GMG

Global Migration Group

MAINSTREAMING MIGRATION *into*
DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

A handbook for policy-makers and practitioners

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The Global Migration Group (GMG) is an inter-agency group bringing together heads of agencies to promote the wider application of all relevant international and regional instruments and norms relating to migration, and to encourage the adoption of more coherent, comprehensive and better coordinated approaches to the issue of international migration. The GMG is particularly concerned with improving the overall effectiveness of its members and other stakeholders in capitalizing upon the opportunities and responding to the challenges presented by international migration.

The GMG consists of 16 organizations that are actively involved in international migration and related issues:

- International Labour Organization
- International Organization for Migration
- Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
- United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
- United Nations Development Programme
- United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
- United Nations Population Fund
- United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
- United Nations Children's Fund
- United Nations Institute for Training & Research
- United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
- World Bank
- UN Regional Commissions

New members since September 2010:

- United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) part of UN Women
- World Health Organization (WHO)

Acknowledgements

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[1] Having joined in September 2010, the GMG's most recent members, UNIFEM part of UN Women and WHO, were not part of the deliberations on the handbook.

Preface

While discussions of migration and development have become more prominent in recent years, policy and programming remain embryonic. This handbook responds to the gap between talk and action, acting as a step-by-step guide for policymakers, giving practical meaning to the concept of Migration and Development. The handbook does not prescribe a uniform policy or programme, but rather provides guidance, ideas and suggestions so countries can tailor-make an approach useful in their own context.

The primary target audiences for this handbook are those interested in or responsible for facilitating a strategy for integrating migration into development planning processes of developing countries. This will include national government officials from different departments (e.g., ministries of labour, migration, health), local and regional authorities, and the officials from international, regional and national organisations who are supporting this process (including United Nations agencies, intergovernmental agencies, donors, private sector, civil society and academia). The background information and resources included in this handbook can also be used for more general teaching and learning on migration and development issues by other stakeholders.

The handbook is primarily concerned with international migration, and with national development processes and instruments in developing countries. This focus means that it does not place much emphasis on internal migration[2] nor on regional development planning. It also does not provide detailed guidance on mainstreaming migration and development concerns into policies of industrialized countries, although it does outline a number of steps industrialized countries can undertake to better integrate migration and development policies. Policy advice on these linked but separate issues are also available from other complementary sources.

The handbook comprises three main parts:

- **Migration and development overview** – This section gives an overview of how migration and development are linked, the potential benefits of mainstreaming migration into development, and the current state of play as regards the inclusion of migration issues into development planning around the world.

- **Processes for mainstreaming migration into development planning** – This section describes the institutional structures and policy frameworks that need to be put in place to effectively integrate migration into the development planning cycle. This section will be of use to those interested in embarking on a migration mainstreaming process.

- **Compilation of migration and development programme experiences** – This section provides a compilation of programme ideas showing how migration can be used to benefit development in a practical way, through programmes, interventions and projects. This section is intended to be a reference section prompting ideas and providing inspiration for action.

The annexes contain supplemental reference material, organised as follows:

Annex A   Acronyms and glossary

Annex B   Tools (this annex contains several tools that can be used for implementing a migration
               mainstreaming strategy)

Annex C   Checklists for mainstreaming migration into sectoral programmes

Annex D   List of references for further reading

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[2] Although internal movement may be touched upon when it is directly influenced by or influences international movements. For example, significant international flows of skilled workers from urban areas can encourage internal migration from rural areas to cities to fill job opportunities resulting from the departure of these workers abroad. Alternatively, the impact of the mass arrival of refugees in a particular locality, might place pressures on resources and encourage the local inhabitants to move to another region in the country.

It is hoped the handbook can make a number of unique contributions. First, it should be beneficial to those unfamiliar with a mainstreaming process, as it sets out in some detail how to carry out this type of exercise – the steps to take and what to expect.

Second, it should be useful for those experienced in mainstreaming, as it provides a distinctive 'migration and development' perspective. It provides those who may be new to these issues with background on how migration and development are linked and what their mutual impacts might be, and provides many practical examples of the sorts of policies other governments have put in place to improve migration's development impacts.

Third, it offers a different perspective by making clear that mainstreaming migration is different from mainstreaming other issues. Fundamentally this is because migration is about human beings, rather than financial resources or other kinds of assets. This means special attention must be paid to the particularities of the different social groups involved (women, children, elderly, disabled, youth, etc.), the range of situations in which they find themselves (e.g., forced vs. voluntary migrants, regular vs. irregular migrants, southern vs. northern destinations), and their needs and aspirations.

It also means it is vital that migrants' human rights are placed at the centre of any migration mainstreaming exercise. Migrants cannot be treated like any other resource to be deployed at the will of the government, but must be recognized as individuals with rights that must be respected and protected.

For readers with a background in migration and development issues and some familiarity with mainstreaming, the handbook may reinforce the fundamentally human nature of migration, and help conduct a mainstreaming process that brings these implications to the fore.

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ANNEXES

UN Photo/P Sudhakaran

Migration and development overview

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PART 1: Migration and development overview

This part of the handbook discusses basic definitions of migration and development and outlines the current state of knowledge about linkages between them. It is hoped to serve two purposes. First, it is intended as a useful introduction to migration and development issues for those unfamiliar with the topic. Second, it is designed to provide sufficient context on how migration affects development, and vice versa, to help policymakers think through which kinds of policy interventions are most likely to improve outcomes. It is not, however, an in-depth or academic summary of knowledge on migration and development. For detailed migration and development literature, other sources will be more useful[3], some of which are referenced within the handbook.

1.1 Definitions of international migration and development

There is no universally agreed upon definition of 'migration', just as there is no clear, agreed definition of 'development'. Nonetheless, to create a meaningful strategy to address migration and development some basic working notions of 'international migration,' 'development' and 'poverty reduction' must be identified. This handbook strives to use terms that reflect internationally accepted approaches[4], are sufficiently broad to capture the many perspectives on these topics, and reflect the full range of interactions between migration and development. It avoids, however, conducting a full review or critique of

various theories and instruments of development[5].

This handbook uses the 1998 United Nations recommendation to define a **migrant** as any person who changes his or her country of usual residence. Thus, **international migration** includes movements of many kinds, such as people leaving their country of origin as economic migrants, refugees and family members of migrants.

In this handbook **development** is defined as a process of improving the overall quality of life of a group of people, and in particular expanding the range of opportunities open to them. This definition is broader than some traditional notions of development that are primarily concerned with economic growth and associated statistics like gross domestic product (GDP), gross national income (GNI), and incomes of individuals and families.

By focusing on quality of life and opportunities a 'human development' perspective is taken instead. Pursuing human development means pursuing all avenues to improve a person's opportunities and freedoms[6] – whether income or non-income related. This can include improvements to people's lives such as expanded access to social services, reduced vulnerability to risk, or increased political participation. A human development approach also places a greater focus on protecting people's human rights – political, social and economic (for analysis of the various interplays among migration, rights and development, see the box to the right).

Human development sets economic measures of development in context, taking the approach that these can be an important – even critical – part of development, but only a part nonetheless. Many developing countries pay partic-

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3   Refer for example to the OECD Development Centre website, which offers a number of policy briefs and working papers on migration and development policy coherence in industrialized countries: www.oecd.org/docum ent/39/0,3343,en_2649_33935_36427431_1_1_1_1,00.html#Events

4   Efforts to promote development over several decades have given rise to a global agenda for development which includes the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) agreed by world leaders in 2000 as well as country-level frameworks such as poverty reduction strategy papers (PRSP) and sector-wide approaches (SWAP). Increasing calls for more country owner-ship and better coherence in development assistance led to the 2005 Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness and the 2008 Accra Agenda for Action. The approach taken here is in line with these commitments.

5   For further reading on different concepts of development, consult the list of references in Annex D.

6   Sometimes termed 'capabilities.'

Migration, development and human rights: some interplays

- All persons, irrespective of their nationality and immigration status, are entitled to enjoy protection of their human and labour rights.

- A rights-based policy gives migrants an opportunity to be economically productive and to enrich their social lives.

- Equal protection of human rights for migrants and citizens enhances social cohesion and integration.

- Enjoyment of human rights enhances the capacity of migrants to contribute to their home and host society.

- Migrant's contributions to their country of origin can enhance the ability of people left behind to access their rights (e.g., remittances sent back which are used for education).

- Protection of human rights may reduce pressure to emigrate, as the violation of rights can create situations of poverty, poor governance, conflict, etc., all of which can provoke movement.

- Enforcement of labour standards in destination countries may curb the demand for irregular migrant workers who are at particular risk of human rights violations.

ular attention to 'Pro-Poor policies' in their national development strategies. Pro-Poor policies are an approach to development that puts poverty reduction and the needs and capabilities of those who have the least in society first. This report also takes a pro-poor perspective.

1.2 Linkages between international migration and development

The focus of this handbook is on the linkages between these two concepts – international migration and human development. It examines how international migration is related to development on a number of different levels – the development of the migrants themselves, the development of their households, and the development of the communities and countries they leave and the communities and countries they join[7].

There are a range of external factors which affect an individual's motivation to move, including:

Economic factors: The growing gap in living standards and wages between countries acts as a magnet (referred to as a "pull factor"), drawing migrants towards countries with higher standards of living. Many studies have found the differences in economic living standards to be powerful motivators for international migration, and the search for employment and decent work is particularly important in driving migration. Labour market demands and the phenomenon of global care chains offer a good illustration of how the demand for domestic helpers and child care services in industrialized countries is met through international migration of women from developing countries. In turn, families' responsibilities of the women who migrated are often filled by internal migrant women or women in family circles with various implications for socio-economic development.

Governance and public services: Poor governance, corruption, and a lack of quality education and health services can motivate international migration in their own right. They can also be seen as factors which create a difficult economic climate, and as such, tackling these issues can potentially have an even greater impact on stemming emigration as actions focused specifically on economic policies or outcomes.

Social and political freedoms: The absence of personal freedom (e.g., thought, religion) can motivate migration, as can discrimination, based on race, ethnicity, gender, religion or other grounds.

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[7] Though the handbook gives less emphasis to effects on the countries that migrants join when those are industrialized countries, as discussed in section 1.

Demographic imbalances: Demographic imbalances can take various forms, including a labour supply surplus or labour shortages, due to a change in the rate of natural increase in population. Labour surpluses can create under-employment and place pressures on land, both of which can create incentives to migrate. On the other hand, the aging population in most developed industrialized countries considerably reinforces demand for foreign workers.

Conflict: The number of refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) receiving protection or assistance from UNHCR was 10.5 and 14.4 million respectively at the end of 2008[8]. Conflicts can be ethnic and/or religious, but also nurtured by economic inequality or result from a competition for natural resources.

Environmental factors: The number of people moving as a result of environmental factors is on the rise. Such factors are related to events and processes such as floods, soil and coastal erosion, and droughts, some of which may be related to climate change, but can also include earthquakes and industrial accidents, for example. Population movements induced by environmental factors tend to be predominantly internal.

Transnational networks: The emergence of organized migrant communities in destination countries constitutes a social and cultural 'pull factor'. The costs of migration decrease with the existence of a network abroad, which helps migrants to find out about opportunities and provides support upon arrival. A network of family members abroad can also contribute to migration as it provides a route through family reunion. Family reunion represents the bulk of the legal migration flows in many industrialized countries. For these reasons migration is sometimes described as a self-perpetuating process.

Underlying many of these triggers for movement – such as lack of social and economic freedoms, conflict, governance, etc. – is a profound failure to ensure respect for human rights. Addressing rights violations should therefore remove many of the motivations which cause people to feel they have to migrate.

Evidence suggests migration can be a powerful driver of development both for migrants and their households. The development impacts of migration at a more aggregate,

community or national level tend to be more tangible, both at origin and destination, when migration flows concern a large share of a community's or a country's population (the latter being the case in some small island states, for example), or if immigration or emigration movements are very concentrated in a particular region.

Overall, when migration is actively chosen by the migrant, their own incomes tend to rise as a result of moving and their opportunities expand in other ways[9] (e.g., they learn new skills, and migration can lead some women to take on new roles and responsibilities which can have an important empowering effect). Moreover, freely chosen migration represents the putting into practice of a human right - the right to emigrate, to choose to leave one's country of origin[10]. Though not every impact is positive (for example many migrants may suffer some social dislocation on arrival in a new country), 'voluntary' migration usually benefits the migrant's own development in both economic and social dimensions. Turning to the households they have relationships with (which they left behind when they migrated, which they remit to, etc.) - the transfers they make to these households tend to improve lives there too. (The nature of these transfers is discussed in further detail in the box below). Such transfers may result in higher incomes for households left behind, meaning more resources for spending on health, education, housing, etc. They may also provide the households with other kinds of benefits, such as new ideas and knowledge. These transfers are also important when seen through a human rights lens, as they can provide the resources – financial and non-financial – for the attainment of rights (such as access to education, healthcare, etc.).

Not all the impacts on households are positive – for example there may be damaging effects of migration on children left behind in a number of cases – but when migration is voluntarily chosen the net effect tends to be positive.

This should not be surprising because when migrants choose to migrate, they do so precisely because they expect positive results for themselves and their families[11].

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[8] Source: UNHCR, Global Trends at www.unhcr.org/4a375c426.html.

[9] For example, see Chappell et al. 'Development on the Move: Measuring and Optimising Migration's Economic and Social Impacts,' 2010.

[10] This does not equate to a right to immigrate to any particular country – which countries have a sovereign right to make decisions over. However, every person should be allowed to leave their place of origin.

[11] Much research has shown that migration tends to be a household decision, rather than solely an individual one.

Those expectations may be wrong of course (for example, because of a lack of information on what life will really be like as a migrant) but the fact that migration very often creates self-perpetuating 'chains' of migrants, suggests, in most cases, that the gap between expectations and reality is not so large as to make migration undesirable.

While most of the 'transfers' migrants make back to their countries of origin are very much private matters, focused on individuals and households, they nonetheless have implications at a wider level. For example, remittances sent from a migrant to their family may allow that family to invest in a new home, thereby boosting employment in the construction sector in that locality. Or a person who returns back to their country of origin after studying abroad brings back skills with them that will benefit the wider community.

Not all of migration's effects on communities and nations are positive, however. Evidence suggests it is at this 'level' that impacts are most mixed. (Again, this is to be expected as most migrants do not take these wider effects into account when they make their decision to move). There are fears, for example, that migration can drive inflation (because remittances boost spending power without increasing productivity) or harm important parts of the economy and society (such as health-care, education, key economic sectors, etc.) through 'brain drain'. Small developing countries in particular have concerns in this area, as they are disproportionally affected by this form of emigration. Brain drain's development impacts are more complex than is often thought, as the box below explains.

Is it brain drain or a development gain?

Skilled migration is often referred to as 'brain drain' and is one of the major concerns policymakers have about migration. The worry tends to be that brain drain reduces a country's stock of skilled people, which in turn harms the provision of public services, as well as depriving the private sector of an important resource. It is important, however, to carefully dissect its effects, as recent research has suggested that while some brain drain may be damaging, other kinds may not be – and in some cases it may even be a driver of development.

Assessing the effects of brain drain is difficult for several reasons. First, it cannot be assumed that the emigration of a certain number of skilled people is equal to the effect that migration has had on that country's stock of skills. This is because alongside emigration there is also the possibility that emigration will be matched, partly or fully, by immigration and return – including potentially by the return of people who have more skills than they had when they departed, because they gained qualifications and experiences abroad.

In addition an important role can be played by remittances, because remittances often increase spending on education, boosting skill stocks. And last, but not least, incentives can also play a role. Incentive effects mean that if skilled people are more able to migrate, and migration is desirable, then the existence of skilled emigration may give people incentives to gain skills in the first place.

Current evidence suggests that – while there is very significant differentiation between countries, immigration's contribution to skill stocks is probably fairly small in most cases, and while return seems to usually make a larger contribution, in many places even the combination of the two may not be enough to counteract original levels of departure.

Evidence on remittances and skills is not dissimilar, being highly diverse across countries. But as a general rule it suggests that remittances do add somewhat to a country's stock of skills, however not (in most cases) counteracting the effects of emigration.

The evidence on incentives is somewhat different. Research has produced two key findings. First, up to a certain level brain drain has positive impacts on skill stocks – in other words more people decide to gain skills (inspired by those leaving the country through brain drain) than the numbers of people actually departing. Second, above a certain level brain drain *may be* damaging . The key is understanding where the line between benefit and harm is drawn. Recent evidence suggests that, for the poorest countries at least, where brain drain is below five per cent of the country's population the nation may benefit from having more skilled people

Brain drain or development gain *(continued)*

abroad. These papers suggest that in a beneficial scenario for the country of origin, somewhere between ten and 20 per cent of the population live abroad; however when the proportion rises above 30 per cent or so, then harm may be taking place, and increasingly so as brain drain rises above that threshold. Context matters, however, so these results cannot be taken as applicable everywhere. They do suggest though that brain drain is not *necessarily* damaging to skill stocks.

We now turn to other issues to be taken into account to understand brain drain's implications on development.

First, reduced skill stocks aren't necessarily harmful to development in their countries of origin. Often the theory used to consider brain drain's impacts assumes the emigrant was previously doing something socially useful – such as working as a nurse – and the impact of their departure, for example, is the number of injections they would have given. But this thinking may be misleading. Recent research has suggested that in many countries there are important barriers to skills being deployed at home in a valuable way, such as:

- Skilled people may be unemployed or working in jobs that do not require their skills.

- The skilled tend to concentrate in urban areas, so those in rural areas – who include many of the poorest – may still lack access to their skills.

- In a number of countries, those with skills useful in public services (like doctors and nurses) appear to find the private sector more attractive (which the poorest cannot usually afford).

- Skilled people's effectiveness may be limited by a lack of other tools they need to do their job properly – for example, a nurse can only give tens of vaccinations a day if she has the vaccines and sterilised needles. Evidence from many countries suggests that skilled people often lack the inputs required for them to be effective.

The extent to which these barriers together limit the contributions of skilled workers will vary across countries, but the underlying point is –that context is crucial when calculating contributions of skilled people to development. And if they weren't able to contribute much in their place of origin, then the impact of their emigration will be much less.

Second, most brain drain analyses focus on development impacts in the country of origin. However, as set out earlier, development impacts for migrants themselves should not be discounted. If migrants' lives improve as a result, if their capabilities are expanded and their rights given greater respect, then this constitutes a boost to development.

This analysis suggests that the relationship between brain drain, skills and development is complex. Brain drain does appear in some circumstances to be damaging to development. However, it is also important that policymakers don't assume it is harmful per se, as it actually may be benefiting the migrants while creating incentives for others to increase their skills. A careful diagnosis is required before action.

The nature of migration's developmental effects is far from being set in stone (as the box on brain drain makes clear). In fact, conversely, the effects vary greatly depending on the context in which they take place. The important aspects of this context include:

- economic, social and political circumstances (in the country of origin and destination) in which migration takes place; whether migration is to the South or the North appears to be significant;

- factors influencing the decision to leave – including critically whether the move was voluntary or not (if not voluntary, little of the above applies, as it is based on theories and evidence around voluntary migration); and

- patterns of migration.

Important dimensions of patterns of movement include:

a. types of movements, be they permanent, temporary, etc.;

b. status of the migrants (regular or irregular);

c. extent to which migrants' rights are protected;

d. planned or unplanned nature of the flows;

e. whether migrants move with their families or alone, and the circumstances of household members left behind (e.g., arrangements made for the care of children);

f. numbers in question (migration is a different phenomenon when it concerns a small percentage of a population moving over a lengthy period of time as compared to a mass movement of people over a short period of time); and

g. socio-economic background of the migrants and gender, age, and marital status. Demographic and socio-economic profiles of migrants have important implications for development in countries of origin and destination as they affect the labour market (e.g., skilled vs. unskilled workers); the population structure (e.g., young vs. old people, married vs. single migrants); the need for and provision of services (e.g., migrant flows may include children who require education, or care workers who supply health services), etc.

Gender, migration and development

Within the complex interrelationship between migration and development, gender is an important variable to consider. Within households, community structures and in the public sphere of the state, men and women often have unequal access to information on migration, employment, financial and social services, and integration or reintegration assistance.

Migration can lead to cultural changes, shifting gender roles and family structures, and often entails different degrees of vulnerability and risk of abuse for men and women.

Gender analysis is important for understanding the different conditions, motivations for and impacts of migration of men and women, boys and girls. Male and female migrants can show different attitudes, pursue different strategies and enhance the development potential of migration in different ways.

Gender is also an important lens for analyzing labour migration, since some economic sectors attract more female workers (for instance, the garment industry, manufacturing and nursing), while others tend to draw more male workers (for example, construction). Thus, gendered labour demands influence who will migrate and under what conditions.

1.3 Benefits of mainstreaming migration into development

As seen above, both positive and negative interactions between migration and development can take place, but neither should be taken for granted. The nature of the migration, and the context in which it takes place, are vital, making it important that policymakers intervene to shape the context and harness migration's beneficial effects and mitigate its negative consequences. Ideally, given the complex nature of the interrelationship between migration and development, these interventions are best undertaken in a systematic and comprehensive way.

The most appropriate way to ensure a systematic approach is to mainstream migration and development (M&D) issues into country level planning frameworks. Country development planning frameworks (such as PRSPs) are now seen as the cornerstone for concrete progress in development. They allow for the translation of global objectives (e.g., the MDGs) to the national level, the design of strategies responding to the needs and context of particular countries, and a more efficient

Children, development and migration

Migration has both positive and negative implications for the development of children and society as a whole. Migration affects children in a number of ways: when they migrate (alone or accompanied by parents or family members), are left behind by migrant parents, or are born to migrant parents in countries of destination. While migration offers children and families opportunities to improve their wellbeing, it can also create serious risks for those moving as well as those staying behind.

Migrant children, adolescents and women are particularly vulnerable to trafficking, abuse and exploitation during the migration process. Migrant children can face discrimination and social marginalization, and may also have difficulty accessing education, health and other social services, especially in cases of irregular migration. In countries of origin, remittances sent home by migrants provide additional resources for the education and health of children left behind; however, parental absence and increased household burdens can also have detrimental effects. Studies suggest that children and adolescents left behind are at greater risk for drug abuse, teenage pregnancy, psychosocial dysfunction and criminal behaviour.

Migration and development policies must take into account the special needs and vulnerabilities of children and adolescents affected by migration. Policies must aim to protect children's rights and ensure access to education, health, social protection and other basic services for all children, regardless of migration status.

allocation of aid, as the resources provided by different donors are pooled to meet nationally-defined priorities.

Mainstreaming migration in development planning may be defined as the process of assessing the implications of migration on any action (or goals) planned in a development and poverty reduction strategy. This means mainstreaming M&D concerns into legislation, policies and programmes at all levels (local, national and, if applicable, regional). It also means integrating M&D concerns at all stages of development planning, including design, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation.

The advantages of taking such an approach to migration and development policy are numerous. Mainstreaming:

- ensures migration is seen as an issue affecting all aspects of human development – including human rights;

- allows migration to be embedded in the broader development strategy, fostering a coherent approach rather than piecemeal, uncoordinated actions. Through enhanced coordination among government departments and other governance institutions policies are more likely to be successful;

- helps identify gaps in existing legislative and policy

frameworks, and prompts the inclusion of relevant international instruments and conventions; and

- facilitates funding and technical assistance for migration-related activities through mobilisation of resources from international partners for development plans.

1.4   The '3Ts' approach

International migration's impacts occur as a result of three different kinds of transfer, each of which effect development in different ways. This handbook calls these three kinds of transfers 'the 3Ts'.

- The first is the transfer of people – migration itself (T1). This comprises immigration, emigration and return.

- The second is the transfer of know-how and knowledge (T2): People, as they move, take with them ideas and knowledge and acquire new skills and ideas while abroad. This 'knowledge capital' can circulate between the home and host countries of migrants through social networks.

- The third is the transfer of financial assets (T3), which may take various forms: salaries, savings and remittances, as well as investment.

Transfers of types 2 and 3 will also come from those who are not migrants themselves but are members of the diaspora.

The impacts of the 3Ts can be both positive and negative. For example:

- Under T1, foreign employment can reduce unemployment in the home country, while helping to fill a possible labour shortage in the destination country. On the other hand, it can create family disruption in the home country, or may place strains upon basic services and infrastructure in destination countries due to an increase in the population.

- Under T2, migrants may transmit certain attitudes or values back to the households and communities they have left behind. These may be positive – for example placing increased emphasis on health or education, or they may be negative – for example contributing ideas which spur discord or conflict along ethnic or national lines.

- Under T3, migration and remittances sent back home can be a livelihood strategy for migrants and their families left behind. On the other hand, remittance inflows can fuel inflation and increase inequalities between households benefiting from remittances and those that do not.

It should be noted that all three transfers are inherently interlinked, and in particular that T2 and T3 are the result of T1 – knowledge and funds move only because people have moved. Governments wishing to capitalize on T2 and T3 type transfers will also need to seriously consider T1 – migration itself. This means that countries that are interested in increasing remittance receipts need not just look at remittances and the circumstances under which they are received, but also at the conditions under which migrants move, live and work abroad to generate those remittances. Considering migration governance as an integral part of any migration and development strategy is thus essential. This perspective leads to the adoption of a human-rights based approach.

1.5 Current status of mainstreaming migration

Despite its potential advantages, migration is rarely acknowledged in development planning tools, and even when links are made they tend to remain at a conceptual rather than practical level. Some poverty reduction strategy papers refer to the benefits of remittances, while others refer to migration in a more negative light, e.g., human trafficking, the loss of skilled professionals, health-related problems and the spread of disease, increased poverty and problems with sanitation, and criminality. Policy measures linking migration with development tend towards law enforcement activities (curbing irregular migration and trafficking and strengthening immigration and customs services) rather than harnessing beneficial effects such as remittances. Furthermore, when the benefits of migration are recognised, the focus tends to be on remittances and their associated economic effects. The important potential migration has to improve development outcomes in a wider sense, including in social and cultural dimensions, tends to receive little attention.

There are many reasons why migration has not featured in development plans to date in a concrete and/or comprehensive manner. These include:

- Lack of data and indicators on migration is a major constraint in many countries.

- Lack of capacity, expertise and/or financial resources to understand and address these linkages, especially beyond economic dimensions. There is a particular lack of knowledge of the interlinkages between demographic trends and conditions and other economic and social variables (such as the availability of food and natural resources, health – particularly sexual and reproductive health, employment, housing, the status of women, etc.).

- Migration is a fragmented portfolio, often falling under the responsibility of various government departments (e.g., ministries of finance, interior, labour, migration, health, foreign affairs). This may mean the issue falls through the cracks or becomes the subject of rivalry between departments. The converse situation, in which responsibilities for migration are assigned to just one government department, can bring its own set of problems if migration is dealt with from a one-dimensional perspective.

- The issue may not feature prominently in donor priorities making it difficult to mobilize funding.

This may particularly be the case for programmes that address both migration and development, and not just migration.

- Migration is a complex cross-cutting issue which makes it difficult to formulate a coherent and common position. It can be both conceptually challenging and involve political challenges, bringing together stakeholders with markedly different interests.

- Lack of cooperation and dialogue between countries of origin and destination on migration and development issues.

- Migration is a politically sensitive issue, often leading to a focus on border management and control rather than development.

- The multiplicity of development planning tools used by developing countries can complicate matters. Most countries employ several poverty reduction/development frameworks, with different stakeholders, agendas, time frames and sectoral and geographical scopes.

The guidance provided here should assist in navigating some of these constraints. Some will remain challenging, however, and will require a pragmatic but determined approach. Such an approach will require drawing on the best and widest possible store of information and resources available to integrate migration into development plans, but also recognise that the mainstreaming exercise will never be perfect.

Excerpt from Senegal's PRSP referencing migration

4.1.5.5. Managing and promoting Senegalese expatriates

201. Senegal has a very sizeable colony of persons residing outside the country and playing an important role by making financial transfers and private and collective investments, thereby contributing to the fight against hunger, promoting access to social services, and the fight against poverty within the country. The Senegalese Expatriate Ministry estimates that more than two million Senegalese are living abroad. Their financial transfers via official channels are calculated at more than CFAF 300 billion yearly, representing from 15 to 65 percent of the migrant's income and 30 to 80 percent of the household budgets of families remaining in country, depending on the area. However, Senegal continues to take limited advantage of the resources and potential of this diaspora, owing to multiple constraints, including:

(i)   lack of accurate knowledge regarding the geographic, professional and socioeconomic characteristics of the diaspora;

(ii) lack of organization both on the part of Senegal's authorities and on the part of the migrants, except for efforts made by expatriate associations and members of fraternities in the host countries;

(iii) lack of information on the part of Senegalese living abroad regarding business organizations, procedures and opportunities.

202. With a view to lifting these constraints and involving expatriate Senegalese in socioeconomic development, the following priority objectives will be pursued: (i) put in place a high-performance system to manage and track the Senegalese population living abroad; (ii) establish a policy of involving expatriate Senegalese in development efforts. To those ends, the government will draw up a sectoral policy letter and programs concerned with: (i) information on profitable niche markets, housing, financing possibilities, etc.; (ii) training, support, assistance and follow-up; and (iii) social security.

How to mainstream migration into development planning
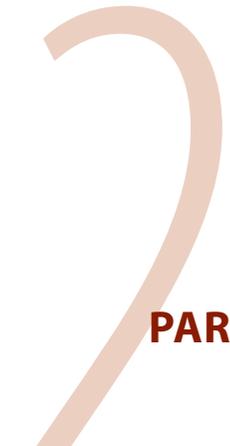
PART 2: How to mainstream migration into development planning

2.1 Overview

2.1.1. Institutional and policy framework

Countries wishing to undertake a migration mainstreaming exercise will differ in terms of their context, needs, national development frameworks (e.g., Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF), Sector Wide Approaches (SWAP), expertise and financial capacity. Nonetheless, in most situations a mainstreaming process will require the following two key institutional components:

a) An institutional migration and development structure

An organisational, coordination and consultation mechanism is needed for overseeing the entire migration mainstreaming process. It will define, decide, implement and monitor M&D activities and also engage those who have a stake in the issue – government agencies, international donors, civil society, trade unions, employers' organizations, research institutions, etc. The structure is ultimately responsible to the national government, that must decide whether the process is worth engaging in, decide its strategic priorities and ensure it meets overarching development goals, including respect for and protection of human rights.

b) A national plan of action on migration and development

This policy document will set out a roadmap showing how a country intends to go about mainstreaming migration into development planning. It will describe issues to be addressed, strategic goals and priorities, stakeholders, programme/intervention areas, institutional structure, consultative processes, etc. This document will be the main repository and institutional record of the approach being taken.

The following pages will show how an institutional M&D structure and an M&D National Plan of Action can be developed.

It is crucial to be clear upfront about how migration can be mainstreamed and what it is mainstreamed into. There are two broad approaches:

a) Ideally, the migration mainstreaming exercise would take place when national development plans or PRSP strategies are being formulated. This way, migration can be fully integrated into the meetings, consultations, decisions and documentation of the development planning process itself. If there is a national development plan being formulated, it is important to try to mainstream M&D issues into it, as integration into existing high level processes with strong political support will bode well for implementation and financing.

b) It may not always be possible to take the above approach. Development plans may already be in place, or for various reasons it may not be feasible to fully integrate migration into a development planning process. In such cases, the migration mainstreaming exercise will be carried out as a separate initiative. Even in these situations, it is important for the migration mainstreaming activities to mirror the broader process, following the concepts and plans being developed there, so that M&D actions have the best possible chance of fitting within the wider agenda.

If the second approach is taken initially, when the next round of national planning occurs (e.g., the design of the next PRSP), then migration could be mainstreamed into the process at that stage.

2.1.2 Mainstreaming processes as part of development planning

Development planning generally goes through the following stages: situation assessment and analysis; identification of strategic goals and priorities; action/programme planning; funding and capacity development; implementation; evaluation and monitoring. This cycle is depicted in the diagram below.

Diagram: Stages of Development Planning

Main components of poverty reduction development strategies
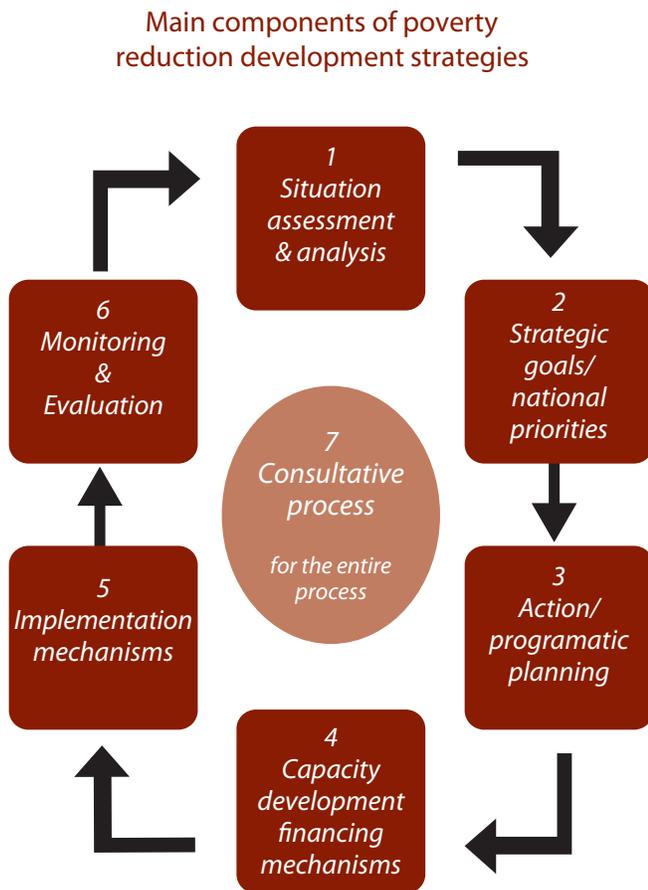
At all stages there is one constant that must be in place–widespread consultation.

The stages may have different names in different planning mechanisms, but essentially the process involves moving through phases of preparation, implementation, and reflection. If migration is to be effectively mainstreamed, it needs to be considered at each of these stages of development planning. This handbook is therefore organised according to the stages of the development planning cycle to show how migration fits at each stage.

The stages do overlap, however, and so those in charge of the mainstreaming process need to be aware of feedback loops, and not try to implement them in any strict order. For example, an awareness of the process that may be used for monitoring and evaluation is important when planning programmes and actions, as the actions selected must be able to be monitored and evaluated. Similarly, the main capacity development strategy is found in the middle stages of the process cycle, but capacity development is likely to be needed in earlier phases of the process too. Mainstreaming exercises therefore work most effectively when the process is seen as iterative, rather than sequential.

At all stages there is one constant that must be in place – widespread consultation. For a mainstreaming exercise to be successful and sustainable, it needs to enjoy broad national ownership, and should involve government, civil society, donors/development partners, parliamentarians, academics, migrants (including importantly vulnerable groups of migrants such as the poorest, irregular migrants, children and certain categories of women), diaspora associations, the private sector, etc.

Participation of stakeholders can be at different levels: some may be involved in broader development planning consultations, others may be convened in working groups focusing on M&D specifically. The key is to

develop a process that allows these stakeholders to participate and voice their perspectives.

2.1.3 Conditions for successful mainstreaming

More generally, past experiences with mainstreaming exercises suggest there are six key elements to success. Those initiating or managing a mainstreaming process should ensure the following elements are in place before a mainstreaming exercise begins.

1. **Strong political support at a high level.** This ensures there is sufficient political will to move the M&D agenda forward.

2. **National ownership.** The government must be the lead actor in a mainstreaming process, and government priorities must prevail over the priorities of external actors.

3. **Early involvement of key stakeholders** (such as migrant community groups, diaspora groups, civil society, academics, employers associations and development partners). The aim is to make key stakeholders full and committed partners in the mainstreaming process. Stakeholders can offer different perspectives, new information and data, political and moral support, and funding, among many other resources. All these actors and resources need to be drawn upon if the mainstreaming exercise is to fulfil its potential.

4. **A shared understanding of objectives.** This is important to avoid divergent agendas being pursued. A clear vision, transparency and regular dialogue between stakeholders are keys to establishing and maintaining a unified agenda. It is also vital when identifying priorities to create a limited agenda, and not bury important issues under the details of a complex work plan.

5. **Broad-based participation based on clear roles and responsibilities.** As the process proceeds, it is vital that it is not monopolized by a single government institution, nor ownership confined to a few individuals. Broad participation is necessary. This will be even more successful if the respective roles and responsibilities of the different actors are clearly defined, as this should help to ensure proper follow up.

6. **Keep to timing.** To ensure national ownership, sufficient time should be provided for reflection and consensus-building. It is important to be realistic at the start of the process about how much time will be required for tasks, such as seeking formal endorsements from government, and commissioning and carrying out analytical work. Once the timing of the process has been agreed upon, it is important to keep to the schedule to prevent paralysis. This should ensure that target dates don't start to slip.

Checklist on participation

This illustrative checklist can be helpful when deciding upon arrangements for participation and consultation.

✓ To what extent will civil society and the private sector be involved in the formulation of the Plan of Action on M&D?

✓ How representative will the consultation process be in terms of government actors and actors outside of government? What proportion of stakeholders will represent migration perspectives, development perspectives, and both perspectives?

✓ Will the timing of the consultation process allow feeding into the policy process?

✓ What will be the share of informal outputs generated by the consultation process taken on board at the discretion of policymakers and formal contributions directly incorporated in policy decisions?

✓ Is the participatory process organized to be meaningful for each phase of the strategy development cycle?

✓ Are migrant communities directly and sufficiently involved? Are vulnerable migrant groups, such as women, children and irregular migrants fully represented?

✓ Are there any plans to disseminate information on M&D to the general public in a user friendly format, for example, in local languages and through non-written media (i.e., radio and television?)

When considering a mainstreaming exercise, if planners do not expect that the majority of these preconditions can be met, they should carefully consider whether pursuing one is a good use of precious government time and development resources. It may be better to take a step back and direct efforts into putting the building blocks for success in place, rather than launching a migration mainstreaming process at that point.

2.2 Preparatory activities

2.2.1 Verifying that mainstreaming will add value to national policies

Even if a government is interested in mainstreaming migration into development planning having considered the above 'keys to success', it is important to examine a little further whether this is a worthwhile exercise. Some basic questions can be asked to see if there is a prima facie case for embarking on a mainstreaming process. Note that if the data and statistics needed to make an informed decision are lacking at this point (and may not be disaggregated by sex, which can hinder a gender-sensitive understanding of the situation), the decision will have to be taken based on existing knowledge and assumptions about migration and development linkages[12].

The following questions can help inform a decision regarding whether a process of mainstreaming migration into development planning can add value to national policy-making and action.

- Does the country have large stocks of migrants? Do those stocks comprise both men and women or are they dominated by one sex? This could include immigrants, transit migrants or emigrants (diaspora) currently living abroad. Are only a relatively small proportion of the population affected, directly and indirectly, by migration? What have recent patterns of migration been? Is mi-

gration common? Do migration patterns appear to be changing?

- What sorts of experiences are migrants having? Are migrants' human rights being respected? Does the migration experience affect men and women in the same way?

- Are there sizeable financial transfers or remittances from migrants? Do these represent an important share of GDP?

- Are there any possible effects, positive or negative, of these migration trends, e.g., problems for sectors that use skilled labour (because of 'brain drain'), social/community level changes or tensions, changes in tax revenue, demands on public services?

- Is migration a prominent issue in public or political debates? Is there a sense that the country would benefit from addressing it more effectively?

- Is there political will/interest in harnessing migration for development?

The government should decide after a situation assessment is completed whether a mainstreaming process is warranted. It is important to bear in mind that a mainstreaming exercise would inevitably have costs implications. On the other hand, these may be offset by optimising the positive benefits of migration and the efficiencies in taking a coordinated rather than a piecemeal approach to M&D.

When there is no funding available locally to cover costs of a mainstreaming exercise, it is worth exploring at this stage whether donors are able and willing to provide seed money for setting up the process, e.g., training of staff involved in the process, research, meetings and seminars, procurement of basic equipment, salaries, etc.

The remainder of this section describes the preparatory steps required once a government has decided it has an initial interest in exploring M&D linkages further.

2.2.2 Setting up the core team

A core team, ideally composed of a National Focal Point (NFP) and an Expert Facilitator (EF), can be set up by the government. They will be assisted by a National Migra-

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[12] Lack of data and indicators on migration in many developing countries is a major constraint to mainstream migration into development plans. The Commission on International Migration Data for Development Research and Policy, for instance, cites the non-existence or inaccessibility of "detailed, comparable, disaggregated data on migrant stocks and flows as the greatest obstacle to the formulation of evidence-based policies to maximize the benefits of migration for economic development around the world." [*Migrants Count: Five Steps towards Better Migration Data*, Report of the Commission on International Migration Data for Development Research and Policy, 2009: www.cgdev.org/content/publications/detail/1422146/] On the other hand, countries already collect a wealth of data on foreign citizens but often "fail to take full advantage of this storehouse of knowledge to better understand migration processes."

tion and Development (M&D) Committee, and in some cases, a Support Team. Details of the roles and responsibilities of these different actors are provided in the box on the next page, but at the most basic level.

- The National Focal Point will be charged with leading the mainstreaming process. The NFP will ideally be a high level civil servant with direct responsibility for development or migration policy making.

- The Expert Facilitator should be a senior expert on migration and development, external to the government, who will help the NFP to lead the process.

- The National M&D Committee is the main forum for consultation and decision-making, and includes members from inside and outside government[13].

- If a Support Team is established, it will be made up of national and international experts (as appropriate), who can help facilitate the consultative process and contribute to capacity development activities, as judged appropriate by the government.

As always, and to ensure men's and women's experiences are conveyed to the discussion, all efforts should be made to achieve a gender-balanced team.

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[13] See Annex B7 for a ToR of the National M&D Committee.

On a more detailed level, the roles of the core team are as follows:

The role of the Nation Focal Point

- Coordinate the mainstreaming exercise and ensure it moves forward.

- Build awareness on the migration mainstreaming process and represent and champion the project within government.

- Rally support of key stakeholders outside government and contribute to building national ownership.

- Serve as an intermediary between government and development partners.

- Report to the ministry at the inception of the migration mainstreaming initiative and/or the higher authority under which the mainstreaming process takes place.

The NFP work would be facilitated by secretariat facilities provided by the NFP's administration of origin. Alternatively, a new secretariat may be set up for use by the NFP. This could also, at the discretion of the government, support the National M&D Committee.

The NFP needs to be involved in the Inter-Ministerial Committee and National Consultative Committee meetings.

The role of the Expert Facilitator

With demonstrated knowledge and experience on migration and development issues, the principal role of the EF is to assist the NFP in developing a work programme and to facilitate the mainstreaming process. Ideally, the EF should be associated with both the Inter-Ministerial Committee and National Consultative Committee (see below) because a direct insight will facilitate the EF's work.

The role of the National M&D Committee

The National M&D Committee is comprised of key governmental, private sector and civil society stakeholders. The Committee will be composed of two sub-groups, each with a chair to act as the contact point and to facilitate communication and a close working relationship between them. These two sub-groups are:

(i) *The Inter-Ministerial Committee (IMC)*, which will include senior representatives from the emigration and/or immigration ministry, development, finance, health and education ministries and other line ministries affected or affecting migration in its relationship with development. All pertinent satellite institutions (e.g., PRSP National Committee) will also be included. This group will be in charge of coordinating the government's position and response on M&D.

The IMC may operate at three different levels with different representatives:

- The technical level with senior officials working on policy and programmes. The technical level members will report the results of their work to their respective ministry on a regular basis.

- The data coordination level, focusing on coordinating work for data and statistics enhancement, with representatives from statistics institutions represented.

- The decision making level, where ministers will meet to ensure that decisions are endorsed in accordance with national priorities.

(ii) *The National Consultative Committee (NCC)*, which will include representatives of civil society (including NGOs, migrant and diaspora representatives, human rights associations, etc.) and the private sector (employers' association, trade unions, etc.) and experts from local research institutions. Participation of members of parliament may also be envisaged. The NCC may also include representatives of development partners, or specific coordination structures (e.g., an informal group of donors and international organizations) could be created to link them in.

Depending on the power structure and the way mandates on migration and development are shared among government entities, it may be worth selecting a NFP from one government entity and a chair of the Inter-Ministerial Committee from another. Dividing the roles in this way avoids dominance of the process by a single governmental institution, allowing a broader range of interests to be represented. Conversely, if the NFP chairs the Inter-Ministerial Committee, only one government representative assumes leadership for the process, which lessens the likelihood of stalling the processes due to divergent interests. The latter situation might enable the process to move forward quicker, but risks being less representative.

The role of the Support Team

Assist the NFP and EF in the mainstreaming process, including drafting a situation analysis/assessment report, plan of action, implementation plan, and capacity development activities, as appropriate.

2.2.3 Raising awareness

The first task of the National Focal Point, with assistance from the Expert Facilitator/Support Team/, is to organize awareness-raising activities to bring other government departments, the donor community and other stakeholders on board. Migration's complex and crosscutting nature makes a broad and coordinated approach to mainstreaming vital.

The National Focal Point may convene meetings with representatives from key ministries to ensure a strong buy-in at the highest level of government for carrying forward the mainstreaming exercise. The objectives of these meetings are to:

- inform government representatives of the initiative;

- understand their interest and expectations and take stock of their expertise in migration and/or development issues;

- seek confirmation that the institution will collaborate in the process; and

Zimbabwe migration and development unit

In April 2008, the government of Zimbabwe established an M&D Unit in the Ministry of Economic Planning and Investment Promotion to act as focal point for all M&D issues. The aim was to have a dedicated unit, improving upon the previous situation in which officials assigned to this portfolio had many other responsibilities.

The terms of reference of the M&D Unit include:

- formulate/implement/monitor national M&D policy, legal and institutional framework;
- facilitate mainstreaming of migration policy and practice in Zimbabwe's national and sectoral development plans (for example, Zimbabwe Economic Development Strategy, national budgets, youth policies, Poverty Assessment Study Survey III, Millennium Development Goals, and national censuses and surveys);
- identify and commission research on M&D;
- identify and engage diasporas for investment and development initiatives in Zimbabwe;
- formalize and harness the positive impact of labour migration for national socio-economic development, including leveraging and maximizing the developmental potential of remittances;
- ensure enforcement of measures to protect and promote the human rights and well-being of migrants;
- strengthen technical cooperation in cross-border labour management;
- identify and initiate skills retention programmes and measures that mitigate brain drain; and
- identify and initiate economic and community development for migration programmes to address the root causes of economically-induced migration, and provide livelihood alternatives for potential migrants.

- ask the institution to designate a suitably qualified focal point.

Similar consultations should be organised by the National Focal Point with other stakeholders (e.g., NGOS, academia, private sector donors, International Organizations, migrant' organizations, human rights' bodies). These consultations can be performed on a one to one basis or in a group meeting.

2.2.4 Scoping exercise and M&D mainstreaming proposal

On the basis of the awareness-raising meetings, though probably prior to the organizing of any meetings of the National M&D Committee, the National Focal Point (assisted as appropriate by the Expert Facilitator) should plan a scoping exercise.

This will aim to identify existing development planning frameworks and their timelines, key stakeholders, important migration and development issues and potential ways forward for structuring the mainstreaming process. The scoping exercise should provide an objective preliminary diagnosis of the M&D situation in the country (including institutional coverage of the issue) to guide an effective mainstreaming exercise. The scoping exercise is exploratory in nature and lays the groundwork for a more in-depth assessment exercise or situation analysis, which will take place later in the mainstreaming process.

The National Focal Point drafts the Terms of Reference (TOR) of the scoping exercise, which should set out its objectives, activities and outputs (Annex B1 provides a sample TOR). The draft TOR should then be put forward for endorsement by the government. Once a TOR has been endorsed, the scoping exercise can be carried out by the National Focal Point, assisted as necessary by the Expert Facilitator, and in close collaboration with other parts of government and other stakeholders. It may be useful to draw upon international experts, whose knowledge may complement local expertise and provide insight into global experiences.

The National Focal Point, with the assistance of the Expert Facilitator, will produce a report of the results of the scoping exercise and make a proposal to the government on how to take forward the mainstreaming of migration in development planning. Once a proposal has been agreed by the national authorities, it should be shared with development partners, as appropriate, for support.

Approval of the proposal marks the official beginning of the mainstreaming exercise.

2.3   Development planning cycle

2.3.1 Situation analysis and assessment

What does this stage involve?

A situation analysis[14] takes place at the start of the development planning process. It involves research and data collection to understand the country context, and provides a sound foundation for decisions on which strategies to adopt.

When possible, this process could be integrated into existing development planning assessments, such as PRSP poverty diagnostic, the UNDAF Common Country Assessment (CCA), EU Country Strategy Papers, and ILO Decent Work Country Programmes. If migration cannot be fully integrated into standard development planning assessments, however, the analysis should be carried out separately, but follow the same assessment formats to the extent possible (see the example of EC Migration Profiles in Box 3).

How to carry out a situation analysis?

Roles and responsibilities: The Expert Facilitator and a Support Team - when one exists - would be directly responsible for drafting the situation analysis, under the direction of the National Focal Point. If there is no Support Team, an ad hoc team of experts may be convened for this purpose, ideally involving both local and international members. Whatever the precise modalities of the process, it is crucial to engage national experts, which should ensure sustainability, country ownership and, in some cases, help in building national capacities.

Scope: This will have been shaped to a significant extent by the proposal developed through the scoping

exercise and related decisions by government about the focus of the mainstreaming exercise. The scope of the situation analysis will also be shaped by factors such as existing research and data on migration-related matters, as the assessment will need to build upon prior analytical work, as there will likely be insufficient time for collecting new data or for sophisticated new analysis. It will be possible at this stage to identify data and information gaps to be addressed over the medium and long-term

Participants: Taking an open, participatory approach to the situation analysis is likely to be most effective. Enabling a wide range of stakeholders to express their views - including a range of migrants, with women and children fully represented - will result in a more informed assessment report and build country ownership and the sustainability of the process. Regular meetings of the National M&D Committee during this phase can help develop a consensus on priority issues.

Key assessment questions

- **Migration Context:** What are the key migration trends? How does migration appear to affect development goals, including the protection of migrant's rights (both positively or negatively)?

- **Policy framework:** What mechanisms, processes, policies and legislation (at national, regional and international levels) are relevant to this exercise? How do policies appear to affect M&D outcomes at present?

- **Resources:** What is needed in terms of financial/human resources and capacity development to take forward an M&D agenda?

A range of assessment tools exists that could be drawn upon to undertake parts of the analysis (see the World Bank PovertyNet website: www.worldbank.org/poverty/ for details). Specific tools or approaches may also be developed and tailored to the needs of the country context.

Various kinds of data can be drawn upon, but it will be important to examine the potential of using existing national sources of data (labour force surveys, censuses and work permit data, for example), and academic research, and not just one source or the other. Whenever possible, data collected should be disaggregated

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14   See Annex B9 for a draft TOR for a situation analysis.

by sex. More information on relevant sources of government data is given in the annexes, and also in the monitoring and evaluation section below.

Summary of key steps

- Plan the situation analysis – scope, TOR, roles and responsibilities, timeframe.
- Commission experts to perform the assessment and draft the assessment report.
- Organize regular meetings of the National M&D Committee.

Outcome of this stage

The key outcome of this stage will be an assessment report that provides sufficient information to enable decisions to be taken on strategic priorities and the path to implementation. It can also conclude that an M&D mainstreaming strategy is not warranted in this particular context; for governments that are unsure about this exercise, the process can end here.

2.3.2 Strategic goals and priorities

What does this stage involve?

The situation analysis phase will have identified important M&D issues. This next phase is about ranking these issues in terms of their strategic importance. Selecting priorities is a delicate balancing exercise that requires consideration of the interests of different actors, achieving consensus and being realistic about available capacity (human, financial and time) and achievable goals.

It is vital though at this stage that the voice and interests of vulnerable and marginalized groups are taken into account. For example, it will not be sufficient to concentrate only on regular migrant communities – both in terms of objectives and participation – if those most vulnerable, discriminated against, and/or disadvantaged are irregular migrants. Also, during consultations with migrants, it is important that children and women have an opportunity to participate in the assessment of their needs and priorities. Special attention will need to

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Migration profiles: useful tools for strategic policy planning

In a 2005 communication on Migration and Development, the European Commission (EC) proposed a tool to improve information on the migration situation in developing countries – migration profiles. Originally migration profiles were a concise statistical report, prepared according to a common framework, which made it easier to understand "at a glance" the migration situation in a particular country. Between the EC and the IOM, around 100 migration profiles have now been prepared, for countries all over the world, including Latin America, Africa and Eastern Europe and Central Asia.

Over time the migration profile has evolved from a means to bring together data from a wide range of sources, to a more elaborate process involving consultation with many different actors to help identify and develop strategies to address data gaps and produce the evidence required to inform policy. The process of preparing migration profiles can promote discussion about migration policy, coherence and coordination between ministries and other stakeholders. IOM's "Migration in West and Central Africa: National Profiles for Strategic Policy" project, financed by the EC, the Belgian and Swiss Governments, was the first project to test a methodology linking the preparation of comprehensive reports to a range of capacity-building and policy-development activities that aimed to improve the basis for coherent policymaking and foster country ownership. Ten countries in West and Central Africa participated in this project.

While the lessons from this pilot initiative still need to be fully incorporated into practice, it has become clear that establishing migration profiles as a government-owned framework for data collection and analysis and as a national policy development instrument is a process requiring extensive capacity-building and government support. Capacity building allows the country to assume full ownership of the creation and the regular update of the reports. As a regularly updated information tool, migration profiles will enable countries to better plan and evaluate their policies related to migration and development. As such, migration profiles can be a critical tool to underpin a migration mainstreaming exercise.

be paid to ensuring these groups are reached and their voices heard. The process of selecting priorities should also be an open and accountable process, so all stakeholders are able to monitor events and outcomes.

As discussed previously, whenever possible this process should be integrated into the national development planning process, in which strategic goals are identified and agreed upon. Alternatively, the identification of M&D goals can be carried out as a separate but related process in coherence with the national development plan approach.

How to identify strategic goals and priorities?

Establish potential goals: The assessment report will have identified key issues and some goals and potential areas of intervention. If this has not already been done, review the assessment report and identify key issues for which change might be desirable and that could potentially be addressed by policy interventions. Some potential goals may be very clear, emerging strongly from the assessment report or from discussions within the National M&D Committee for example, but others may be identified by considering the findings of the assessment report alongside other key documents, e.g., existing national development plans, existing migration policy documents, MDGs, etc.

For example, an existing national development plan may have increasing employment opportunities as a goal. Simultaneously, the M&D assessment might find that the low pay of work on offer is driving people to migrate. Set alongside each other, these suggest that promoting well

paid employment might be a potential goal of a development strategy that mainstreams migration concerns. Potential goals should be SMART – specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time-bound (for further definition of SMART indicators, see Annex A).

Prioritise goals in order of importance: The definition of priorities among various potential goals should be decided through a consultative process with all interested stakeholders.

A set of criteria is needed to help decide upon priorities that should be adapted to each context, but might include, for example:

- Will it contribute in a significant way to the achievement of a major national development priority?

- Can the goal/area of intervention rally most groups of stakeholders?

- Is it a straightforward goal to pursue in the sense that no major institutional changes are required?

- Can this goal be pursued without first realizing other goals? And, if dependent on other achievements, is it possible to ensure these goals will be carried out simultaneously?

Using a scoring system can help facilitate an objective assessment of the relative advantages/disadvantages of selecting particular goals and priorities. See the table below as an example.

The table below shows how a scoring system might work. Proposed criteria could be assessed against a 0 to 2 scoring system, with 0 meaning do not agree, 1 meaning agree, and 2 meaning strongly agree.

Scoring Goals and Priorities		
List of criteria to assess each goal	Goal: facilitate diaspora investment in increasing access to potable water in rural areas	Goal: support refugees, returnees and IDPs
Can the goal/area of intervention rally most groups of stakeholders?	1	2
Will it contribute in a significant way to the achievement of a major national priority?	2 (if access to potable water figures high on the development agenda)	2
Is it a straightforward goal to pursue in the sense that no major institutional changes are required?	2	2
Can this goal be pursued without first realizing other goals (e.g., resolving the issue that investing in the laying of water pipes is a monopoly of public authorities)? If dependent on other achievements, is it possible to ensure that these goals will be carried out simultaneously/in good order?	2	2
Total points	**7**	**8**

Selection of goals and priorities: The goals and priorities that best meet the identified criteria and consensus of stakeholders should be retained. The number of strategic goals to be selected will depend on prior decisions (particularly those taken at the proposal stage) regarding the breadth of the mainstreaming work, the capacity to mobilize resources, previous M&D work in the country, and the recognized level of urgency. Generally, it is best to limit the number of goals to a handful to retain focus.

Summary of key steps

- Request the Inter-ministerial Committee and the National Consultative Committee to agree on criteria to be used for identifying a strategic goal.

- Consult widely.

- Identify potential goals and priorities.

- Organize meetings of the National M&D Committee facilitated by a National Focal Point and Expert Facilitator to review the potential goals and to reach consensus on their priority order.

Outcome of this stage

The main outcome of this stage will be a list of agreed strategic goals and priorities.

2.3.3 Action/programme planning

What does this stage involve?

This stage involves selecting and developing programmes and projects in order to achieve the selected priorities. It will involve defining target beneficiaries, considering what activities will be carried out, and identifying responsible partners. Whenever possible, migration programmes should be developed within the national development planning framework. Alternatively, they may be developed separately, but ensuring consistency with national plans.

How to carry out programme planning

Identify interventions to achieve goals: Preliminary research and analysis should be carried out by the Expert Facilitator, with assistance from the National Focal Point, to identify potential interventions by, among other things, drawing on global examples and experiences. Section 4 of this Handbook includes a compilation of M&D programmes and activities that may provide some inspiration.

It should be noted that interventions do not need to be entirely new policies. Quite often, in fact, it may mean changing the focus of an existing policy. For example, if a country has a financial outreach policy in place aimed at bringing new customers into the formal financial system, making a migration and development focused intervention might mean ensuring that remittance recipients are one of the groups targeted by that initiative.

In every case, the interventions should be linked back to the ultimate goals and priorities set. Examples from existing PRSPs show how high level goals are translated in programme interventions. The text from the Senegalese PRSP in the box below demonstrates this, as do the cases in the following table:

M&D examples from PRSPs			
Country	**Area of national development targeted**	**M&D goals**	**Key programme areas**
Afghanistan	social protection	refugees, returnees and IDPs supported	• maintaining framework to manage repatriations • provide housing, facilities and social services to returnees • enhancing government capacity to encourage voluntary returns
Benin	poverty	Beninese diaspora organised for national development	• supporting the organization of Benin expatriates in their host countries for national development in Benin • working for the effective and sustained involvement of Beninese abroad in the economic and social development of Benin.

It is vital at this stage to look forward in the process to monitoring and evaluation. A good mainstreaming strategy will ensure that it will be possible to monitor and evaluate interventions selected. For example, there is little use in selecting a policy that aims to ensure that children who are left behind by migration are able to attend school if there is no data available on how many children left behind by migrant parents are attending school (and little likelihood a strategy will be put in place to collect such information).

Draft a National Plan of Action on M&D: It will be necessary to develop a draft Plan of Action (POA) that includes the agreed strategic goals, the programs/actions recommended to address them, any supporting requirements (e.g., the implementation of existing policy, changes in policy/legislation, technical assistance), the timeframe, and the stakeholders involved (national institutions, international agencies, NGOs, migrant associations, etc.).

The draft national Plan of Action on M&D may include three sections – 1) background information, 2) information on planned programs/interventions, and 3) annexes. An indication of the key material to be included in each is set out below.

1. **Background**

   - Key trends in migration, and interplay of migration, poverty, poverty reduction and development in specific contexts (from assessment reports and any further research).

   - Map out the country-level poverty reduction/development planning tools/initiatives (PRSP, SWAP, UNDAF, etc.) and the framework selected for the migration mainstreaming exercise.

   - Mapping of stakeholders (both internal to government and outside).

   - Description of institutional structures and consultative processes.

   - Strategic goals and priorities for migration mainstreaming process.

2. **Planned programs/interventions**

This section should describe planned programs. It will not be possible to provide full details on all aspects of program

implementation at this stage, but there should be a clear statement of which goals are being served, the purpose of the proposed program, expected results, actors, timeframes and provisional indications of activities and budget.

Specifically, for each goal it would be useful to set out:

   - the national development goal(s) being targeted; and

   - the M&D goal which has been identified as contributing to the achievement of the national development goal.

Then for each M&D goal, state the:

   - overall objective;

   - actions and programmes recommended;

   - supporting requirements (these could include policy changes, institutional changes, technical assistance, capacity development, research and data collection, advocacy and communications assistance and help with monitoring and evaluation, among other issues);

   - timeframe and responsible parties; and

   - resource mobilization targets.

3. **Annexes**

Annexes could include:

   - roster of local experts/research institutions working on M&D;

   - overview of the principal activities undertaken by international organizations and NGOs in the area of M&D;

   - list of current research and analyses available on M&D for the country; and

   - Terms of Reference of the M&D institutional framework, that includes the Inter-Ministerial Committee and the National Consultative Committee.

Hold a National Plan of Action workshop: Upon completion of the draft National Plan of Action, a National Plan of Action Workshop should be organized

by the NFP and convened by the government. Participants will include representatives from government departments, parliament, civil society (in particular migrant and diaspora associations, and prioritizing the representation of vulnerable migrant groups, such as children, women and irregular migrants), private sector, the donor community, international agencies, and international experts. The workshop should draw in a broader participation of national participants than those already involved in the M&D institutional structure. The workshop should:

- Discuss the goals and actions identified in the National Plan of Action to see if they conform correctly to PRSP/development goals, and if there are any gaps.

- Prioritize key programme interventions (i.e., those to be implemented first).

- For each key intervention, review the actions required, the timeframe, the stakeholders to be involved and estimated budget and funding gaps requiring donors' support.

- Provide examples of different options and approaches that could be followed in carrying out key interventions (examples of programmes and policies pursued in other countries, by governments, NGOs, international organizations, etc.).

- Secure support for the National Plan of Action, and for insertion of activities in the national budget and the medium-term expenditure framework (if applicable).

Finalize the National Plan of Action: The final decision on key issues/activities should be informed by the National Plan of Action Workshop. The Plan will be finalized shortly thereafter by the National Focal Point/Expert Facilitator and the National M&D Committee. It will then go to formal adoption by the government. Formal endorsement of the National Plan of Action gives it profile and legitimacy - helping to ensure its integration into the national budget, facilitate technical and financial assistance, and prompt follow-up activities.

Summary of key steps

- Draft the National Plan of Action.

- Hold consultations with government and a broad group of stakeholders.

- Conduct a National Plan of Action workshop.

- Finalize the National Plan of Action.

- Official endorsement of the National Plan of Action

Outcome of this stage

The key outcome at this stage is the National Plan of Action on M&D.

2.3.4 Capacity development and financing mechanisms

2.3.4.1 Capacity development

What does this stage involve?

Capacity development in this context means helping individuals and institutions to participate in and shape the development planning and migration mainstreaming processes. Capacity development is essential for ensuring the sustainability of M&D efforts: a country can only have a successful M&D agenda if that agenda is locally owned, and it can only be locally owned if the local capacity is in place to support this.

As a result capacity development will often involve developing the capacity of national government institutions and public servants but it will also likely mean building the capacity of other institutions – potentially including local government, civil society organisations (NGOs, migrant and diaspora associations, social partners, etc.) and/or the private sector (employer organizations etc.).

The type of capacities needed - across this range of partners - to successfully carry out a mainstreaming exercise include:

1) leadership;

2) vision setting;

3) strategic and policy analysis;

4) financial and project management;

5) monitoring and evaluation;

7) public engagement.

This means capacity development related to migration can cover areas as varied as:

- supporting line ministries to enable them to express their priorities and vision on M&D (by acquiring more knowledge on the topic, improving their negotiation skills, etc.);

- supporting local government to develop its ability to analyse migration and development issues, identify priorities and feed those into the mainstreaming process;

- giving civil society a voice (e.g., by training of members of migrants' associations on lobbying activities, ensuring women, children and irregular migrants are fully represented);

- supporting national institutions for generating

and analysing relevant migration data and building national M&D indicators; and

- building structures that allow for the monitoring of migration and development outcomes – such as the respect of migrants' rights.

How to carry out capacity development

Capacity assessment: The capacity assessment will be led by the National Focal Point with external specialised support as necessary. Given the likely limitations of budget and time, the capacity assessment process should be realistic and prioritise key capacities needed for M&D.

Capacity development strategies: Capacity development strategies cover a range of activities to address all of the above areas, and could include actions at:

- individual level (addressing people's experiences, knowledge and technical skills, for example through mentoring and coaching, or providing them with training in particular skills);

- organizational level (tackling systems, procedures and rules, for example by redefining roles, reviewing the functions of particular parts of government, or instituting stakeholder feedback mechanisms); and

- societal level (for example, building supportive capacities in influential national institutions, building the capacities of relevant non-governmental actors).

It is clear from the above that capacity development goes beyond training activities or hiring new staff on M&D issues, to looking at how institutions can perform more efficiently. It is also integral to all stages of the planning cycle and should not be seen as a one-off activity, as discussed earlier in this section. Even while the main strategy is being put together, those in charge of the mainstreaming process should have considered discrete capacity building actions to have been implemented at earlier stages in the mainstreaming process. The table below shows some examples of how capacity development can be integrated at different stages of the mainstreaming cycle.

Integrating capacity development into different phases of the planning cycle	
Assessment phase	• Use the situation analysis to undertake capacity assessments of stakeholders to identify their capacity assets and capacity gaps. • Identify stakeholders at the national level that could provide support for capacity development activities.
Strategic goals and priorities phase	• Undertake activities to develop national capacity to design M&D policy and programmatic options. • Integrate capacity development outcomes among M&D national goals (e.g., organizational review). • Include in the POA programmes aimed at satisfying capacity needs for the realization of all M&D national objectives.
Funding and Capacity Development phase	• Develop a Capacity Development (CD) plan summarizing the results of the capacity-assessment and listing all the CD priorities.
Implementation phase	• Develop capacity in collecting, processing, analyzing and disseminating data on M&D (some of these activities can already be performed during the assessment phase if funds exist; otherwise, they will be performed once the POA is adopted). • Integrate in the M&E framework indicators to measure progress on the development of capacity in the area of M&D. It is necessary to measure the impact of CD activities and, more importantly, the long-term sustainable capacity improvements to which they give rise.
Monitoring & Evaluation (M&E) phase	• Develop capacity in collecting, processing, analyzing and disseminating data on M&D (some of these activities can already be performed during the assessment phase if funds exist; otherwise, they will be performed once the POA is adopted). • Integrate in the M&E framework indicators to measure progress on the development of capacity in the area of M&D. It is necessary to measure the impact of CD activities and, more importantly, the long-term sustainable capacity improvements to which they give rise.

Summary of key steps

- Assess capacity needs.

- Develop a plan for essential capacity development.

Outcome of this stage

The key outcome for this stage is a plan for capacity development.

2.3.4.2 Financing

What does this involve?

Financing is about costing and funding development programmes in a strategic way. Mainstreaming migration at this level enables migration to be factored into decisions concerning resource allocation.

How to secure financing

Discussions with various government departments and development partners about finance will preferably be initiated early in the mainstreaming cycle and may involve bilateral meetings and group consultations. It is important to engage with donors from the outset and keep them informed.

The two main sources of funding for M&D activities are:

a) **Domestic funding**
It is important to ensure M&D activities are not neglected when national budgetary allocations are discussed, and national/local sources of funding for M&D activities should be considered first. However, in many developing countries national resources are limited compared with the needs for public intervention. Debt repayments remain very high

for some countries, while taxes, user fees and other domestic sources of government revenue remain low, leaving many dependent on aid. As a result it may be necessary to mobilize external finance.

b) **External funding**

Direct budgetary support is increasingly becoming the preferred way to provide aid (in place of project funding) and there is a tendency for donors not to earmark contributions, providing certain public expenditure management tools are in place (such as medium-term expenditure frameworks and audits). When budgetary support is directly provided to the national budget, there is always a risk that M&D activities will be overlooked. Indeed, the funding mobilised for the National Development Plan is often not sufficient to cover all the activities envisaged in the plan and the M&D budget may fall by the wayside as a cross-cutting issue. This obstacle may be addressed by the National M&D Committee asking donors sensitive to M&D issues to earmark their contributions.

Donors may also provide support through a common pool of funds to finance activities in a specific sector or through a fully-fledged Sector-Wide Approach (SWAP). Sectoral programmes are usually three to five year plans and therefore ensure a certain funding predictability. They are also easily monitored through Public Expenditure Review, which ensures accountability and reduces transaction costs for donors and governments. When SWAPs are envisaged, migration's interactions with the sector should be explicitly considered, in line with the assessments and priorities identified in the plan of action.

Many donors reserve a part of their budget to fund projects implemented by specific actors (e.g., NGOs, United Nations, international organizations, research institutions, etc.), by issue or for geographically-focused programmes. Project funding is less favoured today by donors because of the management requirements and difficulty of showing impact measured against broader national goals. Nonetheless, project funding is still often used to fund United Nations agencies, NGOs and research bodies (and in turn these actors often use their own resources to fund projects and programs). This source of funding is especially relevant for M&D activities given the challenge in securing funds from national or sectoral budgets for a cross-cutting issue.

Summary of key steps

- National Focal Point to consider options for financing.

- Bilateral consultations held between the government\National Focal Point and development partners to explore funding options.

Outcome of this stage

The key outcome for this stage is the identification of possible sources of funding and preliminary discussions with donors.

2.3.5   Implementation

What does this stage involve?

Programme action plans are put into practice at this stage. This involves, crucially, developing an implementation plan and a resource mobilisation strategy. This allows for implementing institutions to be clear on resources, decision-making, roles and responsibilities and reporting.

The migration mainstreaming exercise should as far as possible work within implementation systems set up under the overall development planning framework.

How to set up an implementation mechanism

Draft implementation plan and other documents: An implementation plan will be developed to facilitate the implementation of the POA. It is important not to lose momentum and proceed do this immediately after the endorsement of the National Plan of Action by the government.

The implementation plan's role is to develop the National Plan of Action into a workable document to guide the day-to-day work of implementation. It defines timelines, coordination mechanisms and resources, risks and assumptions, a monitoring and evaluation plan and indicators. The implementation plan is a 'living document,' which must be reviewed, updated, and adapted as implementation proceeds.

Any M&D projects implemented outside of the scope of the M&D Plan of Action (for example, those already underway before it was devised) could also be integrated in the implementation plan. This would mean that the government has a single document with an overview of all M&D activities, which should facilitate tracking.

The implementation plan will comprise three components:

1. Background narrative section.

   This narrative may include the following elements:

   - A description of the rationale behind the chosen implementation strategy, explaining the reasons why the types of M&D activities selected are optimum, the reasons for selecting particular responsible parties/implementing agents, the logic of the sequencing of activities, the participatory process envisaged, and how all these elements make the implementation strategy fit for purpose.

   - A description of roles and accountabilities of implementing stakeholders: assigning each of the outcomes, outputs and activities to a 'responsible party' (this should enhance ownership and accountability), and identifying mechanisms and rules for managing projects, making decisions, and tackling unresolved issues.

   - A description of budgetary and fiduciary arrangements for the management of resources mobilized.

- An analysis of interdependencies, risks and risk management. An analysis of interdependencies will include activities that need to be performed chronologically and are closely linked, activities to be performed in parallel, and activities that may overlap. Risks need to be clearly identified as should the methodologies to be used to mitigate or address them, should they materialize.

- A description of how communication of the mainstreaming exercise will be handled and the target audience.

2. A matrix showing program areas and the way these will be implemented. This will include information contained in the National Plan of Action on overall goals/objectives, program purpose and results. But it will go into more precise detail on what activities will be carried out, what inputs and budgets are required, what assumptions and preconditions there are, what the means of verification will be, and indicators for measuring progress. Implementation plans are set out in different ways by different organizations. Diagram 3 below provides an example of an implementation plan matrix.

Implementation Plan Matrix				
M&D Strategic Goal	Ex: Strategic goal 1 Increased developmental impact of remittances			
Expected outcome (for each strategic goal state associated outcomes)	Ex: Outcome 1: Productive investment of remittances increased			
Expected outputs* (as figuring in the implementation plan)	**Activities**** (mention planned activities including M&E activities)	**Expenditures** (list actual expenditures for each activity completed	**Result of activities** (for each activity, state the result of the activity)	**Progress towards achievement** (using benchmarks and indicators state progress towards achieving the outputs. Mention whether risks and assumptions materialized or whether new risks appeared.)

Implementation Plan Matrix				
Ex: Output 1 Government policy on remittances and development adopted and launched	1.1 Conduct consultations with Government and other stakeholders 1.2 Hold stakeholder workshop to develop draft strategy 1.3 Develop draft policy 1.4 Facilitate government endorsement and organize launch of policy	1.1 10,000 USD (incl. cost for travel) 1.2 15,000 USD (incl. travel, accommodation, venue & meals) 1.3 6,000 USD (consultant fee) 1.4 8,000 USD (incl. cost for venue, catering, visibility materials)	1.1 Stakeholder interests, capacities and priorities assessed 1.2 Joint priorities and agreement on process established 1.3 Policy document drafted and circulated 1.4 Government ownership of the policy and public visibility ensured	1.1 Indicators: - # of consultations held - Diversity of stakeholders included - Map of stakeholders, their interests & capacities completed - Priority chart drawn up Risks/assumptions: - Government is open to multi-stakeholder process; - Marginalized communities prove hard to reach; - Particular groups try to impose their interests making it difficult to achieve consensus
Ex: Output 2 Percentage of remittances sent through formal channels increased	2.1 Organize consultation with financial institutions 2.2 Assess financial literacy of migrants and their families and develop training curriculum 2.3 Hold financial literacy training for migrants and their families			
Ex:				
	Ex: Outcome 2: Government incentives for collective investment of remittances in place			
Ex:				
Ex:				
Ex:				
	Ex: Outcome 3:			
Ex:				
Ex:				
Ex:				

* Outputs are a 'deliverable' - a concrete thing that will be produced.

** Activities are actions undertaken to create an output.

3. A monitoring and evaluation section. Monitoring and evaluation will be discussed in more detail in the next sub-section but for now it is important to note that the implementation plan itself will encompass a plan for monitoring and evaluation activities showing how, when and by whom these will be carried out.

The National Focal Point, with the support of the National M&D Committee and the Expert Facilitator, may also need to develop other implementation documents, which sit alongside the main implementation plan, depending on the decisions made in the National Plan of Action. These may include for example:

- Concept papers. These would turn general ideas for program interventions set out in the National Plan of Action into well-planned interventions, with budget indications. These would be particularly useful for very new or very large programmes or actions.

- Resource mobilization strategy. This would show which M&D activities are or could be covered by existing resources and budget lines, which M&D activities require additional resources, the priority order for funding, and a strategy for approaching donors. These will be useful if many actions are planned, or if substantial new resources are required. It should be developed in collaboration with external donors and the Ministry of Finance.

The draft implementation plan, and any other implementation documents will be discussed at an Inter-ministerial M&D Committee meeting in order to agree on the overall direction, funding gaps and to set the date for the first Donors/Implementation Workshop.

Mobilizing external funding

Earlier sections have already discussed the potential sources of funding for the migration mainstreaming exercise. To actually obtain these funds a number of consultations may be convened. This is not a prescriptive approach, but the following kinds of consultations could take place.

Bilateral donor consultations between the National Focal Point and donors can give a clearer idea of intentions/priorities and map out over or under-subscribed programs. Donors may wish to focus on a specific theme or locality, perhaps to ensure better visibility for their contributions or to ensure coherence in the provision of technical assistance.

Consultations will present an opportunity to inform donors of the formal adoption of the National Plan of Action. They can involve discussion on funding gaps, concept papers and donor interests in particular program areas. Aside from donors, consultations should include ministries and other actors involved in implementation. The ministry in charge of aid coordination or planning activities for development interventions

should also be present (usually the Finance or Planning Ministry).

Roles and responsibilities:

The preparation of the implementation plan, monitoring and evaluation approach, concept papers, resource mobilization strategy and implementation workshops are considerable tasks that are likely to require additional human resources and expertise. The National Focal Point will be responsible for leading the implementation process in coordination with the National M&D Committee members. There would be considerable benefit in bringing in specialized expertise on planning and monitoring and evaluation in particular – developing a coherent implementation plan requires specialist technical skills and familiarity with logical framework tools and indicator development.

M&D Institutional structure:

In terms of institutional structure, the existing National M&D structure may oversee implementation. However, it may be desirable to set up ad hoc working groups to monitor certain programmes or to adjust attendance at certain meetings focused on implementation, e.g., by inviting implementing partners from civil society and the private sector or by recognising that the presence of some of the National M&D Committee members may not be necessary.

Summary of key steps

- Draft implementation plan, including monitoring and evaluation framework, concept notes, resource strategy, etc.

- Organize resource mobilisation.

- Reach consensus on an implementation strategy and implementation plan.

- Implement the plan.

Outcome of this stage

The key outcomes of this stage are the finalization of an implementation plan, the securing of financial resources, and the implementation of mainstreaming activities.

2.3.6 Monitoring and evaluation

What does this involve?

Monitoring and evaluation involve tracking the progress of the implementation plan in a systematic way and shows whether the actions taken are making a difference. Monitoring and evaluation enhance accountability and ownership, and improve the quality of the interventions (provided the results are disseminated to key stakeholders and used for learning).

Definition of terms

Monitoring and evaluation are about the measurement of progress towards goals, using targets and indicators[15].

Defining what to measure

In a simplified manner, monitoring and evaluation of development strategies can be grouped into two types:

1. monitoring of the overall objective(s) (or outcome(s)); and

2. monitoring of intermediate factors - outputs and inputs.

Monitoring of overall objectives (outcomes) consists of monitoring the final effect of an M&D intervention. To try to understand this effect a number of different indicators can potentially be monitored. These include:

- Monitoring changes in selected aspects of the migration phenomenon (e.g., trends in emigration or in remittances). The aspects of migration selected for monitoring will have been identified as having a key impact on the key poverty reduction and development goals being targeted.

    - Monitoring the evolving situation of migrants and their households (compared to the rest of the population). Changing outcomes for migrants and their households are an important component of development. If their circumstances improve (for example as a result of receiving more remittances) then this constitutes a boost to development, and if they

decline (for example if migrants rights are less protected) then development outcomes have worsened.

- Performing more formal impact evaluations to assess the contribution of M&D interventions on progress in realising specific poverty and development goals (for example using econometric methods).

The main challenge involved in monitoring the effect that M&D policies and programmes have had on outcomes is to identify what their contribution has been vis-à-vis other possible influencing factors. For example, a country might decide to implement a policy aiming to expand the number of its people who are able to migrate to a specific country, such as the US, over the next five years, with the aim of boosting national income from remittances. If five years later more of its people have indeed emigrated to the US and remittances sent from there have risen it can't necessarily be said, that the policy is responsible. It may be that labour demand rose in the US, for example.

Thus, to truly understand the effect that policies have on outcomes it is important not just to look at indicators, but also seek explanations behind these changes and identify to what extent a causal link can be established between the intervention and the outcome.

There may be a trade-off between choosing outcome-monitoring indicators that are easier to measure but which provide less certainty regarding the real effect of the intervention (such as those listed in the first bullet point above), and those for which monitoring is more difficult but is likely to be more accurate (taking the approach set out in the third bullet point above). Policymakers will need to decide which approach is most appropriate in their context.

Monitoring of outputs (results) and inputs involves monitoring factors that determine whether the objective is met. For this reason, these factors are called intermediate indicators. Outputs (results) are the tangible 'goods' and actions generated by an intervention, while inputs are financial and physical resources used.

- *Monitoring outputs of M&D interventions* means monitoring whether actions agreed to in a plan of

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[15] Different organizations use different terminology; to aid understanding a list of definitions is provided in Annex A.

action (e.g., a PRSP policy action grid) have been undertaken, whether implementation is performed in accordance with the implementation plan and whether the interventions are producing or have produced the concrete results expected.

- *Monitoring inputs of M&D interventions* consists of monitoring public expenditure, human resources and other physical resources used by M&D interventions.

This kind of monitoring is limited by the fact that it doesn't measure whether the interventions are actually achieving their objectives. However, it does also have a number of advantages. First, because inputs and outputs are tangible they are easier to measure than outcomes. Moreover, it is useful for adjusting policies and programmes while implementation is taking place, as the circumstances under which implementation takes place might differ from the expectations held during the design phase.

As has been stressed previously, it is generally preferable if the migration mainstreaming exercise – including in this case, the monitoring and evaluation of the exercise – is integrated into wider development planning approaches. Many development planning tools such as PRSPs and SWAPs require the establishment of a specific monitoring and evaluation system to check progress made through these strategies, and ideally M&D concerns would be integrated into these sorts of monitoring and evaluation exercises.

Alternatively, policies, programmes and projects on M&D that are implemented outside the scope of the PRSP framework will be monitored separately. They could either be monitored individually, with each programme having its own M&E framework, or a common monitoring and evaluation format could be developed for all M&D activities. This would decrease the work of implementing agencies, decrease the level of resources to be allocated for reporting\monitoring tasks, foster common learning, and joint decision-making by donors.

Monitoring and evaluation indicators

Indicators on migration and the impact of migration on development and poverty reduction goals can take

various forms[16]. The type of indicators that are appropriate to monitor the situation depend on:

- the national context;
- the degree of development of statistical institutions;
- the availability of data; and
- top priorities that have been identified on M&D.

Regarding migration-specific indicators, there are direct and indirect indicators for migration.

Direct indicators comprise information on the number of migrant households, migrant family composition, age, sex, country of birth, country of citizenship, occupation, and purpose and duration of the stay, as well as indicators of other aspects of the migration phenomenon such as remittances. Indirect indicators may be population size, growth and density, language-disaggregated populations, etc.

Disaggregation of data within the migrant category can enable a more in-depth assessment. Sub-categories could be based on gender or age for example (enabling examination of the situation for women, children and the elderly), by ethnicity, by the kind of migration being undertaken (e.g., circular, seasonal, short term, permanent), or by geographic area. On the other hand, the more refined the indicator, the more complex and costly it is to produce, so a balance must be struck.

In order to fully assess the impacts of migration, it is important not just to monitor indicators gathered for parts of the population directly affected by migration, but also for the population who are not. This allows for comparisons between the two groups to be used as a basis for assessing migration's impacts.

Where relevant data is absent, policymakers will need to define a strategy to gather empirical evidence in the medium term. The following considerations could be taken into account when creating new indicators:

- **Geographical disaggregation.** The appropriate level at which data can be disaggregated depends

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[16] If further thinking is required on how poverty and development indicators link to migration variables there is substantial material available from the World Bank, as well as in the IOM publication *The Millennium Development Goals and Migration* (Migrant Research Series No. 20). Other resources include the Paris 21 document series www.paris21.org/documents/2410.pdf and the *Development on the Move* survey documentation produced by the Global Development Network and the Institute for Public Policy Research.

on country situations and on the objectives of the indicators. Country level indicators are useful but sometimes it is worthwhile to consider disaggregation by region or administrative units (e.g., local states, municipalities).

- **Reliability.** What are the chances of the data being accurate and how well can it reflect reality?

- **Regularity and sustainability.** Is it possible to collect the data for the indicator on a regular basis in the long term, or will it be too burdensome from a human resources and financial standpoint?

- **Comparability.** As migration is a transnational phenomenon, use of definitions which facilitate international or regional comparison is a worthwhile endeavour.

- **Prioritizing.** It may be better to create or disaggregate a few indicators in a way which is sustainable over time, and ensure that they are used for policymaking, rather than having a long list of indicators which will prove too costly to maintain.

- **Confidentiality.** Any data collected needs to ensure the monitored persons confidentiality. Many migrants, especially irregular migrants, may be concerned about contributing to data gathering exercises. Confidentiality needs to be assured in the interest of their protection, and to encourage them to provide information in the first place.

Data sources and approaches

There are two main approaches that can be taken to obtain the data needed for monitoring and evaluation, set out below,(See also Annex D, which lists international organizations experienced in collecting migration data whose expertise can be drawn upon.)

a) **Use existing national monitoring systems**

Many developing countries have a poverty monitoring system in place, often led by national statistical offices in collaboration with other departments, independent research institutions, NGOs, etc. The most commonly used national tools for poverty monitoring are national household-based surveys (including household budget surveys, labour force surveys and demographic and health surveys), and population censuses. Other sources of data include the system of national accounts, which allows the tracking at the national level of, among other things, GDP, remittances, investment and consumption. Migration may already feature in some of these statistical instruments.

If not, there are a number of approaches that could be taken to incorporate migration into existing national monitoring systems. Over the last couple of years a number of eminent people familiar with migration data worked together in a 'Commission on International Migration Data for Development Research and Policy'. The Commission aimed to explore easy and low cost ways to improve data availability. The Commission put forward five recommendations:

1. Ask three basic questions on every population census – country of citizenship, country of birth, and country of previous residence – then publish cross-tabulations of this information by age and sex.

2. Exploit existing administrative data sources that often contain rich and poorly utilized information on international movements. These include data from:

    - administrative registers, such as population registers or foreigners' registers;

    - databases on work permits and residence permits;

    - data on asylum applications; and

    - border statistics derived from the collection of information at ports of entry to and departure from a country.

3. Compile existing data from Labour Force Surveys of countries around the world into a single, harmonized, frequently updated database.

4. Provide public access to anonymous individual records of international migrants from surveys and administrative data to allow major improvements in the quality of research while maintaining strict confidentiality.

5. Increase the systematic use of standardized modules of migration-related questions in ongoing household survey programs, particularly those in developing countries. Popular ways to do this include adding question to the census, the LSMS, LFS or DHS.

Much of this is straightforward for individual governments to implement, and will allow much better data for policymaking and monitoring and evaluation around migration and development. This is particularly true for the recommendations on amending census questions, using existing administrative data, and adding modules to ongoing household surveys.

b) Commission migration and development specific surveys

If it has been decided that integrating monitoring into existing national monitoring systems is not the way to proceed, one alternative approach is to commission a separate migration and development survey to collect the necessary data. The box below outlines one approach that has been taken, which could be adapted by countries wishing to implement a mainstreaming programme.

Development on the Move: The benefits of a stand-alone migration and development survey

Run jointly by the Global Development Network and the Institute for Public Policy Research, *Development on the Move* involved implementing a brand new, nationally representative survey. The survey aimed to measure migration and assess its development impacts. Economic and social indicators were included, allowing assessment of migration's effects on the use of financial services, consumption, health status, educational achievement, gender roles, etc. While it mostly focused on impacts on households, the survey also looked at how migrants themselves were affected, and allowed insight into community and national level impacts.

An in-depth survey, taking around an hour on average to complete, it gathered a relatively large sample in each home, on average interviewing around 1,200 households in each country. The research took place in Colombia, Fiji, Georgia, Ghana, Jamaica, Macedonia and Vietnam.

Stand-alone surveys like *Development on the Move* have two major advantages. First, even if there aren't many migrant households in a country, standalone surveys can be designed to find and include a large enough number. This can be contrasted with a different approach – adding migration questions to existing surveys, such as the Labour Force Survey (LFS) . In countries with relatively little migration, a sampling approach not targeted at migrant households might only happen upon a very small number. In these circumstances the only way to get a large enough sample of households with migrants would be to expand the sample size of the survey dramatically. In many cases it would instead be cheaper to commission a separate survey.

Second, stand-alone surveys allow absolute precision over the sorts of migration and development issues tackled. In comparison to LFS or DHS which have had a migration module added, standalone surveys allow for the gathering of more detail. This is because they only address migration and development, and because they allow policymakers to precisely select the impacts to be examined and indicators used to do so. Few existing surveys cross the whole range of development issues with which migration has a relationship – from labour market issues to the situation of children, to gender issues, income, access to services such as health and education, etc. Adding questions to an LFS survey will provide good insight into migration's interrelationship with labour issues, and linking them to a demographic and health survey allows for examination of the links between those issues and migration, but a specific migration and development survey allows for a range of different issues to be brought together.

To see the potential of this approach, see project outline and reports at www.ippr.org/research/teams/project. asp?id=2326&tID=3572&pID=2326. Project tools, such as a household questionnaire and sampling strategy, are also available.

Planning Monitoring and Evaluation

Having taken account of what is available in terms of data sources and existing tools, the National Focal Point, with the help of the National M&D Committee and specialized monitoring and evaluation support, will need to devise a monitoring and evaluation plan that does the following:

- Map monitoring and evaluation frameworks currently being used for national development planning, including M&D specific ones. This will enable the National Focal Point to understand the baseline monitoring and evaluation situation.

- Consider the sorts of indicators that might be useful for monitoring the affect of migration on poverty and development and vice versa, in line with national development goals and ensure that chosen indicators are gender-sensitive and reflect the potentially different impacts policies may have on men and women, and boys and girls.

- Map existing poverty, development and migration-related indicators and data. In addition to national institutions concerned with statistics, it would be beneficial to target other actors that collect quantitative and qualitative data, such as academia, research centres, NGOs, and IOs with research mandates.

- Decide upon an approach for monitoring and evaluating the activities involved in the mainstreaming exercise and secure agreement between implementing institutions and development partners for this approach. It should provide a harmonised reporting format, timeframes, and potentially be based upon an agreed, common set of indicators. For programmes and projects falling within a PRSP, SWAP, or similar tool, most of the reporting requirements should be integrated into the evaluation and monitoring mechanisms already built into such tools, and parallel systems of monitoring should be avoided.

- Perform capacity-building activities for data collection, analysis and dissemination on M&D.

- Ensure dissemination so that key stakeholders are informed of the monitoring and evaluation results related to M&D and that these results inform policymaking. This can extend beyond those involved in monitoring and evaluation activities to other groups such as parliaments, assemblies, and elected representatives.

Monitoring and evaluation matrix: A monitoring and evaluation matrix linked to the implementation plan can assist in keeping track of whether planned activities are on course. The table below gives an example of a monitoring and evaluation matrix.

Monitoring Implementation Matrix (Specify time period for the review: e.g., yearly review? Mid-term review? final review?)				
M&D Strategic Goal	Ex: Strategic goal 1			
Expected outcome	Ex: Outcome 1:			
Expected outputs (as figuring in the implementation plan)	**Activities** (mention planned activities including M&E activities)	**Expenditures** (list actual expenditures for each activity completed	**Result of activities** (for each activity, state the result of the activity)	**Progress towards achievement** (using benchmarks and indicators state progress towards achieving the outputs. Mention whether risks and assumptions materialized or whether new risks appeared)
Ex: Output 1				
Ex: Output 2				
Ex: Output 3				

Monitoring Implementation Matrix (Specify time period for the review: e.g., yearly review? Mid-term review? final review?)				
	Ex: Outcome 2:			
Ex:				
Ex:				
Ex:				
	Ex: Outcome 3:			
Ex:				
Ex:				
Ex:				

Summary of key steps

- Identify relevant monitoring and evaluation systems.

- Conduct a mapping of relevant indicators and data.

- Secure agreement with other stakeholders on a harmonized approach.

- Identify the needs for complementary data gathering and research.

- Perform capacity-building activities.

- Ensure key stakeholders are engaged in the monitoring and evaluation process and accountability mechanisms have been built.

- Disseminate findings.

Outcome of this stage

The key outcome of this stage is a monitoring and evaluation plan.

2.3.7. Regional dimension

The previous sections have shown how M&D can be integrated into national (and local) development planning. It is also worth considering how migration can be mainstreamed at the regional level. The scope of any such exercise will be determined by the degree of development of the regional development strategy and the capacity available for financing and implementing migration-related policy/activities at the regional level. The objectives of a regional approach on M&D may include:

- Increased political commitment: a shared vision on what is needed at the regional level and/or for each state in the region, ensuring that governments and development partners in the region integrate M&D in their agendas.

- Enhanced knowledge management: identification of mechanisms to ensure sharing of experiences and lessons learnt in the region, stocktaking regarding existing data and analysis of M&D at the regional level.

- Increased public awareness of M&D: development of a regional advocacy strategy.

- Improved institutional framework for monitoring and response: identification of a regional institution (or institutions) that can act as a focal point on M&D at the regional level. Its role would need to be clearly specified, as would the methods for coordination with national institutions.

The methodology for mainstreaming migration into national development strategies advanced in this Handbook can be adapted to the regional level. The boxes on the next pages provide 1) an example of how migration and development was mainstreamed into the West Africa Poverty Reduction Strategy, and 2) an example of a successful regional data initiative.

West African Poverty Reduction Strategy

The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) Commission and the West African Economic and Monetary Union (WAEMU) Commission jointly prepared a regional strategy paper 'Regional Integration Growth and Poverty Reduction in West Africa: Strategies and Plan of Action.'

Drafted with technical assistance from the World Bank and the African Development Bank (ADB), the West Africa Poverty Reduction Strategy is a complement to the national Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) and is linked to the Millennium Development Goals. This initiative is based on the need to find concerted and collective solutions to common problems among West African countries.

An ECOWAS/WAEMU Joint Technical Committee was set up to work on the regional paper and ensured a participatory approach throughout the preparation process. The regional PRSP was adopted by ECOWAS Member States in November 2006. The nexus between migration and development is reflected throughout the paper. National units should be set up in the Member States to monitor the implementation of the paper, which comprises three complementary phases: first, the need to agree on the priorities (intervention areas, actions, and their sequencing); second, the need to prepare a three-year action program and a resource mobilization plan; and third, the need to set up monitoring and evaluation mechanisms.

In the ECOWAS/WAEMU regional strategy, labour migration is considered conducive to the economy and acceleration of growth in host countries/areas. In exchange, remittances from migrant workers are seen by the regional paper as important mechanisms for redistributing growth dividends. However, the paper does not turn a blind eye to the challenges migration could create for national and regional development processes. The lack of effective migration management and local integration of migrants "can also aggravate poverty and breed tensions." More consistent management of migration is therefore a priority for the West Africa regional poverty reduction strategy.

Among the priorities in the Action Program for implementation of the Regional Poverty Reduction Strategy is the establishment of strong links between the regional PRSP and national PRSPs. Reinforcement of the ECOWAS Protocol on Free Movement of Persons and stronger cross-border cooperation are also mentioned. The ECOWAS Protocol on the Free Movement of Persons, the Right of Residence and Establishment, of 29 May 1979, was one of the first ECOWAS protocols to be enacted. This legal framework is conducive to economic regional integration and would set the basis for a coherent and efficient intra-regional migration management. However, the supplementary protocols that guarantee the right of residence and establishment have not been ratified by several Member States. Nonetheless, these instruments have already had a positive impact such as the right of Community citizens to travel within the region without a passport or visa for 90 days. Further harmonization and a broader implementation of the existing instruments are necessary to ensure that migrants have the same rights to income-earning activities in all countries in the Community.

Data on migration: The IMILA project

The Project on Investigation of International Migration in Latin America (IMILA) , conceived in the early 1970s by CELADE-Population Division of ECLAC, is a concrete example of intraregional cooperation. It involves countries handing over responsibility for collecting data to an international organization in the interest of a common cause: determining the extent and characteristics of migration within the region. The project began by processing data from the 1960 round of censuses for three countries and, following its success, was used as a basis for systematizing the records of most countries that carried out population and housing censuses in the 1970s. This coverage has been maintained up to the present.

Notable features of the IMILA project include:

(a) **Exchange.** The number of persons enumerated in countries other than their country of birth is calculated using information on the population born abroad provided by national statistical offices. From this, immigrant and emigrant stocks are quantified and characterized for each country, and 'exchanges' illustrated in tables showing the origin and destination of migration between countries.

(b) **Migrant specification.** The IMILA project allows several different categories of migrants to be identified. Migrants are usually identified based on their place (country) of birth. However, in addition, in some cases, the year of arrival in the country can also be determined as well as the country of residence on a prior date. This makes it possible to estimate various different sub-categories of immigration and emigration, enhancing understanding of the phenomena.

(c) **Migrant profile.** The census data provided by each country on persons born abroad is processed to generate a set of 14 basic tables relating to socio-demographic and socio-economic characteristics (age, fertility, infant mortality, marital status, education and employment, and in most cases, gender).. In addition, the relevant databases can be used to study certain basic issues for different geographic levels (from the household to the national level.

(d) **Return migration.** An additional tabulation of return migration for people born in one country who at a certain point in time (five years prior to the census) were living in a different country than the one of their birth was included in the more recent exercises. This information makes it possible to determine characteristics of return migrants by contrasting the socio-demographic and economic characteristics of this group with those of the non-migrant population.

(e) **Dissemination of data.** Data systematized under the IMILA project has been published periodically by CELADE-Population Division of ECLAC in its Demographic Bulletin and webcast on its sub-site on international migration, accessible through the ECLAC webpage (www.eclac.cl/celade). The data corresponding to the 2000 census round was disseminated and analysed in the first issue of a new publication Demographic Observatory in 2006.

In addition, an online databank for the two latest census rounds has been designed. This databank allows for tabulations to be obtained on the basis of two search criteria: (i) the emigrants from a country; and (ii) immigrants in a country. The IMILA tabulations are available on the webpage of CELADE-Population Division of ECLAC and contain information on the 2000 and 1990 census rounds.

(f) **Geographic coverage.** The IMILA project was originally designed to collect information on 20 Latin American countries, but now also includes statistics on the countries of the English-speaking Caribbean. The coverage has been gradually extended to include Latin American and Caribbean emigrants enumerated in census exercises outside the region, especially in the United States and Canada, and, to a lesser extent, elsewhere, including some European countries, Australia, Japan and Israel.

For further reading see: Centro Latinoamericano y Caribeño de Demografía (CELADE) (2009) www.eclac.cl/cgi-bin/getProd.asp?xml=/celade/noticias/documentosdetrabajo/7/36587/P36587.xml&xsl=/celade/tpl-i/p38f.xsl&base=/celade/tpl/top-bottom_mig.xslt

2.4 Summary

The migration mainstreaming process is summarised in the table below.

The Mainstreaming Processes			
	Process Components	**Stakeholders**	**Results**
Preparatory	Raise awareness on main-streaming M&D Establish M&D committee Scoping Exercise	Government National Focal Point Expert Facilitator Support Team	Support structure established National Focal Point Expert Facilitator M&D Committee Support Team Proposal document finalized and endorsed
Situation Analysis	Map data on M&D, institutions, legislation, key M&D issues and potential policy and program-matic options. Start drafting National Plan of Action on M&D Capacity development activities on data and monitoring of the impact of migration on poverty reduction and development	National Focal Point Expert Facilitator M&D Committee Local research and statistical institutions Support Team (expert on data)	Assessment report prepared
Strategic Goals	Identify key goals and areas for intervention Define priorities Sequence priorities Raise awareness on good prac-tices in M&D policy and programs targeting public institutions, civil society and the private sector	Government M&D Committee (ministerial) Support Team Public institutions Civil society Private sector	Key strategic goals identified
Plan of Action (POA)	Draft National Plan of Action Consultations with government, development partners Plan of Action workshop Present the National Plan of Action Finalize the National Plan of Action Official endorsement of the POA by country authority	Government NFP EF M&D Committee (ministerial) Development partners Support Team Public institutions Civil society Private sector Cabinet and/or Parliament)	National Plan of Action on M&D finalized and endorsed
Capacity/Funding	Consultations with government, development partners Resource mobilization strategy Technical assistance for capacity building	NFP EF M&D Committee (ministerial) Development partners	Funding and Technical assistance agreements
Implementaiton/ Monitoring and Evaluation	Implementation/ Monitoring and Evaluation Define monitoring and evaluation framework		Implementation plan and mechanisms for monitoring and evaluation in place

chapter 3

Compilation of programme experiences on migration and development

3

PART 3: Compilation of programme experiences on migration and development

This section aims to assist countries in identifying options for action by presenting a compilation of programme ideas and examples of interventions carried out around the world. It should be used as a **reference section**, which provides inspiration and ideas as a mainstreaming migration strategy is put in place. Once M&D priorities are identified, this section will be useful in showing how strategic goals can be translated into actions.

The examples provided show how M&D strategies aim to improve development outcomes for the migrants themselves, for their households, and for their communities and nations. Attempting to improve the migration process itself, for migrants, should be particularly stressed. This is vital for the promotion of the migrants' human rights and human development, but it is also important because research has shown that migrants whose rights are respected tend to transfer more knowledge and funds back to their place of origin.

Programming in both 'traditional' development sectors and in relation to cross-cutting issues is examined, with the sectors covered comprising:

1. governance
2. legal protection
3. employment
4. social protection
5. health services
6. education
7. tertiary education
8. economic growth
9. financial services
10. trade
11. agriculture and rural development
12. infrastructure
13. environment

For each sector, the handbook provides:

- a brief review of its relevance to human development;

- a summary of potential linkages with migration;

- examples of programmes/projects/initiatives that can support sector-specific development objectives; and

- annexes with a checklist for each sector, which can help a country decide whether this is an area that merits intervention in the national context.

Some provisos should be given before examining the programmes sector by sector:

- It is important to note that mainstreaming migration in development and sectoral strategies must not always result in the development of new programmes. It could also mean that existing development programmes not directly related to migration (e.g. access to safe drinking water and sanitation) are being assessed in terms of their impacts on migrants and their families (as one particular, and potentially marginalized group); or in terms of their impacts on the size, direction and selectivity of migration flows.

- The compilation of M&D programming examples presented here is far from exhaustive, and the examples provided are not validated 'good practices'. Policy-making in this area remains in its infancy and requires creative thinking and innovative approaches. Not all interventions presented will be relevant to every situation. In each country, the type of programming chosen will depend on the findings of a situation analysis regarding factors

such as migration patterns, the socio-economic context, and priorities chosen.

- Readers may note that some of the examples are taken from projects tackling internal migration. While this is not the focus of the handbook, these are included when they provide a useful template for a similar intervention addressing international migration.

- Readers will also note that this section takes the approach – drawn from our notion of development as being about human development and human rights - that the knowledge and financial assets generated by migration are first and foremost those of the migrant. This means that while governments may introduce policies to encourage remittance recipients, for example, to use those remittances in particular ways, they have no rights to those transfers, and should not see them as a national resource to be directed to one purpose or another.

3.1   Governance

Governance is presented first, as governance of the migration process can be vital to the protection of human rights, which is at the core of enhancing migration's development impacts.

According to UNDP, "Governance can be seen as the exercise of economic, political and administrative authority to manage a country's affairs at all levels. It comprises the mechanisms, processes and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences.[17]").

In other words governance is about:

- how power is exercised;

- how decisions are taken; and

- how people have a say.

Governance is about the operations of the state - legislature, judiciary system, public services, but not only the state. It also refers to the relationships between public

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[17]   UNDP, *Governance for sustainable human development*, January 2001.

authorities and civil society (NGOs, professional associations, migrant groups, religious groups, etc.), and the private sector (enterprises, finance and credit institutions, etc.).

Key elements of sound governance are:

- government legitimacy and accountability;

- freedom of association, and means of participation;

- fair and legal frameworks to create a predictable and secure living and working environment;

- availability and validity of information;

- efficient public sector management; and

- cooperation among different branches of government, civil society and the private sector.

Governance of the migration process is a particularly important sub-category of governance that can affect migration's development impacts. The relationship between migration, development and governance at a more general level are discussed first, followed by an analysis of several aspects of migration governance specifically.

Links with migration

The following provides a non-exhaustive list of some of the ways in which migration, development and governance are interlinked:

- Migration presents a governance challenge in that it requires moving beyond policymaking based entirely on the concept of state sovereignty. Migration needs policies that are formulated in a transnational framework, with, for example, policymakers reaching out to diaspora groups located in other states, and adopting a 'shared responsibility' approach with other countries.

- At the same time, integrating migrants presents a governance challenge in that they are part of society, but in most cases not full rights-holders as citizens. This situation is even more pronounced in the case of irregular migration.

- Lack of good governance can be cause for emigration, including forced migration. If there are no viable mechanisms for expressing dissent and mediating differences, conflict and unrest may fuel displacement.

- Problems of political and bureaucratic governance sometimes result from a lack of expertise, which can originate in the emigration of competent staff. When this expertise is available in the diaspora, countries can try to tap these resources through temporary assignment of diaspora members supported by technical cooperation assistance funds.

- Migration can positively or negatively affect the balance of power, and therefore a country's governance. Indeed, through their financial power or the development of personal network abroad some groups in the diaspora, and their colleagues and allies in the country of origin, can acquire substantial power.

Migration governance

Looking specifically at the governance of migration, the following areas of policy and programme development are critical:

- Policies around migration governance should help to ensure that migration takes place under legal, safe and orderly conditions, with respect for the human rights of migrants. This includes, for example, policies that help states and societies know who is seeking access to their territories; policies that encourage immigration and/or prevent unauthorized access; policies that create legal pathways towards regularity (for undocumented migrants) and citizenship (for permanent migrants); and those that lay down humane procedures for the voluntary (or sometimes involuntary) return of migrants with irregular status.

- As the majority of migration flows today are for the purpose of employment, the governance of migration is also largely a labour market and social protection issue. Governing migration should hence have the goal of ensuring an orderly and equitable process of labour migration, with particular emphasis on achieving regular and pro-

tected labour migration, strategies to address irregular migration, and recognition of the positive contribution of labour migration to development in origin and destination countries. The section on 'employment' provides more detailed guidance on policy and programme development in this area.

- Policies to facilitate migration might aim to improve the ability of workers, professionals, students, trainees, families and others to move safely and efficiently between countries, with their rights safeguarded. In the case of labour migration, objectives may include ensuring coherence between domestic labour market policy and foreign employment policy.

- While some countries have policies to facilitate migration, others believe that development would be better served by retaining more of their nationals in their country of origin. Relevant polices might include policies to boost domestic employment, for example, or to raise pay and conditions for particular kinds of workers, such as doctors, scientists or teachers.

- Many developing countries are countries of both origin and destination (and some of transit too) and so many, if not most, will need policies that are concerned with both managing the emigration of their own nationals and receiving immigrants from other places.

- Policies on forced migration should be part of a comprehensive governing framework. They should be designed to help people who flee from persecution or move out of danger during emergencies, and to assist their voluntary and safe return, local integration, or resettlement. Managing forced migration involves finding durable solutions for refugees, former fighters, victims of ethnic violence, and victims of natural disasters, and in the case of internal movements, internally displaced persons (IDPs).

- Many countries wish to develop policies towards the diaspora or migrant communities abroad. The box below provides more detailed guidance on this particular aspect.

See the checklist on Governance in Annex C1 for issues to consider when assessing links with migration and planning action. Boxes 1-4 provide programme examples of tackling both broad governance issues and migration governance issues through migration and development interventions[18].

[18] For further examples and information, see IOM, Migration and Development: Opportunities and Challenges for Policymakers, Migration Research Series No. 22, Geneva, 2006.

Box 1: Engaging diaspora communities[19]

Diaspora communities can play an important role in the development of the home country and have the potential to lend support in a variety of ways - finance, skills, knowledge, contacts, etc. The situation of diaspora members abroad can also be an important human development issue. If they are poor, vulnerable or subject to abuse of their human rights, the government of their country of origin may wish to intervene to try to ensure respect for their human rights and promote their human development.

Engaging with diasporas is a challenge, though, as diaspora groups are often small and diverse. Maintaining cultural and social links with diasporas, moreover, is different from actively engaging diasporas for specific development interventions – the latter requiring a selective approach targeting particular segments of the diaspora – most likely those with a high degree of organization and access to resources relevant to the development needs of the country of origin.

The following list suggests types of activities needed to engage diaspora communities in home country development:

- **Define and identify diasporas:** Gather existing data on diasporas (e.g. size, geographical distribution, age, etc.), while bearing in mind that information is likely to be limited, and identify key gaps in knowledge.

- **Reach out to and engage diasporas:** To lay the foundation for collaboration and development of partnerships with diasporas, countries may want to practically and symbolically strengthen diaspora ties with the country of origin by giving it a stake in national affairs, e.g. through the granting of dual citizenship, voting rights, property rights, social rights, national or special identification cards, etc.

- **Support the diaspora in their efforts to promote their own development, including the attainment of their human rights.** Helping the diaspora to access healthcare or financial services, as Mexico for example has done, can boost their own development and improve their lives. Providing women with access to sexual and reproductive health services, including family planning, can be a particularly important aspect of this.

- **Identify how and where diasporas will add value to the development agenda in the country of origin:** There are a few provisos to keep in mind when considering potential diaspora contributions. First, diaspora contributions will be maximised when they reflect diaspora members' own needs and priorities. Governments will struggle to engage diasporas otherwise. Second, it is important to be aware of the potential negative impacts of pro-diaspora policies. For example, some nationals in the country (including the business community) may become resentful if diaspora members benefit from preferential treatment. Last, it is worthwhile considering whether it is right to target the diaspora per se in some contexts, or whether it is relevant to focus on a larger group of external actors. For example, if the goal of the diaspora engagement policy is to fund certain development projects, policymakers should consider whether it might be more effective to target external resources in general to find those contributions, rather than just the diaspora.

[19] See Annex C14 for a checklist on diaspora issues to consider when mainstreaming migration into development.

- **Identify partners among diasporas who could potentially promote development in the country of origin and recognize their priorities and agendas:** This data could be systematically gathered though databases listing diaspora initiatives, for example.

- **Identify major obstacles to diaspora contributions:** Explore which aspects of the country of origin context (which may be economic, cultural, political, etc.) might potentially hinder the success of policies in this area. Diasporas may identify a range of issues as problematic: such as, lack of an appropriate transport or banking infrastructure, bureaucracy, an imbalance in gender dynamics, corruption, lack of support networks, unclear interlocutors at governmental level, poor consular services.

- **Identify concrete projects where a common agenda with diasporas:** Analyze when diaspora contribution could be useful for the realisation of development objectives; invite diaspora representatives to discuss these issues; match diaspora resources and interests with development initiatives; support the participation of diasporas.

- **Adopt incentives that will attract diasporas to participate in development programmes:** This will partly involve measures targeted at the diaspora themselves, such as the provision of services, e.g. access to credit, business registration services, remittance transfer services at low rates etc. The transferability of social rights, pensions, savings schemes, etc. between the host and home countries can also be important incentives. Fiscal incentives and tax breaks for diasporas are also potentially effective measures, whenappropriate. Alongside diaspora specific measures, however, it is important that government address any more structural obstacles to diaspora interaction that have been identified, such as excessive bureaucracy or lack of infrastructure.

- **Ensure policy coherence:** Government policy on diasporas needs to be coordinated with main ministries in order to ensure coherence with other public policies.

- **Work with destination countries:** Governments at the national and local levels should engage their counterparts in destination countries to pursue a coordinated approach to diaspora engagement. High-income destination countries in particular have a number of policy options that can support the efforts of countries of origin. For example:

  - Initiating projects as part of their own development planning which engage diasporas living in their countries to support development in their country of origin.

  - Looking again at policies which encourage or mandate the return of migrants/diaspora members, to ensure that the potential for those returning to successfully reintegrate and contribute to local development is an integral goal of these policies. Unplanned and/or undesired return can mean that migrants suffer themselves and may bring challenges to the communities to which they return.

Countries of destination can facilitate return which is tailored to development objectives. Often this involves allowing migrants to return temporarily, at times of their own choosing. This can be facilitated through measures allowing migrants to retain their residency status in the host country even if they have been away for several years; authorizing dual citizenship; and ensuring that a temporary stay abroad does not adversely affect the acquisition of permanent status or citizenship.

Box 2: Improving institutional capacity to govern labour migration in North and West Africa

Activity: **Enhance the labour migration capacities of governments and national partners.**
Actors involved: **Ministries of Labour, Workers' and Employers' Organisations, ILO**
Countries: **Algeria, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Senegal, and Tunisia.**
Time span: **2008-2010**
Outcomes: In many countries in North and West Africa, the growth of the economically-active population is putting pressure on the absorption capacity of the labour market. High numbers in unemployment and underemployment have highlighted the deficit of decent work. These constraints have contributed to the search for opportunities for outside employment, both elsewhere in the region and in Europe. In recent years, as a result, migration in this region has both become more complex (with many countries also becoming prominent transit countries for migrants from sub-Saharan Africa) and increasingly risen up the political agenda. Hence, a strengthened institutional capacity for governance of labour migration is paramount.

The project aims to enhance labour migration capacities of governments and national partners in a regional approach, to maximize the contribution of labour migration to the development of both countries of origin and destination, and to protect migrant workers. It does so by focusing on the following objectives:

1. Enhance institutional capacity to formulate effective and coherent labour migration policies and improve governance and administration of labour migration in line with ILO conventions on migrant workers and other relevant international instruments; and

2. Improve protection of migrant workers from North and West Africa, in convergence with ILO conventions on migrant workers and other relevant international instruments.

Specific activities which have been undertaken include:

*   The development of a comprehensive information and knowledge base on labour migration, covering relevant issues in the region.
*   Capacity building activities in labour migration policymaking and governance, such as workshops and training.
*   Examination of measures to mitigate the possible negative impacts of labour migration, in particular in relation to highly skilled migration.
*   In Mali, a coordinating body on labour migration has been established.
*   In Mali and Mauritania, support has been provided to develop new legislation on labour migration.
*   A sub-regional workshop focused on the role of employers in labour migration issues has been held.
*   In Senegal, Mali and Mauritania, agreements were established between trade unions for strengthening collaboration on issues related to labour migration.
*   Enhancing dialogue and cooperation on labour migration between governments and social partners has been a priority in all phases of the project.

As a result it appears that in all six countries the project has contributed to raising awareness of migrants' rights and the importance of better governance of labour migration among persons involved in labour migration.

ILO: www.ilo.org/public/french/protection/migrant/afrique/index.htm

Box 3: Building capacities for migration governance

Moldova: Electoral Support (2005-2010)
Partners: **UNDP, Central Electoral Commission, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration**

The project aims to support democratic development in Moldova through strengthening electoral processes over the 2009-2013 electoral cycles, with immediate emphasis on the 2009 parliamentary elections. To enfranchise voters from abroad, information is disseminated through a number of channels, including embassies and consulates, diaspora associations and television in destination countries to ensure broader access of Moldovans abroad to electoral information.

Serbia: Capacity Development for the Ministry for the Diaspora (2008)

UNDP provided technical assistance by organizing an international conference with the Government of Serbia on engaging the Serbian diaspora to support development in their country of origin. The three-day international conference in Belgrade brought together experts on migration and diaspora issues from countries with large diasporas and established mechanisms to sustain their collaboration. The conference covered a range of issues including citizenship, voting, asylum, labour migration and remittances and provided an opportunity for networking and discussion of challenges, various models and good practices. The meeting produced an Action Plan that proposed new mechanisms for developing the relationship between Serbia and its diaspora.

Mongolia: Pilot Project to Support the National Poverty and MDG Monitoring and Assessment System
Partners: **UNDP, Civil Registration Information Center**

In early 2009, the first Civil Registration System was launched in Mongolia. The system, which will collect and generate accurate statistics on births, deaths, migration, citizenship and naturalization, was established at the Civil Registration Information Center with the support of UNDP. The online registration system will improve the accuracy of civil information, make the service operate more transparently, and will contribute to better coordination between government agencies. Moreover, the system will contribute to better targeting of government assistance, facilitate greater e-governance, and improve monitoring of policies, including achievement of the MDGs.

Box 4: Public administration assistance

Activity: **Establishing a labour migration unit in government**
Actors involved: **Kenya government, IOM**
Country: **Kenya**
Target group: **Relevant government institutions**
Time span: **12 months**
Outcomes (expected) in capacity development: **Interim report 31 January 2009**

The current policy of the government is to promote overseas legal/lawful employment, while being mindful of the need to retain and promote the return of key personnel to prevent damaging brain drain. This project addresses these two policy objectives through a comprehensive and holistic approach to labour migration. Based on the request of the Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development, this project will include four interconnected components.

The government is aware that Kenya has a large population of un-skilled and semi-skilled unemployed youth who often find themselves exploited by traffickers and smugglers promising them lucrative jobs in the West. Therefore, the unit would coordinate the labour migration process for the outward flow of Kenyan migrants, maintaining a database of their information. If possible the unit will also capture and analyze information of those already working abroad.

At a later stage once the unit is fully established, it would become involved in the process of granting approvals for inward labour flows of foreign nationals seeking employment in Kenya, in collaboration with the proposed National Labour Committee. The unit will also provide information on local employment opportunities to the Kenyan Diaspora seeking to return home, since it will be maintaining a skills inventory to determine local skills gaps. Information for populating the tool will be gathered through the unit or posted online by district labour officers or the potential labour migrants themselves.

Source: IOM

3.2   Legal protection

Legal protection is both part of and a driver of development. Migrants' rights are covered by a range of international instruments applicable to migrants and non-migrants alike, however, some special instruments have also been drafted to take into consideration the specificity of the phenomenon of migration and migrants' needs. Annex D2 provides an overview of these instruments.

Links with migration

The following provides a non-exhaustive list of the ways in which migration, development and legal protection are interlinked.

- Development benefits from migration for both countries of origin and destination and the protection of the rights of migrant workers are inseparable.

- Governments should ensure that national laws and practice that promote and protect human rights apply to migrant workers and that they are respected by all concerned.

- The protection of the rights of migrants is mandatory at all stages of the migration process, in countries of origin before the migrants leave, during transit through one or many countries, and during their work and stay in countries of destination and finally, if migrants return, back in the country of origin.

- Migrants require particular attention in terms of rights protection because they often face difficulties with having their rights recognized, protected and fulfilled, as they are not citizens of the countries in which they live. Indeed, migrants' rights are often not addressed in national legislation in their countries of origin, destination, or transit. (It

should be noted that all existing international labour standards apply to all migrant workers, unless otherwise stated.)

- International standards on providing rights and protection during all stages of the migration process are available to guide countries in formulating and implementing national law and policy.

- Protecting the rights of migrants additionally benefits destination countries by preventing the development of an unprotected working underclass of migrants, which also harms national workers by undercutting their pay and working conditions. It is in the best interest of destination countries to prevent the emergence of migrant dependent economic sectors. This is true both regarding the treatment of regular and irregular migrants. It is in the interest of all to prevent irregular migration. Irregular migration is an obstacle to the development benefits of migration and migrant workers in irregular status are most often excluded from labour and social rights.

- A lack of legal protection in the country of origin can potentially be a trigger for emigration.

- When legal protection related push factors have not been resolved, return of migrants seems less likely, as does their active contribution to development as members of the diaspora. Ensuring a certain standard of legal protection and good governance is probably a good strategy, therefore, to make migration more development-friendly.

See the checklist on legal protection in Annex C2 for issues to consider when assessing links with migration and planning action, and Boxes 5-7 for programme examples[20].

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[20] For further examples and information, see: IOM, *Migration and Development: Opportunities and Challenges for Policymakers*, Migration Research Series No. 22, Geneva, 2006; GMG, *International Migration and Human rights: opportunities and challenges on the threshold of the 60th Anniversary of the universal declaration of human rights*, 2008; Wickramasekara, P., "Protection of Migrant Workers in an Era of Globalization: The Role of International Instruments," in R. Blainpain (ed.), *Comparative Labour Law and Industrial Relations in Industrialized Market Economies*, 9th edition, 2007; Austin, Wolters Kluwer, Wickramasekara, P., "Globalisation, International Labour Migration and the Rights of Migrant Workers," in *Third World Quarterly*, Vol. 29, No.7, 2008; ILO, *Protecting the Rights of Migrant Workers: A Shared Responsibility*, International Migration Programme, Geneva, 2009; and ILO, *Rights, Labour Migration and Development: The ILO Approach*, International Migration Programme, Geneva.

Box 5: Extract from Migrant Workers and Overseas Filipinos Act of 1995

Act: **Republic Act Nr. 8042**
Actors involved: **Government of Philippines**
Countries: **Philippines**
Target group: **Labour migrants**
Time span: **Indefinitely**

V. THE LEGAL ASSISTANT FOR MIGRANT WORKERS AFFAIRS (Excerpt)

SEC. 24. *Legal Assistant for Migrant Workers Affairs.*

There is hereby created the position of Legal Assistant for Migrant Workers Affairs under the Department of Foreign Affairs who shall be primarily responsible for the provision and overall coordination of all legal assistance services to be provided to Filipino migrant workers as well as overseas Filipinos in distress. (…). Among the functions and responsibilities of the aforesaid Legal Assistant are:

(a) To issue the guidelines, procedures and criteria for the provision of legal assistance services to Filipino migrant workers;

(b) To establish close linkages with the Department of Labour and Employment, the POEA, the OWWA and other government agencies concerned, as well as with non-governmental organizations assisting migrant workers, to ensure effective coordination and cooperation in the provision of legal assistance to migrant workers;

(c) To tap the assistance of reputable law firms and the Integrated Bar of the Philippines and other bar associations to complement the government's efforts to provide legal assistance to our migrant workers;

(…)

Box 6: Tools for combating trafficking in persons

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) "Toolkit to Combat Trafficking in Persons" (2nd edition, October 2008) provides practical help to governments, policy-makers, police, NGOs and others to enable them to tackle human trafficking more effectively. The toolkit details a range of practices and methods currently in use throughout the world, such as checklists to help identify trafficking victims and guidance on interviewing victims and victim protection. Other tools help police to undertake cross-border investigations and advise government officials how to ensure the safe repatriation of victims.

The "International Framework for Action to Implement the Trafficking in Persons Protocol" (October 2009) supports United Nations Member States in the effective implementation of the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (United Nations Trafficking in Persons Protocol), supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (UNTOC). The International Framework for Action consists of a narrative part and a set of tables. The narrative describes key challenges in the implementation of the United Nations Trafficking Protocol and proposes general measures that can be taken in order to more effectively address these challenges. The set of tables details these measures further, through five pillars containing practical actions to support the implementation of the United Nations Trafficking Protocol. The Framework is the result of broad participation between anti-trafficking partners including Anti-Slavery International, Council of Europe, ECPAT, IOM, ILO, LEFOE-IBF, OAS, OSCE, Terre des hommes, Johns Hopkins University, UNDAW/DESA, UNICEF, UNIFEM, UNHCR, UNICRI, OHCHR and UNODC.

Box 7: Combating forced labour and trafficking of Indonesian migrant workers

Activity: The project addresses the **needs, rights and concerns of Indonesian migrant workers throughout the migration cycle.** The project also has a particular focus on migrant domestic workers, who are among the most vulnerable to forced labour and trafficking.

Actors involved: Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration, Coordinating Ministry for Economic Affairs, National Planning Agency, National Agency for the Protection and Placement of Indonesian Migrant Workers, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry for Women's Empowerment, Ministry of Home Affairs, Ministry of Health, Relevant Local Government Offices, National Human Rights and Women's Rights Committees, National Trade Union Confederations and Federations, Migrant Workers' Unions and other Migrant Workers' and Domestic Workers' Organisations in Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore and Hong Kong, NGOs and CBOs concerned with Domestic Workers, Migrant Workers, Forced Labour and Trafficking, ILO

Countries: **Indonesia**
Time span: **2008-1011**

Outcomes: Every year about 750,000 documented Indonesian migrant workers – of which 80 percent are migrant domestic workers – leave home to seek employment abroad. Their primary destinations are the Middle East and South East and East Asia, with the two most common destinations being Malaysia and Saudi Arabia. A similar number of undocumented migrant workers are believed to go overseas yearly to the same destination countries.

Although migrant domestic workers play a central role in sustaining the national economy of Indonesia, their plight and need for adequate legal protection in Indonesia and abroad have not yet been sufficiently addressed. As a result, migrant domestic workers are exposed to institutionalised trafficking and forced labour practices throughout the entire migration cycle.

The project aims to contribute to the eradication of discrimination and exploitation of Indonesian migrant workers in Indonesia and selected main receiving countries in South-East and East Asia. To achieve this objective, an integrated approach is applied to comprehensively address both the causes and impact of forced labour and trafficking in migrant workers. The main project components are:

Advocacy and technical cooperation: to strengthen the policy and legal framework for the protection of migrant workers.

Awareness raising: in order to sensitize relevant stakeholders to safe migration and recognition of workers in the domestic sector.

Capacity building: to strengthen the organizational capacity of governmental institutions at national and local levels, and strengthen migrant and domestic workers' organizations in terms of outreach activities as well as alliance-building with trade unions and other organizations that support the cause of domestic and migrant workers.

Direct assistance and service provision: in collaboration with national and local partners that are providing outreach, protection, livelihood and reintegration services to migrant domestic workers in source and destination countries. This entails legal and psychological counselling, help desks, hotlines, pre-departure training, para-legal training, financial education, entrepreneurship training, production skills training, cooperatives training, remittance services, insurance provision and access to revolving micro-credit schemes for migrant workers, their families and communities.

Targeted research and documentation: conducting targeted research, policy analyses and assessments, as well as compiling and disseminating information related to conditions of migrant domestic workers.

3.3   Employment

Employment is central to a country's state of development and links closely with other sectors. Levels of employment or unemployment are a crucial indicator of a nation's economic health and its people's well-being. Employment is an important form of livelihood support, and in addition to providing people with an income, in many cases it also gives a sense of purpose and participation in society.

Links with migration

The links between migration, development and employment are complex. Below are a few ways in which these aspects interplay.

• Labour migration has increasingly become a liveli-

hood strategy for women and men due to lack of opportunities for full employment and decent work in many developing countries. Most of the world's migrants, estimated at 214 million in 2010, are migrant workers – those who migrate for employment – and their families. Thus, global migration is largely an employment and labour market issue.

• Migration has important inter-relationships with core employment issues (such as fundamental labour rights, the workings of the labour market, and economic growth), and as such, it is a critical component in employment-related objectives like decent work, job growth and development in both countries of origin and destination. (See Box 8 below for further details on linkages between migration and decent work in particular.)

Box 8: Decent work

Labour migration has increasingly become a livelihood strategy for women and men due to lack of opportunities for full employment and decent work in their home country. Migrant workers can make their best contribution to economic and social development in destination and origin countries when they have decent working conditions, and when their fundamental human and labour rights are protected. Recognised international instruments and conventions constitute the most important building blocks for the protection of migrant workers at the international level

Decent Work refers to opportunities for women and men to obtain work in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity. Decent work involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social security for workers and their families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to organise and participate in the decisions that affect their lives, and equality of treatment and opportunity for all women and men.

The Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization adopted in 2008 reinforces and institutionalises the Decent Work concept and places it at the heart of achieving progress and social justice in the context of globalisation.

Protection of the rights of migrant workers has been on the agenda of the International Labour Organization (ILO) since its inception. The Preamble to the 1919 Constitution of the ILO sets among its objectives the "protection of the interest of workers when employed in countries other than their own". This was reinforced by the 1944 Philadelphia Declaration and the 1998 Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, which reiterates that in seeking to maintain the link between social progress and economic growth, the guarantee of fundamental principles and rights at work is of particular significance.

In the current era of globalisation, the challenge confronting the global community is to govern migration to enable it to serve as a force for growth and development and to ensure the protection of the rights of migrants. Many migrant workers suffer from poor working and living conditions, with their rights as workers often undermined, especially if they are in an irregular situation. Measures should be put in place to prevent abusive practices and promote decent and productive work for migrant workers. This reflects the ILO Multilateral Framework on Labour Migration principle on decent work which states that opportunities for all men and women of working age, including migrant workers, to obtain decent and productive work in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity should be promoted. It is also in line with the ILO Decent Work Agenda which promotes access for all to freely chosen employment, the recognition of fundamental rights at work, an income to enable people to meet their basic economic, social and family needs and responsibilities and an adequate level of social protection for workers and their families.

- In both countries of origin and destination labour migration dynamics and conditions of work are shaped by factors such as wage levels, working conditions, and the existence (or otherwise) of equal treatment and opportunity, and exploitation and hazardous labour.

- Targeted labour market policies can play an important role in enhancing the linkages between migra-

tion and development. Policies on issues such as vocational and skills training, educational programmes and job search assistance, targeted at prospective migrants and returning migrants, are (if administered effectively by employment services) likely to produce positive developmental effects.

- At the national level, labour shortages due to emigration of workers may result in a decrease in the

national output, especially since those who have the capacity to leave are often the most productive.

- Conversely, outflows may result in a reduction of unemployment and underemployment, thus positively affecting the economy.

- The overall impact of migration on national productivity will depend on labour market conditions – i.e., if loss of labour through migration cannot be replaced either by other nationals or new immigrants there can be a negative effect. Alternatively, return migration or new immigration may have a positive effect, though this will be dependent on the numbers of people entering the country, their level of skills and the ability of those migrants to reintegrate into domestic labour markets.

- Migration has implications for the dynamics of the family household left behind, which will affect employment levels and patterns. These may include, for example, increasing responsibilities for women, or increases in the number of single parent households. In cases in which women migrate, the family responsibilities are often transferred to women of a lower social status, thus creating employment that rarely meets the conditions of decent work. Children's situations may be affected too, with children either being pushed into or drawn out of the labour market. The precise impacts will depend on the context in which migration takes place.

- Despite having a potential for economic growth and development, migration movements can have important downsides for countries of origin. As noted earlier in this handbook, highly remittance-reliant economies might experience increasing inequality between migrant and non-migrant households and geographical areas. For many countries the economic and social costs of brain drain and brain waste has become an increasing concern. Consequently, it is important for countries of origin to design and implement policies to encourage the return of skilled migrants and maximise the benefits of skills training and expertise acquired abroad.

- For countries of origin, it is vital to see labour

migration in the context of the broader domestic labour market policy, so that migration policies work towards the same broad goals as other labour-related policies. The sorts of policies that need to be considered alongside migration strategies include policies on skills development, youth employment, the extent and nature of the informal sector, and policies towards small and medium sized businesses.

- Many countries have, over the past years, developed national labour migration policies that aim at developing a long-term vision for the role of labour migration within the framework of the country's overall development strategy. Such policies articulate the country's commitment to ensuring a labour migration governance and process that safeguards the rights and protection of migrant workers and a strategy to reach the development potential of migration. A national strategy can also envisage ways of strengthening collaboration with countries of destination.

- The facilitation of foreign employment is a strategy used by some developing countries for alleviating labour market pressures and increasing remittance receipts and thus household income for families left behind. Evidence suggests that this strategy can be effective if a number of conditions are met:

  – it ensures that migrants experience decent working conditions (including equality of treatment and non-discrimination in employment and occupation, and freedom of association and collective bargaining), and their human and labour rights are protected;

  – the strategy is carefully linked to domestic labour market policy, as discussed above; it translates into remittances and other T2 and T3 type support, which also benefit poor households and marginalized groups; and

  – if the social implications of emigration – many of which can be negative – are assessed and appropriate policies put in place to mitigate them. The types of social implications that need to be taken into account include:

    • access to social protection (health services,

pensions) for migrants while abroad and for families left behind;

- portability of benefits that migrants acquire while abroad;

- migrant workers' potential exposure to risk behaviours (such as drug abuse) and associated health risks (e.g., sexually transmitted infections, including HIV, mental health issues, occupational health problems, etc.);

- female migrant workers exposure to gender-based violence and need for access to sexual and reproductive health, including family planning;

- social costs of family disruption, especially for children left behind. These will differ in many contexts depending on whether the father or mother is migrating; and

- emergence of a 'culture of migration' that associates personal, social, and material success with emigration, and staying home with failure. If measures are not put in place to tackle this and balance and share the benefits of migration opportunities, the result can be increased disparities in countries of origin, jealousy and social tension.[21]

A careful and balanced assessment is needed, then, to ensure that the conditions are in place for such an approach to enhance rather than undermine development.

The sorts of questions policymakers should consider when developing a strategy for the facilitation of labour migration include:

- What type of regulatory framework should be in place? This should involve consideration of whether the country has ratified any of the inter-

national migration conventions, including the ILO conventions - Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97) or ILO Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143) or the 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (ICRMW).

- What should the roles of the state and the private sector be?

- Which government departments and other stakeholders are involved? Have you ensured the involvement of relevant social partners such as workers' and employers' organisations and migrant workers' organisations?

- What are the comparative advantages of your country, in terms of skills (language, professional and vocational skills) that could be niches for foreign employment?

- How is policy coherence ensured while taking into consideration the facilitation of foreign employment, prevention of brain drain and the needs of domestic labour market policy?

- Which aspects of foreign employment facilitation (protection measures, pre-departure information, monitoring of recruitment, consular services abroad, etc.), marketing, skills development, facilitating procedures, etc. would require more policy development in the particular context?

From this point interventions can be developed. They tend to fall into three categories: market development; education, training and skills development; and selection and recruitment. These are described in the sections below, with programme examples included.

a) Market development

Facilitating foreign employment requires an understanding of overseas labour markets and the marketing of skills being offered. The following checklist suggests the types of activities that can assist countries in formulating effective market development strategies:

- Identify target countries, assessing:

  - which countries provide a safe migration envi-

[21] For further information, see: OSCE, ILO, IOM, *Handbook on Establishing Effective Labour Migration Policies in Countries of Origin and Destination*, 2006, available at: www.osce.org/item/19187.html; 'The Multilateral Framework on Labour Migration: Non-binding principles and guidelines for a rights-based approach to labour migration,' at www.ilo.org/public/english/protection/migrant/areas/multilateral.htm; *Good practices database - Labour migration policies and programmes*, at: www.ilo.org/dyn/migpractice/migmain.home; *Promoting equality and integration - Agenda for Action to prevent discrimination and facilitate integration in the context of migration* at: www.ilo.org/public/english/protection/migrant/equality/index.htm.

ronment (guaranteeing the human and labour rights of migrants);

- if the country provides migrants with economic and social opportunities so that they will be able to pursue their own personal development and also gain more resources that can be transferred back to the country of origin;

- if the educational qualifications and experiences demanded by foreign employers in those countries match the skills of workers in the country of origin, and if they do not,

- what measures can be undertaken in skills upgrading to create such a match.

- Establish mechanisms for tripartite consultations at regional, international and multilateral levels.

- Look into possibilities of developing bilateral and multilateral agreements with destination countries, addressing different aspects of labour migration, such as admission procedures, flows, family reunification possibilities, integration policy and return.

- Develop or update labour market information systems.

- Take the gender dimension of migration into account: labour markets, especially for low or unskilled labour, usually assign men and women to different occupations, with women often working in unregulated segments of the labour market such as domestic services, where they are less protected.

- Organize a private recruitment system and/or public employment services for foreign jobs, including effective oversight mechanisms to ensure that prospective migrants receive adequate information and training in line with their prospective assignments (including importantly on their rights), and are not being charged excessive recruitment fees.

- Engage consular services (embassies, labour attachés, honorary consul) in foreign employment activities in the host country, particularly to:

  - gather and analyse information on the immigration and employment situation;

  - link with industries, associations or chambers of commerce, businesses, industries or entrepre-

neurs, which are potential sources of employment for their nations;

- provide services and legal assistance to overseas workers, especially in situations of distress; and

- engage with civil society organizations in the host country to explore whether they can provide assistance to migrants, if required.

(b) Education, training and skills development

Developing national education systems can generate a wealth of benefits in terms of enhancing migration and development outcomes. These include:

- Education provides people with greater opportunities locally, meaning that the decision to move or not is more of a genuine choice and involves less of a sense of compulsion.

- Education gives potential migrants tools to make more informed decisions about whether and how to migrate. Literacy, for example, enables them to read information about potential opportunities abroad, and not be so reliant on intermediaries.

- At present, many potential migrants lack the education and training required to secure formal employment abroad, as many visas require relatively high levels of education and skills. This can prevent some people who wish to migrate from doing so.

- Other would-be formal migrants who lack skills move anyway, but are forced into irregular channels, often meaning that their rights are not respected, their own development hindered, and the transfers that they can provide back to their country of origin are also limited.

- Some low skilled people are able to migrate formally, but though their situation is legally recognized they may still be subject to low pay and be less able than those who are better educated to fight for their rights and good conditions. This is particularly relevant in many contexts for women and girl migrants.

- Conversely, higher levels of education – and in some cases education in specific skills in demand

Box 9: Market development – the case of the Philippines

The Philippines government has invested in market development through its Philippines Overseas Employment Agency (POEA) in the following ways:

Research and planning – Research is carried out by desk officers with specific regional and skills-based market specialisation. Research on overseas markets is circulated to industry through a monthly situation report on international labour market trends and developments. In addition, comprehensive country-of-destination profiles are prepared on the socio-economic and political situation in destination countries.

Personal selling and promotion – The government takes a personalised approach to marketing the skills of its nationals by talking directly with officials from host countries and from private companies. Special overseas marketing missions are undertaken which can either be technical study or fact-finding missions to assess overseas opportunities or top-level good will and promotion missions involving high level government and private sector officials in meetings with top foreign officials. Overseas embassies also play a role as information centres and by paying visits to prospective clients.

Print promotions – These materials include both information on prospective employers and the support offered by the government itself and are marketed through the media, communication materials and direct mail.

Corporate promotions: The government also carries out numerous other promotional activities such as familiarisation campaigns and dialogues with foreign embassies in Manila, a client referral advisory scheme which facilitates referrals both for government and private sector jobs overseas, and an information service comprising a mini-databank of reference materials, data, reports, etc.

abroad - can promote greater opportunities to migrate formally, better pay, better treatment, and a better capability to fight exploitation.

- In order to create a strategy for building education, training and skills capacities, the following processes might be followed:

  - Consider whether greater state intervention in education and skills development would be beneficial to achieve the kind of outcomes in which the country is interested. It is important to be clear whether the goal of improved education is, for example, to enhance potential migrants' ability to appraise whether or not to move, or whether it is to enable more people to migrate by increasing their marketable skills.

Each goal may imply a different strategy[22].

- Identify occupations offering the best prospects for the desired kind of foreign employment. The extent to which there are vacancies in potential countries of destination should be considered, as should the nature of the work. It is also important to examine the transfers that might result from different kinds of occupations: might certain occupations lead to increased remittances, for example, or the higher likelihood of the migrants investing in the country of origin? Ensure that girls and women are encouraged to build their skills in such occupations so their chances to migrate safely and successfully are increased.

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[22] It is presumed that the aim of the intervention is providing education and skills to help more people migrate formally, with the goal of better wages and protection of rights that more highly skilled jobs can provide. This is because this is the most common form of intervention that is currently taking place.

- Establish systems and structures for periodically undertaking labour market analysis of key destination countries that take into account gender issues. These could include sectoral, occupational and geographical dimensions of labour shortages and their causes. This would help inform strategies for skills development and education systems on an ongoing basis.

- Determine which skills are needed for these jobs.

- Look at skills currently available in the existing labour force and among youth preparing to enter the labour force to identify skills gaps that might prevent would-be-migrants from gaining the jobs identified abroad. These could be language skills, vocational, academic, etc.

- Assess and improve the capacity of educational institutions in training nationals for skilled occupations in high demand abroad. Assess options for expanding the role of existing institutions or creating new ones/new programmes (including by attracting foreign institutions/programmes). See Box 10 for programme examples.

- Develop an information programme aimed at national workers and students informing them of foreign employment prospects, skills requirements and skills training, and/or possibilities for upgrading their skills to match foreign criteria.

- To ensure policy coherence, establish close coordination mechanisms between authorities in charge of promoting foreign employment and those affected by or working to address brain drain.

Box 10: Education, training and skills development

Philippines: The Philippines Maritime Training Council (MTC) was created to enforce the International Maritime Organization's (IMO) Standards for Qualification of Training, Certification and Watch-Keeping (STCW) for seafarers, and to create an effective organization for the employment of seafarers. The Commission on Higher Education supervises, monitors, and regulates degree programmes in marine engineering and marine transportation, while the Professional Regulation Board admin¬isters professional examinations for these programmes. Candidates for officer positions must have a college degree and pass the maritime engineering and transport board examination. The Technical Skills Development Authority (TESDA) is responsible for sub-professional skills and, as such, assesses and certifies skills ratings (non-officer seafarers) through tests and examinations. The TESDA certificate of skills rating, the Professional Regulation Commission certification for marine engineers (officers) and its National Training Centre are now essential tools for increasing employment opportunities abroad. In addition, MTC accredits maritime training institu¬tions, which is useful for employers and students alike. This example of upgrading a national system to comply with international standards is unique, as the requirements are mandatory for this entire industry on a global scale. Indeed, the amended STCW (Regulation 1/10) stipulates that seafar¬ers cannot be hired to work on board ocean-going vessels if their countries of origin are not on the IMO 'white list' and not covered by bilateral agreements between seafarer-sending and seafarer-accepting countries for the recognition of seafarer's certificates of competencies.

Sri Lanka: Many nationals are looking for work abroad as home carers and in occupations related to domestic aid. The Ministry of Foreign Employment Promotion and Welfare in Sri Lanka and IOM initiated the development of a high quality generic care giver and generic housekeeping/domestic aid course to meet international standards.

Bangladesh: IOM in Bangladesh developed an English language training manual for nurses and hotel workers, as well as a training manual on housekeeping activities for female migrants which covers language, skill development, cultural orien¬tation, negotiation skill and protection issues.

c) Selection and recruitment

The final key element in promoting foreign employment is to facilitate the process of selection and recruitment.

Overseas employers may not know how to go about recruitment in developing countries. Likewise, potential candidates may have limited access to legitimate employment routes. It is important to warn and inform prospective migrants of the risks of fraudulent job offers and recruitment practices, and the dangers of human trafficking.

Recruitment is usually managed by the private sector, but there are examples from around the world of state facilitation of this process. States have a key role to play in regulating and overseeing the recruitment sector, certifying legitimate recruiters and providing publicly accessible information on applicable recruitment rules (e.g., caps on recruitment fees).

The following checklist suggests the types of activities needed to facilitate selection and recruitment of nationals by employers abroad.

- Disseminate information on job opportunities through websites, information campaigns, etc. The information may cover:

  - how to find out about job vacancies abroad;

  - essential requirements for employment in the desired sector and destination country (education, skills, qualifications, experience, capital, agency fees, passports and visas, etc.);

  - how to find recruitment agents that are reliable and trustworthy, and avoid those that are not;

  - dangers related to illegitimate recruitment, irregular migration and human trafficking; and

  - other factors to take into account when considering employment in another country (health, family disruption, cultural differences, etc.).

- Maintain a database of labour supply. Databases are a useful tool for recruitment for specific open vacancies or specific sectors under bilateral foreign recruitment programmes, but are less useful

for the registration of labour supply in general. The database approach has been implemented in Tunisia, for example, where the National Agency for Employment and Independent Work (ANETI) and the Tunisian Agency for Technical Cooperation (ATCT) have developed databases for employers willing to recruit Tunisian workers, information that is disseminated to relevant Italian institutions and the private sector as part of bilateral relations between Italy and Tunisia.

- Collaborate with employers' and workers' organisations to ensure both perspectives are considered in policymaking.

- Ensure immigration clearance for recruited workers.

- Reassess administrative procedures, making them as quick and simple as possible, because lengthy, costly and cumbersome procedures can be off-putting for prospective employers. Reducing such barriers also opens access to overseas employment to lower socio-economic groups who might otherwise struggle to negotiate them. The following measures would reduce administration:

  - Standard contracts, which include: identification of the parties to a contract; details of terms and conditions (salary, hours, place of work, overtime); information on specific benefits over and above the minimum benefits provided by the host country; and certification that both parties to the contract accept the terms and conditions.

  - One-Stop Service Centre for Overseas Employment that groups together different agencies: the ministry of foreign affairs for issuing passports; police for checking criminal records; and the ministry of labour for overseas employment activities, etc.

  - Travel loans at reasonable prices may be set up with the support of national banks/micro-credit institutions, with repayment made through remittances deducted from salaries. This may involve negotiating discount fares with airlines and other carriers.

- Reduced placement costs through regulating fees that can be charged by recruitment companies, as for example the Philippines government has done (They are set at a level equivalent to one month's salary). State bodies can also be established, in parallel to private agencies, to provide placement services at minimum cost.

- Keeping the documentation and administration associated with migrating to a minimum, such as passports and supporting documents (e.g., birth certificates, criminal records), exit/travel taxes, and affidavits.

- Ensure the necessary documentation is accessible outside of the capital city or a few administrative centres by de-centralizing administrative services.

Annex C3 provides a checklist on Employment for additional issues to consider when assessing links with migration. Further examples of employment-related M&D policies and practices are provided in Boxes 11-15.[23]

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[23] For further examples and information, see Alejandro Portes, *Migration and Social Change: Some Conceptual Reflections*, by Princeton University, August 2008, www.imi.ox.ac.uk/pdfs/alejandro-portes-migration-and-social-change-some-conceptual-reflections, ILO, *International Labour Migration: Towards a Rights-Based Perspective*, International Migration Programme, Geneva, 2010 9forthcoming), ILO, *Resolution concerning a fair deal for migrant workers in the global economy*, adopted at the 92nd session of the International Labour Conference, Geneva, in: Report of the Committee on Migrant Workers, Provisional Record 22, International Labour Conference, Ninety-second Session, International Labour Office, pp.55-64, 2004, and National labour migration policy of Sri Lanka www.ilo.org/public/english/protection/migrant/info/mpolicy_srilanka.htm.

Box 11: Selection and recruitment – bilateral framework agreements

Ecuador/Spain: After signing a bilateral agreement on migration with Spain, Ecuador established the Technical Unit for the Selection of Migrant Workers (UTSM) (under an agreement between the Government of Ecuador and IOM). The UTSM carried out an information campaign on the possibility of registering workers in a database willing to take up employment in Spain. The employers transmit their requests for workers, either anonymously or by naming specific workers, to the provincial Labour and Social Affairs office. If approved, their requests are forwarded to the *Direcci ón General de Ordenaci ón de las Migraciones* (DGOM).

DGOM transfers the requests to Spanish embassies, which will in turn communicate them to the institution in charge of pre-selection of workers. The UTSM then informs the Spanish authorities if they have workers in their database matching the requisite profiles. The pre-selection is conducted in Ecuador by a joint commission comprised of representatives of Ecuadorian and Spanish authorities, as well as the employers if they wish to be present (in person or through video conferencing). The workers are then called for an interview at which they will be selected by Spanish authorities and enterprises, with the assistance of Ecuadorian authorities. The list of selected workers is transmitted to Spanish embassies, who subsequently inform the enterprises so that they can draw up an employment contract. These contracts are forwarded to UTSM, which contacts the workers and assists them with travel arrangements and immigration procedures.

Mexico/Canada: The Canadian Seasonal Agriculture Worker Programme specifies the role of countries of origin in its operational guidelines. Once the Government of Mexico receives notice of the number of workers a Canadian employer requires, it arranges the recruitment, selection and documentation of the workers, and notifies the Canadian authorities within 20 days of the number of workers, their names, and the date of their arrival in Canada. The Mexican authorities select only persons who are capable of performing agricultural work and who meet Canadian health requirements. Medical examinations must be arranged before arrival in Canada, pursuant to the medical processing guidelines established by Citizenship and Immigration Canada. Mexico delivers the applications, details of identity documents and medical clearance to the Canadian consular offices, and confirms that the worker has no criminal record. This delivery must be completed ten working days before the worker's departure date to Canada.

Mexico must maintain a pool of 300 workers who are suitably qualified and ready for departure to Canada when requests are received from Canadian employers (in order to reply to emergency or replacement needs). Mexico is also required to appoint one or more agent in Canada for the purpose of ensuring the smooth functioning of the programme. This is intended to benefit both employers and workers. Finally, Mexico has to ensure that its government agents in Canada provide the Canadian Human Resource Department with information on such matters as arrivals and repatriations, transfer notices, records of persons absent without leave, and other records and programme data as may be necessary and mutually agreed. Canadian Immigration Medical Services should be provided with the personal details of all workers to be repatriated for medical reasons, including all medical documents relating to the worker's pre-employment examination.

Box 12: Prevention of exploitation, irregular migration and human trafficking

Ghana: Information Campaign to Prevent Trafficking and Irregular Migration (2006-2007)
Partners: IOM and UNDP

This project was aimed at preventing trafficking in persons and irregular migration through the provision of information to vulnerable people, potential victims of trafficking, and transit migrants. The project, led by IOM with UNDP, built the capacities of local governmental and non-governmental partners in urban and selected rural areas in Accra and Takoradi. To raise awareness and educate the public to prevent trafficking, materials in four languages were distributed on the realities of trafficking, irregular migration, health risks and HIV. The materials integrated real-life stories of dangers faced by Ghanaians who have dealt with dubious agents and visa brokers or have undertaken irregular migration. Within the framework of the project, a telephone hotline in Accra and consultation centres in Accra and Takoradi were established as tools through which to reach the population of Ghana. The project targeted transit migrants, originating from neighboring countries on their way to other African republics such as Libya, Algeria, Morocco and beyond to the EU countries.

Republic of Belarus: Preventing, Fighting and Addressing the Social Consequences of Trafficking in Human Beings (2009-2010)
Partners: UNDP, UNICEF, IOM, Ministry of Interior, The European Commission, National Coordinating TACIS Unit, State Border Committee, Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Economy, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Information, Ministry of Education, Belarusian Young Women Christian Association (YWCA), La Strada, Business Women Club in Brest, the Red Cross Society

The project aims to fight trafficking in human beings through preventive measures and better protection and rehabilitation of victims of trafficking. Through better coordination among ministries, specifically the State Border Committee and the Ministry of the Interior, the project aims to enhance the capacity to prosecute traffickers. It also intends to expand local training, awareness-raising campaigns, and to develop victim protection and reintegration programs based on best international experience and practices. As part of the prevention efforts, the project aims to contribute to generating employment in the private sector for women and young people.

Nigeria and Poland: Migrant Rights (2009-2011)

Partners: Joint Migration and Development Initiative (JMDI), Instytut na Rzecz Pastwa Prawa (FIPP) (Rule of Law Institute Foundation) Poland, Human Support Services (HSS) Nigeria.

The project, which started in October 2009, will raise awareness of abusive and exploitative labour practices and the dangers of irregular channels of migration among potential migrants, migrant communities, policy makers and law enforcement. To benefit migrant communities, the project seeks to create hubs, in the form of websites, newsletters and hotlines for information and assistance and to report exploitative labour practices, including violence against women migrants. Together with partners, UNDP will organize thematic trainings and conferences for employers and law enforcement on laws regarding the protection of the rights of migrants and their families in both partner countries. Trainings will include a gender component, and the work will be guided by the ILO Conventions on the protection of migrant workers, the Migrant Workers Convention and the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women. UNDP will also facilitate networking opportunities to facilitate exchange of knowledge on migration issues as part of the effort to build Polish-Nigerian bilateral relations.

Box 13: Formulation of a national labour migration policy for Sri Lanka

Activity: **Formulation of a National Policy on Labour Migration**

Actors involved: the Ministry of Foreign Employment Promotion and Welfare (MFEPW), the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment, the Ministry of Labour and Manpower, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Health Care and Nutrition, social partners (employers' and workers' organizations), the recruitment industry, civil society, academics, concerned NGOs, and relevant international agencies (IOM, UNFPA, UNDP), ILO

Country: **Sri Lanka**

Time span: **2 years** (2008-2009)

Outcomes: The ILO assisted the Government of Sri Lanka in the formulation of a National Labour Migration Policy (NLMP). The intervention was in response to a request from the Ministry of Foreign Employment Promotion and Welfare (MFEPW) for assistance.

The draft National Labour Migration Policy was validated at a national tripartite consultation in October 2008. The Ministry of Foreign Employment Promotion and Welfare adopted the policy document, and obtained the approval of the Cabinet of Sri Lanka in April 2009. The NLMP contains an Action Plan for implementation.

The national policy was developed in line with the international normative framework, including the 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families ratified by Sri Lanka in 1996, and principles and guidelines contained in ILO migrant worker conventions and the ILO Multilateral Framework on Labour Migration.

The policy was one of the first of its kind providing an integrated approach to the issue of governing labour migration by developing a long-term vision for the role of labour migration in the economy, improved protection of rights of female and male migrant workers, and enhancing benefits while minimizing negative impacts of migration.

The serious challenges faced by Sri Lanka in effectively governing labour migration and protecting migrant workers were recognised as providing the context for the elaboration of a national strategy. The way forward identified was a participatory tripartite plus process, involving the Government and the social partners, as well as all other stakeholders concerned with migration in Sri Lanka. A Tripartite Steering Committee was established under the guidance of the Minister of Foreign Employment Promotion and Welfare. Three thematic

working groups representing different stakeholders were created to steer the preparation of national policy in the areas of 'governance and regulation of labour migration'; 'protection of migrant workers'; and 'promoting development contributions of migration'.

The policy identifies the linking of development and migration processes in recognition of the contribution of labour migration to employment, economic growth, development and the generation of income. The policy does point out that the State is also committed to creating decent work opportunities at home and promoting equitable distribution of wealth and the benefits of development.

In relation to the linkages between migration and development, the policy identifies in particular the issues of:

- promotion and development of employment opportunities outside Sri Lanka;

- the importance of integrating and mainstreaming labour migration in national development planning and policies;

- promotion of skilled migration to ensure development of a higher mix of skills and to increase opportunities for prospective migrant workers to become skilled;

- better understanding and recognition of the role of migrant remittances in development and in particular its role in human capital formation through education and healthcare for children;

- return migration and circulation as key opportunities for skills transfer, productive employment and conflict-free social integration and engagement of transnational communities to harness the resources, skills and expertise of Sri Lankan migrant workers by providing incentives to return and other ways of contributing to home country development.

Lastly, the policy recognises the need for comprehensive information and databases on labour migration as a means to better achieve development, protection and good governance of labour migration.

Box 14: Developing policies and mechanisms that enhance the positive impact of migration on development – CIS Region

Activity: **Towards sustainable partnerships for Effective Governance of Labour Migration in the Russian Federation, the Caucasus and Central Asia**
Actors involved: **national governments, workers' and employers' organisations, ILO**
Countries: **Russian Federation, Armenia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan**
Time span: 2006-2010

Outcomes: Disparities in economic development across the region, the historical legacy of past migrations and the growing demographic deficit and resultant labour shortages in Russia and Kazakhstan, in particular, continue to encourage migration in this region. Most migrants move to the Russian Federation; it is estimated for example that over 500,000 Tajiks seasonally migrate to the Russian Federation each year. It is also important to note that there is significant migration from the Russian Federation, particularly of the educated and skilled, with specialists and managers comprising more than forty percent of annual labour migration from the country. In this context all countries in the region face the challenge of maximising the benefits of migration for both

origin and destination countries, while minimizing its potentially negative consequences. Specifically, more effective regulation of immigration needs to be combined with longer term and more proactive initiatives to reduce disparities and ensure that those who move do so voluntarily, in a legal manner and because their labour is required.

The ILO, with financial support of the EU, has supported the development of policies and programmes by governments and social partners aimed at generating more effective governance of labour migration in the region:

- In the Russian Federation, tools are being developed to better assess labour requirements for migrant workers on the basis of available labour market data.

- In Kazakhstan trade unions have, for the first time, developed a policy and manual for activists to reach out to migrant workers in need of protection.

- In Kyrgyztan, the occupational classification in construction is being updated to reflect the new economic realities in the country and region.

- In Armenia and Tajikistan, the focus has been on enhancing the development impact of migration, particularly in terms of mobilising the various resources of migrants - skills, know-how, finances, contacts and ideas.

    - Tajikistan has developed a state Concept Note on Engaging the Diaspora as   Development Partners including specific "forms and ways of cooperation with the Tajik diaspora."

    - A Handbook for Armenians Abroad has been prepared to provide knowledge and information to Armenian labour migrants and the diaspora that will help them participate and contribute to development of their homeland.

    - In both Armenia and Tajikistan, where migrant remittances equal 20 percent or more of GDP, research has been undertaken to identify the savings and investment potential of remittances and map existing financial products to attract remittance funds. As a result of the research and dissemination of its findings, some banks and micro-finance institutions have begun to develop new loan and deposit products tailored to remittance receivers. This will be accompanied by financial education for both potential clients and bank staff.

The effective governance of labour migration has been mainstreamed in the ILO Decent Work Country Programmes (DWCP) in the region. At a regional conference of ILO constituents (government, trade union and employer organisations) in December 2009 in Baku, labour migration was prioritised as one of the top two regional priorities for ILO programming. Earlier in October 2009, at regional consultations of ILO constituents from Central Asia, Russia and Armenia in Kyrgyztan, delegates made nine recommendations to enhance the development impact of migration, including some concerning integrating migration in development planning. It was recognised that policies and strategies to reduce the negative impact of migration and increase its positive impacts should find an important place in national development planning processes in the region, particularly in countries where most migrants originate.

3.4 Social protection

Social protection aims to provide safeguards to individuals, households, and communities against reduction or loss of income due to economic and social risks such as illness, old age, unemployment, disability, or other hardships. These risks can be addressed through a broad range of measures including public interventions (such as formal pension schemes, tax-funded non-contributory pensions, universal child allowance, food stamps, and conditional and non-conditional cash transfer programs) as well as through family and community solidarity. Social protection can also enhance men's and women's labour productivity, reducing poverty and inequality and stimulating economic growth.

Linkages with migration

- Migration for employment can lead to better access to social protection mechanisms and can constitute a private coping strategy in the absence of employment opportunities in origin countries (e.g., employment and increased income can provide migrant workers and their families with greater access to public social insurance schemes and private insurance).

- Social exclusion and the lack of opportunities in their home countries have been push factors for some migrants, and taking advantage of opportunities and formal or informal social protection in destination countries also act as pull factors.

- As such, provision of adequate social protection in countries of origin can help ensure migration is a choice and is not undertaken out of necessity.[24]

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24 The Plan of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development held in Cairo in 1994 mandates governments of countries of origin and of countries of destination to address the root causes of migration, especially those related to poverty, and to make the option of remaining in one's country viable for all people. To that end they should provide for the attainment of national and household food security, education, nutrition, health and population- relevant programs, and to ensure effective environmental protection.

- However, migration can also expose migrants and their families to risks and vulnerabilities at each stage of the migration process that require further social protection strategies. In countries of destination, for example, migrants can find themselves victims of discrimination and social marginalization, and face difficulties in accessing basic services and other social benefits. And in countries of origin, separation of family members can lead to vulnerabilities for children and families left behind. As such, social protection can be seen as a way to address the risks and vulnerabilities created by migration.

- Migrant workers are often denied access to social security coverage in destination countries, either due to an irregular status, an insufficient duration of employment and/or residence, or simply because they are not a national or permanent resident. Workers may too, at the same time, risk the loss of entitlement to social security benefits in their countries of origin due to their absence.

- The conclusion of social security agreements - treaties that coordinate the social security schemes of two or more countries to ensure the portability of social security entitlements - is the most effective way to provide social security protection to migrant workers and their families. There also are other mechanisms, such as the inclusion of social security provisions in temporary labour migration programmes and voluntary insurance schemes offered by national social security systems of origin countries to their migrant workers abroad and to their family members.

- The Committee of the Rights of the Child (CRC) has identified migrant children and adolescents as a group in a vulnerable situation and has stressed the need to adopt special measures for their protection. While many social protection measures already benefit children and adolescents without explicitly targeting them, child sensitive social protection systems should help to strengthen families' capacities to provide a protective environment for children.

- In the country of destination, access to formal social protections varies according to a migrant's status (depending on whether they are permanent residents, temporary residents, asylum seekers, undocumented/irregular migrants). The legal status will determine whether and to what extent migrants and their family can have access to social protection and services. While some migrants will benefit from a social protection regime – when they have full access to social services and social security benefits, others, particularly irregular migrants, will have limited or no access to social protection in host countries. Undocumented children and children of migrant parents with irregular status may have difficulty accessing education, health care and other social services. Such children usually have no access to proper and appropriate identification, registration, documentation or legal advice[25].

- The nature of migration flows also determines the level of access to formal social protection for migrants. North-north migrants are clearly in the best position in terms of access to and portability of social security benefits. Migrants of south-north migration flows can take advantage of social security systems in their host countries that may also provide legislation on the export of pensions. South-south migrants are in the most disadvantaged position because many south-south migrants are undocumented. Also, documented migrants in low and lower middle-income countries may find provisions for formal social protection limited, even for the native labour force.

- Portability of social benefits is a key issue, and can be achieved through multilateral and bilateral agreements. These agreements guarantee comprehensive social security protection to migrants by ensuring that social security rights acquired in the host country are maintained and transferred to the country of origin. One example is the Caribbean Community and Common Market Agreement (CARICOM) on Social Security, a comprehensive multilateral

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[25] The CRC expressly mentions that the Convention applies to all children in the State party's jurisdiction. In its General Comment N 6 on unaccompanied and separated children, the CRC reiterates the importance of this provision:*[T]he enjoyment of rights stipulated in the Convention is not limited to children who are citizens of a State party and must therefore, if not explicitly stated otherwise in the Convention, also be available to all children including asylum seeking, refugee and migrant children irrespective of their nationality, immigration status or statelessness." "…States should ensure that separated and unaccompanied children have a standard of living adequate for their physical, mental, spiritual and moral development. As provided in article 27 (2) of the Convention, States shall provide material assistance and support programs, particularly with regard to nutrition, clothing and housing."*

agreement signed in 1997 to harmonize the social security legislation of its Member States.

- Where portability of social rights is lacking, this can create distortions in migration decisions. People who might otherwise wish to return to their country of origin may decide not to, as the social rights they have acquired are so valuable that they instead chose to stay in the country of destination. Enhanced portability of social rights could lead to enhanced rates of return.

- There are alternative social protection arrangements that can be put in place for returnees. For example, the Philippines has a Social Security System (SSS) that offers voluntary social security coverage for Overseas Filipino Workers (OFWs) under two programs: the Regular Program and the Flexi-Fund Program or the National Provident Fund for migrant workers. The SSS has also established 15 offices worldwide, mainly housed at Philippine consulates. The Flexi-Fund Program is a tax-exempt savings and pension plan designed to encourage overseas Filipinos to augment their savings from their income, so they would have generated enough funds when they eventually decide to go home.

- In countries of origin, remittances migrants send back home assume the function of private social protection and play an important role in supporting family members and children left behind. They can also provide families left behind with greater access to private social insurance schemes.

- Remittances should not, however, replace government investment in domestic programs for social protection and poverty reduction.

- Migration also generates risks and may cause problems that require distinctive social protection responses. For example, family members, most notably children who stay behind, may face risks of losing substantial access to social protection when insurance was linked to the person's employment. In addition, children left behind are often relatively ignored by governmental agencies because they are considered more privileged than children who do not receive remittances and thus are excluded from the main target groups of

traditional social protection policies.

- An international legal framework has been set up for the protection of migrant workers (see Annex D2 for a list of human rights instruments) with specific instruments related to their social security. These instruments were designed to coordinate different national social security schemes and to safeguard migrant workers' social security rights by promoting equal treatment between nationals and non-nationals and maintenance of social security rights.

- The proportion of migrants working in the formal economy and covered by national social security schemes is considerably small, especially in low income countries. Consequently, it is also important to explore new strategies such as community-based approaches for extending social protection to migrant workers and their families (e.g., mechanisms using remittances to develop health micro-insurance in origin countries).

- Migration, vulnerability and social protection have a strong gender dimension with women and girls at heightened risk at each stage of the migration process. In particular, migrant women tend to be overrepresented in the sectors that are poorly regulated and do not offer any social protection, such as domestic work or the entertainment sector. Social protection policies need to take gender into account.

See the checklist on social protection in Annex C4 for issues to consider when assessing links with migration. Boxes 16-19 provide programme examples[26].

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[26] For further information, see: ILO: www.ilo.org/public/english/protection/secsoc, The World Bank: www.worldbank.org/wbi/socialprotection, Arjan de Haan and Shahin Yaqub. *Migration and Poverty: Linkages, Knowledge Gaps and Policy Implications*. UNRISD. Social Policy and Development Programme Paper Number 40 (June 2009), Avato, Johanna, Johannes Koettl and Rachel Sabates-Wheeler, 2009, "Definitions, Good Practices, and Global Estimates on the Status of Social Protection for International Migrants." World Bank SP Discussion Paper No. 0909,' 'Kulke, Ursula. 2006. *The Role of Social Security in Protecting Migrant Workers: The ILO Approach*. International Social Security Association. Paper prepared for the Regional Conference for Asia and the Pacific New Dheli, India, 2006,' 'Sabates-Wheeler, R. and Waite, M. 2003. *Migration and Social Protection: A Concept Paper*. Development Research Centre on Migration, Globalization and Poverty, University of Sussex: Brighton,' 'Sabates-Wheeler, Rachel. *Extending social security coverage: Good practices, lessons learnt and ways forward*. International Social Security Association. Working paper No.12, Geneva, 2009,' 'Tamagno, Edward. *Strengthening Social Protection for ASEAN Migrant Workers through Social Security Agreements*. ILO Asian Regional Programme on Governance of Labour Migration. Working Paper No. 10. January 2008,' and 'UNICEF. *Migration and Children: A Need to Fill Information Gaps in Order to Guide Policy Responses*.'

Box 16: Filipino migrant welfare fund

Activity: **Delivery of welfare services and benefits**
Actors Involved: **Philippine Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE), Overseas Workers' Welfare Administration (OWWA)**
Target Group: **All overseas Filipino workers and their dependents**
Time Span: **Created in 1997 and ongoing**
Outcomes in capacity development: **1.2 million workers covered in 2008. In 2007, ten percent were enrolled from overseas renewal and voluntary membership.**

The Overseas Worker's Welfare Administration (OWWA) is an agency attached to the Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE) and is the lead government agency tasked to protect and promote the well-being of overseas Filipino workers and their dependents. The OWWA is a single trust fund pooled from a US$ 25 membership contribution of Filipino migrants or their overseas employers, as well as some fund-raising from other sources.

Filipino migrants who contribute to the fund are eligible for the following services:

1.   **Insurance and Healthcare**

     A member is covered with life insurance for the duration of their employment contract. A member is also entitled to disability and funeral coverage. OWWA charges an additional 900 pesos (approximately US$ 18) for health coverage administered as part of PhilHealth and family members left behind by the worker are covered under this plan.

2.   **Education and Training Programs**

     Members or their beneficiaries have access to scholarships in the form of a per-semester grant towards any 4-5 year baccalaureate course. Financial assistance is also available for members to participate in programs offered through the Philippines' Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA) or the Microsoft-administered Tulay Education Program that provides information technology training and access to technology.

3.   **Social Services**

     Members are provided with a range of services to facilitate immediate repatriation whenever necessary, including airport assistance, domestic transport, temporary shelter, etc. A reintegration program, including community organizing, capacity building and other social preparation activities, is also provided. To facilitate the reintegration process further, members can apply for a loan upon return to the Philippines. Finally, the OWWA also provides a pre-departure loan and family assistance loan in coordination with government financing institutions.

4.   **Workers Assistance and On-Site Services**

     The OWWA provides information, counselling, conciliation services and medical and legal assistance to workers.

Box 17: Program OPORTUNIDADES (formerly PROGRESA)

Activity: **Conditional Cash Transfers (CCTs)**
Actors involved: **Government of Mexico Secretariat for Social Development, national and state coordination agencies of the program, and education and health service providers**
Country: **Mexico**
Target group: **extremely poor households**
Time span: **started in 1997 and still active**
Outcomes in capacity development: **coverage of five million households (approximately 18 percent of the country's total population); incidence of 35 percent of poorest quintile**

As of 2002, in Mexico, 906,000 children and adolescents under age 18 lived in extreme poverty (less than US$1 a day). The government's social policy therefore focused on poverty reduction through Oportunidades, a conditional cash transfer program to encourage education and preventive health and nutrition behaviours. Implemented in 1997, Progresa, first started in rural areas and later extended to cover Mexico's urban areas (under the name of Oportunidades) aims to ease the immediate burdens of poverty while breaking the cycle of poverty as it passes from one generation to the next by providing the means for parents to invest in their child's health and education. Although issues related with migration are not explicit in Oportunidades there are some 'unintended' consequences that have been documented as a result of the project's success, including reducing international migration.

By 2005, *Oportunidades* covered about 5 million low-income households in both rural and urban areas. Cash transfers are provided to women as financial incentives for preventive health and nutrition behaviours and for retaining children in school. Some conditions were imposed, such as compliance by all household members with the required number of preventive medical checkups and lectures,; school enrolment and a minimum attendance rate of 80 percent monthly and 93 percent annually.

According to the results published in The Lancet in 2006, the cash transfer element of Oportunidades and other programs were associated with better health, growth and development outcomes for the 2,400 children and adolescents surveyed. The World Bank also concluded that Conditional Cash Transfers led to significant, and sometimes substantial, increases in the use of services. School enrollment rates increased among program beneficiaries, especially among those who had low enrollment rates at the outset.

The impact of public assistance policies on migration depend on the conditionality and on the magnitude of the assistance. However, randomized data from the programme has shown (Angelucci 2004, 2005) that on average, Progresa tends to reduce migration levels.

Box 18: Intergenerational support for social protection of children left behind

Activity: **Building capacity of volunteer networks to support older people caring for grandchildren to prevent institutionalization and reintegrate children with their families**
Actors involved: **Help Age International, UNICEF**
Country: **Moldova**
Target group: **children left behind**
Time span: **6 months**
Outcomes in capacity development: **The project addressed 514 older-people-headed families in care of children left behind from two regions, including both rural and urban areas.**

Moldova has gone through a turbulent period of economic and social change over the past decade. A rigid labour market, rural poverty and the lack of income-earning opportunities, particularly for youth, has fuelled a steady migratory outflow of women and men in their productive prime who leave to find work in Europe. Data from 2006 estimated the number of migrants at 551,000 people, representing close to 30 percent of the country's economically active population, and approximately 15 percent of the total population. More than 25 percent of Moldova's emigrants had left a spouse and family behind, constituting the highest proportion of children affected by migration in the CIS region.

To better understand what effects migration has had on children, UNICEF Moldova and IOM conducted a survey in 2006, which estimated that approximately 177,000 children aged 0-18 years were left behind by a parent who had migrated abroad. Around 40,000 children were separated from both parents. According to the Moldova Demographic and Health Survey 2005 nearly one third of children under the age of 15 do not live with either parent. The country's declining birth rate, ageing population and a restructuring of the family unit have been attributed to the high migratory outflow.

Children of migrant parents are far from being considered victims by Moldovan society. It is supposed that these children are privileged due to a better financial situation. Research suggests, however, that they are exposed to a wide range of risks and psychological traumas. The older people who often become caregivers for these children, moreover, are not supported by the state, and suddenly have an increase in responsibilities. According to HAI/UNICEF research, older caregivers are mostly women (92 percent in urban areas and 65 percent in villages). The number of children living with their grandparents who suffer from chronic disease is considerable; in the village this group represents 14 percent, while in the town it rises to 51 percent.

In the HAI/UNICEF project a network of volunteers was established to provide counselling and to assist vulnerable families in which older people care for children of migrant parents. The volunteers were trained in social assistance, legal, psychological, NGO development and child protection issues relating to the situation of children living in the extended family of grandparents. The volunteers were effective in providing moral support to older caregivers and identifying their needs, which include: clothing for children, and support in completing guardianship and ID documents, free medical assistance, subscription to special kindergarten/schools, as well as the problem of human trafficking (both parents and children), child abuse and HIV. The volunteers identified the needs in each family and addressed them to local authorities and Social Assistance Departments in the community to be resolved in close cooperation. The volunteers also provided regular assistance and counselling to the most vulnerable families through peer-support home visits. Their role was strengthening the relationship between older people and local authorities, and enabling access to information.

Source: UNICEF

Box 19: Extending social security coverage to African migrant workers and their families

Activity: **Strengthen national and regional strategies for the extension of social security coverage to African migrant workers and their families**
Actors involved: **Ministries of Labour and Social Security, Workers' and Employers' Organisations, National Social Security Institutions, Regional Economic Communities such as the East African Community (EAC), ILO**
Countries: **Senegal, Mali, Mauritania, Ghana, Ethiopia, South Africa, Uganda, Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, and Mauritius**
Time span: **3 years** (2008-2011)
Outcomes (expected): To develop mechanisms for extending social security coverage to African migrant workers and their families. These include:

- The conclusion of bilateral or multilateral social security agreements to ensure maintenance of acquired (or partially acquired) social security rights for migrant workers and their families.

- The inclusion of social security provisions in temporary labour migration programmes.

- Voluntary insurance that could be offered by national social security schemes of origin countries to its migrant workers abroad and their family members.

To achieve its objective, project activities are focusing on consolidating information knowledge on social security and labour migration in the region, building institutional capacities of entities responsible for social security policies, implementing operational measures to offer social security benefits to migrant workers and their families.

There are three main project components : a) building knowledge, b) strengthening capacities, and c) providing support to the negotiation process of bilateral social security agreements. The project also has a focus on advancing sub-regional integration through support to the negotiation process of multilateral social security agreements.

The East African Community (EAC) started a process for the conclusion of an EAC multilateral social security agreement, which will take the form of an Annex to the Protocol for the Establishment of the EAC Common Market. The Annex on Social Security will establish the framework for coordination of EAC member states social security schemes, and subsequent regulations adopted by the EAC Council of Ministers to establish the modalities for applying the framework. Together, the Annex on Social Security and the regulations made pursuant to it will constitute a multilateral social security agreement. The EAC Secretariat requested ILO's assistance for the drafting of the Annex. A draft model annex has been prepared and discussed at a regional workshop entitled "Social Security benefits within a Common Market" held 19–23 October 2009 in Kampala. This workshop produced a tripartite consensus on a road map for implementation of social security provisions in the framework of the EAC Common Market. The objective of the EAC Secretariat is to develop a draft annex on social security which will be adopted by the EAC heads of government in June 2010.

Source: ILO

3.5   Health services

Health is a fundamental human right (as recognized in major human rights instruments), critical for human development and the achievement of the MDGs. Indeed, access to health care services, including reproductive health and HIV prevention, is a key agenda of the MDGs. But the right to health goes well beyond the right to health care, as good health requires the attainment of other economic and social rights. These include, for example, the right to an adequate standard of living, including the right to adequate food, clothing and housing and the right to social security.

Links to migration

Health and migration are linked and inter-dependent. Most prominently, these links revolve around two clusters of issues:

1) The health of (often lower-skilled) migrants and how it affects human development in different phases of the migration cycle.

2) The challenges migration presents for health systems in countries of origin and destination, including aspects of disease control and health worker migration.

Migrants' health

Health is a critical asset for migrants and their families and negative health outcomes do not only affect the individual migrant or cause a social and economical burden to host communities, they might also have repercussions on families left behind, or the wider community in the country of origin.

• The issue of the health of migrants goes beyond infectious diseases. It includes migration-related health vulnerabilities, including sexual and reproductive health, mental health, occupational health, health implications of climate change, access to healthcare, and human rights issues.

• The risk of disease and the lack of appropriate medical care in the home country may be an inducement to migrate.

• The current geography of HIV prevalence serves

as a clue to its link with migration. Higher incidence of HIV correlates with good transport infrastructure and considerable internal and cross-border migration.

• Migration is not necessarily a health risk in itself but conditions surrounding the migratory process can expose migrants to health risks and vulnerabilities. Migrants are often faced with inequalities in accessing health services due to marginalization, powerlessness, lack of specific policies or shortcomings in implementing them, or exploitative working conditions. For this reason one can consider migration a social determinant of health.[27]

• Migration can lead to possible risky sexual behaviour due to the disruption of former stable networks and social norms that would otherwise regulate sexual behaviour. Separation from their kin may drive migrants to engage in unsafe, casual or commercial sex, thus increasing the risk of HIV. Migrants, in prolonged transit situations or with various places they call their home, often live lives of contingent encounters and short-term relationships of economic, social or sexual character. This is particularly evident in situations of involuntary migration, such as fleeing natural or man-made disasters, human rights violations, or irregular situations. Risk factors can often be linked to the legal status of migrants, which determines the surrounding conditions of their situation and the level of access to health and social services.

• Reducing migration-associated costs of ill health and emphasizing the promotion of migrant 'physical, mental and social well-being'[28] is central to the process of human development in the context of migration, and a necessary precondition to the full realization of the benefits of migration for both the migrating person and countries of origin and destination. Migrant-inclusive health policies and programmes and health-sensitive labour and migration policies and practices both have their part to play.

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[27] Assisting Migrants and Communities (AMAC): Migration a Social Determinant of the Health of Migrants IOM/2009.

[28] Definition of health is 'a status of physical, mental and social well-being.'

- Women are particularly vulnerable as they migrate and can become victims of discrimination, violence, sexual exploitation and trafficking. Access to family planning, protection from STI and HIV, access to maternal health services, including antenatal care, safe delivery and postnatal care, are critical for the health of migrant women. In view of the growing number and share of women in total migration, both internal and international, gender and cultural issues, the provision of sexual and reproductive health services, and making access to those services easier and affordable is of growing importance.

- To understand the links between migration and health it is important to look at the different phases of migration: 1) pre-departure phase, 2) destination phase and 3) return and reintegration phase.

- For instance, during the **pre-departure** phase many migrant workers undergo mandatory health assessments, including testing for HIV and pregnancy. If these health assessments are done in a migrant-friendly manner with proper counselling and referral mechanisms, they can become a logical and positive entry point for other health interventions, including providing information on possible diseases and health risks they might encounter, and how to access health services in the country of destination.

- It is important to be aware that migrants depart with health profiles that have been influenced by their socio-economic status and accessibility to health-care services in their communities of origin.

- In the destination country there are two main aspects related to the health of migrants: 1) Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) and 2) access to health services.

  - Regarding OHS, many migrant workers tend to be employed in high risk and hazardous sectors such as mining, agriculture and construction. Migrant workers are often not allowed to join trade unions, thus potentially presenting an obstacle to their health and safety in the workplace.[29] Different studies show occupational accident rates are higher among migrant workers than for non-migrant workers. Moreover, temporary and seasonal migrant workers are often concentrated in poor areas with sub-standard housing.

- Regarding barriers to access to health services it is important to distinguish among 1) structural barriers, 2) migrants' own health beliefs and health seeking behaviour, and 3) cultural and linguistic challenges.

  - Structural barriers include administrative, financial and other hurdles that prevent migrants from accessing health insurance schemes, government funded health services, or private sector health care.

  - Migrants' health-seeking behaviour in the country of destination is usually lower than in home communities. Different studies show migrant workers often delay seeking care and tend to visit health providers only in emergencies and prefer to wait to access health care once they return to their home communities. This could have a negative impact on both the productivity of the worker and the financial cost to the local health system.

  - Migrants in an irregular situation, such as undocumented migrants, may fail to seek services for fear of deportation if health workers are obliged to report them to the immigration authorities, especially in countries with strict immigration policies that criminalize irregular migration. Yet, irregular migrants tend to be exposed to greater health hazards, e.g., through perilous transportation, hazardous living conditions, and experiences of violence and abuse, including domestic violence, which make their access to care more urgent.

  - For migrants who live in geographically isolated areas, prevention treatment and care is often not easily accessible. Furthermore, refugees and internally-displaced persons

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[29] ILO, *International labour migration: A rights-based approach*, Geneva, 2010.

(IDP) are at particular risk to HIV infection, often due to the same disruptions that caused their displacement in the first place.

- Many migrants are unfamiliar with the local health care system and may have linguistic or cultural difficulties in communicating their problems.[30] Even in countries where health services are available to migrants (such as in Spain, Italy and Argentina[31]) fear of discrimination, language and cultural barriers, differences in medical approaches, and health care workers attitudes can limit migrants' use of health services.[32]

- In the **return phase** health risks faced by migrant workers and their families can take several forms, such as the need for the health system in the country of origin to address the physical and mental illnesses of returning migrants.

  - In the return phase one should not just look at the health of the returning migrant but also at their families left behind as the physical and mental health of spouses and children may have changed as a result of the separation.

  - The return of migrants to their place of origin may imply introduction of health conditions acquired during the migration process into the home community. The implications of the health of migration therefore extends beyond the migrants themselves. There are important public health considerations for the entire society. Well-managed migration health protects global public health, can facilitate integration, and promotes the well being of all.

- Families of migrant workers staying behind in home countries may also face health risks when migration of the main wage earner leads to loss of health coverage, or risky livelihood strategies such as sex work. Alternatively, remittances can help families back home to increase access to health services.

Migration and health systems

- The health systems of countries of origin may not be equipped to deal with the health needs of returnees, including mental health needs. In addition, social security benefits and pensions may be non-portable leaving returnees exposed to lack of health care.

- Diaspora networks may bolster health care provision in home communities by investing in infrastructure in the community of origin.

- Diseases know no boundaries. Cross border population movements can have an effect on the propagation of certain epidemics, such as Ebola and Avian flu. Border management therefore requires a health education and prevention component.

- Large inflows of migrants may put a strain on healthcare systems of destination countries.

- High outflows of health workers can endanger service provision in the country of origin, i.e. through skills shortages. Having too few skilled workers affects health service delivery, innovation and the training of future health workers.

- However, emigration does not constitute the main cause of gaps in delivery of health service in developing countries. Professionals who do stay prefer to work for the private sector or in urban areas, which plays an important role in contributing to shortages of health services in rural areas and for the poor.

- For countries of destination the inflow of healthcare workers can ease labour shortages in this sector and help address challenges, such as caring for ageing populations.

- If 'brain drain' does appear to be harming the capacity of the health system in the country of origin, a number of actions can be taken to mitigate these impacts[33]:

  - **Retention.** Retention incentives aim to encourage skilled professionals to remain in the home country through measures such as: improving human resource management and career

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30 ILO, *International labour migration: A rights-based approach*, Geneva, 2010.

31 Law 25.871 of 2004 recognizes the State obligation to ensure equal access to, inter alia, shelter, social services, public goods, and health for migrants and their families, regardless of immigration status. See www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/hrcouncil/docs/14session/A.HRC.14.30.en.pdf.

32 WHO, Ministry of Health and Social Policy (Government of Spain), and IOM: *Health of Migrants - the Way Forward*, Report of a Global Consultation on Migrant Health, Madrid (Spain) 3-5 March 2010, pages 61-70.

33 Many of these strategies can be adapted for use in other sectors, if skilled emigration is believed to be harmful to development in those areas too.

development prospects; provision of better salaries and/or working conditions; and raising the social status of relevant professions, such as nurses. For example, in Ghana improved salaries and allowances have been provided to health workers, as have other benefits such as new cars, in order to try to retain them in the country's public health system.

- **Task-shifting.** Where existing resources for health care are scarce, they can be used more efficiently if tasks are shifted from one health care profession to another: from doctors to nurses (e.g., prescription of medication), and from nurses or midwives to community health workers (e.g., injections). While instances of professional jealousy (i.e., the fear that one group's reputation and status may be lowered) can occur, task shifting has proved an effective way of enhancing access to health care, especially in countries with enhanced care needs due to a high prevalence of HIV.

- **Replacement workforce.** This involves developing selected labour immigration programs to bring in replacement workers to fill gaps left by departing migrants. Countries must be careful, however, to guard against creating skills shortages in the country they draw migrants from. Measures to tackle damaging brain drain must try to avoid passing the problem along to another country, quite possibly one that is poorer and potentially more in need of its skilled workers.

- **Returnees.** Returning members of the diaspora can bring valuable skills back with them, whether they return permanently or temporarily. However, migrant returnees can struggle to reintegrate and make the most of the skills and experiences acquired abroad. The government can facilitate reintegration by providing targeted assistance. In the Philippines, for example, a re-placement and monitoring centre was created in the Department of Labour for returning Filipino workers. Assistance to returnees should take the situation of the local residents into account, however, and benefit the community as a whole, as otherwise it risks creat-

ing animosity, and potentially new inequalities.

- **Replenishing skills.** This involves skills development in the country of origin, in some cases with the support of overseas employers who are drawing on migrant labour. It can be a way of replacing skills that are being lost due to emigration. There are various ways of doing this.

  – Promote collaboration between developed and developing country institutions in sensitive sectors (e.g., short-term training/exchange program between hospitals and universities). For example, the UK and South Africa signed a Memorandum of Understanding on reciprocal educational exchange of healthcare concepts and personnel, that aims to mutually agree on the recruitment of health personnel going to the UK, exchange information on professional regulations, workforce planning and development, and facilitate mutual access to universities and training schools for health professionals.

  – Target Overseas Development Assistance and Foreign Investment for capacity development of educational/vocational institutions. For example, the Australian Government has funded Australia-Pacific Technical Colleges (APTC) in Papua New Guinea, Fiji, Vanuatu and Samoa, which are centres of excellence for obtaining Australian standard vocational qualifications in areas such as tourism and hospitality, the automotive industry and manufacturing. The aim is to provide skills training for labour requirements in the region, including in areas where Australia has a shortage of suitable labour.

- **Adopt multilateral and national codes of conduct to prevent the 'poaching' of highly skilled workers in sensitive sectors.** There have been efforts to adopt multilateral and bilateral codes of conduct in recent years to regulate the recruitment of skilled labour from developing countries. Most recently, after six years of drafting discussions, the World Health Assembly unanimously adopted the WHO Global Code of Practice on the International Recruitment of Health Personnel on 21 May 2010. The Code, which is volun-

tary in nature, serves as an ethical framework to guide Member States in the recruitment of health workers. Destination countries are encouraged to collaborate with source countries to sustain health human resources development and training as appropriate. The Code calls on States to discourage active recruitment of health personnel from developing countries facing critical shortages of health workers. It encourages the implementation of the Code in collaboration with all stakeholders, including health workers, recruiters, employers and civil society.

- In the past, efforts to adopt such codes have met with mixed success. National codes of conduct do not prevent workers from targeting destination countries without such codes, and are weak at regulating private sector activities. The WHO code appears to be a step forward, however.

Annex C5 provides a checklist regarding further issues to consider when assessing linkages between health and migration. Project and programme examples are given in Boxes 20-23.[34]

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[34] For further information, see the website of the Global Health Workforce Alliance (GHWA): www.who.int/workforcealliance/knowledge/publications/en/index.html and Manuel Carballo, *The Challenges of Migration and Health*, International Centre for Migration and Health (ICMH), Geneva, 2007.

Box 20: Health and migration interventions

Activity: **Joint UN Program on HIV and Migration**
Actors involved: **UNDP, UNAIDS, UNFPA, UNICEF, WHO, ILO, UNRC, Department of Labor and Employment, Department of Health**
Country: **Philippines**
Duration: **Two years** (2007-2009)
Outcomes: **This project supports the provision of rights-based services to Overseas Filipino Workers (OFWs) and their families to reduce their HIV risk at all phases of the migration process.**

At the pre-departure stage it ensures that seminars and training programmes are provided on these issues. As most migrants from the Philippines are women, it takes and reinforces a gender-sensitive approach to awareness and HIV prevention for OFWs. In addition, a review of existing policies and protocols on HIV and migration has been undertaken, to inform capacity development of local government and national and local institutions working on HIV and migration. Activities have also been undertaken after return, to reintegrate returning OFWs, including HIV-positive OFWs, into the workplace, family and community life through health and psychosocial care, social protection services, livelihood projects and with microfinance.

The program is designed to contribute to a range of existing development plans, such as – achievement of relevant targets of the 4th AIDS Medium Term Plan, the implementation of the country's "Universal Access" roadmap, and the operationalizing of relevant recommendations of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW committee).

Box 21: WHO Global Code of Practice on the international recruitment of health personnel

Article 1 – Objectives

The objectives of this Code are:

(1) to establish and promote voluntary principles and practices for the ethical international recruitment of health personnel, taking into account the rights, obligations and expectations of source countries, destination countries and migrant health personnel;

(2) to serve as a reference for Member States in establishing or improving the legal and institutional framework required for the international recruitment of health personnel;

(3) to provide guidance that may be used where appropriate in the formulation and implementation of bilateral agreements and other international legal instruments;

(4) to facilitate and promote international discussion and advance cooperation on matters related to the ethical international recruitment of health personnel as part of strengthening health systems, with a particular focus on the situation of developing countries.

Article 2 – Nature and scope

2.1 The Code is voluntary. Member States and other stakeholders are strongly encouraged to use the Code.

2.2 The Code is global in scope and is intended as a guide for Member States, working together with stakeholders such as health personnel, recruiters, employers, health-professional organizations, relevant subregional, regional and global organizations, whether public or private sector, including nongovernmental, and all persons concerned with the international recruitment of health personnel.

2.3 The Code provides ethical principles applicable to the international recruitment of health personnel in a manner that strengthens the health systems of developing countries, countries with economies in transition and small island states.

Box 22: Strengthening the health sector through engagement of the Diaspora

Activity: **Engagement of Somali Diaspora Health Professionals from Finland**
Actors involved: **IOM, Association of Somali Healthcare Professionals in the Nordic countries (members residing in Finland), FinnChurchAid, health authorities, hospitals, civil society organizations (CSOs), universities with health-related projects**
Country: **Somalia**
Target group: **Somali health professionals currently residing and working in Finland, health institutions and health professionals in Northern Somalia**
Time span: **12 months**

Outcomes in capacity development: **20 temporary return assignments have been carried out. Each returnee has trained at least five local staff in his/her field of expertise.**

This project supports development of Northern Somalia's health sector by strengthening the human resource base of the regions' public and private health sectors.

Working with the Northern Somalia Health authorities, hospitals, CSOs, universities with health-related projects, and the IOM offices in Hargeisa, Bosasso and Nairobi, the project has identified essential gaps in the health sector of Northern Somalia. During this process special emphasis has been placed on identifying gender gaps in the Northern Somalia health sectors.

Once these gaps have been identified, IOM carried out an information campaign targeting Somali health professionals in Finland in order to fill temporary vacancies in Northern Somalia. Special emphasis has been given to targeting female health professionals. A database was established to match the needs in Northern Somalia with skills and qualifications of Somali health professionals living in Finland. In the framework of the project, twenty qualified and highly qualified Somali nationals have returned on a temporary basis to Northern Somalia to provide direct technical assistance to the health authorities, and trained national staff in their field of expertise – at least five in each instance.

Source: IOM

Box 23: Urban displacements and HIV vulnerability

Activity: **Response to HIV vulnerability and gender violence**
Actors involved: **IOM, UNFPA, Population Services International (PSI), Zimbabwe Community Development Trust (ZCDT), LEAD Trust, Anglican Diocese of Manicaland (ADM)**
Country: **Zimbabwe**
Target group: **Zimbabwean nationals affected by urban displacement**
Time span: **12 months**
Outcomes in capacity development: **During the reporting period, a total of 123,639 people were reached in 23 districts in 10 provinces of Zimbabwe.**

In 2005, Zimbabwe experienced a new wave of displacements. As part of a government crackdown on alleged illegal structures (such as vegetable vendors, flea-market traders and other informal traders) thousands of people were forcibly displaced from their homes and had their means of livelihoods destroyed. The demolition of illegal structures ushered in a plethora of problems for affected households. A large part of the affected population spent nights in the open air, including children and the chronically ill. Similarly, condom outlets and access to potentially life-saving HIV/AIDS-related care and prevention information had been disrupted. Gender-based Violence (GBV) was especially problematic in the context of displacement, with women and children being most vulnerable to exploitation, violence and abuse simply by virtue of their gender and age, particularly with many left alone without fathers and husbands, many of whom went in search of alternative housing and employment.

Based on the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) Guidelines for HIV/AIDS interventions in emergency settings, IOM in collaboration with UNFPA and PSI:

- improved access to and availability of condoms;
- disseminated relevant Behaviour Change Communication (BCC) materials targeted at the affected populations; and
- facilitated access of displaced populations to Voluntary Counselling and Testing (VCT), GBV prevention and care (referrals), Post Exposure Prophylaxis (PEP) and Emergency Contraception.

Source: IOM

3.6 Education

Access to education constitutes a central pillar of development. Education is not only essential for individuals to maximize their capabilities, but also for a society to progress, as education raises general capacity levels and enables adaptability to changes and possibilities to tap into new opportunities. Literacy and primary education, for instance, facilitate participation in public life and make the economic, social and political environment more understandable through greater access to communication tools such as newspapers, internet, etc. Education also improves an individual's health through better access to information concerning health risks and facilitates integration into the labour market, allowing pursuit of work opportunities with a possibility of higher income and better working conditions than those available to people without education.

Links with migration

The following is a non-exhaustive list of the complex ways in which migration, development and the education sector interact.

- Educational attainment can influence the decision to emigrate. Limited access, poor quality and the costs of education in the country of origin can drive people to migrate in search of better opportunities.

- Nonetheless, better access to education will depend on the reasons for the move and the socio-economic background of the family. In some circumstances, the children of migrants may face difficulties accessing the educational system due to language barriers, their parents' legal status and conditions of stay (for instance, living in a refugee camp). Access to education is subject to national legislation, which often excludes children of irregular migrants from schooling, either in law or in practice. This stands in contrast to the right to education as enshrined in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the 1966 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child and the 1990 Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families.

- Migration may increase access to education as migrant worker families may have more resources to invest in education through remittances.

- The prospect of better paid jobs abroad can act as an incentive for investing in education. Evidence suggests that in some contexts this incentive is quite powerful, substantially boosting a country's educational attainment.

- Migration can reduce quality of education for poorer families who do not have family members working abroad. The ability of migrant families to pay for education may discourage governments from investing in education.

- Diaspora investment in schools in home communities may counteract such negative effects, but these are ad hoc private initiatives, which cannot substitute for a national education system open to all.

- Child migrants in destination countries may lack access to education due to factors such as their legal status, or language barriers, which can both impede access to schooling.

- The size and existence of schools will be determined by the population size in a particular area which is in turn affected by in and out migration. Changes in pupil numbers can lead to the closure of schools due to lack of numbers, or alternatively it can lead to over-crowding.

- Emigration of teachers can have positive benefits if it reduces unemployment by opening up positions to others and if teachers return with new skills and knowledge.

- However, it can also have negative effects and result in teacher scarcity, deterioration of the quality of education, and closure of schools. Such effects can be mitigated by encouraging immigration of teachers from other countries or by mobilising diaspora teachers (both active and retired) for short or long term assignments.

See a checklist on education in Annex C6 for issues to consider when assessing the links with migration and Boxes 24 and 25 for programme examples[35].

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[35] For further information on migration, development and basic education, see IOM, *Migration and Development: Opportunities and Challenges for Policymakers*, Migration Research Series No. 22, Geneva, 2006, and Kristina A. Schapiro, *Migration and Educational Outcomes of Children*, UNDP, Human Development Reports, Research Paper no. 57, 2009.

Box 24: Repatriation of education professionals

Activity: **Repatriation of education professionals to support the Ministry of Education**
Actors involved: **IOM, Ministry of Education, Danish Embassy**
Country: **Afghanistan**
Target group: **Professionals with a high degree of qualification**
Time span: **15 months**
Outcomes in capacity development: **Repatriation of seven highly qualified professionals now working in the Ministry of Education.**

The RQA (Return of Qualified Afghans) programme in Afghanistan commenced in December 2001, and has to date recruited and assisted 822 Afghans from 28 countries. 404 work in 28 ministries of the Government of Afghanistan (GOA), 184 work in 31 other governmental institutions, 204 work in 75 NGOs and international organizations operating in Afghanistan, and 30 are self-employed.

IOM works closely with Afghan ministries to identify key sectors and positions that are crucial to the country's reconstruction and sustainable development plans, and that are not able to be filled by nationals residing in Afghanistan. At the same time, IOM offices in other countries recruit qualified Afghans who are then inserted into a global database for eventual matching with jobs suitable to their expertise.

RQA has succeeded in attracting a strong pool of talent to support the rebuilding process in Afghanistan. Seven candidates now work in the Ministry of Education, supporting the development of the education system, with others working as university lecturers and teachers. Other returnees have advanced to pivotal positions within the GoA including a former Vice President, a Minister and several Deputy Ministers, and many hold positions as heads of various departments in Afghan ministries.

Source: IOM

Box 25: Language education for repatriated children

Activity: **Education of repatriated children**
Actors involved: **Ministry of Education, WFP, UNICEF**
Country: **Burundi**
Target group: **13,200 newly repatriated children who formerly lived in Tanzania**
Time span: **Seven weeks of teaching**
Outcomes in capacity development: **Out of 1,007 pupils who began, a total of 875 pupils in two provinces completed a seven-week accelerated program (87 percent completion rate). More than half the pupils were girls (53 percent).**

The Ministry of Education and local partners developed an integrated Plan of Action and budget in early 2008 to respond to the educational needs of repatriated children. This plan included the construction of classrooms in returnee areas, and other special programs to address the educational needs of different categories of children which include: the provision of an Early Childhood Development Programme; a pilot intensive language program for primary and secondary school-aged children coming from a different education system; a Teacher Emergency Package (TEP) for out-of-school children aged (9-14) who desire to return to school; and vocational training for youth. The intensive French and Kirundi Language Program was a pilot initiative of the Ministry of Education with support from UNICEF and WFP.

The Ministry of Education developed a teaching module and selected textbooks for teachers and pupils. Forty qualified teachers selected by the provincial office of the Ministry of Education received a four-day crash course from Ministry of Education trainers which prepared them to provide this accelerated language program to newly arrived repatriated children. Teachers were also provided with orientation and teaching materials to integrate life skills in teaching, including topics such as as human rights, human values, peace education and the environment. During seven weeks from July to September 2008, returnee children, identified by the Provincial Office of the Ministry of Education and registered by parents, followed an intensive language programme at two boarding school facilities in two provinces with a very high concentration of 1972 returnees (Makamba and Bururi Provinces) in order to prepare the children for the start of the Burundian school year in mid-September.

The reintegration initiatives for repatriated children into the education system in Burundi has had positive impacts on the children, parents, community and the nation. It allowed children to access their right to education and prepare themselves for the future. The reintegration of youth into secondary education is an opportunity for reducing juvenile delinquency in the community and for consolidating the peace process nationwide. Sending children to school creates family-school linkages, with the parents of school children participating in school and parental committee activities. In this sense, educational reintegration of children and youth facilitates community and societal reintegration for families who have just returned —or arrived for the first time—to a land they can call 'home.' However, educational reintegration will be most successful if it is supported by other sectors such as health and agriculture, to mention but a few.

Source: UNICEF

3.7   Tertiary education, knowledge and skills development

Tertiary education refers to post secondary education delivered by universities and all other public and private tertiary institutions (colleges, technical training institutes, nursing schools, research laboratories, distance learning centres, etc.). Knowledge and skills are critical elements of human development and a cornerstone for a country's economic growth and development. They influence countries' capacity to develop new ideas, produce goods and services, to have an efficient public sector and to attract more skills and investment including from abroad (i.e., through foreign direct investment). For individuals these sorts of skills are important in determining many of their capabilities, including, importantly, the wages they can earn.

Links with migration

The following lays out some of the links between migration, development and tertiary education:

- The lack of availability of tertiary education plays a role in motivating migration. Migration of stu-

dents may be the result of restricted educational opportunities at home. This may include limited numbers of tertiary educational institutions or their poor quality. Indeed, low wages, poor terms and conditions, and a lack of opportunities for career development can fuel the emigration of academic and educational service providers (trainers, etc.), which in turn can provoke student migration. This may result in a cycle of a lack of students, resources and educators, that perpetuates itself.

- A mismatch between what tertiary education offers (e.g., in terms of fields of study, types of skills taught) and labour market demands can contribute to unemployment and the emigration of young graduates.

- The establishment of academic networks and participation in international research projects may entice students and professors to return to their home country, either temporarily or permanently. The recognition of qualifications acquired abroad is likely to facilitate such returns.

- Development of the tertiary education sector can make countries an attractive destination for students from neighbouring and other developing countries, with knock-on benefits in terms of skills and financial inflows. The development of regional poles of excellence in the global South can also contribute to preventing brain drain.

- Emigration can reduce the stock of skilled people in a country – known as 'brain drain' – but this can be counterbalanced by other aspects of migration such as immigration, return, remittances spent on skills development and incentive effects. The precise effect migration has in any context needs to be carefully measured, as it cannot be assumed to be negative without looking at the situation on the ground.

A number of strategies can be taken to maximize skills development and fill skills gaps and these are laid out below:

a) Promote skills accumulation by nationals abroad and the recognition of existing skills

In order to enable migrants to take advantage of opportunities abroad that allow them to capitalize on the investments they – and potentially their countries of origin – made in terms of education and training, it is critical to ensure that their qualifications and skills are being recognized by the country of destination. Too often, migrants work below their skill-level and are less productive than they could be, leading to so-called 'brain waste'. Working at a level commensurate with skills is not just important for the individual's job satisfaction and pay, though these are clearly important, but access to higher-skilled work often also means improved access to professional development opportunities and social security benefits, amongst other things.

Examples of programmes that support skills recognition and accumulation are diverse, and include those described in Box 26.

Box 26: Skills recognition and accumulation projects

Australia/China: The Australia-China Arrangement on Higher Education Qualifications Recognition facilitates the recognition of higher academic degrees. The ministries of education of the two countries are required to designate a body to provide information on recognition of qualifications and make recommendations in accordance with existing regulations and practices. The institutions concerned, however, retain the right to determine their own requirements for entry.

Holland/Poland: Dutch and Polish ministries of health developed a pilot project in 2005 to boost skills acquisition by Polish nurses in the Netherlands, by enabling them to access vocational training.

Cape Verde/Portugal: Skills acquisition and recognition can also be supported by initiatives addressed to prospective migrants before departure. The Country of Origin Support Centre (CAMPO) Cape Verde is a service and information centre set up in Praia, Cape Verde with the Portuguese High Commission for Immigration and Intercultural Dialogue to inform temporary contract workers (TCWs) about their rights and responsibilities in Portugal. The main objectives are to assist in resolving problems and provide information on requirements for living, studying, working and travelling in Portugal, thereby helping migrants to find appropriate opportunities in Portugal, and be aware when their migration may be likely to lead to a job that does not utilize all their skills.

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b) Facilitate knowledge transfer

In addition to supporting migrants while away, governments can also reach out to migrants and/or devise incentives to try to ensure the knowledge and skills migrants gained while away are transferred back to the country of origin. Some ideas on how this can be done are below.

- **Enhancing the national system for recognition of qualifications** will make it easier for foreigners, including refugees, and for nationals who have acquired a foreign diploma to enter the national education system and labour market at the level of their qualification and to contribute their expertise and productive capacity.

- **Streamlining the process for the acquisition of short-term professional visas** to enable more professional exchanges and collaboration across borders. This may also help to attract the diaspora to return to make short-term contributions. Typically these involve teachers, health professionals, engineers, etc. See Box 27 below for an example.

c) Create diaspora networks and fora

Diaspora networks and fora can facilitate the transfer of knowledge, and familiarize expatriates with ways they can contribute to the development of their home countries. These networking activities can take various forms. The creation of bilateral cooperation between chambers of commerce in countries of origin and destination has proven particularly efficient in many cases. Other examples are found in Box 28.

See a checklist on tertiary education in Annex C7 for further issues to consider when assessing links with migration and planning action and Boxes 29-31 for additional programme examples[36].

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[36] For further information, see Nonnenmacher, Sophie. OPEN FORUM: 2007, vol.9, no.1, pp.91-112. UNESCO. ISSN 1817-4574. www.unesco.org/shs/ijms/vol9/issue1/art5 and unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001538/153803E.pdf#page=93.

Box 27: Global programme experiences

Transfer of Knowledge through Expatriate Nationals (TOKTEN)

The Transfer of Knowledge through Expatriate Nationals (TOKTEN) programme was initiated by UNDP in 1977 to counter the effects of "brain drain" in developing countries by bringing back talented expatriate nationals to their home countries in the spirit of volunteerism. It is now under the auspices of the United Nations Volunteer Programme (UNVP) and is managed by the United Nations Office for Project Services (UNOPS). The programme is currently implemented in 35 countries. TOKTEN is regarded as an added dimension of technical cooperation, contributing to reduce the adverse effects of "brain-drain" with several advantages. Recipient institutions benefit at low cost from the expertise contributed by TOKTEN consultants and consultants derive satisfaction from contributing to the development of their countries. Taking the Rwanda TOKTEN programme implemented by UNDP/Rwandan government between 2005-2008 as an example, this facilitated voluntary short-term expertise from highly qualified expatriate Rwandan nationals in the sectors of agriculture, engineering, economics, environmental protection, education, and health services, among others.

Box 28

Egypt: The 'Migrants skills transfer in aquaculture and fishery: The case of Greece and Egypt' project is jointly implemented by the Egyptian Agribusiness Association and the Athens Network of Collaborating Experts. It aims to support the development of the Egyptian aquaculture and fishery (ACF) industry by facilitating knowledge exchange and transfer between Egyptian expatriates working in the ACF industry in Greece and relevant businessmen in Egypt. A database has been set up of Egyptian workers, academics and scientists working in ACF industries in Greece and Egypt. There is 'up-skilling' training for Egyptian migrant workers in Greece, facilitation of investment and transfer of knowledge by skilled Egyptian ACF workers established in Greece, and strengthened linkages between the Greek and Egyptian ACF industries.

Coalition of African Organizations for Food Security and Sustainable Development (COASAD) has been set up by migrants residing in Europe for the provision of expertise to their countries of origin in Africa.

Lebanese business networks link Lebanese entrepreneurs abroad and business opportunities in Lebanon.

The MIDA Great Lakes programme was initiated in 2001 with the goal of strengthening institutional capacities in Burundi, Rwanda and the Democratic Republic of the Congo by mobilizing the diaspora of the three countries and by mitigating the effects of brain drain. In 2007, it was decided to undertake a systematic evaluation of the MIDA Great Lakes program. The evaluation was undertaken by the Société d'études et d'evaluation sarl (SEE) and the main purpose was to analyze the efficiency of the MIDA programme. A combination of methods was used for the evaluation, comprised of individual meetings, focus group discussions and a questionnaire.

Background

The MIDA Great Lakes programme was focused on the following three components:

- skills transfers: temporary returns by experts in the three priority fields of education, rural development and health;

- financial transfers aiming at facilitating migrant remittances and orienting them towards development; and

- virtual transfers: establishment of on-line courses and distance-learning, etc.

The key outcomes of the evaluation indicated that:

- The skills transfers, by means of short-term visits by experts from the diaspora, had been particularly successful and the results were recognized both by direct beneficiaries (such as students) and receiving institutions. In total, 150 transfers were implemented. Apart from adding additional human resources made available to the receiving institutions, it was also recognized that the experts were passing on cultural and practical information between the society in which they lead their daily life, to another society to which they feel they still belong. The evaluation found that the longer the missions or the greater number of missions undertaken by an expert, the greater the success.

- Links between institutions in the Great Lakes region with similar institutions in Europe for cooperation have been created.

- New practices have been introduced in the health sector, training of teachers have been undertaken, etc. In the longer term it will help the institutions define their own strategies and prioritize their needs.

- Under the component of virtual skills transfers, activities had been more difficult to implement, and not all activities were completed by the end of the project. Two institutions received support for developing distance-teaching courses, however they have not been put into practice. Distance teaching tools were identified as a real need in the target countries, but the preconditions appear to be lacking to put such instruments in place. Specifically, developing modules that are comparable to those developed by specialized institutions, as well as the long-term engagement needed to properly launch and permanently maintain these activities are beyond the scope of the available funds and human resources within the MIDA program.

- Under the component of financial transfers, the evaluation found that results were also limited. While some outputs were completed (e.g. a study on remittances was undertaken two and guides on invest-

ment were edited) in general activities turned out to be more time consuming and demanded more resources, both financial and human, than initially estimated. More structurally, the business climate in the three countries is not conducive to financial transfers and foreign investment is difficult and risky. Individual investments without any personal follow up are unlikely to be successful. Investments need to be done in a much broader framework/program together with investors, suggesting that interventions aimed at putting the diaspora members in contact with institutions specialized in this field might be more useful.

Recommendations: The evaluation reflected on the importance of building sustainability more effectively into the program. It highlighted the importance of the respective governments being able to take over activities at the end of the programme, for example, and it recommended that skills transfer visits should not be shorter than three months to have the most impact.

Box 30

Qualified Expatriate Somali Technical Support – Migration for Development in Africa (QUESTS-MIDA)
(2009 – 2011)

UNDP Somalia and IOM are currently implementing the Qualified Expatriate Somali Technical Support - Migration for Development in Africa (QUESTS-MIDA) project which is a component of UNDP's Somali Institutional Development Programme (SIDP). The programme builds upon UNDP efforts during the last four years through its Qualified Expatriate Somali Technical Service (QUESTS) project as part of a wider governance programme for Somalia. IOM will implement the programme, using the expertise it has developed through its Migration for Development in Africa (MIDA) initiative and its network of missions in countries where Somalis with appropriate skills reside. The project targets Somalis with professional expertise in policy and legislation, human resources management, and public financial management living in North America, the UK and the Nordic countries. Through the project, these experts will be engaged in short-term capacity-building placements in Somalia, for an average period of six months, to provide on-the-job peer-to-peer training. Better management of public finances is one of the areas that needs to be urgently targeted given that decades of conflict have left an almost entirely informal economy with a lack of most of the structures needed to handle donor inflows, collect taxes, pay security forces or to maximize the potential of the estimated one billion US dollars in remittances the country receives each year.

El Salvador: Programa "Desarrollo Humano y Migraciones"
(2007-2010)
Partners: UNDP, Ministerio para Salvadoreños en el Exterior del Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores, Universidad Centroamericana José Simeón Cañas (UCA)

The analysis and recommendations of the 2005 El Salvador Human Development Report on migration inspired the launch of a series of projects focused on maximizing the benefits of migration and supporting networks between the diaspora and the country of origin. In the context of return migration, UNDP is creating internship opportunities for young members of the diaspora (born or raised outside of El Salvador) linked with UNDP programmatic areas (specifically migration, human development, HIV/AIDS prevention, local development, environmental issues, gender, and violence). The initiative will target students at high schools and universities in the United States.

3.8 Economic growth

Economic growth is traditionally at the centre of development policy because increasing financial resources enables individuals, communities and the nation to do more – to have a greater range of choice and capabilities. In the hands of individuals, increased income reduces income poverty, opens up more opportunities in terms of health and education, improves the quality of shelter they can afford, etc. And economic growth can enable the state to fund public infrastructure projects, provide better public services, such as education, and ensure social protection through social safety net measures, for example.

The way in which growth is generated matters, however. For instance, if growth is predicated on exploiting workers then it may lead to reduced - rather than enhanced - capabilities. Its distributional effects are also important, as inequitable growth may cause more problems than it solves. But while these sorts of provisos must be kept in mind at all times, in many cases economic growth, and associated reductions in income poverty, will be highly supportive of development.

Links with migration

The links between migration, development and economic growth are multi-faceted. Here are a few ways these can interplay:

- Economic deprivation can cause people to migrate and seek work abroad to diversify their livelihoods.

- On the other hand, a lack of economic resources can impede poor people from leaving their countries of origin. The poorest, and especially those from vulnerable groups (such as the elderly and female-headed households), tend to migrate less for these reasons, and when they do migrate they tend to go to neighbouring countries, which do not necessarily offer the most gains in terms of wages and other benefits that can be derived from migration.

- Poverty can also mean that when migrants leave they and/or their families are placed into debt-bondage, as they have to borrow the money to cover the costs of migration, often from unlicensed or other high interest lenders. The risk of

debt bondage also occurs in irregular migration (which poorer migrants are more likely to undertake) in which migration is organised by smugglers who charge very large fees for passage.

- The prospect of economic growth may also act as a magnet for immigration and/or return migration. An increase in demand, for example, can create new business opportunities, and attract people to migrate into them.

- Migration is likely to affect all the elements determining a country's GDP – consumption, investment, public expenditure, exports and imports – as well its dynamic development, or economic growth.

- Generally, the economic impacts of migration are more diffuse at the national aggregate level than at regional or local levels. Migrants tend to come from and go to particular regions, so the impacts of migration are unequally felt across different parts of a country.

- The larger the share of the population that goes abroad, the more likely it is the impacts on people who stay will be more pervasive and profound. Thus, migration is found to have greater effects on the GDP of smaller countries, such as small island states, which experience large-scale emigration, than on big, more populous states.

- Remittances make a significant contribution to the foreign exchange earnings of individual countries, often surpassing FDI inflows.

- Remittances can also improve a country's creditworthiness and thereby enhance its access to international capital markets, if the calculation of country credit ratings takes into account the magnitude of remittance flows.

- When households confront inefficient credit and financial markets, remittances can reduce credit constraints and open up opportunities for entrepreneurial activity and private investment. Beyond physical investments, remittances can help to finance education and health, key variables in promoting (long-term) economic growth.

- However, studies tracing the impacts of remittances on the long-term growth of the recipient country suggest these impacts are generally small. Positive impacts seem to depend to a large extent on local institutional structures. Indeed, like flows of foreign aid, remittances cannot remove the structural constraints that often hamper economic growth, social change and better governance in countries with low levels of human development.

- It is important to look at potential multiplier effects of remittances. An increase in investment of one household can generate additional income for other households and local employment opportunities. It will be important to monitor whether such spill-over effects increase or decrease existing inequalities.

- At the macro-economic level, the most commonly observed risk of large and sustained remittance inflows is an appreciation of the exchange rate. This could make the production of tradable goods less profitable (the so-called 'Dutch Disease' problem) by leading to a decline in competitiveness of the country's exports with negative consequences for output growth and employment.

- At local levels, remittances can indirectly affect labour supply by encouraging remittance-recipient households to work fewer hours (though this may be a positive rather than negative development for the household concerned).

- A loss of labour and skills through emigration can lead to a drop in output.

- On the other hand, it appears that some migrants support productive activities in their countries of origin through technology transfer and exposure to better working and management practices.

- New industries can also spread via international networks of skilled professionals - the IT sector in India is an often cited, prominent example of this. However, the success of such transfers seems to depend crucially on the openness of the business and political environment in the country of origin.

- In some cases labour migration opens up opportunities to enhance integration with economic hubs. The 2009 Human Development Report cites considerable historical evidence that enhanced mobility, by leading to the integration of labour

markets, is associated with the reduction of wage disparities between countries.

- Findings from the 2009 Human Development Report also suggest that – despite local perceptions to the opposite effect - migrant labour usually does not significantly affect local (un)employment. Immigration can stimulate local consumption, as well as employment and businesses, but these latter effects are likely to be context-specific.

- The fiscal effects of migration may be fairly negligible. When migrants and locals operate largely in informal labour markets, they are unlikely to generate tax revenue. Also, in situations when social welfare benefits are limited or unavailable for large parts of the population, the fiscal impacts of immigration tend to be negligible.

- There are, however, potential implications in terms of public service provision, including access to water, electricity, housing, health, education, etc.

See the checklist on economic growth in Annex C8 for issues to consider when assessing links with migration[37]. Programme examples specifically on migration and economic growth are limited.

[37] For further information, see 'DESA, World Economic and Social Survey 2004, (on migration), www.un.org/esa/policy/wess/wess2004files/part2web/part2web. pdf, 2009 Human Development Report, *Overcoming barriers: Human mobility and development*, UNDP, UNESCAP Working Paper, *Workers' Remittances, Economic Growth and Poverty in Developing Asia and the Pacific Countries*, prepared by Juthathip Jongwanich, authorized for distribution by Ravi Ratnayake, January 2007, www.unescap.org/pdd/publications/workingpaper/wp_07_01. pdf, 'Sussex Migration Working Paper No 40, *Rural out-migration and economic development at origin: What do we know?*, by Mariapia Mendola, University of Milano-Bicocca and Centro Studi L. d'Agliano, May 2006 www.sussex.ac.uk/migration/documents/mwp40.pdf.

Box 32: Brain circulation

Activity: **Creating technological parks and reversing brain drain**
Actors involved : **Taiwan Government, Taiwan Diaspora**
Key Focus: **Seeking policy advice from oversees workers, creating high tech industrial parks**
Country: **Taiwan (China)**
Target group: **Taiwanese living in the USA**
Time span: **10 years**
Outcomes in capacity development: **Reverse brain drain and encourage sustainable economic growth.**

State policymakers, many of whom were PhD-level engineers educated in the U.S., established ties with Taiwanese working across the US, from Bell Labs and IBM on the east coast to Silicon Valley companies on the west coast. The Taiwanese technocrats sought policy advice from overseas workers and brought in more elements of an American-style market-oriented model of development. The state also facilitated industrial growth by setting up a venture capital industry in 1985 (long before other regions in Asia), launching the Hsinchu Science-Based Industrial Park, and investing in research and education companies there that had been started by Silicon Valley returnees.

Source: IOM

3.9   Financial services

Financial markets benefit individuals and households by allowing them to save and borrow, and to smooth their consumption over time. They also benefit communities and societies by allowing money to be moved from places where it is less productive to those where it is more productive. Financial markets need to be well regulated, however, to prevent lenders from exploiting the vulnerable (by charging extortionate rates of interest, for example), and to tackle systemic risks (such as those witnessed in the global financial crisis). Finan-

cial market and services development is quite limited in many developing countries, partly because of a lack of availability of capital domestically and a reliance on external sources to finance their development, including Official Development Assistance (ODA), Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and remittances.

Links with migration

The following provides a non-exhaustive list of the complex ways migration, development and the financial services sector are interlinked. Remittances are the aspect discussed in most detail, in the separate sub-section that follows.

- Limited access to financial services may drive migration, as people with a business idea or other aspiration that requires credit (such as house buying, or even paying for an event such as a wedding) may go abroad in order to earn the necessary monies, when ideally they would borrow it instead.

- Many migrants have to turn to financial markets in order to be able to finance their move abroad, as they lack the resources up-front to pay the costs. More formal, regulated systems of access tend to be better for migrants and their families, as the costs of borrowing in formal structures tend to be lower. Some countries have put in place specific systems of travel loans as a way of enabling poor people to be able to migrate, for example.

Remittances

- Migration tends to result in remittances, which constitute an important financial flow to developing countries. Flows to developing countries were estimated to reach US$ 335 billion in 2010[38], which marks a return to 2008 levels after a slight dip in 2009 (US$ 316 billion) due to the effects of the global economic crisis. As official recordings tend to only encompass those funds sent through regular channels, total amounts of remittances

are expected to be considerably higher.

- As remittances are private financial assets, their investment potential should not be overestimated – recipients cannot be forced to bank them, or invest them, or take any other such action. Policy can create incentives for recipient to do this (e.g., through financial literacy courses, or subsidising banking operations directed at remittance recipients), but should not attempt to force them.

- At the macroeconomic level, remittances can help strengthen financial institutions by bolstering the amount of money moving through them. These funds can then be used to create credit within the financial system, benefitting those who wish to borrow, and potentially increasing productivity and growth if they are directed towards productive activities.

- The lack of access to financial institutions, such as banks and credit unions, however, is a major obstacle preventing poor and vulnerable groups from gaining as much from remittances as they potentially might.

- Micro-finance is often more accessible to the poor and vulnerable (and often in particular, women) than larger financial institutions. Small loans, saving accounts, bank accounts and credit cards provided by micro-finance institutions to the poor are a way of enabling the poorest parts of society to participate in commercial life. Moreover, by creating employment opportunities for self-starters, this form of financial access often leads to multiplier effects through enabling beneficiaries to employ other people. In some countries, remittances are accepted by micro-credit institutions as collateral (a guarantee) for the provision of loans to family members of migrants or the local community, opening up these types of possibilities.

- Research suggests that certain factors increase or decrease remittance flows. Box 33 on the next page sets out the latest knowledge on the kinds of factors that seem most important.

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[38] *Migration and Development Brief No. 12*, Migration and Remittances Team, Development Prospects Group, World Bank, 23 April 2010.

Migrant characteristics

- The longer migrants stay abroad, the weaker tends to become their propensity to remit, though it appears to take some time (ten years plus in many cases) before the amounts remitted appear to decline substantially

- Low-skilled migrants often remit more than highly skilled migrants in relative terms. This can be explained by the fact that highly skilled migrants who earn more often come from wealthier families that need fewer remittances. They are also in a better position to bring their families with them, moving to the host country on a more permanent basis.

- In terms of gender, women have a tendency to remit and invest more in the education and health of their family. They also tend to send smaller amounts, but more regularly and over a longer period of time. Culture, solidarity, altruism and other values of a society affect individual motivations and preferences.

- The poorest of the poor usually have less access to migration opportunities and thus also receive few remittances

Recipient household characteristics

- Gender differences among remittance recipients are associated with how remittances benefit the household. A number of reports have found significant disparities in the way in which men and women left behind invest remittances: women tend to prioritize family needs such as food, clothing, home, education, and health, whereas men often use resources for savings and investments to generate greater benefits in the future.

- When adolescents are left to assume unfulfilled responsibilities of a migrating parent (e.g. caring for younger siblings), there is often deterioration in academic performance and an increased likelihood that the child will drop out of school. Trends observed in adolescents receiving remittances (though the trends may be symptomatic of the larger, immeasurable impacts of migration) include increased drug use, pregnancy and social delinquency.

- Typically less well-off recipient households are often obligated to use a significant amount of the remittances received to repay debts from the migration process. Therefore, despite the desire to support children left behind and their caretakers, only a small portion of received remittances may be spent explicitly on children. The specific income effect on households of remittances also depends on the contributions made to the household by the person migrating before migration.

Macroeconomic and institutional factors

- Cost of living in home country: When the cost of living is low, migrants may be inclined to remit less, as smaller amounts are sufficient to cover the costs of everyday living;

- Cost of living and earning levels in destination countries affect the capacity to save money after daily needs are met;

- Exchange rate: There is a tendency for remittances to increase when the exchange rate appreciates in favour of the home country's local currency;

- Functioning of financial institutions: the better the quality of service and efficiency, the higher remittances.

There is, however, significant variance in these patterns across countries, and it would be important to look at any existing research examining one's own context before basing policies around these generalisations. Alternatively, more research may be commissioned before formulating policy. For example, IOM Islamabad did a study on 'The nature, use and impact of remittance flows from Pakistani migrant workers in Saudi Arabia to migrant-sending households in Pakistan' to examine those specific flows. Saudi Arabia is the main destination of Pakistani migrant workers, and so mapping remittances from Saudi Arabia provides policy makers and financial institutions with important data to use to develop new labour migration strategies. The study attempted to shed some light on the gendered aspects of Pakistani society as the survey mostly covered remittance-receiving, female-headed households and sought to show how women and men use the remittances they receive.

- Bearing this in mind, below are two kinds of activities that may be carried out to enhance the role of remittances in development. Note that all the programmes outlined recognise that remittances are private transfers. As such, they are based on the concept that the government role is to change people's incentives so that remittances play the best possible role in development, rather than to requisition the funds or try to compel migrants to remit.

1) Encouraging the use of formal channels

Governments might be keen to encourage the formal sending of remittances because, as discussed earlier, this can boost the financial system by increasing the volume of money moving through it. Moreover, if remittances are sent formally this allows government to monitor them more effectively, making policymaking easier. There are a number of measures that can help promote the use of formal channels:

- Decreasing transfer costs by promoting fair competition and pricing, including through:

  - financial services regulation; and

  - encouraging transparency of prices and services, such as by increasing information on the comparative costs of remittance transfer channels, as, for example, provided by the World Bank at remittancesprices.worldbank.org. (This website lists the cost of sending and receiving small amounts of money from one country to another, covering 120 remittance corridors worldwide, representing around 60 percent of total remittances sent to developing countries.)

- Improving access to remitting services, for example by:

  - Giving authority to microfinance NGOS and commercial institutions to provide remittance-related services. For example, in the US Alante Financial plays an important role as a commercial institution dedicated to the Hispanic market, offering a one-stop shop for all basic financial service needs, ranging from money transfers and the cashing of cheques to the provision of loans, insurance and mortgages.

  - Encouraging partnerships between banks in destination countries and banks in countries of origin to increase outreach of financial services, including in remote areas.

  - Limiting paperwork to the administrative minimum required by security constraints, such as money laundering regulations.

  - Devising agreements with banks and governments in the destination country and home country to allow consular services to provide an ID to migrants (regardless of their migration status), which will be accepted for opening a bank account. Again, in the United States there are a number of model initiatives in this regard, such as Partnership for Prosperity, which provided legal identity status to consular immatriculation (matricula consulare), allowing Mex-

ican migrants without regular status to open bank accounts in the United States.

- Introducing new technology (such as providing the possibility to remit using the Internet, mobile phone, ATM, etc.) In Georgia, a project called 'Testing new channels and products to maximize the development impact of remittances for the rural poor in Georgia' aims to improve access to remittances for families of migrants abroad by diversifying remittance transfer services for Georgians in Greece. This two-year project, funded by IFAD and implemented by IOM, includes, among other elements, a technical feasibility and cost comparison study of mobile phone technology as a tool for money transfers. The project aims to lead to the commercial launch of mobile phone money transfers in Georgia.

- Improving migrants' financial literacy, thereby opening up a range of new transfer options. This might involve for example the inclusion of a finance component in pre-departure orientation programmes for migrants. Information can also be disseminated in consular offices, or through migrant associations.

2) Encouraging remittance recipients to save and invest

Options to achieve this include:

- Creating specially tailored savings products. These would include premium interest rate accounts and those denominated in a foreign currency. India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka, for example, all offer their nationals foreign currency accounts with interest above the market rate, and through which foreign currency can be converted into local currency at premium rates. In the Philippines, banks and financial institutions offer a number of investment and saving instruments: The Pag-Ibig Overseas Programme is a voluntary savings programme providing overseas Filipino workers (OFWs)/immigrants/permanent residents with the opportunity to save and also get a loan for housing. The Development Bank of the Philippines (DBP) Kinabusakan Investment Certificates

(KICs) is a saving mechanism through which redemption values can be used to finance tuition fees of OFW beneficiaries and cover hospitalization costs. Purchase of KICs also entitles every certificate holder to life insurance coverage equivalent to the value of the certificates purchased.

- Facilitating the acquisition of commercial properties. For example, in India, non-resident Indian citizens can freely buy and sell residential and commercial properties, whereas foreign citizens must obtain the Reserve Bank of India's (RBI) permission.

- Developing loans and investment products targeting the diaspora, such as privileged access to the shares of national companies, participation in the securities market, etc.

- Developing investment facilitation services. This might involve initiatives such as supporting the development of a 'one-stop shop' where the diaspora can receive information on investment/business opportunities, find out about supportive measures (e.g., tax concessions, facilities to import equipment, financial support), receive training on preparing business plans and feasibility studies, and obtain assistance in getting necessary administrative authorizations. Such institutions may be set up in the destination country and/or the country of origin for migrant returnees. For example, the Overseas Pakistanis Foundation has established an Investment Advisory Cell with a One-Desk Facility Service to facilitate queries from overseas Pakistanis. This facility provides basic information regarding investments, the procedure to start a business, investment policies, feasibility studies, contact information of the related business, etc. The facility is in constant contact with the Board of Investment, the Expert Advisory Cell and other government organizations to provide up-to-date information to overseas Pakistanis.

- Creating business and investment networks involving nationals abroad and home country businesses, chambers of commerce, and financial institutions. For example the Overseas Indian Facilitation Centre (OIFC) is a not-for-profit public/private initiative of the Ministry of Overseas Indian

Affairs (MOIA) and Confederation of Indian Industry (CII). Its objective is to facilitate and bridge the gap between overseas Indians and India. OIFC has a mandate to cover broad areas: investment facilitation, knowledge networking and ensuring business-to-business partnerships in focus sectors, such as real estate, wealth management, taxation, law, healthcare, education and infrastructure.

- Developing collective savings mechanisms. The objective is to consolidate migrant savings and eventually secure co-financing for projects by microcredit institutions or banks.

See the checklist on financial markets in Annex C9 for further issues to consider and Boxes 34-36 for programme examples.[39,40]

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[39] For further example and information, see UNCTAD, *World investment report 2006, FDI from developing and transition countries: implications for development*, www.unctad.org/Templates/WebFlyer.asp?intItemID=3968&lang=1, World Bank, *Global Economic Prospects 2006: Economic Implications of Remittances and Migration*, ,econ.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/EXTDEC/EXTDECPROSPECTS/GEPEXT/EXTGEP2006/0,,contentMDK:20709766~menuPK:1026823~pagePK:64167689~piPK:64167673~theSitePK:1026804,00.html, and Griffith-Jones and Ocampo, *The Financial crises and its impact on developing countries*, UNDP, 2009, at: www.undp.org|poverty|focus_inclusive_development.shtml

[40] For further examples and information, see OECD, Migration, Remittances and Development, Paris, 2005, Ratha, D. *Leveraging Remittances for Development*, and the World Bank website on remittances and development:web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/0,,contentMDK:21924020~pagePK:5105988~piPK:360975~theSitePK:214971,00.html.

Box 34: Diaspora bonds as a source of financing during difficult times

In times of crisis of confidence in debt markets, some developing (and even developed) countries are encountering a great deal of difficulty in obtaining private financing using traditional financial instruments. This scarcity of capital threatens to jeopardize long-term growth and employment generation in developing countries, many of which have limited access to capital even in the best of times. Official aid alone will not be adequate to bridge near- or long-term financing gaps. Ultimately, it will be necessary to adopt innovative financing approaches to target previously untapped investors. Diaspora bonds are one such mechanism whereby developing countries turn to borrowing from their expatriate (diaspora) communities. A diaspora bond is a debt instrument issued by a country — or potentially, by a sub-sovereign public or private entity — to raise financing from its overseas diaspora. In the past, diaspora bonds have been used by Israel and India to raise over US$ 35 billion in development financing. The proceeds from these bonds were used to support balance of payments needs and finance infrastructure, housing, health, and education projects. Several countries – for example, El Salvador, Ethiopia, Nepal, the Philippines, Rwanda, and Sri Lanka – are considering (or have issued) diaspora bonds recently to bridge financing gaps.

For example, in the case of Haiti, if 200,000 Haitians in the US, Canada and France were to invest US$ 1,000 each in diaspora bonds, it would add up to US$ 200 million. If these bonds were opened to friends of Haiti, including private charitable organizations, much larger sums could be raised. If the bond rating were enhanced to investment grade rating via guarantees from the multilateral and bilateral donors, then such bonds would even attract institutional investors.

For countries, diaspora bonds represent a stable and cheap source of external finance, especially in times of financial stress. For diaspora investors, these bonds offer the opportunity to help their country of origin while at the same time offering an investment opportunity. Because of patriotism, diaspora members are usually more interested than foreign investors in investing in the home country. However, in countries that have weak governance and high sovereign risk, diaspora bonds may require support for institutional capacity building and/or credit enhancement from multilateral or bilateral agencies. Compliance with securities and exchange regulations overseas can also be cumbersome in some migrant-destination countries.

Sources: "Diaspora Bonds: Tapping the Diaspora during Difficult Times," by Suhas L. Ketkar and Dilip Ratha, 12 March 2010, World Bank; "Mobilize the Diaspora for the Reconstruction of Haiti" by Dilip Ratha, 11 February 2010, Haiti: Now and Next, SSRC Features (www.ssrc.org/features/pages/haiti-now-and-next/1338/1438/)

Box 35: Enhancing remittances' development impact

Senegal: Mobilizing Migrant Remittances for Local Development (2009 – 2011)
Partners: UNDP, Union des Mutuelles d'Epargne et de Crédit des Artisans du Sénégal (UMECAS), Echanges Internationaux pour le Développement et la Coopération (ECIDEC)

This project aims to channel migrant remittances to support economic and social development in five regions in Senegal. Surveys of the Senegalese migrant community living in France informed the design and creation of formal, transparent channels for sending money home for both individual and community level development projects.

Korea: Microcredit for Poor Households of Migrants (2007-2009)
Partners: UNDP, Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, Social Solidarity Bank

The objective of this project is to support poor households which contain 'marriage migrants.' Marriage migrants often experience difficulties in finding work and other kinds of economic activity in Korea. There is also currently no systematic support programme in place for them. While the project originally intended to identify individual beneficiaries and to provide them with business training and access to microcredit, the process proved difficult and therefore community organizations were instead selected as the focus for the project.

Tajikistan: Partnerships with banks, micro-lending organizations and other financial institutions to provide remittance investment in Tajikistan

In Tajikistan, a IOM and UNDP project is offering households receiving remittances access to micro-loans to start or expand a business, using their remittance income stream as collateral. These small businesses help increase household income, put more money into circulation in the community, and generate employment, all of which contribute to local development. Participating families also receive entrepreneurship training, and local community resource centres receive capacity building training to improve their ability support these activities. Additionally, in coordination with local development committees, IOM provides financing facilities for community initiatives, telecommunications infrastructure and counseling services for potential labour migrants and their families.

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Box 36: Micro-credits

Activity: **Providing micro-credit to prevent economic migration**
Actors involved: **IOM**
Country: **Nakhchivan Autonomous Republic of Azerbaijan (NAR)**
Target group: **Women credit groups**
Time span: **12 months**
Outcomes in capacity development: **The project supported empowerment of women through the creation of a food processing women's cooperative and through the marketing of their products. Women received intensive training on business planning, needs assessment, community resource management, bookkeeping, etc. by project staff, as well as access to credit. The cooperative created employment for six women and improved the livelihoods of 600.**

Geographical isolation from the main territory of Azerbaijan, economic blockades and poor communication has left the NAR behind the rest of the country in its development. The blockade has cut off all land access between Nakhchivan and the rest of Azerbaijan, with all economic contact now restricted to a narrow 15-kilometre border with Turkey in the west, and a difficult and very arduous land route through Iran. Food prices have risen sharply compared to other parts of the country. Increased uncertainty about future economic conditions has resulted in a decreased average age of marriage, fewer young people completing higher education and a rise in bogus marriages and trafficking.

The experience of IOM in Nakhchivan shows the capacity and interest of women to become involved in economic activities although they were initially wary of such responsibilities. Traditionally, women's role tends to be focused upon the family.

Source: IOM

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3.10 Trade

Trade can make an important contribution to development, primarily by stimulating economic growth. International trade allows countries to allocate resources more efficiently, specialize in sectors in which they have a comparative advantage, create employment, and access technologies and know-how, etc. Nevertheless, the relationship between trade, economic growth and development is not automatic. Export expansion of the commodities sector with limited value added and no linkages to the rest of the economy (for instance, mineral or oil exports, or primary agricultural products) may lead to jobless growth with little affect on poverty reduction.

Market access barriers in foreign markets and other trade distortions, such as agriculture subsidies, impair the ability of the poorest countries to use the potential of trade for growth and development. Trade liberalization may also lead to increased competition in local markets, putting pressure on sectors unable to compete with imports while failing to stimulate a strong export response. The net result in terms of economic growth and job creation may be negative or neutral. The adjustment costs to trade liberalization may also be significant, at least in the short term, and require complementary measures to support vulnerable groups, especially in the context of developing countries.

Links with migration

The links between migration, development and trade are complex. The following list describes a few ways these aspects interplay:

- Some aspects of trade are analogous to migration. According to the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), services can mainly be traded in four different manners or modes:

  - Mode 1: cross-border supply, e.g., an electricity company providing services in another country;

  - Mode 2: consumption abroad, e.g., tourism;

  - Mode 3: commercial presence, e.g., setting up a business or a professional establishment in another country; and

- Mode 4: the temporary movement of service providers, e.g., IT experts installing equipment in a client enterprise located in another country. The movement of service providers or mode 4 of the GATS can be seen as a particular form of migration, as it involves the temporary circulation of workers. However, as a trade agreement it does not address the issue of migrants' rights, and it currently mainly targets highly skilled workers.

- Trade in services through the movement of service providers can represent a large potential for developing countries if it can allow them to find income opportunities for their numerous low skilled workers.

- Movement of top level service providers is of less interest to developing countries as highly qualified professionals are scarce and relatively few developing countries would like to see skilled people leave, being more concerned on the whole about retaining them (though some countries have deliberately facilitated the training of more skilled professionals than they need in some areas – the Philippines has taken this approach for example with healthcare professionals).

- An increasing number of regional trade agreements also address trade in services and temporary movement of natural persons under Mode 4. The manner in which RTAs treat labour movement varies across regions, ranging from full labour mobility to no effective provision at all. However, most RTAs still focus on facilitating the movement of higher-skilled workers only.

- Experiences of increased migration following the formation of RTAs point to the need for RTA partners to institute cooperative mechanisms to effectively manage initial increases in migration when new trade agreements are introduced.

- Trade patterns and policies can affect migration. For example, protectionist policies in the most industrialized countries can considerably support the position of national labour-intensive sectors, resulting in an increase in demand for foreign labour – meaning the trade policies of developed nations act as a pull factor.

- In parallel, these same policies work as obstacles to labour-intensive exports from developing countries, reducing opportunities for employment at home, and pushing migrants out.

- In addition, trade openness often entails economic restructuring, which is likely to make the employment situation more volatile, therefore contributing to increases in the incentives to leave.

- Migration can create important opportunities to develop foreign trade links, thus promoting the export and import of goods and services that foster economic growth and a rise in income levels. Through labour mobility and migrant networks, transnational enterprises can be created and technology, knowledge and ideas transferred.

- Migrants may promote the consumption of products from their country of origin by host country nationals by affecting existing habits and cultural norms, thus creating new opportunities for export in the country of origin that are often produced by small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs).

- Large inflows of foreign currency as remittances can trigger real exchange rate appreciation and therefore threaten the international competitiveness of national enterprises. This so-called 'Dutch disease' phenomenon can lead to a decline in the production of tradable goods.

See a checklist on trade in Annex C10 for issues to consider when assessing links with migration[41].

3.11 Agriculture and rural development

Agriculture is one of the most predominant livelihood strategies in the developing world and crucial for food

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[41] For further information, see Wickramasekara, Piyasiri (2007), *Skilled labour mobility: the resurgence of the "brain drain" debate*, International Migration Programme, ILO, Geneva, ILO (2008), Ghose, Majid and Ernst, The Global Employment Challenge, Geneva, ILO,' 'Hollifield, James F (2006), Trade, Migration and Economic Development, The Risks and Rewards of Openness, Paper prepared for conference on Migration, Trade and Development, Federal Reserve Bank of Dallas, Texas, October 2006,' 'ILO (2010, forthcoming), GATS Mode 4- Movement of natural persons and protection of migrant workers' rights, International Migration Programme, Geneva, ILO,' 'Marion Panizon, Trade and Labour Migration, GATS Mode 4 and trade agreements, FES, occasional paper, n.47, January 2010, Chanda, Rupa. *Low skilled workers and bilateral, regional and unilateral initiatives:lessons for the GATS Mode 4 negotiations and other agreements*, UNDP, 2008, and Sophie Nonnenmacher, Chapter 13, 'Achieving best outcomes from global, regional and bilateral cooperation,' *2009 World Migration Report*.

security. According to the World Bank, the level of poverty among rural populations in developing countries amounts to 75 per cent of the population and therefore rural development can be regarded as crucial for tackling poverty.

Links with migration

The following provides a non-exhaustive list of the complex ways migration and rural development are interlinked.

- The precarious nature of rural livelihoods often pushes families to look for alternative options for employment, including outside their country of origin. Influences on rural development, such as remoteness, access to markets, level of mechanisation, property rights, the extent of soil erosion, etc., affect the likelihood of migration.

- The effects of migration on agricultural output are gendered. While specifics vary substantially depending on the area in question, the absence of the male labour force in some agricultural activities can have profound effects on output, especially in smaller households. Women left in charge of households and farming can receive less credit and official aid, and may often face non-acceptance and discrimination by the male farming community.

- Migration often creates a 'labour gap' in the household left behind. In some cases this may be compensated for by remittances (which allow the household to buy the extra labour it needs), but in many others the resources sent may be too few, or buying labour simply would not be possible for cultural and other reasons. Labour gaps can place extra burdens upon those remaining in terms of tasks, and some may not be met at all. Again, the impacts of this are likely to be strongly gendered.

- The cost of transferring remittances to rural areas can be high and problematic given the lack of banking facilities.

- Agricultural intensification generally requires increased labour. Therefore, emigration could potentially limit agricultural intensification. Immigration may, however, provide replacement foreign labour, remittances may enable investment in more productive farming methods, or migrants may return bringing with them new knowledge and technologies, all of which could promote agricultural intensification in their own right. Flexible seasonal labour programmes in particular allow migrants to maintain links with their own land and property, potentially acting as a particular spur to agricultural intensification.

See the checklist on Agriculture and rural development in Annex C11 for issues to consider when assessing links with migration and Boxes 37-39 for programme examples.

Box 37: Global programme experiences

Activity: **Integrated Community Development for Livelihoods and Social Cohesion in Mae Hong Son**
Actors involved: **UNDP, Ministry of Interior, Mae Hong Son Governor's Office**
Country: **Thailand**
Time span: **Two years** (2008-2010)
Outcomes expected:
This project aims to enhance livelihoods opportunities and promote social cohesion in Mae Hong Son province, the province with the lowest Human Development Index in Thailand and home to a large number of displaced people from Myanmar and regular and irregular migrants. Through integrated community development methodologies, focusing on livelihoods generation, capacity development of local government, and natural resource management, the project works to create an enabling environment for long-term development. UNDP, in partnership with the Ministry of the Interior and Mae Hong Son government offices, focuses on enhancing food security and increasing agricultural and non-agricultural income generation opportunities, improving service delivery with an emphasis on local planning processes, and developing management and technical skills for natural disaster risk management and environmental activities, including environmentally friendly enterprises.

Box 38: Rural Migrant Skills Development and Employment

Activity: **Assessing and evaluating migration impacts on development**
Actors involved: **Ministry of Human Resources and Social Security, World Bank**
Country: **China**
Target group: **Migrant workers in rural areas in China**
Time span: **Five years**
Outcomes (expected) in capacity development: Rise in percentage of migrants trained in project training institutions who find employment within six months of training completion; rise in percentage of migrants trained in project training institutions who find employment in the occupational field for which they are trained within six months of training completion; rise of wage level of migrant graduates of long term training programs of the project-supported training institutions, by occupations.

The objective of the Rural Migrant Skills Development and Employment Project for China is to support the transition of rural workers to urban areas to access better employment opportunities that improve their incomes and working conditions. There are four components to the project. The first component is skills development: (a) to enhance capacity of the project provinces to deliver training to potential migrants; (b) improve the quality, relevance, and flexibility of the training offered, consistent with migrant and market needs in receiving areas; and (c) improve functioning of the training market. The second component is employment services: (a) to improve provision of labour market information and public employment services for rural migrants, and (b) further develop policies and institutions for employment services and support the development of the market for employment service provision. The third component is worker protection: (a) which aims to improve the employment conditions of migrant workers; and (b) increase awareness of worker rights and support legal services for migrants. Finally, the fourth component is policy analysis, monitoring and evaluation, and project management which will: (a) support a policy-oriented research program and the sharing of information and knowledge concerning rural-to-urban migration; (b) help improve the monitoring of government programs in skills development, employment services, and worker protection and conduct impact evaluations of selected policy interventions; and (c) support project management and build capacity in general management and planning.

Source: World Bank

Activity: **Enhancing the development impact of migrant remittances in rural communities**
Actors involved: **UNDP Communities Program, Jamoat Development Committees, Local Authorities, Consultants in cooperative development, IOM**
Country: **Tajikistan**
Target group: **Labour migrants living in Jamoat**
Time span: **12 months**
Outcomes in capacity development: Training in micro-entrepreneurship (start and improve business methodology) for at least 100 members of migrant households. A total of 67 should be operating micro-enterprises, and at least 90 percent of all credit recipients will have successful, operating businesses or have improved their livelihoods.

The project was intended to build the capacity of migrant households, local communities and civil society actors to capitalize and promote the investment of migrant remittances for the development of viable livelihoods for migrant families and communities affected by emigration. The main target groups included migrant households, mostly headed by women in Jamoat in Khatlon Province.

The idea was to provide finance facilities for cooperative agricultural initiatives and individual migrant households, as well as counselling services for potential labour migrants. The ultimate aim of this project was to create a replicable model for a community-driven optimization of remittances in Tajikistan.

Source: UNDP

3.12 Infrastructure

Infrastructure constitutes one of the main determinants of development and is the basis for the development of various other sectors as it facilitates the provision of critical services (such as transportation, communications, energy, water supply, etc.). Infrastructure is of considerable importance to people's livelihoods, and differential access to infrastructure such as housing, water and sanitation is often a major cause, and indicator, of inequalities in society.

Links to migration

The following provides a non-exhaustive list of some of the ways migration, development and infrastructure are interlinked.

• Infrastructure can constitute a critical determinant of migration. Lack of or difficult access to public infrastructure (roads, electricity, schools, hospital, housing, agricultural infrastructure such as irrigation) in a given country could constitute a migration push factor. This could either be because the migrant thinks they can gain access to

this infrastructure abroad, and/or because they hope to earn money and remit so their family can purchase education, better shelter, etc.

• Infrastructure can also be a pull factor if people migrate in order to take up opportunities to work in construction or maintenance work.

• Large inflows of migrants, especially in urban settings, can strain existing infrastructures and lead to the degradation of living conditions in poorly serviced areas, such as slum dwellings.

• Remittances sent home by migrants increase overall Gross Domestic Product (GDP), which in turn can be used to support projects for improving the public infrastructure of schools, hospitals, roads, electricity, water supply, sanitation, etc. However, the nature of the impact of infrastructure on migration and the links between the two is very context-specific and will depend inter alia on the tax system and whether a developing country can benefit from the earnings of its nationals overseas (or from new migrants who have come to its shores to work).

- Diaspora groups may invest in public infrastructure projects in their home communities.

- In some cases this has been supported by policy, with several countries providing incentives for migrants to pool and channel their remittances into infrastructure development projects in their communities of origin. This can be done for example by supporting partnerships with 'hometown associations' – organizations of migrants in the country of destination that come together to help their communities of origin. The Mexican '4-por-1' programme brings together hometown associations, local and federal governments, and Western Union. Each US dollar sent by migrants is matched by the other partners to fund local in-

frastructure and development projects in areas of high emigration.

- Such strategies should, however, consider carefully when it is appropriate to target migrants and diaspora communities only, and when a universal approach (open to other interested investors) is more promising and inclusive of domestic stakeholders. Furthermore, governments should not reduce their investments in public infrastructures because of additional resources provided by migrants and diaspora communities.

See the checklist on infrastructure in Annex C12 for issues to consider when assessing links with migration and Box 40 for a relevant programme example.

Box 40: Internally displaced populations and port infrastructure

Activity: **Improving Port Infrastructure in Port Champerico**
Actors involved: **IOM, Empresa Portuaria Nacional de Champerico**
Country: **Guatemala**
Target group: **Internally Displaced Populations**
Time span: **12 months**
Outcomes in capacity development: The direct users of the quay and fishing pier, around 400 small-scale fishermen (400 families/2,000 persons) have sustainable work and a place for loading and unloading their fishing boats. This provides them with regular income.

This project aims to provide financial resources and technical assistance to the *Empresa Portuaria Nacional de Champerico* to build marine, small-scale fishing infrastructure. The technical part of the project involves repairing a quay, building a fishing pier and carrying out studies for the construction of a tidal basin for small-scale fishing.

It is hoped that this will create sustainable employment at the local level in a geographic area where people live in poverty and extreme poverty, with high rates of food insecurity, chronic malnutrition and high migration rates.

Source: IOM

3.13   Environment

The environment can be considered a constituent of development in the sense that a) environmental conditions affect quality of life, health and wellbeing of communities, and b) livelihoods, industries and systems of production depend on so-called 'ecosystem services,' ranging from the provision of resources such as fertile soils, mineral and water resources to the capacity of ecosystems to absorb carbon dioxide or withstand erosion.

Changes to the natural environment can take various forms: they can be sudden-onset in nature (natural disasters with little or no prior indications, e.g., flash floods, hurricanes, earthquakes) in which case populations often move for sheer survival. They can also be slow-onset (involving a gradual degradation of conditions, e.g., desertification, coastal and soil erosion, sea level rise), meaning livelihoods and economic activities become more difficult to sustain and ultimately development efforts are jeopardised. Some forms of deterioration of the environment can be directly

induced by human activity (e.g., industrial pollution, over-exploitation of land).

Sustainable development is essential in reducing the vulnerability of communities and countries to environmental degradation and natural disasters. Migration is often seen as the result of a failure to adapt to specific or changing environmental circumstances. Migration should, however, also be recognized as one possible adaptation strategy, especially at early stages of environmental degradation.

Links with migration

The following provides a basic overview of the complex ways migration, development and the environment interact.

- At early and intermediate stages, environmental degradation may lead to predominantly temporary migration. When environmental degradation becomes severe or irreversible, resulting migration can become permanent and may require relocation of affected populations.

- Environmental migration of whatever type may take place internally, regionally or internationally. Most empirical research tends to suggest that internal migration, such as rural-urban migration or movement across immediate borders with neighbouring countries, is likely to occur on a larger scale than international migration across long distances and different continents.

- Environmental migration is a multi-causal phenomenon: in most cases it is a combination of causes that determines whether migration takes place. Factors such as pre-existing conflict, gender, governance, access to resources and networks - indeed all factors that would be considered elements feeding into development itself - affect the migratory consequences of environmental degradation and natural disasters.

- Least developed countries, due to their low adaptive capacity, and countries with particularly susceptible geographies (such as small island states) are most vulnerable to the effects of environmental degradation and natural disasters.

- Likewise, economically and socially marginalized groups within society will be worst affected. Such groups rarely have the financial and informational resources required for migration at their disposal. As a result, the poorest of the poor rarely have the capacity to move in order leave hazardous or unsustainable conditions.

- Migration can have positive effects on the environment and socio-economic development in areas of origin. For example, migration may relieve population pressure on land and on the local labour market and thus directly promote environmental and economic recovery of the area. In addition, migrants can further the development of areas of origin via remittances and other, non-monetary contributions. Temporary/circular migration in particular can allow for the acquisition of new ideas, technologies or land-use practices that can then be replicated in the community of origin through the transfer of ideas, training and capacity building activities.

- For destination countries, migration can enhance the labour force and its knowledge in utilizing environmental resources more efficiently or improving the quality of the environment, for instance through utilization of less environmentally destructive methods and/or diversification of crops.

- If poorly managed and especially in cases of sudden mass inflows, migration may have detrimental effects on the environment in areas of destination, including the results of unsustainable consumption of water, food and fuel. Especially in camps for displaced persons or in large urban agglomerations migrants may be forced into precarious living conditions, settling for example on steep slopes or floodplains. This in turn may involve accelerated deforestation, pose hazards to public health and put strains on water resources and public services, increasing risks not only of further environmental degradation but also of social tensions.

Suggestions for policy and programming on migration, development and the environment

a. Plan ahead in order to address potential migratory consequences of environmental change, including as a result of climate change. A proactive policy approach is critical in managing environmental migration in an orderly and humane way. Sustainable development strategies should explicitly consider the needs

of agricultural and other communities particularly vulnerable to the effects of environmental degradation and natural disasters in order to minimize forced displacement as much as possible.

b. Facilitate the role of migration as an adaptation strategy to environmental and climate change. For instance, temporary and circular labour migration schemes can be developed with environmentally vulnerable communities, particularly at less advanced stages of environmental degradation and often in combination with community stabilization programmes. Such schemes should also seek to strengthen the developmental benefits of migration for areas of origin.

c. Assist vulnerable groups, such as agricultural and indigenous communities, in order to mitigate the impacts of environmental degradation and natural disasters in order to reduce their vulnerability to the effects of such phenomena.

d. Consider the environmental impact of human settlements, in particular in the area of urban planning and in anticipation of potential increases in rural-urban migration as a result of environmental factors. Environmental impact assessments are useful tools to ensure the sustainability of human living conditions.

e. Bolster preparedness strategies, including by investing in early warning systems, evacuation plans and measures to ensure adequate assistance and protection for people on the move as a result of environmental degradation or natural disasters.

f. Enhance synergies between humanitarian action and sustainable development, including through disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation measures.

g. Take advantage of technological possibilities. A possible mismatch between available resources and population size can be solved either through better migration management or by using better technology to spare resources. Return migrants can also contribute to spreading knowledge on green technologies and practices.

See the checklist on environment in Annex C13 for issues to consider when assessing links with migration and planning action and Boxes 41-44 for programme examples[42].

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[42] For further information and examples, see IOM, *Migration, Environment and Climate Change*, Geneva, 2009, IOM, *Migration and Development: Opportunities and Challenges for Policymakers*, Migration Research Series No. 22, Geneva, 2006, and UNDP, *Human Development report 2007\2008. Fighting climate change: human solidarity in a divided world*, 2008, available at : hdr.undp.org|en\reports\global\hdr2007-2008.

Box 41: Disaster management

Actors involved: **European Commission, IOM, Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA)**
Key Focus: **Disaster management, health care, capacity building, preparedness**
Country: **Mozambique**
Target group: **Estimated 34,000 people in 54 districts**
Time span: **Two years and still going**
Outcomes in capacity development: **Three medical clinics in operation and 80 shelters built.**

Mozambique was struck by severe floods in late 2007 and early 2008. While the affected communities are still receiving assistance in the form of infrastructure rehabilitation, the focus is shifting towards establishing mechanisms to mitigate the effect of future natural disasters. Mozambique is also potentially vulnerable to cyclones, drought and earthquakes.

The European Commission (DG ECHO) has funded IOM to increase the availability of primary health care to flood displaced populations and host communities through rehabilitation of three health centres and construction of seven first aid posts in Mutarara and Morrumbala Districts. All ten sites are fully complete and the three medical clinics are in full operation. With the support of SIDA, IOM has also built 40 transitional shelters in Murrumbala resettlement areas and 40 transitional shelters in the Mutarara resettlement areas. These shelters are provided to certified vulnerable households who have no other means by which to either build or pay for a house themselves.

Meanwhile, IOM is collaborating with other UN agencies in a joint programme to strengthen disaster risk reduction strategies and enhance the emergency preparedness of communities. In this regard, IOM has undertaken activities to support capacity building and provide technical assistance to community radio stations in areas affected by natural disasters, and to develop disaster preparedness programming material for dissemination by community radio.

Box 42: Temporary and circular migration

Activity: **Temporary work program for families confronted with disasters**
Actors involved: Fundación Agricultores Solidarios (FAS), Unió de Pagesos (UP) Local Municipalities, Departmental Governments, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Pompeu Fabra University (Spain), University of Salamanca (Spain), Alma Mater Network of Universities (Colombia), Asociación America-España Solidaridad Colombia (AESCO), IOM
Key Focus: **Training, assistance, sustainable investment, poverty reduction**
Country: **Colombia**
Target group: **1,519 people most in need**
Time span: **Two years**
Outcomes in capacity development: **Training in leadership and local development for 322 development agents, financial services for 1,021 labour migrants, basic technical training for 1,519 labour migrants.**

The Colombian Temporary and Circular Labour Migration (TCLM) programme offers a livelihood alternative to families confronted with natural disasters, such as floods or volcanic eruptions, through temporary work abroad until the affected zone recovers. The circular migration model supports migrants and their families in maximizing the impact of the remittances on the area's recovery through public and private co-funding and international cooperation. Particular areas of focus for cooperation include production, housing and educational projects. To make these investments sustainable, monitoring and technical assistance are being provided.

Source: IOM Colombia

Box 43: Refugee camps

Activity: **Energy efficiency in refugee camps in Liberia**
Actors involved: **UNHCR, Environmental Foundation for Africa**
Key Focus: **Energy efficiency, conservation of resources**
Country: **Liberia**
Target group: **Approximately 5,000 homes and families**
Time span: **Less than 1 year**
Outcomes in capacity development: **Increase in awareness, access to energy efficient cooking stoves, reduction in demand for fuel wood.**

One year after their arrival in Liberia, Sierra Leonean refugees found themselves in serious conflict with their host communities. Fuel wood and palm leaves for thatching were formerly abundant in the area, but the arrival of more than 15,000 refugees soon led to a shortage. To address the issue UNHCR, through the Environmental Foundation for Africa, trained refugees and people from host communities to produce and use energy-efficient cooking stoves. Subsequent training allowed more refugees to have access to these stoves, all of which helped reduce the demand for fuel wood. This, in turn, helped reduce the pressure on the dwindling vegetation cover.

Source: UNEP, 2006 Guide

Box 44: Rehabilitation of refugee-impacted areas

Activity: **Community-based rehabilitation of refugee-impacted areas in eastern Sudan**
Actors involved: **UNHCR, Government of Sudan**
Key Focus: **Sustainable Resettlement, local capacity building, agro-forestry**
Country: **Sudan**
Target group: **1.1 million refugees**
Time span: **Three years and still going**
Outcomes in capacity development: **US$ 1,200 in revenue per year, 14 ha of forest managed locally**

Some of the largest and longest-lasting refugee caseloads in Africa have been those of Ethiopian and Eritrean refugees settled in eastern Sudan (principally in Gedaref and Kassala States). The impact of such a large number of people – some 1.1 million refugees at the peak in 1985 – has been significant in environmental as well as social and economic terms.

In October 2002, a multidisciplinary assessment mission developed a comprehensive proposal addressed at the issues of camp closure and rehabilitation needs in the affected area. Initiated by UNHCR and the Government of Sudan, the Sustainable Options for Livelihood Security in Eastern Sudan (SOLSES) Programme was conceived as a scaling-down exercise of UNHCR's presence in the region, with simultaneous preparation for the hand-over of assets to local communities and authorities, as well as some environmental rehabilitation. Needs assessments were carried out to evaluate peoples' existing and anticipated needs from a range of environmental resources, as well as for health and education facilities, and water and sanitation.

By November 2006, Community Environment Management Plans had been established for nine refugee-impacted areas in the central states (Sennar and El Gezira), as well as for the Setit region in Kassala State. The development of such plans has been an important part of the overall needs assessment of affected communities, some of which include refugees who are not able to return to Eritrea. Many of these people have lived in camps for more than thirty years, and are essentially already integrated into the local community. Indeed in some instances it is no longer possible to determine between a camp and a local village.

As community members become more familiar and convinced of the approaches promoted through SOLSES, the programme is also helping to respond to other pressing needs, far beyond the original concept of environmental rehabilitation, such as the provision of clean water and waste disposal, the use of agricultural chemicals, and diseases caused by dirty water or mosquitoes.

Source: UNEP, Darfur report, 2005

UN Photo/Albert Gonzalez Farran

Annexes

ANNEX A   Acronyms and glossary

This list refers to most of the acronyms and terms used in the handbook. The definitions are working definitions and are provided for ease of understanding.

Asylum-seekers – asylum-seekers are persons seeking international protection whether as an individual or on a group basis. In countries with individualized procedures, an asylum-seeker is someone whose claim has not yet been finally decided on by the country in which he or she has submitted it. Not every asylum-seeker will ultimately be recognised as a refugee, but every refugee is initially an asylum-seeker.

Diaspora/migrant community – diaspora is the name given to a community of migrants settled permanently in countries other than their own. The concept of diaspora refers to a situation when people from a country are scattered abroad and form a community in their countries of destination. In contrast, a migrant community is generally thought of as a community of temporary migrants. Today, however, the distinction between the concept of diaspora and migrant community is blurred. Both terms are increasingly used interchangeably to refer to nationals from a country established abroad either temporarily or permanently and irrespective of their legal status.

EC - European Commission

EU - European Union

Evaluation – the systematic and objective assessment of an on-going or completed project, program or policy, its design, implementation and results. The aim is to determine the relevance and fulfilment of objectives, its efficiency, effectiveness, impact and sustainability.

FDI – foreign direct investment

Forced migration - general term used to describe a migratory movement in which an element of coercion exists, including fear of persecution and threats to life and livelihood - whether arising from human-made or natural causes (e.g., movements of refugees and internally displaced persons as well as people displaced by natural or environmental disasters, chemical or nuclear disasters, famine, or development projects). See also IDPs, Asylum seekers, Refugees, Victims of trafficking.

IFI - international financial institutions

ILO - International Labour Organization (a UN specialized agency)

IMF - International Monetary Fund (an intergovernmental organization)

Indicators – quantitative or qualitative benchmarks that provide a simple and reliable basis for assessing achievement or change.

Internally displaced persons/IDPs - people who have been forced or obliged to flee or leave their homes or places of habitual residence as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, internal strife, situations of generalized violence, systematic human rights violations or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border.

Irregular migration - migration that takes place outside the norms and procedures established by States to manage the orderly flow of migrants into, through, and out of their territories.

IO - international organisation

IOM - International Organization for Migration (an intergovernmental organization)

Logical framework – methodology for conceptualizing projects and an analytic tool that allows a project developer or manager to detail a project clearly and understandably.

Long-term migrant – a person who moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least a year.

MTEF – medium-term expenditure framework

M&D – migration and development

M&E - monitoring and evaluation

Migrant – any person who changes his or her country of usual residence.

Migrant community - see diaspora.

Migrant flows - number of persons entering another country or leaving their own country during a certain time frame (statistics are generally provided annually).

Migrant stocks - total number of migrants present in a country.

Monitoring – a management tool that contributes to effective and efficient project implementation. It uses systematically collected data on specific indicators to provide management and stakeholders with indications on progress, and to take action to improve performance.

MoV/Means of Verification - the evidence behind the indicators, i.e. documentation to prove that the measure given by the indicator has been achieved.

NFP – National Focal Point

NGO - non-governmental organization

NPA - National Plan of Action

ODA – overseas development assistance

Output - tangible 'goods' and actions generated by an intervention

Overall objective - a statement of the broad aim of a programme, i.e. how the programme can contribute to a larger development plan or action. Because the programme can usually only contribute to, but not fully achieve, the larger development objective, it would normally employ verbs such as 'to contribute to,' 'to enhance," to strengthen,' 'to support,' 'to reinforce,' etc.

PER – public expenditure review

Performance indicator – pre-determined measurements that track specific changes or results of a project. Performance indicators are directly linked to measuring progress toward project objectives and are often a combination of monitoring and evaluation.

Permanent migrants - permanent migrants are those migrants who go abroad without any intention of returning or who benefit from a status which allows them to remain in the host country indefinitely.

Project purpose – objectives that will be directly achieved by a project. They define the primary reason for the project.

Refugees – under UNHCR's mandate, a refugee is any person who is outside his or her country of origin or habitual residence and is unable or unwilling to return there owing to a well-founded fear of persecution for one of the reasons set out in the 1951 Convention, or owing to serious and indiscriminate threats to life, physical integrity or freedom resulting from generalized violence or events seriously disturbing public order.

Short-term migrant - persons who move to a country other than that of their usual residence for a period of at least three months but less than 12 months, except in cases where the movement to that country is for purposes of recreation, holiday, visits to friends and relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimage.

Stranded migrant - migrants who are not authorized to stay in the state they are in, while they are unable to return to their state of nationality or previous residence, with no other states accepting to grant them entry.

Stakeholders – agencies, organizations, groups or individuals who have a direct or indirect interest in the issues or activities at stake, and who affect, or are positively or negatively affected, by the implementation of activities. Stakeholders could include governments, donor communities, implementation partners, businesses and project beneficiaries.

SMART targets – acronym for targets which are:

Specific: in terms of magnitude and time. Outcomes and outputs targeted must describe a specific future condition;

Measurable: results, whether quantitative or qualitative, must have measurable indicators, making it possible to assess whether they were achieved or not;

Achievable: results must be within the capacity of the partners to achieve;

Relevant: indicators which reflect or measure the effect of the project (rather than for example the effect of external factors); and

Time-bound: results are never open-ended – there is an expected date of accomplishment.

SWAP – sector-wide approach

Targets - quantified levels of the indicators that a country or a society wants to achieve at a given point in time.

Smuggling of migrants - procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State party of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident. (See the UN Protocol Against the Smuggling of Migrants).

Temporary or seasonal migrants - migrants who remain in a destination country for a limited period of time and then return home permanently, or for a short time before emigrating again (to the same or to another destination country). When this type of migration occurs back and forth between a specific home and host country, it is also referred to as 'circular migration'.

TOR - terms of reference

Trafficking in persons – recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs. (See the UN Protocol Against the Trafficking in Persons.)

Transit migrants - those who stop over in a country for a duration (of variable lengths of time), while travelling between two or more countries.

UNDAF - United Nations Development Assistance Framework

UNDP - United Nations Development Programme

UNHCR - United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

UNICEF - United Nations Children's Fund

Victims of trafficking - individuals recruited or transported or harboured by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, abduction, fraud, deception, the abuse of power or a position of vulnerability or the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation.

Voluntary migration - refers to movements occurring on the basis of the choice or free will of persons to do so (as opposed to forced migration). These individual choices can nonetheless be strongly influenced by social or economic constraints (e.g., poverty, economic stagnation, or racial tensions in countries of origin), yet such constraints do not necessarily imply that the person concerned was forced to migrate in the same way that a refugee is forced out of his or her country out of a fear of persecution.

ANNEX B   Tools to lead a mainstreaming process

Annex B1   Draft TOR for the scoping exercise

Annex B2   Draft TOR for a M&D Committee

Annex B3   Draft TOR for situation analysis/assessment

Annex B4   Questions for design of impact evaluation

Annex B1: Draft TOR for the scoping exercise and proposal

This is a draft TOR for the Scoping Exercise which takes place as a preparatory step in the mainstreaming migration process. The TOR can be adapted to the context as necessary.

- Map current and foreseen national/regional development planning tools. Collect documents pertaining to these processes, and information on time frames, strategic planning frameworks and whether these integrate migration to any extent. The proposal resulting from the Scoping Exercise should advise which framework would be most appropriate to pursue as a first effort in mainstreaming migration. It makes sense to integrate migration into the most over-arching strategy to start with e.g. if a country has a PRSP then it could be targeted as a priority, but in due course other national development plans could also be tackled. (See Annex C3.)

- Make a preliminary identification of M&D issues and potential priorities. These ideas will be further explored and assessed during the situation analysis and assessment exercise, but at this early stage it is useful to note emerging areas.

- Make a preliminary inventory of migration and development projects, initiatives, major conferences (at the national and regional level as possible).

- Make a preliminary index on available research and analysis on migration and poverty, poverty reduction and development applicable to the country and the region.

- Start a roster of national (and regional) experts/consultants.

- Identify potential resources.

- Create, disseminate and analyze a brief questionnaire for key government departments on the data, information and expertise available in their structures. (A sample questionnaire is found in Annex C8).

- Draft TORs for the upcoming situation analysis and assessment. (See Annex C9 for a draft TOR.)

- Define the potential contents of a National M&D Plan of Action pulling together whatever information is available to date.

- Advise whether the migration mainstreaming exercise is coherent with other areas of government policy and planning. The migration mainstreaming exercise should promote institutional policy coherence i.e. coordination between different planning tools, stakeholders and mechanisms. The process should also ensure policy coherence i.e. government policies on other issues should not undermine the migration and development agenda and vice versa.

- Map stakeholders (governments, local authorities, elected representatives/parliamentarians, academia, the private sector, NGOs, migrant representatives) at the national and regional level (as far as possible). This mapping exercise should review the strengths, weaknesses, representativeness, objectives and potential contributions of the different stakeholders to the overall process. As the consultative dimension is very important for ensuring a successful strategy, the identification of all key stakeholders is essential.

- Propose whether the mainstreaming exercise will be a broad-based approach or a narrow approach limited to certain subjects and stakeholders. (The pros and cons of either approach are listed in Annex C2.)

- Propose arrangements for the M&D Institutional structure i.e. M&D Committee and supporting structures. The proposal should advise:

  - Where the committee should sit in the framework of government

    It is important to locate this framework, whenever possible, under the umbrella of existing institutions, preferably those in charge of development issues (i.e., the ministry of development, the Prime Minister's or the President's Office, or the ministry of planning or finance) or migration (i.e., ministries for emigration, for nationals resident abroad (diaspora), or for immigration).

  - Resources and support needed

    Such a structure should remain administratively light and supported by the host institution to ensure sustainability.

  - Mechanisms of the consultative process

    Having identified who the different stakeholders are, the proposal will need to advise how and when they will be involved.

Annex B2: Draft TOR for the M&D Committee

These are draft TOR for the M&D committee laying out its roles and responsibilities. The TOR should be adapted to each context as necessary.

Purpose

The purpose of the National M&D Committee is to bring key stakeholders together to assist in the mainstreaming process.

Composition

The M&D Committee comprises all relevant national stakeholders with a role on M&D. The M&D Committee consists of two sub groups: the Inter-Ministerial Committee (IMC), which includes senior representatives from the relevant government ministries, for example the emigration and/or immigration ministry, development, finance, health and education ministries. The National Consultative Committee (NCC) includes representatives of civil society, the private sector, trade unions and research institutions. These groups are mandated to work independently and jointly in order to coordinate a national position and response on M&D. The two groups combined (IMC+NCC) form the steering committee for the mainstreaming exercise.

Functions of the M&D Committee as a whole

- Monitor the overall migration mainstreaming process and activities.

- Ensure effective coordination and buy-in among government institutions, the private sector, civil society and other relevant migration stakeholders.

- Ensure a wide diversity of perspectives are included in the mainstreaming process.

- Ensure that M&D issues are included in the donors' agenda.

- Approve the work plan for the mainstreaming exercise.

- Monitor the implementation of the mainstreaming exercise.

Functions of the Inter-Ministerial Committee

- Assist in developing a joint governmental position/vision on M&D issues.

- Recommend prioritized areas for migration-related policy and programmes to the national M&D Committee.

- Assist in the design, planning, implementation, communication and monitoring and evaluation of M&D activities.

- Report on a regular basis to the government authority responsible for overseeing the targeted national development tool (PRSP, SWAP, etc.) as well as to the authority responsible for coordinating migration work (where it exists). Report to other government meetings as relevant.

- Advocate for and assist in the inclusion of migration issues in existing national development planning tools.

- Facilitate coordination with donors and other governments on migration and development.

- Perform outreach activities on M&D issues for government officials at all levels

Functions of the National Consultative Committee

- Assist in developing a joint position/vision on M&D issues on the part of civil society, the private sector and academia.

- Share information, and provide advice to governmental entities on the challenges and opportunities of migration in relation to development.

- Perform outreach activities on M&D issues to their respective constituency.

Role of the chair (which can be the National Focal Point)

- Act as a focal point on M&D activities and on the work on the M&D Committee.

- Coordinate the day-to-day work of the M&D Committee.

It is very likely that the key actors playing a role in the design phases of the M&D strategy are different than the ones playing a role in the implementation of M&D activities. Therefore, it is important to ensure the engagement of relevant key stakeholders for the different phases of the strategy cycle – the committee can be adapted on an ad hoc basis to invite other key partners such as project implementers. In addition, ad hoc working groups can be set up as the process continues as and when the need arises, e.g. implementation of specific programmes.

Annex B3: Draft TOR for the situation analysis/assessment

This is a draft TOR for the situation analysis/assessment stage and should be adapted to each context as required.

Improve understanding of migration and development, through:

- Analysis of the migration situation in the country, providing an overview of migration trends and patterns (e.g. number of immigrants and emigrants, estimates of irregular migration, socio-economic status of migrants, volume of remittances, size of the diaspora, etc.).

- Analysis of the drivers of migration.

- Analysis of how migration appears to affect (positively or negatively) key sectors or key national development objectives (either existing objectives or those envisaged for the national development strategy).

Analysis of policy framework, through preparation of:

- A description of existing national migration-related legislation and policy, including mapping ratification of human rights treaties and international instruments protecting migrant rights.

- Analysis of how existing national migration policies appear to affect M&D outcomes.

- Analysis of how existing national development policies appear to affect M&D outcomes.

- A description of regional and international agreements and cooperation on migration and development.

- Analysis of the functions and capacity (human, financial) of the various ministries and government agencies.,

- Analysis of entry points on the national and regional National Development Plan for mainstreaming migration (PRSP, SWAP, etc).

- A description of the role of main non-state actors, their interests, characteristics, capacity and their relationship to the policy process (migrant associations, recruitment agencies, vocational training institutions, etc.).

- A description of existing participatory processes (for consultation or for decision making) for elaboration of the national development plan and on M&D.

Resources:

- What are current capacity constraints, including any gaps in financial and human resources to moving the M&D work forward? The resources required for all aspects of the process should be considered, including resources needed to run participatory processes, for example, and for advocacy and communication.

- Are any institutional changes required to move the agenda forward?

- Is there a need to reinforce data collection and monitoring of M&D issues to improve policymaking in the longer term?

Annex B4: Questions for design of impact evaluation

These questions can help frame an impact evaluation and decide what is to be done, when and by whom.

- **What is an evaluation? –** A systematic and methodical examination of the effectiveness of a policy or programme cycle. It examines whether the results made a useful and coherent contribution to the specified development priorities.

- **How is it conducted? –** What methodology has been used – quantitative, qualitative or both?

- **By whom? –** Externally (migration specialists or experts in evaluations,; organizations/think tanks or research institutions), internally (through a specific governmental body like national assemblies, policy or research staff) or by an independent advisory or steering committee or other commissions set up or in charge of research and evaluations. It is important to consider the principles of independence and impartiality when deciding on the body that will carry out the evaluation.

- **Who should manage evaluations? –** Making training courses and materials on evaluation available to officials can greatly increase governmental capacity to carry out evaluations.

- **What is the time scale? –** Annually, biannually, monthly or every five years? Short-, medium- or long-term? This decision will depend on availability of data and the type of policy/programme being evaluated.

- **Which level of impact is being examined? –** Individual, household, community, national or global levels?

- **What costs are involved? –** Resource constraints must be considered, so the planned monitoring and evaluation activities need to be viable in the long run and not over-ambitious. This involves the setting of priorities.

- **How does it fit into the larger institutional process? –** Is it a permanent and recurring evaluation mechanism or a one-time examination? Is there a systematic approach to ensure that the outcomes are taken into consideration for future planning or adjustment of policies?

- **What type of evaluation is it? –** Is it being done before the design and implementation of policies to assess their expected impact and feasibility (which allows for assessment of potential weaknesses and strengths); during programme/project implementation to evaluate current outputs; and/or after the final output, assessing the impact of policies and programmes, including their sustainability.

ANNEX C   Checklists for mainstreaming migration into sectoral programmes

Annex C1   Governance checklist

Annex C2   Legal protection checklist

Annex C3   Employment checklist

Annex C4   Social protection checklist

Annex C5   Health services checklist

Annex C6   Education checklist

Annex C7   Tertiary education checklist

Annex C8   Economic growth checklist

Annex C9   Financial services checklist

Annex C10   Trade checklist

Annex C11   Agriculture and rural development checklist

Annex C12   Infrastructure checklist

Annex C13   Environment checklist

Annex C14   Diaspora checklist

Annex C1: Governance checklist

These are factors to consider when deciding whether and how to set up a programme targeting this sector.

Key stakeholders to be involved in the discussions/ mainstreaming process on this issue
Consider:

> Prime Minister/President's Office
> Ministry of Interior
> Ministry of Education
> Local authorities
> Members of Parliament
> Judiciary
> Others?

Impact of governance on migration

- Can emigration be attributed to the absence of opportunities for participation in political decision-making processes?

- Can forced migration and displacement be attributed to the absence of conflict resolution mechanisms to address social frictions and prevent unrest?

- Does corruption, lack of transparency, and the absence of an efficient public administration encourage nationals to emigrate? Does it affect the state's capacity to manage migration?

Governance structures in place to address migration and human development

- Has your country ratified relevant international legal instruments pertaining to the protection of migrants' rights? Are they being effectively enforced under national law?

- Are the judiciary and law enforcement agents sensitized to the assistance needs of vulnerable migrants?

- Is there one central institution/mechanism within government that is designated to coordinate policy making on migration and development?

- Is there dedicated institutional capacity for outreach to the diaspora? Might one be useful?

- Are emigrants able to contribute to political processes in their home country, through dual citizenship, voting from abroad, etc.?

- Are immigrants in your country legally empowered to participate in decision-making processes affecting their lives? Do they have rights to vote, to join or form trade unions, to form associations, etc.?

Impact of migration on governance

- Does the emigration of qualified public sector staff lead to a shortage of skilled civil servants, affecting government capacity to fulfil key state functions?

- Does immigration or return counter these trends in any way?

- Does emigration reduce the tax basis and the capacity to fund public services?

- Does immigration or return counter these trends in any way? Or do immigrants and return migrants increase pressure on public service provision without providing much in terms of human resources or a tax base to pay for them?

- Does the experience of emigration change the perception of nationals on governance standards and lead to new ideas spread by the diaspora and returnees?

Annex C2: Legal protection checklist

These are factors to consider when deciding whether and how to set up a programme targeting this sector.

Key stakeholders to be involved in the discussions/mainstreaming process for this issue
Consider:

Prime Minister/President's Office
Ministry of Justice
Ministry of Labour
Members of Parliament
Judiciary
Employers
Trade unions
Civil society
Recruitment agencies
Migrant associations
Public service providers (for education, health, housing)
Others?

Impact of legal protection on migration

- Does the absence of adequate legal protection trigger emigration?

- Are nationals emigrating and immigrants well informed on their rights and obligations as migrants?

- Does the absence of legislation and a migration policy framework place migrants in a vulnerable situation during travel? Are there gender or age specific differences in vulnerability as a result of the migration policy framework or the lack of one? Does it affect their working and family life once they have reached their destination?

- Does the lack of recognition of property rights, taxation regimes, impede contributions of migrants and returnees to the economy?

Annex C3: Employment checklist

These are factors to consider when deciding whether and how to set up a programme targeting this sector.

Key stakeholders to be involved in the discussions/ mainstreaming process on this issue
Consider:

    Ministry of Employment
    Ministry of Labour
    Chambers of Commerce
    Employers associations
    Trade Unions
    Others?

Impact of employment/labour market situation on migration

- Do limited job opportunities in the formal economy foster emigration? Are there emigration trends specifically related to limited employment opportunities for women and youth?

- Do unfilled jobs create a demand for foreign labour? Is this influencing immigration?

- Does the informal sector fill some of its needs through resorting to irregular migrants/migrants trafficked for work purposes?

Impact of migration on the labour market

- Does migration increase/decrease any problems with excess labour and unemployment and under-employment?

- Does immigration alleviate the effects of demographic change, replacing a declining and aging workforce?

- Does migration increase/decrease skills shortages?

- How does migration affect the gender balance in the labour market?

- How does migration modify the jobs distribution between private and public sector employment?

- Does migration bring in new skills through foreigners' expertise or knowledge acquired by national returnees?

- Do returnees have difficulties in finding work upon return? Does that increase their risk of marginalisation and poverty, or lead to 'brain waste'?

- Does immigration contribute to the preservation of jobs by providing cheap labour for industries that otherwise are not competitive?

- Does migration increase job opportunities in the country of origin, e.g. through the creation of enterprises using remittances or diaspora investments?

Impact of migration on wages and working conditions

- Does the emigration of skilled workers increase wages for skilled workers in the home country as it limits supply?

- Does the emigration of skilled workers working in the public sector (health, education, administration) put pressure on the government to increase wages to retain workers?

- Does immigration alleviate wage pressures in critical sectors by increasing labour supply?

- Does immigration (especially of irregular migrants) undercut wages and working conditions of nationals?

Annex C4: Social protection checklist

These are factors to consider when deciding whether and how to set up a programme targeting this sector.

Key stakeholders to be involved in the discussions/mainstreaming process on this issue
Consider:

Ministry of Social Development (or similar)
Regional/local institutions with a mandate on social protection
Ministry of Education
 Ministry of Labour
Ministry of Finance/Economy
Ministry of Health
Others?

Impact of social protection on migration

- Does better access and quality of social protection available in other countries foster emigration?

- Does a lack of access to social protection and safety nets (in your country) lead parents and children to migrate?

- Does access to social protection and safety nets – or the lack thereof - in your country prevent parents and children from migrating who would otherwise wish to?

- Does access to conditional cash transfers that increase household income and children's access to education and health services reduce migration to other countries?

- Does the (un)availability of portability schemes for pensions and social security benefits encourage/deter return migration to your country?

Impact of migration on the provision of social protection, on access to social protection, and on its quality

- Do migrants and their families face difficulties accessing education and social protection services in countries of destination/in your country (e.g. due to parents' or own legal status)?

- Does access to regular migration channels facilitate access to social protection in countries of destination?

- Do female migrants find it easier/more difficult than male migrants to access to social protection services?

- Do return migrants lack access to social services due to non-portability of social security benefits?

- Does emigration of the head of household leave migrant families staying behind with no/reduced access to social protection/insurance?

- Does migration – through remittances – provide a livelihood strategy and increase household capacity to invest in healthcare, adequate housing and sanitation, adequate food and water, children's education and health?

- Do the diaspora invest in the social protection system (including contributory pension schemes) of their country of origin, potentially improving service standards and resources?

- Does migration act as an incentive (or disincentive) to spend public money (by the government, local authorities) on social protection?

Migration and social protection: risks, opportunities and intervention areas				
		Country of Destination and Transit	**Country of Origin**	
		Migrants	**Families Left Behind**	**Return Migrants**
Social Protection	Opportunities	• Increased income • Employment opportunities • Improved standard of living • Improved quality of basic services • Escape from violence, abuse and other human rights violations	• Increased income in the form of remittances • Increased income can provide individuals and families greater access to private/public social services and insurance	- Access to social security/ pensions accrued in host countries - Greater incentive for return migration – transfer of assets and skills to home country
		Social Protection Interventions to Maximize Opportunities		
		• Public social insurance of-fered by country of origin (cost paid by migrant worker)	• Public/private insurance schemes for families left behind (cost paid by households from remit-tances or cost paid by migrants abroad)	• Bilateral or regional por-tability agreements • Voluntary pension/social security programme for migrant workers
	Risks	• Vulnerable to trafficking, abuse and exploitation, particularly for children, women and irregular migrants • Discrimination and social marginalization • Limited or no access to basic services and other social benefits	• Separation of family members leads to vul-nerabilities for children and families left behind • Family instability • Increased household burdens • Social stigmatization	• Inability to access ac-crued social security benefits/pensions • Loss of benefits is a dis-incentive for returning to country of origin • Increased burden on so-cial protection systems in countries of origin
		Social Protection Interventions to Address Risks		
		• Improve legal position of migrants • Improve labour conditions of migrant workers • Allow access to basic ser-vices regardless of migra-tion status	• Social care services (psy-chological, legal, etc.) for families left behind • Inclusion of families/ children left behind into existing social assis-tance programmes as a vulnerable population	• Bilateral or regional por-tability agreements • Lump sum payment of benefits

Annex C5: Health services checklist

These are factors to consider when deciding whether and how to set up a programme targeting the sector of health services.

Key stakeholders to be involved in the discussions/mainstreaming process
Consider:

> Ministry of Health
> Ministry of Migration
> Ministry of Women's Affairs
> Ministry of Youth
> Ministry of Finance
> Professional associations
> Health insurance providers
> Medical schools
> Regional/local institutions with a mandate on health
> Others?

Impact of health system on migration

- Does better access to and quality of health care available abroad lead to emigration?

- Do the conditions of employment (working hours, infrastructure, career path) and wages in the healthcare sector encourage the emigration of health workers?

Impact of migration on public health

- Are migrants more vulnerable to particular diseases than nationals? This might be due, for example, to their living conditions or work (migrants may, for example, live in poorer housing, or work in dirty, difficult or dangerous situations). Migrants may also be more likely to contract diseases because they are exposed to environments they aren't used to.

- Does the movement of people contribute to the spread of diseases?

Impact of migration on provision of health services, access to health services and on the quality of health services available.

- Does in- and out-migration affect the demand for health services in the country (increase or decrease)?

- Do migrants and their dependents have less (or more) access to healthcare while abroad compared to their access back home?

- Do female migrants find it more difficult or easier than male migrants to access health services, particularly keeping in mind their need for sexual and reproductive health services?

- Do migrant households that stay behind have access to health services (legally and de facto in terms of their resources and available infrastructures) if they are no longer covered by the breadwinner's health insurance?

- Do return migrants have access to health/social services? Are social security benefits portable?

- Does immigration of foreign health personnel add to the stock of health professionals available in the country? Does it replace national health professionals who have emigrated?

- Are the credentials of foreign health workers recognized in the country? Is there a social upward or downward mobility with respect to the placement of health workers in the national healthcare force?

- Does the emigration of health workers lead to staff shortages and service disruptions in the health system at local/national level?

- Are migrant health professionals returning after migrating? If so, do they re-enter the sector? Do they return with new skills, and if so, are these skills useful for the country of origin?

- Are health professionals in the diaspora willing to take up short-term assignments in areas that are facing a scarcity of health service providers?

- Are diaspora members involved in improving access to health services (e.g. by financially supporting the creation of new infrastructures)?

- Does migration - through the sending of remittances - increase the capacity to invest in health at the household, community and national levels in your country?

- Does the prospect of employment abroad provide an incentive to train more and better health workers? How does that affect the quality of health services domestically?

These are factors to consider when deciding whether and how to set up a programme targeting this sector.

Annex C6: Education checklist

Who are the key stakeholders in your country/region which should be involved in the discussions/ mainstreaming process for this issue?
Consider:

> Ministry of Education
> Ministry of Finance
> Local School Boards
> Local Parent/Teacher Associations
> Regional/local institutions with a mandate on education
> Others?

Impact of educational system on migration

- Does better access and quality of education available for children in other countries (in your country) lead parents to emigrate (to immigrate)?

- Do the conditions of employment (number of children per class, infrastructure, career opportunities) and wages encourage teachers to migrate?

Impact of migration on provision of education, access to education and on its quality

- Does the migration of children lead to a concentration of educational infrastructure in certain areas? Does it, for example, lead to a closure of schools in remote areas?

- Does emigration of teachers lead to shortages at local/national level? Is this affecting the provision of/access to/quality of education, for example through the closure of schools or large class sizes?

- Does immigration of foreign teachers play a significant role, for example replacing those who have moved abroad?

- Has the return of teachers who migrated and have acquired training and experience abroad introduced new skills/methods to your country's educational system?

- Are teachers in the diaspora able to play a role – for example taking short term assignment in areas facing scarcity?

- Does migration act as an incentive (or disincentive) to spend public money (by the government, local authorities) on education? What are the consequences for the improvement (or deterioration) of the quality of education?

- Do migrants want to invest in the educational system of their country of origin? Could better service standards or a wider provision of education provide them with an incentive to do so?

- Does the prospect of employment abroad provide an incentive to train teachers according to international standards? If yes, does that improve the overall quality of the country's teacher pool and consequently the quality of basic education?

Annex C7: Tertiary education checklist

These are factors to consider when deciding whether and how to set up a programme targeting this sector.

Key stakeholders to be involved in the discussions/ mainstreaming process for this issue
Consider:

> Ministry of Higher Education/Research
> Ministry of Employment
> Leadership of National Universities
> Employers' associations
> Members of Parliament
> Others?

Impact of higher education/research on migration

- Do limited higher education and research infrastructures fuel student and researcher emigration?
- Do higher education/research institutions attract students and professors from abroad? For which areas of study?

Impact of migration higher education/research

- What is the scale of tertiary migration, and how does it impact upon the expected returns to public investment in tertiary education?
- Do domestic educational institutions attract foreign students who bring money into the country (educational fees, lodging and food expenses)?
- Does the emigration of service providers lead to a shortage of trainers and professors, and negatively impact the teaching of certain skills and subjects?
- Does the emigration of researchers facilitate the involvement of domestic research institutions in international research networks?
- Are qualifications acquired abroad recognized in the domestic labour market when migrants return? How can the government facilitate skills recognition?
- Do migration prospects increase the demand for tertiary education?
- Are private actors interested to invest in tertiary education, creating business opportunities and boosting investment in the sector?

Annex C8: Economic growth checklist

These are factors to consider when deciding whether and how to set up a programme targeting this sector.

Key stakeholders to be involved in the discussions/ mainstreaming process on this issue
Consider:

Prime minister's Office
Ministry of Economy
Ministry of Trade
Ministry of Employment
Ministry of Budget
National Business bodies
Others?

Impact of economic growth on migration

- How do growth patterns in your country affect migration patterns? Does, for example, growth provide confidence to inhabitants and slow down emigration? Does growth make return more attractive for the diaspora?

- How do growth rates in neighbouring and major destination and origin countries affect migration patterns?

Impact of migration on economic growth

- Does migration decrease/increase the level of savings in the economy thereby negatively/positively affecting economic growth?

- Does migration increase/decrease the level of investment in the economy thereby negatively/positively affecting growth? (Effects on investment may come, for example, through remittances, through FDI from the diaspora and via the influence that these migration-related financial flows can have in terms of encouraging other investors.)

- Does migration increase/decrease the output in the economy (e.g. by affecting households' capacity to consume and produce local goods)?

- Does migration lead to innovation (e.g. through transfer of knowhow, technologies)?

- Does migration allow people to move from subsistence to cash economy, thereby favouring the spread of the market economy?

- Does emigration and the inflow of remittances decrease incentives for the government to develop the economy (leading to dependency)?

Annex C9: Financial services checklist

These are factors to consider when deciding whether and how to set up a programme targeting this sector.

Key stakeholders to be involved in the discussions/ mainstreaming process for this issue
Consider:

Ministry of Finance
Ministry of Budget
President/Prime Minister's office
Reserve Bank/financial/micro-credit institutions
Others?

Impact of the financial sector on migration

- Does limited access to financial services act as an incentive to migrate for pursuing entrepreneurial projects abroad?

- Does corruption act as a disincentive for investment by the diaspora in the home economy, including placement of savings in domestic banks?

Impact of migration on financial sector

- Does migration – through remittances - generate inflation, by increasing spending power without affecting productivity?

- Does migration – through remittances - help the country's macroeconomic position by positively affecting the supply of foreign currencies?

- Does migration foster the development of the domestic financial system, with new services for households who are in receipt of remittances, in turn leading to the widening of the financial infrastructure?

- Does the use of informal banking and money transfer systems by remitters undermine the development of the formal banking system?

- Does irregular status in destination countries impede migrants from using the formal banking system to remit?

- Do poor official foreign exchange rates or cumbersome regulations discourage migrants from using formal channels?

- Do high transfer costs considerably diminish the amount of money received by households in home countries?

- Does taxation of capital discourage repatriation of capital to the home economy?

- Does a limited understanding of the financial system limit remittance recipients' use of the financial system? Could the provision of financial education increase the proportion of remitters who save or invest their remittances?

Annex C10: Trade checklist

These are factors to consider when deciding whether and how to set up a programme targeting this sector.

Key stakeholders to be involved in the discussions/ mainstreaming process on this issue
Consider:

> Ministry of Trade
> Ministry of Finance
> Chambers of Commerce
> Employers associations
> Customs authorities
> Others?

Impact of trade on migration

- Does lack of access to international markets impede trade in goods and services, affecting employment opportunities and leading to emigration?

- Has trade openness induced the restructuring of primary/secondary/tertiary sectors, generating unemployment which in turn fuels emigration?

Impact of migration on trade in goods and services

- Does the inflow of migrant workers enable domestic producers of goods to expand and produce for export?

- Does migration increase demand for national goods in countries of destination (from the diaspora, etc.)?

- Do remittances coming into your country make the domestic currency more expensive, undermining competitiveness?

These are factors to consider when deciding whether and how to set up a programme targeting this sector.

Annex C11: Agriculture and rural development checklist

Key stakeholders to be involved in the discussions/ mainstreaming process on this issue
Consider:

> Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development
> Ministry of Environment
> Agriculture Cooperatives Farmers associations
> Others?

Impact of agriculture/rural development on migration

- Does a lack of agricultural development trigger migration? This may stem from all sorts of issues in rural areas, including lack of infrastructural development, or issues with land/property/heritage rights, for example?

- Does the introduction of new devices reduce the need for labour leading to unemployment and poverty of rural populations? Does this act as a push factor for migration?

- Does agricultural intensification require more labour and attract foreign migrants?

Impact of migration on agriculture/rural development

- Does migration provide a livelihood strategy to farmers in case of poor harvests, lack of food?

- Does migration affect the viability of commercial agriculture by limiting the availability of labour?

- Do remittances allow for investments in agricultural material and techniques offering higher productivity and better food security?

- What are the age and gender specific impacts of migration on agriculture/rural development?

Annex C12: Infrastructure checklist

These are factors to consider when deciding whether and how to set up a programme targeting this sector.

Key stakeholders in to be involved in the discussions/ mainstreaming process on this issue
Consider:

    Ministry of Interior
    Ministry of Transportation
    Ministry of Finance
    Ministry in charge of public housing
    Utility providers
    Local housing boards
    Investors
    Others?

Impact of infrastructure on migration

- Does the quality of infrastructure in your country provide an incentive for people to emigrate/immigrate (e.g. because large parts of the population cannot/can access infrastructure and quality services)?
- Does better access to and quality of infrastructure in other countries provide an incentive for emigration from your country?

Impact of migration on the provision of infrastructure, on access to infrastructure, and on its quality

- Does migration lead to an overcrowding/dismantling of infrastructure in regions/areas of high in/outflows, resulting in reduced access or quality for migrants and/or local communities?
- Do immigrants in your country/region have less access to infrastructure services than nationals/locals?
- Do returning migrants have difficulty accessing infrastructure services (housing, etc.)?
- Does gender affect migrants' access to basic infrastructure (e.g., safe drinking water and sewage systems)?
- Does migration lead to a shortage of skills affecting infrastructure development plans?
- Has the return of workers who migrated and have acquired training and experience abroad introduced new skills/methods to your country's provision of infrastructure?
- Do the diaspora invest in the infrastructure of their country of origin (e.g. real estate)?
- Does migration act as an incentive or disincentive to spend public money (by the government, local authorities) on infrastructure, thereby affecting equal access to and the quality of services?
- Does migration increase (decrease) incentives for private investment in and/or private supply of infrastructure

Annex C13: Environment checklist

services (e.g. utilities and housing)?

These are factors to consider when deciding whether and how to set up a programme targeting this sector.

Key stakeholders to be involved in the discussions/mainstreaming process on this issue
Consider:

Ministry of Environment
Ministry of Industry/Agriculture/Sea/Energy
Local authorities
Environmental lobby groups/NGOs
Members of Parliament
Others?

Impact of environment on migration

- Does degradation of the environment lead to migration? Has there been displacement as a result of natural disasters?

- Which groups within the population are most vulnerable to the effects of environmental degradation and natural disasters? What kinds of targeted measures can be applied to assist such groups?

- What steps can be taken to minimize risk and vulnerability to natural disasters? Are adequate disaster preparedness mechanisms in place?

- In what ways could migration, including temporary and circular migration, present an adaptation option for populations affected by environmental degradation?

- Where environmental change is severe and/or irreversible, how can migration be turned into an appropriate solution?

Impact of migration on the environment

- Does migration increase the demand for scarce land and other resources, including in urban areas in the case of internal migration, potentially putting pressure on the resource base?

- Is immigration or the return of nationals from abroad affecting societal attitudes and behaviours towards the environment?

- Does the diaspora contribute in any way in this area, e.g. by investing in environmental protection in the home country, by providing relief and supporting reconstruction after natural disasters or by transferring skills and knowledge on environmental management or agricultural techniques?

Annex C14: Diaspora checklist

These are factors to consider when deciding whether and how to set up a programme targeting diaspora communities.

a) Is there a common definition of a diaspora and if so, what does it encompass (e.g. all nationals having moved permanently abroad, the migrant community)?

b) What is known about the diaspora, and the differences and commonalities between diasporas established in different destination countries? What type of data is needed?

c) What are the institutional structures in charge of the diaspora agenda and their level of human and financial resources? How do they coordinate their work?

d) Which are the development objectives for which the involvement of diasporas could be of added value?

e) Are these objectives of interest to diasporas and are they in accordance with their priorities?

f) What type of resources available in a specific diaspora (human, social, financial) should be targeted?

g) What type of diaspora networks and organizations should be approached for setting up a diaspora policy?

h) What type of entities at the local, private sector and NGO level would be interested to work with diasporas? Would it be possible to draw on the policies of destination countries towards certain diasporas to maximize the impact of a national diaspora agenda?

i) Would the facilitation of political participation (voting rights, eligibility for political office) encourage more diaspora engagement in the development agenda?

j) Would better portability of social rights (e.g. social security and pension provision) and rationalization of taxation (with the prevention of double taxation) trigger more diaspora involvement in development activities?

k) Is there trust or tension between the government and the diaspora or certain diaspora groups?

l) What are the main obstacles that may impede the effectiveness of a diaspora policy (the macro economy, an inadequate administrative framework, lack of resources, lack of trust, etc.)? How could these be overcome?

ANNEX D   References

Annex D1: Sources of statistical information on migrant stock and migration flows

Data sources:

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- UNHCR Statistics website, available at: www.unhcr.org/statistics

Annex D2: International instruments pertaining to the rights of migrants

Migrants, like all persons, have human rights by virtue of their humanity and States have an obligation under international human rights law to protect the human rights of all persons within their jurisdiction, including irregular (or undocumented) migrants. Since 1999 a Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of Migrants follows this issue for the UN Commission on Human Rights.

Human rights instruments protecting the fundamental rights of migrants as human beings include:

- Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948

- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), 1966 (entry into force: 1976)

- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), 1966 (entry into force: 1976)

- International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD), 1965 (entry into force 1969)

- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), 1979 (entry into force 1981)

- Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT), 1984 (entry into force 1987)

- Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), 1989 (entry into force 1990)

- International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (ICRMW), 1990 (entry into force 2003)

- Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (ICRPD), 2006 (entry into force 2008)

Migrants are also covered by ILO instruments and conventions on labour standards, as are all workers. These include:

Fundamental ILO Conventions

Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29)

Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87)

Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98)

Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100)

Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105)

Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111)

Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138)

Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182)

Other ILO Conventions of particular relevance to migrant workers

Equality of Treatment (Accident Compensation) Convention, 1925 (No. 19)

Labour Inspection Convention, 1947 (No. 81)

Labour Clauses (Public Contracts) Convention, 1949 (No. 94)

Protection of Wages Convention, 1949 (No. 95)

Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102)

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Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962 (No. 118)

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Minimum Wage Fixing Convention, 1970 (No. 131)

Nursing Personnel Convention, 1977 (No. 149)

Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 1981 (No. 155)

Maintenance of Social Security Rights Convention, 1982 (No. 157)

Maintenance of Social Security Right Recommendation, 1983 (No. 167)

Occupational Health Services Convention, 1985 (No. 161)

Safety and Health in Construction Convention, 1988 (No. 167)

Working Conditions (Hotels and Restaurants) Convention, 1991 (No. 172)

Safety and Health in Mines Convention, 1995 (No. 176)

Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 (No. 181)

Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183)

Safety and Health in Agriculture Convention, 2001 (No. 184)

ILO Instruments specific to migrant workers

Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97)

Migration for Employment Recommendation (Revised), 1949 (No. 86)

Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143)

Migrant Workers Recommendation, 1975 (No. 151)

Multilateral Framework on Labour Migration, Non-binding principles and guidelines for a rights-based approach to labour migration, 2006

Other relevant international instruments include:

United Nations conventions addressing trafficking and smuggling

UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, and its Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children and Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, 2000

United Nations Global Plan of Action against Trafficking in Persons A/64/L.64, 2010

Protection of refugees

Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, 1951

Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees, 1967

Declaration on Territorial Asylum, 1967

UNHCR Guidelines on Policies and Procedures in Dealing with Unaccompanied Children Seeking Asylum, 1997

Other

WHO Global Code of Practice WHA63.16

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Universal Declaration of Human Rights
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United Nations Millennium Declaration
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- International Labour Office: www.ilo.org/public/english/protection/secsoc

- United Nations Research Institute for Social Development: www.unrisd.org

- The World Bank: www.worldbank.org/wbi/socialprotection

GMG members:
International Labour Organization (ILO)
International Organization for Migration (IOM)
The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR)
The World Bank
United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)
United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD)
United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA)
United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)
United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)
United Nations Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR)
United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC)
United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA)
United Nations Regional Commissions

New members since September 2010:
United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) part of UN Women
World Health Organization (WHO)