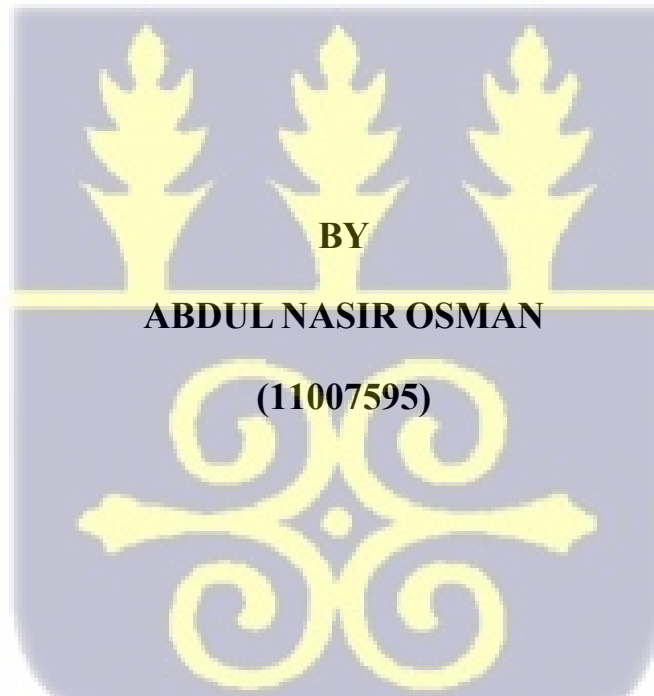


# UNIVERSITY OF GHANA



**EXPLORING THE SOCIAL NETWORKS AND LIVING CONDITIONS OF  
TOGOLESE LABOR MIGRANTS IN THE REAL ESTATE  
CONSTRUCTION SECTOR IN KPONE KATAMANSO MUNICIPALITY.**



**BY**

**ABDUL NASIR OSMAN**

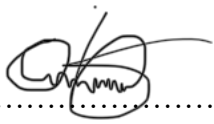
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**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON IN  
PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD  
OF MASTER OF ARTS (MA) IN MIGRATION STUDIES**

**FEBRUARY 2025**

### DECLARATION

I, **Abdul Nasir Osman**, hereby declare that except for reference to other people's work which have been duly acknowledged, this thesis is the result of my own research carried out at the Centre for Migration Studies, University of Ghana under the supervision of Prof. Mary Setrana (CMS).



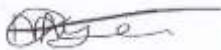
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## ABSTRACT

Globally, the construction sector relies heavily on migrant workers, however their working conditions and social protections are often inadequate. In Ghana, Togolese migrants dominate the sector, relying on social networks for employment and survival. This study addresses a research gap by using Social Network and Social Capital Theory to explore how these networks impact the living conditions of Togolese construction workers in East Legon Hills. Additionally, the study examined the challenges faced by these migrants and how they cope with them.

The research, adopted the mixed-method approach, using a snowballing technique, 150 Togolese migrants were sampled and 10 stakeholders interviewed. The study found that majority of respondents relied on social networks in their migration process. Furthermore, the study also revealed that economic factors drive migration, with their social capital providing essential information on job opportunities and support. Again, the social networks of migrants were from their home country i.e. friends and family from Togo, thus the bonding social capital. Majority of respondents reside in shared housing with limited access to social protection and safety equipment. Notably, the study revealed variations in living and working conditions based on profession. Skilled workers have higher incomes and more stable employment, but still lacked crucial safety training and gear. Female respondents, predominantly laborers, reported lower earnings and job insecurity. Coping mechanisms differed across professions, with masons and carpenters often pooling resources for improved housing, while laborers, usually women, relied more on informal social support. Despite some availability of basic social services, all professions faced exploitation, health risks, and limited social protection. The study concludes that while strong social networks facilitate job access and resilience, fundamental structural issues remain. The study therefore, recommends that construction stakeholders improve working conditions and safety measures, and that policies are formulated to ensure fair treatment and integration.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor, Professor Mary Boatemaa Setrana, Director of the Centre for migration studies (CMS) at the university of Ghana, for inviable guidance, direction and continues support throughout this research project. I also extend my thanks to Professor Delali Badasu at the university of Ghana (CMS) for her advice, support, suggesting and providing research materials that significantly helped my work. Additionally, I thank Emmanuel Yakass a graduate assistant at the University of Ghana (CMS), for his support in peer reviewing my work. I am also grateful to Wendy Boakye, a research assistant for supporting me on the field during data collection and also helping through the analysis using spss. Finally, I would like to thank all my course mates who have been supportive and interactive throughout this journey.

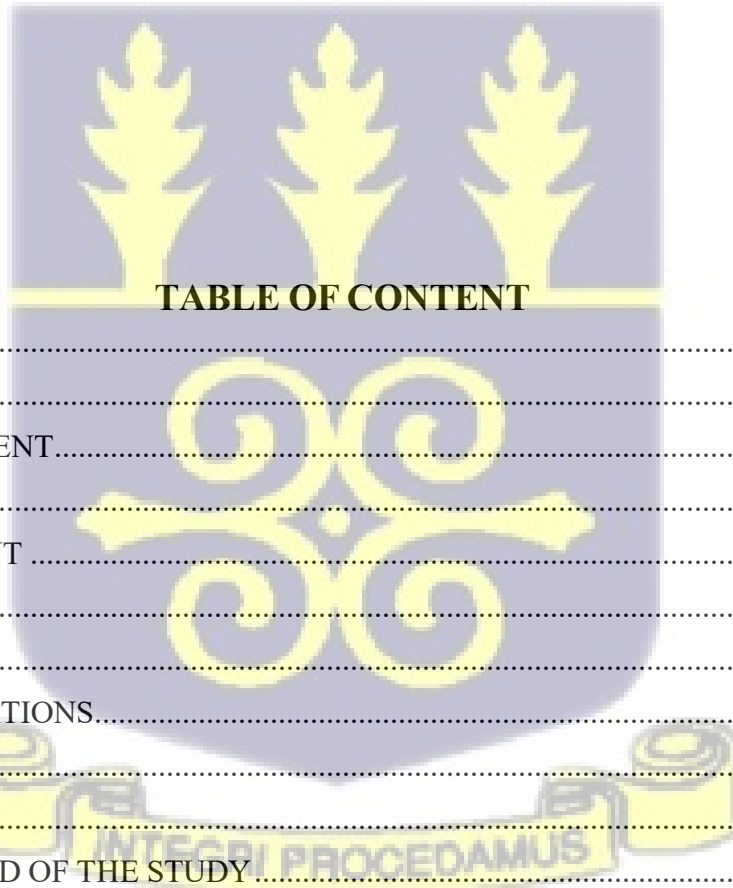
May God bless them all.



The crest of the University of Ghana is a shield-shaped emblem. The top section is a blue rectangle containing three golden, flame-like symbols. Below this is a horizontal golden band. The main body of the shield is blue and features a golden, symmetrical, ornate design resembling a stylized cross or a floral motif. At the bottom of the shield is a golden ribbon that curves around the sides, containing the Latin motto "INTEGRI PROCEDAMUS" in blue capital letters.

**DEDICATION**

I dedicate this to research work to my lovely parents, whose unwavering support, prayers and encouragement have been my guiding light throughout this journey.



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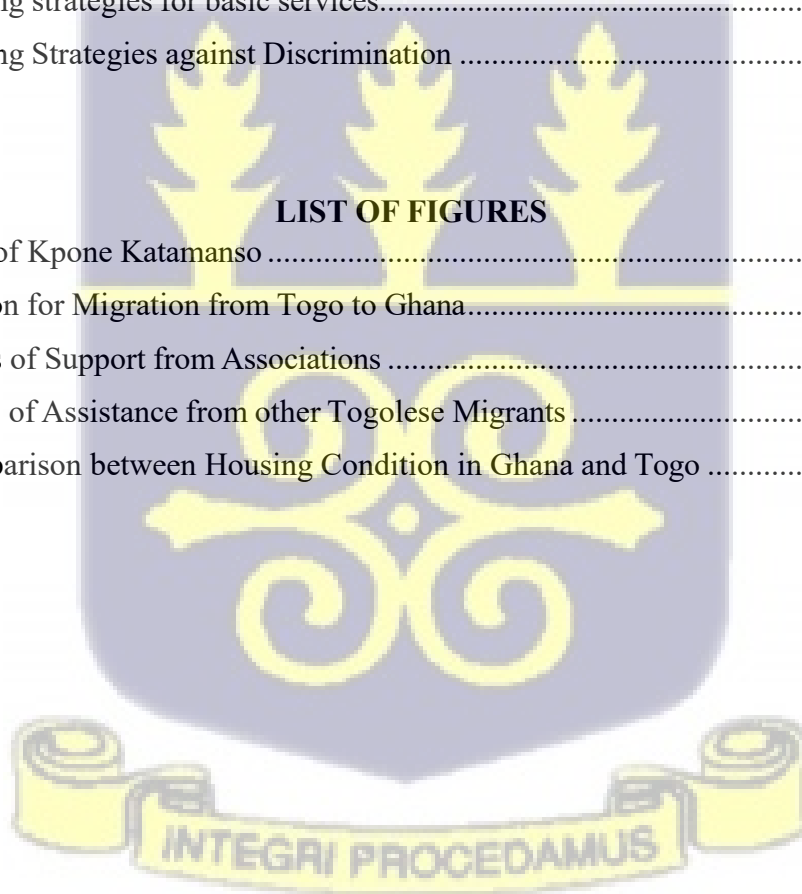
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**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

AU	- African Union
COTVET	- Commission for Technical and Vocational Education Training
DLA	- Defense Logistics Agency
DRC	- Development Research Centre
ECOWAS	- Economic Community of West African States
GIS	- Ghana Immigration Service
GMI	- Ghana Ministry of Interior
GSS	- Ghana Statistical Service
HBR	- Harvard Business Review
HRW	- Human Rights Watch
ILO	- International Labour Organization

IOM	-	International Organization for Migration
KKMA	-	Kpone Katamanso Municipal Assembly
MELR	-	Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations
NMP	-	National Migration Policy
OECD	-	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
UNDESA	-	United Nation Department of Economic and Social Affairs



## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

In recent years, there has been significant increase in migration due to globalization. Migration has gained prominence globally in terms of opportunities and challenges (Asis, 2020). The estimated number of migrant workers are about 272 million of which 245 million have reached the working age (Rakotonarivo, 2021). People migrate due to several reasons including poor economic conditions, political instability, conflict, and natural disasters (European Parliament, 2024). These movement can either be forced or voluntary and internal (rural to urban) or international (IOM, 2025). According to the IOM (2011), migration affects all aspects of society, economies, and cultures in sending and destination countries. People who migrate across national borders usually cross to neighboring countries (Martin and Zürcher, 2008) for instance Mexico to the United States, Turkey to Germany and Togo to Ghana.

The construction sector is a major employer of migrants around the world (Swider, 2011; Zeityn et al. 2014). According to the ILO (2015) 26.6 million (17.8%) out of the 150.3 international migrants in 2013 were employed in the construction sector. Most migrant prefer to work in this sector because its informal nature and the ease with which they find jobs in the sector (Swider, 2011; Zeityn et al. 2014). “Migrant workers are likely to work in lower wage conditions where the work is labour intensive and needs little or no skills. Migrants help fill labour and skills shortages and do the jobs that locals will not or cannot do” (Atakul et al., 2018 p977). Workers in the sector face safety risks due to a lack of labor rights (Atakul et al., 2018). Majority of employment in the construction sector is based on word of mouth and networks (Atakul et al., 2018). Workers in the sector face safety risks due to a lack of labor rights (Atakul et al., 2018).

Against this background, research into migrants in the construction sector in Ghana has become increasingly relevant because most migrants are engaged in this sector. In recent years, there has been an increased investment in the sector by both Ghanaians and foreigners hence increasing the demand for workers in the sector (Yaro et al, 2018). The sector is the leading component of industry and the third largest sector of the Ghanaian economy making it one of the main drivers of the Ghanaian economy. In terms of GDP, construction is one of the largest sectors with a GDP contribution of 11.5 billion Ghanaian cedis (GHS), roughly 775.5 million U.S. dollars in 2024 (Sasu, 2024). The sector employs 317,525 people, accounting for about 3.1 per cent of employed people (Yaro et al., 2015). The growth in the construction industry in Ghana is from the residential market followed by commercial and retail, heavy engineering, and high rises (Owoo & Lambon-Quayefio, 2020). This growth has necessitated the need for skilled workers in plastering bricklaying, plumbing, roofing, and architectural support at all levels of construction (Owoo & Lambon-Quayefio, 2020). The construction sector is gender-biased and perceived as a male sector, thus women are largely relegated to unskilled, low-wage work like carrying materials, digging, and mixing (ILO, 2011). Most constructions are in urban areas due to high construction of facilities and houses in these areas. Most of the workers in the sector are migrants with majority coming from rural areas, other African countries such as Togo and Niger as well as international migrants mostly from China. Majority of migrants are employed in the lower level of the sector as masons, carpenters, electricians, and plumbers (Yaro et al, 2015). Studies show that construction employs majority of migrants however these migrants are often exposed to dangerous and hazardous working conditions (Yaro et al., 2015). Similarly, an ILO report highlights that migrants in construction often hold lower-paying, less-skilled temporary, subcontracted, or informal jobs, increasing their risk of exploitation and injury (Buckley et al, 2015)

One of the major challenges in the construction industry is the availability of skilled workers (Owoo & Lambon-Quayefio, 2020). Although there are large numbers of artisans in the construction sector, they are mostly trained informally and do not have the expertise and skills to meet the needs of modern construction projects. In view of this the National Council for Technical and Vocational Training and Education (COTVET) in collaboration with the Ministry of Roads and Highways have establish an inter-ministerial training center in Koforidua to train artisans in new skills and technologies in the construction industry (Owoo & Lambon-Quayefio, 2020). This center provides skills training for Ghanaians and artisans from neighboring countries such as Togo and Burkina Faso. Despite attempts to meet demands for skilled artisanal worker, this sector is still in dire need of construction worker. Darvas and Palmer (2014) note that the construction industry has a shortfall of about 60,000 workers. Owoo and Lambon-Quayefio (2020) note that due to low training of the Ghanaian workers there are competition from artisans from Togo and other West African countries. Togolese are noted for superior finishing skills and are willing to work for lower wages compared to the Ghanaians (Owoo & Lambon-Quayefio, 2020). As a result, the last couple of years have seen a proliferation of Togolese workers in the construction industry.

In conclusion, the construction sector in Ghana benefits from Togolese migrant labor, but the influence of their social networks on living conditions is poorly understood. Existing research lacks focus on how these networks specifically affect these workers' lives. This study examines the social networks of Togolese labor migrants in Kpone Katamanso's real estate construction sector, exploring their impact on opportunities and living standards. The goal is to provide information for policies that improve the well-being and integration of these migrants.

## 1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

There is sufficient evidence to buttress the relevance of the construction sector to the migration discourse (Yaro et al, 2015; Hantish, 2023; Atakul et al., 2018). Also, about 17.8 percent of migrant workers work in the construction sector (ILO, 2015). Construction serves as the entry employment for most migrants thus the sector benefits significantly from migrant labour as much as migrants also benefit from the sector.

Despite the relevance of migrant worker to the construction sector, there is limited research on migrants in the sector. Contributions of most studies and scholars are geared towards the working condition of workers in the sector (Atakul et al., 2018; Otoo et al 2009; Tiwary et al. 2011; Yaro et al., 2015). Most of the research on migrants in the construction sector are done on Asia (Atakul et al., 2018). In addition, most of the research delve into the nature of the construction work and very little has been done on their social networks and living conditions (ILO, 2001 & 2007; Swider, 2011). Also, employment in the construction sector is mainly based on networks and word of mouth (Atakul et al., 2018), however very little research has been done on how migrant workers utilize their social networks and leverage on it for better living conditions. Most research on social network and migration focus on the role of social capital in the migration process and the role of social networks in the survival of migrants (Awumbila et al., 2017). Also, there is limited research on Togolese migrants in urban Ghana and specifically in the construction industry.

In view of this, social networks is very important for survival of migrants especially in the construction industry because employment is usually through networks. This research therefore seeks to ascertain if these social networks are enablers or explorative, hence the assessment of living conditions. In addition, this study is peculiar because studies on social networks of migrants are usually generalized, however this study focuses on Togolese migrant workers in the

construction industry because of the importance of the sector to the Ghanaian economy and the relevance of migrants to the sector.

This research therefore examined the relationship between social network of Togolese migrant workers and their living conditions in Accra. The study also delved into the background of the migrant workers to understand their social networks and association with the goal of understanding how these networks can be leveraged on to improve their living and work conditions.

### **1.3 OBJECTIVES**

The main objective of the study is to explore the social networks and living conditions of Togolese migrant workers in the real estate construction sector in Urban Ghana, focusing on the East Legon Hills in the Kpone Katamanso Municipality, while identifying the associated challenges and opportunities.

The general objectives include:

1. To identify the social networks of Togolese migrant workers in the construction sector of the East Legon Hills.
2. To ascertain the living conditions of Togolese labor migrants in the construction sector in East Legon Hills. Urban Ghana (housing, and access to basic services)
3. To assess the opportunities and challenges faced by Togolese construction workers in East Legon Hills.
4. To assess the coping strategies adopted by Togolese migrant workers in East Legon Hills.

#### 1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In line with the above-mentioned objectives, the research seeks to answer the following questions

1. What types of social networks do Togolese labor migrants form in the construction sector of East Legon Hills?
2. What are the living conditions of Togolese labor migrants in the construction industry?
4. What challenges do Togolese labour migrants face in the construction industry?
5. What coping strategies are adopted by Togolese migrants in the construction sector to cope with the challenges they face?

#### 1.5 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

**Migrant workers** refer to “workers (unskilled, semi-skilled or skilled) who move from home to destination countries for the purpose to find employment, in particular seasonal or temporary work” (Hantish, 2023)

**Construction work** is defined as “ (i) building, including excavation and the construction, structural alteration, renovation, repair, maintenance (including cleaning and painting) and demolition of all types of buildings or structures; (ii) civil engineering, including excavation and the construction, structural alteration, repair, maintenance and demolition of, for example, airports, docks, harbors, inland waterways, dams, river and avalanche and sea defense works, roads and highways, railways, bridges, tunnels, viaducts and works related to the provision of services such as communications, drainage, sewerage, water and energy supplies; (iii) The erection and dismantling of prefabricated buildings and structures, as well as the manufacturing of prefabricated elements on the construction site” (ILO, 1988)

## 1.6 JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

Construction is an important part of the economy in both developed and developing countries. The construction sector is a major industry for economic growth contributing significantly to employment and an average of 3 to 5 percent of GDP (Jarkas and Bitar, 2012). Due to the size and diverse nature of the industry, the construction industry faces several challenges. The industry is large in terms of size of workforce and value. The industry is also made of diverse actors including customers, consultants, contractors, and other stakeholders (Anumba et al., 2002). Although the recent Covid 19 pandemic posed a threat to all industries, construction was one of the last areas of the economy to close and one of the first to reopen due to the role it plays in stimulating economic recovery (Selcuk, 2024; ILO, 2021). In view of this, the study will examine the relationship between the social networks of migrant workers in the construction industry and their living conditions as well as the challenges they face.

The justification of the study is in Two-folds. Firstly, the study contributes to the understanding of how social networks can be leveraged to improve the living conditions of migrant workers. This is to inform migrant workers on the social networks and association which can provide them with social capital to improve their living conditions. In addition, the study is to inform the formulation and implementation of policies that can improve the living conditions of workers in the construction sector.

Secondly, the study adds to existing knowledge on the conditions of migrant workers in the construction industry in developing countries and Ghana to be specific. Given that employment in the sector is done mainly through networks, this research helps to ascertain the role of social networks in the survival of these migrants.

### **1.7 ORGANIZATION OF CHAPTERS**

The study is made of six chapters. The first chapter gives an insight into the issues discussed in the study. The problem being addressed by the study is highlighted in the chapter. The chapter indicates the objectives of the study as well as the justification for the study. The second chapter focuses on review of studies and scholarly literature relevant for the research. The third chapter encapsulates the methods of data collection including the types of data and sampling techniques as well as a brief description of the study area.

The fourth chapter present the information gathered from the field and the fifth chapter gives detailed discussion of the findings. The final chapter presents a summary of the findings as well as how it informs policy. In line with its policy implications, recommendations are made for policy and future studies in the field.



## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines the existing body of literature relevant to the study of Togolese labor migrants in Ghana's urban construction sector, with a specific focus on migrants in the construction industry. It begins with a review of migration trends in Ghana. It goes further to review literature on the construction sector in relation to migrant workers and their living conditions. The chapter also provides a theoretical and conceptual framework to contextualize the integration of social networks into the lives of Togolese migrants and explores how these networks shape their economic and social experiences.

#### 2.2 GLOBAL MIGRATION TRENDS

Migration is basically movement from one community or country to another (Asare,2012). Historically, migration began with the movement of the first people from their origin in East Africa to other parts of the world (Asare,2012). In recent times, migration has become a defining feature in globalization with millions seeking better opportunities across borders (UN, n.d.). Migration occurs at different levels i.e. intercontinental (from one continent to the other) Intracontinental (from one country to the other) and interregional (within the same region) (Asare,2012). There are several drivers of migration including poor economic conditions, political instability, social conflicts and environmental disasters (Atakul et al., 2018).

In the coming decade, migration in search of employment and security is expected to increase rapidly due to the failure of globalization to provide employment and economic opportunities (Asare, 2012). According to the ILO, migrant workers in 2010 were estimated at 106 million and with their families, they comprise about 90 percent of all international migrants (ILO, 2010). Thus, international migration is predominantly due to decent work.

In recent years there has been a general consensus on the positive impact of labor migration on countries of origin, destination countries and migrants themselves (ILO, 2024). With regards to origin countries, migrants impact positively through remittances, transfer of technology and skills (Walizada, 2022). On the other hand, in destination countries migrant workers complement national workers, pay taxes, contribute to social security schemes and are active consumers (Asare, 2012). Hence, they contribute significantly to the economic and social development of both origin and destination countries (Asare, 2012). In spite of their contributions to development, there are several negative impacts of labor migration which includes abuse and exploitation of migrants, loss of essential skills to developing countries, growth of irregular migration and discrimination (Grebeniyk, Aleshkovski, & Maksimova, 2021).

### **2.3 MIGRATION IN GHANA**

Ghana's migration trend is impacted by economic performance and historically, political stability. During the early years of the post-colonial era, Ghana was a destination country for immigrants from other West African countries because the country was relatively prosperous (Asare, 2012). With the decline of the economy of Ghana during the 1980s many Ghanaians emigrated to look for better opportunities in other countries especially Nigeria (Asare, 2012). Although there is the decline in emigration to Nigeria, majority of Ghanaian emigrants (71%) stay in West African countries but an increasing number of people are diversifying to other countries (DRC, 2007). Thus, in recent times, Ghana has become an emigrant country with more Ghanaians leaving the country than non-Ghanaians enter (GIS, 2008). Although emigration from Ghana is higher than immigration, Ghana continues to be favored as destination country.

From 2010 to 2019, the number of international migrants in Ghana increased by more than a third (UN DESA, 2019). Thus, the international migrant stock as a percentage of the population

increased from 1.1% to 1.5% within the period (UN DESA, 2019). In 2019, 83.6% of international immigrant in Ghana were from other West African countries, due to the Ecowas protocol of free movement within the subregion (IOM,2020). The top countries of origin were Togo (101,677), Nigeria (79,023) and Côte d'Ivoire (72,728). Greater Accra Region houses most of these immigrants hence 3 percent of the population in the region are not Ghanaians (GSS, 2013).

In the past, several initiatives were put in place to deal with specific migration issues. These initiatives were usually implemented by different institutions and as such were uncoordinated (Asare, 2012; GMI, 2016). This led to the development and implementation of the National Migration Policy (NMP) in 2016 and the GIS Legal handbook in 2017 (IOM, 2020). In addition, the National Labour Migration policy was approved by Cabinet in 2020 to manage the movement of labour migrants within, into and out of Ghana (IOM,2020).

Also, one of the main challenges in migration is the inadequacy of the data available. Most migration data rely on census data which are collected every decade. The Ghana Immigration Service collects data on migrants usually for administrative purposes, thus this data is not disaggregated into categories (IOM, 2020). ECOWAS and the Government of Spain assisted the Ghanaian government to develop a National Migration Data Management Strategy to generate updated, quality, disaggregated and credible data to inform policy making (IOM, 2020). Additionally, due to the porosity of our borders, some migrants enter and leave through unauthorized means. Some nationals of ECOWAS states enter the country and usually overstay the required 90 days. As such it has become difficult to obtain comprehensive data on immigrants and emigrants.

## **2.4 LABOUR MIGRATION IN GHANA**

There are two facets of labour migration in Ghana, internal and external (Commonwealth Secretariat, 2020). The primary migration pattern is internal migration with rural-urban migration being a major component. Spatial disparities in development and economic opportunities between northern and southern Ghana are key drivers of internal migration, which involves about 48.6% of the population, with Accra and Kumasi being the most common destinations (commonwealth secretariat, 2020). In addition, international emigration pattern of labour from Ghana has changed, with initial focus on neighboring countries like Nigeria giving way to more distant destinations in the United States and Europe (Asare, 2012). A particularly significant feature of this outflow is the emigration of skilled individuals, as evidenced by the fact that 46% of tertiary-educated Ghanaians have moved to developed countries (Asare, 2012).

International immigrants also forms an integral part of labour migrants in Ghana. The Ghana Immigration Service (GIS) reported issuing 11,060 work permits in 2010, a figure that increased to 12,344 by 2016 (GIS, 2017). In 2015, international migrants in Ghana showed a stronger employment rate (71.6%) than the national average of 67.9%, with male immigrants (75.6%) and those in rural areas (75.1%) showing particularly high rates (IOM, 2019)

## **2.5 INTERNATIONAL AND REGIONAL COLLABORATIVE POLICIES GOVERNING LABOUR MIGRATION**

Migration when managed well has the potential promote development. Hence at the global level, the Sustainable Development Goals implemented in 2015 became the first international agenda that included migration. Additionally, in 2018, the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration was negotiated by about 150 countries in order to effectively manage international migration (UN, 2018). With regards to Labour migration, “article 10 of the ILO Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143) calls upon Member States to declare and

pursue a national policy to promote and guarantee equality of opportunity and treatment by methods appropriate to national conditions and practice” (MELR,2020; p. 3).

Also at the regional level, an African Union Migration Policy Framework was developed in 2006 to promote free movement on the continent and to serve as a guideline for African governments in the design and implementation of migration policies (AU, 2018). In 2015, the AU declaration on migration reaffirmed its commitment to free movement across the continent. Again, the AU Joint Labor Migration Programme also seeks to support the formulation and implementation of intra-regional migration policies (IOM, 2017). Also, in 1979 ECOWAS implemented the Protocol on free movement of persons. This allowed citizens of member states to have free entry and right of residence to engage in income generating activities. In accordance with this protocol, residents of member states are allowed to visa free entry into Ghana for up to 90 days (Adepoju, 2007).

## **2.6 ILO CONVENTIONS RATIFIED IN GHANA**

Ghana has been a member of the International Labour Organization (ILO) since 1957 and has ratified 52 ILO conventions which cover a wide range of labour rights and standards (ILO, n.d.). Of the 52 Conventions that Ghana has ratified, 36 remain in force. A further 7 Conventions have been denounced, and 8 instruments have been abrogated (ILO, n.d.). Some of the key conventions ratified and relevant for the study included Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise (Convention 87); Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining (Convention 98); Abolition of Forced Labour (Conventions 29 and 105); and Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (Convention 111) (ILO, n.d.). In spite of the extensive number of conventions ratified, Ghana has still not ratified some conventions that are important for migrant workers including Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 ( Convention 97) and Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (Convention 143) (ILO, n.d.)

## **2.7 MIGRATION RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GHANA AND TOGO**

After the first world war, Togo was divided into two territories. The Western territory became part of the then British Gold Coast, and the Eastern part became the French Togoland. In 1919 the English and French signed an agreement (Milner-Simon agreement) that attributed 40% and 60% of Togo to the English and French respectively (Asare,2012). In view of this history and the cultural tie between the two countries, Togo is an important source of immigrants to Ghana. In the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century Ghana was an important destination for labor migrants from Togo in search of economic opportunities, educational opportunity and better health services (Asare, 2012). With the decline of the economic climate, the population of Togolese migrants declines from 280,000 in 1960 to 245,000 in 1970 (OECD/ILO, 2018)

However, in recent years there has been an increase in the influx of migration between these two countries. Migration from Togo to Ghana outweighs migration from Ghana to Togo due the strong economy of Ghana. Togolese form the largest population of Migrants from the sub-region in Ghana with a population of 101,677 people (UN DESA, 2019)

## **2.8 CONCEPTUALIZING CONSTRUCTION**

The construction sector is a diverse sector comprising of services related to building, renovation, demolishing and maintenance of the built environment (Buckley et al., 2016). Construction sector is usually divided into three main sectors “civil construction (e.g., roads and highways, water treatment plants, bridges etc.), industrial construction (e.g., oil and gas platforms, mining infrastructure) and residential and commercial construction (e.g., single-family dwellings, office buildings, condominium developments)” (Buckley et al., 2016, p.4). The sector employs people from different categories and skill sets. The sector employs professionals ranging from managers, architects, engineers, to masons, carpenters, electricians and laborers.

The construction sector employs about 270 million people worldwide. In 2024, the sector was valued at \$12 trillion and contributed to about 6% of the global GDP (AlSyed Construction, 2024). Generally, the sector is expected to grow to \$15 trillion by 2025 with 60% of activities in the sector being undertaken in emerging economies (Global Construction Perspectives & Oxford Economics, 2013). The sector is driven mainly by government infrastructure (energy and water projects), economic growth and urbanization (KPMG, 2013).

## **2.9 CONSTRUCTION AND MIGRANT LABOR**

The relevance of the construction sector to the modern society cannot be over emphasizes, with the sector providing essential infrastructure and contributing to economic growth (Mangai et al, 2023). Despite advancements in technological and technical building practices, labor remains a significant and often dominant component of construction project costs. Recent years have seen an increase in studies on migrant workers in the construction sector. Findings from some of these studies indicated that majority of migrant workers in the construction sector have low educational status thus have had no schooling at all (Anand, 2000; Lu and Fox, 2001). Majority attain their skill training through apprenticeship (Yaro et al., 2015). Also, migrant workers settle for low paying jobs because they are poor and vulnerable (Wells, 2007; Yaro et al., 2015).

Moreso, there is an increase in labor casualization within the sector, making it difficult to retain a formal position (Yaro et al, 2015). Employers in the industry prefer to outsource recruitment of labour to intermediaries therefore the industry has experienced increasing instability in the developing world (Yaro et al., 2015). In Egypt, Mexico, Philippines and Korea data showed that about 90 percent, 66 percent, 78 percent and 85 percent of worker employed in the construction sector are employed on a casual basis respectively (Connolly, 2001; Yaro et al., 2015). Also, Brazil

recorded about 18 percent increase in casual workforce within the construction sector between 1981 and 1999 (ILO,2001).

As a result of the casualization of the industry, the terms of employment for worker have declined over the last few decades with employment in the sector being precarious and also worker being excluded from social security schemes (Otoo et al 2009; Tiwary et al. 2011). Consequently, the sector is plagued by poor occupational health and safety and also lacks trade union agreements as well as training provisions (Tiwary et al. 2011). Employment in the construction industry in developing countries are usually informal (Swider, 2011). Research on Chinese migrant workers identified three modes of recruitment in the construction sector identified three modes of employment in the sector, namely, mediated, embedded and individualized recruitment (Swider, 2011). Mediated recruitment is the case whereby the labour contractor recruits people from a community with the help one member of the community. Hence the labour contractor provides funds for migration as well as information and access to employment. The embedded employment system was done through diverse social networks on an informal per-job basis. The individualized employment process is done through spot markets.

## **2.10 LIVING CONDITIONS OF MIGRANT CONSTRUCTION WORKERS**

Living conditions are a complex and multifaceted concept, encompassing the range of factors that shape the environment in which individuals or communities live and influence their overall well-being, health, and quality of life (Krishnan, Betts, & Wang, 2012). These conditions encompass housing quality, access to essential services, economic stability, social interactions, and environmental quality. Measuring living conditions involves the use of diverse indicators, often through a Living Conditions Index (LCI) (Krishnan, Betts, & Wang, 2012). The LCI incorporates indicators related to the physical environment indicators (housing quality and environmental

quality); economic indicators (income level and purchasing power); social indicators (social participation and education); health and well-being indicators (health access and health status); and mobility and leisure indicators (transport access and leisure activities) (Krishnan, Betts, & Wang, 2012).

This thesis is focusing on Togolese migrants in Ghana and therefore requires a nuanced approach that balances both universally relevant indicators and factors specific to the population and context under investigation. In view of this, housing/accommodation arrangements, access to basic facilities such as healthcare, water, electricity, and sanitation were chosen as indicators to reflect the most salient aspects of their lived experiences of the respondents for this study. While the Living Conditions Index (LCI) offers a useful framework, broader indices may not adequately capture the unique vulnerabilities and challenges faced by Togolese migrants in Ghana. Migrants, particularly those in vulnerable situations, often prioritize basic survival and security over aspects like leisure.

Due to their relevance to the sector, several studies have investigated the living conditions of workers in the construction sector looking at areas such as housing, wages, access to healthcare, sanitation, working hours and social support (Adsul et al., 2011; Kumar, 2013; Mathew et al., 2016). This is because the living conditions of workers influence their physical and mental health, thus affecting their performance and to some extent the construction sector (Ge et al., 2022). Additionally, according to Buckley et al. (2016), the reliance of the construction sector on migrant labor stems from factors such as seasonal nature of the work and its project-based structure. In spite of their relevance to the construction industry, workers in the construction sector especially migrants are faced with challenging living conditions and as such this has been a foremost concern for policymakers and labour rights advocates (Mathew et al., 2016). As mention earlier, migrant

labor is a significant part of the labor force in the construction sector. Like other industries that are spatially bound, the construction process cannot be relocated to benefit from lower labour costs, hence the need for the labour to migrate to where projects are.

In spite of this migrant laborers frequently endure severely deprived living conditions (Krishnakumar, 2019). Migrant construction workers in the informal sector frequently lack essential benefits such as paid leave, regulated working hours, overtime compensation, and social security (Sharma & Pal, 2024). Their workplaces are often hazardous, exposing them to a heightened risk of work-related injuries due to inadequate safety gear and medical facilities (Sehsah, El-Gilany, & El-Masry, 2020). The physically demanding nature of their construction jobs typically involves significant physical and mental stress, often compounded by long working hours (Awumbila, Teye & Yaro, 2017). Workplace exploitation is widespread, with numerous laborers forced to undertake extra duties without additional compensation (Mehra & Singh, 2014). Most workers in the construction industry often live under poor conditions (Amnesty International, 2013). The construction industry relies heavily on low- or semi-skilled migrant laborers who often face harsh working and living conditions (Bowen et al., 2008). Thus the need to ascertain the housing and overall living environments these workers endure in host countries.

Firstly, housing is essential for migrants because it is the place for rest and socialization. As noted by Buckley et al. (2016), migrants face not only economic insecurity, but also a complex array of vulnerabilities including inadequate living conditions, such as substandard housing. Also, Caro et al. (2015) noted that the housing arrangements for migrant workers, which are often spatially isolated, bear resemblance to residential segregation with minority groups are clustered together, away from the broader host community. Inadequate and substandard living conditions coupled with overcrowding leads lack of sleep, stress and negatively impacts the performance of

construction workers (Pérez-Hernández et al., 2018; Varshney et al., 2022). IOM (2019) also notes that migrant workers are susceptible to disaster because of their unsafe living conditions and lack of access to essential information and resources that could help them prevent disasters or effectively respond when they occur (Hantish, 2023). Accommodation of migrant workers in the construction sector are usually linked to the working site and employer. Migrant are usually accommodated at the construction site. According to DLA Piper (2014), reports from Amnesty International and Human Rights Watch highlighting the inadequate living conditions for migrant workers on construction sites in Qatar, claim that overcrowding is prevalent, with some workers sleeping in rooms shared by more than eight individuals. Studies have found that migrant workers in the construction sector mostly live in slums in overcrowded dormitories and temporary structures (Korra, 2010; Krishnakumar, 2019). Duraiswamy et al. (2008), also found that in additions to their poor living conditions, most migrant workers lack access to basic services such as sanitation, water and electricity. Zachariah et al. (2002) notes that in the UAE, 70 percent of contract workers reside in labor camps situated on the outskirts of cities designed for single male workers and house workers engaged in construction, production, sales, and services. Also, in cases where workers are commuting from affordable but distant housing conditions, it hampers their performance due to fatigue thus hampering their energy levels at work (Gino et al., 2017). The financial constraints of irregular payment systems and low wages also affect workers living conditions due to the stress of meeting daily expenses (Choksi, 2020).

Furthermore, living under conditions without proper basic sanitation facilities may increase the risk of infection and other health problems (Mangai et al, 2023). Amnesty International (2013) also notes that the absence of functioning air conditioning forces migrant workers to sleep on mattresses placed on the floor. Furthermore, they report poor sanitation issues, including

overflowing sewage, exposed septic tanks, and a general lack of cleaning (Hantish,2023). The scarcity of electricity and running water complicates daily tasks such as food preparation, charging phones, and accessing toilet facilities (Hantish,2023).

In addition to the challenges faced in accommodation migrants also face discrimination in their host communities. An ILO study from 2010 revealed that while a significant portion of Thai respondents acknowledged the economic benefits of migrant workers, many also perceived them as vulnerable to exploitation and lacking adequate protection. Limited personal contact with migrants and a lack of direct involvement in integration efforts further hindered deeper understanding and support for migrant worker (ILO,2011). The temporary nature of migrant workers' stays, coupled with language barriers and a lack of information about local institutions, hinders the development of meaningful relationships with local residents (Caro et al., 2015). Bruslé (2010) argues that Doha is similar to other Gulf cities (Abu Dhabi, Dubai or Riyadh) and other global cities in that it depends on a dual labour market comprised of highly skilled and unskilled migrants, however Nepalese workers in Qatar believe that they have low status in society, and the Bangladeshis feel similarly about Abu Dhabi.

## **2.11 HEALTH AND SAFETY OF MIGRANT WORKER IN THE CONSTRUCTION SECTOR**

Ulubeyli et al. (2015) highlighted that the construction sector is characterized by highly hazardous working conditions leading to high records of workplace injuries and fatalities in both developed and developing nations. According to the ILO (2016), safety risks are three to six times greater in developing countries compared to the developed ones. Several studies have shown that individuals employed in construction projects face significant risks of severe accidents, injuries, and illnesses, largely due to demanding production processes and unsafe working environments (Ulubeyli et al., 2015, Maryani et al., 2015). Liaudanskienė et al. (2010) emphasize that many activities performed

on construction sites put workers at risk of numerous hazards. Maryani et al. (2015) attribute the high rate of workplace accidents in the construction industry to several factors, including the unique nature of tasks, frequent relocation of work sites, exposure to outdoor conditions affected by weather, limited time for project execution, demanding schedules, dynamic job types requiring significant physical endurance, and the presence of unskilled labor.

The construction industry, which heavily relies on migrant labor, has not adequately addressed the health and safety risks faced by this vulnerable workforce in its research efforts (Hantish,2023). Studies from diverse global contexts suggest that migrant workers face elevated risks of occupational accidents compared to domestic workers (Abdul-Aziz, 2001; Orrenius and Zavodny, 2009; Byler, 2013). Debrah and Ofori (2001) assert that the inherent nature of construction work poses safety challenges for workers, and reliance on foreign labor often heightens the risk of workplace accidents. Similarly, Sargeant and Tucker (2009) note that migrant workers can contribute significantly to occupational safety and health (OSH) risks in their host countries. In Qatar, reports by Amnesty International (2013) and Human Rights Watch (HRW) (2016) highlight that employers in the construction sector often fail to adequately protect the health and safety of migrant workers. An investigation by the UK Guardian revealed that between June 4 and August 8, 2013, at least 44 Nepalese workers lost their lives, with over half of these deaths attributed to heart attacks, heart failure, or workplace accidents (DLA Piper, 2014). Furthermore, a report commissioned by the Qatari government indicated that 1,800 migrant workers died between 2011 and 2014. Debrah and Ofori (2001) suggested that government should enforce safety at construction sites by pushing contractors to put in place safety systems and training of worker in safety measures. In a study conducted in Thailand, employers pay for medical costs in work related

health issues (ILO,2016). Instead of insurance employer prefer to pay for health issues as and when they happen.

Evidence from the section indicates that the construction sector is relatively risky and more so for migrant worker. Several factors, including inadequate training, communication barriers, and a lack of skills, experience, and discipline, appear to contribute to health and safety challenges faced by migrant workers. As highlighted by Kartam, Flood, & Koushki (2000), the migrant construction workers in Kuwait often face difficulties due to cultural disparities, language barriers, and emotional stress, which can impact safety practices.

## **2.12 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: SOCIAL CAPITAL AND SOCIAL NETWORK THEORY**

The social network and social capital theory was used to examine the living conditions of Togolese migrant workers in order to gain insight into the practical support within the group. Thus, the section highlights the significance of these theories in assessing the role migrant networks play in social integration, access to resources and living conditions of Togolese migrants.

The social network theory posits that individuals exist within a framework of interconnected relationships (Osman,2024). Wasserman and Faust (1994: p3) asserts that social network is based on the tenet that social relations are part of life. Also, the formation of social networks is often driven by the dynamic nature of power relations. Individuals may collaborate to achieve shared objectives within economic, political, and social spheres (Teye, 2013). These networks affect the actions of migrants, their opportunities and access to resources (Scott,2017). Social network theory can be applied to migration to understand how individuals form relationships with various groups, including local residents, fellow migrants, and transnational family members (Awumbila , Teye & Yaro, 2017). Migrant networks refer to ongoing interpersonal connections that link migrants with non-migrants, forming a system of mutual responsibilities (Boyd, 1989). These networks can be

utilized to assist individuals in gaining access, adapting, and finding employment in their destination locations. Another important outcome of these networks worth noting is the process whereby a connection someone who has migrated creates an avenue for information flow to potential migrants (Awumbila, Teye & Yaro, 2017). Thus, the social network increases the migration by reducing the risks of moving and increase the anticipated benefits of migrating. Being part of social network helps individuals to gain access to resources (Putnam, 2000; Ryan, Sales, Tilki, & Siara, 2008; Schulz, Horr, & Hoenig, 2017)

Thus the social network theory is linked with the social capital theory. The social capital theory, a framework built upon social network theory, emphasizes the tangible and intangible resources embedded within social networks, as outlined by Putnam (2000). Similarly, Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992: 119) asserts that “Social capital is the sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition.” resulting in mutual benefits. However as pointed out by Portes (1995), the availability of the resources does not necessarily translate into social capital, but rather the individual’s ability to leverage these resources for their own advantage.

Social networks focus on the types of relationships viz. close ties and weak ties. The close ties emphasize relationships with people who have similar socio-economic backgrounds such as age, education, nationality and social class and this group re usually family and friends (Ferlander, 2007). In contrast the weak ties are relationships between people with different social and demographic characteristics (Granovetter, 1973). The characteristics of the social network influences the type of social capital gained (Mishra, 2020). Therefore, the socio- economic characteristics of the person such as age, education, ethnicity and gender predispose them to

information that may give them an advantage in accessing resources within the network (Bourdieu, 1986; Lin, 2001). Social capital is categorized into three main types: bonding, bridging, and linking, each serving distinct functions within social networks. Bonding social capital refers to the strong ties formed within homogeneous groups, such as family, close friends, or community members who share similar characteristics or backgrounds (Boateng, 2012). Similarly, Awumbila, Teye and Yaro (2017) in their study of migrant workers in construction identified the bonding social capital of workers as the relationship between migrant domestic and construction workers and their family members, friends, and neighbors at both their origin and destination. Individuals are more likely to access the social capital within this network as it fosters trust and mutual support. Bridging social capital involves creating connections between diverse groups or individuals (Awumbila, Teye and Yaro, 2017). Bridging social capital pertains to more distant relationships, including connections with service providers, traders, and colleagues (Awumbila, Teye & Yaro, 2017). Linking social capital refers to the connections established between individuals or groups in different circumstances, such as those from varying socioeconomic backgrounds. An example of this social capital is the relationship between migrant construction workers and local government officials (Awumbila, Teye & Yaro, 2017).

Studies on the social network of migrants tend to assume that these networks readily translate to social capital hence facilitating the migration and integration process (Ryan, 2011). It is believed that these networks convert into social capital and therefore counter the challenges migrants face in destination countries. Thus, the assertion that social networks only benefit migrants. However, these networks can become a disadvantage for migrants (Awumbila, Teye & Yaro, 2017)

This review contextualizes the study by examining themes pertaining to migration, the construction sector, and social networks. It highlights the increasing global prominence of

migration and the significant role of the construction sector as an employer of migrant labor, particularly in informal settings. In addition, the review also examines migration literature in Ghana, international and regional migration policies (specifically Ghana-Togo), challenges for migrant construction workers (like health and safety), and the social capital and social network theory used to analyze Togolese migrants' experiences at the East Legon Hills in the Kpone Katamanso construction sector.



## CHAPTER THREE

### STUDY AREA AND RESEARCH METHODS

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter presents the methodology employed for the study. It provides a thorough overview of the approaches used in gathering data; the procedure for data analysis and how the data presented to achieve the objectives of the study. In addition, the demographic and physical characteristics of the study area are described in the chapter.

#### 3.2 STUDY AREA

The Kpone Katamanso Municipal Assembly (KKMA), situated in eastern Greater Accra, was established in 2012 through the enactment of Legislative Instrument (L.I.2031). It was previously part of the Tema Metropolitan Assembly. Kpone Katamanso is a municipality characterized by its unique physical features, diverse population including a significant immigrant community—and varied industrial landscape. As urbanization continues to shape the area, addressing challenges related to resource allocation, social integration, and economic opportunities will be crucial for ensuring sustainable development. The strategic focus on improving infrastructure while fostering community engagement will be vital components of Kpone Katamanso's growth trajectory moving forward (KKMA, 2018)

##### 3.2.1 Location

The Kpone Katamanso Municipal Assembly (KKMA) is situated in the eastern part of the Greater Accra Region, extending from the coastline to the southern slopes of the Akuapim Mountains. It shares borders with the Shai-Osudoku and Ningo-Prampram Districts to the east, the Adenta and Ashaiman Municipalities and the Tema Metropolitan Assembly to the west, the Gulf of Guinea to the south, and the Akuapim South District to the north. The KKMA is approximately 38 kilometers from Accra, Ghana's capital city, and is located at 004°E longitude and 5°40'60"N latitude. The total land area of the municipality is 209 square kilometers.

### 3.2.2 Physical Characteristics

Kpone Katamanso is a municipality located in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. It is strategically positioned along the eastern coast of the country, bordered by the Atlantic Ocean to the south and neighboring municipalities such as Tema and Ashaiman. The area encompasses diverse physical features, including coastal plains, wetlands, and urbanized zones. The municipality's geography is characterized by its low-lying topography, which is typical of coastal regions. This topography influences its climate, which is predominantly tropical, featuring a wet season from April to October and a dry season from November to March. Rainfall patterns can significantly affect agricultural activities and infrastructure development in the region. Kpone Katamanso also has significant natural resources, including beaches that contribute to its ecological diversity. The coastal area is home to various marine species and ecosystems that are vital for local fisheries and tourism. However, urbanization has led to environmental challenges such as pollution and habitat degradation, necessitating sustainable management practices. (KKMA, 2018)

### 3.2.3 Population

The population of Kpone Katamanso has been growing steadily due to urban migration and natural population increase. According to the Medium Term Development Plan (MTDP) for 2018-2021, the municipality had a projected population of approximately 150,000 residents. This demographic includes a diverse mix of ethnic groups, with the Akan, Ewe, and Ga-Dangme being predominant. The age structure of the population indicates a youthful demographic, with a significant proportion under the age of 30. This youth bulge presents both opportunities for economic growth and challenges related to employment and social services. The municipality faces issues such as high unemployment rates among young people, which can lead to social unrest if not addressed through effective job creation strategies. In terms of gender distribution, there is a relatively balanced ratio

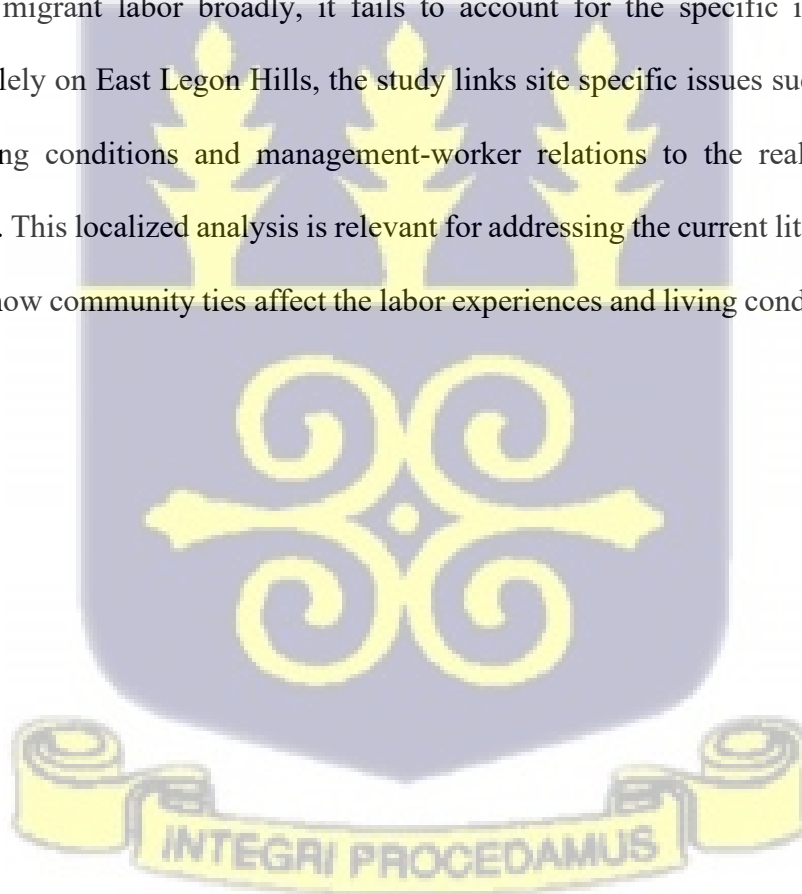
between males and females, although specific socio-economic factors may influence access to education and employment opportunities for women. The MTDP emphasizes the need for gender-sensitive policies to enhance women's participation in economic activities.

### 3.2.4 Industry

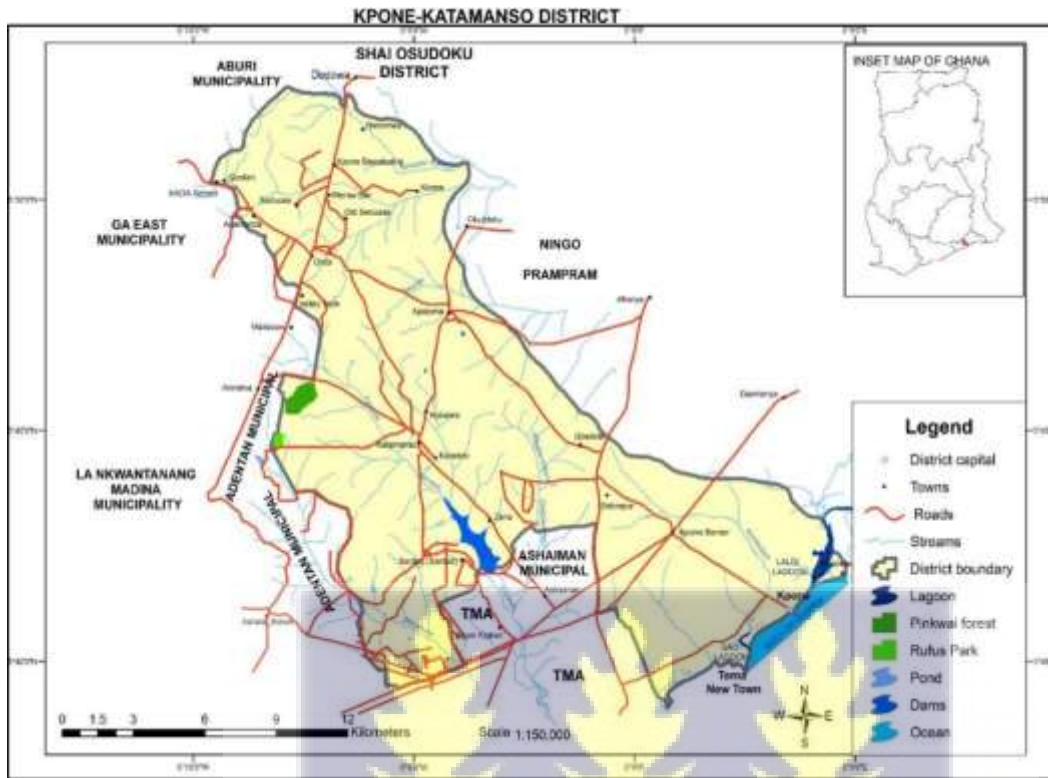
Kpone Katamanso's economy is primarily driven by several key industries: construction, manufacturing, trade, and agriculture. The construction industry has seen significant growth due to urbanization and infrastructure development projects aimed at improving living conditions and accessibility within the municipality. The manufacturing sector is also vital, with several factories located in the area producing goods ranging from textiles to food products. This industrial base provides employment opportunities for many residents, contributing to local economic stability. Trade plays a crucial role in Kpone Katamanso's economy, with numerous markets serving as hubs for commerce. These markets facilitate the exchange of goods and services between local producers and consumers while attracting traders from surrounding regions. Agriculture remains an essential aspect of the local economy, despite urban encroachment on arable land. Farmers in Kpone Katamanso engage in various agricultural activities, including crop cultivation and livestock rearing. However, challenges such as land degradation and climate change threaten agricultural productivity in the area. The local government recognizes the importance of diversifying the economy by promoting small-scale enterprises and enhancing vocational training programs to equip residents with skills relevant to emerging industries. The MTDP outlines strategies for fostering entrepreneurship and creating job opportunities for youth through targeted interventions (KKMA, 2018).

### 3.2.5 East Legon Hills

East Legon Hills is an emerging residential area located on the outskirts of Accra, Ghana's capital city. It has gained popularity as a developing suburb that attracts both middle-class Ghanaians and expatriates due to its relatively affordable housing and growing infrastructure. The area is part of the larger East Legon community, known for its upscale residential and commercial developments, but East Legon Hills is characterized by its ongoing real estate boom, with numerous gated communities and private construction projects. This research focuses on East Legon Hills because it perfectly illustrates the intersection between real estate expansion and the growing presence of Togolese migrant workers in the construction industry. Though existing literature often discusses the reliance on migrant labor broadly, it fails to account for the specific issues on site. By concentrating solely on East Legon Hills, the study links site specific issues such as employment networks, housing conditions and management-worker relations to the realities of Togolese migrant workers. This localized analysis is relevant for addressing the current literature gap, which has overlooked how community ties affect the labor experiences and living conditions of Togolese migrants.



**Figure 3.1 Map of Kpone Katamanso**



Source: KKMA, 2018

### 3.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

This research adopts the mixed-methods approach to understand the issues under study. Thus, it combines both qualitative and quantitative methods in data collection to have a comprehensive understanding of the study. Although quantitative approach to research is neutral and objective (Teye, 2012), it does not give detailed accounts of experiences and perceptions (Branen, 1992). The qualitative approach on the other hand is useful in the examining social phenomena because it allows for the collection of data that reflects the lived experiences and perceptions of respondents (Creswell, 2013), but it has been criticized by some researchers as subjective and lacking in prediction (Teye, 2012). However, a combination of both approaches provides complete understanding of complex research problems with quantitative providing breath and qualitative

providing depth (Creswell & Plano, 2017). In view of this, both approaches are used in the study. Using the convergent parallel design as described by Creswell & Plano (2017), the qualitative and quantitative data were simultaneously collected for validation and complementarity.

### **3.4 SAMPLING TECHNIQUE AND SIZE**

The target population for the study are Togolese labor migrants working in the real estate sector. In addition, consistent with ethical guidelines, the study participants were required to satisfy these two criteria: being 18 years of age or older and having established residency in Ghana for a minimum of one year. Due to the informal nature of their work, it was difficult getting a list of the workers. In the absence of a registry for the workers, the study employed a non-probability sampling technique, snowball sampling. This method allows for the selection of participant with experiences and characteristics relevant for the research objectives. This technique was employed because it relies mostly on social networks of the initial participants and helps in the identification of hard-to-reach groups (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981), such as migrant workers.

Participants were recruited through contact with known Togolese workers in construction sites at the East Legon Hills. These participants referred others who met the criteria for the study, thus increasing the sample size. Since a sample frame couldn't be obtained, the principle of saturation was used in determining the sample size, where data collection continues until no new responses emerge (Guest, Bunce & Johnson, 2006). In addition, time and resource constraints were also considered in determining the final sample size. The sample size of the study was 150 respondents involving workers from all skill levels including masons, carpenters, POP designers and others. In addition, in-depth interviews were conducted with experienced Togolese workers, Foremen and site managers with experience in the real estate sector. Due to time constraints and the challenge of recruiting participants who typically work throughout the day, 10 respondents were selected for

in-depth interviews. To further understand the issues under study, some respondents were also probed for more detailed explanations of their answers during the questionnaire survey.

### **3.5 SOURCES OF DATA**

The study used both secondary and primary data. The primary data was obtained through a questionnaire survey, focus group discussions and in-depth interviews. The secondary data was also obtained from journals, books, articles, newspapers and reports from the municipal assembly related to migrants and the construction industry

### **3.6 DATA COLLECTION**

#### **3.6.1 In-depth Interviews**

In-depth qualitative interviews were conducted with selected participants, including experienced Togolese workers and individuals with extensive experience in the construction sector. Interviews were conducted with the help of two field assistants. Due to their experience and length of stay in Ghana, we did not face any language barriers during the interviews. Interviews were mostly carried out on construction sites with consent of interviewees. Interviews lasted for about 30 minutes on average. These interviews allowed for a deeper exploration of the lived experiences of migrant workers, their social networks, and the challenges they face and their coping strategies. Respondents were asked questions to ascertain the social networks, living condition, challenges and opportunities of Togolese migrant workers in the study area.

#### **3.6.2 Individual questionnaire survey**

The survey was conducted using a semi-structured questionnaire made of both open and closed question design to gather information on the demographic details of respondents, migration history, employment details, social networks and living conditions. The questionnaire was pretested on a small sample of 5 respondents to ensure that the questions were clear and also to allow for corrections. Data was collected with the help of two field assistants. Since some of the

respondents spoke only French, there was the need for assistance from translators. However, others also understood the Ghanaian language and spoke Twi, hence part of the questionnaires were administered in Twi and English.

### **3.7 DATA ANALYSIS**

SPSS software was used in the analysis of the quantitative data. Descriptive statistics such as percentages, frequencies and means were employed to summarize responses of respondents' characteristics, migration history, social networks and living conditions. In addition, Chi-square tests were used to analyse the relationships between different variable variables.

For the qualitative data gathered from the interviews, a thematic analysis approach was used. The interviews were transcribed. The transcripts were coded and categorized into themes based on the research objectives. Thus, the use of the inductive approach. These themes were coded based on the objectives of the study and were related to social networks, labor conditions and challenges. The coding was done in stages to refine the themes. Some of the themes that emerged included living conditions of migrant workers, challenges in the workplace, role of social network in employment and migration, living conditions and coping mechanisms economic motivations, perceptions on opportunities, social protection and safety. The themes were then analyzed in relation to existing literature and the quantitative findings to provide a comprehensive understanding.

### **3.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

Although the study provides insight into social networks and living conditions of Togolese migrants, it has limitations. The use of a non-probability sampling technique, snowball sampling, subjects the study to selection bias. In addition, language barrier presented some challenges since some respondent primarily spoke French, there was the need to employ then services of translators making. Lastly, interview and questionnaires were administered on-sire since most respondent

worked by day and as such would have to go to work every day. This impacted the privacy of respondents and could influence their responses.

### **3.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION**

The study adhered ethical guidelines. Approval was sought from the District Assembly before the commencement of data collection. In addition, all participants were informed about the study's purpose, objectives, and potential benefits. Participation was entirely voluntary, and informed consent was obtained from each respondent before their involvement. Participants were also made aware of their ability to withdraw from the study at any point without consequence. Special consideration was given to the potential vulnerabilities of migrant workers, ensuring that questions were asked respectfully and sensitively. To protect participant anonymity, no personal details were collected. Findings were reported with transparency, ensuring accurate and undistorted representation of participant perspectives. In summary, the study adhered to academic research ethics i.e. informed consent, confidentiality, voluntary participation, and respect for participant rights.

### **3.10 CONCLUSION**

This chapter outlined the methodology used in the study. The study employed a mixed-methods approach, combining quantitative survey data with qualitative in-depth interviews, to achieve a comprehensive and nuanced understanding of the research problem. The chapter detailed data collection, sampling, analysis, and ethical considerations. With regard to the analysis, the study employed both descriptive and inferential statistics, along with thematic analysis. The study's limitations have been acknowledged to provide context for the interpretation of findings.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents findings on the social networks and living conditions of Togolese labour migrants in the construction sector in East Legon Hills. The first section addresses the socio-economic characteristics of respondents including sex, age, level of education, occupation, employment details and income. This is followed by findings on the migration history of respondents. Again, the social networks of migrants and their corresponding social capital are discussed in relation to some of the demographic characteristics. The chapter also analyzes and discusses their living conditions and how these networks influence their survival and well-being. Lastly, the challenges faced by these migrants and the coping strategies are thoroughly discussed in the chapter.

#### **4.2 BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS**

All the respondents were Togolese working in different construction sites in Ghana. I made efforts to ensure a gender balance, but because of the nature of the job of construction, I ended up with more males but with a few females. Out of the total 150 respondents sampled for the study, 90 per cent were males, with 10 per cent females. This gender disparity reiterates the assertion of Yaro et al. (2015) about the dominance of males in the construction sector due to the physical demands

of the job and societal norms. In addition, the skewedness of the gender of the means the finding may not properly represent the experiences of women in the construction sector. However, the few females provide insights into their engagement into the construction sector.

The study also finds that majority of the workers were in the active age population. The respondents' ages ranged between the ages of 20- 40, with majority (62%) being within the ages of 26-30 years. Those within the ages of 20-25 and 31-35 were 26 percent and 10 percent respectively while the least represented age group were above 40 (2%).

The Table 4.1.1 shows that 20 percent of respondent have had no formal education, 50 percent had attained at least elementary or primary education, 20 percent has secondary education and 10 percent has vocation/technical training. The findings shows that most migrants within the construction sector had just some form of basic education and this resonates with findings in other research that reported the low educational level of migrant workers (Anand, 2000; Lu and Fox, 2001).

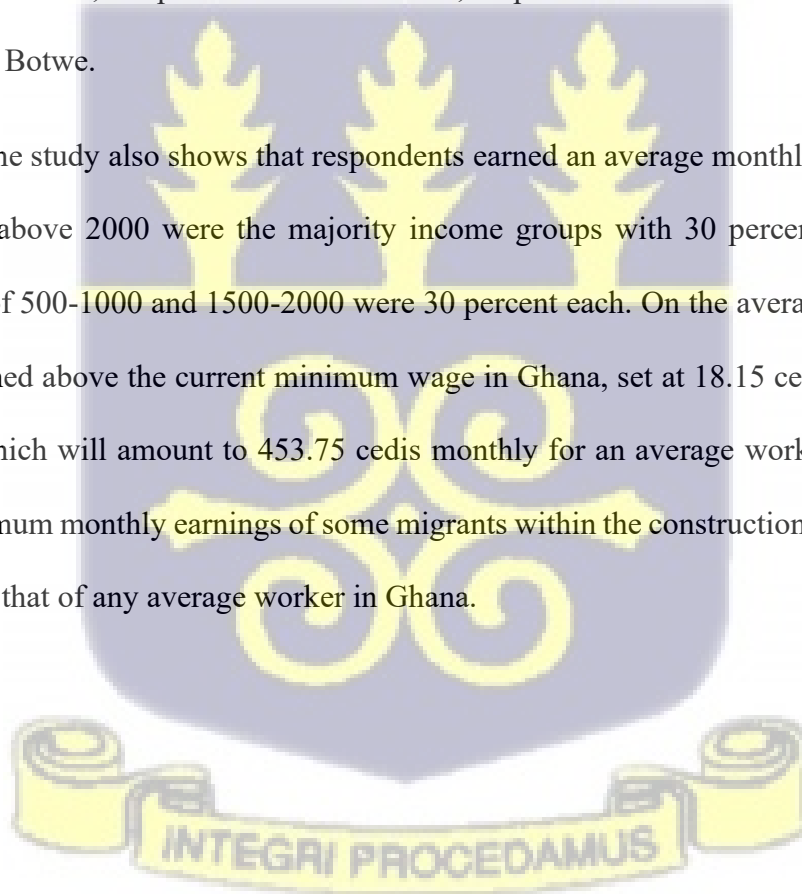
In terms of employment status, majority of respondents (90%) were employed as casual or day laborers who are paid by day, with only 10% being full-time workers. This reiterates Yaro et al.'s (2015) assertion that the sectors are characterized by casualization. This is mostly due to fluctuating demand in the sector. Responses from respondents show the precarious nature of employment in the construction sector and this exacerbates the vulnerability of migrants. One of such responses by one of the respondents was that:

*“This building will be completed in 6 months, so if we employ all of them permanently and we don't get a new project afterwards, what will they be doing? Sometimes when they come there may*

*be no materials so we don't work or we work for half day, so it helps reduce cost if we pay them as and when they work" (Yao, 30-year-old foreman, East Legon Hills)*

Respondents performed varying works in the sector. A significant number (40%) of the respondents were masons, 30 percent were carpenters, 10 percent were laborers, 10 percent were POP ceiling designers, and the remaining 10 percent were plumbers. This is consistent with the trend of migrants occupying the lower end of the construction sector as masons, carpenters, laborers and others (ISSER, 2014). Majority of respondents indicated that they lived in the study area and its environs. More than half of respondents (55.3%) lived in Kpone Katamanso, 19.3 percent lived in Madina, 4.7 percent lived in Adenta, 10 percent lived in Dodowa and 2.7 percent lived in Ashaley Botwe.

Evidence from the study also shows that respondents earned an average monthly income between 1001-1500 and above 2000 were the majority income groups with 30 percent each. Also, the income groups of 500-1000 and 1500-2000 were 30 percent each. On the average majority of the respondents earned above the current minimum wage in Ghana, set at 18.15 cedis daily (Graphic online, 2025) which will amount to 453.75 cedis monthly for an average worker in the country. Hence, the minimum monthly earnings of some migrants within the construction sector can be said to be better than that of any average worker in Ghana.



**Table 4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents**



<b>Demographic Variables</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentages (%)</b>
<b><u>Gender</u></b>		
Male	135	90
Female	15	10
<b>Total</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>100</b>
<b><u>Age</u></b>		
20-25	39	26
26-30	93	62
31-35	15	10
36-40	3	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b><u>Level of education</u></b>		
No formal education	30	20
Elementary/ primary education	75	50
SHS/O level/A level	30	20
Vocational/Technical	15	10
<b>Total</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b><u>Place of residence</u></b>		
Kpone Katamanso	83	55.3
Madina	29	19.3
Adenta	7	4.7
Dodowa	15	10.0
Kasoa Budumburam	12	8.0
Ashaley Botwe	4	2.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b><u>Employment Status</u></b>		
Full-time	15	10.0
Casual/Day labour	135	90.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b><u>Main Profession</u></b>		
Mason	60	40.0
Carpenter	45	30.0
Labourer	15	10.0
POP	15	10.0
Tiler	15	10.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b><u>Income level</u></b>		
500 - 1000	30	20.0
1001 - 1500	45	30.0
1501 -2000	30	20.0
Above 2000	45	30.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

Data from the study reveals that all masons (100%) and all carpenters (100%) are males. Similarly, all respondents who are tilers and POP designers are also males. Conversely, labourers were females, suggesting that this role is primarily a source of work for females in the area. The findings indicate that male migrant workers dominate skilled trades while the females are engaged primarily as labourers. This is consistent with the assertion by ILO (2011), that as a result of the ingrained gender-biases in the construction sector, women are usually given roles that require less skills. The results indicate a statistically significant relationship between sex and the profession of respondents ( $\chi^2=150.000$  df (4), p value = .0001 <0.05). Therefore, there is a strong association between sex and the profession of respondents.

**Table 4.2 Respondents sex in relation to Profession**

Profession	Sex		Total
	Male	Female	
Mason	60 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	45 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	135 (90.0%)	15 (10.0%)	150 (100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=150.000 df (4), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</i>			

With regards to the age, the data shows that all mason are within the ages of 26-30 years (100%). Majority of carpenters are within the ages of 26-30 (33.3%), with the rest within the ages of 20-25 (31.1%), 31-35 (31.1%) and 36-40 (4.4%). Suggesting varying ages among carpenters as compared to masons. Similar to Masons, all labourers are also within the ages of 26-30 (100%). Also, majority of POP designers are within the ages of 20-25 (86.7%) and the rest are in within the 26-30 (13.3%) age group. Thus, POP designing attracts younger workers. Also, tilers show a younger age profile with majority (86.7%) in the 20- 25 age bracket with smaller percentages in the 26-30 (6.7%), 31-35 (6.7%), and 36-40 (6.7%) age groups. Thus, Masonry and labouring are dominated

by those aged between 26-30, while POP design and tiling attract a younger demographic of 20–25-year-olds. Carpentry, however, shows a wider distribution of ages among its workers. The results also indicate a statistically significant relationship between age and the profession of respondents ( $\chi^2=128.578$  df (12), p value = .0001 <0.05).

**Table 4.3 Respondents Age in Relation to Profession**

Profession	Age				Total
	20-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	
Mason	0 (0.0%)	60 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	14 (31.1%)	15 (33.3%)	14 (31.1%)	2 (4.4%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	13 (86.7%)	2 (13.3%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	12 (80.0%)	1 (6.7%)	1 (6.7%)	1 (6.7%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	39 (26.0%)	93 (62.0%)	15 (10.0%)	3 (2.0%)	150 (100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=128.578 df (12), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</i>					

Several studies have found that majority of workers in the construction sector have no education, thus no formal education (Anand, 2000; Lu and Fox, 2001). The level of education of respondents varies across the various professions. Table 4.1.4 shows that among masons 50% have attained primary education and 50% have completed secondary education. Indicating that all masons have some form of formal education. There is no single dominant educational level among carpenters. 33.3% having no formal education, 33.3% having primary education, and 33.3% possessing vocational/technical training. The presence of vocational training indicates a reliance on practical skills. Labourers all have primary education only (100%), which is typical for jobs of this nature that usually don't require advanced formal schooling. All POP designers (100%), similar to labourers, have only primary education, suggesting informal learning or basic training for their skills. Lastly, none of the tilers possess any formal education, highlighting the importance of hands-on skills and experience acquired informally. There is a significant relationship between

level of education and profession ( $X^2=175.000$  df (12), p value = .0001 <0.05). Thus level of education influence ones profession. However overall, about 70 % of respondents have only primary or no education. This implies that as mentioned by Yaro et al. (2015) majority of workers in the construction sector attain their skills through apprenticeship.

**Table 4.4 Respondents Level of Education in Relation to Profession**

Profession	Level of Education				Total
	No formal	Primary	Secondary	Vocational / Technical	
Mason	0 (0.0%)	30 (50.0%)	30 (50.0%)	0 (0.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	15 (33.3%)	15 (33.3%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (33.3%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	30 (20.0%)	75 (50.0%)	30 (20.0%)	15 (10.0%)	150 (100.0%)

*Chi square value=175.000 df (12), p value = .0001 <0.05*

Table 4.1.5 shows that majority of Masons earn above 2000 (50%), with the rest of the masons earning 500-1000 (25%) and 1501-2000 (25%). A more even income spread is seen among carpenters, with roughly 33.3% earning in each of the 1001-1500, 1501-2000, and over 2000 categories. On the other hand, Labourers, POP designers and tilers all exhibit income concentration. 100% of labourers earn between 500-1000 while all POP designers (100%) and tilers 100%) also earn 1001-1500. This distribution shows that there are income disparities in the construction sector with some professions such as carpentry and masonry offering opportunity for higher earnings. The results also show a significant relationship between income levels and professions ( $X^2=170.833$  df (12), p value = .0001 <0.05). Showing that the earnings a respondents vary depending on their profession.

**Table 4.5 Respondents income level in relation to Profession**

Profession	Income Level				Total
	500 - 1000	1001 - 1500	1501 -2000	Above 2000	
Mason	15 (25.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (25.0%)	30 (50.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	0 (0.0%)	15 (33.3%)	15 (33.3%)	15 (33.3%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	30 (20.0%)	45 (30.0%)	30 (20.0%)	45 (30.0%)	150 (100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=170.833 df (12), p value = .0001 &lt;0.05</i>					

Within Masons, the majority (75%) are employed as casual workers with 25% working on a full time basis. The other professions i.e. carpenters, laborers, POP designers, and tilers are all employed as casual workers. This result highlights the prevalence of informal employment in the construction sector, especially for carpenters, laborers, POP designers, and tilers. In addition, the data shows a significant relationship between professions and employment status ( $X^2=25.000$  df (4),  $p$  value = .0001 <0.05). However, there isn't much variation within the various professions. These findings buttress the assertion of an increasing labor casualization in the construction sector (Yaro et al., 2015; Connolly, 2001; Cho, 2004). The implication of this casualization as noted by Otoo et al. (2009) and Tiwary et al. (2011) is a decline in terms of employment.

**Table 4.6 Respondents Employment Status in Relation to Professions**

Profession	Employment Status		Total
	Full-time	Casual/Day labour	
Mason	15 (25.0%)	45 (75.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	0 (0.0%)	45 (100.0%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	15 (10.0%)	135 (90.0%)	150 (100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=25.000 df (4), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</i>			

### 4.3 MIGRATION HISTORY

In view of understanding respondents' migration experience, respondents were asked about their reasons for migrating. Majority (90%) indicated that their main reason for migrating was to find job opportunities. The remaining 10 percent also indicated that they migrated for family and personal reasons (see figure 4.2.1). Hence the view that most of the migrants were motivated to migrate due to economic reasons. Some respondents indicated they had been informed that they would make more money if they migrated to work in Ghana. One respondent indicated that:

*“My friend who came to Togo from Ghana told me how much he was making working in Ghana and I so I decided to also come to Ghana” (Koffi, 26-year-old Carpenter, East Legon Hills)*

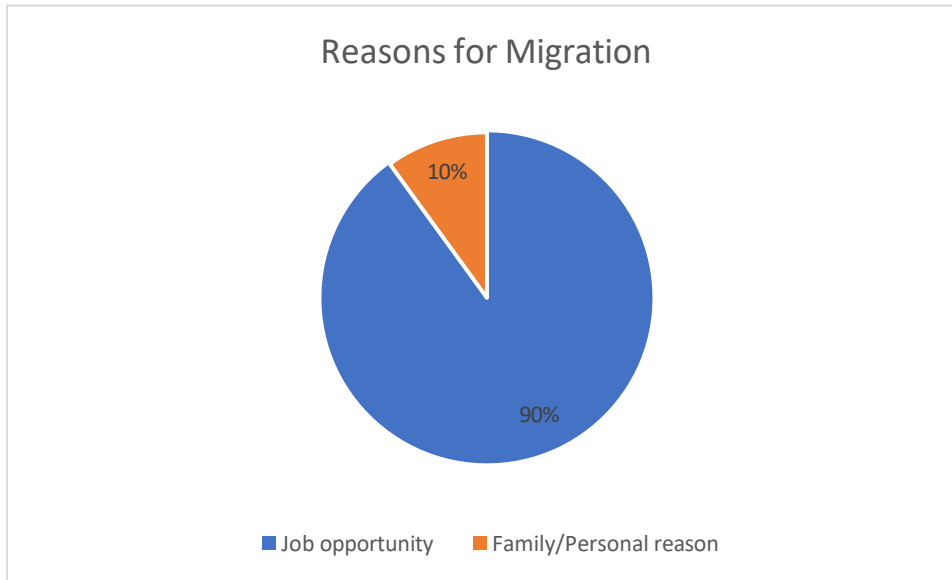
This account shows the importance of social networks as sources of information. The carpenter migrated due to information from his friend. This supports the social capital theory, which posits the information from social networks are more trustworthy. However, not all migrants are driven by economic opportunities. Some respondents also migrated as apprentices to their masters. A 27 year old mason stated that

*“I came here at a very young age to work for my master and learn the trade but now I work on my own” (Komla, 27-year-old mason, East Legon Hills)*

This highlights the multifaceted nature of migration, people migrate not only for economic gains but also as for human capital development.



**Figure 4.1 Reason for Migration from Togo to Ghana**



Source: Field work (2024)

Data from table 4.7 shows that majority of respondents have resided in the Ghana for a relatively short period. Out of the total number of respondents, 50% have lived in Ghana for 2-3 years, 40% have lived in Ghana for 4-5 years with only 10% having lived in Ghana for 6 years and above.

Data on the length of employment reveals a diverse range of work histories among the respondents. Majority (50%) have been employed for 4-5 years, followed by 30% who have worked for 2-3 years. Smaller percentages have worked for 2 years (10%) and those with 6 or more years (10%).

With regard to the amount of time it took to find jobs, majority of respondents found jobs quickly. A majority (60%) found work immediately upon arriving. The remaining 40% experienced slightly longer search times, with 10% finding jobs within one week, another 10% within two weeks, 10% within three weeks, and the final 10% within four weeks. As indicated by one respondent, a job had been found for him before he arrived

*“Before I came here, the friend I came to stay with had already found a job for me, so I started work the next day after my arrival” (Emmanuel, 22-year-old mason, East Legon Hills)*

This underscores the role of social network in securing jobs. In addition, the quick employment rate points to the informal nature of the sector thus employment through word of mouth. Some respondent who did not have social support indicated that they relied on direct enquiries. This is in contrast with the view of another respondent who indicated that he had to go around searching for a job.

*“Since I came here, I have been going from site to site to look for a job, so it took me about weeks to find a job. Even on this site I just happened to come and ask, and they said they need a laborer. So, I am working as a laborer here” (Afi, 26 years old laborer, East Legon Hills)*

**Table 4.7 Duration of Residency and Employment in Ghana**

<b>Duration</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
<b>Duration of Residency</b>		
2-3 years	75	50.0
4-5 years	60	40.0
6 years and above	15	10.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Duration of Employment</b>		
Less than 2 years	15	10.0
2-3 years	45	30.0
4-5 years	75	50.0
6 years and above	15	10.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Duration to find employment</b>		
1 week	15	10.0
2 weeks	15	10.0
3 weeks	15	10.0
4 weeks	15	10.0
Immediately	90	60.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

The data reveals that majority (75%) of masons find employment immediately and 15% find work within a week. This indicates a high demand of masons within the sector. Similarly, 66.7% of carpenters find employment immediately, and the remaining 33.3% secure a job within two weeks. Also indicating high demand for carpenters. On the other hand, none of the labourers found employment immediately, 50% found work in one week, and the other 50% took four weeks. This delay in finding employment can be attributed to the competitiveness among labourers due to the low skill requirement. All POP designers (100%) found employment in three weeks while all tilers also found work immediately (100%). The fact that POP designers and tilers find work quickly likely suggests that their particular skills are in demand in the construction sector. This can be attributed to the assertion that Togolese have superior finishing skills (Owoo & Lambon-Quayefio, 2020). The study reveals significant relationship between the time it takes to find employment and profession ( $\chi^2=352.083$  df (16), p value = .0001 <0.05).

**Table 4.8 Respondents Time of Finding Employment in Relation to Profession**

Profession	Time to find Employment					Total
	1 week	2 weeks	3 weeks	4 weeks	Immediately	
Mason	15 (25.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	45 (75.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	0 (0.0%)	15 (33.3%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	30 (66.7%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	15 (10.0%)	15 (10.0%)	15 (10.0%)	15 (10.0%)	90 (60.0%)	150 (100.0%)

*Chi square value=352.083 df (16), p value = .001 <0.05*

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

Among masons, the length of time living in the area is relatively balanced. Fifty percent have resided there for 2-3 years, 25% for 4-5 years, and another 25% for 6 years or longer. The majority of carpenters (66.7%) have lived in the area for 4-5 years, while 33.3% have lived there for 2-3

years. All laborers and tilers (100%) have lived in the area for 2-3 years, while all POP designers (100%) have lived there for 4-5 years. The short residency of majority of respondent can be linked to the fact that there was a recent boom in the construction sector. In view of the above results, there is a significant relationship between professions and duration of residency ( $\chi^2=84.375$  df (8),  $p$  value = .0001 <0.05).

**Table 4.9 Respondents Duration of Residency in Relation to Profession**

Profession	Duration of Residency			Total
	2-3 years	4-5 years	6 years and above	
Mason	30 (50.0%)	15 (25.0%)	15 (25.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	15 (33.3%)	30 (66.7%)	0 (0.0%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	75 (50.0%)	60 (40.0%)	15 (10.0%)	150 (100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=84.375 df (8), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</i>				

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

The study shows that majority of masons (50%) have been employed for 2-3 years, The rest of the masons are evenly split, with 25% employed for 4-5 years and 25% employed for 6 years or longer. All carpenters (100%) and POP designers (100%) have been employed for 4-5 years. All laborers (100%) have been employed for under 2 years, and all tilers (100%) for 2-3 years. The data reveals a significant relationship between profession and duration of employment among Togolese migrants ( $\chi^2=265.000$  df (12),  $p$  value = .0001 <0.05).



**Table 4.10 Respondents Duration of Employment in Relation to Profession**

Profession	Duration of Employment				Total
	Less than 2 years	2-3 years	4-5 years	6 years and above	
Mason	0 (0.0%)	30 (50.0%)	15 (25.0%)	15 (25.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	45 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	15 (10.0%)	45 (30.0%)	75 (50.0%)	15 (10.0%)	150 (100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=265.000 df (12), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</i>					

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

#### 4.4 SOCIAL NETWORKS

Being part of social network helps individuals to gain access to resources (Putnam, 2000; Ryan, Sales, Tilki, & Siara, 2008; Schulz, Horr, & Hoenig, 2017). Given the fact that majority of respondents migrated in search of job opportunities, the study sought to find out the kind of assistance they received in the migration process since it helps in fostering their social network into the country. Majority of masons (70%) received assistance during the migration process with 25% not seeking assistance in the migration process. Out of the 70% who received assistance, 70% got assistance from friends, 3.3% from family and 1.7% from employment agencies.

The data shows that all carpenters (100%) received assistance during the migration process. Out of this, majority (62.2%) received support from friends, 35.6% received support from family and 2.2 from employment agencies. Almost half of labourers (46.7%) did not receive support in their migration process. Majority (33.3%) received support from their friends and 20% received support from their family. All POP designer received assistance in their migration process. Out of this, 66.7% are support from family, and 33.3% are support from friends. Similarly, all tilers received help in the migration process, out of this 73.3% are from employment agencies, 30% from friends and 6.7% from family. The different types of help received during migration underscore the

significance of social networks. The prevalence of "friends" assisting masons and carpenters highlights the role of established connections in migration, possibly through "weak ties" providing information and opportunities. As mentioned by one respondent:

*“My friends were already here so when I was coming, I asked them to look for a job for me. I started working the next day after I arrived” (Anani, 26-year-old-mason, East Legon Hills)*

The reliance on friends for assistance highlights the relevance of social networks in providing information and opportunities. Employment agencies' involvement in migration might reflect growing formality or the development of specialized recruitment networks. Although social networks are important, variations across the different professions suggest network strengths depends on construction trade. In accordance with this, the study showed a significant relationship between profession and the source of assistance ( $X^2=30.282$  df (4), p value = .001 <0.05)

**Table 4.11 Respondents access to migration assistance and source of assistance in relation to Profession**

Profession	Assistance in Migration Process				Total
	No	Yes			
		Family	Friends	Employment agency	
Mason	15 (25.0%)	2 (3.3%)	42 (70.0%)	1 (1.7%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	0 (0.0%)	16 (35.6%)	28 (62.2%)	1 (2.2%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	7 (46.7%)	3 (20.0%)	5 (33.3%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	0 (0.0%)	10 (66.7%)	5 (33.3%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	0 (0.0%)	1 (6.7%)	3 (20.0%)	11 (73.3%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	22 (14.7%)	32 (21.3%)	83 (55.3%)	13 (8.7%)	150 (100.0%)
<b>Chi square value=30.282 df (4), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</b>					

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

Social networks affect the actions of migrants, their opportunities and access to resources (Scott,2017). In line with this, the study sought to ascertain the sort of assistance the Togolese migrant got from their social networks From Table 4.12 majority of Masons received job assistance

(91.1%). This indicates the presence of strong networks and referral mechanisms among masons. Carpenters receive a range of support, with accommodation being provided to 40.0% and job assistance to 51.1%. The rest received help with travel (4.4%) and money for upkeep (4.4%). Carpenters show diverse needs related to both immediate survival and longer-term integration. Laborers predominantly receive help with accommodation (50%) and employment (37.5%). With a few receiving help with money for upkeep (12.5%). This may indicate a stronger reliance on social network for basic support, possibly due to their generally lower skill levels. Majority of the POP designers received help with funds for travel (60%). With the rest receiving help with accommodation (20%) and Job assistance (20%). Most of the tilers have assistance in their search for jobs (86.7%), thus suggesting that majority were recruited directly for certain projects. The differing patterns of assistance show varied social capital for migrant in relation to their profession. Thus, there is a significant relationship between profession and the types of assistance received by the Togolese migrant workers ( $X^2=97.628$  df (16), p value = .001 <0.05)

**Table 4.12 Types of Assistance in Relation to Profession**

Profession	Types of Assistance					Total
	Funds for travel	Money for upkeep	Accommodation	Job Assistance	Helped with travel arrangement	
Mason	1 (2.2%)	2 (4.4%)	1 (2.2%)	41 (91.1%)	0 (0.0%)	45 (100.0%)
Carpenter	0 (0.0%)	2 (4.4%)	18 (40.0%)	23 (51.1%)	2 (4.4%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	0 (0.0%)	1 (12.5%)	4 (50.0%)	3 (37.5%)	0 (0.0%)	8 (100.0%)
POP designer	9 (60.0%)	0 (0.0%)	3 (20.0%)	3 (20.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	0 (0.0%)	1 (6.7%)	1 (6.7%)	13 (86.7%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	10 (7.8%)	6 (4.7%)	27(21.1%)	83 (64.8%)	2 (1.6)	150 (100.0%)

*Chi square value=97.628 df (16), p value = .001 <0.05*

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

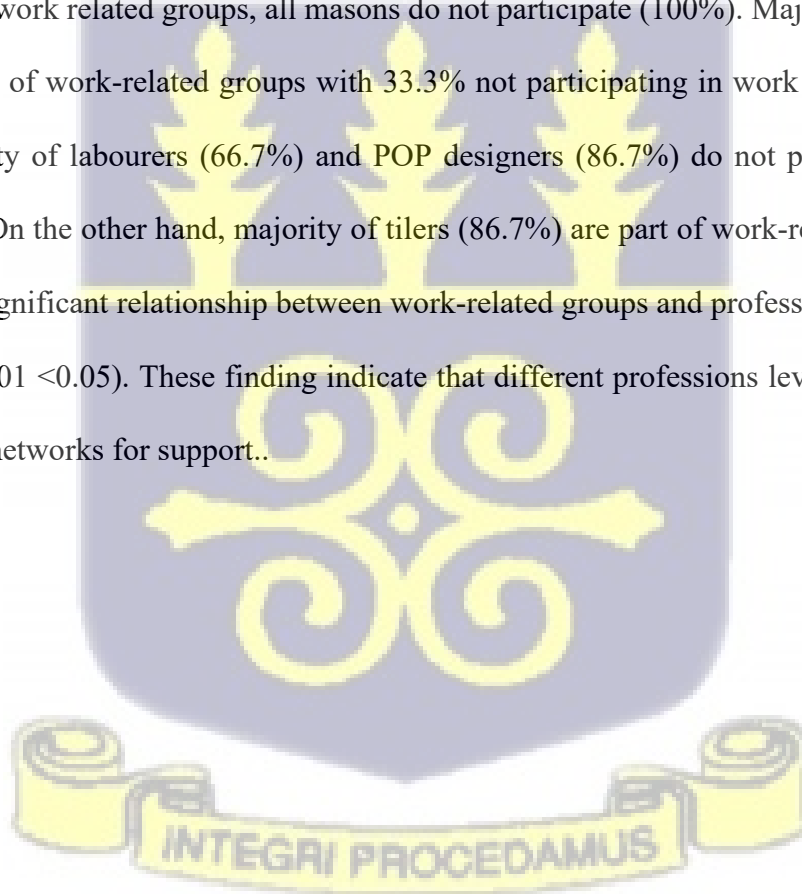
#### 4.4.1 Associational Networks

Beyond the family and peer networks, the study sought to find out if respondents have become a part of formalized association or groups upon arrival in Ghana since these groups can provide an

avenue for support. With regards to association related to their hometown or ethnic background, none of the respondents belonged to any such groups, indicating a lack of strong ethnic ties.

Therefore Table 4.3.3 shows links between the professions of Togolese migrants and their participation in religious and work groups. With regards to mason, majority (75%) are not part of religious groups. In a similar vein majority of carpenters (66.7%), labourers (80%) and Tilers (86.7%) are not part of religious associations. In contrast POP designers have a higher participation (80%) in religious activities. The findings show that there is a relationship between profession and participation in religious associations ( $X^2=20.869$  *df* (4), *p value* = .001 <0.05)

With regards to work related groups, all masons do not participate (100%). Majority of carpenters (66.7%) are part of work-related groups with 33.3% not participating in work related groups. In addition, majority of labourers (66.7%) and POP designers (86.7%) do not participate in work related groups. On the other hand, majority of tilers (86.7%) are part of work-related groups. The study shows a significant relationship between work-related groups and profession ( $X^2=20.869$  *df* (4), *p value* = .001 <0.05). These finding indicate that different professions leverage on different forms of social networks for support..



**Table 4.13 Associational network in Relation to Profession**

Profession	Religious Association		Total
	Yes	No	
Mason	15 (25.0%)	45 (75.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	15 (33.3%)	30 (66.7%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	3 (20.0%)	12 (80.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	12 (80.0%)	3 (20.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	2 (13.3%)	13 (86.7%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	47 (31.3%)	103 (68.7%)	150 (100.0%)
<b>Chi square value=20.869 df (4), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</b>			
Work-related Groups			
Profession			
Mason	0 (0.0%)	60 (100.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	30 (66.7%)	15 (33.3%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	5 (33.3%)	10 (66.7%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	2 (13.3%)	13 (86.7%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	13 (86.7%)	2 (13.3%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	50 (33.3%)	100 (66.7%)	150 (100.0%)
<b>Chi square value=74.400 df (4), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</b>			

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

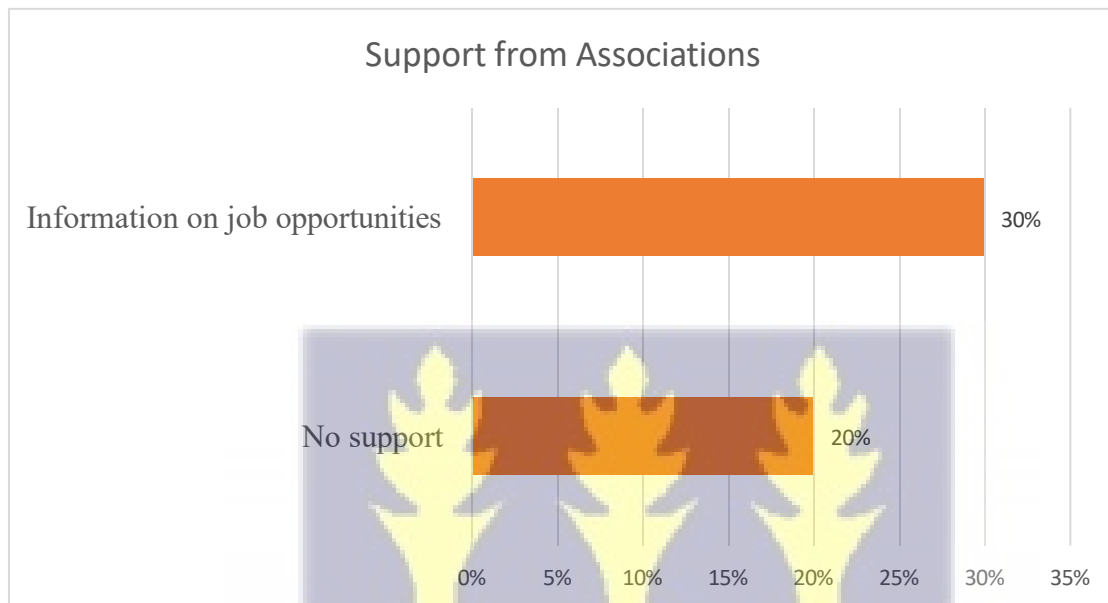
Furthermore, the study assessed the types of benefits they get from these associations. Among respondent who belongs to associations, 30 percent received information of job opportunities through their associations and 20 percent did not receive any form of support (See Figure 4.13). This disparity suggests that association membership does not automatically translate to tangible benefits. This quote from one respondent highlights this phenomenon.

*“When I came here at first, I used to go to church, but I didn’t fit in well, so I stopped. They didn’t really provide me with any support. I just go on Sundays” (Mohamed, 27-year-old, POP designer, East Legon Hills)*

This highlights the complex role of social networks, where individual outcomes can differ despite general patterns. It suggests that the usefulness of these networks depends on factors like an

individual's integration capacity, the specific characteristics of the group, and the kinds of support offered.

**Figure 4.2 Types of Support from Associations**



Source: Fieldwork (2024)

#### 4.4.2 Sources of Information in Relation to Job Opportunities

Regardless of their profession, Togolese migrants in Ghana most commonly rely on their Togolese friends within Ghana for job information. Majority of masons (70%), carpenters (57.8%), Labourers (80%), POP designers (80%) and Tilers (66.7%) rely on their Togolese friends in Ghana for information on job opportunities. Carpenters rely on Togolese family in Ghana for job information more than other professions, with 33.3% citing family as a source. in contrast masons do not rely on family for information on job opportunities. However, 1.3% of labourers, 13.3% of POP designers and 6.7% of tilers also rely on Togolese family in Ghana for information on Job

opportunities. Masons (25%) on the other hand rely on their Ghanaian friends for job information more than workers in other professions. In general majority of respondent rely on their Togolese friends in Ghana (68%), indicating the importance close-knit networks to migrants in providing reliable information on jobs. The results show that there is a significant relationship between profession and sources information on job opportunities ( $X^2=39.720$  df (12), p value = .001 <0.05)

**Table 4.14 Sources of Information on Job opportunities in relation to Profession**

Profession	Source of Information on Job Opportunities				Total
	Togolese family in Ghana	Togolese friends in Ghana	Ghanaian friends	Construction company	
Mason	0 (0.0%)	42 (70.0%)	15 (25.0%)	3 (5.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	15 (33.3%)	26 (57.8%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (8.9%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	2 (13.3%)	12 (80.0%)	1 (6.7%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	2 (13.3%)	12 (80.0%)	1 (6.7%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	1 (6.7%)	10 (66.7%)	3 (20.0%)	1 (6.7%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	20 (13.3%)	102 (68.0%)	20 (13.3%)	8 (5.3%)	150 (100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=39.720 df (12), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</i>					

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

#### 4.4.3 Social network in relation to Housing/Accommodation

Housing is very important in determining the living condition of migrant workers, as adequate accommodation impacts restfulness and overall performance at work. Recognizing this, the study sought to ascertain the role of social networks in housing support. For masons, the most common source of information about accommodation is Togolese friends in Ghana (50%). Additionally, 25% rely on Togolese family in Ghana with another 25% relying on using both friends and foremen. The primary source of accommodation information for carpenters is Togolese friends in Ghana (66.7%). A third (33.3%) of carpenters also utilize their Togolese family members in Ghana for this purpose. Similarly, the main sources of accommodation information for laborers are Togolese friends in Ghana (73.3%) and Togolese family members within Ghana (20.0%). A small percentage (6.7%) rely on Ghanaian friends. Majority of POP designers (93.3%) find

accommodation information through Togolese friends in Ghana, with only a small percentage (6.7%) relying on Togolese family in Ghana. Most tilers (66.7%) find accommodation information through Togolese friends in Ghana, with a notable portion also using Ghanaian friends (20.0%) and a smaller percentage relying on Togolese family (13.3%). Regardless of their profession, Togolese migrants in Ghana primarily rely on their Togolese friends within Ghana for information about accommodation. However, the data shows a significant relationship between profession and accommodation information source ( $X^2=52.005$   $df(12)$ ,  $p$  value = .001 <0.05)

**Table 4.15 Sources of Information on Housing/Accommodation in relation to Profession**

Profession	Source of Information on Accommodation				Total
	Togolese family in Ghana	Togolese friends in Ghana	Ghanaian friends	Togolese friends in Ghana and foremen on site	
Mason	15 (25.0%)	30 (50.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (25.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	15 (33.3%)	30 (66.7%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	3 (20.0%)	11 (73.3%)	1 (6.7%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	1 (6.7%)	14 (93.3%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	2 (13.3%)	10 (66.7%)	3 (20.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	36 (24.0%)	95 (63.3%)	4 (2.7%)	15 (10.0%)	150(100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=52.005 df (12), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</i>					

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

#### 4.4.4 Relationship with other Togolese Migrants

The preceding results emphasized the significance of Togolese family and friends as respondents' primary social networks, revealing a strong dependence on bonding social capital derived from close ties. Consequently, the study sought to understand the level of interaction among respondents and other Togolese migrants.

Daily interaction with other Togolese migrants is common among masons (75.0%), with 25% interacting weekly with other Togolese. Almost all carpenters (95.6%) have daily interaction with

other Togolese migrants, with only 4.4% interacting weekly. The pattern of interaction for laborers differs, with more reporting weekly contact (60.0%) with other Togolese migrants than daily contact (40.0%). In addition, most POP designers (86.7%) interact daily with other Togolese migrants, with only 13.3% interacting weekly. Most tilers have weekly interaction (60.0%) with other Togolese migrants, with 40.0% reporting daily interaction. The data shows a significant relationship between the profession of Togolese migrants and how often they interact with other Togolese migrants. ( $X^2=31.099$  *df* (4), *p value* = .001 <0.05)

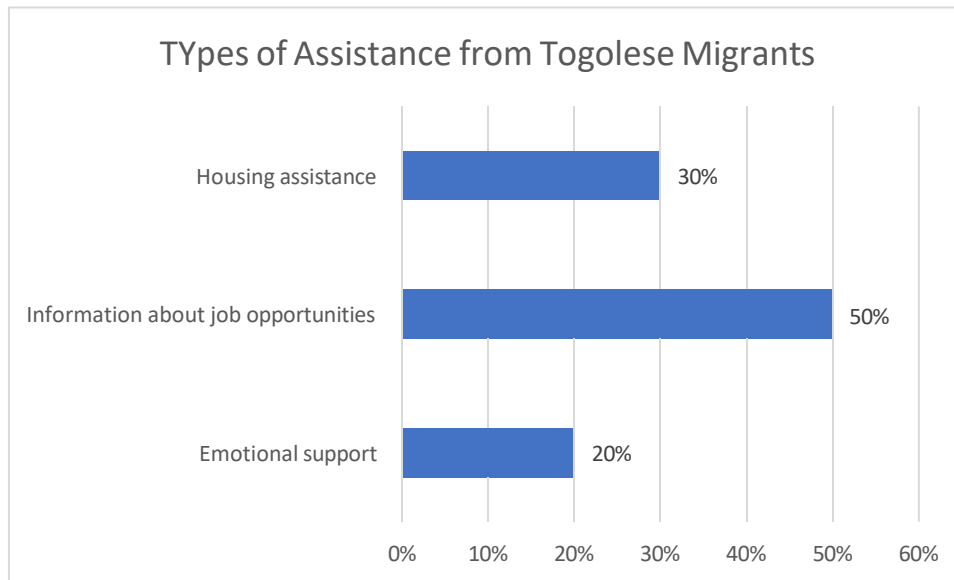
**Table 4.16 Interaction with other Togolese Migrants in Relation to Profession**

Profession	Interaction with other Togolese		Total
	Daily	Weekly	
Mason	45 (75.0%)	15 (25.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	43 (95.6%)	2 (4.4%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	6 (40.0%)	9 (60.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	13 (86.7%)	2 (13.3%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	6 (40.0%)	9 (60.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	113 (75.3%)	37 (24.7%)	150 (100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=31.099 df (4), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</i>			

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

Further analysis explored the benefits from these interactions. As illustrated in Figure 4.3, the predominant benefit from this interaction is provision of information for job opportunities (60%), followed by housing assistance (30%) with the least being emotional support (20%). This highlights the crucial role of social support, especially in finding jobs, within the Togolese migrant community. Migrant networks are essential channels for distributing job-related information and facilitating access to employment opportunities in the construction sector.

**Figure 4.3 Types of Assistance from other Togolese Migrants**



Source: Fieldwork (2024)

#### **4.5 LIVING CONDITIONS OF THE RESPONDENTS IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY**

Central to this study is the living conditions of migrants. Migrant workers often face challenging living conditions and as such it has become an area of major concern (Mathew et al., 2016). According to Ge et al. (2022), living conditions of workers influence their physical and mental health, and as such affect their performance at work. Therefore, this section presents finding on the living conditions of respondents pertaining to health and work safety, basic needs and housing.

##### **4.5.1 Type of Accommodation**

According to Buckley et al. (2016) housing is essential for migrants because it is the place for rest and socialization. Finding from the study showed that, Majority of masons (75%) reside in shared housing arrangements, with 25% living as squatters. Almost all carpenters (95.6%) share housing with other workers, with only 4.4% squatting. Laborers show a different housing pattern, with more reporting squatting (60.0%) than living in shared housing with other workers (40.0%). In addition, most POP designers (86.7%) share housing with other workers, with only 13.3%

squatting. In contrast, majority of tilers (60.0%) are squatting, while 40.0% live in shared housing. A test of the two variables shows a significant relationship between profession and the accommodation arrangement of respondents ( $X^2=22.235$  df (4), p value = .001 <0.05). Although accommodation arrangements varied across professions, majority of respondents (75.3%) share housing with others. This finding is in line with other studies on migrant construction workers which found that migrant workers in the construction sector mostly live in overcrowded dormitories and temporary structures (Korra, 2010; Krishnakumar, 2019).

**Table 4.17 Accommodation arrangement of Respondents in relation to Profession**

Profession	Accommodation Arrangement		Total
	Shared housing with other workers	Squatting	
Mason	45 (75.0%)	15 (25.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	43 (95.6%)	2 (4.4%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	6 (40.0%)	9 (60.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	13 (86.7%)	2 (13.3%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	6 (40.0%)	9 (60.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	113 (75.3%)	37 (24.7%)	150 (100.0%)
<b>Chi square value=22.235 df (4), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</b>			

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

As one respondent explained:

*“I don’t have much of a choice but to live there because the rent in this area is very high. So, we are living in a house around here that has not been completed. I live with my brother and other workers there. It helps us to save money and support each other” (Kokou, 29 years-old Mason, East Legon Hills)*

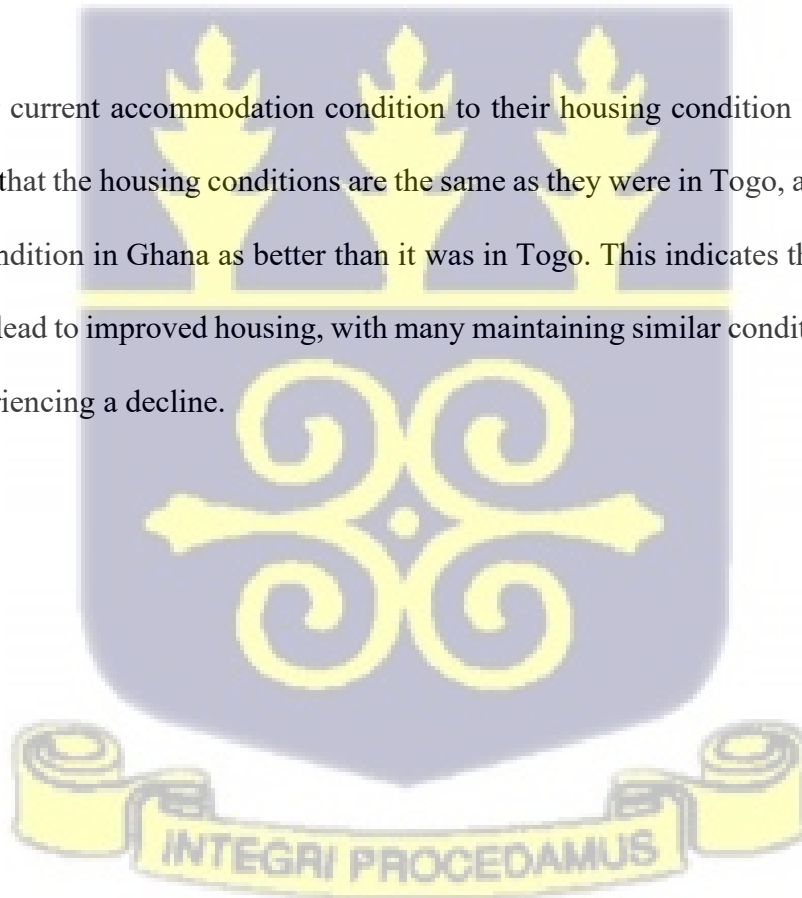
This account underscores how economic pressures drive migrants to share accommodations, which also serves as a strategy for mutual support. Another respondent also indicated that he

lives a shared housing unit because he shares the place with friends who assisted him to migrate to Ghana.

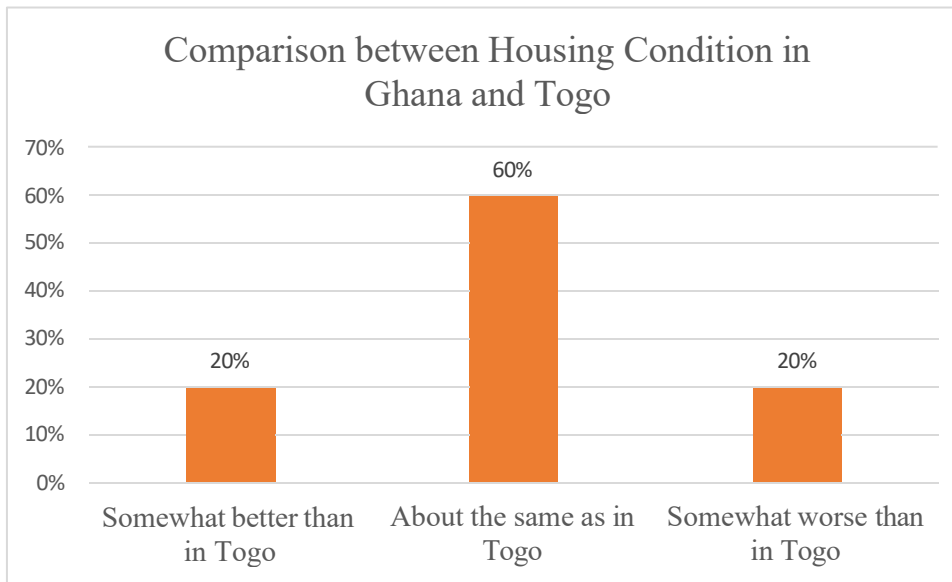
*“Kasoa is far, and it cost me a lot to transport myself here, but they are the ones who brought me here, so I still live with them” (Komi, 26 years-old Mason, East Legon Hills)*

This emphasizes the significance of social networks in housing arrangements, as migrants frequently depend on friends and family for accommodation as a key component of their overall migration strategy. The housing conditions of Togolese migrant workers serve as a reflection of both their economic hardships and the crucial role of social networks in their adaptation to new environments.

Comparing their current accommodation condition to their housing condition in Togo, Majority (60%) indicated that the housing conditions are the same as they were in Togo, and 20% perceived their housing condition in Ghana as better than it was in Togo. This indicates that migration does not consistently lead to improved housing, with many maintaining similar conditions and a notable proportion experiencing a decline.



**Figure 4.4 Comparison between Housing Condition in Ghana and Togo**



Source: Fieldwork (2024)

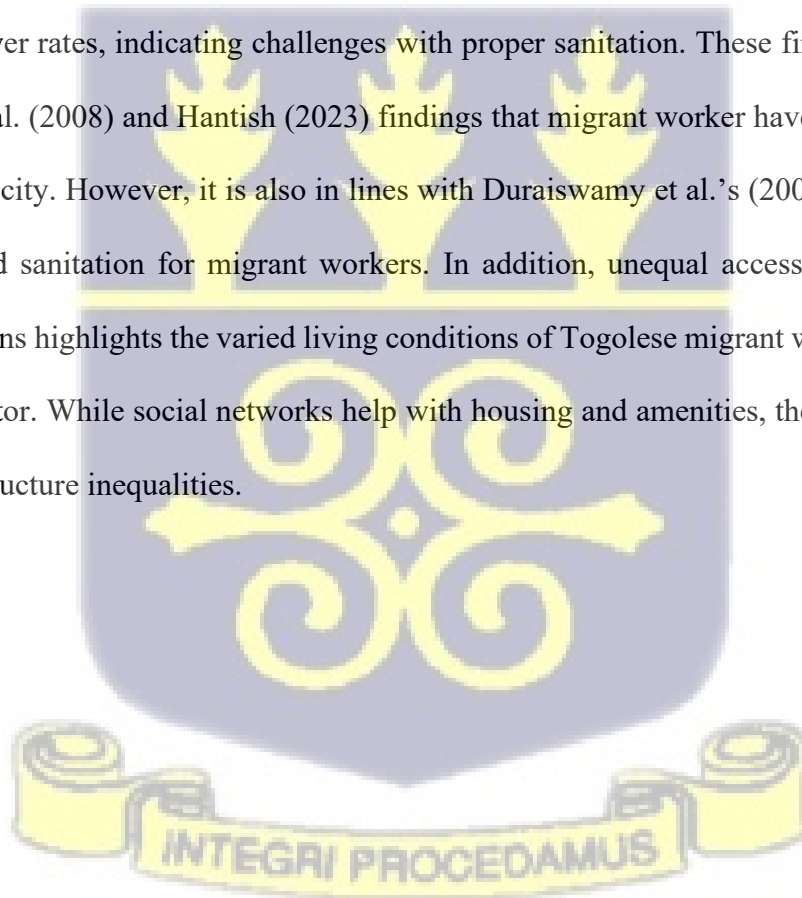
#### 4.5.2 Access to Basic Services

Access to basic services such as healthcare, water, electricity, sanitation is significant in the ascertainment of the living condition of the Togolese migrants. The study uncovered a concerning absence of access to formal healthcare services among all Togolese migrant workers surveyed. All respondents reported a lack of access to such services. When asked about access to health care services, one respondent noted that:

*“I haven’t been to the hospital since I came to Ghana, I usually use herbs or buy my own medicine from the drugstore. I don’t really know where the hospital is in this area too” (Afi, 26-year-old laborer, East Legon Hills)*

This narrative highlights the barriers that migrants face in accessing healthcare. The reliance on self-treatment through herbs and over-the-counter medications underscores the vulnerability of migrants who lack access to adequate healthcare.

However, there are variations in access to other basic services. Most Togolese migrants (89.3%) have water access, but access varies by profession. Carpenters, laborers, and POP designers report 100% access, whereas masons (75% access) and tilers (93.3% access) experience some level of water scarcity, with 25% of masons and 6.7% of tilers reporting no access. Again, although all professions have access to electricity (87.3%), there are still variations in their access rates. Masons have the highest access (95%), followed by Labourers (93.3%), tilers (86.7%) and carpenters (84.4%). POP designers however have only 60% access to electricity. Sanitation access is low overall (42%) and varies greatly by profession. Laborers have the highest access (73.3%), followed by masons (51.7%), while carpenters (31.1%), POP designers (20%), and tilers (26.7%) have significantly lower rates, indicating challenges with proper sanitation. These findings contradict Duraiswamy et al. (2008) and Hantish (2023) findings that migrant worker have limited access to water and electricity. However, it is also in lines with Duraiswamy et al.'s (2008) assertion about the lack of good sanitation for migrant workers. In addition, unequal access to basic services among professions highlights the varied living conditions of Togolese migrant workers in Ghana's construction sector. While social networks help with housing and amenities, they don't overcome systemic infrastructure inequalities.



**Table 4.18 Access to Basic Services in Relation to Profession**

Profession	Access to Water		Total
	Yes	No	
Mason	45 (75.0%)	15 (25.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	45 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	14 (93.3%)	1 (6.7%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	134 (89.3%)	16 (10.7%)	150 (100.0%)
<b>Chi square value=22.143 df (4), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</b>			
Access to Electricity			
Profession			
Mason	57 (95.0%)	3 (5.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	38 (84.4%)	7 (15.6%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	14 (93.3%)	1 (6.7%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	9 (60.0%)	6 (40.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	13 (86.7%)	2 (13.3%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	131 (87.3%)	19 (12.7%)	150 (100.0%)
<b>Chi square value=150.000 df (4), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</b>			
Access to Sanitation Facilities			
Profession			
Mason	31 (51.7%)	29 (48.3%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	14 (31.1%)	31 (68.9%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	11 (73.3%)	4 (26.7%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	3 (20.0%)	12 (80.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	4 (26.7%)	11 (73.3%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	63 (42.0%)	87 (58.0%)	150 (100.0%)
<b>Chi square value=14.965 df (4), p value = .005 &lt;0.05</b>			

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

As indicated by a respondent:

*‘We get water all the time but since the place we live is uncompleted, there is a place here that we fetch it and we buy it’ (Atsu, 24-year-old carpenter, East Legon Hills)*

This finding emphasizes the economic burden associated with water access, particularly for migrants who live in informal settlements. The high cost of water can strain respondents’ budgets and limit access to water which is an essential basic service.

#### **4.5.3 The Relationship between Social Network and Living Conditions of the Respondents in the construction industry**

Following the preceding discussions, this analysis delves into the complex interplay between social networks, housing situations, and the broader living conditions of Togolese migrant workers in Ghana's construction sector. Given the foundational role of housing in well-being (Buckley et al., 2016; Caro et al., 2015), this study explored how respondents' social networks influence their housing situations, seeking to understand if these networks enable better living conditions or foster exploitative dynamics.

Majority of respondents (30%) who are squatters indicated that their friends were the ones who assisted them in their migration process. This highlights a potential drawback of relying on bonding social capital, especially when these networks are entrenched in poverty or lack access to resources. In such circumstances, social networks may reinforce vulnerability instead of mitigating it. Whereas, all respondents who live in shared housing units were assisted by Family (10%) and Friends (10%). This points to potential pathways for individuals receiving support to transition into shared housing units, suggesting an enabling dynamic within these support networks. There is a significant relationship between social networks and housing situation ( $X^2=71.875$  df (4), p value = .0001 <0.05). This significant association reveals that migrants' access to various housing types is not a matter of chance, but is substantially shaped by the qualities of their social networks.



**Table 4.19 Relationship Respondents Social Network and Housing Conditions of Respondents**

Social network	Housing Condition		Total
	Shared housing with other workers	Squatting	
Family	15 (10%)	15 (10%)	30 (20%)
Friends	15 (10%)	45 (30%)	60 (40%)
Employment agency	0 (0%)	15 (10%)	15 (10%)
Family and friends	0 (0%)	15 (10%)	15 (10%)
None	30 (20%)	0 (0%)	30 (20%)
<b>Total</b>	60 (40%)	90 (60%)	150 (100%)
<b>Chi square value=71.875 df (4), p value = .0001 &lt;0.05</b>			

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

#### **4.6 CHALLENGES FACED BY THE RESPONDENTS IN THE CONSTRUCTION SECTOR**

A study by Mehra & Singh (2014) indicated widespread exploitation within the construction sector, with numerous laborers forced to undertake extra duties without additional compensation. In line with this, the study delves into the challenges faced by Togolese migrant workers in Ghana's construction sector, focusing specifically on the issue of exploitation in the workplace. Almost half of the masons (48.3%) reported no exploitation, while 20% faced wage exploitation and 25% experienced exploitation in both wages and hours worked. Most carpenters (60%) experienced work hour exploitation, with only 13.3% reporting wage exploitation. Majority of labourers (60%), POP designers (80%) and Tilers (80%) did not face any form of exploitation. However, wage exploitation affected 20% of laborers and 13.3% of tilers, while work hour exploitation impacted 20% of POP designers and tilers. Overall, 46.7% of respondents reported no exploitation, while

15.3% experienced wage exploitation and 27.3% faced work hour exploitation. One respondent complained that:

*“We are supposed to close at 5 but sometimes we are made to work beyond that especially when we are about to complete the project, sometimes they do not even pay us for the extra hours we work” (Komi, 26-year-old mason, East Legon Hills)*

This is consistent with the wider problem of exploitation within the construction sector, where the pressure of project deadlines and demands can lead employers to impose extended working hours without adequate pay. The lack of overtime pay and the enforcement of extended working hours not only deny workers their deserved earnings but also negatively impact their physical and mental well-being, thus perpetuating a cycle of vulnerability. These exploitative practices are often exacerbated by social factors, where family responsibilities can compel workers to accept exploitation due to fears of job loss. The results from the chi-square test shows a significant relationship between profession and the forms of exploitation experienced ( $X^2=65.404$  df (16), p value = .001 <0.05). indicating that the types of profession influence the likelihood and nature of exploitation.

**Table 4.20 Forms of Exploitation in Relation to Profession**

Profession	Forms of Exploitation					Total
	No, Exploitation	Yes, in terms of wages	In terms of work hours	In terms of job responsibilities	In terms of wages and work hours	
Mason	29 (48.3%)	12 (20.0%)	4 (6.7%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (25.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	11 (24.4%)	6 (13.3%)	27 (60.0%)	1 (2.2%)	0 (0.0%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	9 (60.0%)	3 (20.0%)	3 (20.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	12 (80.0%)	0 (0.0%)	3 (20.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	9 (60.0%)	2 (13.3%)	4 (26.7%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	70 (46.7%)	23 (15.3%)	41 (27.3%)	1 (0.7%)	15 (10.0%)	150 (100.0%)

*Chi square value=65.404 df (16), p value = .001 <0.05*

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

#### 4.6.1 Social protection of the respondents in the construction industry

Casualization of the construction sector has led to the exclusion of most worker from social protection schemes (Otoo et al 2009; Tiwary et al. 2011). The study therefore investigated the inclusion of the Togolese migrants in the construction sector. With regards to social protection, 25% of masons had access to social protection, while 75% do not have access.. None of the carpenters, laborers, POP designers, or tilers reported access to social protection; 100% in these professions indicated no access. In spite of this, the study showed a significant relationship between profession and access the social protection ( $X^2=25.000$  df (4), p value = .001 <0.05). This indicates that a worker's profession has a significant impact on their chances of having social protection.

**Table 4.21 Access to Social Protection in Relation to Profession**

Profession	Access to Social Protection		Total
	Yes	No	
Mason	15 (25.0%)	45 (75.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	0 (0.0%)	45 (100.0%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	15 (10.0%)	135 (90.0%)	150 (100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=25.000 df (4), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</i>			

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

#### 4.6.2 Health and safety

The construction sector as described by Atakul et al. (2018) is highly vulnerable to safety risks. This is reflected in the table below which shows mixed results on the perceived level of safety at the workplace. Out of the 150 respondents sampled, majority perceived the workplace as somewhat safe (56%). While a notable percentage (26.7%) also perceived the workplace as very safe. With a smaller percentage (17.3%) indicating that the workplace is neither safe nor unsafe. In line with this, majority of masons (63.3%) perceived the workplace as somewhat safe with 30%

also indicating that the workplace is very safe. On the other hand, 66.7% and 33.3% of carpenters perceived the workplace as somewhat safe and ‘neither safe nor unsafe’ respectively. Most labourers perceived the workplace as very safe (60%) and somewhat safe (26.7%). 86.7% of POP designers perceive high workplace safety, with none perceiving the workplace as unsafe. Tilers reported no "Very Safe" perceptions; "Somewhat Safe" (66.7%) was most common, with 33.3% feeling neutral. The findings show a significant relationship between professions and their perceived workplace safety ( $X^2=67.265$  df (8), p value = .001 <0.05), although perceptions differ among the professions. This indicates that respondents were reasonably secured about the safety of the workplace.

**Table 4.22 Safety of Workplace in Relation to Profession**

Profession	Safety of Workplace			Total
	Very Safe	Somewhat Safe	Neither Safe nor Unsafe	
Mason	18 (30.0%)	38 (63.3%)	4 (6.7%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	0 (0.0%)	30 (66.7%)	15 (33.3%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	9 (60.0%)	4 (26.7%)	2 (13.3%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	13 (86.7%)	2 (13.3%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	0 (0.0%)	10 (66.7%)	5 (33.3%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	40 (26.7%)	84 (56.0%)	26 (17.3%)	150 (100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=67.265 df (8), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</i>				

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

Table 4.23 highlights the sources of support available for Togolese migrant workers when they experience injuries. Majority of respondents (78.7%) indicated that they received some form of support. Masons received support from employers (45%) and coworkers/friends (50%) almost equally, with only 5% reporting no support. Carpenters mainly rely on employer support (60%), with little from coworkers/friends (6.7%) and no reports of no support. Most laborers (93.3%) report no support with little support (6.7%) from coworkers/friends. POP designers and tilers receive 100% of their support from coworkers and friends. The findings revealed that the two main

sources of support were employers (36%) and co-worker or friends (42.7%). The results of the study reveal a significant relationship between profession and sources of support for Togolese migrant workers in case of injury ( $X^2=120.750$  df (8), p value = .001 <0.05)

**Table 4.23 Sources of Support for Injuries**

Profession	Sources of Support for Injury			Total
	Support from Employer	Support from Coworkers and Friends	No support	
Mason	27 (45.0%)	30 (50.0%)	3 (5.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	27 (60.0%)	3 (6.7%)	0 (0.0%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	0 (0.0%)	1 (6.7%)	14 (93.3%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	54 (36.0%)	64 (42.7%)	32 (21.3%)	150 (100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=120.750 df (8), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</i>				

Source: Field work (2024)

The construction sector is known for its inherent safety risks, making safety training and the provision of protective equipment crucial for ensuring the well-being of workers. This section examines the extent to which Togolese migrant workers in Ghana's construction sector receive safety training and are provided with adequate protective equipment. Table 4.5.8 Shows a gap in safety practices. Majority of masons (65.0%) reported not being provided with any safety equipment, while 35.0% used it sometimes. Again, 80.0% of carpenters revealed they lacked safety equipment, while 20.0% used it sometimes. All tilers (100%) and labourers (100%) did not have access to safety equipment. Majority of POP designer (93.3%) also did not have access to safety equipment. In all, only 20.7% of respondents sometimes used safety equipment, and 79.3% were not provided with safety equipment. This resonates the findings by Sehsah, El-Gilany, & El-Masry (2020) which indicated that workers in the construction sector are not provided with adequate safety equipment, hence heightening the risk of injuries

With regards to safety training, 90% of masons do not have access to safety training, with only 10% having access. In contrast none of the carpenters, laborers, POP designers, and tilers received safety training. Overall, only 4.0% have access to safety training, while 96.0% do not have access to safety training. The results showing a significant relationship between profession and use of safety equipment ( $X^2=150.000$  df (4), p value = .001 <0.05) and access to safety training ( $X^2=150.000$  df (4), p value = .001 <0.05). This suggests that the type of work significantly influences safety practices and training opportunities.

**Table 4.24 Respondents Access to Safety Equipment and Access to Safety Training in Relation to Profession**

Profession	Use of Safety Equipment		Total
	Sometimes	Not Provided	
Mason	21 (35.0%)	39 (65.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	9 (20.0%)	36 (80.0%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	1 (6.7%)	14 (93.3%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	31 (20.7%)	119 (79.3%)	150 (100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=150.000 df (4), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</i>			
Profession	Access to Safety Training		Total
	Yes	No	
Mason	6 (10.0%)	54 (90.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	0 (0.0%)	45 (100.0%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	6 (4.0%)	144 (96.0%)	150 (100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=150.000 df (4), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</i>			

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

#### 4.7 Opportunities

In spite of the challenges faced by the Togolese migrants, it is important to recognize the opportunities migration can provide for personal and professional development. Figure 4.6.1 presents insight into the extent to which Togolese migrant worker have had the opportunity to learn

new skills. All masons (100.0%) indicated that they have had opportunities to improve their skills. Similarly, 100.0% of POP designers and 100.0% of tilers indicated that opportunities were available for them to learn new skills or improve their skills. 66.7% of carpenters indicated that they have had opportunities to improve their skills, while 33.3% reported they have not had any opportunities. On the other hand, all labourers indicated that they have not had any opportunity to learn new skills. From the data, majority of respondents (80%) report having gained new skills from working in Ghana with a small proportion (20%) indicating that they have not learned any new skills. The results also show a significant relationship between professions and opportunities to improve or learn new skills ( $X^2=87.500$  df (4), p value = .001 <0.05). This implies that professions significantly influence the likelihood of migrants finding opportunities to improve themselves. Respondents who had learned new skills indicated that they were advancement or improvement in their professional field, for instance one respondent stated that:

*“Since I came here, I have learnt a lot of new things, for instance with the way we start foundations. In Togo, we don’t mark the floor, when we dig up, we just start putting the blocks in the hole but here we mark the places we put the blocks, so it is more accurate” (Emmanuel, 22-years-old, Mason, East Legon Hills)*

The acquisition of the new skills may transform the lives of migrants by increasing their employability, hence it also increases their earning potential. Therefore, learning of new skills facilitates economic advancement. This allows respondents to remit money they earn in Ghana to assist home.

*'I can now send money home regularly. My family depends on it' (Kokuo, 29-year-old Mason, East Legon Hills)*

Remittance may have significant impact on the country of origin and may help to even alleviate poverty. Respondent who indicated they had not learned any new skills attributed it to lack of time and also lack of opportunity to train. This suggests that not all migrant workers have equal access to skill development opportunities, potentially due to factors such as job security, financial resources, and employer support. This falls in line with the previous data which indicates that respondents are exploited at work.

**Table 4.25 Opportunities for Migrant in Construction Sector**

Profession	Opportunities for Migrant in Construction Sector		Total
	Yes	No	
Mason	60 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	30 (66.7%)	15 (33.3%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	120 (80.0%)	30 (20.0%)	150 (100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=87.500 df (4), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</i>			

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

#### 4.8 COPING STRATEGIES

Apart from the challenges faced by migrants and the opportunities migration may have given them, it is important to tease out their coping strategies to some of these challenges. Thus, the study assessed coping strategies respondents employed to cope with limited access to basic services including healthcare, sanitation, accommodation and other essential facilities.. Hence, respondents who indicated that they had challenges in accessing certain basic services were asked how they cope with such challenges. Table 4.7.1 shows that out of the masons who faced challenges with basic services 25% use convenient locations to cope with sanitation challenges, 50% resort to self-medication for healthcare challenges and 25% utilize shared living arrangements for accommodation challenges. Among carpenters, 33.3% indicated they self-medicate in place of

healthcare and 33.3% they utilized shared housing as a coping strategy when it comes to accommodation. The rest (33.3%) did not indicate that they faced any form of challenges in relation to basic services. For healthcare, all laborers (100%) depend on self-medication. POP designers (100%) use external facilities as coping strategies to shortages of water. All Tilers (100%) also dispose of waste at convenient places. Out of the total respondents who face challenges with basic facilities, 22.2% use convenient waste disposal, 44.4% self-medicate, 22.2% live in shared housing, and 11.1% use facilities outside the home. The data shows a significant relationship between profession and coping strategies for basic services. This implies that the kind of work significantly affects how individuals cope with challenges related to basic services.

**Table 4.26 Coping strategies for basic services**

Profession	Coping strategies for Basic Services				Total
	Waste Disposal at convenient Places	Self-Medication	Shared Housing	Use facilities outside	
Mason	15 (25.0%)	30 (50.0%)	15 (25.0%)	0 (0.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	0 (0.0%)	15 (33.3%)	15 (33.3%)	0 (0.0%)	30 (100.0%)
Labourer	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	30 (22.2%)	60 (44.4%)	30 (22.2%)	15 (11.1%)	135(100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=219.375 df (12), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</i>					

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

Inferences from Table 4.7.2 suggests that different construction professions have varying approaches to handling workplace discrimination. Majority of masons (75%) indicated that they respond to discrimination by ignoring it, while 25% indicated that they discuss their experience with their colleagues. In a similar vein, carpenters also respond to discrimination by ignoring it (33.3%) or discussing it with their colleagues (66.7%). All tilers (100%) and POP designer (100%) also indicated that they respond to discrimination at the workplace by ignoring it. On the other

hand, all labourers (100%) respond by reporting it to their supervisors. In all, 60 percent of respondents respond to discrimination by ignoring it, thus focusing on their work. Others also indicated that they discuss it with their colleagues (30%), highlighting the need for emotional support from friends and colleagues. However, few respondents (10%), chose to report discrimination to supervisors. The limited reporting of discrimination to supervisors is concerning, as it suggests a lack of accountability and a potential for discriminatory practices to persist unchecked. One respondent remarked that:

*“It is not done, you cannot even approach the manager or owner, sometimes the person is the one who found the job for you and the others may not be happy with you” (Mohamed, 27-years-old, POP designer, East Legon)*

This quote offers insight to the factors which reduce the inclination to make legitimate complaints or take the required actions when employees are discriminated against. Furthermore, this highlights this study's emphasis on how social networks function. Migrant workers may find it difficult to report discrimination for a number of reasons, one of which is the chance that doing so will harm their connections with coworkers or have an impact on their work prospects.

**Table 4.27 Coping Strategies against Discrimination**

Profession	Coping Strategy against Discrimination			Total
	Ignore it and continue working	Discuss it with other colleagues	Report it to a supervisor or manager	
Mason	45 (75.0%)	15 (25.0%)	0 (0.0%)	60 (100.0%)
Carpenter	15 (33.3%)	30 (66.7%)	0 (0.0%)	45 (100.0%)
Labourer	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)
POP designer	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Tiler	15 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (100.0%)
Total	90 (60.0%)	45 (30.0%)	15 (10.0%)	150 (100.0%)
<i>Chi square value=193.750 df (8), p value = .001 &lt;0.05</i>				

Source: Fieldwork (2024)

These coping strategies reflect the concept of bonding social capital, where migrants rely on close-knit networks for support, but also highlight the limitations of these networks in addressing systemic challenges like healthcare and sanitation access. The reliance on self-medication and informal waste disposal underscores the need for bridging social capital, which connects migrants to broader networks and resources, such as formal healthcare services and sanitation infrastructure.

#### **4.9 SUMMARY**

The chapter assessed the social network and living conditions of migrants. It again examined the nexus between the social network and their living conditions. Lastly, the study examined the challenges they face and their coping strategies. The analysis showed that the social network of majority of the respondents were mostly Togolese family and friends, hence the close ties and bonding social capital. The types of support they received from their social networks included job assistance, housing assistance and also assistance for migration. In addition, respondents received emotional support from other Togolese migrants. In spite of the support, most respondents, lived in shared housing or are squatting. Although majority respondents have access to electricity and water, they do not have access to good sanitation facility, healthcare and also affordable housing. The study also found that respondents were exploited in terms of wages and the number of working hours. Majority of respondents do not have access to social protection programs. Although most respondents perceived their workplace as safe, they did not have access to safety training and safety equipment. In view of their challenges the study revealed that most respondents shared apartments and also sought for help from other migrants to cope with their housing challenges.

With regards to health care, majority resort to selfcare. Also, discrimination at the workplace was mostly ignored by respondents.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter summarizes the findings of the study in relation to its objectives, the study's findings in relation to its stated objectives. Also, based on the social network and social capital theories, conclusions are drawn from the study. Finally, recommendations are made based on the results of the study.

#### 5.2 SUMMARY OF THE KEY FINDINGS

The study explored the social network and living conditions of Togolese migrant workers in the construction sector in the Kpone Katamanso Municipality. Drawing on the social network and social capital theory, the study assessed the social networks of Togolese labor migrants in construction in the East Legon Hills; the living conditions of Togolese labor migrants in Urban Ghana (housing, and access to basic services); the relationship between the social networks and the living conditions of migrant worker in the construction sector in urban Ghana; and the challenges facing the Togolese migrant workers in the construction industry and their coping strategies. A snowballing method was used in sampling 150 respondents for a questionnaire survey and interviews were conducted with experienced migrants, foremen and site managers. The following are the key findings of the study.

##### 5.2.1 Background Characteristics of Respondents

The survey included 150 Togolese labor migrants employed in the Kpone Katamanso construction sector. Key characteristics examined were age, education level, employment status and income level. The age distribution showed that the majority of respondents were in the 20- 25 (26%) and 26-30 (62%) age groups, indicating a relatively young workforce. Although, age distribution

varied across professions, majority of respondents in all professions were 30 years or below. Regarding education, most respondents had attained a primary school level (50%), with a smaller proportion having no formal education (20%). However, all masons and labourers had attained at least secondary education. In addition, only masons have had secondary education and only carpenters have had vocational education. This gives an indication of the low levels of education of Togolese migrant workers in the construction sector. Furthermore, with the exception of laborers, majority of respondents in the other professions earn above the current minimum wage in Ghana. Also looking at the upper income bracket, only masons and carpenters earn above 2000 cedis. Again, only masons work on a full-time basis, most of the respondents are casual workers. These demographic variables provide a foundation for analyzing the relationships between migrants' backgrounds, their social networks, and their subsequent integration experiences in Ghana.

### **5.2.2 Migration and Social Networks**

Understanding the integration experiences of Togolese workers in Ghana's construction sector hinges on their migration history. This study corroborates the significant influence of economic factors in driving migration. Prominent among these are the prospects of employment and the potential for higher earnings compared to those available in Togo. The study also found that majority of the Togolese migrant workers in the construction industry rely heavily on social networks, mainly friends and family from Togo, for migration, accommodation and job opportunities. Highlighting the importance of social capital in their integration. This mirrors the assertion by studies that social network helps individuals to gain access to resources (Putnam, 2000; Ryan, Sales, Tilki, & Siara, 2008; Schulz, Horr, & Hoenig, 2017)

It is therefore unsurprising that all Masons and Tilers indicated that they had jobs immediately they arrived. This can be attributed to their social networks or demand for their skill sets. In addition to finding jobs on time, majority of respondents have not resided in Ghana for a long time and as such have not worked in the country for a long period. This phenomenon is same across the various professions. Also, some respondents indicated they were part of religious and work-related groups. But respondents participation in these associations are very low, and majority of respondents who participate in associations received support in a form of job opportunities.

### **5.2.3 Migrants social networks and social capital**

The study revealed that majority of respondents sought assistance from their social network during their migration process. Majority relied on family and friends for assistance. Respondents across all the various professions, sought for assistance from their friends. These assistance were usually in relation to jobs. Therefore, it is not surprising that most migrants began working immediately they arrived in Ghana. Another major finding was that the majority of respondents received assistance in terms of job opportunities and accommodation from Togolese friends and family in Ghana. Although most of the assistance migrants receive are from other Togolese, they do not have associations related to their country of origins. The associational lives of respondents included religious and work-related associations. These findings contradict Portes (1995) finding that social networks do not necessarily translate to social capital.

### **5.2.4 Living Conditions of Migrants.**

Although respondents have social capital in relation to housing, the housing situation of most migrants is precarious. The study revealed that respondents lived in shared housing or were squatting. With majority of the squatters being labourers. This implies an inability to afford shared housing. As noted by Ge et al. (2022) poor housing affects migrants' physical and mental performance hence leading to underperformance. Housing situations also vary, with shared living

arrangements being frequent due to financial limitations. The research emphasizes that while social networks are important for finding housing, they cannot fully resolve underlying issues concerning housing quality and safety standards. Comparatively, majority of respondent perceived that their housing condition in Ghana is the same as it was in Togo. Although a majority of migrants have access to essential services such as water and electricity, the study reveals considerable inequalities across different professions. For example, carpenters and masons tend to have better access compared to laborers and POP designers. This contradicts the assertion by Hantish (2023), that migrant workers face scarcity with regards to electricity and water. On the other hand, respondents to not have access to good health care.

#### **5.2.5 Challenges and Coping Strategies by Togolese Migrant Workers**

Also, the lives of migrants are marked by numerous challenges, including insufficient safety equipment, a lack of social safety nets, inadequate access to some basic services and instances of discrimination. A significant portion of respondents indicated that they are not exploited (46.7%), however majority indicated that they were exploited in terms of wages and working hours. Most respondents also indicated that their workplaces are somewhat safe. In case of injury, respondents receive support from two sources i.e. friends and coworkers (42.7%) and employers (36%). Also, only 10% of respondents who are masons, have access to social protection. With regards to safety equipment, the study found that majority of respondents were not provided with them. All respondents who had access to safety equipment were masons and carpenters. Again, majority of respondents have also not received training for safety practices.

#### **5.2.6 Coping Strategies to challenges**

In view of the challenges respondents faced, they have developed several coping mechanisms to these challenges. These strategies highlight the resilience of migrants and underscores the importance of social networks in adaptation and survival of migrants. With regards to Housing, it

emerged that migrant cope with challenges by seeking for help from families and friend or sharing housing with others. Similarly, with regards to discrimination respondents either ignored it or sought for support from their colleagues. With the absence of basic services, respondent use any place of convenience when it comes to sanitation facilities and they also self-medicate when it comes to healthcare. Social networks help migrants with some challenges, but they can't fix systemic issues like workplace safety and social protection. This shows that while social capital is key, thus formal policies are needed for equal access to services and protections.

### **5.3 CONCLUSION**

On the backdrop of the findings of this study, social networks present a double-edged sword for Togolese labor migrants. These networks serve as a resource for job opportunities, housing and other forms of support, largely through bonding social capital. This mirror the finding from Swider (2011) and Atakul et al. (2018). Migrants heavily depend on pre-existing ties with family and friends from Togo, highlighting the importance of trust and reciprocity in navigating the complexities of migration and integration. On the other hand, these networks often perpetuate vulnerability, confining migrants to low-wage, precarious jobs within the informal construction sector, and providing limited protection against exploitation, unsafe working conditions, and discrimination This echoes concern raised about the vulnerability of migrants workers in construction by Atakul et al (2020) and Yaro et al. (2015). It emphasizes that while reliance on networks is helpful, it does not fully address the problems migrants encounter.

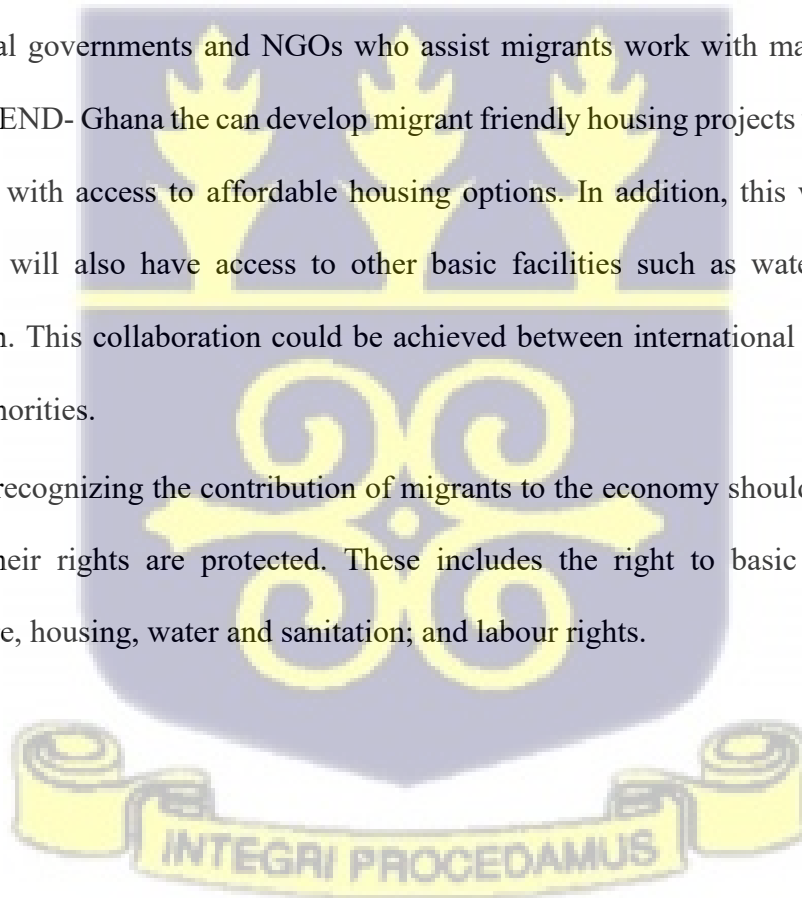
### **5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made to help improve the living conditions of Togolese Migrants in the construction sector:

- The study suggests that, in spite of respondents' reliance on friends and family from Togo, there are no associations related to their country of origin or ethnicity. These is the need to

establish an association to strengthen the social networks among migrants and also to facilitate the social capital from these networks. These association could be welfare associations, ethnic association and occupational associations. Hence the association can establish mentorship programs for new arrivals, organize language classes and vocational training.

- Employers should also be encouraged to provide migrants with formal employment contracts in order to give them legal and social protection such as insurances and pension plans. In addition, employers can provide on the job skills training programs in order to improve the skills of migrant, their employability and potentially their earnings.
- Also local governments and NGOs who assist migrants work with marginalized groups such as SEND- Ghana the can develop migrant friendly housing projects which can provide migrants with access to affordable housing options. In addition, this would ensure that migrants will also have access to other basic facilities such as water, electricity and sanitation. This collaboration could be achieved between international organizations and local authorities.
- Policies recognizing the contribution of migrants to the economy should be formulated to ensure their rights are protected. These includes the right to basic services such as healthcare, housing, water and sanitation; and labour rights.



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**APPENDIX A**  
**CENTRE FOR MIGRATION STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON**

**MIGRANT QUESTIONNAIRE**

This questionnaire is designed for a study titled “Exploring the Social Networks and Living Conditions of Togolese labor Migrants in the real estate construction sector in Urban Ghana: A case of East Legon hills and Kpone Katamanso Municipality. “Challenges and Opportunities” to be submitted to the University of Ghana in partial fulfilment of the degree of Master of Art in Migration Studies. The views obtained are intended for academic purposes only and shall be treated confidential.

Section A: Background information

A1: Socioeconomic profile

1. Sex
  - a) Male [ ]      b) Female [ ]
2. What is your age? .....
3. Place of residence
  - Region..... District.....
  - Town..... Nearest city.....
4. How long have you been living in this community?
  - Year..... Month.....
5. What is your highest level of education?
  - a) No formal [ ]    b) Primary [ ]    c) Secondary [ ]
  - d) Vocational/Technical [ ]    e) Tertiary [ ]
6. If you have received formal education, where did you receive it?
  - a) Togo [ ]    b) Ghana [ ]    c) Other (please specify) .....
7. What is your current employment status in the real estate sector?
  - a) Full-time [ ]    b) Part-time [ ]    c) Casual/Day labour [ ]
  - d) other (specify) .....[ ]
8. Are you engaged in other forms of income generation activities? If yes, please indicate the type of activity you are engaged in.

- a) Yes (If yes, which of the following activities)  
i. small retail    ii. Other artisanal work    iii. Transport service  
iv. Other specify.....

b) No [ ]

9. What job were you engaged in before moving to Ghana?  
.....

10. How long did it take for you to find employment in Ghana?

Years ..... Months..... Weeks.....

11. What is your average monthly income?  
.....

A2: Migration history

12. How long have you lived in Ghana?

Years ..... Months.....

13. How long have you worked in Ghana

Years ..... Months.....

14. What was the major reason for moving to Ghana?

- a) Job opportunity    b) Education    c) Family/Personal reason    d) Political  
e) Cost of living    f) Other, specify.....

15. Did you receive any assistance which helped in your migration to Ghana?

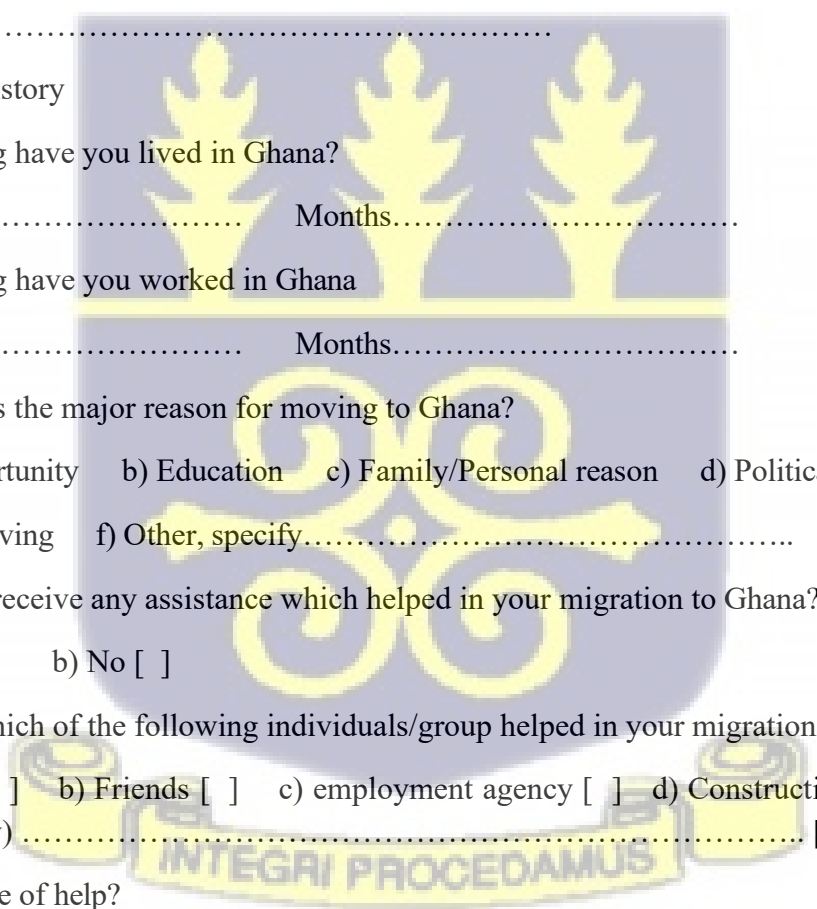
- a) Yes [ ]    b) No [ ]

16. If yes, which of the following individuals/group helped in your migration to Ghana?

- a) Family [ ]    b) Friends [ ]    c) employment agency [ ]    d) Construction company [ ]  
d) Other (specify) ..... [ ]

17. What type of help?

- a) Funds for travel    b) Money for upkeep    c) Accommodation    d) Job Assistance  
e) Helped with travel arrangement    f) Moral support    g) Other.....



18. On a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 means “no expectation” and 5 means “high expectation”, kindly rate your level of expectation about the following before coming to Ghana

Indicators	1	2	3	4	5
Job opportunities					
Cost of living					
Access to health care services					
Access to water					
Access to electricity					
Access to sanitation facilities					
Access to affordable housing					
Security (no or less crime)					

19. On a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 means “no at all” and 5 means “met”, kindly indicate if your expectations have been met in relation to the following

Indicators

Indicators	1	2	3	4	5
Job opportunities					
Cost of living					
Access to health care services					
Access to water					
Access to electricity					
Access to sanitation facilities					
Access to affordable housing					
Security (no or less crime)					

Section B: Social Networks

20. Which of the following individuals/groups do you rely on for information/support relating to job opportunities?

- a) Togolese family in Ghana [ ] b) Togolese friends in Ghana [ ] c) Ghanaian friends [ ]  
 d) Employment agency [ ] e) Construction company [ ] f) Other Nationals [ ] g) Embassy [ ]  
 h) Togolese migrant association i) Other (specify) ..... [ ]

21. What role did any of the individuals/group play in helping you find a job in Ghana?

- a) Provided information about job openings [ ]  
 b) Offered recommendations to employers [ ]

- c) Provided financial support for job search or relocation [ ]
- d) Connected me with potential employers directly [ ]
- e) Provided accommodation while searching for a job [ ]
- f) Offered language or skills training for the job [ ]
- g) Other (please specify):..... [ ]

22. Which of the following individuals/groups do you rely on for information/support in relation to housing/accommodation?

- a) Togolese family in Ghana [ ] b) Togolese friends in Ghana [ ] c) Ghanaian friends [ ]
- d) Employment agency [ ] e) Construction company [ ] f) Other Nationals [ ] g) Other (specify) ..... [ ]

23. How often do you interact with other Togolese migrants in Ghana?

- a) Daily [ ] b) Weekly [ ] c) Monthly [ ] d) Rarely [ ]

24. What kind of support do you receive from other Togolese migrants?

- a) Financial assistance [ ] b) Emotional support [ ] c) Information about job opportunities [ ]
- d) Housing assistance [ ] e) Legal or administrative advice [ ] f. Other (specify) ..... [ ]

25. Are you part of any of the following formal or informal social groups in Ghana? If yes, please state the support they provide for you

Association	Yes	No	Types of support
Hometown association			
Religious association			
Ethnic/tribal association			
Work-related group			
others (specify) .....			

26. How do these groups help migrants adjust to life in Ghana?

.....  
 .....

Section C: Living Conditions

27. Do you have access to any social protection or welfare benefits in Ghana?

- a) Yes, from the government [ ]    b) Yes, through my employer [ ]    c) Yes, from a migrant or community organization [ ]    d) No, I do not have access to any social protection [ ]

28. If yes, what type of social protection benefits do you receive?

- a) Health insurance [ ]    b) Unemployment support [ ]    c) Pension or retirement benefits [ ]  
d) Workers' compensation [ ]    e) Other (please specify): ..... [ ]

29. Have you ever faced challenges accessing social protection benefits in Ghana?

- a) Yes, due to lack of information [ ]    b) Yes, due to legal or documentation issues [ ]  
c) Yes, due to language barriers [ ]    d) No, I have not faced challenges [ ]

30. How would you describe the safety of your workplace?

- a) Very safe [ ]    b) Somewhat safe [ ]    c) Neither safe nor unsafe [ ]  
d) Somewhat unsafe [ ]    e) Very unsafe [ ]

31. Does your employer provide you with safety equipment or protective gear (e.g., helmets, gloves)?

- a) Yes, always [ ]    b) Sometimes [ ]    c) No, not provided [ ]

32. Have you received safety training for your job?

- a) Yes, comprehensive training [ ]    b) Yes, basic training [ ]  
c) No, I have not received any training [ ]

33. If you experience an injury at work, do you receive any form of support?

- a) Yes, medical support from employer [ ]    b) Yes, support from co-workers or friends [ ]  
c) No, I do not receive support [ ]

34. What challenges do you face in securing or maintaining employment in Ghana? (Select all that apply)

- a) Language barrier [ ]    b) Lack of relevant skills or qualifications [ ]    c) Discrimination due to nationality [ ]  
d) Lack of legal documentation [ ]    e) Limited job availability [ ]  
f) Lack of social networks or connections [ ]    g) Other (please specify): .....  
.....

35. 41. Do you find it challenging to negotiate fair wages or work conditions?

- a) Yes, due to lack of bargaining power [ ]
- b) Yes, due to fear of job loss [ ]
- c) Yes, due to lack of information on fair wages [ ]
- d) No, I do not find it challenging [ ]

36. Have you faced any form of exploitation or unfair treatment at work?

- a) Yes, in terms of wages [ ]
- b) Yes, in terms of work hours [ ]
- c) Yes, in terms of job responsibilities [ ]
- d) No, I have not faced any exploitation [ ]

37. What is your current housing situation?

- a) Rented room/flat [ ]
- b) Shared housing with other workers [ ]
- c) Company-provided accommodation [ ]
- d) Squatting [ ]
- e) Other (please specify) .....

38. If you rent, how much rent do you pay monthly?

.....

39. In your opinion, is it affordable?

- a) Yes [ ]
- b) No [ ]

40. How does your current housing situation compare to your living conditions in Togo?

- a) Much better than in Togo [ ]
- b) Somewhat better than in Togo [ ]
- c) About the same as in Togo [ ]
- d) Somewhat worse than in Togo [ ]
- e) Much worse than in Togo [ ]

41. Do you have reliable access to the following basic services?

Basic services	Yes	No
Access to health care services		
Access to water		
Access to electricity		
Access to sanitation facilities		
Access to affordable housing		

42. If you don't have reliable access to these services, how do you cope?

.....  
.....

Section E: Opportunities for Improvement

43. Have you had any opportunities to learn new skills or advance in your construction career since coming to Ghana?

a) Yes [ ] b) No [ ]

44. If yes, what new skills have you learned?

a) Advanced construction techniques (e.g., bricklaying, carpentry, plumbing, electricals) [ ]

b) Machinery operation (e.g., forklifts, cranes) [ ]

c) Safety and first aid procedures [ ]

e) Language skills (e.g., English, Twi) [ ]

g) Other (please specify): ..... [ ]

45. If no, why?

a) Lack of access to training programs [ ]

b) Lack of time due to work schedule [ ]

c) Limited support or encouragement from employer [ ]

d) Financial constraints [ ]

e) Language barrier [ ]

f) Not interested in learning new skills [ ]

g) Other (please specify): ..... [ ]

46. Do you see any opportunities for improving your current living conditions?

a) Yes [ ] b) No [ ] c) Unsure [ ]

47. What specific changes would improve your living conditions?

a) Access to more affordable housing [ ]

b) Better quality housing [ ]

c) Improved access to clean water [ ]

- d) Consistent access to electricity [ ]
- e) Access to reliable sanitation facilities [ ]
- f) Closer proximity to workplace [ ]
- g) Access to community or social support services [ ]
- h) Other (please specify): ..... [ ]

48. What support or services do you think could help improve the situation for Togolese migrants?

- a) Job training and skill development programs [ ]
- b) Access to affordable healthcare [ ]
- c) Financial support or low-interest loans for housing [ ]
- d) Legal assistance with residency or work permits [ ]
- e) Access to social support networks or associations [ ]
- f) Improved workplace safety regulations and monitoring [ ]
- g) Language and cultural orientation programs [ ]
- h) Other (please specify): ..... [ ]

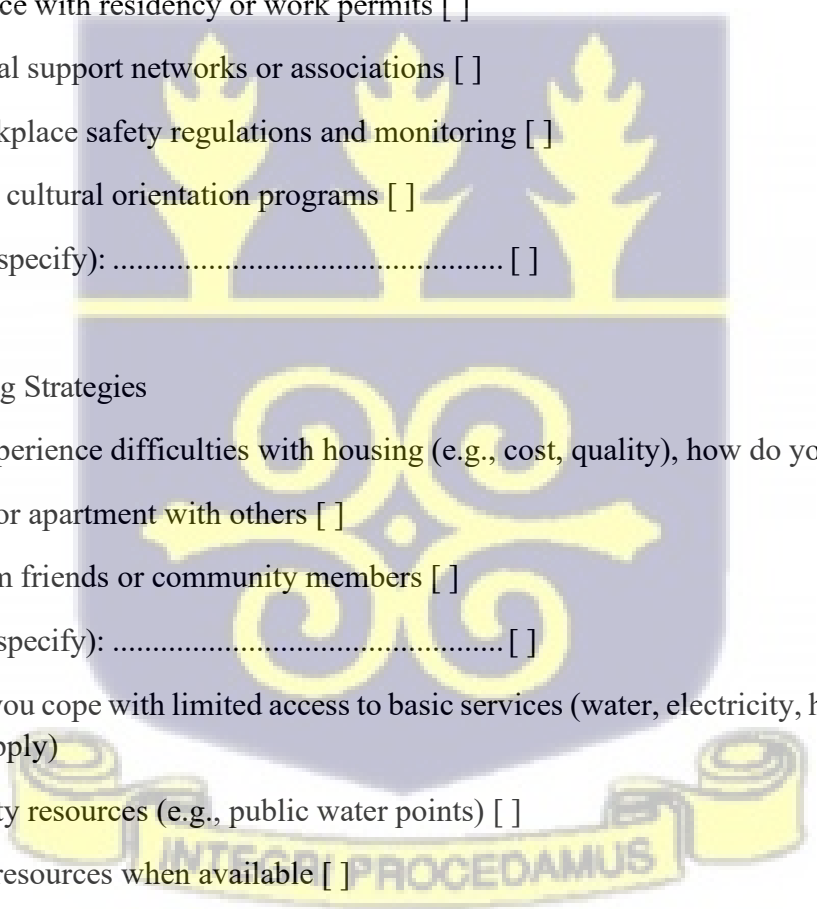
Section F: Coping Strategies

49. If you experience difficulties with housing (e.g., cost, quality), how do you cope?

- a) Share a room or apartment with others [ ]
- d) Seek help from friends or community members [ ]
- e) Other (please specify): ..... [ ]

50. How do you cope with limited access to basic services (water, electricity, healthcare, etc.)? (Select all that apply)

- a) Use community resources (e.g., public water points) [ ]
- b) Save or store resources when available [ ]
- c) Seek temporary support from friends or neighbors [ ]
- d) Delay non-urgent services [ ]
- e) Other (please specify): ..... [ ]



51. If you face discrimination or unfair treatment at work, how do you respond?

- a) Ignore it and continue working [ ]
- b) Discuss it with other colleagues [ ]
- c) Report it to a supervisor or manager [ ]
- d) Seek support from community or migrant associations [ ]
- e) Other (please specify): ..... [ ]

Thank you



## APPENDIX B

### INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR EXPERIENCED MIGRANTS

#### Section A: Social Networks and Support

1. Can you describe the types of social networks that exist among Togolese migrants in the construction sector?
2. How do these networks function on a daily basis (e.g., for finding jobs, emotional support)?
3. What are the challenges in maintaining these networks?
4. What role do you, as a leader, play in supporting newly arrived migrants?
5. How do you help migrants adjust to life in Ghana?
6. What resources do you provide or connect them with?

#### Section B: Living Conditions

7. How would you describe the living conditions of most Togolese migrants you know?
8. What are the most common housing arrangements?
9. What basic services do they lack?
10. How do these conditions affect their health and well-being?

#### Section C: Challenges and Opportunities

11. What are the most significant challenges Togolese migrants face in the construction sector?
12. Do they face challenges in getting fair wages or good working conditions? o How do their living conditions affect their ability to work?
13. Are there any opportunities for improvement in their working or living conditions?
14. What changes do you think would have the most immediate impact?
15. What role can community leaders play in advocating for better conditions

## APPENDIX C

### INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SITE MANAGERS AND FOREMEN

1. How significant is the role of Togolese migrant workers in your workforce?
2. What skills do they bring that are essential to your projects?
3. How do they compare with other workers in terms of work ethic, skills, or experience?
4. What is your company's policy regarding the provision of housing or other support for migrant workers?
5. How do you address safety concerns for your workers, particularly those who might be unfamiliar with local regulations?
6. What kind of support, if any, do you offer to migrant workers in terms of health services or insurance?
7. How would you describe the overall working environment for Togolese migrants in your company?
8. Are there any cultural or language barriers that affect communication or productivity?
9. What are the main challenges you observe facing Togolese migrant workers in the construction industry?
10. Are these challenges specific to their migrant status, or do they also apply to local workers?
11. What opportunities exist for Togolese migrants to improve their skills or advance their careers within the construction sector?
12. What, in your opinion, can be done to improve the living and working conditions of Togolese migrant workers?
13. How could companies better integrate migrant workers into the formal labor system to ensure they receive fair wages and benefits?
14. Do you have any other suggestions or ideas on how to create a more equitable and productive working environment for migrant labor in Ghana's construction sector?

