. Industry

Like the non-migrant and total population, the main economic activity (industry) of the migrants is in the agriculture, forestry and fishing sector (24.3%), followed by wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles (21.5%) [Table 3.7]. This is followed remotely by other service activities (9.1%), with female proportion (9.7%) a little higher than males' (8.7%), then education (7.1%). In the urban areas the largest proportion of migrant economic activities (27.5%) is found in the wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles sector, followed by other service activities (11.8%), manufacturing, and education (8.0% each). In the rural areas, however, a clear majority (57.7%) is in the agriculture, forestry and fishing sector, followed by wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles (10.2%).

**TABLE 3.7: POPULATION 15 YEARS AND OLDER BY MIGRATION STATUS, MAJOR INDUSTRY, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Industry	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>All locality Types</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	33.0	36.6	28.8	39.3	43.7	34.0	24.3	26.5	21.8
Mining and quarrying	1.1	1.9	0.2	1.0	1.6	0.2	1.3	2.2	0.3
Manufacturing	6.7	5.9	7.7	6.6	5.4	8.0	6.9	6.5	7.2
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	0.5	0.9	0.1	0.5	0.9	0.0	0.6	1.0	0.1
Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1
Construction	5.2	9.1	0.7	5.0	8.5	0.7	5.5	9.9	0.6

Industry	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	18.7	10.1	28.8	16.6	8.4	26.6	21.5	12.6	31.6
Transportation and storage	5.2	9.5	0.2	5.2	9.4	0.2	5.2	9.6	0.2
Accommodation and food service activities	5.3	1.5	9.8	5.1	1.4	9.7	5.5	1.6	9.9
Information and communication	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.6	1.0	0.3
Financial and insurance activities	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.8	1.9	1.6
Real estate activities	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.0
Professional, scientific and technical activities	1.4	1.7	1.0	1.1	1.4	0.8	1.7	2.2	1.2
Administrative and support service activities	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	1.1	1.3	0.9
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	1.7	2.3	0.9	1.1	1.6	0.6	2.4	3.3	1.3
Education	5.9	6.1	5.7	5.1	5.4	4.6	7.1	7.2	7.1
Human health and social work activities	2.6	1.9	3.4	2.0	1.5	2.6	3.5	2.5	4.5
Arts, entertainment and recreation	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.8
Other service activities	8.3	7.6	9.1	7.7	6.9	8.6	9.1	8.7	9.7
Activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods- and services-producing activities of households for own use	0.5	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.7
Activities of extraterritorial organisations and bodies	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
Urban									
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	12.3	14.8	9.5	17.2	20.5	13.4	6.6	8.1	5.0
Mining and quarrying	0.9	1.6	0.2	0.9	1.6	0.1	1.0	1.6	0.2
Manufacturing	8.1	7.6	8.5	8.2	7.3	9.2	8.0	8.1	7.8
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	0.7	1.3	0.1	0.7	1.3	0.1	0.8	1.3	0.1
Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1
Construction	6.4	11.4	0.7	6.2	11.0	0.8	6.6	11.9	0.6
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	25.4	14.9	37.2	23.5	13.1	35.4	27.5	16.9	39.2
Transportation and storage	6.5	12.1	0.3	6.6	12.2	0.2	6.5	12.0	0.3
Accommodation and food service activities	6.5	2.0	11.7	6.5	1.9	11.8	6.5	2.0	11.5

Industry	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Information and communication	0.8	1.1	0.3	0.6	0.9	0.3	0.9	1.4	0.4
Financial and insurance activities	2.2	2.3	1.9	1.9	2.1	1.7	2.4	2.6	2.2
Real estate activities	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.1
Professional, scientific and technical activities	2.0	2.5	1.4	1.7	2.1	1.2	2.3	2.9	1.5
Administrative and support service activities	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.1	1.2	0.9	1.5	1.7	1.3
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	2.4	3.4	1.3	1.8	2.5	1.0	3.2	4.4	1.8
Education	7.5	7.6	7.3	7.0	7.5	6.6	8.0	7.8	8.2
Human health and social work activities	3.6	2.7	4.6	3.0	2.3	3.9	4.3	3.1	5.5
Arts, entertainment and recreation	1.2	1.3	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.0
Other service activities	11.3	10.9	11.9	10.9	10.4	11.5	11.8	11.5	12.3
Activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods- and services-producing activities of households for own use	0.6	0.4	0.8	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.9
Activities of extraterritorial organisations and bodies	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0
Rural									
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	62.9	66.4	58.4	65.6	69.4	60.6	57.7	60.6	54.5
Mining and quarrying	1.4	2.2	0.3	1.1	1.7	0.3	2.0	3.4	0.5
Manufacturing	4.7	3.4	6.3	4.7	3.3	6.5	4.8	3.7	6.1
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	0.3	0.5	0.0	0.3	0.4	0.0	0.3	0.5	0.0
Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0
Construction	3.5	5.9	0.5	3.5	5.6	0.6	3.6	6.3	0.5
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	9.0	3.7	15.8	8.4	3.2	15.2	10.2	4.6	16.7
Transportation and storage	3.3	5.9	0.1	3.6	6.3	0.1	2.8	5.2	0.1
Accommodation and food service activities	3.4	0.8	6.8	3.4	0.8	6.9	3.5	0.8	6.7
Information and communication	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.1
Financial and insurance activities	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.5
Real estate activities	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0

Industry	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Professional, scientific and technical activities	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.8	0.9	0.6
Administrative and support service activities	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.3
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	0.6	0.8	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.9	1.3	0.4
Education	3.7	4.1	3.1	2.7	3.2	2.1	5.5	6.0	5.0
Human health and social work activities	1.2	0.9	1.5	0.8	0.6	0.9	1.9	1.4	2.5
Arts, entertainment and recreation	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5
Other service activities	3.9	3.1	4.8	3.8	3.0	4.8	4.1	3.5	4.7
Activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods- and services-producing activities of households for own use	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4
Activities of extraterritorial organisations and bodies	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

## 3.2. Employment status

Nearly 60.0 percent (59.9%) of the migrants are self-employed, 52.9 percent without employees and 7.0 percent with employees, compared to 71.5 percent of non-migrants (65.1% without employees and 6.4% with employees). Thus, clearly, migrants who work for others for pay (employees) are in the minority (34.2%), although their proportion is much higher than their non-migrant counterparts' (22.3%). There are striking urban-rural differences as well. Nearly three-quarters (73.0%) of the migrants in the rural areas are either self-employed without employees (67.7%) or with employees (5.3%), compared with 53.0 percent in the urban areas, 45.1 percent without employees and 7.9 percent with employees. The comparative non-migrant proportion is 71.5 percent, 65.1 percent self-employed without employees and 6.4 percent with employees. At all levels, female migrants are more likely than their male counterparts to be self-employed. The comparative proportions for females and males are, 67.8 percent and 52.9 percent at the national; 62.6 percent and 44.5 percent at the urban; and 78.2 percent and 68.4 percent at the rural areas respectively. On the other hand, greater proportions of male than female migrants are self-employed with employees – 8.0 percent versus 5.8 percent at the national; 9.1 percent versus 6.6 percent at the urban; and 6.0 percent versus 4.4 percent at the rural areas. That implies that, not only do a higher proportion of male migrants create jobs for themselves, but they also create jobs for others (Table 3.8).

**TABLE 3.8: POPULATION 15 YEARS AND OLDER BY MIGRATION STATUS, EMPLOYMENT STATUS, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Employment status	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All Locality Types									
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Employee	27.3	33.0	20.5	22.3	27.0	16.5	34.2	41.6	25.9



Employment status	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Self-employed without employees	60.0	53.7	67.4	65.1	60.0	71.4	52.9	44.9	62.0
Self-employed with employees	6.7	7.4	5.8	6.4	7.0	5.7	7.0	8.0	5.8
Casual worker	2.0	2.7	1.3	1.8	2.4	1.1	2.3	3.1	1.4
Contributing family worker	2.9	2.2	3.8	3.2	2.6	3.9	2.5	1.6	3.6
Paid apprentice	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0
Unpaid apprentice	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.7	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.8
Domestic worker	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2
Other	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2
Urban									
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Employee	36.6	44.3	28.0	32.1	39.1	24.2	41.8	50.3	32.3
Self-employed without employees	50.2	41.4	60.1	54.6	46.6	63.7	45.1	35.4	56.0
Self-employed with employees	7.8	8.8	6.6	7.7	8.6	6.7	7.9	9.1	6.6
Casual worker	2.2	2.8	1.5	2.0	2.7	1.3	2.3	3.0	1.6
Contributing family worker	1.9	1.5	2.3	2.1	1.7	2.5	1.6	1.2	2.1
Paid apprentice	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Unpaid apprentice	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.3	0.8	0.7	0.9
Domestic worker	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3
Other	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Rural									
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Employee	13.8	17.5	9.1	10.5	13.5	6.6	19.8	25.2	13.4
Self-employed without employees	74.1	70.6	78.5	77.6	74.8	81.3	67.7	62.4	73.8
Self-employed with employees	5.0	5.5	4.4	4.9	5.2	4.5	5.3	6.0	4.4
Casual worker	1.8	2.5	0.9	1.6	2.1	0.8	2.3	3.3	1.1
Contributing family worker	4.4	3.2	6.0	4.5	3.6	5.8	4.3	2.4	6.5
Paid apprentice	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Unpaid apprentice	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.5	0.4	0.6
Domestic worker	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2

### 3.3. Employment sector

An overwhelming majority of the migrants (91.7%) are either in the private informal sector (80.9%) or private formal sector (10.8%) of employment (Table 3.9). There is not much difference between male proportion (90.7%) and female proportion (93.0%). Less than one out of ten (7.6%) of the migrants is in public (government) sector of employment. Again, the difference between male (8.4%) and female (6.6%) migrants is marginal. The pattern of distribution is almost repeated at both urban and rural areas with proportions of migrants in the private formal and informal sectors much higher in rural (94.2%) than urban (86.5%) areas.

**TABLE 3.9: POPULATION 15 YEARS AND OLDER BY EMPLOYMENT SECTOR, MIGRATION STATUS, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY.**

Employment Sector	Total			Migrant			Non-migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>All Locality Type</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Public (Government)	9.5	10.3	8.5	7.6	8.4	6.6	12.1	13.1	11.1
Semi-Public/Parastatal	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.4
Private Formal	12.6	14.8	9.9	10.8	12.3	9.0	15.0	18.4	11.1
Private Informal	77.1	73.7	81.1	80.9	78.4	84.0	71.7	66.9	77.1
Local NGO/CSO	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
International NGO/CSO	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Religious Organisation (Local)	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.6	0.1

Employment Sector	Total			Migrant			Non-migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Religious Organisation (International)	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0
International Organisation	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
<b>Urban</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Public (Government)	12.4	13.5	11.1	10.8	12.0	9.5	14.2	15.3	12.9
Semi-Public/Parastatal	0.5	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.3	0.6	0.8	0.4
Private Formal	16.8	20.2	12.9	14.9	17.6	11.9	18.9	23.2	14.0
Private Informal	69.7	64.7	75.3	73.3	69.1	78.0	65.5	59.5	72.2
Local NGO/CSO	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
International NGO/CSO	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Religious Organisation (Local)	0.4	0.6	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.5	0.8	0.2
Religious Organisation (International)	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0
International Organisation	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0
<b>Rural</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Public (Government)	5.3	5.9	4.5	3.7	4.3	2.8	8.3	9.0	7.5
Semi-Public/Parastatal	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.2
Private Formal	6.5	7.5	5.2	5.9	6.5	5.1	7.5	9.3	5.5
Private Informal	87.7	86.0	89.9	90.1	88.7	91.9	83.4	80.7	86.6
Local NGO/CSO	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
International NGO/CSO	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
Religious Organisation (Local)	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.4	0.1
Religious Organisation (International)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
International Organisation	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

It is worth noting that the tendency for migrants to work with either a written agreement with undetermined duration (40.0%) or with a fixed duration (17.3%) is a little higher than it is with the total population (37.2% and 16.5%) and their non-migrant counterparts (34.8% and 15.8%) [Table 3.10]. Among the migrants, the proportions are higher in the urban (42.2% for the former and 17.6% for the latter) than the rural areas (32.7% and 16.5% respectively).

**TABLE 3.10: EMPLOYED POPULATION 15 YEARS AND OLDER BY MIGRATION STATUS AND BY TYPE OF WORK CONTRACT/ AGREEMENT AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Type of contract	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant			Intra-regional migrant			Inter-regional migrant		
	Total	Female	Male	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All locality types/ <b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Written agreement with undetermined duration	37.2	37.1	37.4	34.8	34.6	35.3	40.0	40.1	39.9	41.4	41.3	41.7	39.1	39.5	38.6
Written agreement with fixed duration	16.5	17.0	15.7	15.8	16.4	15.0	17.3	17.8	16.6	18.4	18.8	17.9	16.7	17.3	15.7
Verbal agreement	23.2	26.9	17.5	24.1	28.2	17.7	22.1	25.3	17.2	19.7	23.4	14.5	23.6	26.4	19.0
No contract/agreement	23.0	19.0	29.4	25.2	20.9	32.0	20.6	16.8	26.4	20.5	16.6	25.9	20.6	16.9	26.7
Urban <b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Written agreement with undetermined duration	39.9	40.3	39.4	37.9	37.9	37.8	42.2	42.9	41.1	43.6	43.7	43.5	41.3	42.5	39.6
Written agreement with fixed duration	17.1	17.8	16.2	16.8	17.4	15.9	17.6	18.2	16.5	18.6	19.0	18.0	17.0	17.8	15.6
Verbal agreement	20.8	23.7	16.5	21.5	24.8	16.4	20.1	22.4	16.7	18.1	21.2	13.9	21.3	23.1	18.5
No contract/agreement	22.1	18.3	27.8	23.9	19.9	29.9	20.2	16.4	25.6	19.7	16.1	24.6	20.4	16.5	26.3
Rural <b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Written agreement with undetermined duration	29.1	28.3	30.6	26.6	26.2	27.2	32.7	31.3	35.2	35.2	34.5	36.2	30.7	29.0	34.2
Written agreement with fixed duration	14.6	15.0	14.1	13.3	13.9	12.1	16.5	16.5	16.6	17.9	18.1	17.5	15.5	15.3	15.8
Verbal agreement	30.4	35.7	20.7	31.5	36.6	21.9	28.9	34.4	19.0	24.2	29.4	16.5	32.4	37.7	21.4
No contract/agreement	25.8	21.1	34.6	28.7	23.3	38.7	21.9	17.9	29.2	22.7	17.9	29.8	21.4	17.9	28.6

### 3.4. Ownership of functional ICT devices

Table 3.11 presents migrant and non-migrant populations 12 years and older by ownership of mobile phones and by sex. A higher proportion of non-migrants (89.6%) than migrants (79.8%) own mobile phones of any kind. Among the non-migrants, 80.1 percent owned smart phones, with 51.6 percent owning smart phones only, and 28.5 percent owning both smart phones and non-smart phones. With the migrants, however, the comparative proportions are 69.4 percent, of which 45.0 percent are smart phone only and 24.4 percent are both smart phone and non-smart phone. The proportion of non-migrants who own mobile phones is higher in the urban (94.2%) than in rural areas (80.3%), and is higher among males in all localities, urban and rural areas (92.6%, 95.6% and 86.0% respectively) than females (86.9%, 93.0% and 75.2% respectively).

**TABLE 3.11: POPULATION 12 YEARS AND OLDER BY OWNERSHIP OF FUNCTIONAL MOBILE PHONES, MIGRATION STATUS SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Device Type/Migration Status	All Locality Types			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>Non-Migrant</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Smart phone only	51.6	55.2	48.4	60.7	63.7	58.0	33.2	37.4	29.5
Non-smart phone only	9.5	7.1	11.6	5.8	3.6	7.8	17.0	14.3	19.3
Both smart and non-smart phone	28.5	30.3	26.9	27.7	28.3	27.2	30.1	34.3	26.4
None	10.4	7.5	13.0	5.7	4.3	7.0	19.8	13.9	24.8
<b>Migrant</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Smart phone only	45.0	47.9	42.1	55.7	59.2	52.5	32.3	35.1	29.4
Non-smart phone only	10.4	8.7	12.0	7.7	5.5	9.8	13.4	12.3	14.5
Both smart and non-smart phone	24.4	25.8	23.0	23.9	24.4	23.4	24.9	27.4	22.4
None	20.3	17.6	22.9	12.6	10.9	14.2	29.4	25.2	33.7

#### 3.4.1. Usage of mobile phones for financial transaction

In all localities, 67.8 percent of migrants compared with 52.5 percent of non-migrants, used mobile phone for financial transaction three months before the census night (Table 3.12). Among the migrants, the proportions are higher in the urban (75.5%) than rural (52.3%) areas. About two-thirds (66.8%) of the use of mobile phone for monetary transaction among the migrants was mobile money transfer.

**TABLE 3.12: POPULATION 12 YEARS AND OLDER WHO USED MOBILE PHONE FOR FINANCIAL TRANSACTION IN THE LAST 3 MONTHS BY MIGRATION STATUS, SEX, AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Type of financial transactions/Migration Status	All Locality Types			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>Non-migrant</b>									
<b>Total population of non-migrants 6 years and older</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>0.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Used mobile phone for financial transaction	52.5	54.6	50.3	62.3	64.4	60.5	40.8	43.7	37.8
Mobile money only	48.7	50.3	47.1	57.4	58.7	56.2	38.4	41.0	35.8
Other financial transactions only	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.1	0.9

Type of financial transactions/Migration Status	All Locality Types			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Both mobile money and other financial transactions	2.7	3.1	2.2	3.8	4.4	3.2	1.4	1.7	1.1
Did not use mobile phone for financial transaction	47.5	45.4	49.7	37.7	35.6	39.5	59.2	56.3	62.2
Migrant									
Total population of migrants 6 years and older	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Used mobile phone for financial transaction	67.8	71.4	64.6	75.5	78.3	73.0	52.3	57.2	48.0
Mobile money only	61.4	63.5	59.4	67.7	68.9	66.7	48.5	52.5	45.0
Other financial transactions only	1.0	1.2	0.9	1.0	1.2	0.9	1.1	1.3	0.9
Both mobile money and other financial transactions	5.4	6.7	4.3	6.8	8.2	5.4	2.7	3.5	2.1
Did not use mobile phone for financial transaction	32.2	28.6	35.4	24.5	21.7	27.0	47.7	42.8	52.0

### 3.5. Migrant Children

The 2021 PHC gave the total population of children 5–17 years as 9,069,549. Out of this number, 1,631,391 were migrant children, constituting 18.0 percent of the total population of children 5-17 years, and 5.3 percent of the total population of the country. Migrant children were made up of 47.4 percent males and 52.6 percent females. From Table 5.13 it could be observed that unlike the total population of children and the non-migrant children, the migrant children are almost evenly distributed among the three age groups 5-9 years (31.5%), 10-14 years (36.3%) and 15-17 years (32.2%). The pattern is almost the same for both sexes and both locality types. Between the migrant types, the proportions in the 5-9-year group for the total population and the sexes were visibly lower than the two older age groups among the inter-regional migrants than their intra-regional counterparts. Perhaps it suggests that people are a little cautious in taking very young children on journeys over long distances. It could also mean that most of the older children migrated independently, underscoring the developing trend of autonomous child migration in Ghana (See Anarfi and Kwankye, 2009).

**TABLE 3.13: POPULATION 5-17 YEARS BY AGE GROUP AND MIGRATION STATUS**

Age group	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant			Intra migrant			Inter migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All locality Type															
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
5-9	41.0	41.2	40.8	43.1	42.9	43.4	31.5	32.8	30.3	34.1	35.3	33.1	28.3	29.7	27.0
10-14	37.0	37.1	36.8	37.1	37.2	37.0	36.3	36.4	36.3	36.1	36.4	35.9	36.6	36.5	36.6
15-17	22.0	21.7	22.3	19.8	19.9	19.7	32.2	30.8	33.5	29.7	28.3	31.0	35.2	33.8	36.4
Urban															
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
5-9	40.0	40.8	39.2	42.8	43.1	42.5	30.3	32.0	28.8	33.5	34.8	32.2	26.4	28.4	24.7
10-14	36.6	36.5	36.8	36.9	36.7	37.0	35.8	35.7	35.9	35.7	35.8	35.7	35.9	35.6	36.1
15-17	23.3	22.7	24.0	20.3	20.1	20.5	33.9	32.2	35.3	30.8	29.4	32.1	37.7	36.0	39.1
Rural															
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
5-9	42.2	41.6	42.8	43.4	42.6	44.3	33.7	34.2	33.3	35.6	36.3	34.8	31.7	32.0	31.5
10-14	37.3	37.7	36.9	37.3	37.7	36.9	37.4	37.7	37.0	37.0	37.5	36.5	37.8	38.0	37.6
15-17	20.5	20.7	20.3	19.3	19.7	18.8	28.9	28.0	29.7	27.5	26.2	28.7	30.5	30.0	30.9

### **3.5.1. Literacy status**

The level of literacy among migrant children 11-17 years (90.9%) is significantly higher than that of the total population (83.6%) and the non-migrant population (81.6%). Within the migrant categories, intra-regional migrant children have higher literacy levels (92.6%) than their inter-regional counterparts (89.0%) [Table 3.14]. Female migrant children have slightly higher literacy levels than their male counterparts in all the categories of population. The patterns observed above are repeated at the type of locality levels.

TABLE 3.14: LITERACY STATUS OF POPULATION 11-17, MIGRANT STATUS, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY

Literacy Status	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant			Intra-regional migrant			Inter-regional migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>All Locality Types</b>															
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Literate	83.6	82.6	84.6	81.6	80.5	82.7	90.9	90.7	91.1	92.6	92.4	92.8	89.0	88.7	89.2
Not-Literate	16.4	17.4	15.4	18.4	19.5	17.3	9.1	9.3	8.9	7.4	7.6	7.2	11.0	11.3	10.8
<b>Urban</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Literate	91.7	91.5	91.9	90.4	90.0	90.7	95.3	95.9	94.9	96.5	96.7	96.4	94.0	95.0	93.3
Not-Literate	8.3	8.5	8.1	9.6	10.0	9.3	4.7	4.1	5.1	3.5	3.3	3.6	6.0	5.0	6.7
<b>Rural</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Literate	73.8	72.6	75.1	72.4	71.4	73.7	81.5	80.3	82.5	84.2	83.5	84.9	78.6	77.1	80.0
Not-Literate	26.2	27.4	24.9	27.6	28.6	26.3	18.5	19.7	17.5	15.8	16.5	15.1	21.4	22.9	20.0



### **3.5.2. School attendance**

Regarding school attendance, a much higher proportion of migrant children (95.8%) have either attended school in the past (4.9%) or are attending school currently (86.1%), compared with 91.8 percent of children in the total population (89.8% attending and 3.0% attended) and 90.9 percent of the non-migrant population (88.1% attending and 2.8% attended) [Table 3.15]. Between intra-regional and inter-regional migrants, a lower proportion of the former (3.3%) than the latter (5.4%) have never attended school. While a higher proportion of the intra-regional migrant children (93.9%) than the inter-regional (89.9%) are currently attending school, the reverse is true in the case of those who attended in the past (2.8% and 4.7% respectively). All the patterns are repeated in all the types of localities.

**TABLE 3.15: POPULATION 5 -17 YEARS BY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE, MIGRANT STATUS, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

School Attendance	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant			Intra-regional migrant			Inter-regional migrant			
	All Locality Types	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Never attended	8.2	8.4	8.0	9.1	9.3	8.9	4.3	4.1	4.4	3.3	3.2	3.5	5.4	5.3	5.5	
Attending Now	88.8	88.7	88.9	88.1	87.9	88.2	92.1	92.5	91.7	93.9	94.3	93.5	89.9	90.4	89.6	
Attended Past	3.0	2.9	3.1	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.7	3.3	3.9	2.8	2.5	3.1	4.7	4.3	5.0	
Urban																
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Never attended	3.3	3.2	3.4	3.7	3.6	3.8	1.8	1.4	2.2	1.2	1.0	1.3	2.6	2.0	3.2	
Attending Now	94.2	94.5	94.0	94.0	94.1	93.8	95.1	95.9	94.4	96.6	97.0	96.3	93.3	94.5	92.2	
Attended Past	2.5	2.3	2.6	2.3	2.3	2.4	3.0	2.7	3.4	2.2	2.0	2.4	4.1	3.6	4.5	
Rural																
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Never attended	16.0	14.2	13.6	14.6	14.8	14.4	9.1	9.2	8.9	7.8	7.6	7.9	10.5	11.0	10.1	
Attending Now	94.7	82.4	82.7	82.0	81.9	82.2	86.1	86.2	85.9	88.1	88.8	87.5	83.7	83.3	84.1	
Attended Past	4.1	3.5	3.6	3.3	3.3	3.4	4.9	4.6	5.1	4.1	3.7	4.5	5.7	5.7	5.8	

### **3.5.3. Level of education**

It has been found that 86.1 percent of the migrant children population is still attending school as is expected of them. However, a little lower proportion of them (9.3%) than their non-migrant counterparts (13.7%) and the children in the total population (12.9%) are in pre-school (Table 3.16). The same differentials are observed at the basic level where 73.1 percent of the migrant children have attained that level, compared with 80.3 percent of the non-migrants and 79.0 percent of the children in the total population.

At the senior secondary and higher levels, however, the proportions among the migrant children are much higher than other population groups. For example, the proportion of migrant children who have attained senior secondary level of education (16.9%) is more than twice that of the total population of children (7.9%) and almost thrice that of the non-migrant population (5.8%). Since most of the migrant children are still attending school, it suggests that some children in Ghana are compelled to travel from home to receive higher education. For example, 0.4 percent of the migrant children population have vocational/technical/commercial education, about four times those of non-migrant children (0.1%) and children in the total population (0.1%). While a few migrant children have attained higher education, none of their non-migrant counterparts has attained that. The differential patterns observed at the national level are repeated at the type of locality levels.

**TABLE 3.16: POPULATION 5-17 YEARS BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, MIGRANT STATUS, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Level of Education	Total			Non-migrant			All migrants			Intra-regional migrant			Inter-regional migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All Locality Types															
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Nursery	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.5
Kindergarten	11.8	12.1	11.6	12.6	12.7	12.4	8.7	9.3	8.1	9.5	10.0	8.9	7.7	8.3	7.1
Primary	56.3	56.9	55.7	58.1	58.4	57.7	48.5	49.7	47.4	49.2	50.4	48.0	47.6	48.7	46.7
JSS/JHS	22.7	22.4	22.9	22.2	22.1	22.4	24.6	24.0	25.0	23.5	23.0	23.9	25.8	25.3	26.3
SSS/SHS	7.9	7.3	8.6	5.8	5.5	6.2	16.9	15.4	18.3	16.4	14.9	17.9	17.5	16.0	18.7
Secondary	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
Voc/technical/commercial	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.4	0.7	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.2
Higher	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Urban															
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Nursery	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.2	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.5
Kindergarten	11.4	11.9	10.9	12.4	12.7	12.0	8.2	8.8	7.6	9.1	9.7	8.6	7.0	7.7	6.4
Primary	53.8	54.5	53.1	56.0	56.4	55.6	46.2	47.3	45.2	47.4	48.6	46.2	44.7	45.6	43.9
JSS/JHS	23.1	22.6	23.6	22.6	22.2	23.1	24.6	23.9	25.3	23.4	22.9	23.9	26.2	25.2	26.9
SSS/SHS	10.3	9.6	11.0	7.6	7.2	8.0	19.5	18.2	20.7	18.6	17.1	20.0	20.7	19.6	21.6
Secondary	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.4
Voc/technical/commercial	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.7	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.5	0.8	0.2
Higher	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Rural															
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Nursery	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.5
Kindergarten	12.4	12.4	12.4	12.8	12.7	12.9	9.7	10.1	9.3	10.2	10.7	9.7	9.1	9.4	8.8
Primary	59.5	59.8	59.1	60.4	60.6	60.3	53.4	54.4	52.4	53.2	54.4	52.1	53.6	54.4	52.9

Level of Education	Total			Non-migrant			All migrants			Intra-regional migrant			Inter-regional migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
JSS/JHS	22.2	22.3	22.1	21.8	22.0	21.6	24.4	24.3	24.4	23.7	23.3	24.0	25.2	25.6	24.9
SSS/SHS	4.9	4.4	5.3	3.8	3.7	4.0	11.3	9.7	12.8	11.6	10.0	13.1	11.0	9.3	12.6
Secondary	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Voc/technical/commercial	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.2
Higher	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0

### 3.5.4. Activity status

The activity status of the migrant children is not very much different from the children in the total population and the non-migrant children. Among the migrant children population 3.1 percent were economically active with 2.3 percent actually employed, that is, actively engaged in an income-generating venture, and the remaining 0.8 percent were unemployed. The comparative figures for children in the total and the non-migrant populations are 3.6 percent and 3.7 percent respectively (Table 3.17).

Table 3.17 also shows that economic activity among children in Ghana, whether migrant or non-migrant, is very much a rural phenomenon. For example, among the migrant children, as much as 5.2 percent are economically active (in the labour force) in the rural areas compared to 2.0 percent in the urban areas. Among the children in the total population and the non-migrant population, the comparative figures are 5.6 percent and 1.8 percent each. Between the migrant types, more inter-regional migrants (4.1%) than their intra-regional counterparts (2.3%) were economically active. The pattern is repeated at both the urban and rural areas.

**TABLE 3.17: POPULATION 5-17 YEARS BY ECONOMIC ACTIVITY STATUS, TYPE OF LOCALITY, SEX AND MIGRANT STATUS**

Activity status	Total			Non-migrant			Migrants			Intra-regional migrant			Inter-regional migrant			
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
All Locality types																
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100	100.0	100.0
Labour force	3.6	3.9	3.2	3.7	4.1	3.2	3.1	3.3	2.9	2.3	2.5	2.1	4.1	4.4	3.9	
Employed	2.6	3.0	2.2	2.7	3.1	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.1	1.7	1.9	1.4	3.1	3.4	2.8	
Unemployed	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.6	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.1	
Population outside labour force	96.4	96.1	96.8	96.3	95.9	96.8	96.9	96.7	97.1	97.7	97.5	97.9	95.9	95.6	96.1	
Urban																
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100	100.0	100.0	
Labour force	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.7	2.0	1.8	2.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	3.0	2.5	3.4	
Employed	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.1	0.9	1.4	1.3	1.6	0.8	0.9	0.8	2.2	1.8	2.5	
Unemployed	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.9	
Population outside labour force	98.2	98.2	98.2	98.2	98.1	98.3	98.0	98.2	97.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	97.0	97.5	96.6	
Rural																
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Labour force	5.6	6.2	4.8	5.6	6.2	4.9	5.2	6.2	4.3	4.3	4.9	3.8	6.3	7.6	4.9	
Employed	4.4	5.0	3.6	4.4	5.0	3.7	4.0	5.1	3.1	3.4	4.0	2.7	4.8	6.2	3.5	
Unemployed	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.0	0.8	1.1	1.4	1.4	1.5	
Population outside labour force	94.4	93.8	95.2	94.4	93.8	95.1	94.8	93.8	95.7	95.7	95.1	96.2	93.7	92.4	95.1	

### 3.5.5. Occupation

The pattern of the occupational distribution of all the population categories is similar but with significant variations in the quantum of proportions. Among the migrant children who are working, the highest proportion of them (48%) are working as skilled agricultural, forestry and fisheries workers compared with 69.1 percent for the children in the total population and 73.1 percent of the non-migrant children (Table 3.18). On the other hand, the proportion of migrant children who are service and sales workers (22.0%) is about twice that of the children in the total population (10.7%) and almost thrice that of the non-migrant children (8.6%). Similarly, the proportion of migrant children in elementary occupations (15.3%) is more than one-and-a-half times that for children in the total population (9.5%) and the non-migrant children population (8.4%).

The urban-rural differentials in the occupational distribution of migrant children are very striking (Table 3.18). While 73.5 percent of migrant children's occupations are spread among service and sales (40.3%), crafts and related jobs (19.2%) and skilled agricultural, forestry and fisheries (14.0%) in the urban areas, as much as 71.5 percent of migrant children's occupations in the rural areas are concentrated in agricultural, forestry and fisheries only. In addition, the proportion of urban migrant children working in elementary occupations (22.6%) is more than twice that of their rural counterparts (10.2%). In three occupational areas the proportions of male migrants are higher than those of their female counterparts; namely, skilled agricultural, forestry and fisheries (58.0% versus 36.7%), crafts and related services (15.4% versus 7.8%) and plant and machinery operators and assembling (5.2% versus 0.3%). In comparison, female migrant children's proportions are higher than those of their male counterparts in two occupations, namely, services and sales (35.3% versus 10.3%) and elementary occupations (19.8% versus 11.2%). The patterns are repeated at both urban and rural areas.



**TABLE 3.18: POPULATION 5-17 YEARS BY MAJOR OCCUPATION, MIGRANT STATUS, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Occupation	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant			Intra-regional migrant			Inter-regional migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>All Locality Types</b>															
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Managers	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Service and sales workers	10.7	5.3	18.3	8.6	4.4	14.7	22.0	10.3	35.3	19.6	10.0	31.6	23.5	10.4	37.5
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery	69.1	73.8	62.6	73.1	76.5	68.1	48.0	58.0	36.7	53.6	58.0	48.0	44.4	57.9	30.0
Craft and related trades workers	8.5	9.5	7.2	7.9	8.5	7.0	11.8	15.4	7.8	12.9	15.7	9.3	11.2	15.1	6.9
Plant and machine operators, and assembly	2.1	3.5	0.2	2.0	3.2	0.2	2.9	5.2	0.3	3.3	5.7	0.3	2.7	4.8	0.4
Elementary occupations	9.5	7.9	11.7	8.4	7.4	10.0	15.3	11.2	19.8	10.7	10.5	10.8	18.3	11.7	25.2
<b>Urban</b>															
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Managers	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Service and sales workers	30.5	16.3	45.4	26.6	14.2	41.7	40.3	23.1	52.5	37.9	22.0	54.3	41.4	23.9	51.8
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery	28.7	35.9	21.2	34.6	40.4	27.5	14.0	20.8	9.2	20.4	23.6	17.1	10.9	19.0	6.2
Craft and related trades workers	21.3	28.3	14.0	22.2	26.9	16.4	19.2	32.8	9.4	24.4	33.3	15.2	16.6	32.5	7.2
Plant and machine operators, and assembly	4.7	8.9	0.2	5.0	8.8	0.2	3.9	9.0	0.3	5.0	9.6	0.3	3.4	8.6	0.4
Elementary occupations	14.8	10.7	19.1	11.6	9.6	14.1	22.6	14.2	28.5	12.3	11.4	13.1	27.6	16.0	34.4
<b>Rural</b>															
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Managers	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Service and sales workers	5.0	2.5	8.7	4.4	2.3	7.6	9.3	4.2	17.4	10.1	4.6	17.8	8.7	3.9	17.0
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery	80.8	83.2	77.3	82.1	84.3	78.8	71.5	75.4	65.4	70.8	73.5	67.0	72.2	76.8	64.0
Craft and related trades workers	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.5	4.5	4.6	6.7	7.2	6.1	6.9	7.8	5.6	6.6	6.7	6.5
Plant and machine operators, and assembly	1.4	2.2	0.2	1.3	2.0	0.1	2.2	3.4	0.3	2.4	4.0	0.2	2.0	2.9	0.4
Elementary occupations	8.0	7.3	9.1	7.7	6.9	8.9	10.2	9.8	10.8	9.8	10.1	9.4	10.5	9.6	12.0

### **3.5.6. Industry**

The occupational distribution of migrant children reflects on their distribution by major industry (Table 3.19). Like the occupations of children in the total population and their non-migrant counterparts, majority of the migrant children's occupations (51.4%) are in the agricultural, forestry and fisheries sector. However, their proportion is much lower than that of children in the total population (73.6%) and non-migrant children (77.8%). Similarly, the proportion of male migrant children's occupations (62.2%) in the same industry category is much higher than that of their female counterparts (39.1%). In general, male migrant children's occupations tend to be dominant in primary activity sectors such as agricultural, forestry and fisheries, and mining and quarrying, and female migrant children's occupations dominate in service industries such as wholesale and retail trade, accommodation and food services activities and other services. The patterns are repeated in both urban and rural areas.

**TABLE 3.19: POPULATION 5-17 YEARS BY MIGRANT STATUS, MAJOR INDUSTRY, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Industry	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant			Intra-regional migrant			Inter-regional migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>All locality Types</b>															
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	73.65	78.43	67.00	77.81	81.17	72.98	51.36	62.18	39.05	57.38	62.48	50.96	47.45	61.96	31.98
Mining and quarrying	0.71	0.97	0.36	0.46	0.64	0.19	2.08	2.90	1.15	1.53	2.38	0.47	2.44	3.27	1.55
Manufacturing	4.75	3.61	6.34	4.41	3.33	5.96	6.60	5.26	8.13	6.85	5.62	8.40	6.44	5.01	7.97
Electricity, gas, steam and air condition	0.11	0.16	0.05	0.11	0.15	0.06	0.12	0.23	0.00	0.17	0.30	0.00	0.09	0.18	0.00
Water supply; sewerage, waste management	0.02	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.04	0.08	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.07	0.13	0.00
Construction	1.71	2.87	0.10	1.42	2.33	0.09	3.28	6.05	0.13	3.33	5.87	0.12	3.25	6.18	0.13
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor	8.34	6.02	11.57	7.05	5.29	9.59	15.23	10.32	20.82	14.11	9.90	19.41	15.95	10.61	21.65
Transportation and storage	1.75	2.91	0.13	1.63	2.72	0.06	2.35	4.01	0.47	2.77	4.91	0.08	2.08	3.37	0.71
Accommodation and food service activities	3.75	1.00	7.57	2.82	0.87	5.63	8.74	1.81	16.63	6.88	2.00	13.01	9.95	1.67	18.77
Information and communication	0.03	0.04	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.01	0.06	0.10	0.01	0.05	0.07	0.03	0.06	0.11	0.00
Arts, entertainment and recreation	0.53	0.56	0.49	0.40	0.36	0.47	1.22	1.77	0.59	0.95	1.21	0.61	1.39	2.16	0.57
Other service activities	4.36	3.26	5.87	3.65	2.94	4.67	8.14	5.17	11.52	5.49	5.08	6.00	9.86	5.23	14.79
Activities of households as employers;	0.29	0.13	0.50	0.19	0.13	0.28	0.78	0.14	1.51	0.49	0.16	0.90	0.97	0.12	1.88
<b>Urban</b>															
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	31.33	38.84	23.41	37.65	43.58	30.35	15.60	23.23	10.17	22.33	25.98	18.59	12.32	21.41	6.94
Mining and quarrying	0.86	1.16	0.54	0.59	0.85	0.27	1.54	2.21	1.06	0.65	1.02	0.28	1.97	2.99	1.36
Manufacturing	10.19	9.18	11.25	10.48	9.06	12.24	9.46	9.57	9.38	11.21	10.11	12.33	8.61	9.22	8.25
Electricity, gas, steam and air condition	0.28	0.50	0.04	0.30	0.50	0.06	0.21	0.52	0.00	0.32	0.63	0.00	0.16	0.44	0.00
Water supply; sewerage, waste management	0.05	0.09	0.00	0.03	0.05	0.01	0.09	0.22	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.14	0.36	0.00
Construction	4.55	8.74	0.15	4.23	7.54	0.16	5.36	12.70	0.12	6.31	12.38	0.08	4.89	12.92	0.14
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor	24.03	19.46	28.84	22.24	18.08	27.37	28.48	24.03	31.65	28.42	22.92	34.06	28.51	24.77	30.73

Industry	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant			Intra-regional migrant			Inter-regional migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Transportation and storage	3.93	7.25	0.43	4.04	7.18	0.18	3.64	7.48	0.90	4.62	8.93	0.20	3.16	6.51	1.17
Accommodation and food service activities	10.63	2.86	18.82	8.49	2.53	15.82	15.97	3.93	24.55	12.79	3.92	21.89	17.53	3.93	25.58
Information and communication	0.10	0.16	0.04	0.10	0.13	0.06	0.11	0.27	0.00	0.10	0.20	0.00	0.12	0.31	0.00
Arts, entertainment and recreation	1.39	1.74	1.02	1.13	1.15	1.10	2.04	3.71	0.85	1.71	2.27	1.12	2.20	4.66	0.74
Other service activities	11.83	9.70	14.08	10.21	9.07	11.61	15.88	11.80	18.78	10.47	11.29	9.64	18.52	12.14	22.29
Activities of households as employers; u	0.8	0.3	1.4	0.51	0.29	0.78	1.62	0.34	2.53	1.07	0.35	1.81	1.9	0.3	2.8
Rural															
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	85.91	88.21	82.44	87.25	89.29	84.19	76.12	80.48	69.23	75.51	78.85	70.82	76.60	81.65	67.80
Mining and quarrying	0.67	0.92	0.29	0.43	0.60	0.17	2.46	3.23	1.25	1.99	2.99	0.59	2.83	3.40	1.83
Manufacturing	3.18	2.23	4.61	2.98	2.09	4.31	4.62	3.23	6.82	4.59	3.60	5.99	4.64	2.97	7.57
Electricity, gas, steam and air condition	0.07	0.08	0.05	0.07	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.10	0.00	0.09	0.16	0.00	0.03	0.05	0.00
Water supply; sewerage, waste management	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00
Construction	0.88	1.42	0.08	0.75	1.21	0.07	1.84	2.93	0.13	1.78	2.95	0.15	1.89	2.91	0.11
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor	3.79	2.70	5.45	3.49	2.53	4.91	6.05	3.87	9.50	6.71	4.06	10.42	5.54	3.74	8.67
Transportation and storage	1.12	1.84	0.03	1.07	1.76	0.03	1.46	2.37	0.02	1.82	3.11	0.00	1.19	1.85	0.04
Accommodation and food service activities	1.76	0.55	3.58	1.49	0.51	2.95	3.73	0.81	8.34	3.82	1.14	7.57	3.66	0.57	9.04
Information and communication	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.05	0.01	0.01	0.00
Arts, entertainment and recreation	0.28	0.27	0.31	0.23	0.19	0.30	0.65	0.86	0.31	0.55	0.74	0.30	0.72	0.95	0.33
Other service activities	2.19	1.67	2.97	2.11	1.62	2.84	2.78	2.06	3.92	2.91	2.30	3.77	2.68	1.88	4.06
Activities of households as employers; u	0.13	0.09	0.18	0.12	0.10	0.15	0.20	0.04	0.45	0.18	0.07	0.34	0.21	0.01	0.55

## CHAPTER FOUR

### 4. PATTERNS, TRENDS AND DIFFERENTIALS IN MIGRATION

#### 4.1. Patterns of Migration Over Time

Based on the question on the place of birth, all persons enumerated in their place of birth are regarded as non-migrants. Since 2000, the non-migrant population has been in the majority, which stood at 69.8 percent in 2000, declined slightly to 65.3 percent in 2010 and culminated at 73 percent in the 2021 PHC (Table 4.1). That indicates that more Ghanaians were internal migrants in 2000 (30.2%) and 2010 (34.7%) than in 2021 (27.0%).

In all the three censuses, greater proportions of people moved between regions (inter-regional- 63.8%, 56.6% and 55.1%, respectively) than within regions (intra-regional- 36.2%, 43.4% and 44.9%, respectively). It could be observed from the foregoing that while the inter-regional proportions have been declining since 2000, those of the intra-regional movements have been increasing steadily. The increasing intra-regional movements could be due to the deepening of the decentralisation system that has been in operation for over two decades (GSS, 2013).

It is expected that the creation of the six new regions just before the 2021 PHC may rekindle the trend as more people will move from one place to the other in the new regions to take advantage of new opportunities, especially with the government's approach of spreading the siting of regional headquarters of administrative units in different localities within the new regions.

**TABLE 4.1: MIGRATION STATUS OF GHANAIS BY SEX AND CENSUS YEAR**

Status in Migration	2000			2010			2021		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	17,257,982	8,409,884	8,848,098	24,058,774	11,705,302	12,353,472	30,537,678	15,022,407	15,515,271
Non-migrant	12,054,443	5,865,651	6,188,792	15,722,218	7,758,781	7,963,437	22,298,444	11,139,395	11,159,049
Migrants	5,203,539	2,544,233	2,659,306	8,336,556	3,946,521	4,390,035	8,239,234	3,883,012	4,356,222
Intra-regional migrant	1,884,940	863,551	1,021,389	3,614,522	1,620,945	1,993,577	3,702,216	1,663,586	2,038,630
Inter-regional migrant	3,318,599	1,680,682	1,637,917	4,722,034	2,325,576	2,396,458	4,537,018	2,219,426	2,317,592
Percentages									
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Non-migrant	69.8	69.7	69.9	65.3	66.3	64.5	73.0	74.2	71.9
Migrants	30.2	30.3	30.1	34.7	33.7	35.5	27.0	25.8	28.1
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Intra-regional migrant	36.2	33.9	38.4	43.4	41.1	45.4	44.9	42.8	46.8
Inter-regional migrant	63.8	66.1	61.6	56.6	58.9	54.6	55.1	57.2	53.2

## 4.2. Place of Birth and Place of Enumeration

Every migratory movement has a place of origin and place of destination, which naturally allows the subdivision of the migrant population into migration streams based on specific birth places and places of residence. The matrix of the Ghanaian population by place of enumeration and place of birth represented in Table 4.2 shows that out of the total of 2,042,001 people enumerated in the Western Region in the 2021 PHC, for example, 1,713,830 were born within the region and are, therefore, non-migrants. It is worth noting that the non-migrant population of the Western Region in the 2010 census stood at 1,785,200, which was higher than the current figure. This could be as a result of the creation of the Western North Region out of the former Western Region. For the same reason, the lifetime in-migrants in the Western Region, which was 561,513 in 2010, declined to 328,171 in 2021.

Similarly, the number of lifetime out-migrants for the Western Region can be obtained from Table 4.2 by subtracting the non-migrant population (1,713,830) from the total number of people who were born in the region ( $1,930,712 - 1,713,830 = 216,882$ ). The diagonal cells of the table give the number of people born in one region and enumerated in the same region representing lifetime non-migrants for each region. The sum of the figures in the leading diagonal represents the total lifetime non-migrants from all regions in the 2021 PHC. It could be deduced that between 2010 and 2021 about 4,435,246 Ghanaians changed their usual place of residence from one region to the other, representing about 14.5 percent of the total population. These were inter-regional migrants, and it must be stressed that the proportion was lower than the 2010 figure (19%). It must be recalled that the 2021 PHC was conducted at a time when the Covid-19 pandemic was still alive and some partial restriction measures were in place. That perhaps restricted the movement of people in the country at the time of the census.

The presentation of absolute figures in Table 4.2 is very essential because it makes for the understanding of the actual numbers involved and the size of the flows of population from one place to the other. It also helps to understand the emerging internal migration trends, with the view to identifying any policy response (Australian Government, 2000). Nonetheless, it is important to move beyond the absolute figures to include internal migration relativities as a way of providing some insights into the impacts of the mobility on population redistribution. Some of such relativities are in-migration and out-migration rates.

## 4.3. In-Migration, Out-Migration and Net-Migration Rates

In-migration rate indicates the rate at which people moved into a region during the intercensal period, and out-migration rate is the reverse. From Table 4.2 it could be found that Greater Accra Region attracted migrants into it at the highest rate (35.1%) among all the other regions. It was followed by Ahafo (21.2%), Western North (19.0%) and Western (17.0%) regions. Compared with the 2010 census returns, there have been some changes in the regions that are attracting populations through migration in the country. Greater Accra is still the leading region attracting migrants in the country, but its lead has been reduced from 40.7 percent in the 2010 census to the current figure of 35.1

percent. Western Region, which was the second most important migrant destination region in Ghana in 2010 with an in-migration rate of 23.3 percent, placed fourth with a rate of 17.0 percent. In fact, all the regions experienced reduced in-migration rates in the 2021 PHC compared with the 2010 PHC.

Three regions in the north of the country are attracting population at the lowest rates (Upper East, 2.0%; North East, 2.1% and Upper West, 3.4%). On the other hand, apart from the Volta Region which posted the highest out-migration rate (27.0%), Upper West and Upper East regions continue to present some of the highest out-migration rates in the country (21.0% and 20.4% respectively). The Eastern Region is still an important out-migrating region in Ghana with a rate of 19.7 percent, followed by Ahafo Region (17.7%) and Central Region (17.2%). The regions with the lowest rates of out-migration are Greater Accra (9.1%), Bono East (10.7%), Ashanti (10.8%) and Northern (10.9%) regions.



**TABLE 4.2: POPULATION BY REGION OF BIRTH AND REGION OF ENUMERATION**

Region of birth	Region of enumeration															Total	Out-migrants	In-migrants	
	Western	Central	Greater Accra	Volta	Eastern	Ashanti	Western North	Ahafo	Bono	Bono East	Oti	Northern	Savannah	North East	Upper East				Upper West
Total	2,042,001	2,830,056	5,361,508	1,623,912	2,909,941	5,412,500	875,597	562,260	1,202,005	1,196,882	737,359	2,297,268	642,380	654,847	1,295,229	889,184	30,532,929	4,435,246	4,435,246
Western	1,713,830	51,825	70,535	4,619	16,037	48,189	8,494	2,842	5,120	2,927	734	1,506	628	194	1,586	1,646	1,930,712	216,882	328,171
Central	88,979	2,392,538	228,781	6,482	53,419	88,570	8,196	3,528	5,038	4,584	2,177	1,776	1,794	242	939	899	2,887,942	495,404	437,518
Greater Accra	23,843	119,735	3,869,130	37,708	101,689	57,302	4,041	3,191	6,618	7,991	8,822	6,941	1,193	689	3,667	2,947	4,255,507	386,377	1,492,378
Volta	26,830	48,436	297,947	1,503,317	76,922	40,030	8,066	3,906	4,792	9,530	28,216	4,580	3,982	427	968	852	2,058,801	555,484	120,595
Eastern	30,154	77,483	381,651	20,533	2,531,519	73,353	12,154	5,801	5,887	4,549	4,542	2,560	606	274	1,421	1,382	3,153,869	622,350	378,422
Ashanti	46,320	69,153	241,409	8,861	54,305	4,643,582	27,760	29,892	23,494	23,062	3,282	10,643	2,917	2,516	9,698	7,752	5,204,646	561,064	768,918
Western North	14,083	7,702	10,982	1,073	6,472	41,766	719,756	6,301	7,194	2,308	278	480	404	134	727	687	820,347	100,591	155,841
Ahafo	3,327	4,139	12,720	895	4,441	49,036	4,974	447,021	9,847	3,197	290	923	363	212	751	714	542,850	95,829	115,239
Bono	9,047	9,578	30,892	1,249	7,817	50,082	23,254	16,341	1,051,857	16,930	569	1,969	1,102	342	946	2,641	1,224,616	172,759	150,148
Bono East	4,273	5,410	19,367	2,355	5,112	42,259	4,479	4,638	14,995	1,007,455	2,445	5,103	3,984	569	1,072	4,778	1,128,294	120,839	189,427
Oti	1,435	6,130	44,716	27,348	10,554	5,716	479	385	662	6,144	661,310	6,403	439	162	195	201	772,279	110,969	76,049
Northern	12,988	12,566	70,758	6,659	15,198	58,189	6,212	5,305	9,051	32,222	21,358	2,206,134	9,830	3,495	3,320	2,561	2,475,846	269,712	91,134
Savannah	6,211	2,600	8,144	706	2,798	14,996	6,170	1,847	4,253	10,152	1,082	14,962	595,057	705	710	4,265	674,658	79,601	47,323
North East	5,921	2,545	11,474	409	2,510	29,772	3,105	4,916	3,265	9,558	1,067	14,677	2,949	639,553	3,805	846	736,372	96,819	15,294
Upper East	38,124	13,768	45,654	1,017	12,170	118,674	22,991	16,179	14,464	16,009	744	13,357	2,125	4,824	1,262,851	4,240	1,587,191	324,340	32,378
Upper West	16,636	6,448	17,348	681	8,978	50,984	15,466	10,167	35,468	40,264	443	5,254	15,007	509	2,573	852,773	1,078,999	226,226	36,411

The use of relativities to enhance the usefulness of migration data to provide some insights into the impacts of mobility on population redistribution and policy response is taken a step further in Table 4.3. The table presents summary indicators based on Table 4.2. Movement across a regional boundary is not unidirectional; there are always people moving in and out of a region. The column for net migration represents the balance between incoming and outgoing flows of people in a particular region.

Six regions, Greater Accra, Western North, Bono East, Western, Ashanti and Ahafo, show positive net-migration, which means they gained population through migration during the 2010 – 2021 inter-censal period. Of the six regions, Greater Accra gained the highest of over one million people, Ashanti gained over 200,000 people, and Western gained over 100,000 people. Bono East made a modest gain of over 60,000 people and Western North over 50,000 people. Greater Accra and Ashanti regions have maintained their status as regions that have been gaining population through migration in all previous censuses. The same applies to Western Region, which was broken into two, with its counterpart, Western North Region, also gaining population through migration. On the contrary, the former Brong Ahafo Region which experienced positive net migration in all censuses up to 2010 and was broken into three just before the 2021 PHC, experienced mixed fortunes. While Ahafo and Bono East regions posted positive net migration, Bono Region returned negative net-migration.

**TABLE 4.3: IN-MIGRATION, OUT-MIGRATION AND NET MIGRATION BY BIRTH, BY REGION**

Region	In-migration	Out-migration	Net-migration	Total Population	Net migration Rate (Per 1000)	Migration Effectiveness Ratio
Western	561,513	216,882	111,289	1,930,712	57.6	14.3
Central	437,518	495,404	-57,886	2,887,942	-20.0	-6.2
Gt. Accra	1,492,378	386,377	1,106,001	4,255,507	259.9	58.9
Volta	120,595	555,484	-434,889	2,058,801	-211.2	-64.3
Eastern	378,422	622,350	-243,928	3,153,869	-77.3	-24.4
Ashanti	768,918	561,064	207,854	5,204,646	39.9	15.6
Western North	155,841	100,591	55,250	820,347	67.4	21.5
Ahafo	115,239	95,829	19,410	542,850	35.8	9.2
Bono	150,148	172,759	-22,611	1,224,616	-18.5	-7.0
Bono East	189,427	120,839	68,588	1,128,294	60.8	22.1
Oti	76,049	110,969	-34,920	772,279	-45.2	-18.7
Northern	91,134	269,712	-178,578	2,475,846	-72.1	-49.5
Savannah	47,323	79,601	-32,278	674,658	-47.8	-25.4
North East	15,294	96,819	-81,525	736,372	-110.7	-72.7
Upper East	32,378	324,340	-291,962	1,587,191	-184.0	-81.9
Upper West	36,411	226,226	-189,815	1,078,999	-176.0	-72.3
	4,107,075	4,218,364				

Source: Indicators derived from Table 4.2

The ability of Greater Accra Region to attract people through migration is explained by the fact that it contains the nation's capital where all the ministries and major organisations, both governmental and non-governmental, have their headquarters. In addition, Accra, together with its twin city Tema, hosts most of the industries in Ghana and continues to draw people from all over the country seeking jobs and other economic opportunities. Western Region and its breakaway region Western North, together with Ashanti and Ahafo regions are all located in the better developed and naturally well-endowed southern part of the country where industry, mining and agriculture attract people to them in large numbers.

The ten remaining regions lost population through migration between 2010 and 2021. Six of them, Volta, Upper East, Upper West, Eastern, Northern and Central are perennial population losers through migration, which are only repeating the 2010 census pattern. The remaining four, North East, Savannah, Oti and Bono, were among the six newly created regions.

Apart from Eastern and Central regions, the regions which experienced negative net migration are among the least developed in the country. It must be mentioned, however, that in the 1984 census the Northern Region recorded a positive net migration. This development was attributed partly to the government's attempt to make the region the country's breadbasket, starting with the introduction of rice farming, which is believed to have attracted people into the region to take advantage of the opportunity (GSS, 2021). Unfortunately, the region has not been able to maintain the momentum ever since, and it has reverted to the status quo of negative net migration. It is hoped that initiatives such as the Savannah Accelerated Development Authority (SADA), and government flagship programmes such as One District, One Factory (1D1F) and Planting for Food and Jobs, when fully in operation in the regions in the north, can help reverse the situation in future.

The case of Eastern Region, however, should be a matter of grave concern to both the regional administration and the national government. It has not been easy to explain the factors behind the loss of population through migration in the region every census period, except to say that it is a sign of declining fortunes. For now, the downturn could be attributed to the declining of cocoa production and diamond winning and the closure of factories in the region such as the cannery in Nsawam and the match factory at Kade.

#### **4.4. Migration effectiveness**

By far the most important migration measure that provides an insight into the impacts of the mobility on population redistribution is the Migration Effectiveness Ratio (MER). The MER is the ratio of net migration (the difference between arrivals and departures in any area) to total or gross migration (the sum of arrivals and departures in any area), expressed as a percentage. The MER assumes values between -100 and +100. High (negative or positive) values indicate that net migration is an effective mechanism for population redistribution, generating a large net effect for the given volume of movements. Conversely, values closer to zero denote that inter-area flows are more closely balanced, leading to comparatively little redistribution (Stillwell, et al., 2000). Thus,

the higher the ratio (positive or negative), the greater the net gain or net loss in the particular region (Hugo & Harris, 2011). The concept of effectiveness is due to the fact that the MER is a ratio or percentage, which allows areas to be compared to determine whether migration in one area is more effective than others, or whether migration is the same in two areas, regardless of the fact that the actual numbers in each area may be different.

From Table 4.3 it could be found that five of the regions showed positive MERs. Greater Accra leads with 58.9, indicating a net gain of 58.9 percent from all internal migration movements between 2010 and 2021. It must be noted, however, that the current MER is a reduced ratio from the 2010 figure of 66.4. That indicates that, overall, Greater Accra's influence over the redistribution of population through migration is declining.

The region which came second is Bono East with a MER of 22.1. This is a new region that was created out of the former Brong-Ahafo Region, which until 2010, constantly showed positive net migration and returned a positive MER of 14.8 in the last census. Two of the new regions created out of the former Brong-Ahafo Region, Bono East and Ahafo regions, showed positive MERs (22.1 and 9.2 respectively), while the third, Bono Region, showed MER of -7.0 percent. That seems to suggest that Bono East and Ahafo regions were the two areas in the former Brong-Ahafo Region that were pulling migrants into the former region. Bono East contains Techiman, the regional capital with its food producing environs and the vibrant weekly market which has the whole country as its sphere of influence. The Ahafo Region is contiguous to the Western North Region which, together, currently constitutes the most active cocoa production frontier of Ghana.

A similar thing could be said about the Western Region and its adjoining region, Western North, which was carved out of it. In its old state, Western Region had the second highest positive MER of 33.5 in 2010 (second after Greater Accra) but posted a mere 14.3 MER in the 2021 PHC, fifth in the order. As explained earlier, MER close to zero indicates less effective influence on population redistribution in Ghana. In contrast, Western North had a MER of 21.5, third after Greater Accra and Bono East, an indication of a stronger influence on population redistribution in the country than Western Region of which it was formerly part. With a MER of 15.6, Ashanti Region appears to be still relevant in population redistribution in the country. However, with a reduction from 16.4 in the previous census, Ashanti Region's influence on population redistribution in Ghana appears to be waning.

Out of the ten regions with negative out-migration, four recorded MERs of over -60 percent, indicating very strong negative impact on population redistribution in these regions (Table 4.3). Volta Region<sup>6</sup> is the only region in the south of the country among the four, with a MER of -64.3, almost the same figure as the 2010 figure of -64.7. The MER of Upper East was -81.9, indicating that 81.9 percent of all internal migration movements in the region were departures. This is a remarkable change from the previous census' figure of -68.6, indicating that out-migration from the region is deepening. It may be observed that Upper West Region with MER of -72.3 had the highest negative MER of -

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<sup>6</sup> It must be noted that the former Volta Region was split into the Volta and Oti regions.

70.7 in 2010. Also worth mentioning is the fact that the former Northern Region had a MER of -62.3 in 2010. Before the 2021 PHC, it was broken into three regions, Northern, North East and Savannah. Of the three, North East had MER of -72.7, much higher than what the “mother” region had in 2010. Northern and Savannah regions had much lower ratios of -49.5 and -25.4 respectively. That may suggest that the strongest push on people to migrate from the former Northern Region came from the current North East Region area.

#### **4.5. Intra-Regional and Inter-Regional Migrants’ Differentials**

Between intra-regional and inter-regional migrants, a few differences could be observed. Since 2000, a higher proportion of females than males have been involved in intra-regional movements (38.4% versus 33.9% in 2000, 45.4% versus 41.1% in 2010, and 46.8% versus 42.8% in 2021), and the reverse is true in the case of inter-regional movements (66.1% versus 61.6%, 58.9% versus 54.6% and 57.2% versus 53.2%, respectively) [See Table 4.1]. However, while the proportion of female intra-regional migrants has been increasing steadily (38.4% to 45.4% to 46.8%, respectively), the predominance of males in inter-regional movements has been declining (from 66.1% to 58.9% to 57.2%, respectively). This confirms the observation that over the period of the 2000 and 2010 censuses, girls and women had become the majority of Ghana's internal migrants (Lattof, et al., 2018).

#### **4.6. Duration of stay**

The data indicate that internal migration has been an aspect of livelihood of Ghanaians for a long time. Close to 40 percent of both inter-regional migrants (39.2%) and intra-regional migrants (38.7%) have been residing away from their usual places of residence for 10 years or more (Table 4.4A). A slightly higher proportion of inter-regional migrants (61.2%) than their intra-regional counterparts (59.7%) have lived elsewhere from their usual places of residence for 5 years or more. Among the regions, close to 50 percent of intra-regional migrants in Upper East (49.8%), Upper West (49.7%), North East (49.4%) and Northern (48.1%) regions have lived in their places of enumeration for 10 or more years. Only a third (33.3%) of people who were born elsewhere in the Ashanti Region had lived 10 or more years in their places of enumeration (Table 4.4B).

Regarding inter-regional migrants, just about half of them in the Western North Region had stayed in the region for more than 10 years. Appreciably high proportions have also been recorded in Bono East (47.3%), Western North (43.4%), Ahafo (42.7%) and Greater Accra (40.4%), all in-migration regions. It is possible that some of these regions serve as transit areas for people travelling from other regions to the south. The Northern Region's focal position along the main trunk road linking the north to the south of the country fits very well into the description. The arable lands of Oti Region where a lot of yams and grains are grown, as well as the fishing opportunities offered by the Volta Lake, could also attract people from the neighbouring regions to it over a long time.

**TABLE 4.4A: DURATION OF STAY IN THE PLACE OF ENUMERATION**

Place of birth	Total	Duration of stay				
		Less than 1 year	1-4	5-9	10-19	20+ years
Born elsewhere in the region of enumeration (Intra-regional)	100.0	9.3	31.0	21.0	19.4	19.3
Born outside region of enumeration (Inter-regional)	100.0	9.2	29.6	22.0	20.3	18.9
Born outside Ghana	100.0	11.0	35.2	23.2	17.7	12.9

**TABLE 4.5B: DURATION OF STAY IN THE PLACE OF ENUMERATION BY REGION**

Born elsewhere in the region of enumeration	Duration of stay of migrants at the place of enumeration					
	Total	Less than 1 year	1-4	5-9	10-19	20+
Western	100.0	9.3	31.2	19.5	19.4	20.6
Central	100.0	10.6	31.6	21.1	18.5	18.2
Greater Accra	100.0	8.1	27.9	26.0	21.4	16.6
Volta	100.0	12.4	34.1	17.9	16.7	18.9
Eastern	100.0	9.6	28.6	17.4	18.8	25.6
Ashanti	100.0	9.9	34.4	22.4	18.9	14.4
Western North	100.0	9.7	31.2	18.8	19.9	20.4
Ahafo	100.0	9.5	34.3	17.3	19.2	19.7
Bono	100.0	10.0	32.0	19.1	19.4	19.4
Bono East	100.0	8.9	30.3	18.9	21.5	20.5
Oti	100.0	9.8	29.6	17.6	19.8	23.2
Northern	100.0	5.5	29.4	16.9	20.9	27.2
Savannah	100.0	6.3	30.5	20.0	19.8	23.4
North East	100.0	7.0	30.7	12.9	18.8	30.6
Upper East	100.0	8.3	29.5	12.4	15.9	33.9
Upper West	100.0	8.5	27.6	14.2	16.8	32.9
Born outside region of enumeration						
Western	100.0	7.8	28.0	20.7	20.6	22.8
Central	100.0	11.2	32.2	23.6	19.2	13.8
Greater Accra	100.0	7.5	25.8	26.2	22.3	18.1
Volta	100.0	17.4	37.0	16.9	15.6	13.1
Eastern	100.0	11.8	33.4	17.6	16.7	20.5
Ashanti	100.0	9.9	32.1	20.8	20.1	17.1
Western North	100.0	7.0	24.6	18.3	22.3	27.9
Ahafo	100.0	8.9	30.9	17.5	20.0	22.6
Bono	100.0	9.8	31.8	19.2	20.0	19.2
Bono East	100.0	7.8	27.2	17.7	20.7	26.6
Oti	100.0	10.9	29.4	16.2	17.1	26.5

Born elsewhere in the region of enumeration	Duration of stay of migrants at the place of enumeration					
	Total	Less than 1 year	1-4	5-9	10-19	20+
Northern	100.0	7.8	33.5	18.5	19.7	20.4
Savannah	100.0	7.7	34.9	21.0	17.8	18.6
North East	100.0	13.7	39.7	14.3	13.8	18.5
Upper East	100.0	10.7	37.3	18.2	16.3	17.5
Upper West	100.0	13.4	41.8	17.4	14.3	13.2
Born outside Ghana						
Western	100.0	11.0	35.2	23.2	17.7	12.9
Central	100.0	11.4	31.0	21.0	24.1	12.4
Greater Accra	100.0	11.3	31.3	22.6	19.7	15.2
Volta	100.0	12.7	37.7	24.9	14.9	9.7
Eastern	100.0	9.7	37.0	26.0	16.3	11.1
Ashanti	100.0	13.5	37.6	19.8	16.0	13.1
Western North	100.0	13.3	36.6	21.0	16.0	13.1
Ahafo	100.0	12.1	34.7	20.5	18.1	14.6
Bono	100.0	14.5	38.5	17.3	14.2	15.6
Bono East	100.0	14.6	38.7	18.6	16.3	11.8
Oti	100.0	8.4	28.8	21.6	22.5	18.7
Northern	100.0	10.5	32.5	22.2	17.8	17.0
Savannah	100.0	6.5	31.4	22.4	22.1	17.6
North East	100.0	3.5	29.7	26.8	25.0	14.9
Upper East	100.0	5.1	31.4	18.7	21.7	23.1
Upper West	100.0	6.7	34.5	17.6	16.6	24.6



## 4.7. Reasons for migrating

Reasons for migrating varied between intra-regional and inter-regional migrants (Table 4.5). Among the former, the most important reason for migrating was marriage/family reunification (41.0%). Nearly half of female intra-regional migrants (48.8%) migrated for this reason, compared to 31.5 percent of their male counterparts. The next most important reason for migrating among the intra-regional migrants is settlement (30.3%), which is closely related to marriage/family issues. A little more male intra-regional migrants (33.1%), than their female counterparts (28.0%) cited this as a reason. These appear to support the old observation in the literature that in short-distance movements, females dominate (equating intra-regional migration to short distance movement) [Lattof, 2018]]. Regarding settlement, in migration males are known to be trailblazers, who take the lead and the women follow later.

Among the inter-regional migrants, on the other hand, almost equal importance was accorded to settlement (28.8%), marriage/family reunification (28.4%) and employment (27.8%) as reasons for migrating (Table 4.5). There are marked variations between the sexes, however. While female inter-regional migrants (38.2%) were more than twice as likely as their male counterparts (18.2%) to migrate for the reason of marriage/family reunification, employment almost equally explained why more males relative to their female counterparts (37.5% versus 18.6%) migrated. Migrating for the purpose of education appears to apply to both intra- and inter-regional migrants equally in the country. Perhaps the free senior high school policy has created a level ground for everybody, and people move within and across regions to take advantage of the opportunity offered.

There were urban-rural differences too. Marriage was the most important reason for migrating in both locality types. However, it was more prominent in the rural than urban areas among both intra-regional (49.9% in rural areas versus 36.0% in urban areas) and inter-regional (35.9% versus 24.9%) migrants. Moreover, marriage was a more predominant reason among females than males, and predominant for both intra-regional and inter-regional migrants

**TABLE 4.6: MIGRANT STATUS BY REASONS FOR MIGRATING, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Reason for migrating	Total			Intra- regional migrant			Inter -regional migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>All locality Types</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Employment	24.5	32.5	17.3	13.5	19.1	9.0	27.8	37.5	18.6
Settlement (long term/permanent stay)	35.9	35.7	36.2	30.3	33.1	28.0	28.8	29.0	28.6
Marriage/family reunification	24.9	16.4	32.5	41.0	31.5	48.8	28.4	18.2	38.2
Education/training	11.7	12.5	10.9	13.2	14.3	12.4	13.2	13.6	12.9
Socio-political displacement (asylum see	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Natural disaster displacement (flood, drought, fire, etc.)	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Health	1.0	0.8	1.1	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.4
Other	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.2
<b>Urban</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Employment	26.1	33.3	19.5	12.5	16.2	9.3	26.5	34.5	19.1
Settlement (long term/permanent stay)	37.0	36.0	37.9	34.7	35.9	33.6	31.8	31.5	32.1
Marriage/family reunification	22.2	14.9	28.8	36.0	30.5	40.8	24.9	16.6	32.6
Education/training	12.9	13.9	12.0	15.4	16.0	14.8	15.5	16.2	14.8
Socio-political displacement (asylum see	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Natural disaster displacement (flood, drought, fire, etc.)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Health	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3
Other	1.1	1.3	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
<b>Rural</b>									
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Employment	19.9	30.1	10.9	15.2	24.6	8.4	30.6	43.4	17.3
Settlement (long term/permanent stay)	32.7	34.6	31.1	22.5	27.5	18.9	22.4	23.9	20.8
Marriage/family reunification	32.6	20.9	42.8	49.9	33.5	61.7	35.9	21.4	51.0
Education/training	8.0	8.2	7.9	9.5	11.0	8.4	8.5	8.4	8.5

Reason for migrating	Total			Intra- regional migrant			Inter -regional migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Socio-political displacement (asylum see	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Natural disaster displacement (flood, drought, fire, etc.)	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Health	2.3	2.2	2.5	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.6
Other	4.2	3.7	4.5	2.0	2.5	1.7	1.9	2.2	1.6

Earlier we found that the migrant population is much older than the general population and the non-migrant population (See Chapter 3, Table 3.1). Within the migrant population also there are differences. From Appendix Table 4.6 we find that the population of the intra-regional migrants peaks at an earlier age, at around age group 15-19, while that of the inter-regional migrants peaks at age group 25-29. Thus, while the distribution of the intra-regional migrant population is concentrated within a narrow age range of 15 to 29, that of the inter-regional migrant population is much broader, from age 15 to 39. Conversely, the proportion of the population in the under-15 age bracket is significantly higher among the intra-regional migrants (22.7%) than the inter-regional migrant population (13.4%).

## 4.8. Migration and Urbanisation

Ghana has been experiencing rapid urban growth in recent times, and migration has been a significant contributor to the process. Today, more than half of all Ghanaians (56.7%) live in a city or town of 5,000 or more people. The urban proportion has been increasing since 1931, from only 9.4 percent to 13.9 percent in 1948, 23 percent in 1960, 28.9 percent in 1970, 31.3 percent in 1984 and 43.9 percent in 2000. Ghana's urban population crossed the 50 percent mark for the first time in 2010 (50.9%) [Table 4.6]. The rising trend in urbanisation has been attributed to rural-urban migration, natural increase in towns and cities, and reclassification as villages grow into towns once they attain the threshold population of 5,000 or more persons. However, rural-urban migration and natural increase within the towns and cities are by far the major contributors. Between 1948 and 1960, about 98 percent of the urban growth was caused by migration from rural areas (Songsore, ND). The share of rural-urban migration to the growth of the urban population dropped to just over 54 percent in the period 1960 to 1970, and further down to 18 percent during 1970-1984 (Benneh et al., 1990). In connection to this development, the rate of growth of the urban population in Ghana since 1960 has always been far above the national average (around 2.4%), reaching as high as 4.7 percent in the period 1960-1970 and now standing at 3.1 percent during the period 2010-2021 (Table 4.6)

**TABLE 4.7: TRENDS IN URBANISATION, 1960 – 2021**

Census Year	Urban population	Percentage Urban	Annual exponential growth rate
1960	1,551,178	23.1	-
1970	2,472,456	28.9	4.7
1984	3,934,796	32	3.3
2000	8,274,270	43.8	4.6
2010	12,545,229	50.9	4.2
2021	17,472,530	56.7	3.1

## 4.9. Living Conditions and Sanitation

The process of migration ends with settlement at a destination point and eventual integration or assimilation into the host society. In Ghana as elsewhere in Africa, where migrants live and the conditions under which they live have often been the situations that set them apart from the host communities. One clear evidence is the development of zongos<sup>7</sup> in some major towns in the country, a secluded place initially at the outskirts of the town with their sub-standard structures, which housed mainly migrants. In this report, an attempt is made to assess the living conditions of migrants by looking at their dwelling units, the type of materials used for constructing the structures and the general sanitary condition in the area where they live.

### 4.10. Type of dwelling units

The data show that there is virtually no difference between non-migrants and migrants in the type of dwelling units in which they live (Table 4.7). Almost two-thirds of the population of both migrants and non-migrants live in separate or detached houses and about a fifth live in compound houses. However, when it comes to certain types of atypical dwelling units, some striking differences are observable. For example, while no non-migrant lived in metal container, 0.2 percent of migrants did, a little more among inter-regional (0.2%) than intra-regional (0.1%) migrants; 1.1 percent of migrants compared with 0.3 percent of non-migrants lived in kiosks; and 2.2 percent of migrants as against 1.0 percent of non-migrants lived in wooden structures. The figures seem to suggest that greater proportions of migrants than non-migrants live in non-permanent structures.

### 4.11. Materials used for construction of the dwelling unit

Regarding the materials used to construct the living structures, a higher proportion of the migrants (70.3%) than of the non-migrants (56.8%) live in structures the outer wall of which is built with cement blocks/concrete. Conversely, non-migrants (38.3%) are more likely than migrants (23.1%) to live in structures built with mud bricks/earth. While there are no striking differences between migrants and non-migrants in the materials used to construct the roofs of structures, there are some differences in the case of materials used for the floor. About 81 percent of the non-migrants' dwelling units have cement/concrete floors compared with about 70 percent of migrants'. On the other hand, about 11 percent of dwelling units of migrants compared with 4.4 percent of non-migrants' have ceramic/porcelain/granite/marble tiles for the floor. In addition, about 9 percent of migrant dwelling units compared with about 5 percent of non-migrants' have

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<sup>7</sup> According to Sulley (2010) the zongos during pre-independence time were the arriving points of most Hausa and Muslim traders from other West African Muslim countries. Today, they are multi-cultural communities where people from all walks of life reside

vinyl tile floors (Table 4.7) A similar pattern of differences could be found between intra-regional and inter-regional migrants

**TABLE 4.8: TYPE OF DWELLING, AND MAIN MATERIAL FOR OUTER WALL, ROOF AND FLOOR BY MIGRANT STATUS**

Type of dwelling /main construction materials	Total	Non-migrant	Migrant	Intra-regional migrant	Inter-regional migrant
<b>Type of dwelling unit</b>					
<b>Total</b>	<b>30,064,585</b>	<b>22,099,451</b>	<b>3,441,688</b>	<b>4,241,984</b>	<b>281,462</b>
Separate house (Detached)	64.1	64.7	62.6	63.9	61.5
Semi-detached house	8.4	8.7	7.4	7.5	7.3
Flat/Apartment	3.0	2.4	4.8	5.2	4.6
Compound house (rooms)	21.6	22.0	20.5	20.7	20.4
Huts/Buildings (same compound)	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.4
Tent	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Metal Container	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2
Kiosk/poly kiosk	0.5	0.3	1.1	0.3	1.6
Wooden structure	1.3	1.0	2.2	1.1	3.1
Living quarters attached to office/shop	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Uncompleted building	0.4	0.3	0.7	0.6	0.7
Other	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
<b>Outer wall</b>					
<b>Total</b>	<b>30,064,585</b>	<b>22,099,451</b>	<b>3,441,688</b>	<b>4,241,984</b>	<b>281,462</b>
Mud bricks/earth	34.4	38.3	23.1	23.6	22.7
Wood	2.4	1.8	4.0	1.9	5.7
Metal sheet / slate/asbestos	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6
Stone	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Burnt bricks	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4
cement blocks/concrete	60.3	56.8	70.3	72.1	68.9
Landcrete	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.1	1.1
Bamboo	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Palm leaves/thatch (grass) /Rafia	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4
Tarpaulin/ fabric/ canvas	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1
Other	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Roof</b>					
<b>Total</b>	<b>30,064,585</b>	<b>22,099,451</b>	<b>3,441,688</b>	<b>4,241,984</b>	<b>281,462</b>
Mud/Mud bricks/Earth	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wood	1.4	1.7	0.6	0.7	0.6
Metal sheet	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.4
Slate/Asbestos	82.9	83.0	82.6	84.0	81.4
Cement/Concrete	8.3	8.0	9.1	8.0	9.9
Roofing Tiles	3.1	2.8	3.9	3.9	3.9
Bamboo	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.6
Thatch/Palm leaves or Raffia	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2

Type of dwelling /main construction materials	Total	Non-migrant	Migrant	Intra-regional migrant	Inter-regional migrant
Tarpaulin/fabric/canvas	3.1	3.3	2.6	2.2	2.9
Other	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
<b>Floor</b>					
<b>Total</b>	<b>30,064,585</b>	<b>22,099,451</b>	<b>3,441,688</b>	<b>4,241,984</b>	<b>281,462</b>
Earth/mud	7.6	8.1	6.3	5.4	7.0
Cement/concrete	77.7	80.5	69.6	70.6	68.7
Stone	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
Burnt bricks	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wood	0.9	0.6	1.7	0.6	2.6
Vinyl tiles	5.8	4.8	8.9	9.4	8.4
Ceramic/Porcelain/Granite/Marble tiles	6.1	4.4	10.9	11.1	10.7
Terrazzo/Terrazzo tiles	1.5	1.2	2.4	2.6	2.3
Other	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

## 4.12. Tenure or Holding Arrangements

Some variations between migrants and non-migrants in their tenure or holding arrangements of dwelling units could also be observed. A higher proportion of non-migrants (64.7%) than their migrant counterparts (47.1%) are owner-occupiers (Table 4.8). Nearly two-thirds of migrants in the rural areas (63.1%) are owner-occupiers compared with 38.5% of their urban counterparts. Conversely, migrants (38.3%) are more likely than their non-migrant counterparts (21.89%) to rent dwelling units.

**TABLE 4.9: TENURE OR HOLDING ARRANGEMENT OF DWELLING UNIT BY TYPE OF LOCALITY AND MIGRANT STATUS**

Tenure / Holding Arrangement	Total	Non-migrant	Migrant	Intra-regional migrant	Inter-regional migrant
<b>All locality Types</b>					
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Owner occupied	60.2	64.7	47.1	51.1	43.8
Renting	26.1	21.8	38.3	35.1	41.0
Rent-free	11.9	12.0	11.7	11.6	11.8
Perching	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Squatting	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3
Caretaker	1.4	1.1	2.3	1.8	2.7
Other	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
<b>Urban</b>					
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Owner occupied	48.2	52.3	38.5	42.5	35.5
Renting	37.8	33.3	48.1	44.6	50.8
Rent-free	12.3	13.0	10.7	10.9	10.6
Perching	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
Squatting	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.4
Caretaker	1.3	1.0	2.0	1.6	2.3

Tenure / Holding Arrangement	Total	Non-migrant	Migrant	Intra-regional migrant	Inter-regional migrant
Other	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1
<b>Rural</b>					
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Owner occupied	75.4	78.6	63.1	65.6	60.8
Renting	11.2	9.0	20.0	19.0	21.0
Rent-free	11.3	10.8	13.5	12.8	14.1
Perching	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Squatting	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Caretaker	1.6	1.2	2.9	2.1	3.6
Other	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1

### 4.13. Ownership of dwelling units

The tenure arrangement reflects the type of ownership of the dwelling units of migrants. Table 4.9 shows that nearly two-thirds (64.7%) of non-migrants compared with 47.1 percent of migrants own the dwelling units in which they live. The level of ownership is much higher in rural areas than urban areas for all categories of people. For the migrants, for example, a majority (63.1%) own the units in which they live in the rural areas compared with only 38.5 percent in the urban areas. The urban-rural difference may be explained by the fact that land acquisition is much easier in rural than urban areas, so migrants can easily build their own dwelling units in rural areas. This is further supported by the fact that people rarely build for renting in the rural areas, so it may not be easy for migrants to rent accommodation if they wanted to. These may explain why ownership by other private individuals for migrants (34.1%) is about twice as much as for non-migrants (17.2%).

**TABLE 4.10: OWNERSHIP OF DWELLING UNIT BY TYPE OF LOCALITY AND MIGRANT STATUS**

Ownership type	Total	Non-migrant	Migrant	Intra-regional migrant	Inter-regional migrant
<b>All locality Types</b>					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Owner occupied	60.2	64.7	47.1	51.1	43.8
Estate developer	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4
Family property	12.0	12.9	9.3	10.0	8.7
Relative not household member	1.8	1.7	2.0	2.1	2.0
Other private individual	21.6	17.2	34.1	30.7	36.9
Private employer	2.4	1.9	3.7	2.9	4.3
Other private agency	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.9
Public/Government	1.2	0.7	2.3	1.9	2.7
Other	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.3
<b>Urban</b>					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Owner occupied	48.2	52.3	38.5	42.5	35.5
Estate developer	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Family property	14.0	15.7	10.1	10.8	9.6
Relative not household member	1.7	1.7	1.9	2.0	1.8
Other private individual	30.2	25.4	41.5	37.9	44.2



Ownership type	Total	Non-migrant	Migrant	Intra-regional migrant	Inter-regional migrant
Private employer	2.9	2.6	3.7	3.1	4.1
Other private agency	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.8	1.0
Public/Government	1.6	1.2	2.8	2.2	3.2
Other	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
Rural					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Owner occupied	75.4	78.6	63.1	65.6	60.8
Estate developer	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2
Family property	9.3	9.8	7.9	8.7	7.1
Relative not household member	1.8	1.7	2.3	2.3	2.4
Other private individual	10.7	8.1	20.4	18.4	22.3
Private employer	1.7	1.2	3.7	2.5	4.7
Other private agency	0.3	0.2	0.6	0.6	0.7
Public/Government	0.5	0.3	1.5	1.5	1.6
Other	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.3

#### 4.14. Source of Drinking Water

There is very little variation in the general access to improved sources of drinking water between migrants (91.7%) and non-migrants (89.2%) (Table 4.10). However, there are significant variations between migrants and non-migrants in the case of specific sources of drinking water. For example, the proportion of non-migrants (14.8%) who have access to public tap/standpipe is almost twice that of migrants (8.5%). Similarly, non-migrants' access to borehole/tube well source of water (23.8%) is almost twice as much as that of migrants (14.5%). Boreholes are supposed to be lifelong investments and have the element of permanency to them. This negates the main principle of migration, which is largely non-permanent, at least at the initial stages of the process. This may explain why nearly twice of the proportion of migrants (46.8%) as non-migrants (26.1%) use sachet water as their source of drinking water.

**TABLE 4.11: MAIN SOURCE OF DRINKING WATER BY MIGRANT STATUS AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Main source of drinking water	Total	Non-migrant	Migrant	Intra-regional migrant	Inter-regional migrant
All Locality Types					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Improved water sources	89.9	89.2	91.7	92.8	90.8
Pipe-borne inside dwelling	7.4	7.3	7.4	7.8	7.0
Pipe-borne outside dwelling but on compound	4.8	5.1	4.1	4.2	4.0
Pipe-borne outside dwelling but in neighbour's house/compound	6.6	7.0	5.4	5.5	5.4
Public tap/Stand pipe	13.1	14.8	8.5	8.9	8.2
Borehole/Tube well	21.4	23.8	14.5	16.5	12.9
Protected well	3.5	3.9	2.6	2.7	2.5
Rain water	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.3
Protected spring	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

<b>Main source of drinking water</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Non-migrant</b>	<b>Migrant</b>	<b>Intra-regional migrant</b>	<b>Inter-regional migrant</b>
Bottled water	1.1	0.7	2.1	2.0	2.1
Sachet water	31.4	26.1	46.8	44.8	48.4
Unimproved water sources	10.1	10.8	8.3	7.2	9.2
Tanker supplied/Vendor provided	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8
Unprotected well	1.1	1.2	0.8	0.7	0.9
Unprotected spring	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
River/Stream	6.8	7.1	5.8	4.8	6.7
Dugout/Pond/Lake/Dam/Canal	1.5	1.7	0.9	1.0	0.7
Other	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Urban</b>					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Improved water sources	97.0	96.5	98.1	98.0	98.2
Pipe-borne inside dwelling	10.9	11.5	9.6	10.4	9.1
Pipe-borne outside dwelling but on compound	6.5	7.2	5.1	5.3	5.0
Pipe-borne outside dwelling but in neighbour's house/compound	8.2	9.1	6.1	6.1	6.1
Public tap/Stand pipe	9.9	11.9	5.3	5.5	5.2
Borehole/Tube well	8.9	10.4	5.7	6.5	5.0
Protected well	3.4	4.0	2.0	2.3	1.9
Rain water	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2
Protected spring	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Bottled water	1.7	1.3	2.9	2.8	2.9
Sachet water	47.0	40.9	61.2	58.9	62.9
Unimproved water sources	3.0	3.5	1.9	2.0	1.8
Tanker supplied/Vendor provided	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9
Unprotected well	0.5	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.2
Unprotected spring	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
River/Stream	1.1	1.3	0.5	0.5	0.5
Dugout/Pond/Lake/Dam/Canal	0.5	0.6	0.2	0.4	0.1
Other	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Rural</b>					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Improved water sources	80.8	81.1	79.6	83.9	75.8
Pipe-borne inside dwelling	2.8	2.8	3.1	3.4	2.8
Pipe-borne outside dwelling but on compound	2.7	2.7	2.3	2.5	2.2
Pipe-borne outside dwelling but in neighbour's house/compound	4.5	4.6	4.1	4.3	3.9
Public tap/Stand pipe	17.2	18.0	14.4	14.7	14.2
Borehole/Tube well	37.2	38.8	31.0	33.4	28.9
Protected well	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.3	3.8
Rain water	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.5
Protected spring	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Bottled water	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.6	0.6
Sachet water	11.7	9.6	19.8	20.9	18.8

Main source of drinking water	Total	Non-migrant	Migrant	Intra-regional migrant	Inter-regional migrant
Unimproved	19.2	18.9	20.4	16.1	24.2
Tanker supplied/Vendor provided	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Unprotected well	1.9	1.9	2.0	1.4	2.4
Unprotected spring	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
River/Stream	14.1	13.6	15.7	11.9	19.1
Dugout/Pond/Lake/Dam/Canal	2.7	2.9	2.1	2.2	2.0
Other	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

#### 4.15. Source of Cooking Fuel

Almost half (47.5%) of migrants use Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG) as the main source of cooking fuel, compared to 26.6 percent of non-migrants (Table 4.11). Generally, 46.8 percent of non-migrants compared with 26.9 percent of migrants use wood as the main source of cooking fuel. Almost the same proportion of migrants (22.2%) as non-migrants (23.1%) use charcoal as the main source of cooking fuel. Among the migrants, the use of LPG as the main source of fuel for cooking is more an urban (62.6%) than rural (19.5%) practice. The reverse is true, where 61.4 percent of migrants in the rural areas use wood as against 6.9 percent of their counterparts in the urban areas.

**TABLE 4.12: MAIN SOURCE OF COOKING FUEL BY TYPE OF LOCALITY AND MIGRANT STATUS**

Source of cooking fuel	Total	Non-migrant	Migrant	Intra-regional migrant	Inter-regional migrant
All locality types					
All sources of cooking fuel	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wood	41.4	46.8	25.8	26.3	25.4
LPG	32.0	26.6	47.5	47.1	47.9
Bio Gas	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Electricity	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4
Kerosene	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Charcoal	22.8	23.1	22.2	22.9	21.6
Crop residue	0.4	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.0
Saw dust	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Animal waste	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Cooking gel	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
None (No cooking)	3.0	2.7	3.9	3.0	4.5
Urban					
All sources of cooking fuel	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wood	16.6	20.9	6.7	7.0	6.4
LPG	48.6	42.6	62.6	62.4	62.7
Bio Gas	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Electricity	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.5
Kerosene	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Charcoal	30.5	32.5	25.8	26.6	25.2
Crop residue	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0

Source of cooking fuel	Total	Non-migrant	Migrant	Intra-regional migrant	Inter-regional migrant
Saw dust	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Animal waste	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Cooking gel	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
None (No cooking)	3.6	3.3	4.2	3.3	5.0
Rural					
All sources of cooking fuel	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wood	72.8	75.7	61.4	58.8	63.9
LPG	10.8	8.6	19.5	21.3	17.8
Bio Gas	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Electricity	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Kerosene	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Charcoal	13.1	12.5	15.4	16.6	14.3
Crop residue	0.8	0.9	0.3	0.4	0.1
Saw dust	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Animal waste	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Cooking gel	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
None (No cooking)	2.3	2.1	3.1	2.5	3.7

#### 4.16. Cooking space

Regarding cooking space, there is very little variation between migrants and non-migrants (Table 4.12). Among migrants, however, there are some significant differences between urban and rural areas. For example, 31.6 percent of urban migrants cook in the veranda compared with only 16.2 percent of their counterparts in the rural areas. Conversely, the proportion of rural migrants who cook in the open space (23.1%) is almost twice as much as those in the urban areas (12.7%). In addition, higher proportions of migrants in the rural areas than their urban counterparts tend to use makeshift structures for cooking, such as structure with roof but without walls (7.1% versus 1.1%) and enclosure without roof (1.5% versus 0.6%).

**TABLE 4.13: COOKING SPACE BY TYPE OF LOCALITY AND MIGRANT STATUS**

Cooking Space	Total	Non-migrant	Migrant	Intra-regional migrant	Inter-regional migrant
All Locality Types					
All cooking space types	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Separate room for exclusive use of household	41.6	40.4	44.9	46.4	43.7
Separate room shared with other households	8.9	9.5	7.2	7.6	6.9
Enclosure without roof	1.5	1.7	0.9	1.0	0.9
Structure with roof but without walls	3.8	4.1	3.2	2.8	3.5
Bedroom/Hall /Living room	0.7	0.6	1.1	1.1	1.2
Verandah	21.6	20.1	26.1	25.0	27.1
Open space in compound	21.8	23.7	16.3	16.1	16.6
Other	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Urban					

<b>Cooking Space</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Non-migrant</b>	<b>Migrant</b>	<b>Intra-regional migrant</b>	<b>Inter-regional migrant</b>
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Separate room for exclusive use of household	40.0	37.6	45.5	47.7	43.7
Separate room shared with other households	9.2	10.1	7.2	7.8	6.7
Enclosure without roof	0.9	1.0	0.6	0.6	0.6
Structure with roof but without walls	1.7	2.0	1.1	1.0	1.1
Bedroom/Hall /Living room	0.9	0.8	1.3	1.1	1.5
Verandah	29.4	28.4	31.6	30.1	32.7
Open space in compound	17.9	20.1	12.7	11.6	13.6
Other	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Rural					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Separate room for exclusive use of household	43.6	43.5	43.9	44.2	43.7
Separate room shared with other households	8.5	8.8	7.2	7.2	7.3
Enclosure without roof	2.2	2.4	1.5	1.6	1.5
Structure with roof but without walls	6.5	6.3	7.1	5.9	8.3
Bedroom/Hall /Living room	0.5	0.4	0.8	1.0	0.7
Verandah	11.9	10.9	16.2	16.5	15.9
Open space in compound	26.7	27.6	23.1	23.6	22.6
Other	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1

## 4.17. Water and Sanitation

### 4.17.1. Migrant status, type of locality and levels of service

Sanitation and hygiene are critical to health, survival, and development. Access to drinking water and basic sanitation is a fundamental need and a human right vital for the dignity and health of all people.

Basic sanitation is defined as having access to facilities for the safe disposal of human waste (faeces and urine), as well as having the ability to maintain hygienic conditions, through services such as garbage collection, industrial/hazardous waste management, and wastewater treatment and disposal (WHO and UNICEF, 2021). Basic service is the use of improved toilet facilities that are not shared with other households. On the other hand, limited service is the use of improved toilet facilities that are shared with other households. Unimproved service is defined as the use of pit latrines without a slab or platform, hanging latrines, or bucket latrines, etc.

Table 4.13 displays the type of toilet facility used by migrants and non-migrants. The table shows that 97.7 percent of all migrants use improved services, which is marginally higher than that of non-migrants (96.8%). Among the migrants, out of those who use improved service, 53.4 percent use basic service, compared with 47.5 percent of their non-migrant counterparts, whereas the usage of limited service stands at 46.6 percent and 52.5 percent, respectively. There is virtually no difference between males and females regarding the use of improved sanitation among both migrants and non-migrants at both the national and locality levels.

There are some observable differences between urban and rural areas among both migrant and non-migrant households. The use of improved sanitation among migrants in the urban areas (98.8%) is higher than their counterparts in the rural areas (94.1%). Conversely, a higher proportion of migrants in the rural areas (5.9%) use unimproved sanitation than their urban counterparts (1.2%). Also, a higher proportion of migrants in the urban areas (49.8%) use the basic service compared with the 44.8 percent of the migrants in the rural areas. There is strikingly very little variation between intra-regional and inter-regional migrants at both the national and locality levels.

**TABLE 4.14: TYPE OF RESIDENCE AND LEVELS OF SERVICE BY MIGRANT STATUS**

Level of service/ Type of locality	Migration status														
	Total	Total		Non-migrant			All migrants			Intra- regional migrant			Inter -regional migrant		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All locality Types															
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Improved	97.1	97.0	97.2	96.8	96.7	96.9	97.7	97.8	97.6	97.7	98.0	97.5	97.7	97.7	97.8
Basic service (Improved and not shared)	49.4	49.1	49.6	47.5	47.4	47.7	53.4	53.0	53.7	54.0	54.2	53.8	52.9	52.1	53.7
Limited Service (Improved but shared)	50.6	50.9	50.4	52.5	52.6	52.3	46.6	47.0	46.3	46.0	45.8	46.2	47.1	47.9	46.3
Unimproved	2.9	3.0	2.8	3.2	3.3	3.1	2.3	2.2	2.4	2.3	2.0	2.5	2.3	2.3	2.2
Urban															
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Improved	98.8	98.8	98.8	98.8	98.8	98.8	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.8	98.8	98.9
Basic service (Improved and not shared)	50.3	49.9	50.7	48.0	47.7	48.3	54.6	54.0	55.1	55.9	55.9	55.9	53.5	52.5	54.4
Limited Service (Improved but shared)	49.7	50.1	49.3	52.0	52.3	51.7	45.4	46.0	44.9	44.1	44.1	44.1	46.5	47.5	45.6
Unimproved	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.1
Rural															
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Improved	94.1	94.0	94.1	93.8	93.7	93.9	94.8	95.2	94.5	94.8	95.6	94.2	94.9	94.9	94.9
Basic service (Improved and not shared)	47.6	47.7	47.5	46.6	46.7	46.5	50.4	50.5	50.3	49.3	49.9	48.9	51.4	51.0	51.8
Limited Service (Improved but shared)	52.4	52.3	52.5	53.4	53.3	53.5	49.6	49.5	49.7	50.7	50.1	51.1	48.6	49.0	48.2
Unimproved	5.9	6.0	5.9	6.2	6.3	6.1	5.2	4.8	5.5	5.2	4.4	5.8	5.1	5.1	5.1

#### **4.17.2. Use of improved water sources and basic drinking water services**

An improved drinking water source, by nature of its construction and design, is likely to protect the source from outside contamination, in particular from faecal matter. Improved drinking water sources include piped water into dwelling, plot or yard, public tap/standpipe, tube well/borehole, protected dug well, protected spring, and rainwater collection. On the other hand, unimproved drinking water sources are unprotected dug well, unprotected spring, cart with small tank/drum, tanker truck, surface water (river, dam, lake, pond, stream, canal, irrigation channel and any other surface water), and bottled water (if it is not accompanied by another improved source) [WHO and UNICEF, 2021].

Basic service refers to drinking water from an improved source, provided collection time is not more than 30 minutes for a round trip, including lining up and waiting, while limited service is drinking water from an improved source, where collection time exceeds 30 minutes for a round trip, including lining up and waiting.

The improved water sources and basic drinking water services by status of migrants are presented in Table 4.14. The table shows that about every nine out of ten (89.9%) households of all migrants use improved water source. Of this proportion, 84.1 percent can access the improved water within 30 minutes round-trip (basic service), whilst 5.8 percent of households can do the same more than 30 minutes round-trip (limited service). The data further show that households who use unimproved source of water for drinking is higher (19.2%) in the rural areas compared with urban households (3%). A higher proportion of households (10.6%) who use the improved water source in the rural areas walk for more than 30 minutes to access water compared with only 1.9 percent of their urban counterparts. There is not much difference among the sexes, both at the national and the type of locality level.

In relative terms, there is very little difference in the proportions of households that use improved water sources between migrants (89.9%) and non-migrants (89.2%) [Table 4.14]. The same pattern could be observed between intra-regional (92.8%) and inter-regional (90.8%) migrants. There are, however, significant observable differences on the basis of types of locality for all categories of population. Thus, among the migrants, 97.0 percent of urban households use improved sources of water compared with 80.8 percent of their rural counterparts. Comparable figures are, for non-migrants, 96.5 percent urban and 81.1 percent rural; for intra-regional migrants, 98.0 percent urban and 83.9 percent rural; for inter-regional migrants, 98.2 percent urban and 75.8 percent rural; and for immigrants, 97.1 percent urban and 74.4 percent rural.



**TABLE 4.15: USE OF IMPROVED WATER SOURCES AND BASIC DRINKING WATER SERVICES BY MIGRANT STATUS AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Sources of drinking water/ Type of locality	Total			Non- migrant			All migrants			Intra- regional migrant			Inter -regional migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All locality Types															
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Improved service	89.9	89.5	90.3	89.2	88.8	89.7	91.7	91.5	91.9	92.8	93.0	92.5	90.8	90.3	91.3
Basic service (within 30 mins round-trip)	93.6	93.6	93.6	92.5	92.4	92.7	96.6	97.2	96.1	96.0	97.2	95.1	97.1	97.1	97.1
Limited service (more than 30 mins round-trip)	6.4	6.4	6.4	7.5	7.6	7.3	3.4	2.8	3.9	4.0	2.8	4.9	2.9	2.9	2.9
Unimproved	10.1	10.5	9.7	10.8	11.2	10.3	8.3	8.5	8.1	7.2	7.0	7.5	9.2	9.7	8.7
Urban															
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Improved service	97.0	97.0	97.0	96.5	96.5	96.6	98.1	98.2	98.1	98.0	98.1	97.9	98.2	98.2	98.2
Basic service (within 30 mins round-trip)	98.0	98.0	98.0	97.4	97.4	97.4	99.2	99.3	99.2	99.1	99.2	99.0	99.3	99.3	99.3
Limited service (more than 30 mins round-trip)	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.6	2.6	2.6	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.0	0.7	0.7	0.7
Unimproved	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.5	3.5	3.4	1.9	1.8	1.9	2.0	1.9	2.1	1.8	1.8	1.8
Rural															
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Improved service	80.8	80.3	81.4	81.1	80.6	81.6	79.6	78.7	80.4	83.9	83.4	84.2	75.8	75.2	76.4
Basic service (within 30 mins round-trip)	86.9	87.0	86.9	86.0	85.8	86.2	90.6	92.1	89.4	90.0	92.7	88.1	91.3	91.7	90.9
Limited service (more than 30 mins round-trip)	13.1	13.0	13.1	14.0	14.2	13.8	9.4	7.9	10.6	10.0	7.3	11.9	8.7	8.3	9.1
Unimproved	19.2	19.7	18.6	18.9	19.4	18.4	20.4	21.3	19.6	16.1	16.6	15.8	24.2	24.8	23.6

## 4.18. Non-Ghanaian Population

According to the 2021 PHC, there were 294,341 non-Ghanaians or immigrants living in Ghana at the time of the census, compared with 398,585 in 2010. The 2021 Non-Ghanaian population is made up of 60.5 percent males and 39.5 percent females, giving a sex ratio of 153.1 males per 100 females. Although characteristic of migrant populations, the high sex ratio is a bit on the high side, and much higher than the 2010 figure of 119.7 males per 100 females. While the reason for the significant predominance of males among the immigrants into the country in the last decade does not come easily, it may be observed that it is reminiscent of immigration into Ghana in the late colonial and early independence period when the phenomenon was largely a male affair (Ababio, 1999). In those periods, the massive infrastructural developments that took place in the country was the main attractive force behind the large influx of male migrants into the country. Perhaps the resurgence in the Ghanaian economy relative to that of the adjoining countries, and government policies which have led to an upsurge in infrastructural developments like in those days, is attracting migrants from the West African sub-region. The population is young with a median age of 21 years and 58.2 percent within the age bracket 15-39 years. It has a dependency ratio of only 36, making it an economically independent population group.

Nine in ten (92.0%) of the non-Ghanaian population are from other West African countries (Appendix 3). Of the proportion, 28.4 percent were from Nigeria, far higher than those from the countries contiguous to Ghana, Togo (22.3%), Burkina Faso (17.3%) and Cote d'Ivoire (4.6%). The presence of people from the three other Anglophone West African countries is minimal with those from Liberia being the highest (2.3%), followed by Sierra Leone (0.5%) and The Gambia (0.2%). Only 2 percent of the non-Ghanaians were from other African countries. Of the remaining 5.0 percent, 3.8 percent are from Asia, far more than the 1.1 percent from Europe and a trace (0.1%) from Oceania.

The regional distribution of the non-Ghanaians shows many variations (Appendix 3). Regarding the non-Ghanaians from other West African countries, the proportion in three of the regions, namely, Greater Accra (82.5%), Ashanti (89.0%) and Western (90.4%) is lower than the national figure (92.0%). In the remaining thirteen regions the proportions are higher than 99 percent in Oti (99.5%), Savannah (99.4%) and North East (99.1%); in nine others the proportions are between 95 percent and 99 percent. Contiguity with other West African countries appears to be the factor behind the near-universal presence of ECOWAS nationals as the non-Ghanaians in Oti, Savannah, North East, Upper West, Upper East and Northern regions. In all these regions, migrants from Burkina Faso, a contiguous country, constitute the majority of the non-Ghanaians, which is as high as 84.6 percent, 74.5 percent and 60.4 percent in Upper West, North East and Upper East regions, respectively. For a similar reason, nearly 60 percent of the non-Ghanaians in the Volta Region came from Togo. There is a significant representation of Asians (8.5%) and Europeans (2.3%) in the Greater Accra Region where Accra, the national capital is. Ashanti Region with the nation's second largest city, Kumasi, and Western Region with

the third largest city, Sekondi-Takoradi, also have some representation of Asians and Europeans (6.2% and 1.0%, and 4.9 % and 1.1% respectively).

#### 4.19. Level of education of non-Ghanaians

The non-Ghanaians are fairly well educated (Table 4.15). Over a fifth of them (21.3%) have tertiary higher national diploma or higher (compared with 10.1% of Ghanaians). A greater proportion of non-Ghanaians with high education (higher national diploma or higher) are found in the urban (25.8%) than rural (9.7%) areas. Conversely, among those with primary education, 35.2 percent are in rural areas compared with 17.4 percent in urban areas. Male non-Ghanaians are better educated than their female counterparts. For example, at the secondary level, the proportions are 5.3 percent and 3.5 percent; at the bachelor's degree level, they are 14.9 percent and 12.4 percent for males and females respectively.

**TABLE 4.16: NON-GHANAIAN POPULATION 3 YEARS AND OLDER BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Level of Education	All locality types			Urban			Rural		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Nursery	1.5	1.2	2.1	1.6	1.3	2.2	1.2	1.0	1.7
Kindergarten	3.8	3.0	5.1	3.4	2.7	4.6	5.1	4.2	6.6
Primary	21.7	18.8	26.7	17.4	15.0	21.6	35.2	31.1	41.9
JSS/JHS	18.6	18.2	19.4	15.9	15.3	17.1	27.2	27.9	26.0
Middle	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.7	1.3	1.5	0.8
SSS/SHS	21.9	23.5	19.0	23.8	25.4	21.1	15.7	17.5	12.9
Secondary	4.6	5.3	3.5	5.2	5.9	4.0	2.8	3.4	1.8
Voc/Technical/Commercial	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.5	1.5	1.4	0.7	0.9	0.4
Post middle/secondary Certificate	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.3	0.4	0.2
Post middle/secondary Diploma	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.9	1.9	1.9	0.8	0.9	0.7
Tertiary-Higher National Diploma	4.2	4.7	3.3	4.7	5.2	3.7	2.5	2.9	1.9
Tertiary - Bachelor's Degree	14.0	14.9	12.4	16.8	17.6	15.4	5.1	6.0	3.6
Tertiary - Postgraduate Certificate/Diploma	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.4	1.5	1.4	0.5	0.5	0.4
Tertiary - Master's Degree	2.5	2.7	2.3	3.1	3.3	2.8	0.6	0.7	0.5
Tertiary - Doctoral Degree	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.1
Other	0.9	1.1	0.7	1.0	1.1	0.7	0.8	1.1	0.4

#### 4.20. Economic activity status

Among the non-Ghanaian population, the proportion that is economically active is 54.5 percent (Table 4.16), slightly lower than the country's figure of 58.1 percent. The proportion is higher in the urban (56.5%) than rural (51.2%) areas, and much higher among males (66.5%, 67.8% and 64.1% in all localities, urban and rural respectively) than females (35.4%, 36.4% and 34.1% respectively). The unemployment rate among the non-Ghanaian population (7.8%) is the same as the national figure.

**TABLE 4.17: NON-GHANAIAN POPULATION 15 YEARS AND OLDER BY ECONOMIC ACTIVITY STATUS, TYPE OF LOCALITY AND SEX**

Employment status	All Locality types			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Labour force	54.5	66.5	35.4	56.5	67.8	36.4	51.2	64.1	34.1
Employed	46.7	59.5	26.3	48.5	60.4	27.2	43.7	58.0	25.0
Unemployed	7.8	6.9	9.1	8.0	7.4	9.1	7.4	6.2	9.1
Population outside labour force	45.5	33.5	64.6	43.5	32.2	63.6	48.8	35.9	65.9

## 4.21. Occupation

About three-quarters of the non-Ghanaian population (76.2%) are concentrated in three occupations only, namely services and sales (34.0%), skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery (25.0%) and craft and related trades (17.2%) [Table 4.17]. These are easy-entry jobs which require no skills or basic skills only for one to enter. This is where one can say immigrants may compete with nationals for available jobs. Very small proportions of the non-Ghanaians are either managers (3.4%) or professionals (4.4%). In a sense one can say that the occupations of the immigrants do not match with their educational qualifications. On this basis one can also say that the Ghanaian labour market does not have room for non-Ghanaians hence their concentration in easy-entry jobs. In the urban areas the major occupation in which non-Ghanaians are found is services and sales (45.0%), followed by craft and related trades (20.8%). In the rural areas, however, non-Ghanaians are found more in skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery work (57.1%), followed by service and sales (16.0%).

**TABLE 4.18: NON-GHANAIAN POPULATION 15 YEARS AND OLDER BY MAJOR OCCUPATION, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Occupation	All Locality Types			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>Total</b>	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Managers	3.4	3.7	2.3	4.9	5.2	3.8	0.9	1.1	0.5
Professionals	4.4	4.1	5.4	6.2	5.6	8.3	1.4	1.3	1.7
Technicians and associate professionals	1.8	2.0	1.3	2.6	2.7	2.1	0.6	0.6	0.4
Clerical support workers	1.3	1.2	1.6	1.8	1.6	2.5	0.3	0.3	0.4
Service and sales workers	34.0	31.0	43.0	45.0	41.5	57.1	16.0	12.2	25.4
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers	25.0	24.1	27.7	5.3	5.5	4.4	57.1	57.3	56.7
Craft and related trades workers	17.2	18.8	12.1	20.8	22.6	14.5	11.2	12.1	9.2
Plant and machine operators, and assemblers	4.3	5.6	0.5	4.9	6.2	0.6	3.3	4.5	0.4
Elementary occupation workers	8.7	9.5	6.1	8.4	8.9	6.7	9.1	10.6	5.4
Armed forces occupations	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0

## 4.22. Industry

Two industries together occupy 57.1 percent of the non-Ghanaian population, namely, wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles (30.1%) and agriculture, forestry, and fishing (27.0%) [Table 4.18]. Construction (6.7%) and manufacturing (6.5%) also occupy significant proportions of the non-Ghanaians. The rest of the population is scattered among a wide range of industries.

**TABLE 4.19: NON-GHANAIAN POPULATION 15 YEARS AND OLDER BY MAJOR INDUSTRY, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Industry	All Locality Types			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	27.0	26.5	28.5	6.1	6.5	4.8	61.2	62.4	58.2
Mining and quarrying	1.8	2.2	0.4	1.0	1.3	0.3	2.9	3.9	0.5
Manufacturing	6.5	5.8	8.4	7.7	7.3	9.1	4.5	3.3	7.5
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	0.4	0.5	0.1	0.6	0.7	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.0
Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0
Construction	6.7	8.7	0.8	7.9	9.9	1.0	4.8	6.5	0.7
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	30.1	30.7	28.3	40.3	41.1	37.9	13.4	12.2	16.3
Transportation and storage	2.8	3.7	0.2	3.6	4.5	0.4	1.6	2.3	0.0
Accommodation and food service activities	3.8	1.9	9.4	4.5	2.4	12.1	2.5	1.1	6.0
Information and communication	1.0	1.2	0.4	1.5	1.7	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.1
Financial and insurance activities	0.8	0.8	0.7	1.1	1.1	1.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Real estate activities	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0
Professional, scientific and technical activities	1.3	1.4	0.9	1.9	2.0	1.4	0.3	0.4	0.3
Administrative and support service activities	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.1	0.1	0.1
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	1.3	1.4	0.8	1.8	2.0	1.3	0.4	0.4	0.2

Industry	All Locality Types			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Education	1.8	1.4	3.1	2.3	1.7	4.6	1.0	0.8	1.3
Human health and social work activities	1.2	0.8	2.2	1.6	1.1	3.4	0.4	0.3	0.7
Arts, entertainment and recreation	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.2	1.4	0.4	0.4	0.6
Other service activities	11.0	10.4	12.8	14.6	13.6	18.1	5.1	4.7	6.3
Activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods- and services-producing activities of households for own use	0.7	0.5	1.2	0.8	0.6	1.3	0.5	0.2	1.1
Activities of extraterritorial organisations and bodies	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0

## 4.23. Employment status

Only about a quarter of the non-Ghanaian population (24.6%) are employees (Table 4.19). The majority (60.3%) is either self-employed without employees (53.7%) or self-employed with employees (6.6%). A higher proportion of non-Ghanaian males (26.6%) are employees compared to their female counterparts (18.4%). The difference is more striking in the rural (17.9% versus 6.8%) than urban (31.5% versus 27.7%) areas. Some of the non-Ghanaians (5.7%) are contributing family workers. The proportion of females who are contributing family workers is almost twice as high as that of males (8.0% versus 4.9%). Non-Ghanaians in rural areas (9.2%) are more likely to be contributing family workers than their urban counterparts (3.5%).

**TABLE 4.20: NON-GHANAIAN POPULATION 15 YEARS AND OLDER BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Employment status	All locality Types			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>Total</b>	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Employee	24.6	26.6	18.4	30.7	31.5	27.7	14.6	17.9	6.8
Self-employed without employees	53.7	52.7	56.7	50.3	49.7	52.5	59.2	58.0	61.9
Self-employed with employees	6.6	7.2	4.7	8.1	8.7	6.1	4.1	4.6	2.9
Casual worker	3.5	4.1	1.6	2.7	2.9	2.0	4.7	6.2	1.1
Contributing family worker	5.7	4.9	8.0	3.5	3.4	4.2	9.2	7.7	12.9
Paid apprentice	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Unpaid apprentice	2.9	2.3	4.5	3.2	2.7	5.1	2.3	1.7	3.7
Domestic worker	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.1
Other	2.8	1.8	5.7	1.1	0.8	1.9	5.5	3.6	10.4

## 4.24. Employment sector

An overwhelming majority of the non-Ghanaian population (83.2%) is in the private informal sector (Table 4.20). The proportion in the private informal sector is much higher in the rural (92.5%) than urban (77.4%) areas. The percentage of the non-Ghanaian population in the private formal sector (14.0%) is higher than the national proportion (12.4%), and the proportion in the urban areas (18.7%) is about three times that in the rural areas (6.2%) and is much higher for males than females at all levels. Female non-Ghanaians working in the public (government) sector constitute 2.3 percent of the population and is almost twice as high as their male counterparts (1.4%).

**TABLE 4.21: NON-GHANAIAN POPULATION 15 YEARS AND OLDER BY EMPLOYMENT SECTOR, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Employment Sector	All Locality Types			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Public (Government)	1.6	1.4	2.3	2.1	1.7	3.5	0.8	0.7	0.8
Semi-Public/Parastatal	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1
Private Formal	14.0	15.0	10.9	18.7	19.5	16.0	6.2	6.8	4.5
Private Informal	83.2	82.4	85.4	77.4	77.1	78.4	92.5	91.8	94.1
Local NGO/CSO	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
International NGO/CSO	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1
Religious Organisation (Local)	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.1
Religious Organisation (International)	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.0	0.1
International Organisation	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.0

# CHAPTER FIVE

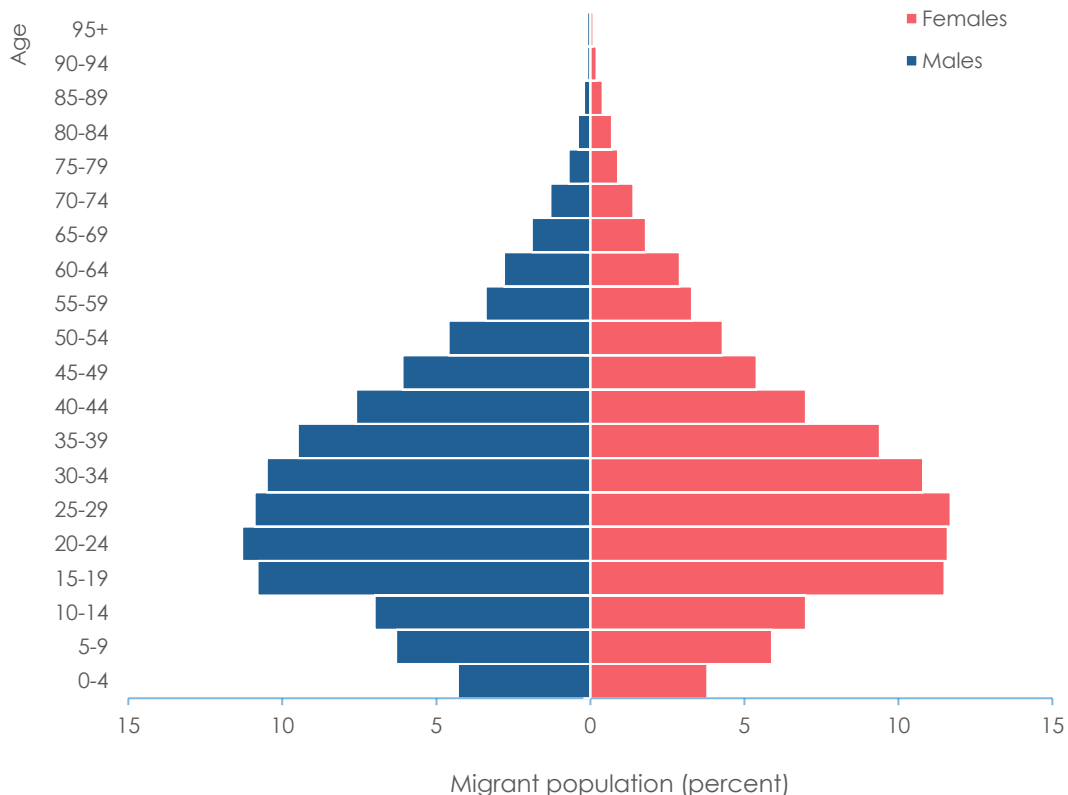
## 5. EMIGRATION FROM GHANA

As part of the 2021 PHC enumeration, information was elicited on former household members living abroad at the time of the census. Information collected on these persons include age, sex, country of destination and reason for travelling, with reference to the year of departure. A total number of 293,416 persons who were former household members were reported to be living outside the country, compared with 250,624 recorded in the 2010 PHC. These groups of people are technically referred to as emigrants. It must be noted that in 2021 the information collected covered all former household members who have moved outside the borders of Ghana whereas in the 2010 PHC there was an age limit of persons 15 years and older.

### 5.1. Age Structure of Emigrants

The emigrant population is dominated by young adults, with a median age of 35 years (Table 5.1). More than three-quarters of emigrants (77.2%) are within the 20-49 age-bracket: 77.8 percent among males and 75.9 percent among females. The representation of children below 15 years among the emigrants is very minimal (Fig. 5.1). The data further reveal that there are more emigrants with rural origin (78.6%) among 20-49 years than the urban.

FIGURE 5.1: THE AGE PYRAMID OF EMIGRANT POPULATION





The proportion of children below 15 years among emigrants is less than 2 percent among males and females in all localities. There is a steady decline in the emigrant population after age 49, from 7.6 percent in the 50-54 years age group to 0.3 percent for 80+ age group.

**TABLE 5.1: EMIGRANTS BY AGE GROUP, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Age group	All locality types			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
0-4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.5
5-9	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.5
10-14	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.7
15-19	4.6	3.9	5.8	4.1	3.5	5.1	5.5	4.6	7.3
20-24	9.7	9	10.9	8.8	7.9	10.2	11.2	10.7	12.1
25-29	14.3	14.3	14.3	13.4	13.1	14	15.8	16.3	14.8
30-34	15.9	16	15.8	15.5	15.3	15.8	16.7	17.2	15.6
35-39	15	15.4	14.2	15.1	15.6	14.3	14.7	15.1	13.9
40-44	12.5	13	11.6	13	13.7	11.8	11.6	11.8	11.2
45-49	9.8	10.1	9.1	10.5	11	9.6	8.6	8.8	8.3
50-54	7.6	7.8	7.2	8	8.4	7.3	6.8	6.8	6.8
55-59	4	4.1	3.8	4.3	4.5	4	3.3	3.3	3.3
60-64	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.9	3	2.4	2.3	2.5
65-69	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.1	1	1.2
70-74	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.6	0.6	0.7
75-79	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
80-84	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
85-89	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
90-94	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
95+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Median age	35	36	35	36	37	35	34	35	34

## 5.2. Emigrants by Region

More than half (53.7%) of emigrants is reported to have originated from Greater Accra (26.9%) and Ashanti (26.8%) regions. Four other regions namely Bono (8.5%), Central (7.3%), Western (7.1%) and Eastern (6.8%) also reported significant percentages (Table 5.2). In seven regions (Greater Accra, Ashanti, Central, Western, Eastern, Volta and Oti), the proportions of female emigrants are higher than those of males.

**TABLE 5.2: EMIGRANTS BY REGION OF ORIGIN, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Region	All Locality Types			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Western	7.1	6.6	7.9	6.7	7.0	6.1	7.8	6.0	11.4
Central	7.3	7.0	8.0	5.1	5.1	5.1	11.2	10.0	13.6
Greater Accra	26.9	25.3	29.8	40.1	38.4	42.9	4.1	3.9	4.6
Volta	4.1	3.6	5.0	1.1	1.0	1.2	9.3	7.9	12.3
Eastern	6.8	6.5	7.4	4.4	4.3	4.6	11.0	10.1	12.8
Ashanti	26.8	26.2	28.0	33.1	32.6	33.8	16.1	15.7	16.9
Western North	1.2	1.2	1.1	0.3	0.3	0.4	2.6	2.6	2.6
Ahafo	1.1	1.2	1.0	0.5	0.5	0.5	2.2	2.4	2.0
Bono	8.5	10.4	5.2	4.5	5.5	3.0	15.3	18.3	9.4
Bono East	4.3	5.6	1.9	2.1	2.7	1.0	8.1	10.4	3.5
Oti	1.0	0.9	1.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	2.3	2.0	2.9
Northern	1.3	1.5	0.8	1.0	1.2	0.6	1.8	2.0	1.2
Savannah	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.8	0.9	0.7
North East	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	1.1	1.2	1.0
Upper East	2.1	2.4	1.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	4.8	5.2	4.0
Upper West	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.3	1.5	1.0

Except for Greater Accra (94.4%), Ashanti (78.0%) and Western (59.7%) regions where majority of the emigrants left from urban areas, the reverse was the case in the remaining thirteen regions (Table 5.3). Of the thirteen regions, the proportions that emigrated from the rural areas were overwhelming in Upper West (89.3%), Oti (87.5%), Savannah (82.4%), Upper East (82.8%), Western North (81.1%), and North East (80.8%) regions.

**TABLE 5.3: EMIGRANTS BY REGION OF ORIGIN AND TYPE OF LOCALITY**

Region	Total	Urban	Rural
Total	100.0	63.3	36.7
Western	100.0	59.7	40.3
Central	100.0	43.9	56.1
Greater Accra	100.0	94.4	5.6
Volta	100.0	16.4	83.6
Eastern	100.0	40.9	59.1
Ashanti	100.0	78.1	21.9
Western North	100.0	18.9	81.1
Ahafo	100.0	27.9	72.1
Bono	100.0	33.9	66.1
Bono East	100.0	30.9	69.1
Oti	100.0	12.5	87.5
Northern	100.0	49.7	50.3
Savannah	100.0	17.6	82.4
North East	100.0	19.2	80.8
Upper East	100.0	17.2	82.8
Upper West	100.0	10.7	89.3

### 5.3. Country of Destination

Table 5.4 shows that the main destinations for Ghanaian emigrants were Europe (37.6%) and the Americas (23.7%), which was the case in the 2010 PHC with almost the same proportions (37.7% and 23.6%) respectively. The phenomenon, according to Anarfi, Awusabo-Asare and Nsowah-Nuamah (2000), is attributed to the historical affinity between Europe and the Americas, and Ghana. A third of the destinations of Ghanaian emigrants (33.3%) are in Africa, with 23.3 percent in ECOWAS countries and the remaining 10.0 percent in other African countries. While the proportion of female emigrants with destinations in ECOWAS countries (25.2%) is slightly higher than that of their male counterparts (22.3%), the reverse is the case regarding Ghanaian emigrants with destinations in other African countries (Males, 12.6%; Females, 5.3%). Perhaps the difference is only reflecting the observation that in migration, males dominate in long distance streams (represented by other African destinations outside ECOWAS), while females dominate short-distance streams (represented by destinations within ECOWAS). Within West Africa, Côte d'Ivoire has most of Ghanaian emigrants, serving as a destination for 7.3 percent followed by Nigeria (6.0%). Historically, there has been a close affinity between Ghana and Nigeria in the area of migration (Anarfi, 1989), evidenced by the proportion of Nigerians compared with those of Togo (2.9%) and Burkina Faso (1.0%), countries contiguous with Ghana.

Between the sexes, there are some significant variations. Nearly 10 percent of the females have Côte d'Ivoire as their destination compared with about 6 percent of their male counterparts. Historically, Côte d'Ivoire has been a major destination for Ghanaian female emigrants (Anarfi, 1989). A similar situation could be found in the case of Togo where the female proportion (4.0%) is significantly higher than their male counterparts' (2.3%). On the other hand, the proportion of male Ghanaian emigrants with Nigeria as their destination (6.4%) is higher than that of their female counterparts (5.3%).

**TABLE 5.4: EMIGRANTS BY SEX AND COUNTRY OF DESTINATION**

Country of destination	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
			Both Sexes	Male	Female	Female
Total	293,416	100.0	188,054	100.0	105,362	100.0
Burkina Faso	2,805	1.0	1,810	1.0	995	0.9
Cote d'Ivoire	21,526	7.3	11,155	5.9	10,371	9.8
Gambia	4,115	1.4	2,502	1.3	1,613	1.5
Liberia	4,130	1.4	2,961	1.6	1,169	1.1
Nigeria	17,607	6.0	12,076	6.4	5,531	5.3
Sierra Leone	1,593	0.5	1,052	0.6	541	0.5
Togo	8,525	2.9	4,306	2.3	4,219	4.0
Other ECOWAS Countries	8,210	2.8	6,073	3.2	2,137	2.0
Africa, other than ECOWAS	29,310	10.0	23,684	12.6	5,626	5.3
Americas (North, South/Caribbean)	69,600	23.7	41,595	22.1	28,005	26.6

Country of destination	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Asia	13,684	4.7	9,532	5.1	4,152	3.9
Europe	110,239	37.6	69,884	37.2	40,355	38.3
Oceania	2,051	0.7	1,406	0.7	645	0.6
Unknown Destination	21	0.0	18	0.0	3	0.0

## 5.4. Duration of Stay

An overwhelming majority of the Ghanaian emigrants (83.8%) have lived in their destinations for 10 years or more. The largest proportion (38.6%) have lived in their destinations for 10-14 years and another 26.3 percent have lived for 20 years or more (Table 5.5A). Based on the duration of stay a clear pattern of waves of movement could be discerned. The general pattern shows a wavy flow in decline direction with clear peaks and troughs (See Table 5.5B). The figures also suggest that the volume of movement of Ghanaians to live in other countries has generally been declining with time. The patterns observed are repeated in all the destinations except movements into unknown destinations where over three-quarters of the emigrants (76.2%) have lived in their destinations for less than five years. The observation feeds into the finding that the diasporisation (dispersion) of Ghanaians is deepening with time (Van Hear, 1998).

**TABLE 5.5A: EMIGRANT POPULATION BY SEX, COUNTRY OF DESTINATION AND DURATION OF STAY**

Country of origin/Sex	Total	Duration of stay					
		Less than 1 year	1-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20+
<b>Both Sexes</b>							
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3.6</b>	<b>9.1</b>	<b>3.6</b>	<b>38.6</b>	<b>18.9</b>	<b>26.3</b>
ECOWAS Countries	100.0	4.3	7.5	2.0	41.0	18.0	27.2
Burkina Faso	100.0	7.5	10.7	2.8	37.6	16.4	25.0
Cote d'Ivoire	100.0	4.7	9.2	2.2	38.8	17.2	27.7
Gambia	100.0	0.8	1.7	1.3	42.3	20.0	33.9
Liberia	100.0	3.2	9.8	2.9	42.8	19.4	21.9
Nigeria	100.0	3.2	5.2	1.7	45.7	18.1	26.1
Sierra Leone	100.0	2.4	4.5	0.7	37.6	23.4	31.5
Togo	100.0	6.4	8.9	2.1	36.7	17.6	28.3
Other ECOWAS Countries	100.0	5.0	7.4	2.1	41.4	17.8	26.3
Africa, other than ECOWAS	100.0	3.1	9.4	4.1	44.0	19.0	20.3
America (North, South/Caribbean)	100.0	2.8	7.1	3.8	38.1	19.1	29.0
Asia	100.0	13.0	36.9	8.4	19.9	9.4	12.5
Europe	100.0	2.6	7.6	3.7	38.3	20.4	27.4
Oceania	100.0	4.7	14.8	8.4	31.1	18.4	22.6
Unknown Destination	100.0	28.6	47.6	9.5	4.8	4.8	4.8

**TABLE 5.5B: WAVES OF MOVEMENTS OF GHANAIAN EMIGRANTS CORRESPONDING TO THEIR DURATION OF STAY AT THEIR DESTINATIONS**

Duration of stay	Waves of movement	Volume in percentages							
		Total	ECOWAS	Other Africa	America	Asia	Europe	Oceania	Unknown Destination
20+ yrs	Before 2002	26.3	27.2	20.3	29.0	12.5	27.4	22.6	4.8
15-19 yrs	2002-2007	18.9	18.0	19.0	19.1	9.4	20.4	18.4	4.8
10-14 yrs	2008-2012	38.6	41.0	44.0	38.1	19.9	38.3	31.1	4.8
5-9 yrs	2013-2017	3.6	2.0	4.1	3.8	8.4	3.7	8.4	9.5
1-4 yrs	2018-2021	9.1	7.5	9.4	7.1	36.9	7.6	14.8	47.6
< 1 yr	After 2021	3.6	4.3	3.1	2.8	13.0	2.6	4.7	28.6

Based on Table 5.5A

## 5.5. Reasons for Emigrating

The main factor behind the emigration of Ghanaians is to seek economic opportunities. The reason assigned to the emigration of nearly three-quarters (73.4%) of the emigrants was employment. A greater percentage of males (76.7%) than females (67.3%) travel outside Ghana for economic reasons [Table 5.6]. The next reason mentioned is education/training (14.6%), which was a little higher among females (16.2%) than males (13.7%). Marriage/family reunification (9.6%) is also another reason assigned. The proportion of females for whom this was mentioned as a reason for emigrating was almost twice that of males (13.7% versus 7.4%). Throughout the world, males are seen as the primary migrants who blaze the trail and females follow later (Reed et al, 2013). The number of Ghanaians who emigrated as a result of socio-political displacement or natural disaster was negligible.

**TABLE 5.6: EMIGRANT POPULATION 15 YEARS OR OLDER BY SEX AND REASON FOR MIGRATING**

Reasons for emigrating	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	64.2	35.8
Employment	73.4	76.7	67.3	100.0	67.2	32.8
Settlement (long term/permanent stay)	2.1	1.8	2.5	100.0	56.8	43.2
Marriage/family reunification	9.6	7.4	13.7	100.0	49.2	50.8
Education/training	14.6	13.7	16.2	100.0	60.3	39.7
Socio-political displacement (asylum seeker, refugee, wars)	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	74.5	25.5
Natural disaster displacement (flood, drought, fire, etc.)	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	66.7	33.3
Health	0.1	0.1	0.1	100.0	49.8	50.2
Other	0.1	0.0	0.1	100.0	51.2	48.8
Don't know	0.2	0.2	0.2	100.0	68.9	31.1

## CHAPTER SIX

### 6. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

#### 6.1. Summary and Conclusions

##### 6.1.1. Introduction

Historically, the movement of people in Ghana has generally been from north to south in response to the pattern of the location of its biophysical resources. Thus, movement of people traverses the dry and less resource-endowed savannah zone in the north, through the transitional zone in the middle to the wet and more resource-endowed high forest zone in the south. The pattern fits into the so-called push-pull model for the explanation of the causes of migration, which opines that people are pushed by some negative factors out of the country of origin, or the usual place of residence in a part of a country and are pulled by positive factors into a destination country or another part of the country. Thus, the fundamental assumptions are that the more disadvantaged a place is, the more likely it will push out migrants, and that, given inequalities, there will be migration. At the sub-regional level, it also explains Ghana's changing fortunes in the attraction of migrants over the years.

Swings in migration in West Africa are determined by the changes in economic conditions within the sub-region. When economic conditions are good in a country, it attracts migrants, and when conditions deteriorate, it sends away migrants. Until the 1960s, Ghana was the leading destination for migrants in the West African sub-region when it was overtaken by Côte d'Ivoire. Currently, Ghana's migration situation is complex, serving at the same time as a receiving country, a sending country, and a transit country for migrants.

##### 6.1.2. Characteristics of migrants

The data from the 2021 PHC show that 28.9 percent of the national population are migrants, with rural proportion (33.9%) being higher than the urban proportion (22.2%). Females constitute more than half (52.5%) of the migrant population, a differential which is not diverse from that of the total population, which also shows a female majority.

The age composition of the migrant population is different from the total population and non-migrant population. For instance, the median age of migrants is 29 years compared with 21 years for the total population, and 18 years for the non-migrant population. This indicates that the migrant population is much older than the total population and that of the non-migrants. However, they are more concentrated in the age bracket 20-39 years, with the concentration in the urban areas being higher (44.5%) relative to the rural areas (39.7%).

A higher proportion of the migrants (47.3%) than the non-migrants (40.0%), is never married. Male migrants are more likely to be not married (53.8%) than their female counterparts (41.0%). Furthermore, the prevalence of registered marriages (5.3%) is lower among migrants than non-migrants (11.5%).

In terms of education, it is observed that more than half (53.6%) of the migrants have attended school in the past compared with only 40.0 percent of the general population. The mirror effect of this is that the proportions of migrants who have attained secondary (25.1%) and tertiary (16.2%) education are higher than those of non-migrants (17.2% and 7.4% respectively). Male migrants have higher levels of education than their female counterparts at all levels.

The study revealed that among the migrants, the proportion of the economically active (63.6%) is higher than the general population's (58.1%) and non-migrants' (54.8%), higher in the rural areas (65.7%) than the urban areas (62.6%), and higher among males (74.6%) than females (58.1%). Thus, the unemployment rate among migrants (6.4%) is lower than that of the total population (7.8%) and the non-migrant population (8.6%). In addition, the data on occupation show that the proportions of migrants who are managers, professionals and technicians and associate professionals are higher than those of non-migrants. The disparity is more pronounced in the urban than rural areas. The distribution by industry reveals that the highest proportion of migrants (24.3%) are in agriculture, forestry and fishery sector and is followed by wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles (21.5%), a pattern which is not very different from the total population and the non-migrant population.

Among the migrants, those who work for others for pay (employees) (34.2%) are in the minority. A higher proportion of migrants in the rural areas (73.0%) are self-employed compared with their urban counterparts (53.0%). Female migrants are more likely than their male counterparts at both national and locality levels to be self-employed. However, greater proportions of male than female migrants tend to be self-employed with employees. Thus, by implication, not only does a higher proportion of male migrants create jobs for themselves, but they also create jobs for others. Majority of the migrants are in the private sector, concentrated more in the private informal (86.7%) than the private formal sectors (71.7%), and with just a little over 10 percent (12.1%) in the public (government) sector. The pattern of distribution is almost repeated at both urban and rural areas.

### **6.1.3. Ownership of functional ICT devices**

The prevalence of ownership of functional mobile phones among non-migrants (89.6%) was reasonably higher than among migrants (79.8%). However, a much higher proportion of migrants (67.8%) than non-migrants (52.5%) used mobile phones for financial transaction three months before the census night. Much of the transactions was mobile money transfer.

#### **6.1.4. Patterns of migration over time**

The proportion of internal migrants has reduced from about 34 percent in 2010 to about 27 percent in 2021. Over the period a greater proportion of people have been moving between regions (inter-regional movements) than within regions (intra-regional movements). About 4,435,246 were inter-regional migrants, representing about 14.5 percent of the total population, which was lower than the 2010 figure of 19 percent. There is evidence that the rate of intra-regional movements is catching up with that of inter-regional movements. The creation of six additional regions made some regions, notably the Western Region, lose non-migrant and in-migrant populations. While Greater Accra continues to be the most attractive region for migrants from other regions, the rate of migration into the region decreased compared with the 2010 census figure. In fact, all regions in the country experienced reduction in in-migration rates in the 2021 PHC compared with the 2010 PHC.

In-migration rates were lowest in three northern regions, namely, Upper East, North East and Upper West. On the other hand, apart from the Volta Region which is in the south of the country, Upper West and Upper East showed some of the highest out-migration rates in the country. Six regions, Greater Accra, Western North, Bono East, Western, Ashanti and Ahafo, experienced positive net-migration between 2010 and 2021. Of the remaining ten regions which experienced negative net-migration, six—Volta, Upper East, Upper West, Eastern, Northern and Central regions—are perennial population losers through migration. The remaining four—North East, Savannah, Oti and Bono regions—were among the six newly created regions. All the regions that experienced negative net migration, apart from Eastern Region and Central Region to some extent, are among the least developed in the country.

Using Migration Effectiveness Ratio (MER) as a measure of the impact of migration on population redistribution in the country, Greater Accra Region again leads with a ratio of 58.9, a reduction from 66.4 in the previous census. Bono East Region, a newly created region, came second with a MER of 22.1, implying a modest contribution to population redistribution in Ghana. Ashanti Region's MER reduced from 16.4 in 2010 to 15.6 currently. That seems to suggest that Ashanti Region's influence on population redistribution in Ghana is waning.

#### **6.1.5. Intra-regional and inter-regional migrants' differentials**

A higher proportion of females than males have been involved in intra-regional movements since 2000, and the reverse is true in the case of inter-regional movements. Close to 40 percent of migrants have been residing away from their usual places of residence for 10 years or more, suggesting that internal migration has been an aspect of livelihood of many Ghanaians for a long time. Among intra-regional migrants, the most important reason for migrating was marriage/family reunification, and it was more important for female migrants than their male counterparts. Among the inter-regional migrants, on the other hand, marriage/family reunification and employment were almost equally important reason for their movement. This seems to conform with the finding in



literature that females dominate in short-distance migration and mostly move for family reasons.

### **6.1.6. Living conditions and sanitation**

There is virtually no difference between non-migrants and migrants in the type of dwelling units in which they live. Almost two-thirds of the total population lives in separate or detached houses and about a fifth live in compound houses. However, a higher proportion of migrants than non-migrants live in non-permanent structures. On the other hand, non-migrants are more likely than their migrant counterparts to own the dwelling units in which they live. Among the migrants, those who own their dwelling units in the rural areas is almost twice as high as those in the urban areas.

The data further show that there is very little variation between migrants and non-migrants in the general access to improved sources of drinking water. However, in the case of access to specific sources of drinking water, such as public tap/standpipe or boreholes, non-migrant proportions are significantly higher than migrants. Conversely, nearly twice as many migrants (46.8%) as of non-migrants (26.1%) use sachet water as their source of drinking water.

Almost half of migrants (47.5%) use liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) compared with only 26.6 percent of non-migrants. On the other hand, the use of wood as the main source of cooking fuel is much higher among non-migrants (46.8%) than migrants (26.9%). Regarding cooking space, there is very little variation between migrants and non-migrants. Among migrants, however, there are some variations based on type of locality. For example, urban migrants (31.6%) are more likely than their rural counterparts (16.2%) to cook in the veranda, whereas the reverse is the case with the use of makeshift structures for cooking. With the use of improved water services there is very little variation between migrants and non-migrants. However, the use of improved sanitation among migrants in the urban areas is higher than their counterparts in the rural areas.

### **6.1.7. Non-Ghanaian population**

There was a reduction in the number of non-Ghanaians in the country from 398,585 in 2010 to 294,341 in 2021, made up of 60.5 percent males and 39.5 percent females. The population is young with a median age of 21 years and 58.2 percent within the age bracket 15-39 years. An overwhelming proportion of the non-Ghanaian population is from other West African countries, mainly from Nigeria (28.4%), Togo (22.3%), Burkina Faso (17.3%) and Côte d'Ivoire (4.6%), with only 2 percent from other African countries. The proportion of non-Ghanaians from Asia (3.8%) was more than three times that from Europe (1.1%).

The non-Ghanaians are fairly well educated with a little over a fifth of them having tertiary higher national diploma or higher compared with 10.1 percent of Ghanaians. Male non-Ghanaians are better educated than their female counterparts. More than half (56.5%) of the non-Ghanaian population are economically active, a little lower than

the national average of 58.1 percent. About three-quarters of the non-Ghanaian population are mostly engaged as services and sales workers, skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery, and craft and related trades occupations. Only a quarter of the non-Ghanaian population are employees, and a larger share of them are males. The majority (60.3%) is either self-employed without employees (53.7%) or self-employed with employees (6.6%). An overwhelming majority of the non-Ghanaian population (83.2%) is in the private informal sector.

### **6.1.8. Emigration from Ghana**

A total of 293,416 persons were captured as Ghanaian emigrants in the 2021 PHC. The emigrant population is dominated by young adults, with a median age of 35 years. There are more emigrants with rural origin (78.6%) among the 20-49 years than there are with urban origin.

More than half (53.7%) of emigrants is reported to have originated from Greater Accra (26.9%) and Ashanti (26.8%) regions. The proportions of female emigrants are higher than those of males in seven regions (Greater Accra, Ashanti, Central, Western, Eastern, Volta and Oti).

The main destinations of Ghanaian emigrants were Europe (37.6%) and the Americas (23.6%), which has remained virtually unchanged since 2010. A third of the destinations of Ghanaian emigrants are in Africa, mainly in ECOWAS countries. Cote d'Ivoire has most of Ghanaian emigrants in the West African sub-region (7.3%) followed by Nigeria (6.0%). Over 80 percent (83.8%) of the Ghanaian emigrants have lived in their destinations for 10 years or more. The main reason behind the emigration of Ghanaians to other countries is economic, specifically to seek employment. The proportion of females who emigrated for marriage/family reasons was almost twice that of males.

## **6.2. Policy Recommendations**

Ghana's situation as a sending, receiving and a transit country for migrants at the same time creates a complex situation for the formulation of a strategy to deal with international migration in the country. Any policy direction will be determined by which of the three is most dominant. This certainly calls for a careful study of the situation to come to a definite conclusion which cannot be achieved through the census. It is almost three decades since a comprehensive migration study was conducted in the country. It is time to have another one to help set the records straight.

With nearly a third of the Ghanaian population being internal migrants, it could be said that Ghanaians are quite mobile. It also emerged that majority of the internal migrants are females, who are known to be among the vulnerable in the society. Every effort must, therefore, be made to reduce the vulnerability of migrants in Ghana to avoid the situation of double jeopardy for the female migrant in the country.

The age structure of the migrant population puts many of them in the economically active age bracket. With close to 50 percent in the age bracket 20-39 years, they

constitute a demographic dividend that could be harnessed to assist in the rapid development of every part of the country. The migrant population should, therefore, be targeted with carefully strategised programmes to enhance their economic capabilities in a situation of ready availability of jobs. Otherwise, they could become a powder keg ready to explode with the least friction thereby creating instability in the country.

The observation that a greater proportion of migrants than the general population is educated could mean that after receiving education some Ghanaians become “misfits” at their usual places of residence in connection with the kind of jobs available and are forced to move for “greener pastures” elsewhere. If the situation remains unchanged, with time the phenomenon could create socio-economic disequilibrium at both the place of origin and the place of destination of migrants. For example, the places of origin of migrants could run short of skilled labour for the development of their local areas. Already the proportions of migrants who are managers and professionals are significantly higher than those of their non-migrant counterparts. Programmes like Planting for Food and Jobs and for export, and One District One Factory, if properly implemented, could help retain people at their places of origin, especially in the rural areas where the proportion that is economically active among the migrants is higher than in the urban areas. Administrative headquarters of ministries, departments and agencies should be spread across all the sixteen regions as a way of spreading opportunities to all parts of the country.

The proportion of migrants who are employees is much higher than that of their non-migrant counterparts. In a situation where the non-migrant unemployment rate is higher than that of migrants, there is the tendency for indigenous people to think that migrants have taken over jobs that would have been available to them and that could lead to clashes between the two groups. Although this is most common between nationals and immigrants, policy makers must not lose sight of frequent calls by both traditional and political leaders for their local people to be given preference for employment when a project is sited in their areas. The situation, therefore, needs careful monitoring so that potential conflicts between non-migrants and migrants could be identified in time and nipped in the bud.

As in the past, all the regions in the north of the country including the newly created ones, and the Central, Eastern and Volta regions in the south, experienced negative net migration, meaning they lost population through migration. The persistence of this phenomenon is worrying and so is the magnitude of the rate of loss in terms of migration effectiveness ratio, a measure of the impact of migration on population redistribution. The fact that the nation was able to reverse the tide in 1984 in the former Northern Region with a special focus on it as the country’s grain basket means that the situation in the regions experiencing high out-migration could be changed. Targeted programmes must, therefore, be developed focusing on the “distressed” regions with the view to stemming the tide. Agriculture should feature prominently in any such programme because that is where the regions with negative net-migration appear to have the comparative advantage. Agriculture should be modernised to make it more lucrative and attractive to the youth as they constitute the highest proportion of migrant

population. Irrigation facilities should be provided to encourage all-year farming so that the youth would not have to travel to the cities to find jobs during the dry season.

Agro-based industries should be established to provide ready markets for farm produce to prevent post-harvest loss which discourages people from venturing into agriculture. The establishment of these industries will also give employment to the youth. The One District One Factory policy agenda should be pursued to the letter to create more job opportunities especially for the youth who are mostly involved in migration.

Close to 40 percent of migrants have been residing away from their usual places of residence for 10 years or more, suggesting that internal migration has been an aspect of livelihood of many Ghanaians for a long time. It also came out that migrants are largely self-employed, and agriculture features prominently in their occupational activities. The country's land tenure system must, therefore, be streamlined such that every Ghanaian everywhere can have easy access to land without feeling alienated.

It emerged that a higher proportion of migrants than non-migrants live in non-permanent structures, and that, non-migrants are more likely than their migrant counterparts to own the dwelling units in which they live. Also, this is more of an urban than a rural phenomenon. There should thus be expansion in the provision of housing facilities to provide decent accommodation for Ghanaians, including migrants. There should also be an increase in the provision of social amenities such as electricity and water to meet the needs of the teeming population at the destination points.

Most of the non-Ghanaian population come from the West African sub-region and are fairly young, economically active, and largely self-employed. Historically, swings in the movements of people among countries in the sub-region has been determined by changes in the economic conditions in the countries. That suggests that if the economic condition in the country continues to improve, we should expect more migrants from the sub-region to come to Ghana. With most of them finding jobs in the private informal sector just as most Ghanaians, and with the sector not being very well structured, there is a strong possibility of migrants clashing with Ghanaians for space in the informal economic sector. Already there have been skirmishes between Ghanaian and Nigerian traders in particular, in the not too distant past and government has not been able to come out with a definite solution to the causes of such skirmishes (Daily Guide, December 3, 2019). It is critical that the government comes out with legislation aimed at streamlining the private informal sector particularly in trade within the framework of the ECOWAS free trade protocol and existing national legislations such as the Business Promotion Act.

More than half of the emigrant population was reported to have originated from Greater Accra and Ashanti regions only. However, among the 20-49-year age bracket more than three-quarters had rural origins. Earlier studies on migration in Ghana have observed a stepwise migration pattern whereby people leave small settlements and move on progressively to bigger towns until they end up in the city. There is evidence that the country is no more able to create jobs for its young adults and they are being forced to

look elsewhere for livelihood opportunities. If the trend continues, it would mean that Ghana has failed to take advantage of the demographic dividend that recent statistics portray. Efforts must therefore be intensified, not only to ensure good health and better education for the youth, but also to create viable economic conditions for jobs to thrive in an atmosphere of good governance.

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# APPENDIX 1

TABLE 6.1: POPULATION 15 YEARS AND OLDER BY MIGRATION STATUS, EMPLOYMENT STATUS, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY

Employment status	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All Locality Types									
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Employee	27.3	33.0	20.5	22.3	27.0	16.5	34.2	41.6	25.9
Self-employed without employees	60.0	53.7	67.4	65.1	60.0	71.4	52.9	44.9	62.0
Self-employed with employees	6.7	7.4	5.8	6.4	7.0	5.7	7.0	8.0	5.8
Casual worker	2.0	2.7	1.3	1.8	2.4	1.1	2.3	3.1	1.4
Contributing family worker	2.9	2.2	3.8	3.2	2.6	3.9	2.5	1.6	3.6
Paid apprentice	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0
Unpaid apprentice	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.7	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.8
Domestic worker	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2
Other	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2
Urban									
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Employee	36.6	44.3	28.0	32.1	39.1	24.2	41.8	50.3	32.3
Self-employed without employees	50.2	41.4	60.1	54.6	46.6	63.7	45.1	35.4	56.0
Self-employed with employees	7.8	8.8	6.6	7.7	8.6	6.7	7.9	9.1	6.6
Casual worker	2.2	2.8	1.5	2.0	2.7	1.3	2.3	3.0	1.6
Contributing family worker	1.9	1.5	2.3	2.1	1.7	2.5	1.6	1.2	2.1
Paid apprentice	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Unpaid apprentice	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.3	0.8	0.7	0.9
Domestic worker	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3
Other	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Rural									
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Employment status	Total			Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Employee	13.8	17.5	9.1	10.5	13.5	6.6	19.8	25.2	13.4
Self-employed without employees	74.1	70.6	78.5	77.6	74.8	81.3	67.7	62.4	73.8
Self-employed with employees	5.0	5.5	4.4	4.9	5.2	4.5	5.3	6.0	4.4
Casual worker	1.8	2.5	0.9	1.6	2.1	0.8	2.3	3.3	1.1
Contributing family worker	4.4	3.2	6.0	4.5	3.6	5.8	4.3	2.4	6.5
Paid apprentice	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Unpaid apprentice	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.5	0.4	0.6
Domestic worker	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2

## APPENDIX 2

TABLE 6.2: POPULATION BY AGE GROUP, MIGRANT STATUS, SEX AND TYPE OF LOCALITY

Age group	Non-migrant			Intra-regional migrant			Inter-regional migrant			
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
All locality Types										
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
0-4	15.3	15.5	15.0	5.8	6.5	5.2	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.7
5-9	14.4	14.7	14.1	8.2	9.1	7.5	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6
10-14	12.4	12.8	12.0	8.7	9.4	8.1	6.0	5.7	6.3	6.3
15-19	10.5	10.9	10.2	12.8	13.1	12.5	10.3	9.6	11.0	11.0
20-24	8.8	8.8	8.8	10.8	10.7	10.9	11.8	11.5	12.0	12.0
25-29	7.5	7.4	7.6	9.8	9.0	10.4	12.2	11.8	12.6	12.6
30-34	6.7	6.6	6.7	9.3	8.8	9.7	11.5	11.4	11.6	11.6
35-39	5.6	5.5	5.6	8.2	8.0	8.4	10.3	10.5	10.1	10.1
40-44	4.4	4.5	4.4	6.4	6.4	6.4	7.9	8.4	7.4	7.4
45-49	3.5	3.5	3.5	5.1	5.2	5.1	6.2	6.8	5.7	5.7
50-54	2.9	2.7	3.0	4.1	4.0	4.2	4.8	5.1	4.5	4.5
55-59	2.1	2.0	2.2	3.1	3.0	3.2	3.5	3.7	3.4	3.4
60-64	1.9	1.8	2.1	2.7	2.5	2.8	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.9
65-69	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	1.8	1.8
70-74	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.3
75-79	0.7	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8
80-84	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6
85-89	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3
90-94	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
95+	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Urban										
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Age group	Non-migrant			Intra-regional migrant			Inter-regional migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
0-4	14.5	15.0	14.0	6.0	6.4	5.5	2.4	2.6	2.3
5-9	13.6	14.0	13.1	8.5	9.1	8.0	4.1	4.1	4.1
10-14	11.7	11.9	11.5	9.1	9.4	8.8	5.6	5.2	5.9
15-19	10.3	10.5	10.2	14.0	14.0	14.1	10.7	9.9	11.5
20-24	9.3	9.3	9.3	11.5	11.6	11.4	12.7	12.5	12.8
25-29	8.2	8.0	8.4	9.9	9.4	10.4	12.7	12.4	13.0
30-34	7.4	7.3	7.4	9.3	9.0	9.6	11.9	11.9	11.9
35-39	6.1	6.1	6.1	8.1	8.1	8.2	10.4	10.7	10.2
40-44	4.7	4.8	4.6	6.1	6.3	6.0	7.8	8.5	7.3
45-49	3.7	3.7	3.6	4.8	5.0	4.7	6.1	6.6	5.5
50-54	2.9	2.8	3.0	3.6	3.6	3.7	4.5	4.8	4.3
55-59	2.1	2.0	2.3	2.7	2.6	2.8	3.4	3.5	3.3
60-64	1.9	1.7	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.4	2.8	2.8	2.8
65-69	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.9	1.9	1.8
70-74	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.3
75-79	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8
80-84	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.6
85-89	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3
90-94	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
95+	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Rural									
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
0-4	16.2	16.1	16.3	5.6	6.7	4.7	3.5	3.5	3.6
5-9	15.3	15.5	15.1	7.7	9.2	6.7	5.7	5.5	5.8
10-14	13.2	13.7	12.6	8.0	9.5	7.0	6.8	6.6	7.0
15-19	10.7	11.2	10.2	10.5	11.4	10.0	9.4	9.0	9.8
20-24	8.3	8.3	8.2	9.7	8.9	10.3	10.0	9.6	10.4
25-29	6.6	6.7	6.6	9.5	8.3	10.3	11.1	10.5	11.6

Age group	Non-migrant			Intra-regional migrant			Inter-regional migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
30-34	5.8	5.9	5.8	9.2	8.4	9.7	10.7	10.4	11.0
35-39	5.0	5.0	5.1	8.3	7.9	8.6	10.0	10.0	9.9
40-44	4.1	4.1	4.2	6.9	6.5	7.1	8.1	8.4	7.7
45-49	3.3	3.3	3.4	5.7	5.6	5.7	6.6	7.0	6.1
50-54	2.8	2.7	3.0	4.8	4.7	5.0	5.3	5.6	4.9
55-59	2.1	2.0	2.2	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.9	4.3	3.5
60-64	2.0	1.8	2.1	3.4	3.3	3.5	3.3	3.5	3.0
65-69	1.3	1.2	1.4	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.0	2.3	1.8
70-74	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.5	1.7	1.4
75-79	0.7	0.6	0.9	1.1	0.9	1.3	0.9	0.9	0.9
80-84	0.6	0.4	0.8	0.9	0.6	1.2	0.7	0.6	0.8
85-89	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.4
90-94	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
95+	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2

## APPENDIX 3

TABLE 6.3: NON-GHANAIAN POPULATION BY COUNTRY OR REGION OF ORIGIN, SEX AND REGION

Country of origin/Sex	Region																
	Total	Western	Central	Greater Accra	Volta	Eastern	Ashanti	Western North	Ahafo	Bono	Bono East	Oti	Northern	Savannah	North East	Upper East	Upper West
<b>Both Sexes</b>																	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
ECOWAS Countries	92.0	90.4	95.9	82.5	98.9	93.7	89.0	96.9	95.9	95.9	97.7	99.5	98.0	99.4	99.1	97.5	98.7
Burkina Faso	16.0	5.3	3.3	1.9	1.5	6.0	10.4	17.3	12.2	17.2	23.7	4.8	52.6	43.2	74.5	60.4	84.6
Cote d'Ivoire	4.3	20.3	7.3	3.1	0.8	2.1	4.3	10.9	5.4	21.0	2.4	0.3	0.5	4.9	0.5	1.3	1.2
Gambia	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Liberia	2.1	1.0	19.0	1.6	0.1	0.6	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Nigeria	26.1	14.3	33.8	46.1	8.6	23.4	28.5	6.7	12.3	13.4	24.8	9.5	14.9	26.2	4.0	13.7	3.3
Sierra Leone	0.4	0.4	0.8	1.0	0.0	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Togo	20.5	17.1	13.6	11.5	58.6	26.3	16.0	23.7	29.3	19.2	7.2	64.0	9.9	3.1	11.4	6.9	0.2
Other ECOWAS Countries	22.5	32.0	18.1	17.1	29.0	35.2	28.7	38.2	36.4	25.0	39.5	20.8	20.0	22.0	8.7	15.1	9.3
Africa, other than ECOWAS	2.0	3.0	0.9	4.8	0.2	1.7	2.1	0.5	0.3	0.9	0.6	0.1	0.6	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.2
America (North, South/Caribbean)	0.9	0.6	1.0	1.9	0.2	1.4	1.4	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.2
Asia	3.8	4.9	1.5	8.5	0.4	2.3	6.2	2.3	2.6	1.8	1.0	0.3	0.7	0.3	0.4	1.1	0.2
Europe	1.1	1.1	0.6	2.3	0.2	0.9	1.0	0.1	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.0	0.3	0.2	0.0	0.3	0.7
Oceania	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Stateless	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
<b>Male</b>																	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
ECOWAS Countries	91.5	88.6	95.9	83.5	98.6	92.7	88.5	95.6	96.0	95.7	97.2	99.3	97.6	99.3	98.9	96.8	98.7
Burkina Faso	13.9	5.2	3.3	1.8	1.4	5.5	9.8	16.0	10.7	16.4	22.4	4.6	48.3	42.5	75.9	55.1	81.7
Cote d'Ivoire	3.7	16.1	6.0	2.4	0.9	1.7	3.7	8.6	4.4	18.9	2.0	0.3	0.6	5.4	0.5	1.2	1.1
Gambia	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Liberia	1.6	0.7	14.3	1.1	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Nigeria	28.3	13.3	37.0	47.9	9.9	24.0	26.5	5.9	12.4	13.9	25.6	9.5	16.8	25.0	5.3	15.9	4.4



Country of origin/Sex	Region																
	Total	Western	Central	Greater Accra	Volta	Eastern	Ashanti	Western North	Ahafo	Bono	Bono East	Oti	Northern	Savannah	North East	Upper East	Upper West
Sierra Leone	0.4	0.3	0.7	0.7	0.0	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Togo	19.4	19.0	15.3	10.3	55.9	25.0	17.4	26.2	32.9	21.3	7.0	63.6	9.4	3.1	7.5	5.3	0.3
Other ECOWAS Countries	24.0	34.0	19.2	19.0	30.1	35.8	30.2	38.7	35.4	25.1	40.2	21.1	22.4	23.2	9.8	19.2	11.1
Africa, other than ECOWAS	2.0	3.0	1.0	4.2	0.2	1.8	2.0	0.6	0.2	0.9	0.8	0.1	0.7	0.0	0.2	0.7	0.2
America (North, South/Caribbean)	0.8	0.6	0.8	1.5	0.2	1.4	1.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1
Asia	4.5	6.5	1.7	8.8	0.7	3.1	7.1	3.4	2.9	2.3	1.3	0.6	0.9	0.3	0.7	1.6	0.3
Europe	1.0	1.3	0.5	2.1	0.2	0.9	0.9	0.1	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.0	0.4	0.1	0.0	0.4	0.7
Oceania	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Stateless	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
Female																	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
ECOWAS Countries	92.8	93.6	95.9	80.6	99.3	95.7	90.0	99.2	95.6	96.2	98.4	99.7	98.5	99.5	99.4	98.5	98.7
Burkina Faso	19.1	5.6	3.3	2.1	1.6	6.8	11.8	19.6	15.5	18.5	25.5	5.1	57.4	43.9	73.1	67.4	87.8
Cote d'Ivoire	5.1	27.8	9.4	4.4	0.7	2.7	5.7	15.0	7.4	24.4	3.0	0.3	0.4	4.3	0.6	1.4	1.3
Gambia	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Liberia	2.8	1.4	26.8	2.6	0.2	1.1	0.6	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Nigeria	22.9	16.2	28.2	42.7	7.1	22.1	32.5	8.2	12.1	12.6	23.8	9.4	12.8	27.5	2.7	10.9	2.1
Sierra Leone	0.6	0.7	1.1	1.5	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Togo	22.1	13.6	10.5	13.8	61.7	28.6	13.3	19.2	21.6	15.8	7.4	64.6	10.5	3.1	15.4	9.1	0.2
Other ECOWAS Countries	20.1	28.3	16.3	13.3	27.8	34.0	25.6	37.1	38.5	24.9	38.5	20.4	17.3	20.6	7.6	9.6	7.2
Africa, other than ECOWAS	2.1	3.0	0.8	5.9	0.1	1.4	2.1	0.2	0.3	1.0	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2
America (North, South/Caribbean)	1.1	0.6	1.3	2.6	0.2	1.3	2.0	0.1	0.8	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.5	0.4	0.2
Asia	2.8	2.0	1.1	8.0	0.1	0.7	4.5	0.5	1.9	1.0	0.6	0.0	0.5	0.2	0.0	0.5	0.2
Europe	1.1	0.7	0.9	2.7	0.1	0.9	1.2	0.1	0.6	1.0	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.8
Oceania	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.8	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Stateless	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0

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