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**MIGRATION AND EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS
IN GHANA**

BY

**RHODA TAKYIWAA BOAKYE
(10393082)**



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DECLARATION

I Rhoda Takyiwaa Boakye, hereby declare that this dissertation titled ‘Migration and Employment Characteristics in Ghana is my own work toward the award of Master of Arts in Population Studies. I further declare that it contains no material previously published by any other person nor material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree in the University or any other institution, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text and in the reference list.

.....
RHODA TAKYIWAA BOAKYE

.....
DATE

.....
(PROF. JOHN K. ANARFI)
SUPERVISOR

.....
DATE

DEDICATION

To the memory of my late father, Mr. Ernest Takyi Boakye; may his soul rest in perfect peace. To my mother Madam Vida Owusu Achiaw for her love and prayer support throughout my education. To my elder brother Elvis Akwasi Acheampong (Yale University) and Professor James C. Saku (Frostburg University) for their financial support to make this dream a reality.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

FAO –	Food and Agricultural Organization
GLSS-	Ghana Living Standard Survey
GMT –	Global Employment Trends
GoG-	Government of Ghana
GSS –	Ghana Statistical Service
IBEA –	Integrated Business Establishment Survey
ILO –	International Labour Organization
IOM –	International Organization for Migration
UK-DFID-	United Kingdom Department for International Development
UNDP-	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF-	United Nations Children’s Fund
WMR –	World Migration Report

ABSTRACT

Studies on internal migration in Ghana have largely been on the prominence of rural to urban migration. But little is known on the various types of internal migration and the factors influencing their employment characteristics. This paper is a quantitative research which employed the Ghana Living Standard Survey round six (GLSS, 2013/2014) and a sample size of 7,195 migrants aged between 15 and 34 years to investigate the socioeconomic factors that influence migrants employment characteristics in Ghana.

The results at the univariate show that females constituted more than half of the migrants. This is an interesting finding because it is generally believed that men move internally than women. Findings at the bivariate and multivariate also reveals that variables like sex, age, educational attainment were statistically significantly associated with employment characteristics whereas internal migrant type, marital status, religious denomination, ethnicity and region were not statistically significantly associated with formal sector jobs at the multivariate level.

Keywords: migrant type, employment characteristics, informal sector, formal sector, no current job, Ghana.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY.

Migration is the permanent movement of people from one location to another. It usually involves a change in the residential address and movement of personal possessions. Migration is a phenomenon that touches a wide variety of lives and people of different backgrounds around the world. Most often, there is a close relationship between migration, geopolitics, trade, and cultural exchange. This relationship creates tremendous benefits to states, businesses and the community as a whole. Although migration comes with its complexities and multiplicities of issues, it has contributed positively to the lives of people both in the country of origin and destination. Conversely, migration has also led to displacement of people due to conflicts, persecutions, environmental degradation, change in climate and extreme lack of human security and opportunity (World Migration Report, 2018).

Migration occurs at two spatial levels, international and internal. International migration involves movement of people from one country to another. As such, migrants are often confronted with regulations first and foremost from the country of origin and subsequently the potential country of destination. For example, international migrants are required to obtain a passport from their country of origin and a visa from the potential country of destination. These factors serve as intervening obstacles to international migrants. Internal migration on the other hand is the movement of people within their country. There are no territorial restrictions or legal constraints associated with internal migration. Internal migrants can move freely within the country (Adepoju, 1984). Migration involves three major actors. They include the migrants, the area or country of origin, and the area or country of destination. Both international and internal migrations have causes and consequences. These

causes and consequences can either be economic, political, social or demographic (Heisel, 1982).

Recent global estimates in 2015 indicate that there were 244 million international migrants in the world, representing 3.3 percent of the global population (Trends in International Migrant Stock, 2015) while estimate in 2009 of internal migrants was about 740 million. This means more people migrate within countries than across national borders. Also, research by the International Organization for Migration (IOM), shows that internal migration in most countries is far greater than international migration (IOM, 2005). Countries with very large proportions of internal migrants include Vietnam, India, and China (Anh et al., 2003; Srivastava and Sasi Kumar, 2003; Ping, 2003).

There are two perspectives about employment; a person can either be employed or unemployed. An employed person is someone who is actually engaged in any type of work for a livelihood. Where 'Work refers to any economic activity performed by an individual that contributes to economic production of goods and services' (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). An unemployed person, on the other hand, is an individual who is not engaged in any work and has no attachment to a job or business and is potentially available for jobs (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

According to employment reports, out of the world's 7 billion people, 3 billion people are gainfully employed and 205 million people are unemployed. These statistics depict a very high level of employment in the world. Again it was found out that 74.5 million young people aged 15 to 24 years were unemployed in 2013. This affirms that more adults are employed than the youth (Global Employment Trends, 2014).

The International Labour Organization indicates that there is a slight decline in employment globally, about 0.1 percent. The employment rate among the working population declined

steadily from 61.7 percent in 2007 to 61.2 percent in 2009 and 61.1 percent in 2010 (Global Employment Trends, 2011). It is further estimated that employment is not expanding widely to keep up with the growing labour force. It is projected that job seekers will reach 215 million by 2018 if current unemployment levels persist. Moreover research has it that the youth are mostly at the disadvantaged by the uneven recovery of employment.

Migration in Africa has been an unending phenomenon in the past and presently an important demographic feature (Anarfi, 1982). In the past migration in Africa had been occurring in groups and mostly unstructured and demographically undifferentiated (Adepoju, 1979). However in recent times it has been largely selective (Landale et al., 2000). Migration remains an important phenomenon and extensively practiced in Africa. In every household in Africa, there is at least one family member who has migrated either internally or externally (FAO, 2017). Internal migration in some parts of sub-Saharan Africa has in divers ways been positive or negative (Seel et al., 2014). Africans move internally for several reasons including shifts in systems of justice, food security, marriage, and extensive agricultural activities among others (Paciotti et al., 2005). Furthermore, internal migrants usually have their origination from rural areas whereas international migrants are from urban areas. Migration in Africa occurs predominantly among males, aged between 15 and 35 years (Weeks, 2010). Similarly, in Africa, employment is evidently considered the main determinant of migration followed by education and family ties (Weeks 2010). Women in Africa are mostly known to migrate for family-related and other economic reasons (FAO, 2017).

The labour force in Sub-Saharan Africa can be grouped under two main characteristics. Firstly, the labour force in Africa is evidently higher in the rural areas than in the urban areas. Secondly, labour force is remarkably higher among males than females. There are a fairly high proportion of young people in Africa. The youth in Africa are viewed as the greatest asset. The African youth population is protracted to double to over eight hundred and thirty

(830) million by 2050. The youth aged 15-35 years are about four hundred and twenty (420) million with one-third unemployed and only one in six in wage employment. The youth employment characteristic in Africa in 2015 was as follows: those vulnerable 35 percent, unemployed and discouraged 31 percent, employed 15 percent and finally those who form the inactive group constitute 19 percent (African Development Bank Group, 2016).

Ghana is noted for her long history and tradition of population mobility. This dates back to a period long before colonisation (Wolfson, 1958). These movements were internal and in groups from different ethnicities into other areas in search of security, new lands either for settlements or fertile lands for farming (Awumbila, et.al, 2008). These internal movements within the confines of Ghana were in the form of rural-urban, rural-rural, urban-urban and urban-rural migration after independence (Addo, 1968, 1971, 1981; Caldwell, 1968, 1969; De Graft Johnson, 1974; Arthur, 1991; Twumasi Ankrah, 1995; Simon et al., 2004).

In the early post-independence era, the Ghanaian economy became attractive with employment opportunities, development of industries, and high wages in urban areas. This relative affluence in Ghana compared to its neighbors attracted migrants from several regions (Antwi Bosiakoh, 2008).

Migration of Ghanaians has always been either within West Africa, between the region and the rest of the continent. In recent times, migration in Ghana has been both internal and external thus south and north. International migration came about as a result of the hardship that hit the Ghanaian economy in the 1976 taking away a lot of skilled labour including teachers, medical professionals, lawyers, and administrators to countries like Zambia, Nigeria, Botswana and Uganda for better economic opportunities. (Anarfi et. al, 2003; Clemens and Peterson, 2006).

The Ghanaian economy in recent years has not been generating employment opportunities for its populace. As a result, most of its workers are engaged in low-income agricultural and informal activities. Employment in Ghana is often characterized by low productivity and uncertain earnings. The country's unemployment situation creates regional disparities and leads to rural-to-urban migration which intensifies social problems in the country (J. Heintz, 2005).

The results of the Integrated Business Establishment Survey (IBES) conducted in 2014 gives detailed employment characteristics of Ghanaians in the formal and informal sector of employment. Ghanaians engaged in the informal establishment are about sixty percent (59.9%) while the formal establishment covers twenty four percent (24%). Also the industrial and services sectors account for the highest share of employment in Ghana (National Employment Report, 2015).

This study will add to the understanding of the complexities of migration in Ghana. This study focuses on the different types of internal migration and employment characteristics in Ghana. It touches on the relationship between the socioeconomic characteristics of migrants and their employment characteristics.

1.2 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

In sub-Saharan Africa, economic improvements of the urban sectors at the expense of rural areas have contributed to rural urban migration. Consequently, large migration movements from rural areas to urban areas have led to uncontrolled increased in growth of cities (Haug, 2014). Apart from insufficient urban infrastructure, internal migration also results in increased pressure on the labour market (Haug, 2014). For instance, more of the youth who migrate from the rural areas to the urban areas are mostly found in the wage labour market creating the general work environment in the urban areas very harmful (Haug, 2014).

Most of the young people that migrate from rural or urban areas to urban areas are usually characterised with low educational attainment. In the urban sector, which predominantly employs individuals in the informal sector, most of the migrants get employed within this sector and receive low wages. The formal sector which is subject to regulations, wages paid on regular basis, levied taxes, existing contracts between employers and workers among other processes serves as barriers for these young migrants who move from the rural areas or urban areas to urban areas to venture into this sector of jobs. Another contributing reason can be attributed to the lack of vacancies readily available in this sector of job. This as a result creates an unequal distribution in these employment sectors. However, having low wages from the informal sector restricts these individuals to be insecure and not able to meet their basic necessities of life.

The informal economies do not only absorb labour force from the public sector but also absorbs the majority of graduates from universities and high schools because of its easy entry and exist (Ministry of Education 2013; p.78). The development of the informal economy is not only unique in the Ghanaian economy but it is as well witnessed all over the world, most especially in sub-Saharan Africa, Southeast Asia and South America because internal migration is predominant and characterised by low economies (Anh et al., 2003; Srivastava and Sasi Kumar, 2003; Ping, 2003).

Looking at Ghana's growing and well-known difficulties that face internal migrants in finding productive employment (World Bank, 2012; Baah Boateng, 2013; Honarati & De Silva, 2016; Sackey and Osei, 2006, Kwankye, 2012; Awumbila, 2014; Tacoli McGranahan & Scatterwoute, 2015). It is essential and necessary to study the socioeconomic characteristics of internal migrant and their employment characteristics in an environment where unemployment is on the increase. Moreover there have been much research and policy debates in Ghana on migration and the various sector of jobs and development (Haug, 2014,

Yeboah et al., 2015; Kumi& Yeboah, 2016; Asante, 2014; Awumbila, 2014; Awumbila et al., 2008; Awumbila, Owusu & Teye, 2014; Amoako & Apusigah, 2013). A lot of researches on migration agree that the strongest factor responsible for internal migration is the search for better work opportunities in destination areas. Despite the prominence of this issue there is limited literature focusing on the socioeconomic characteristics of migrants that influence their employment characteristics and type. This study seeks to fill the gap that has been raised above and also add to academic discourse of migration and employment studies

1.3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following are the research questions of the study.

1. What are the changes of internal migrants and their employment characteristics?
2. What is the relationship between the socioeconomic characteristics of migrants and their employment characteristics?
3. What are the socioeconomic characteristics of internal migrants?

1.4 OBJECTIVES

The general objective of the study is to examine the relationship between the types of internal migration and employment characteristics in Ghana.

The specific objectives are:

1. To investigate the relationship between the socio-economic characteristics of migrants and their employment status in destination areas.

2. To examine the relationship between type of migration and employment characteristics.

1.5 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The study of migration and employment characteristics is relevant in several areas; This study will therefore help to understand why unemployment and underemployment is highly recorded in urban centers, and propose to government measures to make agricultural activities such as Plantations, horticulture, dairying and animal husbandry attractive to the youth in the rural areas to reduce the influx of the youth moving from rural areas to the urban areas for jobs resulting to increasing unemployment in the country. The study will reveal migrants educational attainment as educational attainment is one of the socioeconomic factors that contribute migrant's employment characteristics. This will help and contribute to the restructuring of the educational systems to incorporate entrepreneur courses and hence produce entrepreneur oriented graduates.

Further, the study will now allow more studies to be geared towards migration and employment characteristics in Ghana. Researchers will now focus their studies or works casting light from different angles and perspectives on migration and employment characteristics in Ghana.

The study will as well contribute to policy recommendation, Reports from the Ghana Statistical Service shows that the informal sector is far the largest employer in the country and also absorbs more of the working age population (GSS, 2012); again the informal element of the economy was and is an important part of the Ghanaian economy (Haug, 2014). Its large share of the national labour force and GDP should not be under estimated when it comes to the fulfillment of long term plans in rural or urban communities, therefore it is of

highest importance, that policies are established to address the needs of the informal economy and also ensure insecurities for workers and their families.

The last but not the least is that the study will contribute to the academia of migration and employment studies.

1.6 ORGANIZATION OF STUDY

The study is organized into five chapters.

Chapter One is the introduction of the study, which includes the background of the study, the statement of the problem, research question, objectives and rationale of the study. It also includes organization of the study. Chapter Two covers the literature review. This sets out the context of the study which includes, relevant literature review on migration and employment characteristics, theoretical backgrounds and models, definition of concepts the conceptual framework describing the nexus between migration and employment status, hypothesis, and the conceptualization of the various variables. Chapter Three discusses the methodology. It includes setting of the study, source of data, sampling and study subjects, data analysis, measurement of variables, and data limitations. Chapter Four presents the results of the univariate, bivariate and multivariate. Chapter five provides a summary of the study draws relevant conclusions and makes recommendations based on the findings.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Research on migration is not new. Over the years, demographers and population analysts have conducted research on the types and factors that affect migration. As such, theories and methodologies on migration exist. This chapter reviews relevant literature on migration and employment characteristics.

2.2 OVERVIEW OF MIGRATION

There has been enormous contribution on migration studies by economist, demographers, sociologist and geographers since 1960. Each of the discipline has different lens of viewing migration. Some have viewed it from the characteristics, causes, welfare, determinants and consequences among others.

Research on internal migration by Greenwood (1975) discussed determinants of migration and consequences of migration from an economic perspective. Before delving into the discussion of the determinants and consequences of migration, we must also be aware of the causes of migration. According to Hicks (1932), there are two main causes of migration. They include differences in net economic advantages and chiefly difference in wages. These reasons raised by Hicks as the cause of migration cut across countries, which, maybe reasons that cause a person to move or migrate.

2.2.1 DETERMINANTS OF MIGRATION

Forces that would motivate people and their families to leave their country and move to another to start a new life are economic, non-economic and demographic. Some of these forces that are economic include: a higher standard of living, the chance to find a better job, or a more comfortable safety net. However other forces are at play as well such as superior amenities (example like air quality), a democratic political system and access to a better education system among others. In recent times, between 2000 and 2010, the growth in the migrant stock worldwide increased by 4.6 million each year. The issue now is a lot of people would like to migrate if given the opportunity, therefore understanding the key determinant of migration pattern is very essential (Simpson, 2017).

This study focuses on internal migration but not international migration; however, many of the determinants that are discussed in the study would apply to international migration as well.

2.2.1.1 Income

It is argued that migrants will only select a location or an area where the income benefits that will be accrued is large. Schultz (1961) and Becker (1962) model also indicated that an individual will move to a location or an area that is presumed that its present value is maximum. Perloff (1960) also argued that areas with attractive economic conditions will pull a considerable migrant persons or individuals from other localities. Workers in poorer areas or localities desire for higher wages and better employment opportunities which can usually be found in richer areas.

Most economic model of migration informs that income differentials are very important when trying to explain migrants flow in a given period of time (Simpson, 2017). Incomes serves as both push and pull factors. Low income levels push migrants out of their home country, area

or locality and conversely high income levels also pulls migrants to a specific region or country (Simpson et.al, 2015). ‘There is always a higher incentive to migrate if one is poor among rich than one is poor among poor’ indicating that income inequality is a push factor. In the same vein, income inequality act as a pull factor when potential migrants with high levels of education may be pulled to areas where the returns to skills are high (Simpson, 2017).

2.2.1.2 Networks: Family and Friends

The study of the determinants of migration, takes into consideration the importance of network in a given location or area. Research has it that there is a strong, positive effect of migrant’s networks on predicting migrants flows (Simpson, 2017). When there is no enough information or when the information of the destination area of the migrant is uncertain, migration declines.

Persons are more likely to move to places about which they have at least some information, rather than to places or regions about which they know little or nothing. Greenwood (1975) found out that indeed the past migration of relatives and friends is an important determinant of the distribution of present migrants (M.J. Greenwood, 1975).

Research estimates suggest that if the stock of migrants from a specific area or locality increases by 1000 people, then the flow of migrants will increase by 4.7 people by year. In many studies on the determinants of migration suggest that migrants networks are usually the most important with the movement of people. Similarly migrants networks matter most for people migrating from poor areas or origin (Simpson, 2017).

2.2.1.3 Well-being, ability, optimism, aspiration, risk tolerance

Other non-economic factors may influence the decision to migrate as well. In recent work on the measure of well-being (or happiness) were found to link aggregate well-being and migrant flows. For instance, in countries or areas where happiness level increases tend to have fewer people moving out of the areas or country the reverse is true. Another non-economic factor that affects migration decision is optimism. Migration or the movement of people, who are optimistic, is larger than people who are always pessimistic. Studies have found that migrants tend to be optimistic and non-migrants tend to be pessimistic.

Furthermore, people's ability, ambitions or aspirations, risk tolerance or aversion are also part of migration decisions. Studies have found that people who are more ambitious are most likely to migrate. Again those who are risk averse are not most likely to migrate. The costs of migration are high for them. However all the above are not in the data because they are difficult to quantify.

2.2.1.4 Migration costs

The direct economic costs of migration include the travel expenses or costs associated with the move. The gravity model of migration explicitly explains the role of distance in estimating migration flows. For a person to migrate, he or she weighs the cost and benefits before taking the decision to migrate or move from the place of origin to a different locality. When a migrant realized that the transportation expenses are far too more than the benefits that will accrue to him or her, then it will discourage migration.

In addition, migration is an uncertain endeavor, so people seek information about the potential host country or area or locality. These information cost can be high but due to technological progress or advancement, it is gradually decreasing hence increasing migration movement. Again due to this technological progress the migrant can now acquire

better information in advance on housing, jobs, and government benefits. The recent introduction of technological progress decreases migration cost and thereby increases migration flows (Simpson, 2017).

2.2.1.5 Demographic characteristics

Demographic characteristics have long been the essential factor in explaining who migrate and who does not. It is usually noted that those who migrate for work purposes are quite different from those who migrate for family reasons or reunifications. Therefore, every migrant has its own unique demographic characteristics these include; age, gender, marital status, and educational attainment among others.

Age; labour migrants are mostly young. Age is mostly considered as one of the factors that influence migration. There is evidence that young individuals are more likely to migrate than older migrants (Morrison & Clark, 2011). This is because they have less family responsibilities and have the propensity to leave for work in other areas. Moreover older persons have shorter expected working life to accrue the benefits of migration, that is in simple terms the return rate for the older people on migration is lower while that of the young labour benefit that will accrue is long and higher.

Gender; In the past labour migrants were mostly working-age men but in this recent times there is increasingly migrant flows consisting of women and family in search of jobs outside place of origin. Another reason for women movement is joining families already in the host countries (Simpson, 2017).

Marital status; studies have it that married people are less likely to migrate than unmarried people and also even when they have manage to migrate the married people are more likely to return home than unmarried people (White & Lindstrom, 2015). Similarly older married

people are more likely to move from cities to rural areas than young married individuals (Reed et al; 2013). Changes in marital status such as formation or dissolution also motivate changes in residence (Flowerdew & Al-Hamad, 2014; Kulo & Milewski, 2007)

Educational attainment; it is confirmed by studies that persons who are well educated migrated outside their country of origin more than persons with less education. Moreover better and well detailed information concerning job opportunities are readily available to well-educated individuals than less or low educated persons. This is manifested in most sub-Saharan countries where there is mass movement of highly skilled labour in these countries to advanced nations for job opportunities.

2.2.2 CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION

Consequences of migration come in either positive or negative forms to both origin and destination countries. This section provides a review on the development, economic and social impacts of migration on origin and destination areas.

2.2.2.1 Economic Consequences

The economic effects of migration are widely varied. Origin areas of migrants have both short term losses and gains but the long term tend to recover more of their losses. The major contemporary issue in migration research is that of remittances. Research has it that most people left behind by migrant always look out to the migrants for remittances. The relevance of remittance transfer is that it helps those left behind to cope with the hardship associated with depletion of environmental resources on which their livelihood depends (Ajaero & Onokala, 2013). On the other hand, the host or destination areas tend to benefit from cheap labour. This result from migrants taking up less desirable menial jobs which natives or non-migrants would not take. Furthermore, there is less pressure on resources such as food and

social services such as health care in origin areas. However, sending areas lose young workforce with skills and entrepreneurial talents which slows economic development in the sending areas. Also the loss of young labour force in the sending or origin areas reduces inwards investment by private companies, and increasing dependencies on government initiatives. Also destination areas suffer some drawbacks, these include; over dependency in some industries on migrant labour, result in lack of jobs for people native to the host country or areas and more so experience pressure on resources and services such as health care systems.

2.2.2.2 Social Consequences

Much has been said about the economic consequences of migration. There are also social implications and consequences of migration both to origin and destination countries. Some of the social consequences of movement within a geographical boundary can be that, it causes population density to reduce and birth rate falls. This has a result ease over population in sending or origin areas or countries. Again migrants who return to their origin areas increase social expectations for communities, for example increasing demand for better leisure facilities. Also the negative social impacts of migration in origin countries or areas are that marriage rates fall and family structures break down as men migrate producing a generation of single mums. Lots of young people moving out of the country or area increase dependency ratio. Furthermore, migrating men and young families leads to loss of cultural leadership and tradition.

The positive social consequences of migration to destination or host areas or countries are that there is creation of multiethnic society which therefore promote understanding and tolerance of other cultures. Again there is an influx of new or revitalized services like kebab shops and Turkish baths. However among some of the negatives of the social impacts of

migration to the host areas are that the aspects of cultural identity are lost, especially in second generation children.

2.3 OVERVIEW OF EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

In the past decade, economic activities have generally shifted from manufacturing to service sector jobs. The labour markets are mainly centered on small scale businesses or own account businesses which are normally referred to as informal sector or economic activity (Boateng & Ampratwum, 2011). There have been several attempts to adopt and provide a comprehensive and universally accepted definition for the informal economic activities by researchers and government authorities (Hart, 1970). Regardless of the difficulty, there have been efforts shown by researchers in employment studies and other disciplines to adopt an explanation to the informal sector of activities that are now applicable today. Among such researchers include, Feige (1989), according to him he defined the informal sector of jobs to be ‘all economic activities that contribute to the officially calculated gross national product but currently unregistered’ (Feige, 1989). It was also defined as ‘market- based production of goods and services whether legal or illegal, that escapes detection in the official estimates of the gross domestic product’ (Smith, 1994). Hart (1973) also came up with a definition of informal economic sector as ‘unregulated economic enterprise or activities. The definition of the informal sector also varies with countries. Countries like Brazil also adopted a definition for informal sector to be an economic sector without a signed labour that is an official documentation of employer and employee agreement. The reverse is true for the formal sector of employment (Henley, 2001).

In the Ghanaian economy, the informal economic sector activity emanated long before independence. It commenced with activities such as peasant proprietors and agricultural labourers, distribution agents, buyers, transport owners and employees, porters, repairers

among others (Ninsin, 1991; Adu-Amankwah, 1999). In recent times, despite there is urbanisation and modernisation, informal economic activities are predominantly in both urban and rural areas. Statistically, it is estimated that the size of the informal sector is 80 percent of the total labour force of Ghana (Hormeku, 1998; GSS, 2008). Studies have shown that there are two broad /major forms of the informal sector- Rural and Urban informal sector activities, little or no job security, low- income and wages, absence of trade unions and the like are just but a few characteristics of the informal sector of employment (Boateng & Apramtwum, 2011).

2.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.4.1 Neoclassical Theory of Migration

The neoclassical theory of migration explains migration to be driven by differences in returns to labor across markets. The theory of migration and economic development was originally coined in the works of Hicks, 1932; Lewis, 1954 and Harris and Todaro, 1970. These researchers highlighted the heterogeneous degrees of labor market tightness. They also differentiated wage across markets or countries. The core of the neoclassical theory explained that there are geographic differences in labor supply and demand as a result of differentials in wages between labor-rich against capital-rich countries (Kurekova, 2011). Bauer & Zimmermann, (1999), Bojas (2008) and Massey and others (1993) established a linear relationship between wage differentials and migration flows. Mansoor and Quillin, (2006) and Krieger and Maitre, (2006), highlighted that gains and benefits are necessary as far as migration is concerned than the cost of it.

There was a criticism of the Bauer and Zimmermann findings of linearity between migration flows and wage differentials. The argument was that migration is driven by cost and not gains and benefit. It was further noted that migration is not only found among poor individuals or

countries (Faist, 2000; Dustmann et al., 2003; De Haas, 2008; Massey et al., 1998). Moreover, there was an extensive analysis by Faist (2000) and others that argues that when there is growth in a country's wealth, migration increases. In other words, there is a positive relationship (linearity) between a country's wealth and migration. This means more individuals are able to financially support migration.

In as much as the neoclassical theory has been empirically tested and it is applicable in many migration studies, it is subject to the following critique it was ahistorical and static; it homogenized migrants and migrant societies; it was again mechanical in reducing migration determinants; it lacked the consideration of the importance of politics and policies in home and host countries (Kurekova, 2011).

2.4.2 Human Capital Theory of migration.

This is a further elaboration of neoclassical theory in a micro perspective (Todaro, 1969). In this theory as introduced by Sjaadstad, (1962), it was established that the main aim of an individual to migrate is influenced by benefits and gains. Also an individual's socio-demographic characteristics enhance movements. Some of these socio-demographic characteristics include skills, age, marital status, gender, occupation, labor market status, expectations and preferences. Studies show that these socio-demographic characteristics of the individual influence choices of destination country (Bonin et al., 2008). It has also been empirically tested that migrants tend to be more skilled or upgraded which will determine their chances of success (Bauer & Zimmermann, 1999). This assumption was further tested with immigrants into the United States. It was found out that immigrant from countries with higher income inequalities tend to be less skilled (Borjas, 1987). A major criticism of the

human capital theory was that, the theory was overly optimistic on migration to be influenced by maximizing gains.

2.4.3 New Economics Theory of Migration

The new economics theory of migration emerged to counter the neoclassical approach. The new economics theory stated in some works that migration is not only based on individual independence but on mutual interdependence (Stark, 1991). The main argument of the new economics theory of migration is that, migration decisions are not solely dependent on the individual but rather on family and household decisions for example, when members of the household are poor, migration is encouraged (Massey et al., 1993). It was further noted that factors of the home country are as well come together to influence the movement.

Another contributing factor recognized in the new economics theory is the aspect of remittances. Remittances play a key role in the new economics theory of migration. This areas like the household and the country at large. These remittances are considered as support to the family or household hence as a source of revenue to the country whenever necessary taxes are deducted. The new economics theory was criticized on the basis that it has not received much following or empirical testing, it has also been criticized for ignoring the different dynamics within the households, (i.e. gender roles) and for being future oriented (Faist, 2000).

2.4.4. Dual Labor Market Theory

The dual labor market theory depicts migration to be labor demand rather than labor supply. This theory is mostly applicable in developed countries and less applicable in developing countries. According to the theory, there are two types of labour organization in the economy. They include capital-intensive where both skilled and unskilled labor is utilized and labor-

intensive where only unskilled labor is utilized. The theory predicts that where there is demand for low-skilled jobs, unskilled labor will be found seeking for occupancy and vice-versa.

Overemphasis on formal recruitment practices, lack of accounting for immigration rates in countries with similar economic structures were some of the criticisms that were leveled against the dual labor market theory (Kurekova, 2011).

2.5 DEFINITION OF TERMS

2.5.1. Internal Migration

When you think of migration, most often people presumes, people leaving their homes to start a new life overseas. Sometimes images such as green cards and the statue of liberty probably come to the minds of people. However, many migrants who do not cross an international boundary are known as internal migrants.

The International Organisation for Migration (IOM) defines a migrant as any person who is moving or has moved across an international border or within a state away from his or her habitual place of residence, regardless of the persons legal status, whether the movement is voluntary or involuntary; what the causes of the movement are or what the length of the stay is (IOM, 2018).

For the purpose of this study a migrant is someone moving within his or her geographical boundaries. This movement can be rural-rural, rural-urban, urban-rural and urban-urban.

2.5.2. Urban

The term urban simply refers to the region or area which is densely populated and possess the characteristics of the man-made surroundings. The people residing in such area are engaged

in trade, commercial or services. This settlement is characterized by high scale industrialisation that results in better employment opportunities. One thing that has to be noted with urban settlement is that urban settlement is not confined to the cities but towns and surbs that is suburban areas are also included in it.

There are a lot of advantages of life that comes with urban areas. Some of these advantages include access to various amenities, better transportation facilities, entertainment and education options, health facilities among others. However there are drawbacks like pollution caused due to large scale industrialization and means of transportation like buses, trains, cars and so on, leading to increasing in health problems in the people living in these urban areas.

2.5.2. Rural

The term rural is defined as a region located on the outskirts. It can also be referred to as a small settlement which is outside the boundaries of a city, commercial or industrial area. This may include countryside areas, villages or hamlets where there are natural vegetation and open spaces. Moreover rural settlement has low density of population. The primary source of income of the residents is agriculture and animal husbandry. In rural areas, cottage industries are also a paramount source of income.

The fundamental distinction between urban and rural is that, urban settlements have high population and also features of a built environment. Further, an environment that provides basic facilities for human activity. Rural settlement on the other hand is the geographical region located in the outer parts of the cities or towns.

Another contributing difference is that urban settlement life is fast and complicated whereas life in the rural area is simple and relaxed. Again the urban settlement includes cities and towns whereas the rural settlement includes villages and hamlets. There is greater isolation

from nature in urban areas, due to existence of the built environment. Conversely, rural areas are in direct contact with nature, as natural elements influence them.

Consequently, people living in the urban areas are mostly engaged in non-agricultural work that is trade, commerce or service industry. In contrast, the primary occupation of rural people is agriculture and animal husbandry. Urban areas are developed in a planned and systematic way, according to the process of urbanization and industrialization, whereas development in rural areas is seldom, based on the availability of natural vegetation and fauna in the region.

Therefore, with the above discussion, it is therefore understood that these two human settlements are very different regarding the density of human structures and the residents of that area, the standard of living in urban area is higher than the rural areas. Presently, majority of the total population resides in the urban areas and the total land area occupied by the urban region is greater than the rural areas (Surbhi, 2016).

2.5.3 Formal sector

The formal sector of the economy has an organized system of employment with clear written rules of recruitment, agreement and job responsibilities. The formal sector also has a standardized relationship between the employer and the employee which is maintained through a formal contract. In the formal economy, the employee is expected to work for fixed hours and receives fixed salaries in addition to incentives and perks. There is also a decent work environment and employees in the formal sectors are entitled to benefits such as leave, savings, and loans among others. All workers in the formal economy have all organized association or union where their official grievances are addressed. People working in civil service, public sector units, government service, defense, multi-national/national/private

companies, schools, colleges, research institutes, management organization, banks etc. are all in the formal sector.

2.5.4 Informal sector

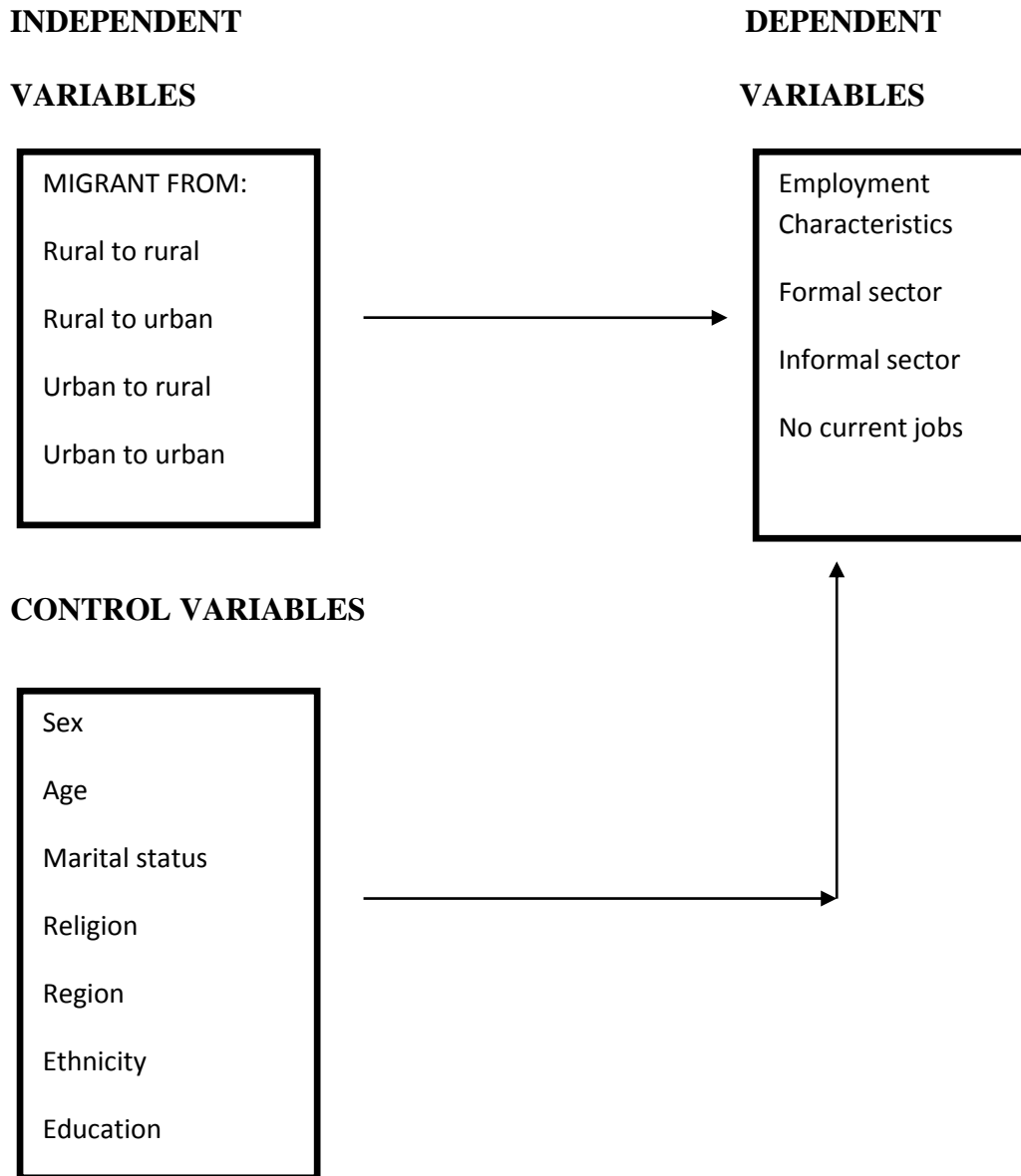
The informal sectors have no written rules or agreements. It exists merely on verbal understanding. There are no fixed wages or fixed hours of work and mostly relies on daily earnings. In most cases, the work atmosphere is congested and unhygienic. Workers in this type of economy usually fail to come together and address their problems through an association or group. They have poor awareness levels regarding social protection schemes, they are unable to make savings and do not see the necessity of insuring themselves.

People working as small farmers, street vendors, hawkers, small traders, micro-entrepreneurs, home-based workers, cobblers, rag-pickers, porters, labourers, artisans, etc. All belong to the Informal Sector.

2.6. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR MIGRATION AND EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS IN GHANA.

The conceptual framework used for the study was derived from the various theories discussed. The main independent variable or explanatory variable is migrants from rural-rural, rural-urban, urban-rural, urban-urban migration. The dependent variable is employment characteristics within the formal and informal sectors and no current jobs. The control variables include age, sex, marital status, religious denomination, region, ethnicity and education. These were selected as a result of the socioeconomic characteristics that influence migration and employment characteristics of individuals.

Figure: 1 Conceptual Framework of the Relationship Between Migration and Employment Characteristics in Ghana.



Source: Author's construct

2.6.1 AGE

Age is one of the important determinants of migration which cannot be done without as far as migration is concerned. Young migrants are most likely to move from rural-urban and urban-urban areas and be found in the informal and formal sector jobs respectively. Moreover young migrants moving from these areas are mostly likely to also end up with no current jobs. It is further expected that the older migrants are also likely to move most often from urban areas to the rural areas and their employment characteristics are usually the informal sector work like farming etc.

2.6.2 SEX

In this study it is expected that young males are more likely to move from the rural areas to urban centers and are likely to be found in informal sector jobs or are more likely to be found with no current jobs. From previous discussion it was realized that men are migrating more from the rural areas to urban areas mainly for better employment opportunities and other related economic reasons leaving the females behind fending for themselves and children. Females who manage to migrate from either rural-rural area, rural-urban areas also end in informal sector jobs. Studies have found that there are more favourable labour market conditions for females in the informal sector (Pradhan et al., 1993) Furthermore, it is also expected that males move more from one rural area to another rural area for agricultural activities or informal economy. Again males moving from urban to urban areas are likely to be in the formal sector jobs or economy than females.

2.6.3 EDUCATION

It is conceptualised that migrants with some level of educational background are most likely to be in the formal sector or economy whiles migrant with no level or lack of skills are likely view to end up in informal sector or economy.

Migrants moving from rural to urban or urban to urban with skills and are educated are mostly found or likely to be employed or secure a job in the formal sector jobs whereas migrants with no level of education or skills and are moving from rural to urban or rural to rural likely to be found in the informal sector or with no current job. Research have it that returns to education in the formal sector exceeds those in the informal sector (Pradhan et al., 1993).

2.6.5 MARITAL STATUS

Unmarried migrants are likely to move from rural –urban areas and their employment characteristics are likely to be informal employment while married migrants who move from rural- urban or urban-urban areas are as well likely to be in the informal or formal sector respectively (Pradhan et al., 1995).

2.7 HYPOTHESES

1. Migrants with tertiary/higher education are more likely to be in the formal sector of employment than migrants with low level of education.
2. Female migrants are more likely to work in the informal sector than male migrants.
3. Young migrants are more likely to be found in the informal sector of employment than other age categories of the population.
4. Rural to rural migrants are more likely to be found in the informal sector of jobs than urban to urban migrants.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

A research methodology is the specific procedures or techniques used to identify select, process and analyze information about a topic. It encompasses how data was collected or generated and how data has been analyzed. Therefore, this chapter presents information on the source of data, setting of the study, study subjects, data analysis, measurement of variables and data limitations.

3.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY AREA

Ghana is considered one of the more stable countries in West Africa since its transition to multi-party democracy in 1992. Ghana was formerly known as Gold Coast; it gained independence from Britain in 1957, and became the first sub-Saharan nation to break free from colonial rule.

Gold, cocoa and more recently oil form the cornerstone of Ghana's economy and have helped fuel an economic boom. A country covering an area of 238,533sq km (92,098sq miles), Ghana has an estimated population of 25.5 million and a life expectancy of 64 years (men), 66 years (women). Major languages in Ghana include English, African languages including Akan, Ewe, Ga, Frafra among others. Major religions include, Christianity, indigenous beliefs, Islam (UN, World Bank, 2018).

From the last census in 2010, the proportion of urban was 51 percent and about one third of the entire population in 2010 was made up of internal migrants, with higher proportion of these being inter-regional migrants (GSS, 2013). The sex ratio was 95 and literacy rate was 74 percent in 2010 higher than that of most countries in the West African sub-region.

Literacy rate was higher for males (80%) than females (69%). The total fertility rate from the last Demographic and Health Survey in 2014 was 4.2 (GSS et al., 2015).

Ghana has several tourist attractions such as the castles in Elmina, cape coast, Kwame Nkrumah mausoleum, Paga crocodile pond, Kakum national park among others. Most of the international airlines fly into and from the international airport in Accra. Domestic air travel is thriving and the country has a vibrant tele-communication sector, with six cellular phone operators and several internet service providers.

The Ghanaian economy grew from 7.4 percent year-on-year in the third quarter of 2018, following a 5.4 percent expansion in the previous period. This was the strongest growth rate since the third quarter of 2017, which is mostly driven by the industry and services sectors. GDP annual growth rate in Ghana average 6.68 percent from 2000 until 2018. This was a 25 percent high in the first quarter of 2012 and recorded low of -1.60 percent in the third quarter of 2015 (UN, World Bank, 2018). The labour force participation in 2012 was 12.83 million and unemployment rate in 2015 was 5.7 percent (Farmbrough, 2015).

3.3 DATA SOURCE

This study utilised secondary data from the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS 6). The GLSS is a nationwide household survey designed to generate statistics and indicators on living conditions in the country (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). The GLSS Round 6 data has detailed information from households, including their demographic characteristics, education, health, employment and time use, migration and tourism, housing conditions, household agriculture and access to financial services and asset ownership.

The GLSS data covered a period of twelve (12) months from 18th October 2012 to 17th October 2013. Since the first round of data collection in 1987, subsequent surveys were conducted in 1988, 1991/92, 1998/99 and 2005/06 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

The Ghana Living Standard Survey data was funded by the Government of Ghana (GoG), the United Kingdom Department for International Development (UK-DFID), United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and International Labor Office (ILO) and had technical support from the World Bank.

3.4 STUDY SUBJECTS

3.4.1 Who is Migrant?

A migrant in this study is a person moving within his or her geographical boundary aged 15 to 34 years. Age group 15 to 34 years is selected to study young migrants' internal migration patterns and employment characteristics.

3.4.2 Inclusion Criteria

A sample size of 7,195 migrants is used in the study. Unique IDs are created for household IDs, cluster, region and persons ID using a formulae $PID + (HID * 100) + (Clust * 10000) + (Region * 1000000000)$. This unique ID created helped to merge the different data set of variables in one dataset. Migrant status of job and the sector of job and where it belongs were used.

3.4.3 Exclusion Criteria

Variables that were excluded in the study were non-migrants and persons aged 35 plus

3.5 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is the process of systematically applying statistical and or logical techniques to describe and illustrate, condense and recap, and evaluate data. According to Shamoo and Resnik (2003), various analytical procedures are available that assist research analysts to explain inductive inferences from data and also to identify the differences between the phenomenon of interest from the statistical fluctuations present in the data. This study is a quantitative research which utilised SPSS version 20 for data analysis. Firstly the univariate analysis presents the descriptive results of the explanatory and outcome variables in the form of frequency distribution tables and graphs. Secondly bivariate analysis on the other hand examines the association between the predictor and predicted variables, using chi-square test. Additionally, multivariate analysis was conducted by specifying a multinomial logistic regression model.

3.6 MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES

The study relied on Ghana Living Standard Survey Questionnaire part A for its measurements. Variables measured include; education, migration type, employment characteristics, marital status, religious denomination ethnicity, region, sex and age.

First of all, household ID formulae ($PID + (HID * 100) + (clust * 10000) + (region * 10000000000)$), is used to create unique ID for each of the data set, and then the different datasets were merged together. The different datasets were age, sex, education, region, migrants, and employment. These dataset were in isolation and so the above formulae assisted to merge them together as one datasets for use.

Secondly the control variables such as sex, age, marital status, religion, region, ethnicity educational level were recoded into different variables.

3.6.1 DEPENDENT VARIABLE

3.6.1.1 EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

In the survey or dataset question that applied to the study was what was the status of name in the job, the codes given to choose from were; Paid employee, Non-Agric self-employed with employees, Non-Agric self-employed without employees, Non-Agric Contributing family worker, Agric self-employed with employees, Agric self-employed without employees, Agric contributing family worker, domestic worker (house helps), casual workers, apprentices, others. Additionally there was a follow up question in the data as In what sector was name working, again the following codes were given to choose; Government sector civil service, Government sector other public sector, parastatals, NGOs (local & international), cooperatives, inter- Organ/ Diplomatic mission, private sector formal (incl. paid apprentices), private sector informal, Agric Business and other. Therefore with above information given and for the purpose of the study, employment characteristics was changed into three categorical variables namely formal sector, informal sector and no current job.

Data on employment were found in section four questions 20 and 21. So what was done was that all variables greater than zero and less than nine for question 20 was coded informal sector. Moreover, codes or variables greater than seven and less than ten were also grouped as informal sector. Furthermore all variables or codes greater than nine and less than eleven for question 20 were grouped under informal sector jobs. Again, variables or codes greater than zero and less than eight for question 21 were grouped under formal sector. All those unemployed and students also formed the no current job category.

3.6.2 INDEPENDENT VARIABLE

3.6.2.1 MIGRATION TYPE

The main explanatory variable is recoded as 1- Urban-urban, 2- Urban-rural 3- Rural-urban 4- Rural-rural type of migration. The question that applied to this variable was ‘where persons lived previously’ and had codes as: 1=Sekondi/ Takoradi, 2= Cape-Coast, 3=Accra, 4= Ho, 5=Koforidua, 6= Kumasi, 7= Suyani, 8=Tamale, 9= Bolgatanga, 10= WA, 11=other urban area and 12= Rural area. There was another variable named location 2 with codes as 1= Urban 2= Rural. So all those moving from Sekondi/ Takoradi, Cape-coast, Accra, Ho, Koforidua, Kumasi, Suyani, Tamale, Bolgantaga, WA and other urban areas to location 2 code 1 which is urban were recoded as 1=urban-urban, while those moving from Sekondi/Takoradi, Cape-coast, Accra, Ho, Koforidua, Kumasi, Suyani, Tamale, Bolgatanga, WA, other urban area to location 2 code 2=rural were recoded 2=Urban-rural, Again those from code 12=Rural to loc2 code 1=Urban were recoded 3=Rural-urban and finally those from 12=Rural area to loc2 code 2=Rural were given 4=Rural-rural.

3.6.3 CONTROL VARIABLES

3.6.3.1 AGE

Age was recoded into a categorical variable. It was categorized into five years age groupings. Therefore, it was then given new codes as 15 through to 19 = 1, 20 through to 24 = 2, 25 through to 29 = 3, and 30 through to 34 = 4.

3.6.3.2 SEX

The codes for sex of respondent were maintained as the original codes. Sex was coded as 1=Male and 2=Female.

3.6.3.3 MARITAL STATUS

Marital status had previous codes as; 1= Married, 2= Consensual union, 3= Separated, 4 = Divorced, 5 = Widowed, and 6 = Never- married. They were then recoded as 1=1, 2=1, 3=2, 4=2, 5=2 and 6=3 where 1- Currently in union, 2- Ever or formerly married and 3- Never-married.

3.6.3.4 RELIGIOUS DENOMINATION

Religious denomination was originally coded as; 1= No Religion, 2= Catholic, 3= Protestant, 4= Pentecostal/Charismatic, 5= Other Christian, 6= Islam, 7= Ahmadiya, 8= Traditional and 9= other.

It was recoded to 1=3 2=1 3=1 4=1 5=1 6=2 7=2 8=3 and 9=3. Where 1= Christian and 2= Islam/Ahmadiyya and 3= Traditional/ other.

3.6.3.5 EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

Educational attainment was computed from two separate variables. The first variable was ever being to school. All those who had never been to school were categorized as None for educational attainment. All other who had ever been to school had educational attainment coded as kindergarten, primary, Jss/Jhs, middle, Sss/Shs, secondary,

vocational/technical/commercial, teacher/nursing, post graduate (cert, diploma, masters, Phd etc.).

Educational attainment was then recoded as 0- No education, 1- Primary, 2- Jhs/Middle, 3- Secondary and 4- Tertiary/Higher.

3.6.3.6 REGION

The ten (10) administrative regions in Ghana were maintained just as it was in the original data. These 10 regions of Ghana includes, 1= Western, 2= Central, 3= Greater Accra, 4= Volta, 5= Eastern, 6= Ashanti, 7= Brong Ahafo, 8= Northern, 9= Upper East, 10= Upper West.

3.6.3.7 ETHNICITY

The major ethnic groups in the data included, Akan, Ga-Dangbe, Ewe, Guan, Gurma, Mole-Dagbani, Grusi, Mande and others. They were further recoded into five (5) main ethnic groups that is Akan, Ga-Dangbe/Ewe, Mole-Dagbani, Grusi/Gurma/Mande, Guan/others. These new codes are, 1= Akan, 2=Ewe/Ga-Dangbe, 3= Mole-Dagbani, 4= Grusi/Gurma/Made and 5= Guan/other.

3.7 DATA LIMITATION

The study was constraint by the data in the following ways; the status of jobs was not categorised into the two main sectors of employment. The only thing that was associated with the status of jobs of respondents in the original data was location of jobs which the study was not interested in but rather, the sector in which the status of jobs falls under. Also there was other information in the data that could have helped in the categorisation of status of jobs into formal and informal sectors of employments but that did not really contribute enough to the study. That information included, whether respondents receive social security or pay taxes among others. In spite of these limitations, however the selected variables for the study are expected to yield important findings concerning migration and employment characteristics.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is divided into three main sections. The first section (4.1) presents the distribution of respondents by type of internal migration and employment characteristics and their socioeconomic and demographic characteristics. The second section presents results of the bivariate tests of association between the employment characteristics and the independent and control variables. Lastly the third section discusses the multivariate analysis of all the variables.

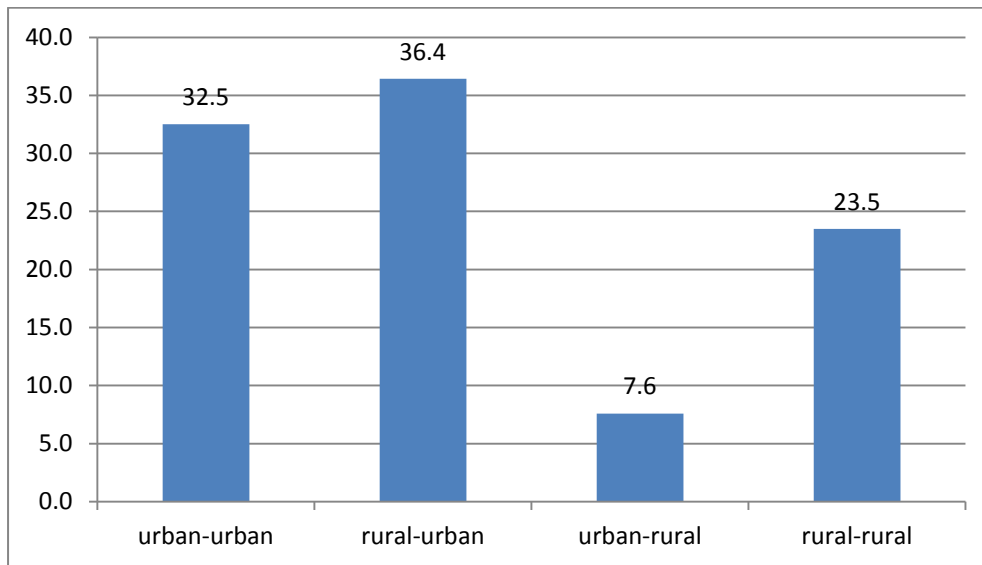
4.1 UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS

This section describes the individual distribution of the variables in the study.

4.1.1 MIGRATION TYPE

From Figure 1 it is realized that the rural-urban migrants constitute the highest proportion (36%) while urban-rural migrants constitute the least (8%). This distribution confirms that rural-urban migration is predominant in Ghana and it is increasing in the country in recent times as documented in other studies on migration (Adepoju, 2003; Anarfi, 2003; Awumbila et al., 2015).

Figure 1: Migration Characteristics of Respondents



N= 7195

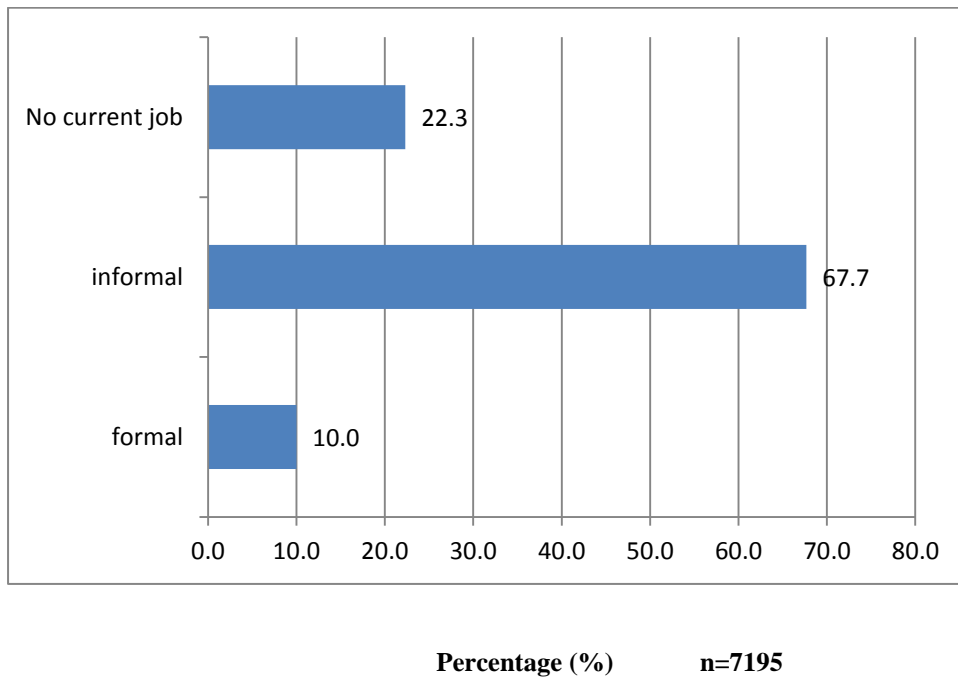
Type of migration

Source: computed from GLSS 2013/2014

4.1.2 EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

Respondents' type of work is basically the informal type of work. This is because **Figure 2** respondents in the informal sector made up the largest proportion (67.7%) compared to respondents with no current job (22.3%) and respondents with formal jobs (10%). This confirms the estimate made by the Ghana Statistical Service (2008) that about 80 percent of the Ghanaian labour forces are in the informal sector.

Figure 2: Employment Characteristics of Respondents



Source: GLSS 2013/2014

4.1.3 SEX AND AGE

Interestingly, female migrants constituted more than half (57.7%) of the sample while males constituted about 43%. This is an interesting observation as it is generally believed that, in many African contexts, men are more likely than women to undertake migration (Weeks, 2010). That notwithstanding, this observation could also be due to the fact that this study is limited to internal migration and women are more likely to move over short distances and so may be more represented in the sample.

In the data the dominant age group among the migrants is 30 to 35 years (about 31%) followed by the 25 to 29 year olds (26%). The least age group was 15 to 19 years (19%). Table 1 shows that respondents are relatively youthful and in the prime of their economically active life.

Table 1: Sex and Age Characteristics of Respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percent (%)
Sex of Respondent		
Male	3059	42.5
Female	4136	57.5
Age of Respondents		
15-19	1394	19.4
20-24	1716	23.4
25-29	1877	26.1
30-34	2208	30.7
Total	7195	100.0

Source: GLSS, 2013/2014

4.1.4 MARITAL STATUS

From Table 2 migrants who are married formed the highest proportion while those who were formerly married or have ever been married were the least proportion.

Table 2: Marital Characteristics of Respondents.

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent (%)
Married	3785	52.6
Ever married	273	3.8
Never Married	3137	43.6
Total	7195	100.0

Source: GLSS, 2013/2014

4.1.5 EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

With reference to educational attainment, about one third of the respondents in this study had no formal education while about 7% of them had tertiary or higher education. This distribution shows that educational attainment among young migrant aged 15-34 is generally relatively low in Ghana (Table 3).

Table 3: Educational Characteristics of Respondents.

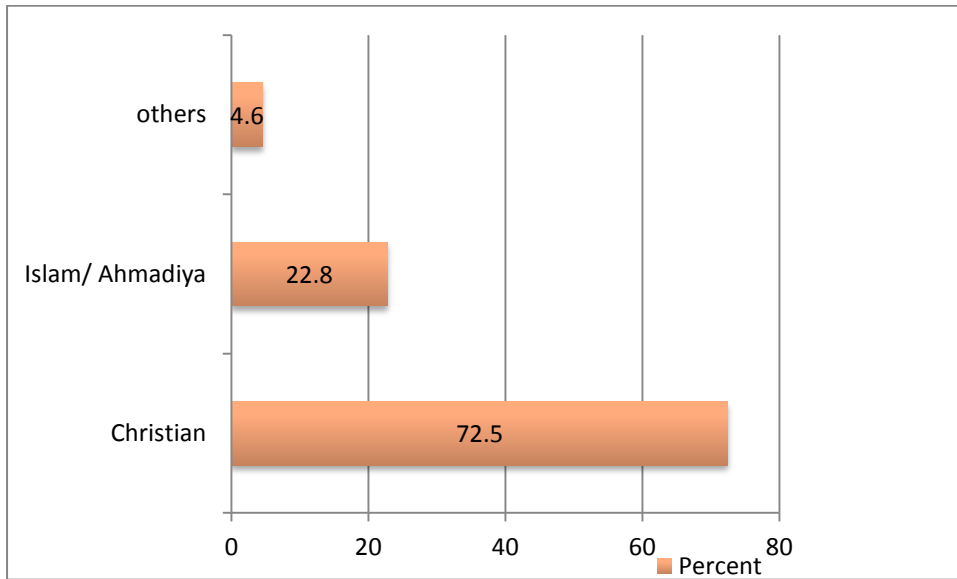
Educational attainment	Frequency	Percent
No education	2463	34.2
Primary	1065	14.8
JHS/Middle	2122	29.5
Secondary	1077	15.0
Tertiary/Higher	468	6.5
Total	7195	100.0

Source: GLSS, 2013/2014

4.1.6 RELIGIOUS DENOMINATION

In figure 3 it can be observed that the migrants were predominantly Christians (72.5%). Nearly one-quarter or a fourth of the respondents were Muslims and the other religious groups constituted only 4.6 percent.

Figure 3: Religious Characteristics of Respondents

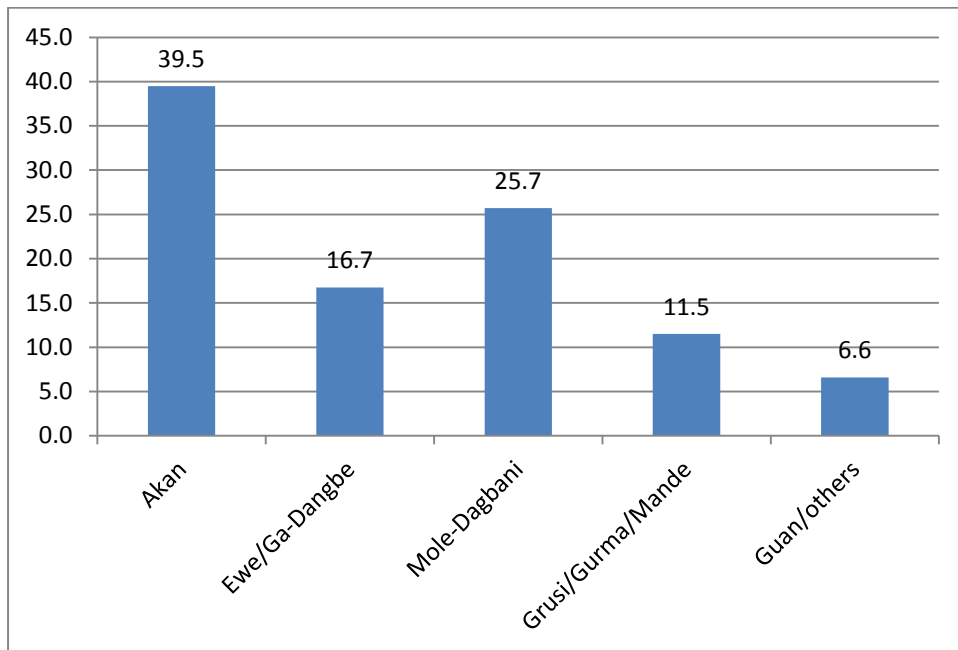


Source: GLSS, 2013/ 2014. N=7195

4.1.7 ETHNICITY

Figure 4 presents the distribution of the migrants by ethnicity. The figure shows that Akans constitute the largest ethnic group (39.5%) among the migrants. Followed by the Mole-Dagbanis (25.7%), Ewes/Ga-Dangbes (16.7%) and the Grusi/Gurma/Mande (11.5%). It is worth noting that the Mole-Dagbani and Grusi/Gurma/Mande ethnic groups together constitute (37.2%) of the migrants, and they are all from the north of the country.

Figure 4: Ethnic Characteristics of Respondents



Source: GLSS, 2013/2014 n=7195

4.1.8 REGION

Table 4 presents the distribution of migrants by region. The table shows that migrants in the Western Region have the highest proportion (14.7%), followed by Ashanti and the Northern region with about 13.0 percent and 12.8 percent respectively. Eastern region also had a proportion of 11.5 percent. It was observed that the Central region had the least proportion of 4.7 percent.

Table 4: Regional Characteristics of Respondents.

Region	Frequency	Percent
Western	1059	14.7
Central	335	4.7
Greater Accra	545	7.6
Volta	663	9.2
Eastern	830	11.5
Ashanti	935	13.0
Brong Ahafo	636	8.8
Northern	922	12.8
Upper East	599	8.3
Upper West	671	9.3
Total	7195	100.0

Source: GLSS, 2013/2014

4.2 BIVARIATE ANALYSIS

This part of the study explains the association between the individual variables and employment characteristics

4.2.1 MIGRATION AND EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

Table 5 presents the percentage distribution of migration types and employment characteristics of migrants. A little over two-thirds of the migrant populations (67.7%) were employed in the informal sector. The proportion is highest among the rural-rural migrants (84.6%), followed by rural-urban migrants (72.9%) and urban-rural migrants (61.1%). On the other hand, urban-urban migrants make up the highest proportion in the formal sector (15.8%), followed by urban-rural migrants (12.5%) and rural-urban migrants (8.2%).

Table 5: Percentage Distribution of Respondents Employment Characteristics by Migration type

Migrant Type	Employment Characteristics			Total (n)
	Formal (%)	Informal (%)	No current job (%)	
urban-urban	15.8	51.1	33.1	2339
rural-urban	8.2	72.9	18.9	2621
urban-rural	12.5	61.1	26.4	545
rural-rural	4.0	84.6	11.4	1690
Total	10.0	67.7	22.3	100.0
N	720	4870	1605	7195

Chi-square=561.011 p-value<0.01

Source: GLSS, 2013/2014

4.2.2 SEX OF RESPONDENTS AND EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

From Table 6 a higher proportion of female migrants tend to belong to the informal sector compared to their male counterparts. Females are dominant in the informal sector because some of the work in the sector is traditionally feminine and among such work are petty trading, farming, craft and domestic work. Female migrants are again more (23.7%) in no current job than males (20.4%). The result in the Table 6 confirms the UN-Habitat (2008) results that females are mostly engage in the above mention jobs.

Table 5: Percentage Distribution of Respondents Employment Characteristics by Sex.

Sex of Respondents	Employment Characteristics			Total (n)
	Formal (%)	Informal (%)	No current job (%)	
Male	15.0	64.6	20.4	3059
Female	6.3	69.9	23.7	4136
Total (n)	720	4870	1605	7195

Chi-square=147.137 p-value<0.01

Source: GLSS, 2013/ 2014

4.2.3 AGE OF RESPONDENTS AND EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

In Table 7, it is realized from the results that respondents aged 30 to 35 years form the highest proportion of those in the informal sector compared to the other age groups. Similarly age group 25 to 29 years is highest in the formal sector of jobs and 15 to 19 years age group are dominating the no current job category. The proportion having no current job decreases with age. This is similar to the findings by Garasky and others (2001) that young migrants move from their parental nest to pursue educational and occupational careers (Garasky et al., 2001).

Table 7: Percentage Distribution of Respondents Employment Characteristics by Age

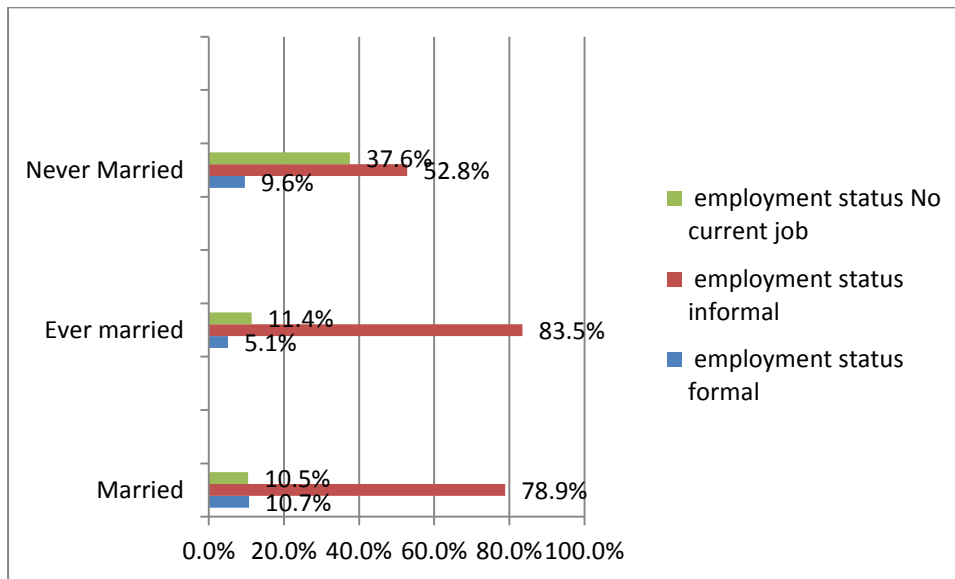
Age in Years	Employment Characteristics			Total (n)
	Formal (%)	Informal (%)	No current job (%)	
15-19	1.1	51.6	47.2	1394
20-24	7.2	63.0	29.8	1716
25-29	15.5	70.2	14.3	1877
30-35	13.1	79.3	7.5	2208
Total (n)	720	4870	1605	7195

Chiquare=1006.936, p-value<0.01
Source: GLSS, 2013/ 2014

4.3.4 MARITAL STATUS AND EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

Figure 5 present employment characteristics of migrants by marital status. While about one-third (37.6%) of those who were never married had no current job, only about 11% of those who are married or have ever been married had no current job.

Figure 5 Percentage Distributions of Respondents Employment Characteristics by Marital Status.



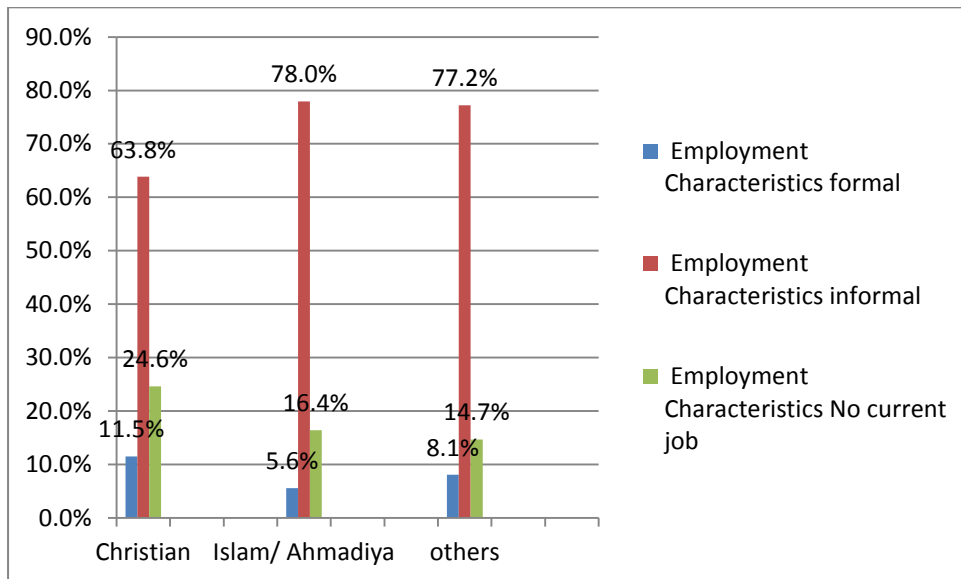
Chi-square=770.565, P-value<0.01

Source: GLSS, 2013/ 2014

4.3.5 RELIGIOUS DENOMINATION AND EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

The religious denomination with the highest percentage in the formal sector jobs is the Christian religion (Figure 6). Islam/Ahmadiya on the other hand reported the highest proportion in informal sector jobs. Again Christians are found to occupy the largest proportion in the no current job category. The results show a significant relationship between religion and employment characteristics. P-value<0.0001 and chi-square value=133.180 (figure 8).

Figure 6: Percentage Distribution of Respondent Employment Characteristics by Religious Denominations.



Chi-square value=133.180, P-value<0.01.

Source: GLSS, 2013/2014

4.3.6 EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT AND EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

From Table 7 the relationship between education and employment characteristics shown in table 7 portrays a unique pattern. Respondents with no education are largely found in the informal sector and respondents with tertiary/higher education are mostly found in the formal sector of work. There is a positive relationship between educational attainment and job in the formal sector, as the higher the educational attainment, the higher the possibly chances of being in the formal sector. The reverse is true between education and informal sector, as the lower the educational attainment, the lower the possible chances of being the informal sector. No current job category has no unique pattern, nonetheless migrants with secondary education forms the largest proportion in the no current job.

Table 7: Percentage Distribution of Respondents Employment Characteristics by Educational attainment.

Educational attainment	Employment Characteristics			Total (n)
	Formal (%)	Informal (%)	No current job (%)	
No education	3.1	83.7	13.2	2463
Primary	4.0	71.0	25.0	1065
JHS/Middle	5.2	70.6	24.2	2122
Secondary	19.0	44.4	36.6	1077
Tertiary/Higher	60.7	16.2	23.1	468
Total (n)	720	4870	1605	7195

Chi-square=2056.634, P-value<0.01

Source: GLSS, 2014.

4.3.7 ETHNICITY AND EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

Table 8 shows that the ethnic groups that are largely found in the informal sector are the Grusi/Gurma/Mande. Similarly the ethnic group that is highest in the formal sector is the Akans and the ethnic group with the highest proportion in the no current job is Ewe/Ga-Dangbe, this is likely so because migrants are likely to move internally to other Akan areas than the other ethnic areas. The results confirm the findings that indeed the Ghanaian Labour Market is ethnically fractionalized (Oduro, 2001).

Table 8: Percentage Distribution of Respondents Employment Characteristics by Ethnic groups.

Ethnicity	Employment Characteristics			Total (n)
	Formal (%)	Informal (%)	No current job (%)	
Akan	12.6	62.0	25.4	2842
Ewe/Ga-Dangbe	11.2	62.7	26.1	1204
Mole-Dagbani	7.6	72.6	19.7	1849
Grusi/Gurma/Mande	6.9	79.7	13.4	827
Guan/others	6.1	74.4	19.5	473
Total (n)	720	4870	1605	7195

Chi-square=148.643, p-value<0.01
Source: GLSS, 2013/2014

4.3.8 REGION AND EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

The region with the predominant informal activities is Brong-Ahafo and the region with a predominant formal sector work is Greater Accra which is also the region with the highest unemployed or with no current job.

Table 9: Percentage Distribution of Respondents Employment Characteristics by region.

REGION	Employment Characteristics			Total (n)
	Formal (%)	Informal (%)	No current job (%)	
Western	14.3	66.7	19.1	1059
Central	11.6	54.6	33.7	335
Greater Accra	18.2	45.1	36.7	545
Volta	6.9	67.6	25.5	663
Eastern	8.6	71.0	20.5	830
Ashanti	12.1	61.4	26.5	935
Brong Ahafo	5.7	79.6	14.8	636
Northern	3.7	78.9	17.5	922
Upper East	8.2	73.6	18.2	599
Upper West	12.2	67.1	20.7	671
Total (n)	720	4870	1605	7195

**Chi-square=330115,
p<0.01
Source: GLSS,2013/ 2014.**

4.4 Multivariate Analysis

This section is devoted to the multivariate analysis. A multinomial logistic is used to examine the relationship between the dependent variable and a set of predictor variables. Table 10 presents the results of the Multinomial Logistic Regression.

4.4.1 MULTINOMIAL LOGISTIC REGRESSION OF MIGRATION TYPES AND EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS.

Table 10: Multinomial Logistic Regression of Migration Types and Employment Characteristics of Respondents.

Employment Characteristics	Sig	Exp(B) (confidence interval)
FORMAL SECTOR		
Intercept	0.041	
Migration Type		
Urban-urban	0.003	0.569 (0.391, 0.827)
Rural-urban	0.393	0.853 (0.592, 1.229)
Urban-rural	0.944	0.983 (0.618, 1.566)
Rural-rural (RC)		
Sex of Respondent		
Male	0.000	3.111 (2.498, 3.875)
Female (RC)		
Age of Respondent		

15-19	0.000	0.034 (0.019, 0.061)
20-24	0.000	0.211 (0.152, 0.292)
25-29	0.003	0.650 (0.491, 0.860)
30-34 (RC)		
Marital Status		
Married	0.000	2.286 (1.754, 2.980)
Ever married	0.232	1.526 (0.763, 3.055)
Never married (RC)		
Religious Denomination		
Christian	0.770	0.923 (0.542, 1.573)
Islam/Ahmadiya	0.434	0.784 (0.427, 1.441)
Others (RC)		
Educational Attainment		
No education	0.000	0.140 (0.093, 0.210)
Primary	0.000	0.166 (0.106, 0.262)
Jhs/Middle	0.000	0.122 (0.086, 0.173)
Secondary	0.000	0.285 (0.207, 0.392)
Tertiary/higher (RC)		
Ethnicity		
Akan	0.773	1.082 (0.634, 1.846)
Ewe/Ga-Dangbe	0.475	1.228 (0.699, 2.158)
Mole-Dagbani	0.722	1.108 (0.631, 1.945)
Grusi/Gurma/Mande	0.128	1.622 (0.870, 3.023)
Guan/others (RC)		

Region		
Western	0.006	1.999 (1.220, 3.276)
Central	0.504	0.812 (0.441, 1.495)
Greater Accra	0.917	1.029 (0.603, 1.755)
Volta	0.080	0.582 (0.317, 1.067)
Eastern	0.290	1.340 (0.779, 2.308)
Ashanti	0.703	1.102 (0.668, 1.820)
Brong Ahafo	0.355	1.316 (0.735, 2.355)
Northern	0.001	0.387 (0.225, 0.667)
Upper East	0.804	0.936 (0.557, 1.575)
Upper west (RC)		
INFORMAL SECTOR		
Intercept	0.364	
Migration Type		
Urban-urban	0.000	0.304 (0.246, 0.377)
Rural-urban	0.000	0.640 (0.523, 0.785)
Urban-rural	0.000	0.396 (0.300, 0.523)
Rural-rural (RC)		
Sex of Respondent		
Male	0.000	1.572 (1.367, 1.808)
Female (RC)		
Age of Respondent		
15-19	0.000	0.129 (0.100, 0.166)
20-24	0.000	0.298 (0.239, 0.372)

25-29	0.000	0.617 (0.494, 0.770)
30-34 (RC)		
Marital Status		
Married	0.000	1.998 (1.670, 2.391)
Ever married	0.002	1.941 (1.274, 2.957)
Never married (RC)		
Religious Denomination		
Christian	0.862	1.032 (0.727, 1.463)
Islam/Ahmadiya	0.267	1.242 (0.847,1.821)
Others (RC)		
Educational Attainment		
No education	0.000	7.300 (5.100,10.450)
Primary	0.000	6.617 (4.573, 9.576)
Jhs/Middle	0.000	4.981 (3.543,7.002)
Secondary	0.000	2.260 (1.598, 3.197)
Tertiary/higher (RC)		
Ethnicity		
Akan	0.578	1.091 (0.802, 1.486)
Ewe/Ga-Dangbe	0.864	0.972 (0.703, 1.344)
Mole-Dagbani	0.806	0.962 (0.707, 1.310)
Grusi/Gurma/Mande	0.008	1.604 (1.132, 2.273)
Guan/others (RC)		
Region		
Western	0.000	1.968 (1.410, 2.746)

Central	0.009	0.590 (0.397, 0.877)
Greater Accra	0.874	0.971 (0.674, 1.398)
Volta	0.493	1.137 (0.787, 1.643)
Eastern	0.000	1.848 (1.309, 2.610)
Ashanti	0.226	1.225 (0.882, 1.703)
Brong Ahafo	0.000	2.683 (1.872, 3.846)
Northern	0.837	0.968 (0.710,1.320)
Upper East	0.005	1.599 (1.150,2.225)
Upper West (RC)		

Reference Category: No Current Job, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .428$, $P < 0.01$, $X^2 = 3064.233$.

Source: GLSS, 2013/2014

The model was statistically significant at $X^2 = 3064.233$, $P < 0.01$. The model explains about 43 percent variation in employment characteristics. Table 10 shows that respondents moving from urban to urban areas are 0.569 less likely to be in the formal sector rather than have no jobs compared to migrants who move from rural to rural areas.

Males are 3.111 times more likely to be in the formal sector than females.

Respondents aged 15-19, 20-24, 25-29 years respectively are 0.034, 0.2111 and 0.650 times less likely to be in the formal sector than those aged 30-34 years.

Married respondents are 2.286 times more likely to be in the formal sector of jobs than never married respondents.

Religious denomination which includes Christian religion, Islam/Ahmadiya and other religions are not significantly associated with type of employment. Respondents with no

formal education, primary, jhs/middle, secondary education are less likely to be employed in the formal sector compared to those with tertiary education.

All ethnic groups and regions in the data are not statistically significantly related to formal sector jobs. With the exception of Western and Northern region that are 1.999 and .0387 times more likely to be in the formal sector jobs than Upper West relative to no current jobs.

Furthermore, in the informal sector jobs, the urban-urban, rural-urban, urban-rural are respectively 0.304, 0.640, 0.396 times less likely to be in the informal sector activities than rural-rural migration relative to no current jobs. All these forms of internal migration are statistically significant with informal sector activities. Males are 1.572 times more likely to be in the informal work than females. Age groups 15-19, 20-24, 25-29 respectively are 0.129, 0.298, 0.617 times less likely to be in the informal sector relative to no current jobs. Respondents' age groups 15-34 are statistically significantly related to informal sector work activities. Married and Ever married respondents are 1.998 and 1.941 times respectively more likely to be found in the informal work than never married respondents. Religious denomination, ethnicity and region with the exception of Western, Central, Eastern, Brong Ahafo and Upper East have no statistically significant relationship with informal sector work activities. Respondents with no education, primary, jhs/middle, secondary are 7.300, 6.617, 4.981 and 2.260 times as likely to be in informal sector work compared to respondents with tertiary or higher education. The overall model is statistically significant.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The study has come out with findings that are varied in several ways. The study found out at the bivariate analysis that migration type is statistically significant with employment characteristics. It accounts that irrespective of the destination, a migrant is most likely to be engaged in informal work activities than formal work activity. Similarly, no current job or unemployment has proportions distributed among all the types of migration. Also control variables such as sex, age, marital status, religious denomination, educational attainment, ethnicity and region were all statistically significantly related to employment characteristics at the bivariate analysis level.

Rural-urban and urban-rural migration was not significantly related to formal sector work at the multivariate level. Again ever married respondents were also not significantly related to formal sector jobs, and so are religious denomination, ethnicity and region. Also under the informal sector work all migration types were statistically significant to informal work activities and so is sex, age, marital status and education. However, ethnicity, region and religion were not significantly related to informal sector jobs.

From the findings above it can be said that variables that are not associated with or related to migrants' employment characteristics are ethnicity, region and religious denomination whereas variables that help to determine migrants' employment characteristics include sex, age, marital status and educational attainment.

To recall, the purpose of the study was to understand migration types and their employment characteristics in Ghana. The first research question of the study was to know the dynamics

of internal migrants and their employment characteristics. It was realized that migrants from rural to rural areas were largely found in the informal work activities which could be as a result of predominance of agriculture in the rural areas. The rural folks are mostly engaged in agricultural work and as such when there is bad land one is motivated to move to another rural area for viable agricultural land for farming or even for settlement (Awumbila et al., 2001). Similarly urban-urban migrants were found to be mostly engaged in formal sector jobs than other types of migration.

Secondly, one of the objectives of the study was about the relationship between the socioeconomic characteristics of migrants and their employment characteristics. It was found that sex, age, marital status and educational attainment are some of the socioeconomic characteristics that help determine migrant's employment characteristics. Lastly the study sought to answer what category of people migrates and it was observed that migrants within age 15 to 35 years usually migrate internally in Ghana (FAO, 2017).

5.2 POLICY RECOMMENDATION

The study has a potential of influencing policy in the country. As observed in the study that migrant's educational attainment is relatively low, it is recommended that when the Free Senior High School education becomes successful it should be extended to tertiary or higher education. This initiative will help increase migrants' educational attainment and enhance their employment characteristics.

Furthermore, since the informal economy is the largest labour market that absorbs most young migrants in the cities, there should be a minimum wage set for workers in this sector to improve their standard of living.

It is therefore recommended that since there are limited studies on migration and employment characteristics there should be additional or further studies.

5.3. CONCLUSION

In conclusion the study has contributed in sharing knowledge on migration types and employment characteristics in Ghana. It has discussed some of the migration types that contribute to unemployment in the country. Therefore it is proposed that the recommendations raised above should be considered as migration is one of the factors that enhance development of a country.

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