UNIVERSITY OF GHANA

LEGON

MIGRATION AND SECURITY: A STUDY ON GHANAIANS’ PERCEPTION OF THE BUSINESS ACTIVITIES OF NIGERIAN AND CHINESE IMMIGRANTS IN SELECTED REGIONS OF GHANA

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APRIL, 2019
DECLARATION

I, Maxwell Acheampong, hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own research work carried out in the Center for Migration Studies, University of Ghana, under the supervision of Prof. John K. Anarfi, Dr. D. M. Badasu and Dr. Bossman E. Asare. All references cited in this work have been duly acknowledged. I also declare that this thesis has not been presented, either in whole or in part, for any other degree in this university or elsewhere.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated foremost to God Almighty for His mercies, favours and grace bestowed on me. The next dedication goes to my wife and friend, Abigail A. Acheampong and to my children Angela, Shawna and Aseda; and to President Jeffery Shultz and Sister Lyn Shulz, President Malt Kilt, Senator David Hankins and Sister Hankins; and, finally, to my father Edward Acheampong and mother Comfort Arthur, mother in-law Miriam Hammod and Diana Agyei Sarkodie (my grandmother of blessed memory) and to all family and friends whose selfless love and sacrifices have made me what I am today.
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ABSTRACT

This study examined the economic and environmental security issues associated with Nigerian and Chinese immigrants in business activities in Ghana. The general objective of the study was to examine the routes the immigrants use to migrate to Ghana, the nature of their businesses, the factors that motivate them to come and do those businesses, and the economic and environmental security threats associated with their businesses, based on the perceptions of Ghanaian Small and Medium Enterprise (SME) operators. Mixed research methods were used for the study with data collected from 798 SME operators and 11 key informants (experts and opinion leaders). A multi-stage sampling approach was employed to select the interviewees for the study from the Greater Accra and Ashanti regions. The key informants were selected from the Ministry of Trade, Ghana Investment Promotion Centre, Ghana Immigration Service, Ghana Union of Traders Association, Accra and Kumasi Metropolitan Assemblies, and Datano community. The findings indicate that considerable 20 percent and over of the SME operators have the perception that the Nigerian and the Chinese use unofficial routes to move to Ghana and the porous nature of Ghana’s borders contributes to the movement of the immigrants to Ghana. The SME operators also perceive that the immigrants participate more in retailing business, competing with the local businesses and for that reason being an economic threat to SME operators. Low capital required for business, poor monitoring of immigrants’ businesses, availability of market and raw materials are perceived by the majority of the SME operators as the factors that motivate the Chinese immigrants to do business whiles, in addition to all that, stable power and cheap labour supplies in Ghana are perceived to motivate Nigerian immigrants to participate in business. They also operate in areas that are restricted to them, specifically, retail trading and small-scale mining. The majority of the SME operators also perceived that friends and family facilitate the entry of both immigrants into the business sector in Ghana. Consequently, the immigrants’ businesses are perceived as having economic and environmental effects and are threats to the businesses of Ghanaians in the same areas. The study recommends that three fundamental issues should be addressed: improving security at Ghana’s borders; monitoring of immigrants’ business activities, and creating an enabling environment for both immigrants and indigenous businesses to flourish in Ghana by examining interdependence between local businesses and immigrant business and strengthen it.
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<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>AMA</td>
<td>Accra Metropolitan Assembly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AU</td>
<td>African Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFI</td>
<td>Direct Foreign Investment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECOWAS</td>
<td>Economic Community of West Africa States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETLS</td>
<td>ECOWAS Trade Liberation Scheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOCAC</td>
<td>Forum on China-Africa Cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GIPC</td>
<td>Ghana Investment Promotion Center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSS</td>
<td>Ghana Statistical Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GUTA</td>
<td>Ghana Union of Trader Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KMA</td>
<td>Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KNUST</td>
<td>Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OAU</td>
<td>Organization of African Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SME</td>
<td>Small and Medium Enterprises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for the Social Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Nigerian and Chinese immigrant businesses in Ghana have been contributing to the country’s economy for some time now. This, in addition to the need for improvement upon Ghana’s international relations with other countries, has provided reasons for Ghana to engage more with Nigerian and Chinese immigrant businessmen and women. The room provided by Ghana for immigrants’ business activities, albeit beneficial, has in recent times aroused tension between indigenous businesses and immigrant businesses. Nigerian immigrants are notably participated in retail businesses while Chinese immigrants are well-noted for small scale mining. In order to regulate the activities of the immigrant business men and women, the Ghana Investment Promotion Centre Act, 2013 (Act 865), is the amended version of the laws which seek to protect indigenous businesses from competition with foreign businesses while promoting the existence of foreign businesses in the country. However, in spite of the laws, indigenous business men and women have been opposed to the kind of business activities participated in by the immigrants. This has attracted the attention of this research.

Before independence and the early post-independence period, Ghana was attractive to international migrants because of its buoyant cocoa and gold industries. In recent years, Ghana has been attractive, especially to investors, due to its pro-foreign policies, democratic elections, political stability, accountable leadership, and sense of security of lives and property (Bosiakoh, 2008; Anarfi et al., 2000).
Immigrant businesses in Ghana flourished in the advent of globalization, international trade, Direct Foreign Investment (DFI), cross border movements and the creation of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS). Nigerian businesses in Ghana principally take place in the context of the ECOWAS protocol A/P1/1/03 of 31\textsuperscript{st} January 2003 and the ECOWAS Trade Liberalization Scheme (ETLS). These instruments create a free trade area and a common market to facilitate trade among member states (ECOWAS Commission, 2012). Chinese businesses in Ghana take place within the China-Africa Cooperation Agreement of 2000 that facilitates, in part, a vital trade link between China and Ghana.

These agreements and unions make it easier for foreigners, particularly, Chinese and Nigerian immigrants, to trade in several business fields in Ghana (Debrah, 2007; Ho, 2012). While the Nigerians are mostly participated in trading of spare parts of automobiles all over Ghana, the Chinese are participated in mining and the construction sectors. Some of these activities participated in by the Chinese and Nigerians in Ghana are restricted; in small-scale businesses particularly, and small-scale mining, are strictly reserved forGhanaians (Debrah, 2007; Ho, 2012). If foreigners participated in these restricted businesses, it threatened the desired peace and tranquility in Ghana because a section of Ghanaians harbor resentment towards the foreigners who operate in these restricted areas. Hence, there was the need to tackle misunderstandings between the Ghanaians and the immigrant business men by developing policies and programmes to regulate foreigners’ participation in business in Ghana.
To enhance maximum economic benefits from trade with other countries, Ghana promulgated the Ghana Investment Promotion Centre (GIPC) Act, 1994 (Act 478) as amended by GIPC Act, 2013 (Act 865), that created the GIPC as an agency of the Government of Ghana to: (i) encourage and promote investment in Ghana; (ii) create an attractive incentive framework for investment in Ghana; and (iii) facilitate a transparent and predictable business environment in Ghana where the rights of foreign entrepreneurs are protected and respected. However, Section 27 of the GIPC Act (865) prohibits immigrants from engaging in petty business activities and certain small and medium enterprises (SMEs). These prohibited SMEs include printing of recharge scratch cards for the use of subscribers of telecommunication services; production of exercise books and other basic stationery; retail of finished pharmaceutical products; production, supply and retail of sachet water; and all aspects of the pool betting business and lotteries; and small-scale mining (Ghana Investment Promotion Centre Act, 2013).

Nigerian immigrants are mainly involved in general trading and banking while Chinese immigrants are principally involved in general trading, construction, manufacturing, metal, restaurant and small-scale mining industries in Ghana (Kohnert, 2010; Ho, 2012). Since the late 1960s Ghanaians have periodically protested against immigrant businesses primarily because these immigrants disregarded the orders that they should not participate in businesses from which they were barred. Consequently, the failure of immigrants to comply with the order to disengage from restricted business activities threatened the security of Ghana in several ways (King, 2013). An infamous incident to this effect was the Ghana Union of Traders Association’s (GUTA) demonstrations against Chinese and Nigerian traders in 2007. The demonstrations affirmed the
Association’s position in favour of total enforcement of the order restricting immigrants from engaging in certain businesses in Ghana, as is now enshrined in Section 27 of the GIPC Act (865), to protect indigenous traders (Debrah, 2007). In a response, the Ghana Immigration Service in February 2009 arrested 100 Chinese without protest from Chinese immigrant business operators (Ho, 2012). But efforts by GUTA, Ghana Immigration Services and others have yielded little results with most of the Nigerians and Chinese still engaging in business activities prohibited by law in Ghana.

Despite the restrictions, Chinese and Nigerian migrants are still engaging in the SMEs and petty trading activities in Ghana (Debrach, 2007; Marfaing & Theil, 2011). This study, therefore, assessed Ghanaian SME operators’ perception of the entry of Nigerian and Chinese migrants into restricted businesses and their consequences, specifically, economic and environmental security threats in Ghana.

1.2 Problem Statement

Ghana is attractive to investors from different countries, including Nigeria and China. Although the presence of migrant business operators in Ghana is inevitable, given Ghana’s peaceful environment, their dominance in certain sectors is becoming detrimental to the growth of indigenous business growth. Orders were given to immigrants to desist from undertaking businesses in certain sectors that are detrimental to local businesses, and the GIPC Act, 2013 (Act 865) replaced the GIPC Act 1994 (Act 478) to emphasize the aspiration of the government of indigenous businessmen. In this vein, Section 27 of Act 865 restricts foreigners’ entry into certain business activities such as petty trading and SMEs of a particular nature in Ghana. These business activities are, by the law, referred to as “prohibited business activities in Ghana”.
Despite these restrictions, Nigerians and Chinese as well as other immigrants participate in these prohibited business activities in Ghana in almost every city, but particularly in Kumasi and Accra. GUTA, in registering its displeasure, has demonstrated against these immigrants and thereby remind the Government of Ghana of the need to protect local businesses. This has been upheld by Section 27 of the GIPC Act (865) (Debrah, 2007).

Due to the rising unemployment situation in Ghana, some traders and other businessmen are often nettled by foreigners’ presence in businesses since it is a threat to the local people. Ghanaian automobile spare parts dealers, for instance, are alarmed by how Nigerians are taking over their market while small-scale miners have been concerned about how the Chinese are engaging in small-scale mining in the country (Debrah, 2007).

Demonstrations against immigrants’ entry into prohibited business activities across the world have motivated many researchers (Tsikata, Fenny & Aryeetey, 2010; Mapaur, 2014; Tremann, 2013; Geerts, Xinwa & Rossouw, 2014) to focus on immigrant businesses. Tremann (2013) focused on Madagascar and concentrated on only Chinese business activities and their impact on Malagasy production. Geerts et al. (2014) focused on fifteen countries in Africa, including Ghana by looking at perceptions of reputation, quality of products, social, economic, and environmental responsibility of Chinese businesses in these selected countries. Their study revealed that Chinese businessmen participated in prohibited and illegal businesses in these African countries. However, the outcome of the study by Geerts et al. (2014) cannot wholly be applied to the country since they did not focus entirely on Ghana. They also excluded other important groups of immigrant business operators, for example, Nigerians in Ghana.
It is obvious that previous studies have not established whether the business activities of the Chinese and Nigerians undermine the security of Ghanaian SMEs (Bamfo, 2013). Moreover, little is known from the literature as to the type of immigrant business activities that pose economic or environmental security threats; how Chinese and Nigerians enter the Ghanaian economy; and the incentives, if any, that encourage them to participate in the prohibited business activities (Strutt, Poot & Dubbeldam, 2008). The reasons ascribed to these gaps in the literature include ineffective systems for supervising the activities of foreign business men and women in Ghana, especially in the trade sector. Also, Chinese and Nigerian investors are largely reluctant to provide information on their business activities to researchers in Ghana (Tsikata, Fenny & Aryeetey, 2010).

Therefore, certain imperative questions remain unanswered in the literature. These include: How do Nigerians and Chinese migrate to Ghana to participate in prohibited business activities? What perceptions do Ghanaians have about Nigerian and Chinese businesses in Ghana? What are the economic and environmental security threats of immigrants’ participation in prohibited business activities?

This study seeks to address these important research gaps in migration studies by examining the security implications of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants in prohibited business activities in Ghana. The study answered these questions based on the perceptions of SME operators whose businesses face competition from the immigrant businesses in the prohibited areas.
1.4 Objectives

The general objective of the study was to investigate the economic and environmental security implications of the participation of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants in restricted business activities in Ghana based on perceptions of indigenous SME operators.

The specific objectives are:

1. To find out how Nigerian and Chinese immigrants migrate to Ghana to participate in retail trade or small-scale mining based on perceptions of local SME operators.
2. To describe the categories of businesses, both legal and restricted, in which Nigerian and Chinese immigrants are involved in Ghana as perceived by local SME operators.
3. To determine, from perceptions of local SME operators, what motivates Nigerians and Chinese to participate in retail trade or small-scale mining in Ghana.
4. To examine, based on perceptions of local SME operators, economic security threats posed by Nigerians and Chinese who participate in retail trade or small-scale mining in Ghana.
5. To examine environmental security threats, if any, posed by Nigerians and Chinese participating in retail trade or small-scale mining in Ghana based on perceptions of local SME operators.
6. To make policy recommendations based on the findings of the study.

1.3 Research Questions

This study was guided by the following research questions:

1. How do local SME operators perceive Nigerians and Chinese migrating to Ghana to participate in retail trade or small-scale mining?
2. What is the nature of the businesses that the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants operate in Ghana as perceived by local SME operators?

3. What is perceived by local SME operators as the motivation for Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to participate in retail trade or small-scale mining in Ghana?

4. What are the effects of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ participation in retail trade or small-scale mining on economic security of SME operators in Ghana as perceived by local SME operators?

5. What are the effects of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ participation in retail trade or small-scale mining on environmental security in Ghana as perceived by local SME operators?

The SME operators in Ghana whose business activities are most likely affected by those of the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants were selected to answer the questions. Their perceptions were examined with respect to the questions.

1.5 Relevance

This study provides useful insight into the business activities of the Chinese and Nigerians in Ghana and their related security implications in five main areas.

Firstly, the study establishes the nature of business activities of Nigerians and Chinese immigrants in Ghana. The Government of Ghana and her agencies, such as Ghana Immigration Service (GIS), can act to protect indigenous businesses against unfair competition from immigrants when information on business activities of these immigrants is available. Currently there is inadequate data or information on Nigerian
and Chinese business activities in Ghana (Tsikata, Fenny & Aryeetey, 2010). This study, through the administration of a questionnaire and interviews with Ghanaian SMEs and key stakeholders, provides data and other information on Nigerian and Chinese business operations in Ghana.

Secondly, the inadequacy of data on Nigerian and Chinese businesses in Ghana may be due to how they migrate to Ghana. If they all passed through official border posts, data on them would be more available; however, this is not always the case. The Government of Ghana and Ghana Immigration Service will, through this study, know Nigerians and Chinese’s mode of entry into Ghana, either through official and/or unofficial means. This will help to develop or improve upon a system to curb illegal entry into Ghana and regulate the business operations of the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants in Ghana.

Thirdly, businessmen or women are driven by the profitability of their businesses; hence, there is, at least, a motivation for the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to flout GIPC Act (865) and participate in prohibited business activities in Ghana. This study brings forth these motivations and promoters of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants in prohibited business activities, which will help the Government of Ghana, and GIPC in particular, to design a policy to minimize these motivations and reduce foreigners’ entry into business activities reserved for only Ghanaians.

Fourthly, evidence from research is necessary for policy intervention. The Government of Ghana will only use the scarce resources available to enforce GIPC Act (865), Section 27 when the consequences of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants into prohibited businesses for the economy and environment is known. This study is significant in that it empirically
gathered data on these businesses and statistically and qualitatively established the impact of immigrants undertaking in prohibited businesses on the Ghanaian economy and environment. This will inform the Government of Ghana of the need (or otherwise) to intervene to safeguard the situation.

Finally, this study adds to existing literature by providing empirical information on business categories of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants in Ghana, their mode of entry into Ghana, their motivation to flout GIPC Act (865), Section 27 and the economic and environmental consequences of their participation in prohibited business activities in Ghana. This will motivate many more researchers in migration and security studies to investigate issues related to immigrant businesses and their security implications to expand the body of knowledge on the subject in Ghana.

1.6 Organization

The study is organized in eight (8) chapters. Chapter One is the introduction to the study and contains the background of the study, statement of the problem, relevance of the study, research questions and objectives and definition of key terms.

Chapter Two presents the literature review. It reviews literature on migration and security. Under migration, the study specifically reviews literature on migration of Nigerians and Chinese, migration laws, immigrants’ business activities and perceptions of Ghanaians on immigrants’ business activities. Under security, the review focuses on security theories and the effect of migration on security.

Chapter Three presents the methodology, focusing on research design, methodological approach to the study, study population and sample, data collection design,
administration of data collection instruments, data analysis, ethical consideration and limitations of the study.

Chapter Four focuses on the socio-demographic characteristics of participants of the study. Specific socio-demographic characteristics considered include gender, age, education level, marital status, and religious affiliation. It further gives the background of key informants in the study and the nature of indigenous Ghanaian’s SMEs.

Chapters Five to Seven answer the research questions. Chapter Five answers research question one, which seeks to find out how Nigerian and Chinese immigrants migrate to Ghana to participate in retail trade or small-scale mining. Chapter Six answers research questions two and three by providing the perspectives on properties of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ businesses in Ghana. The nature of Nigerian and Chinese businesses in Ghana, and factors inducing Nigerians and Chinese immigrants to undertake business in Ghana were determined. Chapter Seven responds to research questions four and five by examining the impact of immigrants’ businesses on economic and environmental security. Chapter Eight, the final one, presents the summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature related to migration and securitization. It specifically reviews migration of Chinese and Nigerians, migration legislation, perceptions of Chinese and Nigerian immigrants in Ghana, business activities of immigrants and theories of securitization. The chapter ends with a summary of the literature reviewed.

2.2 The Concept of Migration

This section presents the concepts underpinning migration. But it is important to discuss what is meant by the term ‘migration’. Regardless of how varied the definition of migration may be from different studies, the broad understanding of the concept points to one direction – migration is a permanent or temporary change of residence of a person or group of people to a new one irrespective of the distance between the new residence and old residence, and regardless of whether the change resulting from movement is meditated or unpremeditated or not (International Organization for Migration, 2005). Enhancing the argument of distance in migration, Malmberg (1997) points out that migration should be understood in the context of distance and time.

Thus, there can be international migration or cross-border migration – and is the context in which this study falls – juxtapose to forms of mobility, like tourism which is usually pegged at one year in the recipient country (King, 2013; Cwerner, 2001). There are migration typologies such internal versus external migration, voluntary versus involuntary migration, and permanent versus temporal migration. All these terminologies accentuate the mode of migration by their exact meanings. Whereas in temporal
migration, the migrants eventually return to their countries or origin, permanent migrants may only pay visits to their home countries or origins.

The term ‘immigrant’ refers to foreigners who have come to a country, usually, to take up permanent residence. In some cases, immigrants are just visitors to a country. Particularly, Nigerians and Chinese living in the Ashanti Region and Greater Accra Region of Ghana, just as other parts of the Ghana, including those who were born there; those visiting; and those who have lived there for multiple years are known as immigrants.

The rational for migration may be many and varied, but studies have gleaned out some of the profound reasons why migration occurs. For a strand of researchers, migration happens due to economic reasons. Individuals try to maximize their income, therefore, by examining the economic indicators such as cost of living, employment opportunities, wage, capital saturation, and broader process of economic development, they migrate to regions where there are higher prospects subject to their decisions on travel cost, the period of unemployment in the destination country, and cost of leaving the family and relatives behind (Harris & Todaro, 1970; Bauer & Zimmermann, 1998; De Haas, 2010). Other researchers identify what is known as push and pull factors. Push factors, such as natural disasters, civil wars, conflict, and so on, have forced millions of people to migrate from their places of origin other countries. Pull factors include higher standards of living, or, better economic and educational opportunities, which attract people from their places of origin to the host country (De Haas, 2010).
An important rationale for migration that is worth mentioning due to its implications for international migration is the direction of migration flows (Tranos et al., 2015). International ties or commonalities between countries can be responsible for migration from a particular country to another. For example, postcolonial ties, language, cultural similarity, and so forth, can induce migration flow in a certain direction. In this domain, it can be said that since Ghana and Nigeria share many things in common – including fashion and entertainment, food, traditional leadership, and even shared learning – there is migration flow to and from the two countries that can be explained by their commonalities.

Boyd (1989) also suggests that systems that exchange of goods, capital, people, services, and information between countries also cause or effectuate international migration. Many countries are pervious to this system of migration, particularly as hosts, and several of such countries have resolved to migration protocols to reduce shocks that could be cause by migration.

In Africa at large and Ghana in particular, there are policies and laws governing migration, migration protocols, among others, that regulate affairs concerning migration. In the next sections, relevant laws and policies governing migration issues between Ghana and elsewhere, particularly Nigeria and China, have been reviewed.

2.2.1 National Legislation on Migration

Ghana’s migration issues are regulated by a number of legal instruments that were developed after independence. The Alien Act of 1963 (Act 160) was the first post-independence legal instrument to regulate entry, stay and employment of foreign
nationals in Ghana (Benneh, 2005). Act 160 established a liberal migration regime while protecting the labour market from undue competition by foreigners. It introduced the quota system for foreign nationals and limited their access to certain sectors of the economy to avoid a possible ‘plundering’ of national resources by ‘unscrupulous aliens” (Benneh, 2005). However, over the years, Act 160 and its amendments had become obsolete, and therefore, by the late 1990s, there was an urgent need for reform to meet the modern demands and challenges of migration.

2.2.2 Migration Laws and Policy Frameworks

Ghana has a number of legal and policy frameworks intended to govern various types of migration. Migration management in Ghana is executed based on rights and freedoms enshrined in the 1992 Constitution; Acts of Parliament that incorporate international and regional/sub-regional legal obligations in Ghana; and other national statutes and regulations (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: Laws and Policy Framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Act</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ghana Investment Promotion Centre Act, 1994 (Act 478); 2013 (Act 685)</td>
<td>Established the Ghana Investment Promotion Centre to encourage and promote investments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana Free Zone Act, 1995 (Act 504)</td>
<td>Established free zones for development; grants residence permits to foreign workers who wish to work in designated free zones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minerals and Mining Act, 2006 (Act 703)</td>
<td>Permits holders of mineral rights immigration quotas for specified numbers of expatriate personnel; freedom from taxation of remittances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Exchange Act, 2006 (Act, 723)</td>
<td>Permits operation of businesses in foreign exchange and the conduct of such business</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Specified legal and policy instruments identified by CMS, Legon (2017).
2.2.2.1 Immigration Act 2000 (Act 573)

Today migration to and from Ghana is regulated by the Immigration Act, 2000 (Act 573), which was passed by the Parliament of Ghana on February 2, 2000, and the Immigration Regulations, 2001 (L.I. 1691). The Act provides for the "admission, residence, employment and removal of foreign nationals" in Ghana and other related matters. It has five main parts categorised under the following themes: entry and departure; residence and employment of foreign nationals in Ghana; deportation; exemption, detention and petition; and miscellaneous, petitions and offences. The law reinvigorates Ghana's liberal migration regime. Yet, it does not deal with issues related to migrant integration.

2.2.2.2 Ghana Immigration Service (GIS) Work Permit

In Table 2.2, the work permit issued to the Chinese by Ghana Immigration Service’s work permit section in the year 2009 stood at 109, with only 44 issued in 2010. However, the last 3 years have seen an increase in the number of permits issued. There was a 43.7 percent increase in GIS work permits from 2011 to 2012. Between 2012 and 2013 there was a 40.1 percent increase in work permits issued to the Chinese even though there was a marginal percentage decrease compared to the previous year. These figures actually contain the Immigration Quota Committee (IQC) quota by the Ministry of Interior, which has no specific limits regarding quota positions.

So, the number of work permits issued in 2010 to the Chinese is in an obvious defiance of the sustained increment in the number of work permits issued to them in every other year up to 2013. The reason for the dip in 2010 may be many, but the likely one may be inability of the GIS to monitor Chinese immigrants’ movements to facilitate collection of data about them. Even till date, data on immigrants from the GIS cannot be obtained
without a considerable minimum difficulty. This difficulty apparently displays the inability of the GIS data management system to acquire data effectively and efficiently, consequently resulting in a general sense of unavailability of data with the GIS. It is highly possible that in 2010, the GIS data management system could not obtain or collate all the data on work permits issued to the Chinese immigrants. This may have led to an underreporting of the number of work permits issued to Chinese immigrants in 2010.

Table 2.2: GIS Work Permits to Chinese between 2009 and 2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUARTER</th>
<th>YEAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIS Work Permit Section (2014)

2.2.2.3 Ghana Investment Promotion Centre and Free Zones

The GIPC is mainly responsible for determining the type of work permit and the modalities with which an expatriate can acquire them subject to a quota position. There are three known quota positions – the GIPC Automatic Quota, GIPC Replacement Quota, and Free Zone’s Board – under which expatriates can acquire work permits to undertake their business activities. The quota position of GIPC of one expatriate for a company is conditional on equity of $50,000 - $250,000; and with equity of $200,000 - $500,000, a company could employ up to four expatriates. This is what is known as GIPC Automatic
Quota. On the other hand, the GIPC Replacement Quota is an allocation to a new expatriate position to an already existing automatic quota given that the former employee’s position becomes vacant. In the case of the free zone’s companies, the number of expatriates to be employed is not restricted. Provided all documentations are in order, GIS will issue corresponding resident permits brought before it. To this end the quota positions are virtually a work permit, therefore, GIS has no control over this category of work permit, but is obliged to issue its corresponding resident permits. As in Table 2.3, between 2011 and 2013, there has been a declining trend in the GIPC automatic and replacement quota. During this period, 478 Chinese were on GIPC work permits comprising of 301 on automatic quotas and 176 on replacement quotas. Work permits in respect of the free zones accounted for 155 Chinese nationals for the years 2011 to 2013.

Table 2.3: Permits Issued by Quota Section

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>TYPES OF WORK PERMITS</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GIPC AUTOMATIC QUOTA</td>
<td>GIPC REPLACEMENT QUOTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIS Quota Section (2014).
2.2.2.4 ECOWAS Protocols

Economic integration of economies to foster trade among member countries has become important. The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) was formed to encourage, foster and accelerate the economic and social development of the member states (ECOWAS Treaty, 1975). Due to challenges in international trade, it was important to liberalize trade among member states in the sub-region by removing trade barriers among others. The member states include Burkina Faso, Benin, Cape Verde, Cote d’Ivoire, The Gambia, Guinea, Ghana, and Guinea Bissau. Others are Liberia, Mauritania, Mali, Senegal, Niger, Nigeria, Sierra Leone and Togo (ECOWAS Treaty, 1975).

The promotion of economic development in the West African sub-region required effective economic co-operation and integration through a concerted policy of self-reliance. The need for economic integration among member states in the sub-region, including free flow of goods and services and persons, stimulated the enactment of several protocols to remove certain trade barriers between member states. These included the protocols on free movement of persons, and the right of residence and establishment established by ECOWAS in 1979. The free movement of persons’ protocols guaranteed free entry of citizens from member states without a visa for ninety days and it was ratified by all member states in 1980. The right of residence protocol became effective later in 1986 and was ratified by all member states. However, right of establishment is yet to come into force (ECOWAS Treaty, 1975).
Visas and other entry requirements for citizens traveling to member states were abolished following the implementation and further ratification of the trade protocols by member states. The implication is that only valid traveling documents and an international health certificate is needed by citizens of the ECOWAS member states to travel and spend up to a 90-day period in another state. Notwithstanding the protocol, Article 4 of the ECOWAS treaty makes provision for a member state to deny entry of any immigrant considered to be inadmissible by its laws (ECOWAS Treaty, 1975). This is to protect member states against criminals and other people who may seek to undermine the laws of member states.

Some disagreements between some ECOWAS member states on the protocols have arisen, and have necessitated settlement in court. These disagreements may largely be due to differences in how the protocols are applied in different ECOWAS member states. As it stands, Ghana clearly has in its law – in the Ghana Investment Promotion Centre Act, 2013 (Act 865) – that immigrants participating in retail trade and small-scale business enterprises, so described as a reserve for indigenes of Ghana, are debarred from venturing into those businesses. Besides that, local SME operators have serious concerns regarding the impact of immigrant businesses on their businesses.

2.2.3 Rationale behind Migration Legislation

The migration legislation stipulated in the ECOWAS treaty serves as a guide and an instrument to ensure that member states follow the agreement to which they are signatories to achieve full liberalization of trade between and among member states. ECOWAS member states were required by the migration legislation to stop demanding visas and residence permits from citizens of member states. This was to allow West
Africans to work and undertake commercial and industrial activities within their territories in a more integrated manner. The rationale behind the formation of the ECOWAS treaty was based on the view that the sub-region needed to face the political, economic and socio-cultural challenges of sustainable improvement in the welfare of their populations together; and pooling together of their resources, particularly people, would ensure the most rapid and optimum expansion of the sub-region’s productive capacity. This constituted the main rationale for re-creating free movement of persons in the sub-region (Mantey, 2013).

2.2.4 Provisions in the Protocol

i. The Community’s citizens have the right to enter, reside and establish in the territory of member states.

ii. The right of entry, residence and establishment is to be progressively established during a maximum transitional period of fifteen (15) years from the definitive entry into force of this Protocol by abolishing all other obstacles to free movement of persons and the right of residence and establishment.

iii. The right of entry, residence and establishment, which shall be established during a transitional period, shall be accomplished in three phases (Abdoulahi, 2005).

To facilitate the movement of persons, restrictions on the entry of private or commercial vehicles in member states were to be removed subject to possession of a valid driving license, matriculation certificate (ownership card) or log book, insurance policy and international customs documents recognized within the community. Whereas a private vehicle can remain in another member state for up to 90 days, commercial vehicles are restricted to 15 days (within which it is not allowed to participate in business). Both types
are subject to renewal upon request when its permit expires. In furtherance of increased movement of people, ECOWAS has issued a ‘brown card’ insurance scheme for inter-state road transport to facilitate effective movement of persons, goods and services (Abdoulahi, 2005).

2.2.4.1 Progress in the Implementation of the Protocols

Ratifying the protocols by member states of the ECOWAS community implies that they were willing to accept all the terms and conditions stipulated by the ECOWAS treaty and will work to support free movement of persons and trade between member states without restrictions. However, some forms of restriction still exist in the form of harassment and extortion by security personnel at the various borders. Citizens travelling to other member states continue to experience several border checks where harassment occurs. The security personnel use these border checks to harass and extort money and other valuables making it very difficult for travelers, which undermine the rationale behind the formation of ECOWAS (Ghanaian Times, 2007).

Differences in languages spoken by member states also hamper free movement of persons and trade between member states. There are reports of torture and killings by security personnel in countries like Senegal and The Gambia. The killing of 44 Ghanaians in The Gambia by security agencies in 2005 constitutes an example of the harassment and difficulties faced by citizens of member states in exercising their right to free movement within the sub-region (Ghanaian Times, 2007).

The implementation and operationalization of the ECOWAS treaty in its early stages faced other challenges including economic recession that affected its member states. This
resulted in a large influx of nationals of member states to Nigeria under the cover of the ECOWAS treaty, many of whom were Ghanaians. When the economic situation became unbearable for the government of Nigeria, it revoked Articles 4 and 27 of the protocol and expelled 0.9 million and 1.3 million non-national residents, most of them Ghanaians, in 1983 and 1985 respectively (Adepoju, 2005). According to Adepoju (2005), other member states that have expelled immigrants since the operationalization of the protocols were, among others, Liberia in 1983; Benin in 1998; Senegal in 1990; and Cote d’Ivoire in 1999.

There were also delays in the implementation of trade liberalisation policies such as reduction in customs duties, among others. This may have been attributed to the slowdown in efforts to integrate and realize free movement of persons as expected (Abdoulahi, 2005). For example, reduction of some tariffs (especially on industrial products) by member states to enhance free trade did not begin as early as planned and targets that were supposed to be met between the periods of 1990 to 2000 were missed. The small size and similarity of the economies of most member states could also be a contributory factor to the slowdown in efforts to effectively integrate and operationalize the ECOWAS protocols.

Multiple membership and overlapping interests of member states in other groups posed serious challenges when coordinating or harmonizing policies and this may also be a contributing factor for the poor implementation of the protocols by member states. There have been attempts made by Ghana, Sierra Leone, Nigeria, and Gambia to introduce a common currency to facilitate free trade. However, this has been on the drawing board for a long time (Abdoulahi, 2005).
Therefore, the many challenges confronting travelers and immigrants from member states, as outlined, imply that all is not well with the implementation and operationalization of the ECOWAS protocols intended to enhance the free movement of persons and trade for the economic development of the sub-region.

2.3 Foreign Relations of Ghana

As a sovereign nation, Ghana values its foreign relations and so the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Regional Integration is set to manage these. As Ghana promotes its relations with the international community it has the advantage that political, social, and economic gains will accrue to the state. Ghana’s membership to various economic unions is construed as something that fosters development of the country. Ghana is active in several unions including the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), the World Trade Organization, the United Nations and many of its specialized agencies, the African Union (AU) and the Non-Aligned Movement. Most of these agreements to which Ghana has signed, opens up the country to foreigners in terms of movement of persons and trade between member states.

Ghana has always been committed in building strong diplomatic relations with other countries and honours the obligations imposed by the many agreements to which it is a signatory. The broad objective of Ghana's foreign policy is maintaining friendly relations and cooperation with all countries that desire such cooperation, irrespective of ideological considerations, on the basis of mutual respect and non-interference in each other's internal affairs. Another foreign policy involves the closest possible cooperation with neighbouring countries with which the people of Ghana share cultural, historical and economic features (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2012-2014). This has manifested in the
many trade commitments Ghana has entered with neighbouring countries (Ministry of Foreign Affairs 2012-2014).

2.3.1 Migration of Chinese into Africa

Migration of Chinese into Africa dates to the mid-to-late 17th century when it started gaining importance. The immigrants were mostly convicts and slaves at the early stages but later included contract labourers, artisans and contract miners (Park, 2009). Modern China-Africa migration is increasingly gaining root. While Chinese immigrants are in Africa engaging in all manner of businesses, Africans are also found in China for similar business, trade and educational programmes. The Chinese were usually sent to Africa to assist in agricultural and infrastructural development of the region (Park, 2009); but currently, more Chinese migrate to Africa to participate in trade and mining activities, which constitute a large part of their motivation for relating to Africa.

Current China-Africa and Africa-China migration trends can be linked to China’s economic reforms of the late 1970s and the liberalization of emigration legislation in 1985. Much of China’s activity in Africa today is profit-centered rather than ideologically-based, which used to be the case. Chinese aid packages and programmes in Africa are still linked to temporary migration of Chinese workers. For example, China has sent several medical personnel across Africa to help augment the deficit in healthcare delivery (Park, 2009). However, policy changes in China have resulted in a heterogeneous migration flow to different parts of the world wherein most of the Chinese immigrants do not enter the established wage labour market in existing communities but set up their own business. They mostly participate in retail or wholesale of Chinese goods, Chinese restaurants or Chinese traditional medicine clinics. A relatively small but increasing
number of these independent entrepreneurial Chinese migrants have landed in countries throughout the African continent (Park, 2009).

Chinese arrive in Africa (and other ports) by various means. The immigration of a small number of Chinese professionals and labourers is arranged via direct government to government arrangement. This includes the case for Chinese medical doctors or agricultural advisors linked to development aid projects. Increasingly, however, Chinese migration is arranged via government licensed private employment agencies that find and recruit workers. These agencies help workers obtain proper visas and travel documents. According to Politzer (2005), most workers hired by such agencies tend to work in government run projects in construction, oil fields and mines. Many independent migrants travel to Africa via informal social networks of friends, family, fellow villagers/townspeople, and other interpersonal connections. Some earlier migrants to Africa often help new emigrants setting up semi-legal or unlicensed employment agencies, which sometimes charge high fees for a wide range of services. Mung (2008) identifies three types of Chinese migrants in Africa: temporary labour migrants linked to public building works and large infrastructure development projects undertaken by large Chinese enterprises; small-time entrepreneurs; and transit migrants. The small-time entrepreneurs, traders, and small investors, or what Carling and Haugen (2004) refer to as ‘new entrepreneurial migration’, where the emphasis is placed on ‘migrant’ rather than on ‘entrepreneur’. These migrants were not necessarily entrepreneurs in China, but upon migrating to Africa (and other parts of the globe) they establish their own businesses, commonly in retail or wholesale trade of Chinese-made goods, rather than entering the wage labour market.
2.3.2 Ghana-China Relations

Ghana and China established diplomatic relations on 5th July 1960 to foster trade between the two nations. A strong foundation was laid for the development of bilateral ties. In recent years, fruitful achievements have been made in various fields of bilateral cooperation, especially under the framework of the China-Africa Cooperation Forum.

China has provided bilateral trade and economic assistance to Ghana within its capacity, and made vigorous efforts to promote the development of cooperation between the two countries (Idun-Arkhurst, 2008; Deng, 2011). In 2010, China-Ghana bilateral trade volume reached US$2.056 billion, hitting an all-time-high for the first time. Within two years after that, the bilateral trade volume between the two countries rocketed to US$5.4 billion. In 2011, Ghana was reported to be the fastest growing economy, with some 20 percent growth. This achievement must have been undergirded by inflows from the Chinese economy. Before that time, around 2009, state-owned China National Offshore Oil Company (CNOOC) won a bid for a share of US-based Kosmos Energy’s assets in Ghana’s Jubilee oil field. Fourteen projects were launched by Chinese companies and topped the list of foreign firms registered in respect of Foreign Direct Investments (FDIs) in Ghana (Sarpong, 2015).

The Chinese Government assisted Ghanaians in the construction of the Afefi irrigation project; the national theater; the Teshie General Hospital; the Dangme East District hospital; the Ofankor-Nsawam stretch of the Accra-Kumasi Road; the police and military barracks; the Kumasi youth centre; the office block of the Ministry of Defense; the complex of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Regional Integration; several rural basic
schools, among others. The newest projects granted by the Chinese Government, including the sports complex in Cape Coast, the campus of the University of Health and Allied Sciences in Ho and the New Century Career Training Institute expansion project in Accra, started in 2013; while those supported and contracted by the Chinese side such as Bui hydro-electric dam, Kpong water supply expansion project, and Atuabo gas project are all in full progress (Chinese Embassy in Ghana, 2011; Strange et al., 2013).

The Sunon Asogli power plant was built with investments by China-Africa Development Fund and Shenzhen Energy Group was combined with Ghana’s national grid in 2011 and now accounts for around 14 percent of Ghana's electricity generation. Exchanges and cooperation in the fields of culture, education and medical health have also been frequent (Deng, 2011; Strange et al., 2013).

In recent times, the government of Ghana is up scaling the relationship between Ghana and China. The government of Ghana has entered into a US$2 billion bauxite deal with China’s Sinohydro Corporation Limited for construction of priority infrastructure projects. Under the deal, Sinohydro Group Limited of China will provide US$2 billion worth of infrastructure of government’s choice in exchange for Ghana’s refined bauxite. Against the major criticism of the deal from a section of the population – that the mining activity could destroy the ecosystem, including water bodies, in the Ghana’s cherished forest, Atewa which has been earmarked for the mining –the Parliament of Ghana has approved the deal on the reason that Ghanaians will benefit immensely from it (Myjoyonline, 2018).
The implications for the project can be numerous, but the major one is definitely that Chinese expatriates would be heading for Ghana. It also stands to reason that the relationship between Ghana and China would be enhanced. The rippling effect will then be an augmentation of the numbers of Chinese immigrants in Ghana.

2.3.3 Ghana-Nigeria Relations and Nigerian Businesses in Ghana

Ghana and Nigeria have strong diplomatic ties and have certain things in common in terms of cultural, political and economic activities. The products Nigeria exports to Ghana, among others, include milk, cream, sesame seed, cocoa powder, oil cake, siliceous fossil meal, feldspar, petrol, electrical energy, chlorine, silicon dioxide, bottles and jars.

Bilateral trade between Ghana and Nigeria has been on-going for the past 50 years, specifically the trading in various goods and services. However, the relationship between the two countries has, in some instances, been volatile despite close cultural ties and diplomatic relations mainly due to immigration related issues. According to Otoghile and Obakhedo (2011), it is argued that the foreign policy direction of Nigeria toward Ghana has been a reflection of the preferences of the ruling elite. There has been a lack of consistency in the application of trade laws between the two countries leading to trade related problems arising.

Ademola (2016) accounts that the cordial relationship between Ghana and Nigeria suffered a setback from 2007 to 2009 and again in 2012 when some of the businesses owned by Nigerians in Ghana were closed by the Ghanaian authorities for alleged non-compliance with the 1994 investment laws, which place restrictions and prohibits non-Ghanaians from engaging in retail trade and related business. The reason behind these
trade related problems is the constant protest of local businessmen against the flooding of foreigners into the market. Ghanaian traders often complain about Nigerian traders taking over their jobs, among other issues.

Another reason accounting for the frosty relationship between the two countries was the decision of the Ghanaian government to enter an agreement with Equatorial Guinea for the supply of oil instead of continuing with the initial agreement with Nigeria entered into by previous governments (Essuman, 2010). This move was seen as a measure to protect the Ghanaian economy from Nigerian vandalism.

According to Ademola (2016), a major economic disagreement occurred between the countries in 2012 when Ghana tried to implement a law considered detrimental to Nigerians doing business in Ghana, raising concerns as to the validity of ECOWAS treaties and protocols to which both countries are signatories. Ghana, likewise, has complained about certain products being restricted from being exported to Nigeria. Both countries often put in place counter measures to laws and restrictions sanctioned against them.

A wide condemnation, especially within the ECOWAS community, followed the recent Ghanaian economic policies on business ownership and management. These policies were not in conformity with the ECOWAS free trade treaty. The requirement of the Ghana Investment Promotion Council that foreign based businesses in Ghana, including Nigerian investors, must invest $300,000 to operate negates the commitments under the ECOWAS Trade Liberalization Scheme (Ademola, 2016). These policies were
implemented by Ghana to protect the local traders from the unfair competition from foreigners, especially from their Nigerian counterparts.

As democratic states and potential regional giants, the two countries made frantic efforts aimed at strengthening their age-long socio-economic ties with a view to making their countries reap the gains of a globalized world. This led to a series of bilateral agreements between them in many areas of their national endeavours. The Kufuor administration in Ghana made good use of this opportunity to focus on trade and good neighbourly lines between Nigeria and Ghana. Therefore, many Nigerian businesses were established in Ghana thereby creating job opportunities for the Ghanaian people in line with the Kufour’s administration motto of “Property Owning Democracy” (Essuman, 2010; Beddy, 2010). At the sub-regional level, this co-operation resonated in the growth of ECOWAS in a substantial amount of trade and investment, a way of benefitting from globalization with many Nigerian businesses making marks in the Ghanaian economy in various sectors.

Trade between Ghana and Nigeria has increased over the period. The volume of export trade between Ghana and Nigeria in 2008 was officially put at $525m, with the breakdown for the period showing that Nigeria recorded $89m non-oil exports to Ghana, while the value of Ghana’s exports to Nigeria was $25m (Ghana Business News, 2008). At the end of 2010, Nigerian businesses accounted for about 60 percent of foreign investment in Ghana from within the African continent, which analysts said would continue the strong economic connection (Ghana Business News, 2008; Linck, 2007).
Due to the challenges confronted by many traders between the two countries, a significant proportion of goods are smuggled into the countries. A World Bank (2009) study found that up to 15 percent of Nigeria’s imports enter the country informally, largely along the Benin-Nigeria border, where Ghanaian products also enter Nigeria (Awad, 2009). High and discriminatory tariffs imposed on goods is another challenge to trade relations between Nigeria and Ghana as well as transportation problems, border checks and the long process of registration (Ademola, 2016).

2.4 Chinese Businesses in Africa and Ghana

The Chinese are into many business ventures in Africa, for which Ghana is no exception. They are engaged in both the formal and informal sectors of the economies of most African countries. The Chinese, according to researchers such as Ho (2008), are in Africa to engage in business activities. Although the Chinese conduct different types of businesses, the majority are engaged in the trade of their perceived cheap goods. The business sectors in which the Chinese are involved are agriculture, commodities (especially oil), construction and telecommunications (Condon, 2012). The Chinese traders are largely influential in the retailing of textiles, electrical appliances and daily use goods (Ho, 2008). The Chinese are now also engaging in small scale mining activities in African countries such as Ghana.

The number of Chinese registered businesses in Ghana has been increasing over the years. According to a research conducted by Frimpong and Nubuor (2013), 47 Chinese businesses were registered in 2009, 72 in 2010 and 82 projects and businesses were registered in 2011. The trend in the number of registered businesses indicates that the Chinese are gradually flooding the market and business sectors of the economy. It is clear
from the literature that the formal sector of the Ghanaian economy comprises both Chinese state-owned enterprises and privately-owned multinational corporations; however, the majority of them are privately-owned small-scale businesses that compete directly with the local businesses.

The increasingly direct involvement of small-scale Chinese businesses in Africa led to the Beijing Consensus. The Beijing Consensus is China’s international policy that favours non-interference in the sovereignty of state and equitable business dealings (Adisu et al., 2010; Kobo, 2013). This was to protect the Chinese nationals who engaged in small scale businesses in Africa; however, Lemos and Ribeiro (2007) argue that China does indeed interfere deeply in the domestic affairs of African countries describing them as facilitating corruption and illegal trade like mining and tree logging, which has an adverse effect on the economy. They add that the Chinese non-interference policy prevents African leaders from holding the Chinese accountable in respect of social and environmental issues (Lemos & Ribeiro, 2007).

While the Beijing Consensus advocates that the sovereignty of states should be protected in international trade dealings, it, nonetheless, protects Chinese immigrants at the expense of governments of African countries. For instance, in Ghana, Chinese immigrants were arrested by law enforcement officials for their complicity in illegal small-scale mining, the Chinese Mission, more or less, threatened that forcibly arresting, and thereby, causing harm to the Chinese would negatively affect the bilateral relations between the two countries (Citifmonline, 2017). This betrayed a certain posture of the Chinese authorities to protect their citizens in the light of the relation that Ghana has with China without paying due attention to the violation of regulation they may have caused.
Beijing Consensus gained traction at the background where the Washington Consensus, denoting a more imposing set of economic policy prescriptions intended to support developing countries in economic crisis to comply with in order to improve upon their economy, was being heavily criticized. The Washington Consensus is promoted by organizations based in Washington D.C., such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank, and United States Department of the Treasury (Williamson, 1989).

The underpinning policies of the Washington consensus regard measures to achieve macroeconomic and microeconomic stability, or improve the economic fundamentals of countries in economic crisis. The policies have been promulgated by the IMF, World Bank, and United States Department of the Treasury as a superior prescription for developing countries to better their economic outlook. For many African countries, particularly Ghana, IMF policies, for instance, carry an imposing stance because compliance with a policy could mean freezing government employment to control expenditure to promote sustainable growth. But the government would also have to facilitate the functioning of markets and minimize its interference in economic agents’ decisions regarding investment, saving, consumption, and work. Tariff barriers and restrictions on international trade would have lifted, eliminating restrictions on foreign direct investment and on the free movement of funds in and out of the country, as well as privatizing state-owned enterprises – paving the way for trade liberalization (Williamson, 1990; World Bank, 2005).

One would have thought that given the imposing nature of the Washington Consensus, the Beijing Consensus could facilitate sovereign decision making and assertiveness of developing countries like Ghana and her counterparts in Africa, towards the international
community. Rather, Chinese immigrants are increasingly paving their way into sectors of these developing economies in manners that are, more or less, deleterious to them. For instance, Chinese immigrants in Ghana, just as elsewhere, have gained notoriety for illegal small-scale mining, with destructive environmental consequences. The result of an effective antidote for a smoother relationship between Africa and Chinese immigrants is, arguably, yet to materialize.

The number of Chinese immigrants engaging in business activities in Africa is estimated to be very huge. According to a study by the Brenthurst Foundation, more than 1 million Chinese immigrant traders are living in Africa (Mcnamee et al., 2012). Mohan and Kale (2007) earlier projected the same figure although an exact count has not been possible because of the irregular status of most of the immigrants. Illegal means are often used to import goods into the continent without regard to the laid down procedures of doing business in the various countries (Mcnamee et al., 2012). Mcnamee et al. (2012) argue that most of these Chinese traders living in Africa are poor with low levels of education.

A major threat posed by these Chinese traders in Africa has to do with the flooding of African markets with inferior and/or cheap Chinese products competing with locally produced products that appear to be relatively expensive compared to the China ones (Mcnamee et al., 2012; Alden, 2008). Most scholars and researchers argue that these cheap Chinese products contribute to undermining the development of Africa as it prohibits the development of a real African manufacturing sector that could create considerable jobs and wealth (Joris, 2013, pp.104; Karumbidza, 2007; Kobo, 2013). The locally produced goods are unable to compete effectively with the cheaper, but inferior
Chinese products thereby leading to the collapse of the manufacturing sector of the economy.

However, Liang (2013) noted that Chinese business men in the African market are beneficial to the continent rather than having the perceived negative impact as portrayed by others. He explained that 51 percent of Chinese exports into Africa are machinery and transportation equipment, which is necessary to develop an industrial sector for Africa. Kobo (2013) also argues that Chinese imports could contribute to the development of Africa.

While the activities of the small and nimble Chinese immigrant investors bear little direct significance for Western governments and agencies, they have significant micro-level implications for producers, workers, and consumers in Africa, as well as for the prospect of industrial transition there. By operating in informal and small-scale sectors, they affect the livelihoods of millions in Africa much more directly (Frimpong & Nubuor, 2013).

2.4.1 Perception of Chinese Businesses in Africa

The studies conducted so far on Africans’ perception of Chinese immigrants’ businesses are conducted mainly by researchers from the West and, to some extent, China itself. The 2013 Pew Global Attitudes Study reports that the perceptions of the US amongst Africans were favourable at a median of 73 percent, whilst China stood at 65 percent (Pew Research Center, 2013). This implies that Africans are more positive toward the US than China by way of their perception of US and Chinese businesses in Africa. Also, the 2009 BBC World Service study conducted in Nigeria, Egypt and Ghana found a positive
perception of Chinese businesses in Africa. The perception ranged between 62 percent and 75 percent amongst the three countries (Rebol, 2010).

A study on African perception of China-Africa links conducted by the China Quarterly in nine countries across Africa found favourable positive perceptions of about 74.2 percent (China Quarterly, 2009). The study therefore concludes China’s developmental path was synonymous with their countries’ growth (China Quarterly, 2009).

Generally, there is a negative perception of Chinese businesses in African countries by the general population of Cameroon and Zambia, which is attributed to highly publicized issues such as adverse labour, health and safety concerns (China Quarterly, 2009). There is often adverse media coverage about China’s presence in Africa in the form of media reports on how China exploits Africa for its resources (French, 2010; Jacobs, 2012; Kaiman, 2014).

According to Rossouw et al. (2014), the African perception of the Chinese immigrants and their businesses is rather negative. He was concerned about the negative impact on the social and workplace responsibilities of Chinese businesses in Africa (Rossouw et al., 2014). Several other researchers have also found a negative perception of Chinese businesses in Africa (Baah & Jauch 2009; Brooks, 2010; Lee, 2009). According to them, there are widespread complaints about low pay and poor conditions in Chinese companies and a growing sense in some quarters that “the Chinese” are particularly bad employers.

However, when it comes to African leaders, they have a positive perception of Chinese businesses in Africa (Alden, 2008). Alden (2008) revealed further that African leaders are
often tired of the interference of traditional Western donors or investors, the endless meetings and conditions, which is very unlike the Chinese.

Mazimhaka (2013) mentions that, in many perception surveys regarding Chinese presence in Africa, the perception of Africans is not canvassed. Cao (2013) opines that the ultimate test for China’s role in the world and their engagement with Africa is not what the West thinks about, but what Africans think. There seems to be disagreement on the findings of most of the researches conducted on Africans’ perception of Chinese businesses in the continent, which creates a gap in literature, which this study is trying to fill.

2.4.2 Some Perspectives on Immigrants in Ghana

The perception and reports that the country is being flooded by illegal immigrants, and the issue of their entry into the country, is growing. These activities and practices are being questioned as it appears that most immigrants entered the country by way of the visa on arrival. These immigrants are mostly dominated by Nigerians and Chinese nationals (Kokutse, 2012). According to the hierarchy of the Ministry of the Interior, some of the immigrants have managed to acquire work permits through the back door while others continue to stay in the country not only illegally, but in possession of weapons as well (Kokutse, 2012).

The influx of foreigners into the country threatens the country’s security, especially job security for citizens as unemployment is on the rise. However, foreigners, particularly from the ECOWAS protocol, often protest actions taken by government to curb the situation linking it to xenophobic actions (Kokutse, 2012). It had been mentioned that,
during Ghana’s attempt to control their movement into the country, either the Ghanaian authorities do not want to implement the protocol in its proper way, or they envied ECOWAS nationals (Kokutse, 2012).

Some Ghanaians engaged in retail trade think they are being taken out of business by these foreigners. They have accused the foreigners of taking over their daily livelihoods. For instance, the president of Ghana Union of Traders Association (GUTA), George Ofori, has attributed the depreciation of the Cedi [Ghana currency] against major currencies to foreign retail traders. The point was often argued that the high demand for the dollar to meet the huge imports by non-Ghanaians involved in the retail trade had resulted in its scarcity, pushing the exchange rate higher. Some of the foreigners come in as manufacturers’ representatives to perform their assignment on behalf of their manufacturing firms – these ones could ship in about 400 containers in a year whilst a Ghanaian could afford a maximum of only 20 containers in a year; and after selling their goods, all of them are going to the same exchange market to change the money from cedi to dollars: such is what the Ghanaians are contending with (Debrah, 2007; Lampert & Mohan, 2014).

Foreigner influx had also led to local traders being kicked out by landlords who demand more rent, which is out of reach of many Ghanaians (Kokutse, 2012). It is, therefore, clear that some immigrants’ tendency to create circumstances that are not good for Ghanaians, make the Ghanaians feel threatened by these immigrants, especially when it comes to business.
By late 2005, GUTA began expressing its dissatisfaction with the “unrestrained invasion” of “foreigners” into the retail sector and suggested that a “massive demonstration” be held in Accra if the government failed to enforce the 1994 Ghana Investment Promotion Centre (GIPC) Act (Takyi-Boadu, 2005). In Ghana, some of the prominent agitations have been led by the GUTA and have centred on the main markets of central Accra (Lampert & Mohan, 2014). In 2007 and 2008, GUTA organised a series of demonstrations against foreigners, particularly the Chinese, accusing them of taking over the retail trade business. They also called for a review of the Ghana Investment Promotion Act established in 1994 to protect the retailers. GUTA argued that the Act did not fulfill its mission because foreigners freely entered the retail business resulting in unfair competition (Debrah, 2007).

GUTA remains highly agitated, bemoaning that, while the Chinese shops claimed to engage only in wholesale business, they continued to retail despite the unlikelihood of them meeting the legal requirements of having made an initial investment of 300,000 USD and employing a minimum of ten local workers (Lampert & Mohan, 2014). These agitations against the foreign businesses imply that Ghanaians, especially market traders, have a negative perception of them and will continue to protest until something is done about it.

The Ghanaian traders and entrepreneurs have constantly complained about the dumping of cheap counterfeit goods made in China into the market; the transfer of investment in manufacturing into trading companies contrary to the law; the transgression of restriction for foreigners in retailing; and the lack of respect for labour rights (Lampert & Mohan, 2014). According to Liu (2013), most Chinese entrepreneurs in Ghana are involved in
irregular activities, notably in illegal retail, which is apparently covered by a shop fronted by a Ghanaian counterpart. Besides the Chinese traders, the Nigerians are also often targeted by the Ghana Investment Promotion Centre's (GIPC) task force for illegal retail trading (Baah et al., 2009).

2.5 Economic Threat from Foreign Traders

Chinese traders are, according to the Brenthurst Foundation study on Chinese traders in Africa, significant employers of Africans contrary to popular belief and perception that they are rather competing with them for their jobs (Mcnamee et al., 2012). The study found that, on average, eight local workers are employed per store in Lesotho, with up to two workers per store in South Africa (Mcnamee et al., 2012).

However, the increase in Chinese labourers in Africa has led to protests in countries such as Kenya, Angola, and Cameroon in recent times, according to the Kenyan paper, Media Nation (Mureithi, 2013). The most prominent story about such infringements is the shooting of African labourers by Chinese management at a mining plant in Chambishi in Zambia. This poses a job security threat to the nationals of these countries as they are gradually kicked out of their jobs by these Chinese businesses. This has led to the implementation of some immigration policies to protect the citizens against unfair competition from their Chinese counterparts (Adisu et al., 2010).

Chinese companies often have a low regard for labour unions and workers’ rights, which is a major concern to most African countries (Chan, 2013). The Chinese seemingly do this not because they disrespect African workers’ rights, but because they are not used to labour rights and unions in their own country (Chan, 2013).
2.6 Environmental Threat from Foreigners

China is often accused of neglecting environmental standards and laws when extracting minerals or building infrastructure (Liu, 2013). For example, Chinese companies are implicated in instances of illegal logging, fishing and mining activities; in addition, environmental standards are not always taken into consideration (Lemos & Ribeiro, 2007).

However, with the inception of the Forum on China-Africa Cooperation (FOCAC) in 2000, the resultant action plan included an environmental agenda (Grimm, 2012). This environmental agenda encompassed pollution control, biodiversity conservation, protection of forests and fisheries, and wildlife management, but it was never put into action (Grimm, 2012). By 2009, FOCAC had developed environmental mechanisms, but these did not address biodiversity (Grimm, 2012).

A study by Conservation International on the nature of Chinese extractive mining in Africa found that, in countries where environmental regulatory measures were not in place, Chinese firms merely applied the Chinese guidelines which they were used to. This implies that the responsibility resides with the relevant African governments to set and implement adequate environmental policies (Scott, 2013). However, some of these African countries do not have enough resources and expertise to formulate and implement strict environment protection policies, allowing the Chinese to undermine them.
2.7 Theoretical Background of the Study

Migration and security have become crucial concepts in several parts of the world. In developed economies like the United States, there is near absolute control over immigration since it has not all the time been benign to peace, but is a portal for terrorist attacks. Recently, the US government embarked on its decision to build a security wall on the US-Mexico border where unregulated entry to the US has been taking place. Italy, Spain, and Libya have had their versions of combating illegal immigration under some very harsh conditions. In Ghana, during the 1970s, a phenomenon popularly known as “Ghana Must Go” was put in place, which involved the Nigerian government driving out Ghanaians from Nigeria in retaliation to a similar action by the Ghanaian government some years earlier. A substantial question that this disposition of governments to control migration raises is: why is it important for migration to be monitored or controlled? Also, what is the implication for security of a country? Yet, how is migration having anything to do with security? We shall elaborate on three theories to explain how migration and security converge and how immigration occurs in the first place.

2.7.1 Transnationalism Theory

Transnationalism is directly linked to migration in that, exchanges between countries take the form of ideas, values and practices, as well as political mobilization and economic contributions that must do with the movement of persons. For the purposes of this study, transnationalism is used as a different way of looking at migration. Transnationalism puts more emphasis on the connections that migrants establish between countries. The concept
therefore serves as an angle of analysis for the wider issues of migration and social change (Ban, 2012; International Dialogue on Migration, 2010; Robinson, 2004).

Transnationalism refers to the diffusion and extension of social, political, and economic processes between and beyond the sovereign jurisdictional boundaries of nation-states. International processes are increasingly governed by non-state actors and international organizations (Robinson, 2004). Transnationalism creates a greater degree of connection between individuals, communities and societies across borders, bringing about changes in the social, cultural, economic and political landscapes of the societies of origin and destination (Robinson, 2004; Kivisto, 2001; Vertovec, 2009). The challenge for policymakers is to look beyond national borders in analyzing the scope, purpose and impact of their policies. Cross-border connections between societies resulting from migration necessitate the formulation and implementation of appropriate policy interventions by States. These policies are expected to minimize the security threats and other negative impacts associated with immigration (Kivisto, 2001; Vertovec, 2009).

Migration policies in a transnational context are likely to produce an impact outside the domestic sphere for which they are primarily intended. The success or failure of those same policies will also be determined by realities that lie beyond a single country’s borders. A transnational perspective on migration is increasingly relevant due to the forces of globalization and their impact on mobility. It is now easier than ever to be connected to two or more realities across national borders (International Dialogue on Migration, 2010). As a result of transformations, migrants may obtain education in one
country, work and raise children in another and retire in a third, as one of many variations 
(Mazzucato, 2008; Vathi, 2013).

In approaching a migration policy from a transnational perspective, it is important to bear 
in mind different categories of migrants: for instance, someone engaged in temporary or 
circular migration will engage in different transnational activities from someone 
migrating permanently. Individuals moving for the purpose of higher education, intra-
corporate transferees or retiree migrants make for yet different transnational experiences, 
particularly compared to those of less-skilled migrants. Similarly, irregular migrants 
require particular attention: they are no less likely to engage in transnational activities, 
but tend to face greater barriers and have less access to measures that could facilitate their 
contributions across borders (Ban, 2012; Kivisto, 2001; Vertovec, 2009).

Transnationalism is often as much about the people who stay behind as it is about those 
who move. Families of migrants who remain in the country of origin, for example, are 
important stakeholders to consider. In general, migrants’ backgrounds and experiences, 
including their family situation or political convictions, have a bearing on the ways and 
extent to which they will be engaged in transnational activities as well as on the sense of 
individual and collective identity. As will be discussed below, both beneficial and 
detrimental effects can arise from transnational exchanges for migrants, their families and 
the societies concerned (International Dialogue on Migration, 2010; Owusu, 2003; 
Robinson, 2004).
There are several opportunities for migrants through the transnationalism portal to destination nations. Transformations, particularly, in the realm of communication technologies and transport, have meant that the benefits flowing from transnationalism can be maximized in more cost effective and practical ways. Migrants in countries of destination can develop and maintain ties with family members, communities, institutions and governments in the countries of origin, and vice versa, while contributing economically and socially to both societies (Dahinden, 2009).

Transnationalism creates a lot of benefits in that transnational connections created by migrants can become vehicles for social and cultural exchanges. Transnational exchanges can also be economic in nature, including remittances as well as investment and trade. Transnationalism also manifests itself in the transfer of ideas between and among countries. This is often referred to as “social remittances”. Educational, professional and lifestyle opportunities and language abilities are enhanced through transnationalism. More abstractly, a broadened horizon and the ability to navigate between different cultures can be very rewarding. These are but a few of the many opportunities presented by transnationalism. Different contexts need to be considered in tailoring migration policies to enhance the positive aspects of transnationalism for migrants, their families and societies of origin and destination (Mazzucato, 2008; Vertovec, 2009).

Aside from the opportunities, there exist some challenges transnationalism poses to destination countries. One challenge has to do with family disruption due to migration of the breadwinner. Another challenge has to do with access to pensions and health insurance. Some migrants’ access to pensions and health insurance is often limited or
sometimes denied because they are unable to transfer their accumulated benefits and entitlements when they move, despite having made contributions to these schemes. The transnational experience may also result in the loss of a sense of identity and belonging for some individuals, which constitutes a challenge (Robinson, 2004; Kivisto, 2001; Vertovec, 2009).

As a result, migrants and the intentions of their transnational activities may be regarded with suspicion in both home and host countries, sometimes even raising national security concerns: this may be related to the culture of their home countries. This has raised concern in some destination countries about incompatible social or cultural practices; for example, in terms of gender roles. In such cases, strong transnational ties may be detrimental, representing an inability or unwillingness to integrate into the new society. In other instances, migrants’ transnational links are interpreted as split loyalties (Robinson, 2004; Kivisto, 2001; Vertovec, 2001).

The theory of transnationalism is used in the study to explain how migration benefits immigrants and their home countries. The theory of transnationalism plays out finely in Ghana. Immigrants from Nigeria and China to Ghana are most likely people who have had several opportunities that facilitated their ability to easily integrate into the Ghanaian environment. With increasing exchanges between such immigrants and Ghana, they can identify with Ghanaian culture and aspiration, and have, thereby gained some sense of identity in Ghana, even as non-Ghanaians. The evidence of how transnationalism explains the inflow of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants is found in the fact that many of them can move out and come in with seamless immigrant checks or with very less effort. Most Nigerian immigrants, especially, have developed very close ties with Ghana and
can easily switch between being a Nigerian to being a Ghanaian when it matters. Some Chinese have mastered the way of life of Ghanaians, sometimes including being able to sing Ghanaian songs in Ghanaian language. They are able to associate with Ghanaians and assimilate some of these things through religious activities, games, sports, and even working together with Ghanaians while they are in the country. In this way, the immigrants are able to identify with Ghana to facilitate their movement to Ghana.

In assessing the impact of Chinese and Nigerian illegal migrants in Ghana, it is important to explore the various avenues encouraging and motivating the illegal migrants for which the theory of transnationalism is worth considering. It can be argued that, during the early era of large-scale migration, activities of a transnational type were apparent. At the beginning of the twentieth century Russian, Polish and Italian immigrants retained links with their home countries, sending back money, investing in business, and visiting kin (Portes, 2001; Colic-Peisker, 2002).

2.7.2 Social Capital Theory

According to Castiglione, Van deth and Wolleb (2008), James Coleman and Pierre Bourdieu were the first sociologists to treat the concept of social capital systematically. However, Portes (1998) argues that Pierre Bourdieu provided the first systematic contemporary analysis of the concept. According to Portes (1998), Bourdieu’s treatment of the concept was instrumental and it focused on the benefits individuals accrue by virtue of their participation in groups and on the purposeful creation of sociability for the rationale of creating resources. Social networks are not naturally given but must be built through investment plans directed towards the institutionalisation of group relations, utilizable as a reliable resource of other benefits. Pieterse (2003) defines social capital as
the capacity of individuals to gain access to scarce resources by virtue of their membership of social networks or institutions.

It is also argued in the literature that the ability to trust or/and be trustworthy is one of the main requirements for social capital (Coleman, 1990; Putnam, 2007; Ryan et al., 2008). Granovetter (1995) argues that trust is a key ingredient supporting the management of business with those of a like background. Trust becomes particularly important for immigrant and ethnic businesses, since it is one of the little resources that a minority community can create; more than a resourceful majority can (Wahlbeck, 2007). Sundaramurthy (2008) defines trust as a person’s belief that individuals engaged in exchanges will make a genuine effort to sustain their obligations and will not take advantage of the given opportunity. Trust encourages network relationships, permits collaboration, reduces transaction costs, diminishes harmful conflict, and facilitates the effective functioning of groups and effective reactions to crisis (Rousseau et al., 1998).

Lewicki and Bunker (1996) put forward three main bases of trust and these are calculus-based, knowledge-based and identification-based trust. Calculus-based trust is built not only on the fear of punishment for breaching the trust but also on the rewards that one can gain from maintaining it. In the words of Lewicki and Bunker (1996), with calculus-based trust, trust becomes an ongoing, market-oriented, economic calculation whose value is derived from determining the outcomes resulting from creating and sustaining the relationship relative to the costs of maintaining or severing it.
The rewards of being trustworthy and the threat of one’s reputation being hurt through the network of friends and associates is what make people comply with calculus-based trust. Knowledge-based trust, which is the second type of trust, is founded on the other’s ability to predict or know the other sufficiently well to anticipate the behaviour of the other (Wahlbeck, 2007). It grows over time mainly because the parties have a history of interaction that lets them develop the ability to predict the other’s behaviour. It relies on information rather than prevention (Wahlbeck, 2007).

However, identification-based trust comes about when parties involved understand effectively the wishes and wants of each other and when goals are aligned or linked. This shared understanding grows to such a point that each can efficiently act for the other. Fukuyama (1995) contends that this form of trust comes into being when one “thinks and feels” like the other due to common values and norms that could be explained by the existence of similar interests, background, kinship ties or familiarity (Lane, 1998).

The theory of social capital is very relevant to the study as it explores and explains the role social capital plays in promoting and advancing migration especially when it comes to illegal migrants. As the study examines the circumstances under which illegal immigrants from Nigeria and China dominate the business environment in Ghana, it is important to review the theory that makes it possible for these illegal immigrants to dominate the small enterprise and retail market. The social capital theory explains how illegal immigrants can stay and engage in small businesses. Foreigners can move to countries where their relatives and friends live because, through them, they are able to get
accommodation and shelter to live and the experience to engage in the businesses they do. It is therefore imperative to discuss this phenomenon thoroughly when studying how migrants engage in illegal business activities in host countries, particularly with regards to Chinese and Nigerian migrants in Ghana.

2.7.2.1 Sources of Social Capital

Portes (1998) distinguishes between two broad sources of social capital, namely consummatory and instrumental motivations. The consummatory motivations consist of two sources, which are value introjections and bounded solidarity: the instrumental motivations consist of reciprocity exchanges and enforceable trust. The first form, *value introjections*, relies upon the internal absorption of norms during the process of socialisation, which compels individuals to act in a philanthropic manner rather than in a naked selfish manner towards group members. The internalised norms that make such behaviours probable are then appropriable by others as a resource.

The second source of social capital, which is *reciprocity transactions*, comprises the accumulation of obligations from others according to the norms of reciprocity. Donors provide privileged access to resources in the expectation that they will be repaid fully in the future. Individuals therefore amass what Portes (1998) refers to as “social chits” by drawing upon group reciprocity norms (Portes, 1998).

The third source of social capital, which is *bounded solidarity*, finds its theoretical roots in the work of Karl Marx’s analysis of the emergence of class-consciousness among the
proletariat. Workers learn to identify with each other and support each other’s initiatives. This is due to the common situations that they are in, and not based on, the internalisation of norms based on socialisation unlike value introjections. Here the altruistic nature of actors in these situations are not universal but are united by the limits of their community and a common experience of adversity.

The final source of social capital, *enforceable trust*, finds its roots in Durkheim’s (1897) theory of social integration and the sanctioning capability of group rituals. Individuals conform to the norms of the group even though the motivation here is personal rather than value persuasions. The orientation of action is towards the group rather than another individual. Here the donor does not get repayment directly from the recipient but from the group in the form of honour, status or approval. Moreover, the group acts as guarantor to make sure that whatever debt incurred is repaid. Thus, trust exists precisely because obligations are enforceable and not through resort to law or violence but through the power of the group (Allan, 2005; Berk, 2006).

According to Portes (1998), this source of social capital is appropriate to both donors and recipients. For recipients, it assists in gaining access to resources; and for donors, it leads to group approval and speeds up transactions because it guarantees against malfeasance. However, the third and fourth sources have the utmost similarity to the experience of immigrant groups (Portes & Sensenbrenner, 1993).
2.7.2.2 Social Capital: A Tool for Business Establishment

Studies show that community networks are a vital source of resources for ethnic firms (Janjuha-Jivraj, 2003; Light & Bonacich, 1988; Nee et al., 1994; Perez, 1992; Portes, 1987; 1998; Portes & Stepick, 1993; Zhou, 1992). Some of these resources include start-up capital, information about business opportunities, access to markets and a pliant and disciplined labour force (Portes, 1998). Social networks are increasingly seen as critical to understanding patterns of migration, settlement, employment and links with the country of origin (Castles & Miller, 2003; Jordan & Duvell, 2003; Ryan et al., 2008).

For Boyd (1989), the relationships derived from social capital aids in migration decisions, and as well as providing money for migration; and after migration, it aids in the provision of accommodation, employment, information and emotional support. According to Tsui-Auch (2005), the reliance on family-based networks and communal self-help is one of the main factors that reinforce the economic success of immigrant businesses. The support of family members seems to be vital in construction, retail, and a number of service industries but much less so in manufacturing (Lunn & Steen, 2000).

According to Steier (2009), conservative wisdom maintains that those who are closest to us are essential means of resources for personal and business stamina and triumph. Light (1984) points out that the high rates of self-employment for Cubans and Koreans was in part largely due to their ethnic resources. Similarly, Yoon (1991) posits that ethnic resources played a significant role in Korean businesses. Wong (1987) showed that Chinese-owned garment factories in New York were assisted by ethnic resources. These resources are used as social capital for both business opening and maintenance. Aldrich et
al. (1985) and Chiswick and Miller (2002) argue that, within ethnic enclaves, entrepreneurs may have a comparative advantage and cheap costs of production as they enjoy economies of scale in the creation of ethnic goods.

Handwerker (1973), in a related study of market sellers in Monrovia, Liberia, observed that market sellers viewed kinship and friendship obligations as generally helpful in operating their businesses. This is because most traders obtained their capital primarily from relatives, and secondarily from close friends. Once engaged in business, traders tend to rely principally on profits for further capital. This, however, does not take away the importance of close friends and relatives as potential suppliers of capital. Help from friends and relatives engaged in trade or transport activities and “good customer relations” are most critical in assuring the viability of firms. This is because it minimizes short-run expenditure and eases the burden involved in the daily operation of businesses.

Studies have also reported the use of social capital or networks in obtaining information about business opportunities. For instance, Raijman (2001) in her study of Mexicans in Little Village found that Mexican entrepreneurs got information about their businesses from family members who were already in a business and friends. Similarly, Lofstrom (1999) found that the fraction of co-nationals living in the same location has a positive impact on self-employment possibilities of immigrants.

2.7.2.3 Social Capital and Management Structure

Studies have reported the relationship between social capital and management structure of immigrant businesses. Most immigrants rely on family members to manage their businesses (Brown, 1994; PuruShotam, 1992; Tsui-Auch, 2005). However, in a study of
Chinese and Indians in Singapore, Tsui-Auch (2005) argues that the management structure of immigrant businesses changes over time.

For Tsui-Auch (2005), most ethnic Indian entrepreneurs maintain their trade specializations and family management, whereas most ethnic Chinese entrepreneurs pursue unrelated diversification and incorporated outsiders into their operational management over time. She also found that poorly educated founders brought in outsiders for operational management in the same manner as heirs who were highly educated. This is contrary to Abegglen’s (1994) assertion that immigrant businesses will give way to professional management when highly educated heirs who rely less on family ties run these immigrant businesses.

2.7.2.4 Trust and Social Capital

According to Ram et al. (2000) and Wahlbeck (2007), most immigrant employers consider the necessity for trustworthy employees as a justification for the recruitment of co-ethnics as well as members of other immigrant groups. From the opinion of most small business employers, employees who are trustworthy are considered as a crucial factor in the running of these businesses (Wahlbeck, 2007). The benefit of ethnic businesses appears most robust where the greatest problematic good needed is trust (Granovetter, 1995).

Wahlbeck (2007), in a study of Turkish immigrants who work in kebab shops in Finland, argues that Turkish employers prefer Turkish employees because of the fact that these employees are trustworthy and are ready to work under the conditions that exist in the
kebab shops compared to Finnish employees. Hence, on closer examination of the concept of “ethnic economy” it seems to be an “economy of trust”.

However, in a study conducted on Polish immigrants in London, Ryan et al. (2008) found that there is a high level of distrust among Poles in the ethnic community. This, according to Ryan et al. (2008), is because of the competition and rivalry for scarce resources. This finding supports Putnam’s (2007) suggestion that, in the face of diversity, people become distrustful not only of those who are not like them, but also of those who are like them. In addition, Asante (2009), in a study of Ghanaian and Nigerian business owners in London, found that most of these immigrants did not like to work with their co-ethnics. This indicates that, the need of co-ethnic co-operation and trust points to the likelihood that bounded solidarity, built out of a familiar incident of disadvantage, does not robotically give way to communal self-help pertinent to ethnic entrepreneurship.

2.7.2.5 Effects of Social Capital

Even though social capital helps immigrants in the host country, the actual ability of ethnic enclaves to facilitate the development and success of ethnic businesses is questioned (Aldrich et al., 1985; Bates, 1990; 1996; Chiswick & Miller, 2002; Evans 1989; Lazear, 1999; Light, 1979; McManus, 1990; Sanders & Nee, 1996; Wilson & Portes, 1980). Ethnic enclaves may hamper self-employment. Entry by potential immigrant entrepreneurs may become difficult as established immigrants could obstruct the entry of newly arrived immigrants. In addition, some enclaves may be in economically poor areas where residents may have lower purchasing power, probably limiting the potential for business growth.
A cross-national study done by Van Tubergen (2005) suggests that co-ethnics can both help and hinder each other in starting and maintaining a business. His findings point to the fact that competition between co-ethnics for small markets is stronger in more sizable groups, which makes self-employment in larger groups more complicated. In a similar way, co-ethnics hamper each other in homogenous groups. Communities made up of members with mainly the same educational level show lesser rates of self-employment than more diverse groups. In more varied communities, the intensity of competition between co-ethnics is less because members are looking for dissimilar kinds of jobs. Furthermore, co-ethnics assist each other in mixed groups, because the educational heterogeneity of the ethnic community aids the accessibility of resources and information vital for business opening and maintenance. Moreover, immigrants who belong to communities with a higher average education usually have higher self-employment rates.

Moreover, it is argued that the returns of social capital have been exaggerated and its benefits have been questioned (Portes & Sensenbrenner, 1993; Portes & Landolt, 2000; Valdez, 2008). The same methods that capitulates rewards to individuals in socially embedded conditions could also be the basis of harmful effects such as the unwarranted requests that members of a social network make on businesses that seem to be blooming (Asante, 2009). Restrictions on the individual’s freedom because of despotic group norms are yet another negative impact of social capital (Portes & Sensenbrenner, 1993; Portes, 1998). These groups can also reduce outsider contact if they manage access to resources of value and, as such, restrain the freedom of its members (Nee & Nee, 1973).
Handwerker (1973) also notes that, while relatives and friends are often critical in the provision of capital to market sellers and, together with good customers, are generally helpful in a variety of ways, some pose a serious threat to entrepreneurs as they come periodically for loans. Loans given to friends and family members are not often retrieved and this may pose a threat to the capital of the market seller (Handwerker, 1973).

2.7.3 The Securitization Theory

The operations of foreigners in terms of trade and other economic activities, may pose security threats for which the concept of securitization is very relevant in this study. Securitization is a theoretical term through which various aspects of international security are examined and analyzed. The concept of securitization has been approached and analysed differently from different contexts and understanding. In constructivism, the classical concept of security is unable to comprehensively reflect reality. This is due to the exclusively materialistic way the term is approached. In classical theories approach, security is based on the interactions between “objective” materialistic factors, such as military power, economic and political capabilities and so on (Themistocleous, 2013).

The theory of securitization was first developed by Ole Wæver in 1995 to explain the security threats posed by migration to the host country. It was to redefine the terminological meaning of security by questioning and criticizing all previous ontologically materialistic, theoretical approaches to security (Wæver, 1997). The main argument of securitization theory is that, security is an illocutionary speech act that, solely by uttering ‘security’, something is being done. When one called something a
security issue, then that thing becomes a security issue (Wæver, 2004). By stating that a referent object is threatened in its existence, a securitizing actor claims a right to extraordinary measures to ensure the referent object’s survival. Wæver’s (2004) approach to securitization is based on a proactive principle for which an issue like migration is pre-identified as a security threat so that measures could be put in place to prevent any bad occurrences.

According to Buzan et al. (1998), securitization consists of three steps. These are: (1) identification of existential threats; (2) emergency action; and (3) effects on inter-unit relations by breaking free of rules (Buzan et al., 1998). To present an issue as an existential threat is to say that: ‘If we do not tackle this problem, everything else will be irrelevant (because we will not be here or will not be free to deal with it in our own way)’ (Buzan et al., 1998).

For instance, in Ghana, the securitization theory plays out this way: the association local traders, GUTA, as they are popularly called, have raised several alarms for the imminent threat that some immigrant businessmen, especially Nigerians, to be arrested and neutralized by the government. The alarms are characterized by agitations and fierce demonstrations. They say that their livelihood and survival are being wiped out by the immigrants. This is a security issue which is expressed in speech by the local traders. Contrary, when Nigerian immigrant businessmen who were affected, not only by speech, but actions of indigenous businessmen also cry out to raise awareness about cruelties directed to them by indigenous actors, then they put the country on the brink of a security
issue. Whichever way, government saw the need to come to remedy the situation between the indigenes and the immigrants before it explodes.

The Copenhagen School describes securitization as the inter-subjective and socially constructed process by which a threat to a referent object is acknowledged and deemed worth protecting (Huysmans, 2006). This school of thought describes securitization to be a kind of a reactive concept for the threat would have to be first acknowledged before designing remedial actions to curb the situation. The Copenhagen School of thought and that described by Buzan et al. (1998) point to the same thing – in that the threat would have to be first identified before taking action (Buzan et al., 1998; Huysmans, 2006).

In recent years, Ole Wæver’s securitization theory has been subjected to a seemingly never-ending stream of criticisms enthused by moral and ethical motives. Much of this moral/ethical criticism comes from other critical security theories. According to Aradau (2001), securitization is a technique of government that induces the fear of violent death by a mythical replay as if one was in the Hobbesian state of nature where everyone is at war with everybody. It manufactures a sudden rupture in the routinized, everyday life by fabricating an existential threat, which provokes experiences of the real possibility of violent death (Aradau, 2001).

Following this understanding, it becomes clear that securitization here means something very different than it does in Wæver’s approach. Thus, no longer is securitization viewed as a theoretical tool that facilitates actors’ analysis but rather, we get to see securitization from the point of view of the securitizing actor, namely as a political method. Here securitization undoubtedly becomes an ethically and morally laden issue that, by its very
nature, is stigmatized as bad. Aradaus’ and Huysmans’ (2001) writings of this type are direct criticisms of Wæver’s securitization theory.

It is clear from literature that security is an important concept that nations make a conscious effort to maintain. Following the theory proposed by Ole Wæver in 1995, several proactive security measures have been put in place to avert any occurrences, especially when it comes to immigration policies. That is, the moving of an issue from the realm of typical politics to the realm of exception (e.g. the new migration policy of the US due to 9/11), to create conditions for “legitimate” or/and “non-legitimate” action, this way avoiding the bureaucratic rules that normally apply.

The securitization subject can be various – political, economic, and social issues such as terrorism, immigration, or a possible war. The war in Iraq in 2003, for instance, can be considered as a failed example of securitization because of the unsuccessful attempt of the United States of America to securitize the existence of weapons of mass destruction in Iraq to convince the audience (public and international community). Because of the failed securitization process, the United States and United Kingdom changed their tactic, transforming the nature of the threat to a substantial lack of democracy, and human rights’ violations by the authoritarian regime (Gause, 2010).

The theory of securitization is very much relevant to this study as it lays the background of the processes that lead to the implementation of anti-migration policies in many countries because of the potential threat posed by illegal immigrants. Migration has been identified as a security issue that leads to the contemplation of anti-migration policies.
The securitization theory explains the actions and approaches adopted by countries to maintain their security in our era of global migration. For this study, the theory helps explore the potential security threats posed by illegal Chinese and Nigerian immigrants in Ghana.

2.7.4 Migration as a Security Challenge

The movement of people from one place to the other at a point in time is a timeless phenomenon. Throughout the years people moved from their countries to other countries for various reasons. The fact is that migration is inevitable and people will always move to other places for economic benefits and survival. It is observed by Dalbly (1950) that the reasons for the movement of people vary, however the most common reason or cause of such movement has been for survival and to better their living standards. It is observed that people basically move because of perceived economic benefits.

Although migration comes with a lot of potential gains that enhance economic growth and development of nations, the security threats it poses to the destination nation attracts a great attention. Migration, along with a number of other “contemporary security challenges”, has emerged as a significant issue at the international security agenda since the end of the Cold War (Ibrahim, 2005). At the interval between the end of World War II and the end of the Cold War, the main issue of international security was the relationship between the two superpowers, their zones of influence, and the potential of nuclear war. The experiences from the Cold War are still passed on to the current generation (Ibrahim, 2005).
The emergence of migration as a security threat does not constitute a common strategic priority for all actors. It could be said that the securitization of global migration had been achieved, to a relative extent, as a consequence of the terrorist attacks on 9/11. This is due to the direct reaction of the U.S. through the infamous War on Terror declaration (Bush, 2011). In this way, combined with the unipolarity that characterizes the international system, the U.S. managed to securitize international terrorism. However, the securitization of terrorism by the U.S. led to the “incrimination” of Arabs and Muslims in the developed world being an indirect result, cultivating the perception that every Muslim or Arab constitutes a potential terrorist threat (Themistocleous, 2013).

At the regional level, although migration is securitized to a larger extent, the institutional and political situation slightly differs in comparison to the international circumstances. In addition, the determination to “regional level” refers to entities and actors who act within a prescribed policy framework with common institutional provisions. A perfect example of a regional actor is the European Union where the process of securitization takes place within a common institutional framework that is formed jointly among various members of the Union. However, in the case of migration, the possibilities for a successful securitization process are extremely limited for three main reasons; that is, political, economic, and social effects and implications on the host countries (Themistocleous, 2013).

The most common arguments used by the internal securitizing actors are related to the fields of economic, social cohesion and political stability (Russo, 2008). More
specifically, regardless of the different types of migrants that are entering the host country, the most common argument that is presented is the extremely negative effects it has on the economy (Huysmans, 2000). Simultaneously, the securitising alarmist includes a number of other sectors related to the social and political structures, such as the risk of changing the demographic and cultural traditions of the country (Jutila, 2006).

In Europe, for instance, the security situation in some host countries is said to be deteriorating due to migration. In Turkey, it is reported that there have been tomb attacks. In Lebanon, there is prevailing insecurity. This is because majority of people seeking entry into other countries are known to be fleeing from conflict and violence in their home countries. Afghanistan, Somalia, South Sudan, the Central African Republic, Mali, Nigeria, Eritrea are some named regions from where conflicts and protracted crisis have forced people to seek safety and security in Europe and elsewhere. Sometimes, the volume of arrivals overwhelms the host countries. This sometimes creates hostility, tightening of borders, increasing visa or residency restrictions and in some cases effectively denying legal access to some immigrants including to a few ones who seek legal access to work (Metcalf-Hough, 2015).

2.7.5 Implications of Securitization on Migration and Its Criticisms

The debates on the security threats posed by migration have been overly generalized without taking into consideration the various types of migration. It is observed that not all migration poses security threats and a distinction on this may be helpful in promoting migration. However, the inability to distinguish between the various types of migration
leads to a dangerous generalization, namely the determination of all migrants as a whole
with extremely negative implications on the African economy. For instance, one of the
most common generalizations is the grouping of asylum seekers into a single category,
the so called illegal economic immigrants and war refugees, without making any
distinction between them (Themistocleous, 2013).

Xenophobic practices and racism among the local population are some of the negative
consequences of the securitization of migration (Kaya, 2007). The recent xenophobic
activities in South Africa constitute an example of the negative consequences of
securitization of migration. Host countries will always protest against foreigners when
they feel threatened that their jobs are being taken by immigrants and this often leads to
challenges for immigrants in their destination nations, including the fear of loss of life
among others.

Through the invocation of various pseudo-biological cultural erosions and other socio-
political pathologies, securitization actors create deeply phobic syndromes within the
community against anything “different”. In this way, the conservatism of the society
increases dramatically with extremely negative medium and long-term implications. This
phenomenon can be established by empirical evidence from a number of cases worldwide
where, due to the securitization of migration, the domestic political balance has changed
to a large extent, favouring the rise of right-wing and neo-Nazi parties and movements
(Sela-Shayovitz, 2015; Wæver, 1997).
In the United States, for instance, illegal migration across the US-Mexico border is said to account for 90 percent of all illegal border crossing into the United States. This illegal migration has also been known to be responsible for drug smuggling and child trafficking. The illegality has occupied attention of the state authorities and given rise to the need for the US to secure its borders and protect citizens. A border security wall has been constructed to augment the efforts of border patrol teams. In addition, the use of technology to secure the border has been contemplated (Nunez-Neto, 2018).

In Italy, immigration has been a key topic in election campaign, with many candidates debating that the movement of people into the country has increased the risk of crime. Migration and security, therefore, took a centre stage in the recent Italian elections. For instance, Matteo Renzi, the candidate from the centre-left Democratic Party, maintained that its government effectively acted to stop the arrival of new migrants from Libya. Another, Silvio Berlusconi, from the centre-right coalition has declared that he will deport 600,000 if his faction won the election. Recent polls show that 58% of Italians are afraid of immigrants and over 60% of Italians in that polls do not feel safe in the city they live in (Di Carlo, Cloos & Saudelli, 2018). Even though the two big parties lost to the Five Star Movement, the issue of migration, crime and security was still non-negotiable. It was the more populist ideas and on top of that the campaign on anti-immigration sentiments that helped to secure the win for the Five Star Movement (Schultheis, 2018).
2.8 Conceptual Framework

In coming up with the conceptual framework that guides this study, we needed to identify how Nigerian and Chinese immigrants migrate to Ghana; through which routes do they move to Ghana? When they finally get into Ghana, how do they participate in retail trade or small-scale mining? In other words, what are the motivators for these immigrants to migrate to Ghana and participate in retail trade or small-scale mining? Ultimately, what has been the economic or environmental security outcome of their participation in retail trade or small-scale mining in Ghana? In solving these questions, the pattern created is as shown in Figure 2.1, the conceptual framework developed for this study.
Motivated by ECOWAS protocols, foreign policies, institutions, and associations (underpinned by transnationalism and social capital theory), immigrants engaged in restricted business activities are driven by economic and social motivations:
- Awareness of low capital requirement
- Social networking

Economic and social motivations:
- Economic security: Extent to which citizens articulate the security issues with immigrants’ engagement in restricted businesses (securitization theory)
- Environmental security: Level of citizens’ apprehension of the environmental issues associated with immigrants’ engagement in restricted businesses (securitization theory)

Source: Author’s Own construct (2017)
Figure 2.1 shows, in the sphere at the top of the diagram, “Nigerian and Chinese Immigrants” who are ready to cross the borders to come to Ghana. These people may be influenced by varied motivations to come to Ghana – the motivations may be “Political and structure/contextual motivation”. Ecowas protocol, foreign policies, institutions and association are some of the motivators in this direction, as indicated in the object on the left-hand side of the diagram with rounded corners and arrow directed to the immigrants’ sphere at the top of the diagram. Likewise, the “Nigerian and Chinese Immigrants” may be motivated by “Economic and social motivations” to come to Ghana. Awareness of low capital required to run a business, social networking, or social capital are some of the motivators herein, as indicated by the alternative object with rounded corners with arrows directed to the immigrants’ sphere at the top of the diagram.

As immigrants seek to enter Ghana, there is one of two routes to which they will have attraction. This takes us to “Entry through approved Routes” and “Entry through unapproved routes” as indicated in the rectangles beneath the immigrants’ sphere in the diagram. The former comprises official entry points, such as by the airport, road, sea or ECOWAS free movement protocol access. The latter comprise all other means of entry to Ghana aside the ones just mentioned. But the immigrants do use these routes to enter Ghana and then some of them become disposed to participation in retail trade or small-scale mining. Irrespective of the routes of entry, some of the immigrants participate in retail trade or small-scale mining. The GIPC Act 865, Section 27 prohibits immigrants from engaging in activities such as retailing and small-scale mining. However, some of these immigrants are into such prohibited business activities (Park, 2009; Laguerr, 1998). That group of immigrants is of interest to this study and are captured as “Immigrants
Engaged in Restricted Business Activities” in the sphere in the middle of the diagram. Certainly, there would be motivations at work that induce this category of immigrants to participate in retail trade or small-scale mining. Here again, “Political and structural/contextual motivation” such as ECOWAS protocol, foreign policies, institutions, and associations of the immigrants, as indicated in the diagram, play influential roles. Not only that, but “Economic and social motivations” such as awareness of low capital required to run a business, social networking or social capital, as can be seen in the diagram, also play influential roles to induce the immigrants to engage in businesses restricted to immigrants in the Ghanaian economy. According to social capital theory, prospective immigrants develop networks with their country people who have already settled in foreign countries. This facilitates their stay in those foreign countries and they consequently engage in the business that their colleagues are engaged in. Nigerians, in particular, have associations in Ghana that support their own, which motivates Nigerians to participate in businesses reserved for Ghanaians (Bosiakoh, 2009). Economic factors such as low capital requirement to engagement in businesses in Ghana and ECOWAS Protocols serve as incentives to Nigerians and Chinese immigrants to participate in retail trade or small-scale mining in Ghana.

The narrative does not just end in the immigrants engaging in business activities from which they are debarred, but, as indicated in the diagram, the immigrants’ business activities may pose “Economic Security” or “Environmental Security” threats. The Nigerians and Chinese immigrants’ engagement in restricted business activities may have two effects, namely an economic security effect (McNamee et al., 2012; Mureithi, 2013) and/or an environmental security effect (Liu, 2013; Lemos & Ribeiro, 2007). These may
affect income levels of indigenous SME owners and farmers in farming communities.

The argument in this study is that, economic security threat is sensed to the extent that “…citizens articulate the security issues [associated] with the immigrants’ engagement in businesses restricted from immigrants” in the country, as shown in the diagram. On the other hand, environmental security is determined by the “Level of citizens’ apprehension of the environmental issues associated with immigrants’ engagement in restricted businesses.
CHAPTER THREE

THE STUDY AREA AND METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter covers the methods and materials used in the study. The chapter provides the profile of the study area and then specifies the research design, research population, sampling procedure and sample size, methods of data collection, reliability and validity of survey instruments, administration of data collection instrument and data analysis. It further covers ethical considerations and limitations of the study.

3.2 Profile of the Study Areas

This section provides an overview of the study areas. As mentioned elsewhere, the Greater Accra and Ashanti regions were the broad areas selected for the study.

3.2.1 Ashanti Region

The Ashanti Region occupies 24,389 square kilometers of land (10.2 percent of the land area of Ghana). It is the third largest region in Ghana, after Northern Region and Western Region, and shares boundaries with Western, Central, Eastern and Brong Ahafo regions. Ashanti Region is said to be the center of Ghana with attractive vegetation. The south-western part of the region lies in the semi-equatorial forest zone while the north-eastern part lies in the savanna zone. Its location enables it to receive enough rainfall from April to mid-August and from September to November. However, December to March and mid-August to mid-September is relatively dry (KMA, 2016).
The people of the Ashanti Region are known as Asantes, and their origin is traced back to eight clans, namely, Oyoko, Bretuo, Aduana, Asona, Asene, Ekuona, Agona and Asakyiri. The Asantes form the largest group among the dialect known as the Akans (Akwamu, Guan, Fante, Denkyira, Brong, Akyem, Kwahu, Sefwi, Wassu, Akwapim and Assin) (Osei, 1994). The administrative districts in the region are as tabulated in Table 3.1. However, the targeted study areas were Kumasi Metropolis and Amansie West, hence detailed descriptions of them are provided in the next section.

Table 3.1: Districts in the Ashanti Region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Districts</th>
<th>Capital</th>
<th>District</th>
<th>Capital</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adansi North</td>
<td>Fomena</td>
<td>Nyiaeso Sub-Metro</td>
<td>Nyiaeso</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adansi South</td>
<td>New Edubiase</td>
<td>Subin Sub-Metro</td>
<td>Ash Town</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AfigyaKwabre</td>
<td>Kodie</td>
<td>Asokwa Sub-Metro</td>
<td>Asokwa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ahafo Ano North</td>
<td>Tepa</td>
<td>Oforikrom Sub-Metro</td>
<td>Oforikrom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ahafo Ano South</td>
<td>Mankraso</td>
<td>Asawase Sub-Metro</td>
<td>Asawase</td>
</tr>
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<td>Amansie Central</td>
<td>Jacobu</td>
<td>Manhyia Sub-Metro</td>
<td>Manhyia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amansie West</td>
<td>Manso Nkwanta</td>
<td>Old Tafo Sub-Metro</td>
<td>Old Tafo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asante Akim North</td>
<td>Konongo</td>
<td>Suame Sub-Metro</td>
<td>Suame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asante Akim South</td>
<td>Jauso</td>
<td>Bantama Sub-Metro</td>
<td>Bantama</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>FosaseKokoben</td>
<td>Kwabre Mampong</td>
<td>Mampong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AtwimaMponua</td>
<td>Nyinahin</td>
<td>Obuasi Municipal</td>
<td>Mampong</td>
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<tr>
<td>AtwimaNwabiagya</td>
<td>Nkawie</td>
<td>Offinso Municipal</td>
<td>Obuasi</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bekwai Municipal</td>
<td>Bekwai</td>
<td>Offinso North</td>
<td>Offinso</td>
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<td>BosomeFreho</td>
<td>Asiwa</td>
<td>SekyereAfram Plains</td>
<td>Akomadan</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Kuntanase</td>
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<td>Kumawu</td>
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<td>Ejisu Juaben Municipal</td>
<td>Ejisu</td>
<td>Sekyere East</td>
<td>Nsuta</td>
</tr>
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<td>Ejura</td>
<td>Sekyere South</td>
<td>Effiduase Agona</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kumasi Metropolis</td>
<td>Kumasi</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kwadaso Sub-Metro</td>
<td>Kwadaso</td>
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</table>

Source: Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development, Website (2017)
3.2.1.1 Kumasi Metropolis (Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly)

Kumasi Metropolitan Area (KMA) is located in the transitional forest zone, about 270km north of the national capital, Accra. It covers a total land area of 254 square kilometres, stretching between latitude $6^\circ.21'$ – $6^\circ.24'$ and longitude $1.30^\circ$ – $1.35^\circ$, an elevation that ranges between 250 – 300 metres above sea level. Kumasi is bounded to the north by Kwabre District, to the east by Ejisu Juabeng Municipal, to the west by Atwima Nwabiagya District and to the south by Bosomtwe-Atwima Kwanwoma District. The map of KMA is shown in Figure 3.1.
Figure 3.1: Map of KMA

Source: KMA (2016)
The districts surrounding KMA are agrarian; hence, they serve as the bread basket for the metropolis. KMA serves these districts as a market centre. The metropolis has social facilities such as schools and hospitals, which serve the needs of not only the KMA but also the surrounding districts. KMA and its surrounding districts are into mutual business and social partnership for development.

(a) Population Size, Growth Rate and Density of KMA

Kumasi accommodates a total of 2,035,064 people (GSS, 2012). The growth of the population between 2000 and 2010 for Kumasi was 5.3 percent, which is higher than the Ashanti regional growth rate (3.4 percent) and national population growth rate (2.7 percent) (GSS, 2012). Kumasi is the most populous district in the Ashanti Region in that it accounts for almost half (42.6 percent) of the region’s population.

KMA has attracted a large population due to factors such as commercialization, rich cultural heritage and administrative functions. The centrality of Kumasi as a nodal city with major arterial routes linking it to other parts of the country is another pull factor accounting for the upsurge of population in the metropolis. In addition, the presence of infrastructural facilities for higher education like Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, University of Education, Kumasi campus, Kumasi Technical University, teacher and nursing training institutions, and senior high schools among others have pulled many into the metropolis. Moreover, the growth of industrial activities and the large volume of commercial activities in and around the metropolis have contributed to a rapid increase in the population of the metropolis.
The Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly has a total surface area of 254 square kilometres (2012 Population Census Report) with a population density of 8,012 persons per square kilometre. The Kumasi Metropolis is second to Accra Metropolis in terms of population density. Compared to the Ashanti regional population density (148 per square kilometres), KMA is extremely under pressure. This phenomenon partly explains the cause of traffic congestion in the metropolis and the charging of exorbitant rents for accommodation, which has a potentially negative effect of reducing residents’ ability to save as a means of capital formation for sustainable productive employment creation.

The rapid population growth and population density raise concerns for immigration, especially immigrants. The KMA is already chocked with commercial and human activities and further increases in the number of immigrants would worsen the situation and may create more tension in the KMA. It is therefore not surprising that GUTA and others are constantly demonstrating against immigrants’ entry into businesses reserved for only Ghanaians.

(b) **Migration Trends in KMA**

Undoubtedly, migration is one of the factors that influence an increase in population. The indigenes in the KMA account for 65.7 percent of the population while the remaining 34.3 percent are immigrants either from other parts of Ghana or outside Ghana (GSS, 2012). The metropolis has attracted a number of migrants from several parts of Ghana and neighbouring African countries such as Togo, Burkina Faso, Mali, Nigeria, Ivory Coast and non-African countries like China. The influx of immigrants has raised many concerns of which the entry of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants into business activities
is a major one. Apart from the pressure on KMA that a population increase has that is exacerbated by immigrants, deeper questions arise as to how these immigrants, particularly foreign ones, enter the area. More so, we may visit what motivates them to enter the area and, if they come there to do business, then what is the nature of the businesses they engage in. Another consideration that is pertinent to these inquiries would be whether the kind of businesses these foreigners engage in concurs with the collective aspirations of the indigenes in the area. This study explores immigrants’ activities, but delves into the security ramifications of these activities in the area.

(c) Social Infrastructure
It is trite knowledge that good social infrastructure such as potable water, education and health infrastructure are factors that attract many immigrants. KMA, appearing as a competitor to Ghana’s capital city, Accra, and an area that commands repute in social infrastructure cannot be ignored by some immigrants as far as Ghana is concerned. Safe drinking water in KMA includes pipe-borne, tanker supplied, well, borehole, spring/rain water, rivers/streams and dugouts. Access to good drinking water in KMA is about 97 percent (GSS, 2012). Pipe-borne water facilities supply water to over 80 percent of the households in the Metropolis. The KMA has two main surface water treatment plants that supply treated water to the residents in the Metropolis. These plants are the Owabi head work, located 10km away from the CBD and Barekese head work, located 16km from the CBD, and are supplying good drinking water to the surrounding communities (GSS, 2012).
Apart from the accessibility to good drinking water, KMA inhabitants have good access to healthcare. According to GSS (2012), KMA has 189 health facilities with Komfo Anokye Teaching Hospital as the major health facility. Other major health facilities include KNUST Hospital, South Suntreso Government Hospital and SDA Hospital in Kwadaso. The Population and Housing Report (2012) revealed that, out of 189 health facilities in Kumasi, the private sector operates a significant number of these. This amplifies the key role the private sector is playing in promoting good health in the Metropolis.

The educational institutions have key roles to play on immigration in the KMA. KMA has important educational institutions such as KNUST, University of Education, Kumasi Campus, Kumasi Technical University, Garden City University, Baptist University College, Ghana Christian Service University College and others. Teacher and nursing training institutions abound in the KMA. These social infrastructures provide comfort to immigrants; hence their preference for KMA over other districts in the Ashanti Region.

3.2.1.2 Amansie West

The Amansie West District shares boundaries with Atwima Nwabiagya and Atwima Mponua to the west, Bekwai Municipal, Amansie Central and Obuasi Municipal to the east, Atwima Kwanwoma to the north and Upper Denkyira and Bibiani to the south. The map of the district is shown in Figure 3.2.
Figure 3.2: Map of Amansie West

The location of the district provides a great opportunity for commercial activities such as hospitality, arts and craft businesses. The topography of the district includes prominent hills that stretch across the north-western part of the district. The Offin and Oda rivers and their tributaries, including the Jeni, Pumpin and Emuna, constitute the main drainage system (Amansie West District Assembly, 2016).

Source: Amansie West District Assembly (2016)
The district has 134,331 people, constituting 2.8 percent of the total population of the Ashanti Region. The sex ratio of the district is 101 males to every 100 females with a youthful population of 41.2 percent with the remaining 58.8 percent made up of children and adults (GSS, 2014).

(a) Economic Activity

The labour force of the district accounts for 76.5 percent with 95.9 percent of them employed while the remaining 4.1 percent are not employed. Of the employed population, about 59.3 percent are engaged as skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery activities, 9.3 percent in service and sales, 5.9 percent in craft and related trade, and 4.3 percent are engaged as managers, professionals, and technicians (GSS, 2014).

(b) Migration

The number of migrants in the Amansie West District was 35,095 (GSS, 2012). About 21.1 percent (equivalent to 18,471) were born in the same region but are living in a place other than their birth place within the same region – Ashanti Region. The number of migrants from Upper East Region was 3,694, Brong Ahafo Region was 2,441, Western Region was 2,301 and Northern Region was 2,275. Migrants from Greater Accra Region were 442 and Volta Region was 668. This suggests that most of the migrants in Amansie West were from Upper East Region with the least from Greater Accra Region. About 3.4 percent of persons who have stayed in the region for 1-4 years were born outside Ghana.

The relevance of the Amansie West District to this study is that the area provides great opportunity for commercial activities such as hospitality, arts and craft businesses. It needs little effort to show that foreigners might find the area attractive, and in particular,
a place to do some business. This is because the area is rich in minerals, mainly, gold which has invited a lot of small gold mining activities (galamsey). Added to that, the area has a high labour force (76.5 percent) and a high employment rate (95.9 percent). In the light of these characteristics of the area, the question for this study is: what might be the motive of immigrants (Nigerians and Chinese) in this area? If they undertake some business ventures, what might the nature of that business venture be? What at all is the general perception of the local people about these immigrants? Finally, do their ventures in the area have any security ramifications? These are critical issues, which this study is designed to explore; hopefully, to determine the effect of these immigrants’ engagements on security.

3.2.2 Greater Accra Region

The Greater Accra Region covers an area of 3,245 square kilometres and it is the smallest region in Ghana. It lies on the south-eastern part of the country along the Gulf of Guinea and has coastal savannah forest. The population of the region as of 2010 was 4,010,054 with an annual growth rate of 2.5 percent. Females dominate in the region with 51.7 percent and the males account for 48.3 percent of the population (GSS, 2013).

It has a population density of 1,235.8 people per square kilometres. The region is 90.5 percent urban with an annual urban growth rate of 3.1 percent. It experiences more inflow of people from other parts of the country than people moving out of the region: this, therefore, gave the region a net migration value of 1,275,425 in 2010 (GSS, 2013). Greater Accra Region has 16 administrative districts as shown in Table 3.2.
Table 3.2: Administrative Districts in Greater Accra Region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Capital</th>
<th>District</th>
<th>Capital</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accra Metropolis</td>
<td>Accra</td>
<td>Ga West</td>
<td>Amasaman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tema Metropolis</td>
<td>Tama</td>
<td>Ga East</td>
<td>Abokobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>La DadeKotapon</td>
<td>La</td>
<td>Ledzokuku-Growor</td>
<td>Teshie-Nungua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adenta</td>
<td>Adenta</td>
<td>Ashaiman</td>
<td>Ashaiman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>La-Nkwantanan Madina</td>
<td>Madina</td>
<td>Ga Central</td>
<td>Sowutuom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ga South</td>
<td>Weija</td>
<td>Ada West</td>
<td>Sege</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ada East</td>
<td>Ada-foah</td>
<td>Kpon-Kapanmanso</td>
<td>Kpon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ningo-Prampram</td>
<td>Prampram</td>
<td>Shai-Osudoku</td>
<td>Dodowa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development website (2017)

However, as the target study area within this region is the Accra Metropolis, a detailed description of this metropolis has been provided below.

3.2.2.1 Accra Metropolis

AMA covers a total land area of 139,674 square kilometres bounded to the north by Ga West Municipal, the west by Ga South Municipal, the south by the Gulf of Guinea, and the east by La Dadekotopon Municipal. The map of AMA is given in Figure 3.3.
Figure 3.3: Map of AMA

Source: GSS, GIS (2016)
(a) Population Growth and Density of AMA

AMA has a population of 1,665,086 with females constituting 51.9 percent while males formed 48.1 percent. AMA has more females than males: for every 100 females, there are 93 males, representing a sex ratio of 93.0. The sex ratio of AMA is lower than the national average of 95.0. The age distribution of AMA gives a dependency ratio of 48.5, which is lower than the regional average of 53.4. AMA accounts for 42 percent of the Greater Accra regional population (GSS, 2012).

According to GSS (2012), the fertility rate of the metropolis is 2.2 and this figure is lower than the regional average of 2.6. Moreover, the metropolis has a higher crude death rate of 4.4 per 1000 population and this figure as well is higher than the regional average of 4.3 per 1000 population. One, therefore, expects the population growth of the metropolis to be slower than the current state. However, the population of the metropolis is increasing rapidly and this is because there are other factors such as high fertility giving rise to high birth rates. More noticeably, the multi-ethnic nature of settlements in the Greater Accra Region is the consequence of local migration; and thus, migration itself is a factor of the rapidly increasing population in the metropolis, resulting in a high population density of 9,589.2 per square kilometre (GSS, 2012).

(b) Migration Trend of AMA

The number of migrants in AMA constitutes 47.0 percent (778,267) of the total population (1,665,086). Most of the migrants come from the Eastern Region (183,426; 27.8 percent) while the least come from the Upper West Region (8,068; 1.2 percent).
Moreover, out of the population of AMA, 91.2 percent are Ghanaians while the remaining 8.8 percent are immigrants. Immigrants from ECOWAS countries dominate over non-ECOWAS countries such as China. Immigrants from ECOWAS countries constitute 2.9 percent while the remaining 5.9 percent come from other countries including China. Male immigrants dominate over female immigrants in AMA.

Table 3.3 gives information about the birth place of immigrants and their duration of stay in the Accra Metropolitan Assembly as collected by the Ghana Statistical Service in the 2010 Population and Housing Census.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Birth places</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>less than 1 year</th>
<th>1-4 years</th>
<th>5-9 years</th>
<th>10-19 years</th>
<th>20 years and above</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>778,267</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Born elsewhere in the region</td>
<td>117,297</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Region</td>
<td>30,655</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Region</td>
<td>93,697</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volta Region</td>
<td>110,881</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Region</td>
<td>183,426</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>24.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ashanti Regions</td>
<td>99,983</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brong Ahafo Region</td>
<td>22,823</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Region</td>
<td>50,334</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper East Region</td>
<td>20,463</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper West Region</td>
<td>8,068</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside Ghana</td>
<td>40,640</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source: 2010 Population and Housing Census**

Table 3.2 shows that the immigrants born outside Ghana, in countries like Nigeria and China, have stayed in the metropolis for many years. Out of 40,640 immigrants born outside Ghana, 20.6 percent, 23.2 percent, 15.7 percent, 15.2 percent and 12.3 percent had stayed in the metropolis less than 1 year, 1-4 years, 5-9 years, 10-19 years and 20
years and above respectively. This is an indication that the immigrants (Nigerians and Chinese) had lived with indigenous Ghanaian business men and women for many years, a condition that is sufficient for us to understand that they are probably knowledgeable of the business terrain of the metropolis.

(c) Business Activities of AMA

AMA has several business activities and it is basically a commercial center. Major business activities in AMA are given in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Major Business Activities in AMA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture forestry and fishing</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining and quarrying</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale and retail, repairing of vehicles and motorcycles</td>
<td>35.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation and storage</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation and food service activities</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information and communication</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial and insurance activities</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration and support service activities</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public administration and defense, compulsory social service</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art entertainment and recreation</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GSS (2012)
It can be seen from Table 3.4 that the major business activities in AMA are wholesale, retail and repairing of motor vehicles and motorcycles. Most of these businesses are reserved for only Ghanaian indigenous business men and women. The nature of business activities in AMA suggests that the private informal sector is the main avenue for employment, followed by private formal. According to GSS (2012), the private informal sector employs about 74.0 percent while the private formal employs 16.9 percent of the labour force in AMA. The remaining is absorbed by public institutions (7.8 percent), semi-public institutions (0.2 percent), NGOs (1.0 percent) and other international organizations (0.2 percent).

It may be worrisome, at least to the Ghanaian business men and women, if the Chinese and Nigerian immigrants were engaging in the businesses reserved for them. This brings back the question as to whether the activities of these immigrants in business circles in the area reflect the general aspirations of the people. More so, it is important to know what the nature of the businesses of these immigrants is, and what motivates them to enter this sphere of activity in Ghana in the first place. A central issue in this study is what the security ramifications of the activities of these immigrants in the areas in which they operate will be. The conditions presented in the AMA concerning the activities of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants are vital to explore the issues.

(d) Social and Economic Infrastructure

The social infrastructure in the AMA includes schools, hospitals and water facilities, which are essential to human lives. The metropolis, by railway, was linked to Kumasi, Takoradi and Tema. The Takoradi and Kumasi lines have been rendered defunct over a decade ago leaving only the Tema somewhat operational. But when it was fully
operational, it facilitated the movement of goods and people between these cities and Accra. This kind of exchange had discernibly been a precursor to the cosmopolitan nature of the AMA as it is currently. The metropolis is also served by Kotoka International Airport, which facilitates international movement between Ghana and other countries. The AMA hosts the most popular university in Ghana, University of Ghana (Legon). Other universities in the AMA include Accra Institute of Technology, Cantonments, Regional Maritime University, Nungua, Ghana Technology University College, Tesano, Methodist University College, Dansoman, Accra Technical University, Tudu among others. Besides universities, the AMA has many second cycle schools and teacher and nursing training institutions.

The compact housing structure in most areas of the AMA depicts the dense population of the area. The number of houses as at 2010 stood at 149,689 with a total number of households in these houses at 450,794. Types of houses for human accommodation include separate houses (9.7 percent), semi-detached houses (6.7 percent), flats or apartments (6.9 percent), compound houses (67.7 percent), huts (0.9 percent), tents (0.2 percent), improvised homes (6.7 percent), living quarters (0.9 percent) and uncompleted houses (0.3 percent) (GSS, 2012). The houses are made of cement blocks (82.1 percent) and wood (11.3 percent) and, thus, it can be argued that most of the houses are safe for habitation. Disasters like flooding and fire have, from year to year, consistently posed a serious question to city planners as to the fitness and propriety of the design and location of some of the housing structures. Although one can say there are a lot of houses in the area, pressure from the larger population raises demand for houses in the area, bringing in consequence, a high accommodation costs for people who wish to reside in the area.
Apart from that, the large size of the resident population of the area makes it extremely difficult for easy or quick access to accommodation even for the fewer people that can afford descent but expensive accommodation.

The availability of good social and economic infrastructure in limited areas of the metropolis acts as a pull factor for immigrants. This is because the social and economic infrastructure provides more comfort and security not only to indigenes but also to immigrants. However, the size of the metropolis that is yet to receive a facelift and good outlook in terms of infrastructure appears to be rather huge. Hence, there is already considerable pressure on the good social and economic infrastructure in the area. The increasing population of Accra has been threatening to bring pressure on facilities in the metropolis, resulting a bit of a struggle to access services or facilities; hence, higher economic prices for accommodation, education and utility services. It is discernible that an influx of immigrants would escalate the dense population of the Greater Accra Region. This could deny most people access to good accommodation, particularly in the metropolis.

3.3 Research Design

This study adopted the post-positivist research paradigm, which holds that, until we can identify or determine the causes that influence outcomes, we cannot be positive about our claims of knowledge about outcomes when studying human behaviour (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). To understand, generally, how Nigerian and Chinese immigrants migrate to Ghana to participate in businesses restricted from immigrants, and determine
the outcomes of their business activities on the Ghanaian economy and environment, the post-positivist research paradigm involved the study in an empirical science inquiry to be able to reduce complex issues about the subject matter of the study.

Both the qualitative and quantitative approaches to data collection and analysis, or mixed methods were employed. There is a wide consensus among researchers that the research design needs to reflect the purpose of the inquiry (Creswell, 2003; Crotty, 1998). With the nature of the study being to learn about Nigerian and Chinese immigrant businesses using perceptions of indigenous people, there was the need for not only flexibility but also a deeper probe into the perceptions of participants in the study. Precisely, the convergent form of the mixed-methods design in which we integrated quantitative and qualitative data to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research questions was applied.

With the qualitative approach, the exploratory inquiry proved useful. Whitehead, et al. (2001) agree that the exploratory approach is to identify the frontiers of the environment in which the problems or situations of interest are likely to reside, just as of the important factors in the study. Our qualitative approach did not rely on numeric data (Grix, 2004), but rather was good for asking questions involving what, when, who and where, and how a phenomenon was characterized. This approach involved the use of flexible data sources, namely participant observation or interviews, and documentary analysis (Ragin, 1994). The qualitative approach in this study helped to provide a description of issues including the business activities of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants.
in Ghana, how Nigerians and Chinese immigrants migrate to Ghana to participate in prohibited business activities, and Nigerians and Chinese’s incentives to enter prohibited business activities in Ghana.

Attention was given to the points on which the qualitative approach in this study may be criticized. As Grix (2004) notes, the qualitative approach is non-representative and its results cannot be generalized beyond the target population. This might seem to undermine the generalizability of the study results, which is critical to any research. The qualitative approach is also criticized for lacking objectivity since it tends to rely on more subjective properties of the study; there is more use of personal views than the use of hard facts from the field. This therefore opens up the study to potential biases if care is not taken to forestall the issue (Bryman, 2004). Thus, in this study, both qualitative data and quantitative data were used and, therefore, their individual weaknesses were reduced by compliment of each other.

The quantitative approach in this study sought to empirically establish the effects of Nigerian and Chinese prohibited businesses in Ghana on SMEs and the environment as perceived by SME operators in Accra and Kumasi. This specific objective of the study can be achieved using a quantitative research design. This is because the design is best to use when a researcher seeks to establish the effect of one variable on another (Miller & Brewer, 2003). It is more objective and was applied in the study to lay the foundation for deeper findings and discussions on the pertinent questions for study.
The quantitative research design is however mostly criticized as being confined to measurements of variables and estimations of their impacts on other variables without exploration into further possible dimensions of the variables (Silverman, 2000). For instance, questions may surround the use of quantitative designs in a study dealing with perceptions of people and/or their social and cultural world (Grix, 2004).

The criticism of both qualitative and quantitative designs made their combination an appropriate research design. Application of the mixed methods in this study further ensured triangulation whereby other data sources from the literature helped to discover significant patterns and dimensions of the pertinent issues. In connection with the research design employed, the study was conducted through interviews that collected data from officials of key state institutions such as the Ghana Police Service, the Ghana Immigration Service, GUTA, GIPC, the Ministry of Trade and Industry, the Accra Metropolitan Assembly, and Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly. In addition, some opinion leaders in the private sector participated in the interviews as well. On the other hand, using a questionnaire, data was sourced from indigenous Ghanaian SME owners. Moreover, personal observations on the fields of the study were made to add to the depth of evidence in the research work.

### 3.4 The Study Population

The study targeted SME operators and other stakeholders in SMEs in the Greater Accra and the Ashanti regions of Ghana. The study targeted these groups of people because their activities are affected by the business activities of Chinese and Nigerian immigrants.
or where they deal directly with SMEs in Ghana. Key stakeholders made up of SME operators and opinion leaders in the Amansie West District were the groups identified as the population of this study. The characteristics of this population are shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: Key Stakeholders in the Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Categories of stakeholders</th>
<th>Actual participants selected for the study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1.  | Ghanaian SMEs operators   | • Operators/managers of micro enterprises (owner + up to 5 employees)  
• Operators/managers of small enterprises (> 5 but < 500 employees) |
| 2.  | SMEs Associations         | • President of Ghana Union of Traders Association (GUTA) |
| 3.  | GIPC                      | • Director of Research and Development Department of GIPC |
| 4.  | Security Agencies         | • Public Relations Officer of Ghana Police Service for Accra and Kumasi  
• Public Relation Officer, Ghana Immigration Service, Accra |
| 5.  | Ministry of Trade         | • Commercial officer of Ministry of Trade, Accra. |
| 6.  | Accra Metropolitan Assembly | • Development Planning Officer, AMA |
| 7.  | Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly | • Development Planning Officer, KMA |
| 8.  | Communities within which Nigerian and Chinese operated businesses (galamsey) | • Chiefs of communities within which immigrants operate galamsey/small scale mining  
• Assembly men/women of communities within which immigrants operate galamsey/small scale mining  
• President/secretary of farmers associations in a community within which immigrant operate galamsey/small scale mining |

Source: Author’s Own Construct (2017)
3.5 Selection of Respondents and the Sample Size

A multi-stage sampling procedure, comprising random sampling, purposive sampling, and snowball sampling, was employed to select the sample for this study (Saunders et al., 2009). While random sampling is a probability sampling procedure, purposive and snowball sampling are non-probability sampling procedures. In selecting the sample, attention was paid to the fact that both quantitative and qualitative data were to be used in the study.

3.6 The Quantitative Sample

For the quantitative data, much as it depends on numbers or quantity to determine how the findings will be representative of the study population, we chose the probabilistic sampling procedure (that was statistical) that availed an equal chance to every member of the population to be selected. To acquire quantitative data, we considered the SME operators in the study areas. We needed to obtain a large amount of data on perceptions of the SME operators so that the general outlook of indigenous SME operators on the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ business activities could be gleaned out. Consequently, both the AMA and KMA, where the SME operators who constituted the population of this study could be found, were contacted to obtain the overall figures of SME operators in their jurisdictions. For every member of this group of SME operators to have an equal chance of participating in the study, the random sampling technique was used, effectuating therefore, the random sample size calculation using the formula by Gomez and Jones (2010), given as:
96

\[ n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2} \]

Where:

- ‘\( N \)’ = the population of SMEs in the region;
- ‘\( n \)’ = the sample size; and
- ‘\( e \)’ = the margin of error (or the confidence interval).

The above was only a process for the collection of the quantitative data. At the first stage, SMEs within the Kumasi Suame Magazine\(^1\) were identified, and also, areas within the Central Business District of Accra that were found during regular field visits to be brisk business hubs in the two regions, Ashanti and Greater Accra regions respectively. The Central Business District of Accra stretches from Accra Central through Adabraka to the Kwame Nkrumah Circle and their surrounding markets in the Greater Accra Region (GSS, 2012). In the Ashanti Region, the Kumasi Suame Magazine area was identified as a hub for this study although there may be other business locations in that region that are comparable. Like the central business district in the Greater Accra Region, the Kumasi Suame Magazine has brisk business going on there (KMA, 2016), and this fact formed the basis for sampling SMEs in these study areas. Nonetheless, it was the SME operators in these business units that were targeted. At the second stage, the probability samples calculation formula was used to estimate the sample size for random sampling of SME operators under study. As espoused by Gomez and Jones (2010),

\[ n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2} \]

where ‘\( N \)’ is the population of SMEs in the region; ‘\( n \)’ is the sample size; and ‘\( e \)’ is the confidence interval.

\(^1\) Kumasi Suame Magazine is a popular community in Kumasi, Ghana, where metal work and fitting of automobiles are predominant.
level (0.05). The total number of SME operators in the AMA was 169,099 (AMA, 2016) and that in KMA was 142,189 (KMA, 2016). Thus, for the Greater Accra Region, the sample size is calculated as:

\[
n = \frac{169,099}{[1 + 169,099 \times 0.05^2]} = \frac{169,099}{423.7475} = 399.0560 = 399
\]

For the Ashanti Region, the sample size is calculated as:

\[
n = \frac{142,189}{[1 + 142,189 \times 0.05^2]} = \frac{142,189}{356.4725} = 398.8779 = 399
\]

The calculated sample size was 798 SME owners from both Greater Accra Region and Ashanti Region. This resulted from aggregating the figures obtained by the sample size calculation formula (Gomez & Jones, 2010) for both SMEs in the Greater Accra and Ashanti regions respectively. However, by the end of the data collection exercise in both regions, we obtained data from micro enterprises (owner + up to 5 employees), small enterprises (>5 but < 500 employees), and medium enterprises (less than 250 employees) as shown in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Ghanaian SMEs Selected for Questionnaire Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SMEs</th>
<th>Ashanti Region</th>
<th>Greater Accra Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Micro Enterprises</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Enterprises</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium Enterprises</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>399</strong></td>
<td><strong>399</strong></td>
<td><strong>798</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source: Field Work, 2017**
3.6.1 Quantitative Data Collection and Instrumentation

A structured questionnaire helped to approach the study quantitatively, just as interviews and observations helped to approach the study qualitatively.

3.6.1.1 The Questionnaire

Sidhu (2003) defined a questionnaire as a form designed to contain certain questions and is distributed to elicit responses from people. These people are referred to as respondents and were expected to be able to read and write or make a choice among alternative answers, which corresponds to their own personal responses. The choice making was without any external interference or influence on the respondents (Kumar, 2005). This study relied on a structured questionnaire due to its immense merits in quantitative data collection. Moreover, the structured questionnaire was convenient and easy to analyze (Gray, 2009). Considering the sample size (798 SMEs operators), it was more convenient, less costly and time saving to use a structured questionnaire.

The use of a questionnaire in data collection is, however, not without its weaknesses. Comparing our experiences of the weaknesses with Gray (2009), we observed that there was, incidentally, the problem of a respondent’s inability to read and therefore an inability to complete the questionnaire without assistance. Questions were translated orally to respondents who could not read and/or write to enable them to fill out the questionnaire. These strategies together ensured accurate data collection and a high response rate.

The questionnaire was designed and administered to Ghanaian operators/managers of SMEs in the Ashanti Region and Greater Accra Region. The questionnaire was sub-
divided into five parts. Part I focused on the socio-demographic characteristics of the Ghanaian SME operators and contained data on age, sex, educational level, marital status, ethnic background and religious affiliation. Part II was the business profile of Ghanaian SMEs seeking information on business location, business nature and operating capital. Parts I and II are linked indirectly to the research questions, by providing a background to the study to help readers of this thesis to understand who the respondents were.

Part III is on the business activities of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants in Ghana. It specifically collected data on the nature and location of businesses of Nigerians and Chinese in Ghana and the reputed perception of the SME operators regarding these businesses. Part IV dealt with the drivers steering Nigerian and Chinese immigrants into prohibited business activities. This section adopted a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (extremely unimportant) through 2 (unimportant), 3 (neutral), 4 (important), to 5 (extremely important). Section V covered the effects of Nigerian and Chinese prohibited businesses on the economy (SMEs performance) and on the environment (farmlands and water bodies). Some other questions used the five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), while others were categorical, for instance, “yes” or “no” response demanding questions, and multiple response demanding questions. The section also used open-ended questions to allow the respondents to give explanations for some of the answers given. Closed-ended questions were also included.

3.6.1.2 Reliability and Validity

Reliability is the consistency of research instruments in providing results (Seidu, 2011) while validity is when a research instrument measures what it was intended to measure
(Cohen, Manin & Morrison, 2003). Reliability and validity are vital in any research such as this current one (Seidu, 2011).

To ensure that the questionnaire was reliable, it was piloted in Winneba in the Central Region of Ghana with 20 Ghanaian business operators and the responses were preliminarily examined to identify and address anomalies, misunderstandings and counter-productive questions. The main intention for the pilot was to ascertain how well the questionnaire would elicit the understanding of the respondents regarding the immigrant issues raised therein. Winneba is, itself, not part of the study areas, but the exigencies of the times warranted that the pilot could be done in the area to bring the questionnaire to its optimum standard before the actual data collection. First, Winneba is one of the areas in the southern part of Ghana where immigrants, notably, Nigerians and some Chinese, can be found. Some of these immigrants are practically known to be engaging in digital/social commerce, with high levels of perceived defrauding imputed to them by residents. Second, the issue of immigrants disturbing the business environment for indigenous businessmen is quite sensitive, and a series of visits to the study areas – the Accra and Kumasi metropolis – revealed a certain measure of tiredness and frustration on affected SME operators to keep complaining and demanding for some sort of order in their environment. In order to break the monotony that a pilot study in the area would produce, the Winneba area was found to be easily accessible for the piloting.

Observations from the pilot work were used to further improve on the questionnaire. Our preliminary observations about the reliability of the questionnaire were confirmed when, after the actual data collection exercise, the data was tested for reliability and internal consistency using the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient. The alpha coefficient tests whether
the measures obtained after the actual data collection have internal consistency and the questionnaires were not filled by some aliens. The alpha coefficient ranges from 0 to 1 and it shows a high reliability when the statistic obtained is closer to 1 than to 0. Normally, alpha coefficient greater than or equal to 0.7 is regarded as acceptable in terms of reliability (Nunnally, 1978). The results from the reliability analysis revealed high alpha coefficient for the main factors, which were measured by a group of observed variables (which we call items). The Cronbach’s Alpha (α) and the number of times tested are as shown in Table 3.7. Since all the alpha values are greater than 0.70, it was confirmed that the data is reliable for subsequent analysis.

### Table 3.7: Reliability (Cronbach’s Alpha) of the Instrument

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Factors</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>α-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business activities of Nigerians and Chinese in Ghana</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entry of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drivers for Nigerian and Chinese restricted business activities</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic effect of Nigerians and Chinese prohibited businesses in Ghana</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental effect of Nigerians and Chinese prohibited businesses in Ghana</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.739</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source: Field Work, 2017**

The study employed a content validity method to ensure that the questionnaire was valid. Content validity is the degree to which the content of a measure truly reflects the full domain of the construct for which it is being used. The study adopted a content validity method because it gives an expert view on whether the instrument measured what it was supposed to measure. After the design of the questionnaire, it was reviewed to its current
improved state – correct wording and layout, and all. The questions were matched under the appropriate specific objectives, making sure that each question provided information for answering the specific questions as outlined in Chapter One of this thesis.

### 3.6.1.3 Administering the Questionnaire

The questionnaire administration was carried out from 5th January to 24th January, 2017 in Accra, and it was done in Kumasi from 26th January to 10th February, 2017. The questionnaire was administered to Ghanaian SME operators on their business premises. In the absence of the owner of the business, the manager/shop attendant was requested to fill in the questionnaire.

Due to the large number of Ghanaian SMEs involved in the study and scattered locations, eleven enumerators undertook the data collection exercise after having been trained on the parameters of data required. This approach has some demerits including having a shorter time for respondents to carefully ponder the questions to provide rightful responses. This major demerit was overcome by giving each respondent up to 20 minutes to read and fill in the questionnaire.

Gray (2009) notes that researchers are to explain the purpose of the questionnaire administration, who the information is for, how the information is going to be handled, why the information is being collected and how it will be useful to the participants. Accordingly, all participants were informed about the purpose of the study, the extent of their engagement, and assured them of keeping their data confidential and anonymous.
3.6.2 Quantitative Data Analysis

The quantitative data analysis was on data collected through the structured questionnaires from the SME operators from Kumasi and Accra. The questionnaires were assembled, coded and inputted into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0. The input data was cleaned and made ready for analysis. The analysis first adopted a descriptive statistical analysis, which essentially used frequencies and percentages to describe the characteristics of the respondents. Measures of central tendency (mean and standard deviation) were also used to describe some general perceptions of the respondents about some issues examined by the study. More rigorous analysis was conducted to respond to the specific research questions posed by the study.

In response to the first research question, “How do local SME operators perceive Nigerian and Chinese immigrants migrating to Ghana to participate in retail trade or small scale mining?”, there was a discussion on entry of the immigrants to Ghana, which considered perceptions on the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ entry routes to Ghana, and the actors contributing to the entry of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to Ghana. The measurements of the perception of the SME operators in percentages aided in describing what these issues looked like.

In dealing with research question two, “What is the nature of business of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants operate in Ghana as perceived by local SME operators?”, the analysis was conducted to cover perspectives on properties of Nigerian and Chinese immigrant businesses. Key variables analyzed here were the categories of Nigerian and
Chinese immigrant businesses in Ghana, their registration statuses, type of ownership, by means of frequencies and percentage representations.

The research question three, “What is perceived by local SME operators as the motivation for the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to participate in retail trade or small-scale mining in Ghana?” was answered using the key variables: economic incentives and social factors. Probing further, Chi square test of independence was used to test the significance of the incentives to those operating in retail, wholesale, manufacturing, restaurants or mining sectors. Furthermore, political and legal incentives motivating the immigrants were weighed by their percentage representations.

A determination of the significant motivators for the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to come to, or migrate to Ghana, was made using a Binary Logistic Regression model. The relevant variables in the model included:

**Dependent/outcome variable:** Perceived entry routes to Ghana. This is represented by:

1) Approved routes also known as “official routes”. They include routes through the airport, border post, and seaport. The ECOWAS free movement protocols are also included here.

2) Unapproved routes, also known as “unofficial routes”. This refers to any unauthorized route of entry into Ghana.

**Independent variables:** Low capital, poor monitoring, availability of market, availability of raw materials, stable power supply, cheap labour supply, Ghanaian-foreigners’ marriage, Ghanaian-foreigners’ friendship.
The choice of the Binary Logistic Regression was made considering that the outcome/dependent variable was essentially dichotomous. The immigrants use official routes or unofficial routes. The ECOWAS free movement protocol is also an official route. Based on this information, we determined the factors that influence the choice of routes taken by the immigrants in coming to Ghana using binomial logistic regression technique.

The research question four, “What are the effects of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ participation in retail trade or small-scale mining on economic security of Ghana as perceived by local SME operators?” was treated in the same way as research question five “What are the effects of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ participation in retail trade or small-scale mining on environmental security of Ghana as perceived by local SME operators?” They were approached by analyzing the economic or environmental threat posed by immigrant businesses on the environment. The percentage representation was used to describe the threat perceived. Chi square test was used to find out how significantly economic or environmental security threats depended on the kinds of businesses engaged in by the Nigerian or Chinese immigrant businesses.

3.7 Qualitative Sample

Qualitative data collection was done through, first, purposive sampling of accessible key state agencies at the frontiers of immigration issues in Ghana: the Ghana Police Service, Ghana Immigration Service, Ministry of Trade and Industry, Ghana Investment Promotion Centre, Accra Metropolitan Assembly, Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, and
the Ghana Union of Traders Association were the agencies thus selected. Additionally, to provide insight into how local communities that have experienced the business activities of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants perceived these immigrants, Datano, a community which has experienced small-scale mining and trading activities of these immigrants, was selected for the study.

The next stage comprised the techniques employed to obtain the actual interviewees from among the groups specified. Again, the purposive sampling technique was used to identify key persons based on high rankings or positions in the respective organizations. For instance, at the Ministry of Trade and Industry and Ghana Investment Promotion Centre, the study made first contact with the officers in the capacity of Director. Depending on the availability or existence of special units and officers who had insightful perspectives on the interests of this study, the focus was reoriented to such special units or officers. Thus, where this reorientation occurred, the next stage of the sampling process – snowball sampling – was brought into effect until the person to grant an interview was finally settled on.

By the purposive sampling technique, we obtained data from the Director of Research at the Ghana Investment Promotion Centre, and an Officer-In-Charge of Operations at the Ministry of Trade and Industry. By the same token, interviews from the following members of the Datano community were conducted: the President of the Association of Farmers, a Chief Farmer, a chief (a traditional leader), and assemblyman. In coming out with the list of officers to interview, our initial contact with officials from the Ghana Police Service, Ghana Immigration Service, Ghana Union of Traders Association, and Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly revealed that there were certain officers who are in a
better position to give the kind of information about immigrants and their activities being sought in this study. Therefore, we were redirected to contact the appropriate officers. By following such directions, snowball effect took form in this study. By snowballing, we acquired interview data from a Special Taskforce Officer of the Ghana Police Service and Ghana Immigration Service, a Secretary of the Ghana Union of Traders Association, the Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, and finally a Development Officer of the Accra Metropolitan Assembly.

Seven state agencies, namely, the Ministry of Trade and Industry, GIPC, GUTA, Ghana Police Service, Ghana Immigration Service, Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, and Accra Metropolitan Assembly were selected. The reasons for which they were selected are in the subsequent sections:

3.7.1 Ghana Police Service and Ghana Immigration Service

The Ghana Police Service and Ghana Immigration Service are both security agencies. The Ghana Police Service is, generally, to maintain law and order, while the Ghana Immigration Service primarily regulates the movement of immigrants. Officers in these security agencies, due to their duty, know much about the security details pertaining to areas in which Nigerians and Chinese immigrants in Ghana are situated.

3.7.2 SMEs Association (GUTA)

The study identified the key association of SMEs in Ghana as the Ghana Union of Traders Association (GUTA). It was highly probable that executives of GUTA in the Greater Accra and Ashanti regions would be abreast with the concerns of the
businessmen they represent, and this includes SME operators and views on immigrant businesses.

3.7.3 Ministry of Trade and Industry, GIPC, KMA and AMA

The Ministry of Trade and Industry and GIPC have functions that converge in creating an environment that promotes and encourages investment and economic development in Ghana. Key officers in these agencies are knowledgeable in the business terrain of Ghana and where Ghana’s interests lie as far as foreign investments are concerned. As local government agencies, the KMA and AMA are also government representatives at the local level and are concerned with the issues concerning the interests and needs of the local people.

In addition to these state agencies, the local or traditional farming settlement was also considered. Datano in the Ashanti Region was important for its attraction of attention in hosting immigrants, notably, Chinese in the mining sector. Views from chiefs who are custodians of the land and opinion leaders (local representatives of the government) helped in understanding the security issue posed by the Nigerian and Chinese immigrant businesses in Ghana.

In each of the agencies, either purposive or a combination of purposive and snowball sampling was adopted to obtain interviews from key informants. The snowball approach essentially involved following directives from departmental officers in the institutions as to the persons who are in a better capacity to respond to questions in the study. A chief of
Datano, President of the Association of Farmers in Datano, a chief farmer of Datano, and an Assemblyman of Datano were also purposively selected as key informants.

Altogether, 11 key informants were covered for qualitative data. Below is the list of the key informants, including number contacted and place of contact is as reported below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Key informants</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Datano</td>
<td>President of the Association of farmers in Datano, chief farmer at Datano, Chief of Datano, and Assemblyman</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Trade and Industry</td>
<td>Officer In-charge of Operations</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GIPC</td>
<td>Director of Research</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GUTA</td>
<td>Secretary of GUTA</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana Police Service</td>
<td>Special Taskforce Officer</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana Immigration Service</td>
<td>Special Taskforce Officer</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly</td>
<td>Secretary</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accra Metropolitan Assembly</td>
<td>Development Officer</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>11</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.7.4 In-depth Interview

It is emphasized that an interview needs to be reliable and valid (Gray, 2009). To ensure reliability and validity of the interview instrument, the following processes were adopted. Firstly, a semi-structured interview guide was designed to contain questions in relation to
the study objectives to ensure that questions were, as much as possible, kept within the parameters of the study. Secondly, the semi-structured interview guide promoted the consistency and order of questions that each respondent answered so that it enhances the reliability of the instrument. Thirdly, the interview guide was not completed until it had been reviewed by supervisors and guaranteed of its validity and reliability. The interviews were conducted to supplement the questionnaire and to overcome the weaknesses of the questionnaire. An interview has some advantages over a questionnaire and may include allowing the participants the opportunity to ask for clarification when they do not understand a question just as the interviewer can ask for an elaboration of answers given by the interviewee. Furthermore, there is the guarantee that all questions would be answered; or, at least, an attempt is made by the interviewee (once he/she can allow enough time for the interview). This ensures a high response rate, which was the case in this study (Freebody, 2003).

Different sets of interview guides were designed (see Appendix 2) and administered separately to different institutions (GUTA, Ghana Police Service, Ghana Immigration Service, Ministry of Trade, GIPC, AMA and communities within which Nigerians and Chinese immigrants operate businesses). The interviews were conducted from May 15 to July 22, 2017. The interviews were held concurrently over this period with periodic visits to the study area. The interviews were recorded with the aid of a voice recorder.

3.7.5 Qualitative Data Analysis Procedure
Since two different kinds of data, quantitative and qualitative data, were obtained for this study, the data analysis involved a procedure that would juxtapose the results from the
quantitative data with the findings from the qualitative data. Therefore, the two kinds of data were used corroboratively. This was done systematically; first, by analyzing the quantitative data, and then the qualitative data were used to corroborate it.

The voice recorded interviews were, first, transcribed to produce a text-based version for the analysis. The qualitative data analysis comprised systematic thematic analysis and deductive reasoning to draw information out of the interview data obtained in the study. The views, thoughts, opinions, among others, in the interview data were reorganized under the study objectives that they addressed. The themes emerging from the interview data were used to determine which specific objective was being addressed at a given point. This was done in a systematic way without losing the link between what has been mentioned in the data and the interviewee who mentioned it. Table 3.8 gives a summarized view of the themes that emerged from the data and under which objective they were placed to form the plan for the analysis of qualitative data.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>Objective 1</th>
<th>Objective 2</th>
<th>Objective 3</th>
<th>Objective 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main themes</strong></td>
<td><strong>Entry of Immigrants</strong></td>
<td><strong>Nature of Immigrant Businesses</strong></td>
<td><strong>Factors inducing Immigrants into Business</strong></td>
<td><strong>Effect of Immigrants' Businesses</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewee 1</td>
<td>Nigerians are ECOWAS nationals;</td>
<td>Retailing; competing with Ghanaians</td>
<td>Financial ease</td>
<td>Banks prefer to offer loans to Nigerians and Chinese; Landlords are illegally renting their shops to these foreign traders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewee 2</td>
<td>ECOWAS nationals; Chinese come by flight</td>
<td>Retailing and services; Excess of noncompliance creates the problem; They are armed with documents</td>
<td>Taste for foreign goods</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewee 3</td>
<td>Bad borders around the country; Nigerians and some Chinese use unapproved routes; border residents.</td>
<td>Nigerians in shops selling mobile phones; Displeased with immigrant businesses; Compete with them.</td>
<td>Little monetary capital.</td>
<td>They are killing us.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewee 4</td>
<td>Chinese; difficult without a flight</td>
<td>Nigerians dominate Chinese in retailing; Immigrants do not want to pay taxes or register their businesses</td>
<td>Monitoring has been difficult</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewee 5</td>
<td>Chinese use approved routes</td>
<td>Service and trading; we generate revenue from traders and shop operators</td>
<td>Immigrant businesses are able to pay taxes and facility use</td>
<td>The Chinese affect profits of local businesses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewee 6</td>
<td>Nigerians come by road through ECOWAS; border residents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewee 7</td>
<td>By Togo-Ghana border; border</td>
<td></td>
<td>Marriage between Ghanaians and Nigerians</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

112
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>communities</th>
<th>among immigrants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Chinese miners</td>
<td>Galamsey has affected all our lands in this community; Lands have been taken over by galamseyers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>Chinese are not helping us; they are destroying the environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Chinese in mining</td>
<td>Galamsey is destroying our lands and waterbodies; Constant fighting with the Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Small-scale mining</td>
<td>I may not be able to farm on my land; feeding is now a problem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Field Work, 2017

The words and expressions in Table 3.8 were used as codes to link us to what an interviewee stated at any point, which were duly factored into the analysis. Exemplary quotes were drawn from the interview data to give evidence to a claim throughout the qualitative analysis in this study.

### 3.8 Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues were addressed in this study and they included informed consent, access and acceptance, and confidentiality and anonymity. We informed all the participants of the objectives of the study, and that participation in this study was optional and they were not under any compulsion (Robson, 1993).

Regarding access and acceptance (Bell, 1991), the consent of all participants, institutions and organizations involved in the study was sought for. A prior introductory letter seeking access to conduct interviews was sent to all the organizations involved. The
institutions or participants gave approval of their willingness to participate in the study before data collection activities took place.

Confidentiality and anonymity were critical ethical issues in this research. In recognition of the ethical requirement that information obtained from, or about, a participant during research should be treated confidentially; no part of the original data provided by the participants in this study was disclosed to any third party. Where informants have provided information considered to be potentially injurious to them or others when disclosed, such information was used with great caution and in a manner that would not be linked to their providers. To achieve anonymity of the data gathered from respondents in the household survey, personal data such as names and addresses of householders who answered the questionnaires were left out in the design of the instruments. It was therefore impossible for anybody to trace any information to a householder or participant. In presenting the interview data, the actual names of participants and their settings have been changed to make it impossible to identify those who provided the information. In the case of officials or experts who provided ‘potentially injurious’ information, these have been presented in a manner that does not allow anyone to trace the information to their providers.

3.9 Limitations of the Study

There were a few limitations to the study. In the first place, it was difficult to ascertain the truthfulness of information provided by the respondents, especially in the questionnaire administration. This is a challenge with any primary data collection and
this study may not be an exception. For example, in Ghana most SME operators do not want to disclose true information about their business activities for fear of taxation.

The study was about Nigerian and Chinese immigrant businesses but due to difficulty in accessing these immigrants, particularly for a study of this nature, it was found to be more plausible not to use them as respondents. There is the phenomenon whereby these immigrants deliberately refuse to give out information about their activities because they would be exposing themselves if they did that. Also, it was difficult to identify Nigerian and Chinese business operators and the few that were identified declined to participate in the study. For these reasons, perceptions of indigenous SME operators were used as a proxy to, perhaps, come as closely to the realities on the ground as possible. Still, it was difficult to say that the perceptions of indigenous SME operators reflect the situation accurately. To mitigate the tendency of these misrepresentations, the study stuck cautiously to perceptions of SME operators, and consistently used the term “perceptions” or “as perceived by” in a large part of the findings, especially, where omitting either term would result in failure to report the findings as perceptions of indigenous SME operators.

Another limitation of the study is about the geographical scope of the study. The study was delimited to Ashanti and Greater Accra regions due to financial and time constraints. Ghana has ten regions and two regions may not be a fair representation of the country and this may affect the generalization of this study. But the subject matter under investigation is not relevant to some of the regions that were not included.

Cognizance was taken of these limitations and steps were taken to overcome them. Assurance was given to all the participants of strict confidentiality and the purpose of the
study was explained to them. This assurance motivated most of the SME operators to participate in the study willingly, suggesting that any information provided by them had a high degree of accuracy and reliability. Key stakeholders were selected from the selected study areas. This means that data for this study emanated from a number of sources, ensuring triangulation. This study can therefore reflect actual Ghanaian perceptions of Nigerian and Chinese business activities in Ghana.
CHAPTER FOUR

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS AND DESCRIPTION OF KEY INFORMANTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. In addition, the characteristics of the SMEs sampled for the study are also described. There is also a description of the key informants engaged in the study.

4.2 Characteristics of Respondents in the Study

The respondents in this study can be looked at from multiple dimensions. There were the indigenous SME operators and individuals identified as key informants from relevant state agencies mandated to manage or regulate the movements and activities of immigrants in Ghana. This section focused on the sex, age, educational level, marital status, religious affiliation and the nature of the businesses of the indigenous Ghanaian SME operators. The socio-demographic characteristics of SME operators are crucial in policy formulation to enhance development of indigenous Ghanaian SMEs for socio-economic development. For example, distribution of sex, age and educational status are critical factors to consider in policy formations within the SME sub-sector so that appropriate policies can be adopted for the various sub-groups of the SME operators. The findings are as described below.
4.2.1 Sex Distribution of the SME Operators

Most of the SME operators (65.5 percent) were males. Disaggregating them according to region, there were a little more males in the Ashanti Region (69.9 percent) than in the Greater Accra Region (61.2 percent). Females constituted 34.5 percent of the SME operators. The results revealed a male dominance among the SME operators. Generally, males enter the SME sector compared to females as they have more financial resources required for operating SMEs (King, 1999). Females’ participation in SMEs in the study areas was quite low, suggesting that females need more support to be able to increase their participation in the sector. It is important to emphasize that females’ participation is crucial for social development.

4.2.2 Age Distribution of the SME Operators

In Ghana, individuals aged 18 years or above are constitutionally regarded as adults and are responsible for their lives. Due to this reason, many of the SME operators can be expected to be above that age. The results emerged to tell a certain story about the age of SME operators; there were significant differences in age of the SME operators depending on which of the two regions – Greater Accra or Ashanti – that they were coming from (Pearson’s Chi Square = 25.631; p<0.05). The highest percentage of the SME operators (34.8 percent) covered those in the 30 to 34 years category (Table 4.1). The SME operators from the Greater Accra and Ashanti regions in this age category represented 28.8 percent and 40.9 percent respectively. The SME operators aged 35 to 39 years (31.3 percent) constituted the second largest age category. The SME operators in this age category from the Greater Accra and Ashanti regions were 37.3 percent and 25.3 percent respectively. The SME operators aged 25 to 29 years comprised 19.2 percent. In the
Greater Accra Region, they represented 20.6 percent of the SME operators while they constituted 17.8 percent of the SME operators in the Ashanti Region.

Majority of the SME operators (about 87 percent) were youthful and were under 40 years. The proportions of the SME operators reduced drastically from age group 40-44 who constituted 6.3 percent of the sample, decreased further to 5.4 percent in the 45-49 age group and to as little as 1.4 percent in the oldest age group (50 and above). But there is a trend whereby a lot more of the elderly in the Ashanti Region are running SMEs than their counterparts in the Greater Accra Region. While those in the age group 40-44 in the Greater Accra Region made up 4.8 percent of their sample, in the Ashanti Region they constituted 7.8 percent of the sample there. The SME operators in the age group 45-49, who constituted 5.3 percent of the sample in the Greater Accra, constituted 5.5 percent of the sample in the Ashanti Region. The proportion of SME operators in the age of 50 years and above, albeit small, formed 2.8 percent of the sample in the Ashanti Region, as against naught in the Greater Accra Region (See Table 4.1). Table 4.1 gives the details.
Table 4.1: Age Distribution of the SME Operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age (years)</th>
<th>Greater Accra</th>
<th>Ashanti</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;25</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 +</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total %</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total respondents: 399 Greater Accra, 399 Ashanti, 798 Total

Pearson Chi Sq. = 25.631; df=4; p=0.041

Source: Field Work (2017)

4.2.3 Distribution of the SME Operators by Educational Status

The highest percentage (37 percent) of the SMEs represented those with Secondary School (SHS/SSS) level of education (Table 4.2). An interesting part of the results is that, level of the education of the SME operators differed significantly across the two regions (Pearson’s Chi Square = 29.311; p<0.05). By region, the Greater Accra and Ashanti regions, respectively, have 32.6 percent and 41.4 percent of the SME operators having the SHS/SSS level of education, with the SME operators in the Ashanti Region leading in terms of having SHS/SSS level of education. This group was immediately followed by 35.2 percent of the SME operators who have Middle/JSS level of education. Again, by region, the Greater Accra Region was outpaced by the Ashanti Region with 34.6 percent to 36.1 percent of the SME operators, respectively, having schooled up to Middle/JSS level of education. These figures relate with census figures of 23.7 percent for JSS/JHS
and 14.1 percent for SSS/SHS for Greater Accra and 26.2 percent for JSS/JHS and 11.5 percent for SSS/SHS in the Ashanti Region (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012b). Additionally, the proportion of people with tertiary level of education in the Greater Accra Region pegged at 10.3 percent of the population of the region. This was 11 percent among the SME operators sampled in this study from the Greater Accra Region, and is far higher than 3.5 percent of the SME operators in the Ashanti Region who were found to have tertiary level of education. The SME operators in the Greater Accra Region, although with considerable proportion without formal education, have a relatively higher educational status than those in the Ashanti Region the general population in the two regions (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Distribution of the SME Operators by Educational Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational status</th>
<th>Greater Accra</th>
<th>Ashanti</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No education</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle/JSS/JHS</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>35.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary/SSS/SHS</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>37.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial/Voc./Tech.</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University/Tertiary</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total %</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total respondents 399 399 798

Pearson Chi Sq. = 29.311; df=4; p=0.022

Source: Field Work (2017)
Education helps to broaden the horizon of individuals and expand their ability to better understand and evaluate issues as well as articulate views for societal integrity. In that case, low education would place a limit on how well people perform those functions. Grieco (1996) argues that acquiring formal education has not been a priority in the lives of small and medium entrepreneurs. Some found their way into business because their parents could not afford to pay for their formal education fees and they had to learn a trade informally or, as prevails in Accra or Kumasi, acquire a space for trading.

The SME operators, with the majority having SSS/SHS or Middle/JSS level of education, though participated in informal business, willingly participated in this study, delving into their perceptions of immigrants’ businesses in the two study areas (the Ashanti and Greater Accra regions). On how and why Nigerian and Chinese immigrants migrate to Ghana, and to do which businesses, and the security ramifications that arise therefrom based on the perceptions of indigenous SME operators.

### 4.2.4 Marital Status of the SME Operators

Out of the 781 respondents from both regions, 388 (48.9 percent) were married and 316 (39.8 percent) were never married. Married persons, especially males, may have a high sense of financial responsibility to propel them to seek livelihood opportunities. On the other hand, those never married may have eager expectations to raise the financial resources required to get married. A few of the respondents (3.5 percent) were in an informal/consensual marital relationship known in Ghana as ‘cohabitation’, where a man and a woman live together as spouses without having formal marital documentation. There were also 2.8 percent of the respondents who have separated from their spouses,
2.9 percent who have been widowed, and 2.3 percent who are divorces. The pattern above manifested itself in much the same way in the two regions (See Table 4.3).

**Table 4.3: Distribution of the SME Operators by Marital Status**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Greater Accra</th>
<th>Ashanti</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never married</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>40.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal/consensual</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>42.7</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>48.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Work (2017)

**4.2.5 Religious Affiliation of the SME Operators**

The religious affiliations of the respondents reveal that the majority (64.4 percent) of them were of Pentecostal/Charismatic denominations. Catholics represent 20.4 percent; Protestants constituted 8.4 percent; and those who identified with ‘no religion’ represented 4.1 percent of them. The lowest percentage (2.8 percent) of them were of the Islamic religion (See Table 4.4).
Table 4.4: Distribution of the SME Operators by Religious Affiliation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religious Affiliation</th>
<th>Greater Accra Per cent</th>
<th>Ashanti Per cent</th>
<th>Total Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No religion</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catholic</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protestant</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pentecostal/Charismatic</td>
<td>63.8</td>
<td>64.7</td>
<td>64.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>n=387</td>
<td>n=399</td>
<td>786</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Work, 2017

4.3 Characteristics of the Businesses of the SME Operators

The business profile of the Ghanaian SME operators selected for the study is shown in Figure 4.1. The results portrayed sole proprietorship as the predominant type of business ownership of the respondents. While 87.7 percent of the SME operators in Ashanti Region (Kumasi) ran a sole proprietorship, the figure was 82.9 percent in Accra. Only 17.1 percent of the SME operators in Accra operate by partnership. This percentage is reduced to 12.3 percent in the case of Ashanti Region.

In Accra, six out of every ten of the respondents are retailers (61.2 percent); and a lesser percentage was recorded in Kumasi (58.5 percent). Wholesale business operators represented a little more than a quarter of the respondents in Accra (25.5 percent); and in Kumasi (23.4 percent), they are less than a quarter. Likewise, the percentage of SME operators in manufacturing is greater in Accra (8.1 percent) than in Kumasi (6.2 percent), and they represented small percentages of the SME operators in both regions. But SME operators involved in mining constituted a higher percentage (8.4 percent) in Kumasi.
than in Accra (0.5 percent), and even higher than those in manufacturing in both regions (See Fig. 4.1).

**Figure 4.1: Business Profile of Respondents**

![Business Profile of Respondents](image)

**Source:** Field Work (2017)

Law-making bodies in Ghana, realizing that a whole lot of local people were participated in retail businesses, felt it was critical to enact laws that not only ensured orderliness in how those businesses are operated, but to protect the local businessmen. The GIPC Act, 2013 (Act 865), section 27 was meant to prohibit foreign entry into retail business activities to protect Ghanaian business men and women from undue foreign competition. The prohibited businesses include, inter alia, printing of recharge scratch cards for use by subscribers of telecommunication services; production of exercise books and other basic
stationery; retail of finished pharmaceutical products; production, supply and retail of sachet water; and all aspects of the pool betting business and lotteries and small-scale mining (Ghana Investment Promotion Act, 2013). Thus, the locally owned retail businesses as well as small-scale mining businesses, perhaps, enjoy the protection given by this GIPC Act.

**4.4 Characteristics of Key Informants in the Study**

This study might stir not only legal, business and environmental concerns, but also expert insight into the phenomenon of immigrants operating businesses in Ghana. The Nigerians and Chinese’s business activities invite critical attention and deliberations. In that mix, the position remarks, views and sentiments from some state institutions seem vital. Insight was drawn from officials of the Ministry of Trade, Ghana Police Service, Ghana Immigration Service, Ghana Union of Traders’ Association (GUTA), Ghana Investment Promotion Centre (GIPC), Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, Accra Metropolitan Assembly, and Ghana Labour Commission. One interviewee from each of these state institutions provided expert information on the issues of inquiry in this study. Additionally, from Datano, an area predominantly rural in the Ashanti Region which formed part of this study, the President of the Association of Farmers, the Chief Farmer, an Assemblyman, and a substantive Chief were interviewees in this study. All the interviewees were engaged to give answers to questions posed in this study, which include: how do local SME operators perceive Nigerian and Chinese immigrants migrating to Ghana to participate in retail trade or small-scale mining? What is the nature of the businesses that Nigerian and Chinese immigrants operate in Ghana as perceived by local SME operators? What is perceived by local SME operators as the motivation for the
Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to participate in retail trade or small-scale mining in Ghana? Finally, what are the effects of their participation in retail trade or small-scale mining on economic and environmental security in Ghana as perceived by local SME operators?

The interviewees were well-suited for the study because of the important functions performed by the institutions in which they worked. This provided good support to the idea that the interviewees had some useful information about immigrants in Ghana. We therefore discuss the fundamental characteristics of these institutions in respect of this study.

4.4.1 Ministry of Trade and Industry

Views from the Ministry of Trade and Industry was relevant because the Ministry is, among other things, to formulate and harmonize policies that will ensure inter-sectoral collaboration in the implementation of trade and industrial policies both at national and global levels, facilitate the development of production base and expansion of cross-border trade, and develop standards and quality systems to meet production requirements for local and international markets (Ministry of Trade and Industry, 2012). The collection of functions of the Ministry in this regard obviously makes issues of immigrants and their businesses in the country a very important matter to the Ministry. Therefore, the Officer-In-Charge of Operations at the Ministry of Trade and Industry made informed contributions to the study.
4.4.2 Ghana Police Service

Functionally located under the Ministry of the Interior, the Ghana Police Service, with legal backing from the Ghana Police Service Act, 1970 (Act 350), is mandated to provide an enabling environment for commerce through the maintenance of law and order as well as the arrest and prosecution of people who fall foul of the laws. This mandate of the Ghana Police Service even predates the independence of Ghana, but through the laws of Ghana has been made an absolute function of the service. As it were, the police are to prevent and detect crime, apprehend and prosecute offenders, maintain law and order, and protect life and property (Ministry of the Interior, 2017). The role of the police is, therefore, instrumental in ensuring that the actions of immigrants in general conforms to the laws of Ghana, and where necessary, take steps to address contraventions of rules in accordance with the laws and statutes of the state. The police often join forces with the Ghana Immigration Service and other state agencies to monitor movement and activities of immigrants to prevent crime and arrest culprits. A police officer, who was a representative of the police in their collaborative engagements with other state agencies to form a Special Taskforce Office for immigration, participated in this study.

4.4.3 Ghana Immigration Service

The interview involved a Special Taskforce Officer from the Ghana Immigration Service. The involvement of this officer contributed views from the dimension of the Ghana Immigration Service as part of the qualitative information in this study. Ghana Immigration Service is also a state agency, like the Ghana Police Service, under the Ministry of the Interior. The Ghana Immigration Service regulates and examines the authorization of application for visas, entry and residence permits in Ghana (Ghana
Immigration Service, 2017). Empowered by the Immigration Act, 2000 (Act 573), the Ghana Immigration Service is mandated to handle issues that relate to the country’s dealings with non-citizens. In that regard, the Ghana Immigration Service is responsible for creating environments conducive for the population by establishing regulatory frameworks that facilitate the entry, residence and employment of foreigners in Ghana. Also, Ghana Immigration Service is required to promote socio-cultural and economic development, which would be the result of their clear segmentation of tourism, foreign direct investments, international business and technological transfer and dealing with their related issues that impact on national security. The Ghana Immigration Service plays an important role in directing and educating foreigners on their passport application process that would be issued to them by the Passport Office, which is under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Regional Integration (Ghana Immigration Service, 2017).

4.4.4 Ghana Investment Promotion Centre

A Director of Research of the Ghana Investment Promotion Centre (GIPC) was engaged to provide insight into the business dealings of immigrants, particularly Nigerians and Chinese, in Ghana. The GIPC is a state institution with the responsibility under the GIPC Act, 2013 (Act 865) to encourage and promote investments in Ghana, provide for the creation of an attractive incentive framework and a transparent, predictable and facilitating environment for investments in Ghana. This agency tries to collect, collate, analyse and disseminate information about investment opportunities and sources of investment capital, incentives available to investors, the investment climate and advise investors, upon request, of the availability, choice or suitability of partners in joint venture projects (GIPC, 2017). This orientation of GIPC makes it a vital institution in the
discourse on establishment of foreign businesses in Ghana. A perspective from this institution was therefore thought to be relevant in this study.

4.4.5 Ghana Union of Trade Associations (GUTA), AMA and KMA

GUTA is an association of businessmen and women who believe that their voice on business affairs must be heard by institutions and authorities. To promote their business interests, this association has been instrumental in bringing government’s attention to the challenges of local businessmen.

The Secretary of the Operations Division of the Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly (KMA) participated in this study as a key informant. KMA, like all other local assemblies in Ghana, is responsible for the local governance or administration within its jurisdiction. This includes giving permits to businesses to operate. KMA, therefore, have an upper hand in obtaining key information about businesses, including immigrant businesses. This points to the relevance of the institution, which informed their inclusion in the study. This consideration was not different in the choice of a participant in this study from the Accra Metropolitan Assembly (AMA).

Although the core functions and relevance of AMA and KMA in this study are not very different, it was the Development Officer who was engaged in this study from the AMA. Again, the location of this individual in the AMA serves as a factor that could positively affect the value of information that is created in this study.
4.4.6 President of Association of Farmers, Chief Farmer, Assemblyman, and Chief of Datano

Datano of the Amansie West District was one of the two study areas explored in the Ashanti Region. The President of the Association of Farmers, Chief Farmer, Assemblyman, and the Chief of the area formed part of this study. They were relevant in this study because their experiences and collective concerns of the people in their community would be known to them.

4.5 Conclusions

This chapter described the socio-demographic characteristics of the SME operators sampled for the study and their business. Males dominated the SME operators’ businesses in both Ashanti and Greater Accra regions. The SME operators sampled were youthful with the majority (87 percent) aged below 40 years. Level of educational among the SME operators was generally low with the highest percentage (37 percent) of them educated up to Senior High School (second cycle school). These characteristics of the SME operators indicate that they would want to take up business opportunities to better their circumstances. Generally, however, their low educational status may mean that they have limited ability to understand and demand what should be truly their right in the business terrain, particularly, when immigrant businessmen operate in their sphere of business. They may also have a low level of financial and managerial literacy within the sector.

Further, it emerged that the SME operators in the study mostly operate in sole proprietorship, retailer, and quite rarely wholesale, manufacturing or hospitality ventures. The results also showed that a large percentage of the SME operators were into small
scale mining in the Ashanti Region (Kumasi) compared to that of the Greater Accra Region. In the Greater Accra Region, apart from an apparent existence of salt mining toward the eastern part, mineral mining is almost non-existent, but there are mineral mining companies that have established their offices in Accra to make business easier for them.

Key informants engaged in the study enriched the sources of data made available to this study. Interviewees were sourced from key state institutions. There were also chiefs and opinion leaders from the traditional settings in Datano in the Amansie West District. The views and opinions contributed by these interviewees emerged from their backgrounds as experienced officers of the key state institutions and people with valuable experiences pertaining to the critical questions about immigrants in their society. Chiefs are custodians of the land and this has implications for ownership of landed property and land use, for instance, in mining activities. An assemblyman from the community also brings the perspective of local government and the representation of the aspirations of the local people. All these sources provided the data to answer the question of how Nigerian and Chinese immigrants migrate to Ghana to participate in business activities. These sources also provided data on the businesses that the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants. We also tried to assess the motivations of Nigerians and Chinese immigrants to participate in prohibited businesses in Ghana, and ultimately, the effect of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ involvement in businesses restricted from immigrants on both economic and environmental security.
CHAPTER FIVE

PERCEPTIONS ON MOVEMENT TO GHANA

5.1 Introduction

Although the Nigerian and Chinese immigrant businesses in Ghana have been contributing to the country’s economy in many ways, in recent times, the immigrants’ business activities have generated opposition from local business men and women. In spite of legal attempts to bring the situation under control, the tension has persisted. This calls for a study into the activities of the immigrants and answers to questions about how they move to Ghana in the first place.

This chapter answers objective one, which seeks to examine how Nigerian and Chinese immigrants migrate to Ghana to participate in businesses restricted from immigrants, as perceived by the SME operators. The presentations and discussions are based on three primary sources, namely responses from the questionnaire, responses from interviewees and field observations. To ensure that the findings are well triangulated, facts from secondary sources, such as news items from the media, articles, and information resources from related studies, have been added throughout the analysis depending on how such material consolidates or validates the findings. The qualitative data were organized in themes related to how Nigerian and Chinese immigrants migrate to Ghana. Exemplary quotes were taken from the interview data to collaborate with the findings.

The findings are in response to the first critical question posed in the study, which is: how do Nigerian and Chinese immigrants migrate to Ghana? To exhaust the question, the key points are to find out whether there are known routes of entry into Ghana by these
immigrants, and whether there are actors who assist these immigrants in their bid to enter the country.

5.2 Perceived Routes of Entry into Ghana by Nigerian and Chinese Immigrants

From the perspective of the SME operators sampled across the two regions, Ashanti and Greater Accra, official routes were most often used by both Nigerian and Chinese immigrants when they migrated to Ghana. The results from the data indicate that 60.4 percent and 79.9 percent of SME operators perceived that Nigerians and Chinese, respectively, migrated to Ghana by official routes. This puts the Chinese ahead of Nigerian immigrants in terms of how much they are perceived to use official routes of entry into Ghana. By ‘official routes’, we refer to the three borders and ‘by air’ and ‘by sea’ through which one can migrate to Ghana. These routes include the Ghana-Togo border, Ghana-Ivory Coast border, Ghana-Burkina Faso boarder, Kotoka International Airport and official sea ports. We regard anything outside of these as unofficial routes. In fact, not less than three out of every ten SME operators (32.7 percent) perceived that Nigerians use unofficial routes to move to Ghana while only two out of every ten SME operators believed Chinese used unofficial routes. The Nigerians made use of one provision available to them in entering Ghana, as indicated by 6.9 percent of the SME operators, and this is through the ECOWAS free movement which allows free entry and residence ECOWAS nationals. This was not applicable to the Chinese immigrants (See Figure 5.1).
Looking at the routes of entry into Ghana from the perspective of the interviewees, a special taskforce officer of the Ghana Immigration Service pointed out a role that the Ghana Immigration Service plays in ensuring that immigrants use approved routes of entry into Ghana by stating:

“Chinese are required to come with a visa and they will get it from our mission in their country, or apply for a visa on arrival here” (Interview, May 2, 2017, Accra).

Contrasting this with the case of Nigerian immigrants, the interviewee mentioned:

“Nigerians are ECOWAS nationals and do not need a visa to move to Ghana. They only need to arrive at the entry point for an arrival stamp to indicate that they have entered the country, and ECOWAS allows that they stay for ninety days and do whatever is legitimate that they want and then leave” (Interview, May 2, 2017).
The idea that Nigerian immigrants, due to their proximity to Ghana, had the advantage of easy access to Ghana over the Chinese is, therefore, confirmed. The Chinese must legitimately use immigrant visas issued to them by Ghana’s mission in their country, or visas issued them upon arrival in Ghana. Because of this, the majority of Chinese immigrants use the official routes to migrate to Ghana. The issuing of visas in Ghana to immigrants is confirmed to be the prerogative of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Regional Integration (Ministry of the Interior, 2017). Succinctly illustrating this view, a statement by the special taskforce officer indicated:

“For the Chinese, they come by flight and it is difficult for a flight to enter the country through an unapproved route” (Interview, May 2, 2017, Accra).

Although Nigerians had the advantage of easy access to Ghana through official means over the Chinese, Nigerian immigrants were perceived to apply unofficial routes more so than the Chinese. In explaining why this happened, an interviewee said:

“For the Nigerians, some come by road and when they get to Togo, the unapproved routes are there [on the Ghana-Togo border]. Even though we have officers [from Ghana] manning there, it is challenging” [as remarked by the special taskforce officer of the Ghana Immigration Service] (Interview, May 2, 2017, Accra).

There have been reports about the way Ghana’s borders have become notorious for irregularities. Modern Ghana (2012) and GhanaWeb (2012) recount how crossing the Togo-Ghana border illegally was made easy just by bribing border officers with at least GH₵ 25. Due to the existence of irregular entries along the border, Graphic Online (2013) reported that border security personnel often had joint patrols as a measure to manage the irregularities. There were several entry points into Ghana described as
artificial openings from Beat 0 to 13 in the security wire mesh constructed by the Togolese government. These were used by smugglers and others as access to and from the two countries (Graphic Online, 2013). A section of the report revealed from some border residents in Ghana that illegal travelers who cross the border were normally aided by security personnel cutting the wire to pass through.

Flynn (1997) makes an important observation that, cross-border communities pave the way for residents to take advantage of opportunities for petty smuggling and illicit trading. By these developments people evade security protocols along the border. The differences in the look between most West African nationals cannot be easily made out and so some Nigerians are easily identified as Ghanaians and are treated as such on many occasions; and this facilitates their entry into Ghana.

In furtherance of the existence of unofficial routes that Nigerian immigrants were perceived to have used in entering Ghana, another interviewee, a police special taskforce officer, remarked that there are loopholes along the borders that aid some Nigerian immigrants to migrate to Ghana. He said:

“…Ghana as an under-developed country has porous borders so we have unapproved routes which people use if care is not taken…Example, on Ghana-Ivory Coast boarder we have Kakusoasu, Apulenu and New Town Wharf around Assini, and Jeway Wharf boarder. On Ghana-Togo boarder, we have beat 0, 3, 4, 6, 7, 10, 11, 13 and pillar 4. Totama Casablaca, Thirdman Sovepe are also unapproved routes at the Aflao boarder. The Ghana-Burkina Faso boarder has Manyoro, Kayoro, Sirigu, Namoo and Nakolo as unapproved routes. But there are border patrols so it is a bit difficult to beat immigration” (Interview, May 10, 2017, Accra).

Thus, from this study we can identify Beat 0, 3, 4, 6, 7, 10, 11, 13, and pillar 4 on the Ghana-Togo border as unofficial routes plied by some immigrants to Ghana. Not only
that, but there are also entry points at Kakusoasu, Apulenu, New Town Wharf, and Jeway Wharf on the Ghana-Ivory Coast border. On the Ghana-Burkina Faso border, there are the Manyoro, Kayoro, Sirigu, Namoo and Nakolo unapproved routes. Folami and Naylor (2017) pointed out that security activities along West African borders, such as police patrols, have not been researched. Consequently, there is extremely limited literature on this area. A graphic view of some of the sites that were accessed during the study is presented in Figures 5.2, and 5.3.

Figure 5.2 reveals another observation on the Ghana-Togo border at ‘Beat 0’. We can see from Figure 5.2 the wired fence as an indication of the border between Ghana and Togo. There are some border residents who assist immigrants to and from Ghana through the unapproved route (Beat 0) on the Ghana-Togo border. The motor-bicycle in view represents one of the means through which the residents along the border transport the immigrants. We find that these residents lift a cut portion of the wired fence to enable illegal passage.
On the Ghana-Ivory Coast border, we also observed an illegal entry point for immigrants at Jeway Wharf (Figure 5.3). The observation was made on a rainy day. Behind the people in Figure 5.3 is the lagoon that demarcates the border between Ghana and Ivory Coast. Those carrying pans are traders from Ghana meeting some Ivorian traders at the shore of the lagoon. The means of transport for the immigrants into Ghana at this unapproved route is the canoe. The man in Figure 5.3 with the gun is an Immigration Officer manning the Jeway Wharf unapproved route. The results also showed that Ghana’s borders are not impervious to breach by immigrants, particularly from neighboring West African countries like Nigeria.
It would be difficult to track what the activities of those Nigerians would be in Ghana due to lack of records on their movements. The majority of both Nigerian and Chinese immigrants (67.3 percent and 79.7 percent respectively), however, plied official routes in entering Ghana. The Chinese immigrants are not generally known to ply unofficial routes to migrate to Ghana compared to the Nigerians.

5.3 Perceived Actors Contributing to Entry of Nigerian and Chinese Immigrants into Businesses restricted from immigrants

If certain Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to Ghana are successful in using illegal entry points, then it is important to explore which actors facilitate their movement. Again, if they used approved entry points, but came to do illegal business, then who might have contributed to their entry? These fundamental questions set the antecedents to identify
actors who contribute to the involvement of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants in illegal businesses.

Results obtained from the SME operators in the study showed that friends and family were perceived as the main actors who facilitated the movement of both Nigerian and Chinese immigrants into Ghana and into businesses reserved for Ghanaians. A comparatively higher percentage (38.7 percent) of the SME operators perceived that the Nigerian immigrants had their business activities facilitated by family and friends than the percentage (36.3 percent) who perceived so about the Chinese. The perception of the SME operators that the immigrants’ movement to Ghana is facilitated by traditional leaders is reported by 35.7 percent regarding the Chinese compared to 23.3 percent with respect to the Nigerians. Assistance from traditional leaders is viewed to be for the Chinese a higher percentage of the SME operators compared with those who think so concerning the Nigerians. The rest of the results showed the SME operators’ perceptions that Nigerian immigrants were facilitated by business partners (18.5 percent), government officials (7 percent), travel agents (4.6 percent), and security officers (3.3 percent), as against 7.3 percent, 9.3 percent, 6.8 percent, and 4.4 percent, respectively, regarding Chinese immigrants (See Figure 5.2).
The results thus show that more Nigerian immigrants’ entry into Ghana was perceived to be backed by family and friends, followed by business partners than there was for Chinese immigrants. This echoes the observation in some studies that family or friends are major actors in the immigration decisions of immigrants (Lunn & Steen, 2000; Tsui-Auch, 2005; Castles & Miller, 2003; Jordan & Duvell, 2003). For instance, the existence of family members or friends in Ghana gives an edge to many Nigerian immigrants to join those close relations. On the other hand, Chinese immigrants have a little bit more backing from traditional leaders in Ghana. This finding is crucial when we consider that Chinese immigrants are often involved in activities, such as mining, construction,
restaurant and manufacturing that require them to have access to land, as observed by Kohnert (2010) and Ho (2012). In Ghana, traditional leaders or chiefs are as custodians of the land, and they can give parcels of land to these immigrants according to how they deem it fit and permissible (Arko-Adjei, de Jong, Zevenbergen, & Tuladhan, 2010; Amanor, 2011). Traditional leaders, therefore, appear as actors, to many observers, that facilitate the entry of Chinese into Ghana.

It must be emphasized that the interview with a special taskforce officer of the Ghana Immigration Service revealed an important phenomenon – the activity of border residents. The interviewee referred to border residents as people who are permitted to travel within a radius of 5 kilometers at the border without inspection of any documents. Incidentally, however, these individuals are actors who facilitate immigrants to illegally cross the borders. In the explicit words of the interviewee, he said:

“...we call them border residents. They are permitted to travel within a radius of 5km at the border without documents by virtue of the fact that they are housed at the border and may have relatives on the other side. They are able to influence [illegal entry], and some have taken it on as a job to take travelers across through unapproved routes. There are even some who are middlemen whose interest is to protect these people using unapproved routes” (Interview, May 2, 2017, Accra).

This phenomenon is mainly about Nigerian immigrants being ECOWAS nationals while the Chinese immigrants are not. In making this distinction, and lamenting the difficulties involved in security officers’ task of dealing with the phenomenon, the interviewee added:

“For the Chinese because they are not closer to our borders it is difficult to aid any Chinese but when it comes to ECOWAS nationals, when they get to the nearby countries like Togo, they normally have facilitators
trying to outsmart our officers. We have the border patrols to patrol the borders. But you see, because of the porous nature of the borders, it makes it a little difficult. First, we were not using arms; it is now that the law has been passed and we are about to use them. It is dangerous to confront some of them [perpetrators]” (Interview, May 2, 2017, Accra).

Our observation at Aflao boarder revealed the reason why Nigerians are perceived to use the unapproved routes. Some immigrants, especially from Nigeria, use the unapproved route to smuggle items such as electrical gadgets, clothing, and computer accessories and video compact disks. Due to the limited number of the immigration officers at Aflao border most of these routes are not patrolled and the indigenous boarder residents assist foreign nationals to cross the border. They do not go through the proper process for crossing the border. Some immigration officers make arrests, but with some payment from the immigrants they are set free.

Again, we observed incidents at ‘Beat 0’ and ‘Beat 4’ (on the Ghana-Togo border), as well as Jeway Wharf (on the Ghana-Ivory Coast border) unapproved routes. These unapproved routes were being monitored by Ghana Immigration Service officers, but the place was porous to the extent that the officers’ strength would be outstretched in their attempt to manage the border effectively. At some point, we could spot only one officer manning not less than two sites. The foreigners who migrate to Ghana are assisted by the border residents. Jeway Wharf in Half-Assini is a busy town on Tuesdays and Saturdays being the market days in the area. Some of the business activities that take place on the market days are the selling offish, coconut oil, and food stuffs. During these market days, there is vast room for foreigners to take advantage and mix in with the traders and travel out of Ivory Coast into Ghana.
Sosuh (2011) noted that the Ghanaian borders are porous and many immigrants migrate to Ghana through unapproved routes. She added that this has resulted in increased criminal activity at the border. Xah (2010) noted that areas like Dabieso, Gono Krom, Kofi Badu, and Kwame Sei Krom are known to be the smuggling depots. Smuggling is manifested in a plain or concealed form (Sosuh, 2011). Aning (2006) observes that items smuggled into Ghana include cloth, cash crops, natural resources and arms.

Nigerian and Chinese immigrants are very conspicuous in Ghana (Kokutse, 2012). Bosiakoh (2009) noted that there are about two million Nigerian immigrants in Ghana, making them the dominant immigrants in the country. It is obvious from the above presentation that some Nigerians migrate to Ghana through unapproved border crossings, particularly on the Ghana-Togo border.

5.3 Conclusions

This chapter focused on how Nigerian and Chinese immigrants migrate to Ghana. This brought about two fundamental challenges, which were addressed in the chapter. The first was to find which routes were plied by the immigrants, and the second was to inquire who are the actors, if any, that facilitate these immigrants’ movement into Ghana.

In response to the first challenge, it had been made clear that Ghana as a country has prescribed routes of entry, known in this study as approved routes, through which international migration is facilitated. Ghana-Togo border, Ghana-Burkina border, and Ghana-Ivory Coast borders have specific locations known as approved routes. Additionally, there is travel by air and by sea, also constituting official routes.
However, aside the approved routes that were used by the immigrants, notably by
Chinese immigrants, there is perception that some Nigerian and Chinese immigrants
migrate to Ghana through unapproved routes. The unapproved routes identified include
Kakusoasu, Apulenu and New Town around Jeway Wharf on the Ghana-Ivory Coast
border. The unapproved routes on the Ghana-Togo border were beats 0, 3, 4, 6, 7, 10, 11,
13 and pillar 4. On the Ghana-Burkina Faso border Manyoro, Kayoro, Sirigu, Namoo and
Nakolo were unapproved routes. The Nigerian immigrants were mostly perceived as
migrating to Ghana through the unapproved routes, notably on the Ghana-Togo border.
There were actors promoting illegal entry of the immigrants into Ghana. Family and
friends, and business partners were the main facilitators of Nigerian immigrants as
perceived by the SME operators. On the other hand, Chinese immigrants’ activities were
perceived as mainly facilitated by traditional leaders as the traditional leaders have
interest in selling land and other resources that some Chinese are interested to buy to
operate their business. Not only that, but some Nigerians and Chinese immigrants are
assisted by border residents who offer their services for payment. All these happen as a
backdrop of the porous border system and inability of some immigration officers to
enforce immigration regulations in Ghana. Still, the existence of a porous border appears
to betray and make more plausible the undertones of corruption with some immigration
officers or state officials to facilitate the illegal entry of these immigrants. They are not
adequately equipped to do so.
6.1 Introduction

This chapter is on the perspectives of SME operators and key informants, as well as field observations, the nature or essential characteristics of the business ventures of the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants in Ghana. As previously indicated, data from SME operators in the Ashanti and Greater Accra regions of Ghana were garnered, and were used in this chapter. The chapter also benefited from information from experiences of key informants regarding the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ participation in business activities in Ghana.

Following the discussion on how Nigerian and Chinese immigrants migrate to Ghana from the previous chapter, this chapter discusses the categories of their businesses and the security implications. Specifically, the chapter addresses the second and third research questions posed in the study, which are: 1. What categories of businesses are the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants are involved in? and 2. What motivates the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to participate in businesses reserved for Ghanaians in Ghana?

6.2 The Nature of Nigerian and Chinese Businesses in Ghana as perceived by the SME Operators

This section is on how Nigerian and Chinese businesses were categorized by the SME operators and their registration statuses, among other things.
6.2.1 Categorization of Nigerian and Chinese Immigrants’ Businesses in Ghana based on Perceptions of the SME Operators

Data from 798 SME operators in the Ashanti and Greater Accra regions of Ghana revealed that Nigerian and Chinese immigrants were stakeholders in the business environment in Ghana. They were perceived to be participated in retail, wholesale, manufacturing, restaurant, and mining businesses.

Specifically, for more than half (61.0 percent) of all the SME operators in the study perceived that Nigerian immigrants were participating in retail businesses. In contrast with that, 44.4 percent of the SME operators were of the view that Chinese immigrants were retailing. Nearly three out of every ten (29.6 percent) of the SME operators perceived that Nigerians were in wholesale businesses, slightly higher than the percentage that perceived so about the Chinese (26.0 percent). However, the percentage that thought Chinese immigrants were in manufacturing businesses (6.5 percent) was greater than that regarding Nigerian immigrants (3.2 percent). Again, Chinese immigrants were thought by almost a tenth (9.6 percent) of the SME operators as operating restaurants while 6.1 percent perceived so about the Chinese, but 13.5 percent believed Chinese other than Nigerians were solely involved in mining. These findings show that retail business is the paramount business of both Nigerian and Chinese immigrants are known to be engaged in (Table 6.1).
Table 6.1: Categories of Businesses Engaged in by Nigerian and Chinese Immigrants as Perceived by the SME Operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Business activities</th>
<th>Nigerian immigrants</th>
<th>Chinese immigrants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail</td>
<td>451</td>
<td>61.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>29.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The highest percentage of the interviewees in this study indicated that the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants were participating in retail businesses in Ghana. The interview with the officer-in-charge of operations at the Ministry of Trade and Industry throws light on the categorizations of the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ businesses. The interviewee fully confirmed the idea that the Nigerians were more present in retailing stating as follows:

“... Between the Nigerians and Chinese, the Nigerians are the most dominant foreigners who are doing retailing in our market. Nigerians have been with us for a very long time and some have become Ghanaian nationals. Some have married, owned properties and have integrated into the system. They are all into petty trading like clothing, rice and sugar. You will hardly get Chinese doing hawking. The Chinese and Nigerians are dominant in this Metropolis and our markets doing the same business as the Ghanaians. The challenge is that these Chinese and Nigerians have the monetary power to rent all the big shops. The shop owners are happy to work with them because they pay big rents. This pushes many Ghanaian sellers onto the pavements or small, uncomfortable shops” (Interview, May 18, 2017, Accra).
Fundamentally, the point that Nigerian and Chinese immigrants were participating in retail businesses was not disputed. An interviewee from GIPC, a director of research, added that “Nigerians and Chinese operate in various sectors like service and trading” (Interview, May 18, 2017, Accra) to show that these immigrants were also seen in the service sectors of the economy. Like this interviewee, a secretary from the Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly stated:

“Currently, I think most of the Chinese and Nigerians are involved in retailing business and SMEs which is not supposed to be so” (Interview, May 21, 2017, Kumasi).

All the interviewees expressed their reservations or unacceptability of how it is that the Nigerians and Chinese were having their way in the market environment and competing with the indigenous businessmen.

It is incisive to note that, there is, seemingly, a lack of data on immigrant businesses from the state institutions, such as the Ghana Immigration Service, Ministry of Trade and Industry, Ghana Investment Promotion Centre and so on, that could be having such data. At best, data on immigrant businesses are widely segregated and, perhaps, incorrigible. But various researchers, such as Takyi-Boadu (2005), Debrah (2007), Lampert and Mohan (2014) and Baah et al. (2009), have found that Nigerians and Chinese are participating in upstream retailing businesses in Ghana. Baah et al. (2009) particularly note that Nigerians are often targeted by the GIPC task force in retail trading. Liu’s (2013) study also found that most Chinese entrepreneurs in Ghana are participating in retail businesses, but to prevent easy identification, their shops are often “fronted” by a Ghanaian counterpart. It is, therefore, not illusive to think that Nigerian immigrants in
retail businesses were easier to identify than Chinese immigrants in retail businesses. Debrah (2007) highlights the fact that the participation of these immigrants in this category of businesses is prohibited by law since it is reserved only for indigenous Ghanaians. Takyi-Boadu (2005) also traced this to the failure of Ghana’s officials to enforce the GIPC Act, 2013 (Act 865).

Furthermore, Chinese immigrants were perceived by 13 percent of the SME operators to be participating in mining. In Ghana, mining, particularly on a small scale, has been a cause of worry because of the dangers it poses to land, water and life. The finding comes to assert the fact that Chinese immigrants are frequently reported to be participating in small-scale mining along water bodies and farmlands in Ghana (Kohnert, 2010; Ho, 2012).

In the Ghanaian media, there have been reported encounters of security forces and Chinese immigrant small-scale miners; some of which have been fatal. In one of such incidents, the Chinese Mission in Ghana served a caution statement to the Government of Ghana that it would be extremely harmful to the bilateral relations between the two countries if there was a casualty during the arrest of Chinese involved in illegal mining in Ghana (Citifmonline, 2017). This came after the coming into power of a new government in 2017, when there was a new policy to bring an end to illegal small-scale mining, which had been expanded due to an influx of not only Ghanaians but, notably, Chinese immigrants in the small-scale mining sector. In the Eastern Region, for instance, the Police Command arrested ten people including seven Chinese for carrying out illegal mining at Denkyira. The police confiscated four excavators, three pump action guns and sixty-eight cartridges. The suspects were charged with mining without a licence,
conspiracy to commit a crime, and possession of firearms, explosives and ammunitions. Legal action was taken against them at the Koforidua Circuit Court. The accused persons were remanded in police custody until full investigations were completed (Graphic Online, 2017). Chinese immigrants were reported to own some of the machinery and equipment used in the mining activities, and some funded the mining activities. The small-scale mining was often done in a manner that contravened the laws and regulations of Ghana. The small-scale mining activities were conspicuously destroying water bodies, farmlands, and the landscape at many places in Ghana where they took place. If their mining activities were constitutional, then there would be no *locus standi* to stop them from mining. This, therefore, brings the legal and constitutional aspects of the operations of these immigrants into question.

In the light of legal and regulatory issues, the GIPC Act 2013 (Act 865) is breached by the mere participation of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants in retail business. There are copious notes in Act 865 indicating that retail business is reserved for indigenous Ghanaian nationals. Therefore, Nigerian and Chinese immigrants, as perceived in this study and reported in the media, were participating in illegality by doing businesses reserved for Ghanaians.

### 6.2.2 Registration Statuses of Nigerian and Chinese Businesses in Ghana as perceived by the SME operators

Having described the type of businesses engaged in by Nigerian and Chinese immigrants, it is important to understand how these immigrants are believed to be avoiding registering their businesses. The question posed to the SME operators in this study was: “Is there any unregistered immigrant business in your area?” More than half of the SME operators
from both Kumasi (56.4 percent) and Accra (52.9 percent) believed that there were unregistered immigrant businesses in their areas (Table 6.2). Only a small percentage, three out of every ten (34.6 percent) and more than two out of every ten (24.1 percent) of the SME operators in Kumasi and Accra, respectively, believed that immigrants businesses were registered. On the average, more than half (54.6 percent) of all the SME operators and 29.3 percent respectively perceived that Nigerian and Chinese immigrant businesses were not registered. Therefore, there was high suspicion among the SME operators that Nigerian and Chinese immigrant businesses were not registered.

Table 6.2: Perceptions on Registration Status of Immigrants' Businesses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Is there any unregistered immigrant business in your area?</th>
<th>Nigerian (%)</th>
<th>Chinese (%)</th>
<th>Nigerian (%)</th>
<th>Chinese (%)</th>
<th>Nigerian (%)</th>
<th>Chinese (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>56.4</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>52.9</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>54.6</td>
<td>43.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>37.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>n=399</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>n=399</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>N=798</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


This finding suggests that knowing quite well that they were participating in business activities not permitted to them by the law, some of the immigrants perhaps deliberately refuse to register their businesses so as not to expose themselves.

Frimpong and Nubuor (2013), however, found that Chinese registered businesses have been increasing. From 2009 when the number of Chinese registered businesses in Ghana was 47, it shot up to 72 in 2010, then to 82 in 2011. Whereas this trend gives a good reason to conclude that Chinese businesses were increasing in Ghana, it does not give
evidence that the majority of the businesses were registered. This confirms the point made earlier that the literature on how Nigerian and Chinese immigrant businesses are registered is negligible or unavailable. From this study, we find a greater probability that most of the Nigerian and Chinese businesses were not registered. What tends to give weight to this finding is that most of these businesses breached the regulations by setting up retail immigrant businesses and, therefore, are operated at the informal level.

6.2.3 Perceived Type of Ownership of Nigerian and Chinese Businesses and Implications for Ghanaian Businesses

The study further inquired from the SME operators whether Nigerians and Chinese have partnerships with Ghanaians in the businesses reserved for Ghanaians, and the responses are summarized in Table 6.3. The results show that more than half (55.8 percent) of the SME operators think that the Nigerians solely owned their businesses. Regarding the Chinese, 51.3 percent have the same view. Ghanaian-immigrant partnerships were perceived by percentages of the SME operators that are below 50 percent with respect to the two categories of the immigrants (Table 6.3). On the average, less than half of the SME operators think that the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants have partnership business with Ghanaians.
Table 6.3: Ownership of Immigrants' Businesses as perceived by the SME operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ownership type</th>
<th>Nigerian immigrants</th>
<th></th>
<th>Chinese immigrants</th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Total %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immigrants only</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>55.8</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>53.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghanaian-immigrant</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>389</td>
<td>48.7</td>
<td>46.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>798</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>798</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


From the foregoing analysis, it can be realized that there exists a sense in which Ghanaians probably feel disadvantaged by the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ businesses in territories meant for Ghanaian businessmen. Added to that is the perception that a very large percentage of these immigrants own their businesses to the exclusion of Ghanaians. An interviewee at the GIPC, a director of research, stated that “…they [Ghanaians] see these foreigners operating around their territory as competing with them.” (Interview, May 15, 2017, Accra). Again, the sense of unfairness to Ghanaians is heightened as there seems to be a compromise expressed in the words of another interviewee, a development officer at AMA:

“The issue is about getting the fact and procedure so that people don’t feel their jobs are in danger and the people have met the conditions. In every situation, you will get others being off the track, we cannot have absolute 100 percent as law compliance. It is in an excess of non-compliance that creates problem and makes them unhappy” (Interview, May 16, 2017, Accra).

There seems to be the awareness that the immigrants were apparently having a better part of business compared to Ghanaians. But whether the immigrants were doing businesses
they owned exclusively without entering into partnership with a Ghanaian or not, the concern of some state agencies was whether those immigrant businesses contributed well to the revenue of the state or not. The development officer at AMA expressed this view stating that:

“we generate revenue from traders and shop operators so if a Chinese has paid his Business Operating Permit (BOP) we get revenue and they can operate granted they have not flouted any laws” (Interview, May 16, 2017, Accra).

However, the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants were perceived by SME operators in Ghana to be largely involved in businesses reserved for Ghanaians (retail trade). It has already been found that these immigrants were perceived to own their businesses to the exclusion of Ghanaians. There are some businesses operating as partnerships between the immigrants and Ghanaians. While state authorities would appear to focus on whether they are generating national revenue from the operations of these immigrants, there is an important question that must also be answered. That is, do SME operators accept the business operations of the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants?

The study probed further into whether SME operators were favourably disposed to the Nigerian and Chinese business activities. The results are shown in Table 6.4. Approximately four out of every five (79.8 percent) of the SME operators do not favour the business activities of the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants. Just 7.5 percent and 12.7 percent of them respectively considered them as acceptable and undecided. The percentage of SME operators in Accra who were unfavourably disposed to Nigerian and
Chinese immigrants’ businesses was slightly higher (81 percent) than those in Ashanti Region (78.7 percent).

Table 6.4: Attitude of SME Operators to Nigerian and Chinese Businesses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acceptability levels</th>
<th>Ashanti Region</th>
<th>Greater Accra</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptable</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Acceptable</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>78.7</td>
<td>323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>399</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source: Field Work, 2017**

We found evidence of the view that SME operators could not have accepted the nature of businesses conducted by Nigerian and Chinese immigrants in Ghana. A significant one is a demonstration organized by the Ghana Union of Traders Association (GUTA) in protest against these Chinese and Nigerian traders and the weak manner in which the laws regulating their activities were being enforced (Debrah, 2007). To this association, the GIPC Act, 2013 (Act 865) needed to be enforced to eliminate the challenge they perceived existed in the business environment involving the immigrants. Notably, the immigrants were encroaching upon the SME sector and trading environment in Ghana reserved for indigenes. This finding mirrors similar findings from studies like Tremann (2013) in Madagascar and Geerts et al. (2014) in fifteen African countries. They found out that some immigrant businessmen, particularly Chinese, participated in prohibited and illegal businesses in many African countries.
The main cause of this displeasure was the lack of enforcement of laws governing immigrant businesses and foreigners’ easy access to market places. However, the respondents conceded that these immigrant businesses, particularly the legal ones, do contribute to the development of the state. Once they met their requirements, there was no cause for state institutions to be strict on them. One interviewee, an officer-in-charge of operations at the Ministry of Trade, presented these descriptions, clearly identifying the common thread in the interview data:

“Of course, SMEs will be displeased with immigrant businesses which tend to compete with them. It has to be so; the SMEs have to let authorities know what is going on in the business environment, especially, in terms of immigrants setting up businesses illegally. We are comfortable with immigrant businesses but not their illegal activities. They [immigrants] do not want to pay taxes or register their businesses so most of the Ghanaians think the state is against them [Ghanaians]...and the taskforce seems not to be enforcing the law. Another problem is the demarcation of the market. The areas from the Zongo Lane downward to Coral paint in Adakraka are not market places so a foreigner in these places cannot be said to be in the market. Most of them operate outside of the market though some are also in the market.

The interviewee brought out some impediments in the way of state institutions to prosecute immigrants flouting the laws. It seems that, knowing they can be prosecuted, some of the immigrants use one means or the other to obtain documents to make a lean way out of prosecution. Sometimes, they appear obedient and stop the illegality only when a taskforce countermands their activities. The interviewee said:

“From experience, if you go to court with these Chinese you will lose the case because they are armed with documents. Again, from experience with our taskforce, the Chinese do not fight government therefore with a lot of
pressure they back off and some return to their country or Ivory Coast.”” (Interview, May 18, 2017, Accra).

Our observation from this study was that immigrants from Zongo Lane downward to Coral paint in Adakraka, including Kwame Nkrumah Circle, all in Accra tend to sell a wide range of low-cost, Chinese-made textiles, leather goods (shoes, belts, handbags); clothing (men’s, women’s, and children’s underwear and outerwear); scarves, shawls, hats and wigs; sports bags and luggage; bicycles, toys and other items for babies and small children (strollers, playpens, among others); costume, jewelry; mattresses, blankets, towels, rugs and linoleum flooring; and small household appliances and electronic goods. Park (2009) made similar observations of low-cost items sold in what he describes as “China Shops” but added that they even sold locally-made products. Yet, consistent with our observation, Laguerr (1998) maintained that the immigrants are participating in the kind of business that makes money quickly so they can quickly return to their country. Of this business, commodities such as those mentioned above are best suited. Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ involvement in trading activities therefore of this kind, to a large extent, incurred the displeasure of local businessmen.

6.3 Perceived Factors Inducing Nigerian and Chinese Immigrants to Enter Business in Ghana

This section analyses data obtained from the study to determine what motivated Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to engage in the businesses they were engaged in while Ghana. This was done to provide answers to research question three. In the preceding sections, we found that the kind of business that the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants in Ghana participated in was chiefly retail. It also emerged that, among the two, the Chinese were
known as a major force in mining in Ghana. Discernibly, these dominant business activities were in the domain of businesses restricted from the immigrants by law. We should therefore be interested to find out what motivated the immigrants to venture into those businesses. Are there any motivations for Nigerian and Chinese immigrants participating in retail trade or small-scale mining? Could these motivations influence how these Nigerian and Chinese immigrants migrate to Ghana?

### 6.3.1 Perceived Economic Incentives Associated with Immigrants’ Involvement in Business in Ghana

The questionnaire used for data collection from SME operators in this study also contained seven statements for which the response format was based on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1(Strongly disagree) to 5(strongly agree). Each of the seven statements measures the SME operators’ perceptions about the extent to which proposed economic incentives, namely low capital requirement for a startup, poor monitoring of immigrants’ businesses, availability of market, availability of resources (raw materials), stable power supply in Ghana, cheap labour supply in Ghana, and stable macroeconomic environment, motivate the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to participate in retail trade or small-scale mining. The percentage representation of the perceptions of the SME operators regarding the economic incentives are as reported in Table 6.5 and Table 6.6.

It can be seen from Table 6.5 that the majority of the SME operators (74.3 percent) strongly agree or agree with the view that low capital required to start up a business in Ghana is a motivating factor for Nigerian immigrants to participate in business activities in Ghana reserved for Ghanaian nationals only. Similarly, 74.5 percent of the SME operators strongly agree or agree with the view that poor monitoring of immigrant
business by Ghanaian officials motivates Nigerian immigrants to participate in retail trade or small-scale mining. Furthermore, 76.2 percent, 62.7 percent, 60.8 percent and 59.2 percent of the respondents strongly agree or agree with the view that availability of market; cheap labour supply; stable power supply, and availability of resources (raw materials) respectively motivate Nigerian immigrants to participate in retail trade or small-scale mining. However, the most strongly perceived motivation for Nigerian immigrants to participate in retail trade or small-scale mining is availability of market.

Table 6.5: Perceived Economic Motivations of Nigerian Immigrants in Business

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Low capital requirement (%)</th>
<th>Poor monitoring (%)</th>
<th>Availability of market (%)</th>
<th>Availability of resources (%)</th>
<th>Stable power supply (%)</th>
<th>Cheap labour supply (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>30.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>32.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Field Work, 2017

Therefore, identifying three motivators for Nigerian immigrants to move to Ghana and enter businesses they were prohibited from would include, first and foremost, the availability of a market in Ghana. Further evidence that strengthens this finding is Debrah’s (2007) earlier finding which indicated that not only GUTA, but also other people were concerned about the rising unemployment rate in Ghana and complained about foreigners engaging in businesses that put the local people at disadvantage. A case in point was the automobile spare parts dealers who complained that the Nigerians were
taking over their markets (Debrah, 2007). The Nigerians banked on the market that was available and made business.

Second, the sense of poor monitoring of immigrant businesses gives the lapse that motivates Nigerians to engage in businesses in Ghana, including what they were prohibited from engaging in. While studies that show that there is weak enforcement of laws regulating foreigners engaging in businesses reserved for Ghanaians only in Ghana abound (Debrah, 2007; Marfaing & Theil, 2012; Kokutse, 2012), the major one concerns the failure to enforce to the letter the rules set forth in the GIPC Act, 2013 (Act 685). For that reason, there was a weak or no predilection that Nigerians are perturbed to venture into businesses that contravene the rules and, therefore, make them illegal. The fourth and fifth motivators for the Nigerians were the cheap labour supply and stable macroeconomic environment.

Third, low capital requirement for a startup was perceived as a motivator for the Nigerians. This finds expression in Portes’ (1998) argument that resources that include startup capital were very essential for establishment of firms. In this study, it emerged that the amount of capital required for starting up a business in Ghana was low enough to motivate the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to engage in businesses, including those which they were prohibited from doing.

Regarding Chinese immigrants, Table 6.6 shows that, low capital requirement was agreed or strongly agreed with by 74.7 percent of the SME operators as a factor that motivated the Chinese immigrants to participate in business activities reserved for Ghanaians only. Also, the majority (66.3 percent) of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the
view that availability of market motivates Chinese immigrants to do businesses reserved for Ghanaians in Ghana; 63.8 percent strongly agree or agree with the view that poor monitoring of immigrant businesses in Ghana motivates Chinese; and 60.3 percent agreed or strongly agreed with availability of raw materials. However, the highest percentage (23.8 percent) of the respondents strongly disagreed with the view that stable power supply motivates Chinese immigrants to do businesses reserved for Ghanaians in Ghana, whiles the largest percentage (33.8 percent) of the respondents were also not decided as to whether cheap labour supply motivates Chinese immigrants or not.

Table 6.6: Perceived Economic Motivations of Chinese Immigrants in Ghana

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived Economic Motivations</th>
<th>Low capital requirement (%)</th>
<th>Poor monitoring (%)</th>
<th>Availability of market (%)</th>
<th>Availability of resources (%)</th>
<th>Stable power supply (%)</th>
<th>Cheap labour supply (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>33.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mung (2008) links two types of Chinese immigrants to Ghana to large infrastructure development projects on the one hand, and small-scale entrepreneurs whom Carling and Haugen (2004) refer to as new entrepreneurial migration. These immigrants were not necessarily entrepreneurs in China, but having learned about the amount of capital required to start a business, with a little financial preparation are able to establish their own businesses, mostly in retail or wholesale sub-sectors as has already been noted.
Ghana’s power problem that resulted in a prolonged regular power outage between 2011 and 2015 could not have been a good condition for a lot of entrepreneurs or businessmen. Also, possible gaps in the management of Ghana’s resources (raw materials), such as lack of proper monitoring of the use of land and the raw materials it contains, occasions a phenomenon where some important raw materials and even agricultural produce such as tomatoes, carrots, onions, among others, are imported to Ghana. Arguably, these imports are necessitated by an insufficiency of the raw materials needed by firms to conduct their businesses. With this phenomenon comes the possibility that availability of raw materials in Ghana would not serve as good motivation for some immigrant businesses such as Nigerians and Chinese’s businesses.

Beside these, there was no real inclination from our respondents to think that the stable macro-economic environment condition in Ghana was a motivator for the Chinese to participate in businesses they are restricted from. Already, a lot of Chinese in illegal business activities in Ghana, as previously found, have been involved in destructive mining. Many of these miners have been reprimanded by security forces; some in fatal firearm exchanges (Citifmonline, 2017; Graphic Online, 2017). These Chinese are allegedly the source of disturbances to peace and stability that so far exists. Therefore, what causes instability cannot be said to be a lover of stability. The Chinese miners could not have really been bothered whether there was macro-economic stability in Ghana or not; they just wanted to do their businesses for other ends chiefly because they were motivated by their capital, the gaps in monitoring their business activities, the availability of market and cheap labour.
The qualitative data on the motivating factors associated with the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ participation in businesses restricted to them showed three themes, all of which corroborate the findings above from the SME operators. The three themes include capital at the disposal of the immigrants, poor monitoring and enforcement of rules, and availability of market to the immigrants.

Concerning capital at the disposal of the immigrants, the underlying view was that most of the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants had enough money to do their businesses. They are most often able to afford facilities like shops, stores, and sometimes the statutory payments more easily than many locally-owned enterprises. This often gives the immigrants the edge over the locals. One interviewee, secretary of GUTA, put his response on this view into context by stating that:

“The trading in Ghana requires relatively little monetary capital and these immigrants are noted to be better funded than indigenous Ghanaian traders. They are able to rent shops and obtain vehicles and equipment with financial ease than the local firms. They are, therefore, able to penetrate the businesses reserved for Ghanaians and even dominate the market” (Interview, June 3, 2017, Accra).

A development officer at AMA commented on the financial wellness of the immigrant businesses by stating that:

“Surprisingly, most of the immigrant businesses are able to pay their due in terms of taxes and facility usage, and they obtain documents to prove same. Most often, having performed their financial obligations, they cannot be held liable for any wrongdoing.”

These views go to strengthen the point that, the immigrants are more able to meet the capital required to start a business in Ghana which is in turn consistent with the SME
operators’ perception that low capital required to start a business in Ghana is a motivating factor associated with the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to participate in businesses restricted to them.

The reality that many of the immigrant businesses were financially well-to-do cannot be farfetched. From our observations at the Zongo Lane downward to Coral paint stretching about seven kilometers in Adakraka and around Kwame Nkrumah Circle in Accra, we could count randomly eleven (11) stores or firms that were manned by white or light-skinned persons, the sight of whom gave us semblance of the foreign nationality of the owner(s). The notable outcome of the observation was that the stores we counted were standard structures, stores or business units, which could cost a little more than the upper average Ghanaian businessman could afford. Our count excluded stores owned by foreigners who were, naturally, not distinctively different from Ghanaians in complexion, say Nigerians, due to the peculiar difficulty in assuming that they would be foreigners. Otherwise, the preponderance of this outcome would further confirm our observation that a good number of immigrant businesses have been able to afford the nicer structures at advantageous business hubs in some of Ghana’s renowned market centres. It also goes to show that these immigrant businesses have an edge over most local enterprises in terms of capital wellness. As far as this persists, and owners of building structures – even local owners – foresee that foreigners can offer to pay them good rent; therefore, they would open their doors wider to foreigners, and this would motivate immigrants to move to Ghana and do business, even restricted businesses.

Regarding poor monitoring and enforcement of rules as a motivator for immigrants to participate in businesses from which they are restricted, the finding showed that there is a
gap in monitoring and law enforcement. Evidently, there has been a lack of cooperation from Ghanaians and a lack of demonstration of political will to address the problem of immigrants participating in businesses reserved for Ghanaians. A statement from one interviewee, the special taskforce officer of the Ghana Immigration Service indicates so:

“…Monitoring has been difficult, this is because some Ghanaian businessmen front the Chinese, and any time we visit their shops, we rather find Ghanaians working there but not Chinese, so there is little that we can do. In fact, some Ghanaian businessmen are not helping us at all” (Interview, May 18, 2017, Accra).

It is important to note that the Immigration Service and Ministry of Trade are required to monitor the activities of foreigners, but there was an admission among the interviewees that, over time, monitoring has been inadequately done and proper checking of the activities of the immigrants has long been ignored. The interviewee at the Ministry of Trade, an officer-in-charge of operations, noted:


The immigrants take advantage of this gap in monitoring and application of deterrent measures to participate in businesses they were restricted from doing.

Finally, availability of a market in Ghana for the commodities produced by the immigrants served as a motivating force to the immigrants, according to the interview data. The common thread through the interviews obtained (from the director of research,
GIPC; secretary of GUTA; secretary, KMA) was the explanation that Ghanaians have developed a “taste for foreign goods” (Interviews: May 17, 2017, Accra; May 22, 2017, Accra; May 18, 2017, Kumasi). There is a seeming drift away from local produce to foreign ones. Therefore, the Chinese see Ghana as a good market place for their products. In addition, Ghanaians are conscious of high pricing and so cheap things are more likely to sell faster to them. These immigrant businesses, especially the Chinese owned ones, have low prices that appeal to many Ghanaians. Through this low pricing factor, both the Chinese and Nigerians have confidence that their commodities and services will sell.

6.3.2 Perceived Social Factors Motivating Nigerian and Chinese to do Business in Ghana

In furtherance of identifying the motivators for the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to move to Ghana and do business, including businesses they are restricted from doing, social factors were examined. The study has identified in the literature review in Chapter Two that much of the social phenomena that lead to migration can be explained by the social capital theory. The central focus of the social capital theory is that individuals gain access to resources by virtue of their membership of social networks, institutions or associations (Van deth & Wolleb, 2008; Sundaramurthy, 2008; Putnam, 2007). Bosiakoh (2009) argues that immigrants have networks with their country folks who have already settled in foreign countries. These settlers are motivators for the immigrants, and that is how many Nigerians move to Ghana. Operationalizing the ideas therefrom, we examined social networks with respect to family, friendship, and membership of associations to see
how they motivate both Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to move to Ghana and participate in businesses from which they are prohibited to do.

Figure 6.1 presents a graphic view of perceptions of the SME operators about what motivates Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to move to Ghana and do all kinds of businesses. A higher percentage (90.6 percent) of the SME operators perceived that the Chinese immigrants are motivated by social networks among themselves compared to 69.5 percent who thought so about the Nigerian immigrants. Therefore, the majority of the SME operators perceived social networks among immigrants as a motivating factor associated with the Nigerians and Chinese migrating to Ghana. Portes (1998) argues that social networks bring benefits to individuals by virtue of their participation in groups or involvement in creation of resources. Social networks promote investment plans directed towards the institutionalization of group relations. Additionally, Ryan et al. (2008), Jordan and Duvell (2003) and Castles and Miller (2003) point out that social networks are increasingly seen as critical to understanding patterns of migration, settlement, employment and links with the country of origin. The study provides evidence that social networks, be they created by investments, business associations, among others, are a major motivating factor for Nigerians and Chinese to move to Ghana and do business.

However, a higher percentage of the SME operators perceived that the Nigerians are motivated by their friendships with Ghanaians compared to the percentage who do so regarding the friendship between Chinese and Ghanaians: 19 percent and 8.1 percent respectively. Again, the proportion of the SME operators who perceived that Nigerians are motivated by marriage between Ghanaians and immigrants (11.4 percent) is about nine times the proportion who thought that the Chinese are motivated by the same (1.3
percent). These results show that a higher proportion of the SME operators thought that the Nigerians are motivated to move to Ghana and do business due to friendships fostered between Ghanaians and foreigners or the room for Ghanaian-foreigners’ marriage in Ghana than the proportion that thought so about the Chinese (See Figure 6.1). The findings corroborate that of others, which indicate that economic success of immigrants’ businesses depends on family-based networks and communal self-help (Tsui-Auch, 2005). Lunn and Steen (2000) also maintained that the support of family members seems to be vital in construction, retail and a number of service firms.

**Figure 6.1: Perceived Social Factors Motivating Immigrants to Participate in Business in Ghana**

![Bar chart showing the percentage of Nigerians and Chinese motivated by different social factors.]

**Source: Field Work, 2017.**

Yet, to further appreciate how each of these social factors determines the likelihood of the Nigerian or Chinese immigrants to migrate to Ghana and do business, a Chi Square test of independence was conducted between the social factors identified and the
categories of businesses engaged in by the immigrants. Table 6.7 and Table 6.8, respectively, present the influence that the identified social motivators have on Nigerian immigrants and Chinese immigrants’ engagement in the various types of businesses they were known to be engaged in.

It can be seen from Table 6.7 that it was perceived that the Nigerians’ engagement in restaurant businesses in Ghana depended significantly on social networking among the immigrants rather than marriage or mere friendship \((p<0.01)\). This is evidenced by the fact that 72.5 percent of the SME operators who indicated that Nigerians engaged in restaurants also perceived that the Nigerians were motivated by their social networks. Thus, Nigerian immigrants’ engagement in restaurant businesses was dependent on social networks among the Nigerians. Added to that, Nigerians’ engagement in wholesale businesses was perceived to be significantly dependent on their social networks; 70.9 percent of the SME operators who perceived that Nigerians were engaged in wholesale businesses also showed that social networking motivated the Nigerians to come and do business in Ghana \((p<0.01)\). Nigerians in retail business in Ghana were also perceived by 68.8 percent of the SME operators to have been significantly motivated by networks among the immigrants \((p<0.01)\).

It is incisive to note that SME operators who perceived that Nigerians were in retail business but were motivated to participate in it by marriage between Ghanaians and immigrants (14.3 percent) were significantly more than those who perceived that marriage between Ghanaians and immigrants motivated Nigerian immigrants into wholesale, manufacturing, or restaurant businesses \((p<0.01)\). This implies that there is a perception among Ghanaians that the Nigerians who are involved in retail tend to depend
more on marital ties than Nigerians in other businesses. Similarly, Nigerians’ involvement in manufacturing businesses was perceived by 36.4 percent of the SME operators to be motivated by friendship ($p<0.01$).

**Table 6.7: Significance of the Perceived Social Incentives Motivating Nigerian Immigrants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceive Nigerian immigrants’ business categories</th>
<th>Marriage</th>
<th>Friendship</th>
<th>Networks among immigrants</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Retail</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>68.8</td>
<td>59.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>70.9</td>
<td>29.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>72.5</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>555</td>
<td>798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>69.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pearson Chi Sq. = 21.591; df=6; $p=0.001$

**Source: Field Work, 2017.**

It can be seen from Table 6.8 that it was perceived by the SME operators that the Chinese immigrants in mining depended on networks among themselves. Significantly, all the respondents (100 percent) who indicated that Chinese were mining perceived that this was dependent on networking among themselves ($p<0.05$). About nine out of every ten SME operators (93.4 percent) perceived that Chinese in restaurants businesses were influenced by immigrant networks ($p<0.05$). Similarly, approximately nine out of every ten SME operators; 90 percent, 89.3 percent, and 87.3 percent respectively perceived that Chinese engaged in wholesale, manufacturing, and retail businesses also depended on immigrant networks ($p<0.05$). Additionally, Ghanaian-immigrant marriage was perceived by 1.8 percent of the SME operators to motivate Chinese into manufacturing businesses.
in Ghana than any other business whereas friendship motivated Chinese immigrants to participate in retail business ($p<0.05$).

### Table 6.8: Significance of the Perceived Social Incentives Motivating Chinese Immigrants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived Chinese immigrants’ business categories</th>
<th>Marriage</th>
<th>Friendship</th>
<th>Networking among immigrants</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pearson Chi Sq. = 16.611; df=8; $p=0.034$

**Source: Field Work, 2017**

The combined effect of the results regarding the motivations for the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to engage in business in Ghana reveals the following: It was perceived by 14.3 percent of the SME operators that Nigerian immigrants in retail businesses are influenced by Ghanaian-immigrant marriages. This is a higher percentage compared to the percentage of SME operators (1.7 percent) who perceived that the Chinese in retail businesses were influence by Ghanaian-immigrant marriages.

Similarly, a higher percentage (15.9 percent) of the SME operators perceived Nigerian immigrants were motivated by friendship to migrate to Ghana and participate in retail
business than the SME operators (11 percent) who perceived that Chinese immigrants were motivated by friendship to migrate to Ghana and participate in retail.

Therefore, the perception by the highest percentage of the SME operators was that Nigerian immigrants were motivated by Ghanaian-immigrant marriages or friendships to participate in retailing in Ghana, whiles Chinese immigrants were motivated by social networking to come and participate in retailing in Ghana. More to the perception about Chinese immigrants, the highest percentage (100 percent) of the SME operators showed that Chinese immigrants were motivated by networking among immigrants to migrate to Ghana and participate in small-scale mining.

The perceived Nigerians’ propensity to participate in business in Ghana due to the possibility of Ghanaian-foreigners’ marriage by the SME operators was amply demonstrated in the response of one interviewee, an officer-in-charge of operations at the Ministry of Trade and Industry saying:

“Some Nigerians have married, owned properties, and have integrated into the system. You will find them in petty trading like clothe, rice and sugar selling” (Interview, May 19, 2017, Accra).

The findings of the study can be explained by the social capital theory. Networks are a vital source of resources for ethnic firms (Janjuha-Jivraj, 2003; Nee et al., 1994; Portes & Stepick, 1993). According to Tsui-Auch (2005), reliance on family and colleague-based networks is one of the main factors that reinforce the economic success of immigrant businesses. The support of family members and colleague immigrants is seen in the construction, retail, and a number of service industries but much less so in manufacturing
(Lunn & Steen, 2000). This has been true in the perception of SME operators that Nigerians are motivated by creation of family bonds between them and Ghanaians or their friendships to do retail business in Ghana. Chinese in mining, wholesale, and manufacturing are also motivated by social networking.

Furthermore, information provided through the social network includes start-up capital, information about business opportunities, access to markets and a compliant and disciplined labour force (Portes, 1998). Through the network among immigrants, they learn and understand the patterns of migration, settlement, employment and links with the country of origin (Castles & Miller, 2003; Jordan & Duvell, 2003; Ryan et al., 2008). This enables them to make decisions regarding the kind of business to engage in their destination country (Boyd, 1989).

6.3.3 Perceived Political and Legal Factors Motivating Immigrants to Engage in Business in Ghana

In addition to the economic and social factors motivating immigrants to engage in business in Ghana, we examined the possibility of political and legal factors playing some role in the Nigerians and Chinese engagements in businesses in Ghana. Perceptions gathered from the SME operators project the idea that Ghana-foreign relations with Nigeria and China and fear of retaliation by foreign governments encourage these immigrants to participate in businesses reserved for Ghanaians in Ghana. For example, Nigerians are protected by ECOWAS protocol that allows them to stay in Ghana for ninety days without a visa. This protocol is engineered by the governments of the various countries constituting ECOWAS to allow equal opportunities and peaceful coexistence
for citizens of ECOWAS member states. This creates a difficulty for the Government of Ghana to drive ECOWAS nationals out of the country. Also, an action from one country’s government toward immigrants from another country may lead to retaliation by the government of the affected country towards immigrants from the country that takes the first action.

From our study, we found that, regarding Nigerian immigrants, half of the SME operators agreed or strongly agreed with the view that the Government of Ghana supports Nigerian immigrants to enter business activities in Ghana. Those who agreed constituted 27.1 percent while those who strongly agreed constituted 23.6 percent of the SME operators. There were 12.7 percent of the SME operators who were indifferent regarding the opinion that Government of Ghana supports Nigerians to do business in Ghana, while only 18.2 percent and 18.5 percent, respectively, strongly disagreed or disagreed with this view.

Meanwhile, a little less than three out of every ten of the SME operators (28.7 percent) agreed that the Government of Ghana supports Chinese in their quest to do business in Ghana. Only 14.2 percent of the SME operators strongly agreed with that view. As much as a quarter (25.3 percent) of the SME operators, however, disagreed that the Government of Ghana supports Chinese immigrants. Yet again, 20.7 percent of the SME operators strongly disagreed with that view (See Figure 6.2).
The Nigerians were perceived as enjoying more of the support of the government of Ghana due to their membership of the ECOWAS community, which entreats member states to permit easy entry into and exit from their countries by ECOWAS nationals. This easy entry seems to give a lot more of Nigerians the impetus to move to Ghana, and among that flock are those whose interest in doing business in Ghana is paramount. By that framework, the Government of Ghana is seen to encourage the movement of Nigerians into Ghana, and therefore, their participation in business activities including those restricted from immigrants.

The finding is that Nigerian immigrants were perceived as having received motivation from the attitude of Government of Ghana to their presence in Ghana more than the Chinese. ECOWAS protocol provides ECOWAS members free movement within member countries for a period of ninety days. This protocol, although positive, has been considered as abused by many Nigerian immigrants in Ghana. The Government of Ghana
is however careful not to repatriate the Nigerians in a manner that would fuel tension, leading to retaliation by Nigerian Government since some Ghanaians also live and/or trade in Nigeria. This assertion has been supported by Sosuh (2011) who claims that ECOWAS free movement protocol is aiding cross border crimes alongside the fact that it is not achieving its intended purpose. This can be linked to lack of complementary economic structures in most member states, and the divided allegiance of the French-speaking countries to a similar integration at the French front. The lack of appropriate education on the free-movement protocols and mal-functioning of state institutions to enforce compliance has resulted in the abuse of the provisions (Sosuh, 2011). She added that some Nigerians, through ECOWAS free movement, migrate to Ghana to flout the laws of Ghana by engaging in prohibited business activities.

6.4 Effect of Perceived Motivations of the Immigrants on their perceived Route of Entry of the Immigrants to Ghana

The study further set out to clarify the important motivations for Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to move to Ghana and do business, including businesses from which they were restricted. This section addresses the last issue concerning how the SME operators perceive that the immigrants are motivated to use official or unofficial routes in coming to Ghana. Here, data on perceived motivations of the immigrants to do business in Ghana examined to explain how those motivations effectuate perceptions about routes of entry to Ghana.

The model used in addressing the issue just pointed out treated the perceived motivations for the immigrants to engage business in Ghana as predictor variables to determine their effect on perceived route of the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to Ghana. Binary
Logistic Regression was conducted using the outcome variable, “perceived route of entry into Ghana”. The variable has two paths of outcome: official routes and unofficial routes. The explanatory variables are the perceived motivations for the immigrants. These include low capital requirement (to start a business), poor monitoring of immigrants’ businesses, availability of market, availability of resources (raw materials), stable power supply, cheap labour supply, social factors, government support, and stable microeconomic environment. However, the explanatory variables were further expanded to account for the following variables too: immigrants’ orientation to business, and environmental effects of immigrants’ businesses. Additionally, the background characteristics of the SME operators whose perceptions were used were also adopted in the model. Interpretations on how the perceived motivations effectuate perceptions about the immigrants’ route of entry to Ghana are presented separately for Nigerian immigrants and Chinese immigrants.

6.4.1 Perceived Motivations for Immigrant Businesses and their Effect on Perceptions about Route of Entry of Nigerian Immigrants

The logistic regression model involving the perceived motivations for Nigerian immigrants to venture into business and perceptions about route of entry of immigrants produced a significant association ($\chi^2 = 211.68; df = 72; \text{ and } p = 0.001$). The explanatory variables jointly explain about 31 percent ($\text{Nagelkerke } R^2 = 0.3095$) of the variance in the perceptions about the route of entry of the Nigerians to Ghana(See footnote of Table 6.9). Treating “official routes” as the reference category, the following findings emerged.
From the results in Table 6.9, low capital requirement (Wald = 7.134; $p<0.01$) is a significant predictor of the perceptions about route of entry of Nigerian immigrants. The SME operators who feel indifferent that low capital requirement motivates the immigrants are over 70% less likely to indicate that the Nigerians use unofficial routes, compared to the SME operators who strongly perceive that low capital requirement motivates the Nigerians. This implies that, the perception that low capital requirement motivates the Nigerians tends to increase the perception that Nigerian immigrants might be using unofficial routes.

The results further show that the SME operators who agree that poor monitoring of immigrants’ businesses motivates Nigerian immigrants are twice as likely as those who strongly agree to indicate that Nigerians use unofficial routes rather than official routes. Similarly, the SME operators who agree that availability of market in Ghana motivates the immigrants are more than twice as likely as those who strongly agree to indicate that Nigerian immigrants use unofficial routes to Ghana rather than official routes.

Furthermore, the SME operators who strongly disagree or disagree that availability of raw material resources in Ghana motivates the immigrants are over 80 percent less likely to indicate that the Nigerians use unofficial routes compared to the SME operators who strongly agree with same view. This implies that perceptions that availability of raw materials in Ghana motivates the immigrants effectuate the perception that the Nigerians use unofficial routes rather than official routes.

The SME operators who strongly disagree or disagree with the view that the Nigerians are motivated by cheap labour supply in Ghana compared to those who strongly agree are
over 80 percent less likely to indicate that the Nigerians use unofficial routes to move to Ghana rather than official routes. Nonetheless, those who agree to this view are also about 80 percent less likely as to those who strongly agree to indicate that the Nigerians use unofficial routes to move to Ghana. Therefore, even if we admitted that strong perceptions that cheap labour in Ghana motivates the immigrants and, in effect, increases the likelihood for the Nigerians to use unofficial routes, this will be limited to the extent that some of the SME operators who perceive that cheap labour supply motivates the immigrants would be less likely to perceive the Nigerians immigrants as people who use unofficial routes to Ghana. This makes the claim on the perceptions about cheap labour supply and its links with the routes of entry for the Nigerian immigrants rather an inconclusive one.

However, the SME operators who perceive that marriage between Ghanaian and immigrants motivates the immigrants are more than four times as likely as the SME operators who perceive that networks among immigrants motivates the immigrants to indicate that the Nigerian immigrants use unofficial routes to move to Ghana rather than official routes. This means that marriage between Ghanaians and immigrants is a perceived motivation for the immigrants which accounts for an increased perception among the SME operators that Nigerian immigrants use unofficial routes to Ghana.

Innovative business, low pricing strategy, loyalty to customers, industry skills, and easy adaptation to business environment are perceived as significant characteristics of immigrant businessmen which motivates them to do business in Ghana. Taking them one after the other, the SME operators who perceive immigrants as innovative in business compared to those who do not are more than twice as likely to indicate that Nigerians use
unofficial routes rather than official routes. Similarly, the SME operators who perceive
Nigerians to be loyal to customers compared to those who do not are more than three
times as likely to indicate that the Nigerians use unofficial routes rather than official
routes. Also, the SME operators who perceive Nigerians as being able to adapt to
business environment, compared to those who do not perceive same, are more than three
times as likely to indicate that the Nigerians use unofficial routes other than official
routes. However, the SME operators who perceive that the Nigerians adopt low pricing
strategy, compared to those who do not perceive the same, are 83.6 percent less likely to
indicate that the Nigerians use unofficial routes to move to Ghana rather than to official
routes.

Putting the results on air pollution together, there appears to be mixed perceptions as to
how air pollution by the immigrants’ businesses can explain the perceptions about the
entry route used by the Nigerians.

Level of education of the SME operators is also significantly related to the route
perceived to be used by Nigerian immigrants to move to Ghana. The SME operators who
had either Middle/JSS/JHS or Secondary/SSS/SHS level of education, compared with
those with a university (tertiary) level of education, are more than 63 percent less likely
to indicate that Nigerian immigrants use unofficial routes other than official routes(See
Table 6.9).
Table 6.9: Perceptions of the Ghanaian SME Operators and their influence on perceived route of entry of Nigerian entrepreneurs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Route (NIGERIA) Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low capital requirement (RC = STRONGLY AGREE)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISAGREE</td>
<td>-0.171</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.843</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEUTRAL</td>
<td>-1.317</td>
<td>7.134</td>
<td>0.268**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGREE</td>
<td>-0.342</td>
<td>0.834</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor monitoring of immigrants’ businesses (RC = STRONGLY AGREE)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STRONGLY DISAGREE</td>
<td>1.368</td>
<td>2.196</td>
<td>3.928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISAGREE</td>
<td>1.172</td>
<td>2.871</td>
<td>3.229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEUTRAL</td>
<td>-0.015</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGREE</td>
<td>0.849</td>
<td>6.112</td>
<td>2.336*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of market (RC = STRONGLY AGREE)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISAGREE</td>
<td>0.764</td>
<td>2.294</td>
<td>2.147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEUTRAL</td>
<td>1.804</td>
<td>13.657</td>
<td>6.076**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGREE</td>
<td>0.974</td>
<td>11.792</td>
<td>2.648**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of resources (raw materials) (RC = STRONGLY AGREE)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STRONGLY DISAGREE</td>
<td>-1.929</td>
<td>8.452</td>
<td>0.145**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISAGREE</td>
<td>-1.96</td>
<td>10.642</td>
<td>0.141**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEUTRAL</td>
<td>-0.77</td>
<td>2.406</td>
<td>0.463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGREE</td>
<td>-0.284</td>
<td>0.636</td>
<td>0.753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stable power supply (RC = STRONGLY AGREE)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISAGREE</td>
<td>2.147</td>
<td>10.855</td>
<td>8.561**</td>
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<td>1.972</td>
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<tr>
<td>AGREE</td>
<td>-0.237</td>
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<td>0.789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheap labour supply (RC = STRONGLY AGREE)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STRONGLY DISAGREE</td>
<td>-2.21</td>
<td>7.537</td>
<td>0.11**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISAGREE</td>
<td>-2.044</td>
<td>6.901</td>
<td>0.13**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEUTRAL</td>
<td>-0.244</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>0.784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGREE</td>
<td>-1.701</td>
<td>17.581</td>
<td>0.182**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stable macroeconomic environment (RC = STRONGLY AGREE)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISAGREE</td>
<td>0.307</td>
<td>0.334</td>
<td>1.359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEUTRAL</td>
<td>-0.725</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>0.484</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGREE</td>
<td>0.513</td>
<td>1.698</td>
<td>1.671</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Continued Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social factors (RC = NETWORKS AMONG IMMIGRANTS)</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MARRIAGE BETWEEN GHANAIAN AND IMMIGRANTS</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>5.018</td>
<td>4.262*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRIENDSHIP BETWEEN GHANAIAN AND IMMIGRANTS</td>
<td>0.393</td>
<td>0.757</td>
<td>1.482</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Government support (RC = STRONGLY AGREE)</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>STRONGLY DISAGREE</td>
<td>-0.674</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>0.51</td>
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<tr>
<td>DISAGREE</td>
<td>-0.179</td>
<td>0.189</td>
<td>0.836</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEUTRAL</td>
<td>-0.107</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>0.899</td>
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<tr>
<td>AGREE</td>
<td>0.269</td>
<td>0.846</td>
<td>1.308</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Innovative business (RC = NO)</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>10.513</td>
<td>2.484**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excellent customer relationship (RC = NO)</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>0.182</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>1.199</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low pricing strategy (RC = NO)</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>-1.806</td>
<td>13.163</td>
<td>0.164**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Loyalty to customers (RC = NO)</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1.175</td>
<td>9.45</td>
<td>3.237**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry skills (RC = NO)</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>-1.803</td>
<td>20.412</td>
<td>0.165**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Easy adaptation to business environment (RC = NO)</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>5.536</td>
<td>3.128*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degrading farmlands (RC = STRONGLY AGREE)</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>STRONGLY DISAGREE</td>
<td>0.863</td>
<td>1.818</td>
<td>2.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISAGREE</td>
<td>0.135</td>
<td>0.117</td>
<td>1.145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEUTRAL</td>
<td>-0.182</td>
<td>0.397</td>
<td>0.833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGREE</td>
<td>0.206</td>
<td>0.674</td>
<td>1.228</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Polluting water bodies (RC = STRONGLY AGREE)</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>STRONGLY DISAGREE</td>
<td>0.266</td>
<td>0.217</td>
<td>1.305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISAGREE</td>
<td>-0.062</td>
<td>0.017</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEUTRAL</td>
<td>0.453</td>
<td>2.442</td>
<td>1.573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGREE</td>
<td>-0.296</td>
<td>1.913</td>
<td>0.744</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Polluting the air (RC = STRONGLY AGREE)</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>STRONGLY DISAGREE</td>
<td>2.236</td>
<td>11.508</td>
<td>9.352**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISAGREE</td>
<td>0.856</td>
<td>3.477</td>
<td>2.354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEUTRAL</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>0.211</td>
<td>1.142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGREE</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>4.164</td>
<td>1.553*</td>
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Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creating noise pollution (RC = STRONGLY AGREE)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STRONGLY DISAGREE</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>0.042</td>
<td>0.887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISAGREE</td>
<td>-0.241</td>
<td>0.335</td>
<td>0.786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEUTRAL</td>
<td>-0.047</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>0.955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGREE</td>
<td>0.236</td>
<td>1.164</td>
<td>1.267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>1.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex (RC = FEMALE)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALE</td>
<td>-0.099</td>
<td>0.251</td>
<td>0.905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational level (RC = UNIVERSITY)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO EDUCATION</td>
<td>-1.046</td>
<td>3.094</td>
<td>0.351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRIMARY</td>
<td>-0.784</td>
<td>2.019</td>
<td>0.457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIDDLE/JSS/JHS</td>
<td>-1.014</td>
<td>5.091</td>
<td>0.363*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SECONDARY/SSS/SHS</td>
<td>-1.085</td>
<td>5.893</td>
<td>0.338*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VOCATIONAL/COMMERCIAL/TECHNICAL</td>
<td>-0.227</td>
<td>0.179</td>
<td>0.797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of business (RC = PARTNERSHIP)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOLE PROPRIETORSHIP</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>1.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.325</td>
<td>2.974</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of Observations = 757; Chi² = 211.680; df = 72; p = 0.001; Nagelkerke R² = 0.3.

Notes: RC = Reference Category; **p<0.01; *p<0.05.

6.4.2 Perceptions of the Ghanaian SME Operators and their Influence on perceived Route of Entry of Chinese Immigrants

Like that of the Nigerians, the model comprising the perceived motivations for immigrants to do business in Ghana and the effect that they are likely to pass on to perceptions about routes of entry of immigrants, in this case Chinese immigrants. The perceived motivations and their association with perceived routes of entry into Ghana is significant (Chi² = 148.61; df = 72; and p <0.01; Nagelkerke R² = 0.268) (See footnote of Table 6.10). The perceived motivations for immigrants to do business in Ghana explain 26.8 percent of the perceptions about route of entry into Ghana.
Some perceived motivations for immigrants to do business in Ghana were essential to account for perceptions about the route of entry of Chinese immigrants. These include poor monitoring of immigrants’ businesses, availability of resources (raw materials), stable macroeconomic environment, perceived innovativeness of Chinese in business, perceived industry skills of Chinese, as well as the Chinese’s ability to adapt to the business environment.

The SME operators who perceive that poor monitoring of immigrant businesses motivates immigrant to do business in Ghana are approximately five times as likely as those who strongly perceived the same motivation for immigrants to indicate that Chinese immigrants use unofficial routes to enter Ghana other than official routes. This implies that where SME operators perceive that there is poor monitoring of immigrants’ businesses, there is also an increased likelihood for them to perceive that Chinese immigrants use unofficial routes to move to Ghana.

The SME operators who perceive that availability of raw materials motivates immigrants are 55.1 percent less likely to indicate that Chinese use unofficial routes other than official routes to move to Ghana, relative to those who strongly agree. This means that very strong perception that there are raw material resources in Ghana increases the likelihood of the perception that Chinese immigrants use unofficial routes.

The SME operators who disagree with the view that there is stable macroeconomic environment in Ghana are 76.9 percent less likely to indicate that the Chinese immigrants use unofficial routes to move to Ghana compared with those who strongly agree that there is stable macroeconomic environment to indicate the same. Still, the SME operators
who agree with the notion that there is stable macroeconomic environment in Ghana are 91.9 percent less likely to indicate that the Chinese immigrants use unofficial routes to move to Ghana compared with those who strongly agree that there is stable macroeconomic environment in Ghana to indicate the same.

The SME operators who perceive that doing innovative business is a trait of the Chinese are more than six times as likely as those who do not perceive that doing innovative business is a trait of the Chinese to indicate that Chinese immigrants use unofficial routes rather than official routes to move to Ghana. This means that, regarding innovative business, the Chinese are more likely to be perceived by the SME operators to move to Ghana through unofficial routes.

Similarly, the SME operators who perceive industry skills as a trait of the Chinese are more than four times as likely to indicate that the Chinese move to Ghana through unofficial routes rather than official routes as would SME operators who do not perceive industry skills as characteristic of the Chinese.

However, the SME operators who perceive that Chinese can adapt to the business environment are more than 84 percent less likely to indicate that the Chinese use unofficial routes rather than official routes to move to Ghana compared to the SME operators who do not perceive the same view about the Chinese (See Table 6.10).
Table 6.10: Perceptions of the Ghanaian SME Operators and their Influence the Choice of Route of Entry of Chinese Immigrants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Route (CHINA)</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
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<tr>
<td>Low capital requirement (RC = STRONGLY AGREE)</td>
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<td>1.642</td>
<td>2.353</td>
</tr>
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<td>NEUTRAL</td>
<td>-0.061</td>
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<td>AGREE</td>
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<td>YES</td>
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<td>7.724</td>
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<td>0.094</td>
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<th></th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creating noise pollution (RC = AGREE)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>STRONGLY DISAGREE</td>
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<td>PRIMARY</td>
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<td>Constant</td>
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Number of observations = 796; Chi² = 148.61; Nagelkerke R² = 0.268; p = 0.000.

Notes: RC = Reference Category; **p<0.01; *p<0.05.

### 6.5 Conclusions

It was established that the SME operators perceive that both Nigerian and Chinese immigrants move to Ghana to participate, notably, in the retail business. By law, their involvement in retail businesses was found to be illegal. This stems from the fact that the GIPC Act, 2013 (Act 865) forbids non-Ghanaians to venture into retail businesses or, fundamentally, businesses that were reserved for indigenous Ghanaians to do in order to sustain their livelihoods. While the Nigerians were thought by a higher percentage of the SME operators to be mainly participated in retail much more than the Chinese, only the Chinese were thought to be involved in mining. There has been a lot of evidence that the
Chinese were a formidable force in mining in Ghana, just before the new Government of Ghana which came into power in 2017 declared a ban on small-scale mining activities and put a stop to most of the mining activities participated in by the Chinese.

The immigrants were perceived by a higher percentage of the SME operators as operating retail business on ‘immigrant-owned’ basis. This was unacceptable to a higher percentage of the SME operators because it brought competition between the immigrant and Ghanaian businesses. Furthermore, the majority of SME operators perceived that the immigrants never registered their businesses – a phenomenon which amounts to the immigrants operating illegal businesses with impunity.

The study identified low capital requirement, poor monitoring of immigrant business, availability of market, and cheap labour supply in Ghana as the motivating factors of both the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to engage in businesses in Ghana based on the perception of the SME operators. Also, the SME operators perceived that networks among immigrants in Ghana motivated the Nigerians and Chinese immigrants to participate in businesses reserved for Ghanaians. Stable macroeconomic environment in Ghana was perceived as a factor that motivated the Nigerians. The Nigerians, more than the Chinese, were perceived to be motivated by marriage as well as their friendship with Ghanaians. Chinese, on the other hand, were perceived to be motivated by the support from traditional leaders and government for them to come and do business in Ghana.

The perceptions of the SME operators were that some factors motivated the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants to migrate to Ghana through unauthorized/unofficial routes. Relative to the Nigerian immigrants, the SME operators perceive that, whether there is low capital
is required to start a business in Ghana or not, the Nigerians are likely to move to Ghana through unofficial routes than official routes. The SME operators who agree that poor monitoring of immigrants’ businesses motivates Nigerian immigrants are twice as likely as those who strongly agree to indicate that Nigerians use unofficial routes rather than official routes. The SME operators who strongly agree or agree that there is availability of market in Ghana are likely to perceive that Nigerian immigrants use unofficial routes to move to Ghana. Also, the SME operators who are indifferent about the perception about market availability are more than six times as likely as those who strongly agree to indicate that Nigerians enter Ghana through unofficial routes.

From another angle, the SME operators who strongly disagree or disagree with the view that availability of raw material resources in Ghana influences Nigerian immigrants to migrate to Ghana are less likely to indicate that the Nigerians use unofficial routes compared to the SME operators who strongly agree with the same view. Also, the SME operators who strongly disagree or disagree with the view that the Nigerians are influenced by Ghana’s cheap labour supply to migrate to Ghana, compared to those who strongly agree, are less likely to indicate that the Nigerians use unofficial routes to move to Ghana rather than official routes. More to that, the SME operators who agree with the same view are also less likely to indicate that the Nigerians use unofficial routes to move to Ghana compared to those who strongly agree. Meanwhile, the SME operators who disagree that stable power supply in Ghana motivates the Nigerians, compared with those who strongly agree, are more likely to indicate that Nigerians use unofficial routes rather than official routes to move to Ghana.
The SME operators who perceive that marriage between Ghanaian and immigrants influences the Nigerians are more likely to indicate that the Nigerians use unofficial routes to move to Ghana rather than official routes compared to SME operators who have the view that networks among immigrants influenced the Nigerians to move to Ghana.

The findings also showed that, the SME operators who perceived Nigerians as innovative in business, compared to those who do not, are more likely to indicate that Nigerians use unofficial routes rather than official routes. The SME operators who perceive Nigerians to be loyal to customers, compared to those who do not, are more than three times as likely to indicate that the Nigerians use unofficial routes rather than official routes. The SME operators who perceive Nigerians as being able to adapt to business environment, compared to those who do not perceive same, are more than three times as likely to indicate that the Nigerians use unofficial routes other than official routes. Meanwhile, the SME operators who perceive that the Nigerians adopt low pricing strategy, compared to those who do not perceive the same, are less likely to indicate that the Nigerians use unofficial routes to move to Ghana rather than to official routes.

The findings showed that SME operators who strongly disagree with the view that immigrants’ business pollute the air, compared to those who strongly agree with same, are more likely to indicate that Nigerians use unofficial routes other than official routes. Still, the SME operators who agree that immigrants’ businesses pollute the air, compared to those who strongly agree, more likely to indicate that Nigerian immigrants use unofficial routes to move to Ghana other than official routes.
The SME operators with either Middle/JSS/JHS or Secondary/SSS/SHS level of education, compared with those with university (tertiary) level of education, are less likely to indicate that Nigerian immigrants use unofficial routes other than official routes.

Relative to the Chinese immigrants, the findings showed that the SME operators who agree that there is poor monitoring of immigrant businesses are approximately five times as likely as those who strongly agree that the Chinese use unofficial routes to enter Ghana. The SME operators who agree that there is availability of raw materials are less likely to indicate that Chinese use unofficial routes other than official routes to move to Ghana relative to those who strongly agree.

The SME operators who disagree with the view that there is stable macroeconomic environment in Ghana are less likely to indicate that the Chinese immigrants use unofficial routes to move to Ghana compared with those who strongly agree that there is stable macroeconomic environment. Also, those who agree with the notion that there is stable macroeconomic environment in Ghana are less likely to indicate that the Chinese immigrants use unofficial routes to move to Ghana compared with those who strongly agree that there is stable macroeconomic environment in Ghana.

The SME operators who perceive that doing innovative business is a trait of the Chinese are more than six times as likely as those who do not perceive that doing innovative business is a trait of the Chinese to indicate that Chinese immigrants use unofficial routes rather than official routes to move to Ghana.

The SME operators who perceive industry skills as a trait of the Chinese are more than four times as likely to indicate that the Chinese move to Ghana through unofficial routes
rather than official routes as would SME operators who do not perceive industry skills as characteristic of the Chinese. In contrast, the SME operators who perceive that the Chinese can adapt to the business environment in Ghana are less likely to indicate that the Chinese use unofficial routes to migrate to Ghana compared to those who do not perceive the same.

In the next chapter, focus is put on economic and environmental security threats associated with the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants operating businesses reserved for Ghanaians in Ghana.
CHAPTER SEVEN

PERCEPTIONS ON ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL SECURITY
THREATS POSED BY IMMIGRANT BUSINESSES

7.1 Introduction
This chapter focuses on economic and environmental security threats associated with Nigerian and Chinese immigrants operating businesses reserved for Ghanaians in Ghana, as perceived by Ghanaian SME operators. By economic security threats, we specifically focused on effects of the immigrants’ business activities on indigenous Ghanaian SMEs as well as commerce in the Ashanti Region and the Greater Accra Region. By environmental security threat, we kept to effects of the immigrants’ business activities on the environment. Perspectives of SME operators and key interviewees were obtained to examine issues on the subject of economic and environmental threats posed by these businesses. The issues here pertain to the research questions four and five stated in Chapter One which include, respectively, the following: what are the effects of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ entry into businesses reserved for Ghanaians on economic security in Ghana? What are the effects of Nigerians and Chinese immigrants’ entry into businesses reserved for Ghanaians on environmental security in Ghana?

7.2 Economic Threat from Immigrants’ Business Activities
This section addresses the research question four stated above. Perceptions of the indigenous Ghanaian SME operators with respect to economic security threats posed by Nigerian and Chinese immigrants engaging in businesses from which they were restricted in Ghana were sought. The data obtained is on two issues: first, whether these immigrant
businesses posed a threat to the SME operators; and second, how did they affect local business at large? By economic security, we refer to the state in which Ghanaian businessmen are free to undertake fair business and earn a living.

In the estimation of the SME operators, there was ample evidence that Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ businesses in Ghana posed a threat to SMEs. To illustrate, less than two out of every ten (15.3 percent) of the SME operators perceived that these immigrants’ businesses did not pose a threat to their businesses. Alternatively, more than eight in every ten (84.7 percent) of the SME operators perceived that Nigerian and Chinese immigrant businesses posed a threat to their businesses. This is presented in Table 7.1. A higher proportion of the SME operators in Ashanti Region (88.7 percent) than in the Greater Accra Region (80.6 percent) perceived a threat from Nigerian and Chinese immigrant businesses on their businesses.

This is an indication that the Nigerian or Chinese immigrant businesses are perceived by a higher proportion of the SME operators in the Ashanti Region to pose a threat to the indigenous businesses in that region. This, however, does not preclude the fact that they are posing a threat to indigenous businesses in other places, like the Greater Accra Region. Elsewhere in this study, we made the claim that mining was a business activity that was more rampant in the Ashanti Region than in Greater Accra. What was more, the Chinese were more perceived to be involved in the mining activity. This, in addition to lots of participation of both Chinese and Nigerian immigrants in retailing, appears to cause a threat to local businesses in the Ashanti Region.
Table 7.1: Threat of Immigrant Businesses to Ghanaian Businesses

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<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Threat not posed</th>
<th>Threat posed</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency (%)</td>
<td>Frequency (%)</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greater Accra</td>
<td>76 17.4</td>
<td>361 82.6</td>
<td>437</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ashanti</td>
<td>46 12.7</td>
<td>315 87.3</td>
<td>361</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>122 15.3</td>
<td>676 84.7</td>
<td>798</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi square=10.681; df=4; p=0.03;

Source: Field Work, 2017

7.2.1 Negative Economic Effects of Immigrants’ Business Activities

Probing further, eight information-seeking items were laid in the questionnaire for the SME operators to rank on a 5-point Likert scale where ‘1’ represents ‘strongly disagree’, ‘2’ represents ‘disagree’, ‘3’ stands for ‘neutral’, ‘4’ indicates ‘agree’ and ‘5’ means ‘strongly agree’. These were used to express the extent to which the SME operators perceived that Nigerian and Chinese immigrant businesses negatively affected local businesses.

From Table 7.2, it can be seen that the highest percentage (57.1 percent) of the SME operators strongly agree or agree with the view that the Nigerian immigrants’ businesses have a negative effect on local businesses by decreasing their market share. Also, more than half (55.9 percent) of the SME operators strongly agree or agree with the notion that the Nigerian immigrants’ businesses led to high indebtedness of local businesses. In addition, a high percentage (48.7 percent) of the SME operators strongly agree or agree with the view that the Nigerian immigrants’ businesses affected local businesses by decreasing their profit compared with the SME operators (27.2 percent) who strongly
disagree or disagree with the same view. A high percentage (48.3 percent) of the SME operators strongly agree or agree with the view that the Nigerian immigrants’ businesses have a negative effect on local businesses by decreasing the savings of local businesses compared with those (26 percent) who strongly disagree or disagree with the same view. A high percentage (42.8 percent) of the SME operators also agree or strongly disagree with the view that price cuts of local businesses is a negative consequence caused by the Nigerian immigrants’ businesses compared with those (36.9 percent) who strongly disagree or disagree with the same view. Still, a high percentage (40 percent) of the SME operators strongly agree or agree with the notion that the Nigerian immigrants’ businesses affected local businesses by bringing about low patronage of products of local businesses compared with those (32.9 percent) who strongly disagree or disagree with the same notion. A part from these, a little higher percentage (39 percent) of the SME operators strongly agree or agree with the view that high employee turnover a negative effect of the Nigerian immigrants’ businesses on local businesses compared with those (36.6 percent) who strongly disagree or disagree with the same view. Nearly equal proportions, 40.9 percent and 40.8 percent respectively, of the SME operators strongly agree or agree, and strongly disagree or disagree with the view that the Nigerian immigrants’ businesses brought about low productivity of local businesses (see Table 7.2).
Table 7.2: Perceived Negative Economic Effects of Nigerian Immigrants' Businesses on Local Businesses

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Item</th>
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<th>2</th>
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<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<tr>
<td>Price cuts of local businesses</td>
<td>11.8</td>
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<td>20.3</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>High employee turnover</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>High indebtedness of local business</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Low productivity of local business</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower patronage of products of local business</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease in market share of local business</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease in profit of local business</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease in savings of local business</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 – Strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – Neutral/indifferent; 4 – Agree; 5 – Strongly agree

Source: Field Work, 2017

Table 7.3 presents the perceived negative economic effects of the Chinese immigrants’ businesses on local business. The highest percentage (54.1 percent) of the SME operators agree or disagree with the view that the Chinese immigrants’ businesses decrease the profit of local businesses compared with the SME operators (26.5 percent) who strongly disagree or disagree with the same view. Like it is in the case of the perception about the Nigerians, a higher percentage (50 percent) of the SME operators strongly agree or agree with the notion that the Chinese immigrants’ businesses negatively affected local businesses by decreasing their savings compared with the SME operators who strongly disagree or disagree with the same notion. Similarly, a higher percentage (48.5 percent) of the SME operators strongly agree or agree with the view that the Chinese immigrants’ businesses negatively affect the local businesses by decreasing
the market share of the local businesses compared with those (31.5 percent) who strongly disagree or disagree with the same view. Still, a higher percentage (47.4 percent) of the SME operators strongly agree or agree with the view that the Chinese immigrants’ businesses have a negative effect on local businesses by causing lower patronage of products of local business compared with those (33.9 percent) who strongly disagree or disagree with the same view. Also, a high percentage; 38.9 percent and 38.6 percent respectively of the SME operators, strongly agree or agree with the views that Chinese immigrants’ businesses forced local businesses into high indebtedness and price cuts. However, a slightly higher percentage (39.7 percent) of the SME operators strongly disagree or disagree with the notion that the Chinese immigrants’ businesses plant local businesses into high employee turnover compared with the SME operators who strongly agree or disagree with the same notion (see Table 7.3).

Table 7.3: Perceived Negative Effects of Chinese Immigrants’ Businesses on Local Businesses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Price cuts of local businesses</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High employee turnover</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High indebtedness of local business</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low productivity of local business</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower patronage of products of local business</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease in market share of local business</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease in profit of local business</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease in savings of local business</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 – Strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – Neutral/indifferent; 4 – Agree; 5 – Strongly agree

Source: Field Work, 2017
The perspectives given by the interviewees were like the views of the SME operators. It emerged from the interviews that Nigerian and Chinese business activities had a negative effect on market share or sales or profitability of Ghanaian enterprises. The extreme devastation of Ghanaian enterprises caused by Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ businesses was addressed by the secretary of GUTA in his statement:

“Their are killing us because we cannot match the prices the Chinese and Nigerians offer. They have larger working capital and some are representatives of a company in their respective countries. Therefore, they are gradually clouding us out of business they were restricted from doing. The Ghanaian customer only buys from where he can get it cheaper. The market share of Ghanaian enterprises is reducing day-by-day in the businesses reserved for only Ghanaians. Now we are only trading to survive because you can sit the whole day and will not sell a thing. (Interview, June 28, 2017, Accra).

Additionally, the development officer of AMA noted that:

“…now they [Chinese] have the money and can buy and own the shops in Accra. Ghanaians buy from China and prices of Ghanaian SMEs are relatively higher compared to the Chinese and it affects profit” (Interview, June 29, 2017, Accra).

To some interviewees, the Ghanaian SMEs are hardly profitable nowadays because of the unfavourable competition resulting from the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ infiltration into their line of business. A case in point is the response of the officer-in-charge of operations from the Ministry of Trade and Industry that showed that the immigrants and Ghanaian SMEs were in frequent competition, even in accessing credit here in Ghana. The interviewee said:

“Banks prefer to offer loans to the Nigerians and Chinese to the Ghanaians because banks think they have more financial power to facilitate the loan. But banks perceived that only a few Ghanaians pay
back their loans. Landlords are illegally renting their shops to these foreign traders, denying indigenous Ghanaians shops for trading” (Interview, June 19, 2017, Accra).

The involvement of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants in trading activities that are reserved for Ghanaians was perceived to be having significant negative economic effects on Ghanaian enterprises participated in those trading activities. As has already been discussed, several studies have given evidence to the finding that these immigrants’ business activities were posing a threat to indigenous businesses. Debrah (2007) reports the demonstrations staged by GUTA in protest of the economic difficulties that the Chinese and Nigerian businesses in restricted areas bring to local businessmen. The GIPC Act, 2013 (Act 865) was enacted to forestall the economic controversies that might occur between indigenous and foreign businesses by restricting the foreigners from engaging in certain business. There is, however, some antagonism between the some indigenous of foreign businesses in Ghana which indicates that, perhaps, Act 865 has not been full enforced.

Tsikata et al. (2010) observed later that there is no adequate data or information on Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ business activities but this data indicates that local businesses in Greater Accra and Ashanti regions were under threat associated with negative economic effects of Nigerians and Chinese’s business activities. Particularly, Nigerian immigrants’ business activities had a negative economic effect on local businesses in Ghana by, first and foremost, reducing the market share of local businesses; next, they lead to decreased profit, high indebtedness, compelling price cuts, decreased savings, low patronage and finally, low productivity. But, exclusively, they produced one
more effect - increased employee turnover. These findings corroborate that of Liu (2013) in that the activities of immigrants in Ghana have decreased the market share and profits of local businesses with some on the verge of collapse. For example, some immigrant businesses sell their commodities at cheaper prices primarily because they are smuggled into the Ghana without paying necessary taxes or duties on them. Still, some of the commodities are substandard as so they would be sold at very cheap prices. The low pricing of many of these commodities pulls the market away from other local businesses whose prices are thought to be uncompetitive. The entry of immigrants and its negative consequences on local SMEs is creating tension between local business men and immigrants in Ghana (Deborah, 2007).

Furthermore, the results of the statistical test on the effects of the businesses engaged in by the Nigerians on local businesses produced $\chi^2 = 53.829$; df=6, and $p<0.01$ (Table 7.3). This means that the negative effect of immigrants’ business activities on local businesses depends on the type of business activity of the Nigerians at a confidence level of 99 percent. Table 7.4 shows that the majority (62.9 percent) of the SME operators who perceived that local businesses suffered negative effects of these immigrants’ businesses participated in retail activities. Wholesale business activities, according to 28.2 percent of the SME operators, were perceived also to be responsible for the negative effects suffered by local businesses. Manufacturing and restaurant businesses create difficulties in the view of 3.2 percent and 5.7 percent respectively of the SME operators. This may be due to the smaller number of immigrants in the manufacturing sector and perhaps the limited competition between Ghanaian and Chinese restaurants. Moreover, foreigners buy Ghanaian dishes as they integrate into the Ghanaian society. In conclusion, retail
activities by Nigerians in Ghana cause the most significant negative economic effect on local businesses according to the SME operators.

Table 7.4: Types of Nigerian Immigrants' Businesses and their Effect on Local Businesses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nigerian immigrants’ business types</th>
<th>No negative effect on local business</th>
<th>Negatively affects local business</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency %</td>
<td>Frequency %</td>
<td>Frequency %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail</td>
<td>4 12.5</td>
<td>377 62.9</td>
<td>96 57.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale</td>
<td>26 81.3</td>
<td>169 28.2</td>
<td>42 25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>1 3.1</td>
<td>19 3.2</td>
<td>13 7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>1 3.1</td>
<td>34 5.7</td>
<td>16 9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>32 100.0</td>
<td>599 100.0</td>
<td>167 100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi sq.=53.829; df=6; \( p=0.000 \)


A Chi Square test to find out which type of business activity engaged in by the Chinese was responsible for the negative economic effects on local businesses yielded the following results: \( \chi^2 = 19.810; \) df=8, and \( p<0.05 \) (Table 7.5). This means that Chinese business activities significantly produced negative economic effects suffered by local businesses, at a confidence interval of 95 percent. Yet, the highest percentage (46.2 percent) of the SME operators who showed that local businesses suffered negative economic effect due to Chinese business activities in Ghana were those who indicated that the Chinese participate in retail activities. This means that the negative economic effect on local businesses was significantly related to Chinese retail businesses. Chinese in wholesale and manufacturing were perceived by 25.4 percent and 4.1 percent
respectively of the SME operators as being responsible for the negative economic effect on local businesses. Restaurant activities by the Chinese were considered by 9.8 percent of the respondents as producing a negative economic effect on local businesses. But a higher percentage (14.4 percent) of the SME operators indicated that mining activities had a negative effect on local businesses. This is primarily because the Chinese were known to be highly involved in mining, particularly in the Ashanti Region, and that brought some negative effect on local mining businesses.

Table 7.5: Types of Chinese Immigrants' Business and their Effect on Local Business

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chinese immigrant business types</th>
<th>No negative effect on local business</th>
<th>Negatively affects local business</th>
<th>Don't know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>437</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi sq.= 19.810, df=8; p=0.011

Source: Field Work, 2017

7.2.2 Positive Effects of Immigrants Businesses on Ghanaian SMEs

Although immigrants in restricted Ghanaian businesses are perceived to have negative effect on the indigenous SMEs as identified above, it is possible to identify some positive effects as well. In this vein, this study inquired about the SME operators’ perceptions of
the extent to which the immigrants’ business activities had positively affected local businesses.

As can be seen from Figure 7.1, 38.6 percent and 36.5 percent respectively of the SME operators perceived that the positive effect of Nigerians’ entry into restricted Ghanaian businesses on local business was low or very low. In contrast, just 7.9 percent and 7.4 percent respectively of the SME operators perceived that Nigerian business activities have a high or very high positive effect on local businesses. There were as much as 9.6 percent of the SME operators who were indifferent to any positive effect that the Nigerians’ business activities had had on local businesses.

However, Chinese immigrants’ entry into businesses reserved for Ghanaians was perceived by the SME operators as having high (23.1 percent) or very high (22.8 percent) positive effect on local businesses. But also, 23 percent and 16.9 percent of the SME operators perceived that Chinese’s activity in restricted businesses had, respectively, a low and very low positive effect on local businesses. Between these extremes, 14 percent of the SME operators were indifferent about the view on positive effect of the Chinese businesses on local businesses.

The combined effect of the results regarding the positive effect of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ business activities is rather low. The Nigerian businesses were thought by a lower percentage of the SME operators to have positive effect on local businesses compared with the percentage which thought so about the Chinese’s, as can be seen from Figure 7.1.
Key business areas of immigrant businesses that were perceived by the SME operators as having a positive effect on the indigenous Ghanaian business sector are shown in Figure 7.2. They include easy adaption of new business to the environment, followed by strategic pricing of both Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ business wares. Furthermore, Chinese innovative business, improvement in industry skills, excellent customer relationship, and loyalty to customers were the positive characteristics that they brought to the local business sphere according to the SME operators. They are not much different from those reported about the Nigerian immigrant businesses. With the Nigerians, excellent customer relationship, loyalty to customers, innovative business, and
improvement in industry skills were the positive effects they had in the local business sphere in the view of the SME operators.

**Figure 7.2: Positive Effects of Nigerian and Chinese Immigrant Businesses on Ghanaian SMEs**


It is obvious that immigrants’ business activities have both a negative and positive effect on local businesses. Fasit (2008) states that networks of businesspersons who have
moved from their countries and have settled abroad increase competition and investment in the host countries. The resulting competition encourages local businessmen and women to change their traditional ways of doing business to adopt innovative business strategies in order to remain competitive (Fasit, 2008). Dolado, et al. (1994) noted earlier that immigrants indirectly have impact on local businessmen and women’s good business values such as customer relations, marketing skills and pricing strategies. Immigrant business men and women come with skills they have acquired in their countries, and as they do business in the host country, they transfer these skills and business knowledge to local business men and women (Dolado, Goria & Ichino, 1994).

7.3 Environmental Threat from Immigrants’ Business Activities

Because Nigerian and Chinese immigrant businesses are not the only businesses in Ghana, the environmental effect they produce can only be part of the bigger effect the business sector in Ghana has on the environment. Nigerian and Chinese business activities have now gained a lot of attention. To answer the fifth research question on what the effect of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ entry into restricted businesses are on environmental security in Ghana, we first examine the perceived environmental threats associated with the businesses and the issues therefrom. This is the results of the data analysis from SME operators and the key informant interviewees in the study, as well as field observation.

7.3.1 Effect of Nigerian and Chinese Immigrants’ Businesses on the Environment

This section focuses on the effect of the immigrants’ businesses on the environment. To obtain the perception of the SME operation on this issue, the questionnaire used contained 12 variables which the SME operators ranked on the scale of 1 to 5 where ‘1’

Table 7.6 shows that the SME operators perceive that there is a feeling that Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ business activities affect the Ghanaian environment. The majority (75.4 percent) of the SME operators strongly agree that immigrants’ businesses deprived Ghanaians of fertile land. Similarly, 73.7 percent of the SME operators strongly agree that immigrants’ businesses damage the agricultural landscape. More than half (56.1 percent) of the SME operators strongly agree that immigrants’ businesses create noise pollution. Still, close to half (49.4 percent) of the SME operators strongly agree that immigrants’ businesses pollute the air. Another 45.3 percent of the SME operators strongly agree that the immigrants’ businesses pollute water bodies. Still another (44.7 percent) of the SME operators strongly agree that immigrants’ businesses degrade farming land.
Table 7.6: Overview of Environmental Effect of Immigrants' Business Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Immigrant businesses deprived people of fertile land</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>75.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immigrants businesses pollute water bodies</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>14.4%</td>
<td>33.8%</td>
<td>45.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immigrants businesses degrade farming land</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>16.2%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>44.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immigrant businesses damage the agricultural landscape</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>20.3%</td>
<td>73.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immigrant businesses pollute the air</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>29.7%</td>
<td>49.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immigrant businesses create noise pollution</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>26.6%</td>
<td>56.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Work, 2017

We also examined which of the business categories of the immigrants was responsible for what environmental effect. Table 7.7 presents a statistical test of independence (Chi Square test) to examine the environment affects by the business activities of Nigerian immigrants. A little over three out of every five (61.9 percent) of the SME operators perceived that the Nigerians in retail business negatively affected the environment. The proportion reduced to nearly one in every five (27.9 percent) with respect to Nigerians in wholesale, and further reduced to 6.7 percent and 3.6 percent with respect to Nigerians in restaurant and manufacturing respectively. The results show of the statistical test on the environmental effects is not significant ($\chi^2 = 4.749; df=6$ and $p>0.05$). The statistics imply that we are less than 95 percent confident that any effect on the environment
depends on the Nigerian immigrants’ business activities. Even though 61.9 percent of the respondents perceived that Nigerians in retail business affected the environment this was not statistically significant to implicate the Nigerians in the issue of negative environment consequences due to business activities. We also notice that two-thirds (66.7 percent) of the SME operators perceived that Nigerians’ activities in retail business did not affect the environment. Also, 55.9 percent of the respondents were uncertain that Nigerians in retail business affected the environment.

### Table 7.7: Nigerian Immigrants' Business: Environmental Effect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nigerian immigrants' business types</th>
<th>Environment not affected</th>
<th>Environment affected</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurants</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>506</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi sq. = 4.749; df=6; p=0.576

**Source: Field Work, 2017**

Meanwhile, with respect to the Chinese, the Chi square test ($\chi^2 = 15.057$; df=8 and $p<0.05$) proves that the environmental effect of immigrants’ business activities in Ghana was statistically significant. In particular, nearly half (46.8 percent) of the SME operators in this study were of the view that Chinese immigrants in retail affected the environment significantly. In addition to that, close to a quarter (23.1 percent) of the SME operators viewed Chinese in wholesale business as having effect on the environment.
A higher percentage (14.4 percent) of the SME operators perceived that the Chinese are participated in small-scale mining compared with the SME operators (7.1 percent) who perceived that the Chinese are engaged in manufacturing activities. Likewise, the percentage (8.9 percent) of the SME operators who perceived that the Chinese are engaged in restaurant businesses was smaller than that of the Chinese participating in small-scale mining. Despite this, the Chinese perceived to be participating in retailing are perceived to have a significant effect on the environment (see Table 7.8).

**Table 7.8: Chinese Immigrants' Business: Environmental Effect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chinese immigrants' business types</th>
<th>Environment not affected</th>
<th>Environment affected</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurants</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>506</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi sq.=15.057, df=8, \( p=0.048 \)

**Source: Field Work, 2017**

In examining the environmental effects of immigrants’ business activities in Ghana, it was important to consider the areas where some of the environmental consequences of immigrants’ businesses were, somewhat, evident. Moving to Datano in the Ashanti Region, we interviewed the President of the Association of farmers, chief farmer, chief of Datano, and the assemblyman regarding their views on Nigerian and Chinese
immigrants’ businesses and their effect on the environment. The data obtained, to a large extent, corroborated the findings above with respect to the SME operators in this study. First, there was an outright admission of the fact that these immigrants’ business activities had an effect on the environment. However, the “Chinese” were frequently mentioned between the two groups of immigrants in this study as key contributors to the environmental effects of the immigrants’ business activities. The President of the Association of Farmers in Datano, for example, explained that:

“...the Chinese involvement in small-scale mining started, notably, in the President Kuffour’s administration. During President Mahama’s administration, the situation became worse as more Chinese were allowed to engage in galamsey” (Interview, July 17, 2017, Datano).

Some of the environmental effects were attributed to the Chinese’s involvement in small-scale mining, as can be noticed in the words of the chief farmer of Datano, “The Chinese are not helping us; they are destroying the environment” (Interview, July 24, 2017, Datano). In this direction, the assemblyman in Datano in the Ashanti Region, Ghana, attributed much of the problem of environmental challenge of the immigrants’ business activities to the Chinese involvement in small-scale mining, which is popularly referred to in Ghana as ‘galamsey’. Galamsey has gained notoriety for the use of wrong, unapproved, and destructive methods of exploiting mineral resources such as gold from the land. This was explicit in the interviewee’s statement:

“I am a farmer. I have been farming since 1990. My farming business was good because the land was fertile. I was able to take care of myself and my family. But the situation now is not good at all. The galamsey by Chinese are destroying our lands. The lands are no more giving us good yields. You cultivate more but you get little. The farming lands are destroyed. In my case, one of the lands I used to farm on has been given to the galamsey people; what is left is small piece of land that I am currently farming on.
Even that one is not fertile. I believe the galamsey has affected all the lands in this community. Every farmer is not happy” (Interview, July 21, 2017, Datano).

With a feeling, not too different from that of the interviewee above, the chief farmer of Datano also lamented the deprivation issue of ‘galamsey’ that has been brought to the community. The interviewee recounted how water bodies, farmlands, and livelihoods of the people are lost to galamsey. Notably, vulnerable people like women are forced to engage in the hard task of galamsey in order to make ends meet. The interviewee expressed these things in the following:

“...galamsey is destroying our lands and water bodies. Farm land and water bodies have been destroyed by galamsey activities. The Chinese miners have destroyed most of the top soil of our land making farming difficult. Most of our young men have also moved from farming to galamsey. Because most of the lands are destroyed within our surrounding towns it has forced most of our women into galamsey activities themselves as a means of income generations. Many years ago this community was a good farming community producing most of the foodstuffs but now we cannot talk about this, all because of Chinese into galamsey. Our rivers and streams have also become so polluted and we can no longer drink from them” (Interview, July 24, 2017, Datano).

During the field observation, photographs of some areas in Datano where mining has been going on were taken. These photographs provided a pictorial view of the issues that the interviewees had talked about concerning the damage that is being caused by small-scale mining to the environment of Datano. These are areas where some Chinese had been seen by the interviewees to be working on. Although specific names of people could not be mentioned by the interviewee, they were confident in saying that the Chinese superintended the mining activities which caused the scenes presented in the succeeding
pages. In Figure 7.3 is a small portion of a water body from which mining has been done and abandoned afterward. The residue is what is visible in the Figure.

Figure 7.3: Polluted River Afia Ameyaw in Datano

Source: Field Observation (May, 2017).

Just like the river in Figure 7.3, there were a number of places in Datano where mining has taken place in and around water bodies and abandoned afterwards. Figure 7.4 is another picture from Offin River in Datano, which was polluted, obviously, as a result of mining activity. The Ofin River is an easterly-flowing waterway in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. It flows through the Tano Ofin Reserve in Atwima Mponua District with its
riverbed being 90 metres above mean sea level. The Offin River has cut steep side channels with an average depth of 12–15 metres into the rolling terrain over which it flows. The Offin and the Pra Rivers form the boundary between the Ashanti Region and Central Region. Dunkwa-on-Offin is a major town on the river.

Figure 7.4: Polluted Offin River at Datano

Source: Field Observation (May, 2017)
Yet, another instance of water pollution is depicted in Figure 7.5 showing Asuo Abrewa. This is another example of a water body that has been abandoned after a galamsey activity.

Figure 7.5: Polluted Asuo Abrewa

Source: Field Observation (May, 2017)
Interaction and interviews with the Chief and the assemblyman of Datano area revealed that Offin, Afia Ameyaw and Asuo Abrewa rivers used to be good sources of drinking water for the people of Datano and its environs. The Chief said:

“I have been drinking from River Offin since childhood and can remember I was fetching water from River Offin for my parents”.

Not only did the river provide drinking water but also different types of fish including catfish. They further noted that some of the youth were fishing in Offin River as their source of living.

However, the situation presently is not the same because these rivers, according to the interviewees, are no longer good sources of drinking water and fishing activities. Yeboah (2013) noted that the quality of water from rivers and other water bodies has been deteriorating over the years, and mining is a major contributory factor to the problem. Offin River, in the past, was a source of life as communities along the river drank directly from it. But with its heavy pollution now, the Offin River which sustained the lives of fish and provided a source of drinking water no more does these things. Illegal small-scale miners have descended into the river with excavators and other equipment, digging for gold from the bed of the water body.

In addition to the above, Figure 7.6 presents a pictorial view of land that has been compromised due to mining at Nkwantananso in Datano. The land, although lying in an area of green vegetation, which is a signal of its pristine state before the mining activity started there, may no longer support cultivation activities as it has been reduced to bare land.
The Nkwantananso-Datano land was formerly used as farmland by the family of Opanin Aboagye in Nkwantananso-Datano. The land was with water and was used for cultivation of cash crops like cocoa and palm tree, food stuffs such as plantain, and vegetables like garden eggs. It was the main source of income for the family of “Opanin Aboagye” but
was sold in 2010 to Chinese small-scale miners. Opanin Aboagye in an informal interview said:

“I never knew this would be the state of my land...they [Chinese miners] deceived me. I may not be able to farm on the land”.

He further explained that the agreement was such that the Chinese, after extracting the gold, would refill the land to make it cultivatable but this has not been done as per the agreement.

In other interviews, the researcher asked the farmers and the chief of Datano what action they have taken to prevent entry into galamsey by the Chinese and the responses were given as follows:

“My elders and I have resolved not to allow any new immigrant into galamsey again. Even if that immigrant brings a letter from Accra, we shall not allow him to do galamsey in this area. We have also talked with the galamseyers to cover all pits as a result of their galamsey activities before they move out. This I think this will help reduce the galamsey problem in the area” (Interview, July 17, 2017, Datano).

The chief farmer of Datano pointed out that, in seeking to contest the mining activities of the Chinese in the Datano area, the farmers have consistently had to fight the Chinese in that area. This, therefore, required that something is done to prevent any further untoward circumstances. In order to do that, there has been a high-profile meeting of the chief, farmers, and elders to agree on what to do. This was expressed by the respondents in the following statement:

“Some of the farmers are into constant fight with the Chinese people in this area. Some insult them that they have taken over their lands. We came together as famers and met the chief and his elders to take action
immediately to stop Chinese from destroying our farmlands. I believe something good has come out of this. About a year now I have not seen new Chinese coming here to do galamsey. Those here are old people”. (Interview, July 22, 2017, Datano).

The people of Datano are farmers who depend largely on the environment as their source of living. In view of this, the study, in an interview, asked the chief farmer whether any farmer has been unemployed through the environmental destruction. He explained that there were many farmers, not just one:

“I am aware of 15 great farmers in just Datano alone who are staying at home not farming and not doing any other work because their lands have been taken over by galamseyers. There are other peasant farmers. As for them, they are many” (Interview, July, 24, 2017, Datano).

From the chief of Datano, it was clear that the farmers were compensated with what appeared to be huge sums of money for land takeovers by galamseyers (Chinese). He explained:

“One of them was given GH¢ 40,000 for the food crops on the acre of land he farmed on. The land was a family land and the money got was not for both the land and food crops” (Interview, July 24, 2017, Datano).

The chief further explained that, although the money was given, life after the takeover had not changed for the better. The said that farmer had five children, two in Senior High School, two in Junior High School and the last one in primary school and he finds it difficult to take good care of them. Due to financial hardship, those in Senior High School are day students because he cannot afford boarding fees for them.
The Assemblyman of Datano shared a similar experience during the interview. He noted that land often taken over by galamseyers was left in a bad state. The land often lost its fertility and nothing can be cultivated on it. He said:

“Now people have been deprived of their sources of living. How to feed families is now a problem. In the past, I could get food stuffs from the farm and even if I did not have money, we could get by because food was always available. But now the story is not the same. We have to use money to get everything but there is no money so sometimes we go to bed without food” (Interview, July 22, 2017, Datano).

Responding to the question - what is the likely outcome of environmental destruction by Chinese miners in the area? - all the interviewees in Datano unanimously disclosed that poverty is the likely outcome in Datano. The Chief of Datano explained:

“Datano is a farming community but not a mining community. The people depend on farming to feed themselves and their families. So, when the same land is taken away from them, they have no other source of living and they and their families will be poorer”.

The Assemblyman added that the galamseyers are mostly not the people of Datano but they migrate from other parts of Ghana and outside Ghana (like the Chinese). He further added that, whatever money is gotten from mining, a greater percentage is spent outside Datano, so small-scale mining, and galamsey in particular, is not a wealth creating activity for the people of Datano, but rather, it tends to make the people of Datano poorer.

While the Chinese are known to be participating in small-scale mining in Datano, scores of Ghanaians also labour in this mining. But it has emerged that the mining has not made the members in the community rich; rather, families are becoming poor, and they risk being poorer due to the mining until such a time that the negative effects of the mining
are addressed. In Datano, the concern has been raised that the labourers in the mining are not remarkably constituted by members of the Datano community. This implies that many of the Ghanaian miners in Datano are not natives of Datano but have migrated to the place because of mining. The increased population that this migration brings has other implications too. For example, availability of food and shelter, as well as integrating non-residents into the community could be a challenge for the community to deal with.

China is often accused of neglecting environmental standards and laws when extracting minerals or building infrastructure (Liu, 2013). Chinese companies are implicated in instances of illegal logging, fishing and mining activities where environmental standards are not often taken into consideration (Lemos & Ribeiro, 2007). A study by Conservation International on the nature of Chinese extractive mining in Africa found that in countries where environmental regulatory measures were not enforced, Chinese firms merely applied the Chinese guidelines to which they were used to. This implies that the responsibility resides with the Government of Ghana to set and implement adequate environmental policies.

In another instance, Anarfi et al. (2016) found that lying in the same Amansie West District as Datano is a Millennium Village Project (MVP) which is an area to be used as a village model in Ghana has been encroached upon and reduced of its beautify due to Chinese small scale mining activities that degrade the land.

Thus far, the findings show that the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ business activities are perceived to have negative environmental effects which supersede any positive effects. Whereas many of these negative effects were perceived by the SME operators as
due to retail activities participated in by the immigrants, a remarkable one was the mining activities of Chinese immigrants. Throughout the analysis, the negative nature of the environmental effects of the immigrants’ business activities portrayed a sense of insecurity; insecurity of livelihoods of local people and a need for action to be taken to curtail the negative consequences of the immigrants’ business activities in the foreseeable future.

The condition, in which farmlands for local farmers have been destroyed due to mining activities, as shown by the interviewees, is one that poses a security challenge to the people in the Datano area in terms of food, agribusiness, general economic wellbeing, community integration, among others. The mining activities rendered the farmlands uncultivable. If the people were made hungry because of such mining activities, their dissatisfaction will be expressed against the mining activities and those who mine. This could translate into strong aversion of the local people to the mining activities, and conflict between them, the immigrants and other stakeholders.

### 7.4 Conclusions

It was revealed in the chapter that, among SME operators, there is the perception that local businessmen feel threatened by Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ business activities in Ghana. There was also a high perception that Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ businesses have negative economic and environmental effects on local or indigenous businesses. Nigerian immigrants’ businesses were perceived to be associated with nearly every negative economic effect on local businesses, for example, decreased profits, high indebtedness, decreased savings, low patronage and price cuts of local businesses. Likewise, there is the perception that Chinese businesses were linked with
decreased profit, decreased savings, and decreased market share of local businesses. Local businesses also lost their employees to Chinese immigrant businesses. Mining activities of Chinese immigrants is a source of negative economic and/or environmental effect on Ghanaians. These phenomena are undercurrents of the discontentment of the SME operators on the way Nigerian and Chinese immigrants undertake business activities in Ghana.

Even though both Nigerian and Chinese immigrants in retail businesses cause remarkable economic effect, it is the Nigerians who are believed to pose greater economic difficulties to local businesses. The Chinese’s infamous small-scale mining activities in Ghana are believed by SME operators and the local community to be the leading cause of environmental degradation.

These issues amount to an increasing perception that local businessmen are put under distress and the Ghanaian environment suffers degradation due to an improperly controlled business activity of foreigners in Ghana. Without a properly functioning system to ensure that there is harmony between local businesses and the business activities of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants, local businesses and the Ghanaian environment will be under threat of destruction.

There are some perceptions about positive effects of the immigrants’ business activities on local businesses revealed by the study. For instance, easy adaption of new business to the environment, and strategic pricing of both Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ businesses obviously create competition which brings innovative ideas and strategies in business. Certainly, this competition is good for the economic growth of Ghana.
However, it introduces a new challenge which is, basically, Ghana’s inability to reconcile the positive and negative aspects of the immigrants’ involvement in business in the country and ensure that the local people are not made worse off. A good starting point will be to understand the concerns of SME operators on Nigerian and Chinese business activities.

This chapter gave evidence of places in Datano where Chinese small-scale mining activities, locally called ‘galamsey’ have taken place. Galamsey is known for its destructive, illegal, and deleterious methods of exploiting minerals like gold in Ghana. Community members lamented their ordeal with galamsey having to do with loss of land, and a sense that they were being short-changed by the activities of the Chinese in mining in their area. Knowledge of small-scale mining activities like this in different parts of Ghana is, therefore, creating a new urgency and strategy to crackdown on galamsey.

In the next and last chapter, the study is concluded bearing in mind the purpose and objectives of the study. The key findings regarding how Nigerian and Chinese immigrants are perceived by SME operators to make their way into Ghana, who their facilitators are, the characteristics of the immigrants’ businesses, and what motivated them to move to Ghana and participate in the kinds of business they were known to engage in the view of the SME operators. The implications of the study and the new insights it brings as well as recommendations are also discussed in the next chapter.
CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

For some time now, Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ involvement in business activities in Ghana has attracted considerable attention mainly due to tensions it arouses with indigenous businesses. Nigerian immigrants are generally involved in trading and banking while Chinese immigrants are principally involved in general trading, construction, manufacturing, metal, restaurant and small-scale mining industries in Ghana.

Realizing the need for business activities of immigrants to boost economic growth in Ghana, the country has enacted laws to promote immigrant businesses but also to protect indigenous ones from collapsing due to unfair competition. The law restricts immigrants from engaging in certain types of businesses. The prominent law in this regard is the GIPC Act, 2013 (Act 865) which makes amendments to, and replaces the GIPC Act, 1994 (Act 478). Despite the restrictions, there were concerns that Nigerian and Chinese immigrants are venturing into businesses that they are not supposed to do. This resulted in demonstrations by GUTA, calling for the laws to be enforced (Debrah, 2007; Ho, 2012; Marfaing & Theil, 2001). These occurrences may have other implications too.

The general objective of this study was to investigate the economic and environmental security implications of the participation of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants in businesses reserved for Ghanaians in Ghana. This was done by examining how the
immigrants move to Ghana, their motivations for moving and participate in restricted businesses.

The methodology employed for the study was mixed methods with questionnaire and in-depth interview guide as the instruments for primary data collection. Kumasi (Magazine) and Datano (Amansie West District), in the Ashanti Region, and the Adabraka to Circle stretch in the Greater Accra Region were the study sites. The study was based on the perceptions of SME operators in the study settings. In all, 798 SME operators participated in the study, with 11 key informants comprising officials from Ministry of Trade, Ghana Investment Promotion Centre, Ghana Immigration Service, Ghana Union of Traders Association, Accra and Kumasi Metropolitan Assemblies, and Datano community.

8.2 Major Findings

The findings showed that the majority (60.4 percent and 79.7 percent respectively) of the SME operators perceived that Nigerian and Chinese immigrants migrate to Ghana through official routes. Over 20 percent of the SME operators, however, perceived that the immigrants used unofficial routes to move to Ghana. The findings of the study indicate that many spots along the borders of Ghana are porous and make the country prone to illegal entry. A higher proportion (32.7 percent) of the SME operators perceive that the Nigerians migrate to Ghana illegally compared to the proportion (20.3 percent) who think so about the Chinese. This is because of the wide geographical distance between China and Ghana which often makes it compelling for them to travel to Ghana by air and, in the process, use the airport. The Nigerians on the other hand, have proximity advantage. They may also enter under the ECOWAS protocol on free
movement, residence and establishment. As nationals of ECOWAS state they can enter
Ghana without visa and stay for 90 days officials. They may overstay for business
purposes. Apart from that, the wide differences in skin complexion between Ghanaians
and Chinese makes it easy to identify the Chinese making it riskier for them to use
unapproved routes as would the Nigerians who may look sometimes like Ghanaians.

The findings further showed that border residents form allies with some immigrants to
assist them to cross the border at unapproved points along the border. Some of the border
residents commercialized their assistance to immigrants as their source of livelihood.
Family and friends were also perceived to facilitate both Nigerian and Chinese’s entry
into Ghana.

Regarding the types of businesses engaged in by the immigrants, the majority (61
percent) of the SME operators perceived that majority of the Nigerian and Chinese were
in retailing business. More than two out of every five (44.4 percent) of the SME operators
also perceived the Chinese to be in retailing business. A higher percentage of the SME
operators perceived that the Chinese are participated in small-scale mining and restaurant
business compared to the percent who think so about the Chinese; zero in the case of
mining and 6.1 percent in respect of restaurant was for the Nigerians, whiles 13.5 percent
in the case of mining and 9.6 percent in respect of restaurant was for the Chinese. This
finding is consistent with previous studies (Takyi-Boadu, 2005; Debrah, 2007; Baah et
al., 2009; Liu, 2013; Lampert & Mohan, 2014).

More than half (54.6 percent) of the SME operators perceived that the Nigerian and
Chinese businesses have not been registered. Most (53.5 percent) of them also perceived
that the immigrants owned their businesses alone and rarely engaged in partnership with local businessmen. The SME operators were opposed to the nature of businesses operated by the immigrants, which evidences the feeling of traders in the country that engendered the demonstration organized by GUTA against the Nigerian and Chinese traders’ activities and the weak manner in which the laws regulating their activities were being enforced (Debrah, 2007).

The findings also showed that some motivations influence the Nigerians and Chinese to move to Ghana according to the SME operators. Larger proportions (over 50 percent) of the SME operators agreed or strongly agreed with the notion that availability of market, poor monitoring of immigrants’ businesses, and low capital requirement for business startup in Ghana are economic motivations that influence the Nigerians to engage in business in the country, compared with those who disagreed or strongly disagreed with same. Over 50 percent of the SME operators also agreed or strongly agreed with the view that low capital requirement for business startup, availability of market, poor monitoring of immigrants’ businesses, and availability of raw materials in Ghana, motivate the Chinese to do business in the country. The main social factor perceived to motivate the immigrants is social networking as perceived by the SME operators.

The findings showed that the motivations perceived by the SME operators concerning the businesses of the Nigerians and Chinese also influence their choice of routes to Ghana. The perception of the SME operators that poor monitoring of immigrants’ businesses and available raw materials or resources in Ghana motivate the Nigerians and Chinese also increases their perception that the immigrants use unofficial routes to move to Ghana.
The SME operators perceive that availability of market in Ghana accounts for the Nigerians’ use of unofficial or unauthorized routes to move to Ghana. Similarly, innovative business capabilities, loyalty to customers, and easy adaptation to the business environment are traits of the Nigerians that motivate them to use unofficial routes to move to Ghana, according to the SME operators. Meanwhile, the SME operators with high level of education (tertiary education) are more inclined to perceive that the Nigerians use unofficial routes to move to Ghana. Perhaps, at that level, many of the SME operators have some appreciable ability to interact or communicate with businessmen and women from various divides, and to apprehend how the Nigerians undertake their journeys to Ghana and for what reasons they move to Ghana.

The SME operators hold the view that stable macroeconomic environment in Ghana motivates Chinese immigrants to use unofficial routes to move to Ghana rather than official routes. Likewise, innovative business traits of the Chinese, including their industry skills are perceived by the SME operators as motivations for the Chinese to use unofficial routes to move to Ghana.

The SME operators perceived some significant economic and environmental threats that are attributable to Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ participation in businesses reserved for Ghanaians in Ghana. The SME operators further perceive that Nigerian and Chinese immigrants participating in businesses reserved for Ghanaians constitute a threat to indigenous SMEs. This perception is found to be among a greater proportion of the SME operators in the Ashanti Region than in the Greater Accra Region. This difference is expected since the mining activities of the immigrants that cause environmental threats
are located in the Ashanti Region. Other economic activities, remarkably in retailing, cause environmental threat.

The study revealed that, both Nigerians and Chinese in retailing are significantly perceived as responsible for the negative economic effects on local businesses. Decreased market share of local businesses, decreased profits and high indebtedness, forced price cuts, decreased savings of local businesses, and low patronage of products of local businesses, were perceived by the SME operators as the economic effects of Nigerian immigrants’ business activities. In the case of the Chinese immigrants, the SME operators perceived that the Chinese’s involvement in businesses reserved for Ghanaians is the cause of decreased profits, decreased savings, and decreased market share to the disadvantage of locally-owned businesses. The Chinese businesses are also perceived by the SME operators as the cause of high employee turnover in locally-owned businesses.

The findings showed that, although there are perceived positive economic attributes of Nigerian and Chinese businesses, these have not outweighed or superseded their perceived negative effects. The notable positive attributes perceived about immigrants’ businesses by the SME operators include their ability to adapt to the business environment and low strategic pricing. The Chinese immigrants’ businesses are perceived as innovative with improved industry skills, excellent customer relationships, and loyalty to customers. The Nigerian immigrants’ businesses are perceived as excellent at customer relationships, loyal to customers, innovative, and skilled in industry.

Regarding the environmental effects, the study found that over 50 percent of the SME operators agree or strongly agree that the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ businesses
are responsible for a large part of the environmental problems in Ghana. The notable evidence of the environmental problems is in small-scale mining. Between the two immigrants, the Chinese are remarkably perceived as the cause of the environmental problems associated with small-scale mining. Their mining activities deprived people of fertile land, polluted water bodies, degraded farming land, and damaged the agricultural landscape in Datano community in the Ashanti Region. That notwithstanding, immigrants’ business activities in retailing are also perceived to be responsible for environmental problems.

8.3 Conclusion

The findings in this study lead to four major claims concerning: (1) how Nigerian and Chinese immigrants migrate to Ghana to do business; (2) the nature of businesses of these immigrants in Ghana; (3) the incentives or motivations for these immigrants to engage in the businesses in Ghana, including those which they were restricted from doing; and (4) the effect of these immigrants’ businesses on economic and environmental security.

The study establishes from the perception of SME operators that a considerable proportion of Nigerians and some Chinese immigrants in Ghana utilize unofficial routes in entering Ghana, albeit, many of them use the approved or official routes. This raises a fundamental issue about the porous nature of Ghana’s borders. Nigerian immigrants are more likely to utilize the unofficial routes, many of which have been identified in this study in Chapter Five. This perception is primarily because of proximity; and they are ECOWAS nationals and can easily identify with neighbouring countries like Ghana, unlike the Chinese. But they tend to use the unofficial routes to facilitate the smuggling of their trade commodities into the country which would have either been taxed or
prevented entry due to their illicitness or substandard nature. Without meeting any of these checks or obstacles, these commodities are moved into Ghana at lower costs and they are often traded at lower costs which engage some local businesses in pricing competition. Those who facilitate the immigrants’ entry into Ghana through unofficial or illegal routes include family members and friends, as well as border residents.

Once they migrate to Ghana, there is a huge perception that a lot of the Nigerian and Chinese businessmen go in to retail businesses. A considerable proportion of the Chinese are perceived to be involved in small-scale mining in Ghana, which is against the law governing immigrants’ businesses in Ghana according to the GIPC Act, 2013 (Act 865). This Act could, therefore, be the tool with which to address the illegality of immigrants’ involvement in small-scale mining, and also in retail activities. Failure of the government to do so resulted in demonstrations by GUTA in protest of the businesses that immigrants were being allowed to operate in. Consistent with that, this study provides evidence that local businessmen are against the involvement of Nigerian and Chinese businessmen in retail businesses. This study confirms Bamfo’s (2013) observation that Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ business activities pose serious tensions between immigrant businessmen and indigenous businessmen. By examining the effect of Chinese and Nigerian immigrants’ business activities on the Ghanaian economy and environment, this study, therefore, expands the knowledge about the issues between the immigrant businessmen and indigenous businessmen.

This study makes the significant contribution to understanding the properties of the businesses owned by Nigerians and Chinese, and why these immigrants would venture into the kinds of business that they were restricted from going into. While the immigrants
seek to make profits, they pose economic and environmental threats to local businesses and communities. They reduce the viability of locally-owned business or may even lead to their collapse due to competition. The small-scale mining engaged in by the Chinese immigrants is notably responsible for the environmental insecurity, although retailing activities by the both groups of immigrants also cause environmental insecurity, as perceived by the SME operators.

It is established in the study that perceived low capital required to start a business in Ghana reduces the likelihood of Nigerian immigrants coming to Ghana through unofficial routes compared to official routes. Also, an increase in the perception of availability of raw materials reduces the likelihood of Nigerian immigrants coming to Ghana through unofficial routes as against the official routes. Contrarily, the perceived likelihood of Nigerians using unofficial routes increases when there is an available market in Ghana, likewise when there is an improvement in stable power supply. For the Chinese, perceived improvement in availability of raw materials increases their likelihood of using unofficial routes in entering Ghana. The import of these claims is that the immigrants are invariably looking for favourable conditions or loopholes in the economic structure of the country to make business profits. Overall, the SME operators perceive that Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ businesses pose significant economic and environmental insecurity to local businessmen and communities in Ghana.

8.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, a number of recommendations are proffered. If the perceptions on which the findings of this study are hinged, are true and reflect the situation on the ground, then the recommendation are as follows:
First, it is important that strict security at all Ghana’s borders be observed and all the identified unapproved routes blocked to prevent illegal entry of immigrants into Ghana. To ensure effective implementation of this recommendation, the personnel strength of immigration officers at the borders needs to be beefed up. It would be appropriate for all state security agencies whose mandate covers the borders or immigration affairs in Ghana to discuss the possible way to improve the staff strength and maintain their fair representation at the border posts with clear description of their tasks. The aim here should be to help to reduce the stress that the officers go through to monitor the various illegal entry points on the various borders. It must also be noted that logistics to enable the officers to do their work effectively needs to be provided to include bullet proof vests, shields and guns as prescribed in Section 908 of the new Immigration Act, 2016. A needs assessment considering ideas from the officers should lead the decision as to which logistics to provide. Also, security along the borders is undermined because the object, a wire-mesh, serving as a barrier has been broken or it is perhaps not the appropriate material to block unapproved entry into Ghana. The concept of some form of border wall should be applied, but this requires substantial investment by the Government of Ghana; however, it would bring the advantage of improved revenue collection, acquisition of data on migration, and appropriate decision making in respect of migration in Ghana.

Second, the issue of immigrants engaging in business activities from which they are legally restricted in Ghana needs to be well addressed. A greater part of the difficulty in managing this issue is finding out what the immigrants’ businesses are and where they are located. Government should take steps to redefine a retailing business and where they should be located for fair economic benefits to prevail through the enforcement of the law.
(Act 865). Meanwhile, Ghanaian-foreigners’ business partnerships should be encouraged so that the entrepreneurial synergy between Ghanaians and foreign businessmen can be harnessed, and also to promote a friendly business environment where foreigners can do business and to move further away from the kind of opposition from Ghanaians as has been witnessed in the latter times.

Third, the GIPC Act, 2013 (Act 865), particularly Section 27, needs to be enforced. The formation of a taskforce consisting of all the stakeholder institutions - GIPC, Ministry of Trade and Industry, CEPS, Ghana Labour Commission, Ghana Police, Local Assemblies, and Immigration - should be revitalized and supported logistically to monitor and supervise immigrants’ business activities according to the law. Data on immigrants’ businesses in every district in Ghana should be collected and updated for this monitoring and supervision purposes. This will give the Ghana Statistical Service a renewed challenge to create data on immigrants and their business activities in Ghana.

Fourth, the Environmental Protection Agency and Lands Commission are two state agencies that need to be proactive in managing the environmental effects of immigrants’ business activities. Particularly, with regards to Chinese and small-scale mining that must be controlled, the Lands Commission and Environmental Protection Agency need closer cooperation and collaboration to obtain up-to-date information on their activities and to supervise them. Added to that, immigrants’ business activities that may undermine the environment and the landscape should be closely monitored by these agencies to keep them in compliance with the environmental laws.
Fifth, the Ghana Immigration Service needs to create a National Immigration Data Hub to improve upon data on immigration. This is because there is currently a lack of adequate data on immigrants. The Ghana Immigration Service should improve upon data on immigration by collaborating with other state institutions like the Ghana Statistical Service, Ghana Police Service, and the Ministry of Trade and Industry. The Ghana Immigration Service, then, should be able to integrate various kinds of data from different institutions on immigrants together with data obtained by itself on immigrants for the purposes of monitoring and decision-making concerning immigrants.

Sixth, there is need for continuous education and information provision to the public on the issues concerning immigrants’ business activities. It is not farfetched to reason that some Ghanaian businessmen and women assist immigrants to move to Ghana and participate in businesses reserved for Ghanaians. Sensitization on the dangers of encouraging foreigners to venture into illegal business activities should be carried out. Ghanaian entrepreneurs should rather be provided with legal environment and courage to engage in partnerships with foreign businessmen.

Finally, immigrants in Ghana operating different kinds of businesses are contributing to the economy of Ghana. Local businesses alone would not be able to supply the goods and services that are demanded in the economy. Some immigrant businesses have provided employment to some Ghanaians who otherwise would have added to the employment level in the economy. A large number of local businesses need some considerable capital and sometimes technical support to be able to expand. Sometimes, immigrant businesses would have to facilitate the local business’s access to raw materials and technical support that can be efficiently obtained from other countries. Still, government cannot claim
sufficient taxes to run the affairs of the country without the contribution of immigrants who in business and are paying taxes to the government. All these considerations demand that any policy framework to address immigrant businesses in Ghana should be able to encourage immigrant businessmen while local businesses are being protected. To be able to do this, Ghana must examine interdependence between local businesses and immigrant business and strengthens it. The appropriate agencies, such as the Ministry of Trade and Industry and the Ghana Investment Promotion Centre should be tasked to identify where all such interdependencies are, evaluate them and regulate how business would be conducted between foreign and local business enterprises so that both enterprises would grow.

8.5 Recommendations for Future Research

The researcher is not oblivious of the fact that no single study has ever been able to identify every aspect of an inquiry, and this study on immigrants’ business activities and security is not exempted. Accordingly, it must be mentioned that this study was confined to Nigerian and Chinese immigrants’ businesses in Ghana and their implications for economic and environmental security. The study was on the modes of entry of these immigrants into Ghana, the nature of the businesses they engage in, and the consequences of their business activities on economic and environmental security from the perspectives of selected SME operators and key informants. The findings from the study are based on the perceptions of these participants. Data which is not based on perceptions to confirm these findings may be used to further develop the findings in this area of study. It is recommended that future studies should obtain statistical data as much as possible from the immigrants themselves so that actual findings on the activities of these foreign
nationals in Ghana’s business sector and the inclinations of Ghanaians towards these businesses may be affirmed. Research evidence from such a study can inform policy just as the present study would do and even better.
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APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SME OPERATORS

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON
CENTRE FOR MIGRATION STUDIES

Introduction
My name is Maxwell Acheampong PhD candidate in Centre for Migration Studies, at the University of Ghana, Legon. I am undertaking a research for my thesis as part of the requirements for PhD in Migration Studies. The thesis aims to understand the Ghanaians’ perception of the business activities of Chinese and Nigerian immigrants in some selected regions in Ghana. Your input is very essential for the success of this thesis. Whatever information you will give will be handled confidentially and as such will not be distributed to a third party; it will be used only for academic purposes.

Migration and Security: A study of Ghanaians’ perception of the business activities of Nigerian and Chinese immigrants in some selected Regions in Ghana

Identification;

Town..................................... Location....................................Region..............................

SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

1. Age on last birthday ….............................

2. Sex: 1=Male [ ] 2=Female [ ]

3. Educational Level
1. **What is your marital status?**
   1. Never Married [   ] 2=Informal/Consensual [   ] 3=Married [   ]
   4=Separated [   ] 5=Divorced [   ] 6=Widowed [   ]

2. **Religious affiliation**
   1=No religion [   ] 2=Catholic [   ] 3=Protestant [   ] 4=Pentecostal [   ]
   5=Islam [   ] 6=Ahmadi [   ] 7=Traditionalist [   ]
   8. Others (Specify) …………………………………………………………………………..

3. **Indicate you the nature of your business.**
   1=Retail [   ] 2=Wholesale [   ] 3=Manufacturing [   ]
   4=Transportation [   ] 5=Restaurants [   ] 6=Small scale mining [   ] 7=Hotel [   ] 8=Others [   ]

**SECTION B. ENTRY OF IMMIGRANTS INTO GHANA**

4. **How do Nigerian immigrants migrate to Ghana?**
   1=Official route [   ] 2=Unofficial route [   ]
   3=ECOWAS free movement [   ]

5. **How do Chinese migrate to Ghana?**
   1=Official route [   ] 2=Unofficial routes [   ]

6. **Which of these key actors promote entry of Nigerian immigrants into Ghana to enter prohibited Ghanaian businesses?**
   1=Travelling agents [   ] 2=Security officers [   ] 3=Government officials [   ]
   4=Family/friends [   ] 5=Traditional Leaders [   ] 6=Business partners [   ] 7=others [   ]
7. Which of these key actors promote entry of Chinese immigrants into Ghana to enter prohibited Ghanaian businesses?

1= Travelling agents [ ] 2=Security officers [ ] 3=Government officials [ ]
4=Family/friends [ ] 5=Traditional Leaders [ ] 6=Business partners [ ]
7=Others [ ]

SECTION C. NATURE OF BUSINESSES OF IMMIGRANTS

8. Indicate the nature of businesses of Nigerian immigrants in the area.

1=Retail [ ] 2=Wholesale [ ] 3=Manufacturing [ ]
4=Transportation [ ] 5=Restaurants [ ] 6=Small scale mining [ ]
7=Hotel [ ] 8=Others [ ]

9. Indicate the nature of businesses of Chinese immigrants in the area.

1=Retail [ ] 2=Wholesale [ ] 3=Manufacturing [ ]
4=Transportation [ ] 5=Restaurants [ ] 6=Small scale mining [ ]
7=Hotel [ ] 8=Others [ ]

10. Indicate the ownership structure of Nigerian immigrants businesses in the area

1=Sole proprietorship [ ] 2=Partnership [ ] 3=I don’t know [ ]

11. Indicate the ownership structure of Chinese immigrants businesses in the area

1=Sole proprietorship [ ] 2=Partnership [ ] 3=I don’t know [ ]

12. Are you comfortable with Nigerian immigrant business activities in the area?

1=Yes [ ] 2=No [ ] 3=I don’t know [ ]

13. Are you comfortable with Nigerian immigrant business activities in the area?

1=Yes [ ] 2=No [ ] 3=I don’t know [ ]

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SECTION D. INCENTIVES FOR IMMIGRANTS TO PARTICIPATE IN RESTRICTED BUSINESS ACTIVITIES

14. Use the scale below to indicate the extent of agreement or disagreement to the selected economic incentives for Nigerian immigrants to participate in restricted business activities in your area.

1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4= agree; 5= strongly agree

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<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
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<td>Lower capital requirement</td>
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<td>Poor monitoring</td>
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<td>Raw materials</td>
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<td>Stable power supply</td>
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<td>Stable macroeconomic environment</td>
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15. Use the scale below to indicate the extent of agreement or disagreement to the selected economic incentives for Chinese immigrants to participate in restricted business activities in your area.

1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4= agree; 5= strongly agree

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<td>Stable macroeconomic environment</td>
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16. Which of the following social incentives mostly encourage Nigerian immigrants to participate in restricted business activities?

1=Marriage between Ghanaian and immigrants [   ]
2=Friendship between Ghanaian and immigrants [   ]
3= Network among immigrants [   ]

17. Which of the following social incentives mostly encourage Chinese immigrants to participate in restricted business activities?

1=Marriage between Ghanaian and immigrants [   ]
2=Friendship between Ghanaian and immigrants [   ]
3= Network among immigrants [   ]


1=Strongly disagree [ ] 2=Disagree [ ] 3=Neutral [ ] 4=Agree [ ]
5=Strongly Agree [ ]


1=Strongly disagree [ ] 2=Disagree [ ] 3=Neutral [ ] 4=Agree [ ]
5=Strongly Agree [ ]

SECTION E. EFFECTS OF IMMIGRANTS INTO RESTRICTED BUSINESS ON ECONOMIC SECURITY THREATS

20. To what extent have Nigerian immigrants into restricted business have had negative effects on Ghanaian SMEs?

1= Very low [ ] 2=low [ ] 3=Neutral [ ] 4=High [ ]
5=Very High[ ]
21. To what extent have Chinese immigrants into restricted business have had negative effects on Ghanaian SMEs?

1=Very low  [    ]  2=low [    ]  3=Neutral [    ]  4=High [    ]  5=Very High[    ]

22. Use the scale below to indicate the extent of agreement or disagreement to the selected negative effects of Nigerian immigrants participate in restricted business activities on Ghanaian SMEs

1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

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<td>Price cutting leading to lower pricing</td>
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<td>lower patronage of products</td>
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<td>Decreasing business savings</td>
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</table>

23. Use the scale below to indicate the extent of agreement or disagreement to the selected negative effects of Chinese immigrants participate in restricted business activities on Ghanaian SMEs

1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

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<thead>
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</table>
24. To what extent have Nigerian immigrants into restricted business activities have had positive effect on the SMEs in the area?

1=Very low [ ] 2=low [ ] 3=Neutral [ ] 4=High [ ]
5=Very High [ ]

25. To what extent have Chinese immigrants into restricted business activities have had positive effect on the SMEs in the area?

1=Very low [ ] 2=low [ ] 3=Neutral [ ] 4=High [ ]
5=Very High [ ]

26. If yes to Q27 and or 28, indicate how the business activities of immigrants have had positive effects on the SMEs in this area.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive Effects</th>
<th>Nigerian Immigrant Businesses</th>
<th>Chinese Immigrant Businesses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovative business</td>
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<tr>
<td>Excellent customer relationship</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Excellent pricing strategy</td>
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<tr>
<td>loyalty to customers</td>
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<tr>
<td>Improvement in industry skills</td>
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<td>Easy adaptation new business</td>
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<td>environment</td>
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SECTION F. EFFECTS OF IMMIGRANTS INTO RESTRICTED BUSINESS ON ECONOMIC SECURITY THREATS

27. Use the scale below to indicate the extent of agreement or disagreement to the selected negative effects of Nigerian immigrants participate in restricted business activities on the environment.
1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4= agree; 5= strongly agree

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<td>Immigrants businesses degrade farming land</td>
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<td>Immigrants businesses pollute water bodies</td>
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<td>Immigrant businesses pollute the air</td>
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<td>Immigrant businesses create noise pollution</td>
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<td>Immigrant businesses deprived people of fertile land</td>
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28. Use the scale below to indicate the extent of agreement or disagreement to the selected negative effects of Chinese immigrants participate in restricted business activities on the environment.

1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4= agree; 5= strongly agree

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APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR GHANA IMMIGRATION SERVICE

1. What is your position in this institution?
2. Can you tell me the process which a Chinese and Nigerian immigrant goes through before entering Ghana?

3. Apart from approve route into the country are there any unapproved route by which immigrants migrate to Ghana?

4. Can you tell me some of the unapproved routes at the various borders?

5. What is the institution doing about the unapproved routes?

6. Do you have knowledge of any actors who assist the immigrant into the country through:
   i. The approved routes
   ii. Unapproved routes

7. How often does your institution monitor the businesses of immigrants in Ghana?
   Any explanation?

8. Are they into restricted business activities?

9. What should be done to stop immigrants’ entry into restricted business activities in Ghana?
APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR GHANA UNION OF TRADERS ASSOCIATION

1. What is your position in this institution?

2. To what extent do you agree that Chinese and Nigerian immigrants are engaging in restricted business activities?

3. Describe the business activities of Chinese and Nigerians immigrants.

4. What paved ways for the Chinese and Nigerians to enter the restricted Ghanaian business?

5. To what extent do Chinese and Nigerians businesses affect the sale value, market and profitability of Ghanaian SMEs?

6. To what extent do Nigerians and Chinese immigrant business affect the environment?
   i. Farmlands
   ii. Water bodies

7. Are you comfortable with immigrant in the restricted business activities?

8. What should be done to stop entry of immigrants into restricted Ghanaian business activities?
APPENDIX D: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR MINISTRY OF TRADE / GHANA
INVESTMENT PROMOTION CENTER

1. To what extent do you agree that Chinese and Nigerian immigrants are engaging in restricted business activities?

2. Describe the business activities of Chinese and Nigerians immigrants

3. What paved ways for the Chinese and Nigerians to enter the restricted Ghanaian business?

4. To what extent do Chinese and Nigerians businesses affect the sale value, market and profitability of Ghanaian SMEs?

5. To what extent do Nigerian and Chinese immigrant business affect the environment?
   i. Farmlands
   ii. Water bodies

6. Are you comfortable with immigrant in the restricted business activities?

7. What is your institution doing to stop entry of immigrants into restricted Ghanaian business activities?
APPENDIX E: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR ACCRA METROPOLITAN ASSEMBLY AND KUMASI METROPOLITAN ASSEMBLY

1. To what extent do you agree that Chinese and Nigerian immigrants are engaging in restricted business activities?

2. What business activities do Chinese and Nigerians immigrants participate in the metropolis?

3. Why are the Nigerian and Chinese immigrants participated in these types of business?

4. To what extent do Chinese and Nigerians businesses affect the growth SMEs in the metropolis?

5. What is the assembly doing to stop Chinese and Nigerian immigrants’ entry into restricted businesses activities?
APPENDIX F: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR CHIEF, ASSEMBLYMAN, CHIEF

FARMER IN DATANO

1. To what extent do Chinese and Nigerian immigrants participate in small scale mining in the area?

2. Are you comfortable with activities on immigrants in the area?

3. What effects do the immigrants business activities have on the farm lands?

4. What effects do the immigrants business activities have on water bodies like River Offin?

5. Are the activities of the immigrants worsening the poverty situation in the area?

6. What action have community taken to stop the illegal activities of immigrants in the area?