

Ghana

MIGRATION PROFILE

*Study on Migration Routes
in West and Central Africa*



October 2017

Maastricht Graduate School of Governance (MGSoG)



Contents

| | |
|---|----|
| List of Figures..... | II |
| List of Tables..... | II |
| 1. Introduction..... | 1 |
| 2. Forced Migration/ Displacement | 2 |
| 2.1. Refugees in Ghana | 2 |
| 2.2. Refugees from Ghana | 4 |
| 2.1. Internal Displacement in Ghana | 5 |
| 3. Regular/ Labour Migration | 5 |
| 3.1. Immigration..... | 5 |
| 3.2. Emigration..... | 6 |
| 4. Internal Migration | 7 |
| 5. Irregular Migration | 7 |
| 5.1. Human Smuggling..... | 8 |
| 5.2. Trafficking in Human Beings..... | 8 |
| 6. Migrant's Vulnerabilities and Protection Issues..... | 9 |
| 7. Relevant National Policies and Stakeholders | 10 |
| References..... | 17 |

List of Figures

| | |
|--|---|
| Figure 1: Origins of Migrants in Ghana..... | 1 |
| Figure 2: Destinations of Migrants from Ghana | 1 |
| Figure 3: Total Population in Ghana by Age Group, 2015 | 2 |
| Figure 4: Migrant Stock in Ghana by Age Group, 2015 | 2 |
| Figure 5 : Refugees in Ghana, 1990-2016..... | 3 |
| Figure 6: Refugees from Ghana | 5 |

List of Tables

| | |
|--|----|
| Table 1: Ghana Key Demographic and Development Indicators | 1 |
| Table 2: Refugees and Asylum Seekers in Ghana, Mid-2016 | 3 |
| Table 3: Refugees and Asylum Seekers from Ghana by Country of Destination, Mid-2016..... | 4 |
| Table 4: Ghana's Key Migration Policy Response..... | 12 |

1. Introduction

The Republic of Ghana is a country located in West Africa, bordering Ivory Coast to the west, Burkina Faso to the north, the Republic of Togo to the east, and the Gulf of Guinea to the south. The southern half of the country is more heavily populated, with the highest concentration of the population residing near and along the Atlantic coast (CIA, 2017). Ghana has an estimated population of 27.4 million (UNDP, 2016) and was widely considered to be one of the largest and advanced markets in West Africa, with the Ghanaian economy largely resting on Ghana's three largest resources: gold, coal, and oil. Ghana has, for the most part, enjoyed a strong and stable economy (BBC Monitoring, 2017). In 2013, however, the country's economy began to falter as Ghana endured a



public deficit, weakening currency, and high-inflation rates (BBC, 2017). This is reflected in Ghana's recent Human Development Index (HDI) rating, which places the country at rank 139 out of 188, with a low HDI value of 0.579. While the economy has grown impressively, it has not been able to absorb the more rapidly expanding labour force, driving high emigration amongst the highly-skilled, and higher unemployment amongst those with no schooling and the youth (IOM & ICMPD, 2015, p. 15).

Table 1: Ghana Key Demographic and Development Indicators

| Indicator | Ghana |
|---|---|
| Total area, in sq km ^a | 238,533 |
| Population (2015), in million ^b | 27.4 |
| Urban Population (2015), % of total ^b | 54.0 |
| Population Growth Rate, average annual growth (2010-2015) % ^b | 2.4 |
| Ethnic Groups ^a | Akan 47.5% Ewe 13.9% Mole 16.6% GaDangme 7.4% Gurma 5.7% Guan 3.7% Grusi 2.5% Mande 1.1% Other 1.4% |
| Human Development Index (2015), country rank out of 188 ^b | 0.579 139 |
| GDP Based on PPP per Capita, current international dollars per capita (2016) ^c | 4,293 |

| | |
|---|-----------|
| Life Expectancy at Birth (2015), <i>years</i> ^b | 61.5 |
| Unemployment (2015), <i>% of labour force</i> ^b | 6.3 |
| Youth Unemployment (2015), <i>% ages 15-24</i> ^b | 12.2 |
| Multidimensional Poverty Headcount (2014), <i>%</i> ^b | 32.4 |
| Gini Coefficient (2010-2015) ^{b*} | 42.8 |
| Foreign Direct Investment (net inflows, 2015), <i>current USD millions</i> ^c | 3,192 |
| Net Official Development Assistance Received (2015), <i>current USD millions</i> ^c | 1,768 |
| Personal Remittances Received (2016), <i>current USD million</i> ^c | 2,041.692 |

Sources: ^a (CIA, 2017); ^b (UNDP, 2016); ^c (World Bank, 2017)

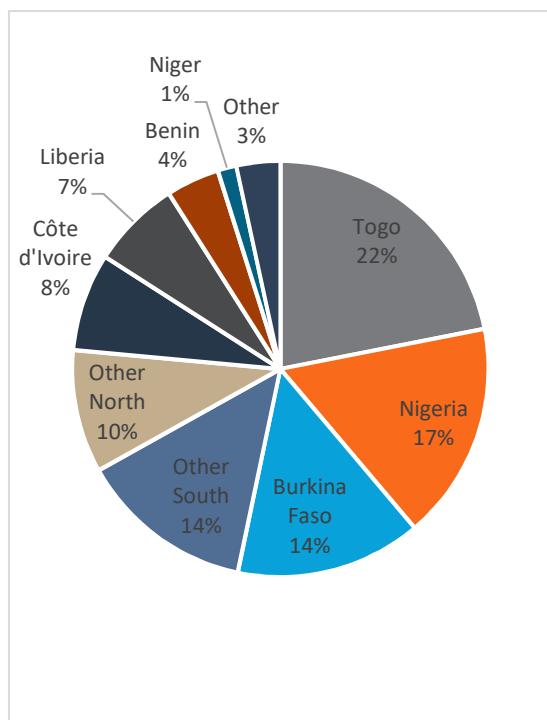
In 1956, Ghana gained independence from Britain, and Ghana's political arena was a shaping factor for migratory movements in the post-independence era. When Ghana became a military dictatorship post-independence, the country underwent a transformation from a country of immigration to one that saw large trends of emigration (SIHMA, 2014). The military rule over Ghana, in combination with the harsh economic policies that were introduced in the 1990s, pushed away Ghana's highly trained scholars and professionals. Lecturers, teachers, doctors, lawyers, engineers, and architects, and students escaped Ghana to seek more fruitful economic opportunities elsewhere; this made the country experience a large 'brain-drain, an element which put significant strain on the developing country's economy (SIHMA, 2014). Health care and educational professionals have been emigrating to countries like the United Kingdom and the United States since the 1990s (CIA, 2017).

Despite this, after the 2000s, a large number of Ghanaians returned to Ghana after the country had not only proven to be economically and politically stable but was also growing at an impressive rate. Today, Ghana's history has still largely shaped the migration trends that continue in the country, most notable perhaps is the reflection of Ghana's pan-African ideology in its contemporary migration policies (SIHMA, 2014). As of 2015, there were about twice as many Ghanaians abroad (801,710) than immigrants in Ghana (399,471). If included in the country's population, Ghanaian emigrants would account for about 3% of that figure. A significant amount of Ghanaian emigrants are in nearby West African countries, most of whom reside in Nigeria (see *Figure 2*). Together, the US and UK account for 30% of Ghanaians abroad (UN DESA, 2015a).[†]

* Data refers to a year earlier than 2010

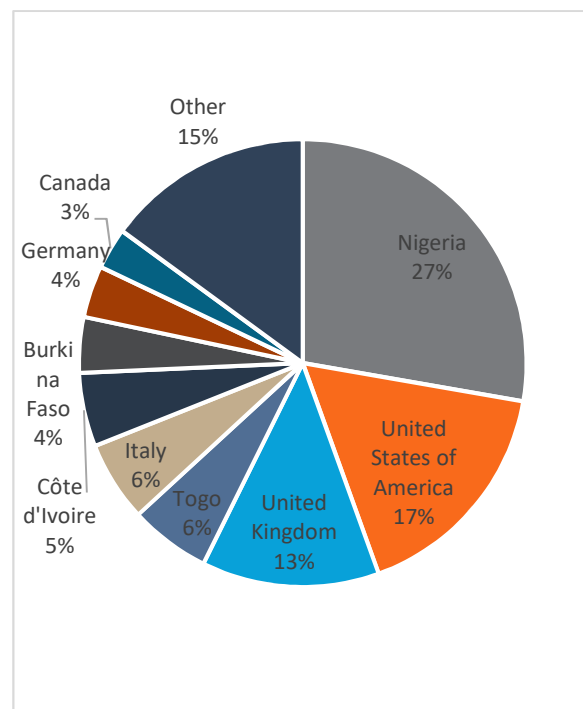
[†] Note that migration statistics from UN DESA (2015a) illustrate mixed migration stocks and may include some, but not all, of refugees in/from a given country. For further information visit:
<http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/data/estimates2/estimates15.shtml>

Figure 1: Origins of Migrants in Ghana



Source: UN DESA, 2015a

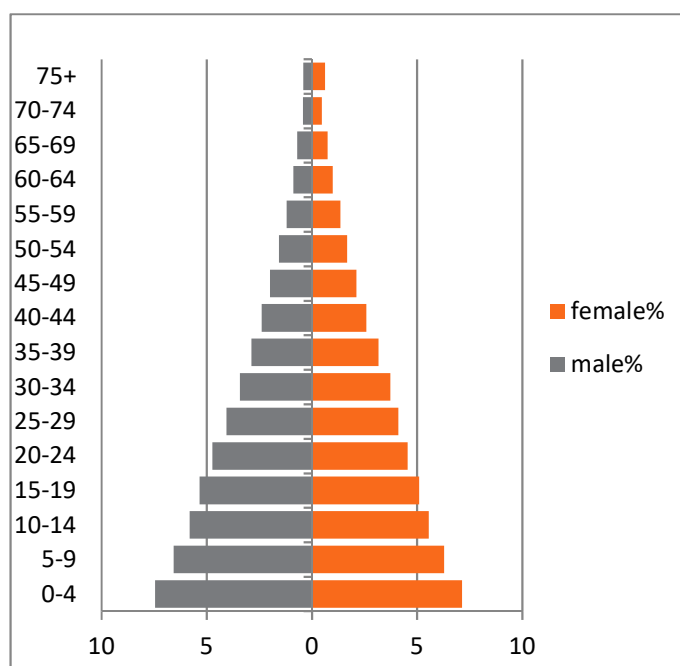
Figure 2: Destinations of Migrants from Ghana



Source: UN DESA, 2015a

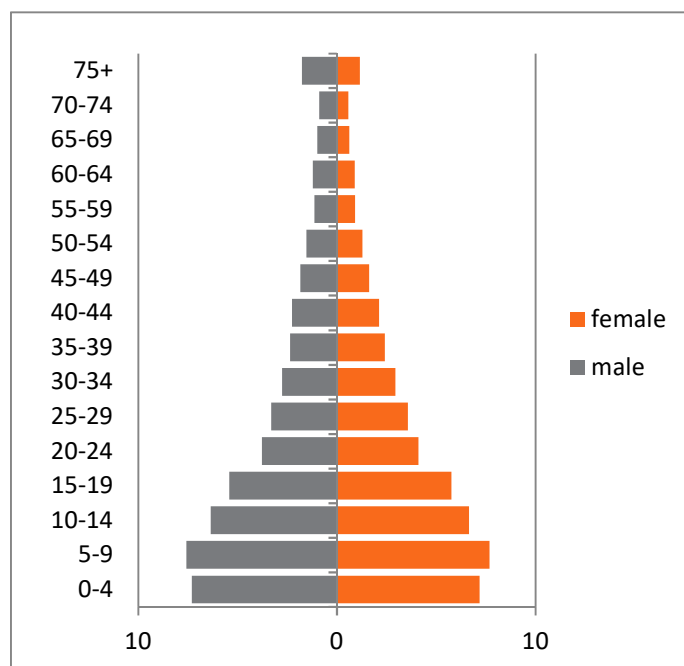
As seen in Figure 1, Togo, Burkina Faso and Nigeria are the origin countries for about half of the 399,471 immigrants in Ghana (UN DESA, 2015a). These stock figures do not include refugee data, and only account for the foreign-born population in Ghana (UNHCR, 2017). The number of refugees in Ghana has been slowly decreasing since 2013, and 2016 marked the lowest figure (11,851) the country has seen since 2001 (see Figure 5). Almost 50% of the Ghanaian population is under the age of 25 (see Figure 3), which is buoyed by a high, but declining fertility rate of 4.2 births per woman (UNDP, 2016). The share of <20-year-olds amongst immigrants is even higher, at about 54% (see Figure 4).

Figure 3: Total Population in Ghana by Age Group, 2015



Source: UN DESA, 2015b.

Figure 4: Migrant Stock in Ghana by Age Group, 2015



Source: UN DESA, 2015a.

2. Forced Migration/ Displacement

2.1. Refugees in Ghana

Whilst international migration has a long-standing history in Ghana, the first refugee camp was only set up in 1996 to host the large influx of Liberian refugees who were fleeing from the conflict and violence of the Liberian war. Today, Ghana has six main refugee camps: Krisian, Ampain, the greater Accra, Egiekrom, Fententaa, and Gomoa Budumburam (Ghana Refugee Board, 2017). Most refugees have been residing in Ghana for the past 5 years, with other groups having arrived in the mid- to late-1990s. The latest flux of refugees in Ghana are Ivorians who were fleeing from conflict during the 2011 violence in Ivory Coast.

As seen in Table 2, the majority of refugees in Ghana are from Côte d'Ivoire, with significant cohorts from Togo and Liberia as well. Most of the refugees within Ghana are those that are escaping violence and conflict, usually armed conflict, in their own nations. The Ivorian refugee population was steadily increasing over the past few years, but from mid-2016 to end-2016, there was a significant decrease in the number of Ivorian refugees, dropping from 10,935 to 6,453 (UNHCR, 2017). The size of the Liberian cohort of refugees is in decline.

According to the UNHCR (2016), refugee camps in Ghana usually tend to accommodate a majority ethnicity; the majority of the Liberian refugee population have settled in the Gomoa Budumburam refugee camp, the Togolese refugees are accommodated in the Volta region, and the Ivorian refugees predominate the Egiekruom and Krisam refugee camps (Ghana Refugee Board, 2017). At the end of

2016, 95% of all refugees in camps in Ghana were registered in the National Health Insurance Scheme (UNHCR, 2016).

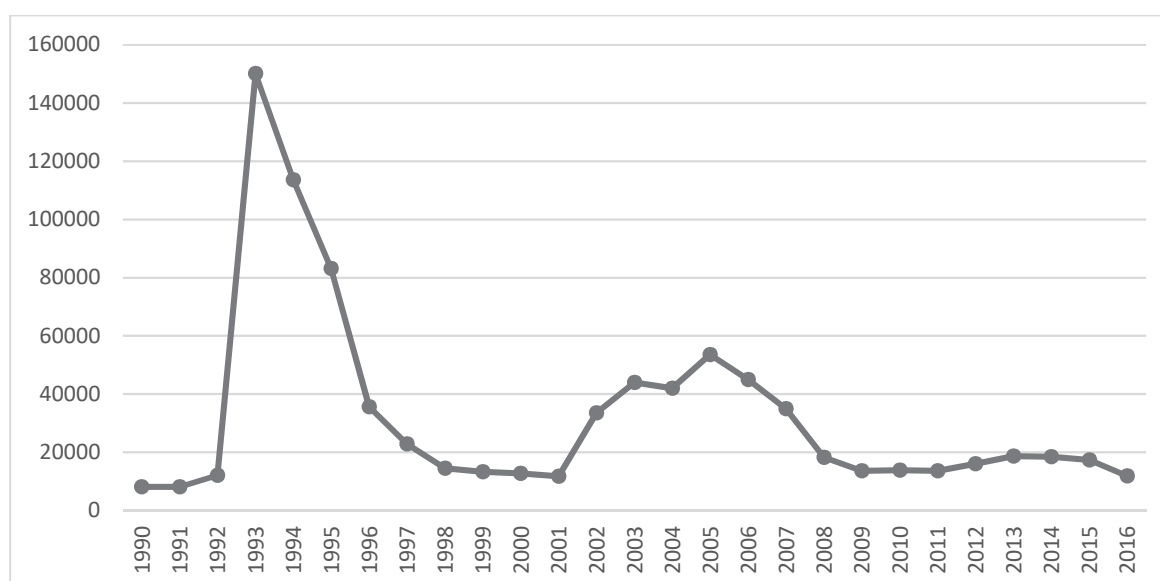
Ghana has interpreted the definition of the refugee according to the definitions set out in the 1951 Refugee Convention and 1969 Organization of African Unity Refugee Convention (UNHCR, 2017a). All refugees in Ghana are granted the freedom of movement, the right to work, and opportunities for legal integration including that of residency and naturalisation (SIHMA, 2014). All refugee camps in Ghana are managed by the National Disaster Management Organisation (NADMO) staff seconded by the Ghana Refugee Board (Ghana Refugee Board, 2017). The main challenges facing the refugee population in Ghana range from poor housing conditions to lack of food and limited legal assistance for refugees and asylum seekers when determining refugee status. Many refugees and asylum seekers in Ghana also reportedly seek assistance for gender-based violence (Ghana Refugee Board, 2017). In 2016, UNHCR assisted 60 refugees in returning to their home countries, 52 of which returned to Cote d'Ivoire, and 97 refugees were resettled in third countries (UNHCR, 2017).

Table 2: Refugees and Asylum Seekers in Ghana, Mid-2016

| Country of Origin | Refugees | Country of Origin | Asylum Seekers |
|----------------------|---------------|----------------------|----------------|
| Côte d'Ivoire | 10,935 | Côte d'Ivoire | 790 |
| Togo | 3,274 | Togo | 458 |
| Liberia | 1,368 | Sudan | 245 |
| Sudan | 313 | Central African Rep. | 148 |
| Central African Rep. | 139 | Syrian Arab Rep. | 86 |
| Other | 363 | Other | 298 |
| Total | 16,392 | | 2,025 |

Source: (UNHCR, 2017).

Figure 5 : Refugees in Ghana, 1990-2016



Source: (World Bank, 2017)

2.2. Refugees from Ghana

It is believed that refugees and asylum seekers from Ghana flee because of politically motivated fears, which date back to the onset of constitutional rule between 1981 and 1992 (Quartey, 2009). Togo hosts the most Ghanaian refugees, at almost 10,000 refugees as of mid-2016 (see Table 3). However, as the Togolese government does not formally recognize Ghanaian refugees, UNHCR has been advocating for their naturalization (UNHCR, 2017c). The majority of the remaining Ghanaian refugees were in non-African countries as of mid-2016 (Table 3). With the exception of South Africa, the vast majority Ghanaian asylum seekers are also in non-African countries. The number of asylum seekers from Ghana has grown sharply, jumping from 2,023 in 2010 to 11,512 by the end of 2016. Italy was host to just 136 asylum seekers in 2010, but was hosting 3,817 by the end of 2016 (UNHCR, 2017b).

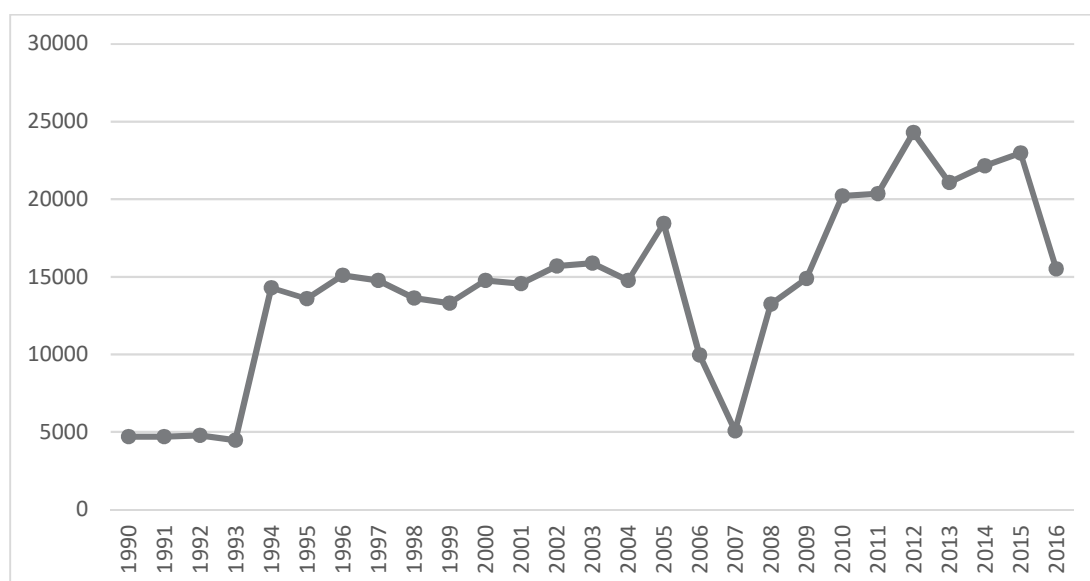
Many of the refugees and asylum seekers reach their eventual host countries in Europe through irregular means. Most refugees who flee from Ghana to Europe usually try to do so through Libya, after traveling through Burkina Faso and Agadez, Niger, along the way. It is from Agadez that they join others trying to reach Europe. While many of these Ghanaians travel to Europe in search of better economic opportunities, they end applying for asylum since they've entered irregularly (Dovi, 2016). There were 28,223 child arrivals in Italy in 2016, 92% of which were unaccompanied (UNHCR, IOM, & UNICEF, 2017). Furthermore, 92% of those unaccompanied and separated children arrivals in Italy were between the ages of 15-17. A small, but unspecified share of these unaccompanied and separated children in Italy were from Ghana.

Table 3: Refugees and Asylum Seekers from Ghana by Country of Destination, Mid-2016

| Country of Destination | Refugees | Country of Destination | Asylum Seekers |
|--------------------------|---------------|--------------------------|----------------|
| Togo | 9,608 | Italy | 2,893 |
| Italy | 3,027 | South Africa | 2,681 |
| France | 524 | Germany | 2,429 |
| Canada | 301 | United States of America | 866 |
| United States of America | 301 | Brazil | 572 |
| Other | 966 | Other | 1,459 |
| Total | 14,727 | | 10,900 |

Sources: (UNHCR, 2017); (UNHCR, 2016d)

Figure 6: Refugees from Ghana



(World Bank, 2017)

2.3. Internal Displacement in Ghana

Weather related disasters are significant drivers of internal displacement in Ghana. Since 2011, there have been 97,200 displacements caused by natural disasters. In 2016 alone, flooding and torrential rains displaced 7,918 people in several regions across the country. As of June 2017, 5,700 people have been displaced by natural disasters (IDMC, 2017). Whether or not these IDPs return to their homes or not, and other consequences of internal displacement in Ghana, are unclear and not specified by IDMC. Generally, loss of property and livelihoods disruptions are possible consequences of internal displacement, especially in the case of natural disaster, leaving those displaced homeless and unemployed (IDMC, 2017). UNHCR has not recorded any IDPs in Ghana since 1994 (UNHCR, 2017b).

3. Regular/ Labour Migration

3.1. Immigration

The introduction of constitutional rule in 1992 gave way to economic and political stability, which has attracted migrants from within and without the ECOWAS region (SIHMA, 2014). Most immigrants in Ghana come from nearby African countries, over half of which come from Togo, Burkina Faso, and Nigeria alone (see Figure 1), and a majority of the total figure are from ECOWAS Member States.

While the Ghanaian Statistical Service tracked a drop in foreigners between 2000 (740,191) and 2010 (600,049) (IOM & ICMPD, 2015), UN DESA (2015a) figures chart significant growth in the number of foreign-born population over the same period: nearly doubling from 191,601 to 337,701. In 2010, 46.1% of the immigrants in Ghana were women, and by 2015, that figure slightly dropped to 45.5% (UN DESA, 2015a). However, in absolute terms, the number of female immigrants rose from 155,459 in 2010, to 182,027 in 2015.

According to the 2010 census, 285,655 foreign nationals were employed across all sectors, 83.2% of whom were working in the private informal sector (GSS, 2013). Approximately 58.2% of those foreign nationals employed were male. Of the 600,049 non-Ghanaians counted by the census, 20.2% were found in the Greater Accra (*ibid.*). Immigrants in Ghana are employed in the following sectors: agricultural, forestry and fisheries; wholesale and retail; repairing motor vehicles; and informal, self-employed (IOM & ICMPD, 2015). Foreign students are also a significant cohort of immigrants in Ghana. Students were issued 8.5% of the residence permits granted in 2007, and represent almost 25% of permit holders from ECOWAS countries (Quartey, 2009).

3.2. Emigration

If counted in the country's population, the 801,710 Ghanaian emigrants abroad would represent about 3% of Ghana's population. Ghanaian emigrants are known to work in retail and sales, construction and agriculture, as mechanics, electricians, carpenters, and most significantly, in the medical sector (IOM & ICMPD, 2015). About 30% of these emigrants are in the US and UK alone, but the most popular destination is Nigeria, accounting for 27% (see Figure 2). The top countries for Ghanaian emigration to Europe are Italy and Germany as well as Ivory Coast and Nigeria within the ECOWAS region. There has been a shift in preferences towards Europe over ECOWAS countries for Ghanaian emigrants who, before the 1990s, largely favoured ECOWAS countries (71%) (SIHMA, 2014).

The gender differentiation between Ghanaian emigrants is also an interesting phenomenon. Male Ghanaian emigrants still dominate emigration in Ghana, accounting for 64% of Ghanaian emigrants (SIHMA, 2014). Whilst this gap is in line with the gender gap that exists in migration trends, it does indicate an improvement in the involvement of women and girls in migration. The increasing involvement of Ghanaian women in migration is largely due to the fact that there is an increased demand for women and their services within the care economy (Wong, 2006, as cited by SIHMA, 2014). UN DESA (2015a) figures chart an absolute increase in the number of female Ghanaian emigrants, from 260,347 (in 2005) to 337,993 (in 2015), but a drop in their overall share: falling from 46.5% to 42.2% over the same period.

The share of tertiary-educated Ghanaian emigrants in OECD countries in 2011 was 35.2%, while the share of tertiary-educated women amongst female Ghanaian emigrants in OECD countries that same year was 31.7% (Ratha, 2016). While most Ghanaian emigrants have a low to medium level of skills, the emigration rate of skilled Ghanaians is very high, at 46% (IOM & ICMPD, 2015). This has left sectors of the Ghanaian labour market grossly under-supplied, specifically for doctors, nurses, pharmacists, and those in higher education institutes (*ibid.*, pg. 165). A significant amount of the highly-skilled are trained abroad; about 8% of Ghanaian university students studied abroad in 2006 (Quartey, 2009).

In 2010, it was recorded that a large majority of Ghanaians who emigrated from Ghana were employed in their new destinations, around 76%. Other than the employed percentage of Ghanaians, of the Ghanaians living outside of Ghana 14% are studying and 6% are unemployed (SIHMA, 2014). This predominantly indicates that a large number of Ghanaians are labour emigrants. Furthermore, from this percentage, one can infer that the Ghana does suffer from a high amount of brain drain, or of people with a high qualified skill set leaving as opposed to remaining within the country. When looking at the role of gender within Ghanaian labour emigration, two key points may be noted. Firstly,

Ghanaian women's employment rate abroad is 6% lower than that of males, in addition to the percentage of Ghanaian males who are unemployed being 4% lower than Ghanaian females.

According to the Bank of Ghana, remittances have grown from USD 479 million in 1999, to USD 2.14 billion in 2010. The Bank of Ghana, however, acknowledges that these are likely underestimates (GSS, 2013, p. 69). This growth is largely due to increased emigration from Ghana and has improved private-sector growth through financing small- and medium-scale enterprises (Quartey, 2009). As of 2016, personal remittances received (USD 2.04 billion) account for 4.78% of Ghana's GDP, up from 0.42% in 2010 (World Bank, 2017).

4. Internal Migration

Urbanization, especially from the northern to the southern regions of Ghana, is and has been largely driven by economic factors i.e. poverty and unemployment (Awumbila, Manuh, Quartey, Tagoe, & Bosiakoh, 2008). Of the 10 regions in Ghana, four experienced positive net migration between 2000 and 2010. In absolute numbers, the most significant internal movements were in Greater Accra, which gained 1,275,452 in population over the period, and Volta, which lost 535,671 in population (GSS, 2013). Greater Accra is home to Ghana's capital and, thus, the country's major governmental organizations and ministries. Western, Ashanti, and Brong-Ahafo, which also experienced positive net migration, are hubs for industry, mining, and agricultural land (GSS, 2013). These four regions that experienced positive net migration are all in the southern half of Ghana, indicating a strong North-South movement of internal migrants. In the 2010 census, GSS predicted that the Western Region would continue to attract migrants because of oil industry development in the region. In contrast to the receiving regions, those regions with negative net migration are the least developed in Ghana, aside from the Eastern Region (GSS, 2013).

5. Irregular Migration

Irregular migration remains a prevalent phenomenon in Ghana, which is a source, destination, and transit point for this type of movement. Despite this, tracking and understanding irregular migration in Ghana proves to be difficult as a consequence of the lack of reliable and accountable data available (SIHMA, 2014). Between 2001 and 2007, Ghana deported upwards of 27,000 irregular migrants from the country, almost 70% of whom had been staying in the country irregularly (Quartey, 2009).

Human smuggling and human trafficking are crimes against international law and involve the irregular movement of people from one country to another. The main two differences between these phenomena lie in the presence or absence of consent, and in the exploitation of the migrant upon destination. Indeed, smuggling as opposed to trafficking, is a service that migrants consensually use to get from A to B and that finishes upon arrival. In contrast, trafficking victims are forced to migrate against their will (absence of consent), and their exploitation continues upon arrival at the destination. Nevertheless, the lines between trafficking and smuggling are thin, and very often smuggling becomes trafficking due to the increased vulnerability of migrants on the move (UNODC, 2017).

5.1. Human Smuggling

Smuggling in Ghana is a significant problem. Ghana qualifies as a source, transit, and destination country for migrant smuggling (SIHMA, 2014). As was reported between 2010 and 2012, there were 124 cases involving migrant smuggling that were handled by immigration officers, with the most popular entry point being the Kotoka airport. It was only in 2012 that Ghana officially made migrant smuggling an illegal practice, making it harder to track and prevent migrant smuggling in Ghana (SIHMA, 2014).

As seen in Section 2.2 on refugees from Ghana, there has been a significant rise in asylum seekers from entering Italy and Germany. A majority of those entering the EU via the Central Mediterranean route apply for asylum upon arrival, but while most of these applications are rejected on the first instance, few of the rejected applicants are returned (Frontex, 2016). Irregular migrants to Europe are driven by economic reasons, but pressures and expectations from family and community, as well as the desire for emancipation, also play a role in driving irregular migration from Ghana (IRIN, 2008, Bardem 1993, as cited by UNICEF & WCARO, 2016). Of the 4,431 arrivals in Italy in 2015, only 3% were women (UNICEF & WCARO, 2016, p. 26).

5.2. Trafficking in Human Beings

The US Department of State (USDS) reports that Ghana has been a known source, transit and destination country for trafficking over the past five years, and Ghanaian children within the country are at the greatest risk for exploitation, particularly in the form of forced labour and sex trafficking (USDS, 2017). In addition to the exploitation of Ghanaian children, not only is there sex trafficking within the country of female migrants from Vietnam, China, and countries neighbouring Ghana, but the country itself is a transit point for West Africans in sex trafficking to Europe, i.e. Italy and Germany (USDS, 2017). For the third year in a row, the USDS has ranked Ghana as a Tier 2 Watch List country in its 2017 Trafficking in Persons Report. The country “does not fully meet the minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking,” despite government efforts against the phenomenon (USDS, 2017., pg. 181).

Young women and girls in Ghana, particularly those who move from rural to urban areas in search of work, are vulnerable to sex trafficking, with boys and adolescent men remaining less of a target in the country. Sex trafficking is predominantly prevalent within the Volta region of the country and is starting to grow in other areas in the nation such as in the western regions that are known for producing oil (USDS, 2017). Ghanaian women and children are recruited and sent into the Middle East, West Africa, and Europe for sex trafficking. This is in combination with the fact that Ghanaian women and girls are also heavily recruited in Gulf countries by agencies for domestic servitude, wherein they are often subjected to forced labour, sexual abuse, and sex trafficking (*ibid.*). It has also been reported that Ghanaian men have similarly been lured to the Middle East under false pretences and were forced into domestic servitude and/or prostitution.

Both Ghanaian boys and girls within Ghana vulnerable to forced labour in the domestic service, begging, gold-mining, fishing, street-hawking, and herding services. The United Nations office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) reports that human trafficking within this fishing industry is a problem that deserves more attention, and one that is consequence of much larger climate and population issues

that Ghana continues to face (Johansen, 2017). Many children are trafficked from their home villages for the purposes of working in the fishing industry. According to the UNODC, these trafficked children are exposed to dismal living conditions and hazardous working conditions, whilst made to work long hours every day by fishermen who are desperate to feed their families and make a living along the banks of Lake Volta, which was created in the 1960s (Johansen, 2017).

The Ghanaian government has taken the following actions towards prevention measures against human trafficking in Ghana (USDS, 2017, pp. 181–183):

- The government supported two meetings in 2017 with the Ministry of Gender, Children, and Social Protection (MGCSP) on anti-trafficking policy, promoting prevention efforts, and facilitating as well as planning further the rehabilitation and reintegration of trafficking victims in Ghana.
- With support from international organizations and NGOs (unspecified by USDS), the government continued to review the draft national action plan on human trafficking. The government partnered with an international organization to conduct community-level training on child protection and the rights of children.
- The Ghanaian government also entered into a partnership with a foreign donor (unspecified by USDS) focused on improving its response to child trafficking and committed to increasing its resources devoted to combating this crime.
- The government also made increased efforts to investigate and prosecute those allegedly responsible for fraudulent recruitment.

6. Migrant's Vulnerabilities and Protection Issues

The following vulnerabilities and protection issues have been identified in the case of Ghana. Internal migrants, specifically rural migrants to have migrated to urban areas are vulnerable to human trafficking; this is particularly true for women and girls who migrate to the urban centres in search for work or job prospects. Women and girls who migrate from rural settlements to urban hubs, such as Accra, are most vulnerable to sex trafficking. Children who migrate from rural to urban areas are also made susceptible to labour trafficking and indentured servitude. Children, particularly young boys, who migrate from the urban hubs to rural settlements are susceptible to being trafficked into fish farming (USDS, 2017). Ghanaian emigrants seeking labour opportunities abroad are also at risk of forced labour and sex trafficking (USDS, 2017).

Migrants from Ghana seeking to enter Europe through Libya and the Central Mediterranean route face the risks of associated with irregular migration, i.e. trafficking and the inherent dangers of smuggling routes. Like other West Africans, Ghanaians have few cultural or religious ties in Libya, making them more vulnerable (Altai Consulting, 2015). Moreover, refugees in the country are particularly vulnerable to poor living conditions, lack of access to health and education services, and negative coping mechanisms that come from a shortage in activities for youth, i.e. survival sex (UNHCR, 2017a). Finally, the Ghanaian migrants who make it to Europe, but do not receive asylum status and remain in their country of destination face the risks of undocumented status.

7. Relevant National Policies and Stakeholders

The Ghanaian Government recently presented its approach to migration management in the *National Migration Policy for Ghana* (Ministry of the Interior, 2016), which provides a fairly comprehensive approach to migration policy and integrates it with the country's development policy. The National Migration Policy (NMP) explicitly connects the different kinds of migratory movements and their impacts with development issues like urbanisation and socio-economic inequality. Notable is Ghana's attention to the effects of emigration on the human capital of the emigrants and their home country (in terms of brain drain/gain/waste). The institutional framework outlined by the NMP is quite extensive in terms of the scope of government agencies and organizations it involves across each strategic area of concern (Ministry of the Interior, 2016):

- Institutional, Policy, and Legal Framework: Ghana National Commission on Migration (GNCM); National Development Planning Commission (NDPC); Migration Unit of the Ministry of the Interior (MOI); Ministry of Justice (MOJ) & Attorney General's Department; Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Regional Integration (MFARI)
- Internal Migration and Urbanisation: Migration Unit/GNCM; NDPC; Savannah Accelerated Development Authority (SADA); National Population Council (NPC); Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MLGRD); National Disaster Management Organization (NADMO); Ministry of Finance (MOF); Academic and research institutions
- Emigration – brain drain/circulation/waste: MFARI; Ministry of Health (MOH); Ministry of Education (MOE); Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations (MELR); MOI; Academic and research institutions
- Migration and development – diaspora resources including remittances, brain gain of return of migrants: MOF; MOI; The Bank of Ghana; MFARI; MELR; GIPC; Academic and research institutions
- Border Management: MOI; Ghana Immigration Service (GIS)
- Irregular Migration – human trafficking and migrant smuggling: Ministry of Gender, Children, and Social Protection (MGCSPP); MOJ & Attorney General's Department; MOI (GIS & Anti-Human Trafficking Unit of Ghana Police Service); MFARI; Ministry of Information and Media Relations (MIMR)
- Migration and cross-cutting issues – gender, vulnerable groups, tourism, and cultural heritage: MGCSPP; Ministry of Tourism, Culture, and Creative Arts (MTCCA); Ministry of Chieftaincy and Traditional Affairs (MCTA)
- Migration, the environment and climate change: Ministry of Environment, Science, Technology, and Innovation (MESTI); the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA); Ministry of Food and Agriculture (MOFA); Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources (MLNR); Forestry Commission; Ministry of Fisheries and Aquaculture Development (MFAD); MTCCA; SADA; Academic and research institutions
- Migration data and information management: Ghana Statistical Service (GSS); GIS; MFARI; MOI; Ghana Police Service; MELR; Academic and research institutions
- Migration and international cooperation: MFARI; MOI; MOJ & Attorney General's Department; MELR

The Ministry of Interior acts as a key stakeholder in migration governance in Ghana as it is responsible for the formulation of policies and the regulation of the large bulk of migration problems and issues within Ghana. Services, groups, and boards such as the Ghana Immigration Service (GIS), the Ghana Refugee Board (GRB), and the Migration Unit all work and operate under the Ministry of Interior, which supervises the activities of the agencies. The Ghana Refugee Board works in collaboration with UNCHR and is responsible for the management of refugee and asylum related issues within the country, in accordance with the UN convention on refugees as well as the ECOWAS protocol on refugees (SIHMA, 2014).

The Diaspora Affairs Bureau (DAB) operates as part of the legal branch in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Regional Integration. DAB is a collaboration from the IDF, the German Development Cooperation, and the Government of Ghana. It has two support units – the Diaspora Support Unit and the Migration and Development Unit (MDU). These units are tasked with managing a databank on the diaspora in combination with promoting policies that encourage diaspora investment within Ghana (SIHMA, 2014). Moreover, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Regional Integration is the ministry responsible for Ghanaians that live abroad as all Ghanaian embassies that are in foreign nations operate under the Ministry and Foreign Affairs and Regional Integration. The embassies also manage and operate a database of Ghanaians who live abroad in combination with a DAB for Ghanaians who are living in the diaspora.

The mandate of the Ghana Immigration Service (GIS) covers the regulation and monitoring of entry, departure, residence, and employment of foreigners inside Ghana. Additionally, GIS also advises the Ghanaian government on migration related issues such as passport, visa, and dual citizenship concerns. There is one branch of the GIS, namely the Migration Information Bureau, which merges new sections of the GIS. The first section includes the Anti-Human Trafficking Desk, which organises campaigns and programmes against illegal migration and trafficking. The Refugee Desk works in concert with the Ghana Refugee Board and the UNHCR providing services and legal advice (SIHMA, 2014). Ghana also has several inter-institutional coordination mechanisms in place: the Inter-Ministerial Steering Committee on Migration develops the NMP; the Immigrant Quota Committee which handles work permit applications; and the Human Trafficking Board (IOM & ICMPD, 2015).

IOM, which has operated in the country for over 25 years, also works with the Ghanaian government on a number of migration-related issues. Specifically, IOM supports the local government through the following projects/programmes:

- Budgeted for 2016, ongoing: Assistance for Child Victims of Trafficking in Ghana; Integrated Migration Management Approach in Ghana (IOM, 2015)
- Budgeted for 2017: Global Health Security Partnership Engagement: Expanding Efforts and Strategies to Protect and Improve Public Health; Engaging the Diaspora for Institutional Development in Afghanistan, Ethiopia, Ghana, Morocco, Sierra Leone, and Somalia; Strengthening National and Regional Mechanisms in Benin, Ghana, and Togo (IOM, 2016)

Regarding Ghana's policy toward refugees, it interprets the definition of a refugee according to the definitions set out in the 1951 Refugee Convention and 1969 Organization of African Unity Refugee Convention (UNHCR, 2017a). All refugees in Ghana are granted the freedom of movement, the right to work, and opportunities for legal integration including that of residency and naturalisation (SIHMA, 2014).

Concerning human trafficking, Ghana has had a Human Trafficking Act (see Table 4 for details) in place since 2005; a Fund and Board were respectively established in 2006 and 2008. More recently, a major effort began in 2012 when Ghana commenced an operation in collaboration with Nigeria's agency for the Prohibition of Trafficking in Persons. The operation managed to save 82 Nigerian and 41 Ghanaian individuals from being trafficked, in combination with detaining 16 suspects of human trafficking and smuggling offenders (USDS, 2017). However, the USDS TIP (2017) report is critical of Ghana's legislation in that it does not receive adequate resources to be fully implemented, relevant statistics are not shared by the government, and punishments are not always adequate for the level of crimes committed e.g. there are less severe consequences in the case of when a parent or guardian takes part in trafficking a child in their care (pg. 182).

As a Member State of the ECOWAS community, Ghana has ratified free movement protocols for member state citizens (see Table 4), implemented an ECOWAS passport and travel certificate, and abolished visa and entry requirements for stays of 90 days or less (IOM & ICMPD, 2015, p. 45). However, Ghana does not grant ECOWAS citizens specific residence permits, nor does its national labour legislation specifically address access to labour for ECOWAS citizens. Despite ratification of ECOWAS Free Movement Protocols, Ghana still applies legal restrictions on foreigners across a number of sectors (IOM & ICMPD, 2015pg. 46). Central to Ghana's NMP is the Common Approach on Migration of the ECOWAS community, which sets out a policy framework for transition "to move beyond migration control and exclusion to migration management and opportunity" (Ministry of the Interior, 2016, p. 29).

In addition to ECOWAS, Ghana is a part of the following pan-African migration agreements: Migration Policy Framework for Africa in Banjul (2006); the Naimey Convention on Cross-Border Cooperation within the ECOWAS Region; and the 2000 ACP-EU Partnership Agreement (Cotonou Agreement, revised 2005), which "strengthens the international development agenda while countering international terrorism, conflicts, illicit trafficking, irregular migration, and global environmental threats" (Ministry of the Interior, 2016, p. 31). Ghana has also signed or ratified 55 international protocols and conventions related to migration; the full list can be found in in Appendix 1 of the NMP (Ministry of the Interior, 2016, p. 104).

Table 4: Ghana's Key Migration Policy Response

| Policy | Content |
|---|--|
| 1992 Constitution of Ghana¹ | "Grants citizenship by birth, marriage; amended in 1996 to grant dual citizenship" |
| Immigration Act (Act 573)² | <p><i>Residence permit</i></p> <p>Act, Sect. 13: "Applications for a resident permit are to be submitted to the Director of Immigration after entry in Ghana."</p> <p><i>Indefinite residence status</i></p> <p>Act, Sect. 15.1: "The main conditions of delivery are the following: residence of 12 months in Ghana before the application; residence of five years in Ghana during the past seven years preceding the aforementioned 12 months period; intention to reside permanently in Ghana; and capacity, "in the opinion of the Minister [of Interior] of making a substantial contribution to the</p> |

| | |
|--|---|
| | <p>development of Ghana”</p> <p>Act, Sect. 16.1: “The spouse of a Ghanaian national is entitled to indefinite residence under the following main conditions: residence of 12 months in Ghana before the application; residence of two years in Ghana before the aforementioned 12 months period; and intention to reside permanently in Ghana.</p> <p>It must be highlighted that contrary to the mere possibility for the spouse to obtain a residence permit as a dependent, the granting of indefinite residence status is in this case a right of the individual.”</p> <p>Act, Sect. 18.1: “The indefinite resident status allows to engage in professional activities without the need to obtain a work permit.”</p> <p>Act, Sect. 15.3: “residence abroad for more than 12 consecutive months leads to the loss of the status.”</p> <p>Act, Sect. 18.2: “Children and “other dependents” of individuals who have been granted indefinite residence status or right of abode (see after) are eligible for a dependency permit.”</p> <p><i>Right of abode</i></p> <p>“The legislation foresees a right of abode, which entails the same rights as that of the indefinite residence status.”</p> <p>Act, Sect. 17.1: “The status applies to those individuals who have lost Ghanaian nationality due to the acquisition of a foreign nationality (when the legislation of the country of nationality does not allow for multiple citizenship) as well as to persons “of African descent in the Diaspora”. Those individuals are understood as those “whose immediate forebears have resided outside the African Continent for at least three generations but whose origin, either by documentary proof or by ethnic characteristics is African” (Act, Sect. 56).”</p> <p>Act. Sect.17.3: “Among the conditions for persons of African descent in the diaspora to obtain the right of abode, mention can be made of their financial independence and their capacity to make substantial contribution to the development of Ghana.”</p> <p><i>Access to the national labour market</i></p> <p>Act, Sect. 27: “The Immigrant Quota Committee, an inter-ministry institution, considers work permit applications and submits its recommendations to the Minister of Interior who issues the permit.”</p> <p>Act, Sect. 27.3: “The delivery of a work permit is based on the following conditions: the considered individual is not a “prohibited immigrant, a visitor, tourist, transit passenger or student”; he/she resides either abroad or legally in Ghana; he/she is qualified for the considered position; and his/her employment “will be to the benefit generally of Ghana”.”</p> <p><i>Irregular migration</i></p> <p>Sect. 35 to Sect. 41 “set procedural steps for deportation of foreigners whom are in an irregular situation, pose a threat to</p> |
|--|---|

| | |
|---|---|
| | public order, etc.” |
| Immigration Regulations (LI 1691), 2001² | <p><i>Residence permit</i></p> <p>Reg. 9.3: “The resident permit is first granted for a maximum period of four years.”</p> <p>Reg. 9.5: “The spouse and children of a resident permit holder may also obtain a residence permit. Dependents are not authorised to engage in a professional activity.”</p> <p><i>Access to national labour market</i></p> <p>Reg. 16.1: “The potential employer is requested to submit an application for a work permit through the Director of Immigration.”</p> <p><i>Irregular migration</i></p> <p>Reg. 18: “(1) a person shall not employ a foreigner except in accordance with the provisions Act. (2) any body corporate which employs a foreigner in breach of the provisions of section 24 of the act shall pay to the Immigration Service a penalty in the sum of ten million Cedis and any individual who fails to comply with the provisions of section 24 shall pay a penalty in the sum of five million Cedis. (3) a body corporate which fails to pay the prescribed penalty within seven days commits an offence and is liable on summary conviction to pay a fine of 700 penalty units and any individual who fails to pay the prescribed penalty commits an offence and is liable on summary conviction to pay a fine of 350 penalty units”.</p> |
| Immigration (Amendment) Act (Act 848), 2012 | <p>Sect. 52A: “(1) a person shall not engage in migrant smuggling. (2) a person who engages in migrant smuggling commits an offense and is liable on conviction to a fine of not less than six hundred and twenty-five penalty units and not more than one thousand, two hundred and fifty penalty units or to a term of imprisonment of not less than five years and not more than ten years or to both. (3) for the purposes of this section, migrant smuggling: means the facilitation of the unlawful entry or departure from the country of a person in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit. (4) For the purposes of this section, “facilitation” includes: (a) producing, procuring, providing or processing a travel or identity document by fraudulent means; (b) procuring by unlawful means other documentation in support of the processing of a travel or identity document; and (c) enabling a person who is not a national or a permanent resident to remain in the country without complying with the requirement for legally remaining in the country by any of the means mentioned in paragraphs (a) and (b)”.</p> |
| Citizenship Act, 2000 (591), and the Citizenship Regulations (LI 1690)¹ | <p>“This Act seeks to consolidate the laws on Citizenship in Ghana and clarifies as well who a Ghanaian citizen is. The Act also provides for the major means by which a person may become a citizen of Ghana other than by birth; that is citizenship by naturalization and registration. Under the Act, a Ghanaian may hold the citizenship of any other country in addition. This is in conformity with the constitutional provisions on citizenship. The Citizenship Regulations also provide that a citizen who holds the citizenship of any other country in addition to the citizenship of Ghana shall register as a dual national in Ghana.”</p> |

| | |
|--|--|
| Labour Act, 2003 (Act 651) & Labour Regulations, 2007 (LI 1833)¹ | <p>"The Labour Act, is the primary labour legislation in Ghana. In so far as foreign immigrants may work in Ghana, the Act equally applies to them. Essentially, the Act provides for the establishment of public employment centres and their functions, the rights and duties of both employers and employees, the conditions of employment, remuneration, termination of employment, employment of persons with disability, employment of women, trades unions and employer organisations, labour inspection, the establishment of a National Labour Commission and its functions. It also provides for the settlement of industrial disputes."</p> |
| Refugee Act, 1992¹ | <p>"The Refugee Law provides for the status of refugees in Ghana and incorporates the United Nations Convention relating to the Status of Refugees into domestic law. The Law addresses the definition of a refugee; matters relating to the presence of refugees in Ghana, either legally or illegally; the granting of refugee status; and the rights and duties of refugees as well as the detention and expulsion of refugees. The Law also establishes the Ghana Refugee Board with the task of managing all activities relating to refugees in the country. The Board is responsible for interviewing asylum seekers, and granting of refugee status."</p> |
| Human Trafficking Act (Act 694), 2005² | <p>"The Act includes the definition of the crime of trafficking, procedural steps regarding its prosecution, penalties (a minimum of five years' imprisonment), and provisions dedicated to the protection of victims.</p> <p>Art. 20 to art. 27 foresee the institution of a Human Trafficking Fund for the implementation of protection measures.</p> <p>Art. 28 to art. 33 foresee the institution of a Human Trafficking Management Board, an inter-ministerial institution which is assigned the responsibility of providing policy guidance and assistance with regard to prevention, prosecution and protection.</p> <p>Art. 34 provides for the possibility to allow foreign victims in an irregular situation to stay in Ghana during investigation, and beyond this period, when it is in their best interest."</p> |
| Human Trafficking Act, 2005 (Act 694) and Human Trafficking (Amendment) Act, 2009 (Act 784)¹ | <p>"The Act prohibits human trafficking and other offences related to human trafficking and provides for the arrest and prosecution of offenders. The Act also establishes a Human Trafficking Management Board to oversee to the implementation of the Act."</p> |
| The Children's Act, 1998 (Act 560)¹ | <p>"The Children's Act aims to reform and consolidate the laws relating to children; to provide for the rights of the child; maintenance and adoption; to regulate child labour and apprenticeship; for ancillary matters concerning children generally and to provide for related matters. At the institutional level, the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection coordinates the activities of inter-agency groups working to combat human trafficking, especially children. It also monitors and evaluates the effects of migration activities on the welfare of women and children. "</p> |
| Ghana Investment Promotion Centre Act, 1994 (Act 478)¹ | <p>"The Ghana Investment Promotion Centre Act, establishes the Ghana Investment Promotion Centre (GIPC) as an agency of the Government of Ghana for the encouragement and promotion of investments. The Act has several provisions that deal directly and or indirectly with foreign investors. In direct relation to labour migration, the Act provides for immigrant quotas, the eligibility of foreign participation in certain business segments in Ghana and for personal remittances. The Act covers all investment activities except free zones, minerals and mining, and petroleum. (check on</p> |

| | |
|--|--|
| | the new Act)” |
| Free Zone Act, 1995 (Act 504)¹ | “The Free Zone Act provides for the establishment of free zones and for the promotion and development of these zones. Work and resident permits are required for foreign nationals who wish to live in Ghana and work in a free zone.” |
| Minerals and Mining Act, 2006 (Act 703)¹ | “The Minerals and Mining Act seeks to consolidate laws relating to minerals and mining. The holder of a mineral right in Ghana may be granted an immigrant quota with respect to the approved number of expatriate personnel, as well as personnel remittance quotas; for expatriates free from tax on money transfers out of Ghana.” |
| Foreign Exchange Act 2006 (Act 723)¹ | “The Foreign Exchange Act provides for the exchange of foreign currency, for international payment transactions and foreign exchange transfers. It also regulates foreign exchange businesses. The Act gives the Bank of Ghana responsibility for its implementation and issuing of licenses for operating business in foreign exchange and the conditions relating to the conduct of foreign exchange business. ” |
| Representation of the People (Amendment) Act, 2006, (Act 669)¹ | “The Representation Act allows Ghanaian emigrants to participate in the democratic process through voting in the general elections. This law states, among other things, that: ‘A person who is a citizen of Ghana but resident outside the republic is entitled to be registered as a voter if the person satisfies the requirements for registration prescribed by the law other than those relating to residence in a polling station’. ” |
| The Revised 1994 Population Policy¹ | “The revised 1994 National Population Policy of Ghana acknowledges the role of migration in development. It draws attention to the need for incentives to facilitate the voluntary return of highly skilled Ghanaian emigrants for brain gain. The Policy urges the creation of migration laws and regulations that do not adversely affect the domestic workforce and development goals. It also outlines the costs and benefits of internal migration.” |
| National Youth Policy¹ | “The National Youth Policy recognises the youth of Ghana as the true wealth and future of the country. It outlines the challenges facing youth in realizing their full potential. These include relatively high unemployment and adverse effects of urbanization, which is spurred by massive migration from rural areas. Although not specified within the Policy, barriers to youth migration impact the ability of the government to achieve the full potential of the NMP. ” |
| Ghana National Climate Change Policy, 2013¹ | “The National Climate Change Policy (2013) acts as a guide to the management of climate change and migration related processes and consequences.” |
| National Ageing Policy, 2010¹ | “The National Ageing Policy (2010) provides for the effective management of ageing issues in relation to migration. ” |
| National Urban Policy Framework, 2012¹ | “The National Urban Policy provides a comprehensive framework to facilitate and promote the sustainable development of Ghanaian urban centres.” |
| UN 1951 Refugee Convention & 1967 | |

| | |
|---|--|
| Protocol; 1969 OAU (AU) Convention on Refugees¹ | |
| ECOWAS Free Movement Protocols² | 1979 Protocol, 1985 Suppl. Protocol, 1986 Suppl. Protocol, 1990 Suppl. Protocol <i>Specific actions taken on provisions for ECOWAS nationals</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Abolition of visa and entry requirements for stays up to 90 days • ECOWAS travel certificate • ECOWAS passport |

Sources: This table has been adapted from ¹ (Ministry of the Interior, 2016); ² (IOM & ICMPD, 2015);

Gaps

A number of gaps exist in Ghana's migration policy. With regards to its immigration scheme, the conditions for granting residence are inadequately defined; detention can result from an immigration officer doubting a person's right of entry; and the resulting detention period has no maximum set nor any juridical guarantees (IOM & ICMPD, 2015). Ghana continues to struggle to have a significant impact on human trafficking within its borders even though it has anti-trafficking policies in place. A lack of resources to support these policies has resulted in "inadequate evidence collection and hindered prosecution efforts" (USDS, 2017, p. 182). Victims of trafficking have limited access to protection services, and Ghana is in its third year on the Tier 2 Watch List of the USDS TIP Report (USDS, 2017).

References

- Altai Consulting. (2015, November). Irregular Migration between West Africa, North Africa and the Mediterranean. Retrieved from http://www.rodakar.iom.int/oimsenegal/sites/default/files/Altai%20Consulting-Free%20Movement%20and%20Migration%20in%20West%20Africa-Final%20Report..._0.pdf
- Awumbila, M., Manuh, T., Quartey, P., Tagoe, C. A., & Bosiakoh, T. A. (2008). Migration country paper (Ghana). *Centre for Migration Studies, University of Ghana, Legon*. Retrieved from <http://www.imi.ox.ac.uk/news/programme-papers-published/ghana-country-paper-2008.pdf>
- BBC Monitoring. (2017, August 10). Ghana country profile. Retrieved October 6, 2017, from <http://www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-13433790>
- Central Intelligence Agency (CIA). (2017, September 8). The World Factbook : Ghana. Retrieved September 27, 2017, from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/gh.html>
- Dovi, E. (2016, December). Young Ghanaians risk all for "better" life. Retrieved October 3, 2017, from <http://www.un.org/africarenewal/magazine/december-2016-march-2017/young-ghanaians-risk-all-better-life>
- Frontex. (2016, March). Risk Analysis for 2016. European Agency for the Management of Operational Cooperation at the External Borders of the Member States of the European Union.

Ghana Statistical Service (GSS). (2016, May). Population and Housing Census - National Analytical Report. Retrieved from http://www.statsghana.gov.gh/docfiles/2010phc/National_Analytical_Report.pdf

Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC). (2017a). Disasters and Climate Change. Retrieved November 28, 2017, from <http://www.internal-displacement.org/internal-displacement/context-of-displacement/disasters-and-climate-change/>

Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC). (2017b). Ghana. Retrieved October 2, 2017, from <http://www.internal-displacement.org/countries/ghana/>

International Organization for Migration (IOM). (2015, October 7). Programme and Budget for 2016. Retrieved from <https://governingbodies.iom.int>

International Organization for Migration (IOM). (2016, November 25). Programme and Budget for 2017. Retrieved from <https://governingbodies.iom.int>

International Organization for Migration (IOM), & International Centre for Migration Policy Development (ICMPD). (2015). *Survey on migration policies in West Africa*. Geneva: International Organization for Migration.

Johansen, R. (2017, September 21). Child trafficking in Ghana. Retrieved October 2, 2017, from <https://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/frontpage/child-trafficking-in-ghana.html>

Ministry of the Interior. (2016, April). National Migration Policy for Ghana.

Quartey, P. (2009). *Migration in Ghana: a country profile 2009*. Geneva: Internat. Organization for Migration. Retrieved from http://publications.iom.int/bookstore/free/Ghana_Profile_2009.pdf

Ratha, D. (2016). *Migration and Remittances Factbook 2016: Third Edition*. The World Bank. <https://doi.org/10.1596/978-1-4648-0319-2>

Scalabrini Institute for Human Mobility in Africa (SIHMA). (2014, September). Migration Profile: Ghana. Scalabrini Institute for Human Mobility in Africa. Retrieved from http://sihma.org.za/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Migration-Profile_Ghana.pdf

UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). (2017a). Ghana | Global Focus. Retrieved September 28, 2017, from <http://reporting.unhcr.org/node/10333>

UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). (2017b). UNHCR Population Statistics. Retrieved September 4, 2017, from <http://popstats.unhcr.org/en/overview>

UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). (2017c). West Africa | Global Focus. Retrieved September 7, 2017, from <http://reporting.unhcr.org/node/32>

UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), International Organization for Migration (IOM), & UNICEF. (2017, April). Refugee and Migrant Children- Including Unaccompanied and Separated

Children - in Europe: Overview of Trends in 2016. Retrieved from https://www.unicef.org/eca/Factsheet_refugee_migrant.pdf

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), & West and Central Africa Regional Office (WCARO). (2016, September). Mixed Migration in West and Central Africa. Retrieved from <https://www.scribd.com/document/352805826/Mixed-Migration-in-West-and-Central-Africa>

United Nations, Department of Economics and Social Affairs, & Population Division (UNDESA). (2015). International Migrant Stock 2015. Retrieved September 4, 2017, from <http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/data/estimates2/estimates15.shtml>

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). (2016). *Human Development Report 2016*. Retrieved from http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/2016_human_development_report.pdf

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC). (2017). Trafficking in Persons and Migrant Smuggling. Retrieved September 21, 2017, from <https://www.unodc.org/lpo-brazil/en/trafico-de-pessoas/index.html>

United States Department of State (USDS), & Office of the Under Secretary for Civilian Security, Democracy, and Human Rights. (2017). *Trafficking in Persons Report June 2017*.

World Bank. (2017). World Development Indicators. Retrieved September 4, 2017, from <https://data.worldbank.org/>