

# EVALUATION OF THE AFRICAN UNION MIGRATION POLICY FRAMEWORK FOR AFRICA



## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Key Abbreviations and Acronyms .....	iii
Acknowledgements.....	iv
Executive Summary .....	v
<b>1. Background to the Evaluation .....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1. Introduction .....	1
1.2. Problem Statement.....	2
1.3. Purpose of Evaluation.....	2
1.4. Objectives .....	2
1.5. Methodological Approach and Analysis .....	3
1.6. Limitations of the Evaluation.....	5
<b>2. Trends and Drivers of Migration in Africa .....</b>	<b>7</b>
2.1. Trends and Patterns of Migration in Africa.....	7
2.2. Trends and Drivers of migration in RECs .....	14
<b>3. Impact of migration on the continent and policy response.....</b>	<b>22</b>
3.1 The Positive Impact of Migration.....	22
3.2 The Negative Impact of Migration.....	24
3.3 Policy Response on Migration in Africa.....	26
<b>4. Responses to Migration in Africa: The Migration Policy Framework for Africa</b>	<b>28</b>
4.1. Overview of the Migration Policy Framework for Africa .....	28
4.2. Integrating the MPFA into Regional Migration Policies.....	30
4.3. Integration of the MPFA into National Policies .....	35
4.4. Summary of Findings.....	43
<b>5. Emerging Issues, Challenges and Potential Opportunities .....</b>	<b>44</b>
5.1. Emerging Issues and Challenges .....	44
5.2. Potential Opportunities .....	46
<b>6. Recommendations and way Forward.....</b>	<b>48</b>
6.1. Short Term Goals (Within one year) .....	48
6.2. Medium Term Goals (1-3 Years) .....	48
6.3. Long Term Goals (Over 3 Years) .....	49
References .....	51
<b>ANNEXES .....</b>	<b>57</b>
Annex A: The Evaluation Team .....	57
Annex B: Regional Economic Communities and Member States.....	58
Annex C: Key Informants by REC and Country .....	59
Annex D: Number of respondents to the survey by rec and country.....	61
Annex E: List of Definitions .....	63
Annex F: International migrant stock in African countries.....	65
Annex G: Migration profiles in Africa by Year .....	67
Annex H: Data Collection Tools.....	68

## ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

---

ACP	African Caribbean and Pacific
AMADPOC	African Migration and Development Policy Centre
AMU	Arab Maghreb Union
CEN-SAD	The Community of Sahel-Saharan States
AU	African Union
CeTuMa	Centre de Tunis pour la Migration et l'Asile
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
CSOs	Civil Society Organisations
EAC	East African Community
ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
ECCAS	Economic Community for Central African States
ECOWAS	Economic Communities of West African States
EU	European Union
FMOP	Free Movement of Persons
GFMD	Global Forum on Migration and Development
HRH	Human Resource for Health
ICMPD	International Centre for Migration Policy Development
IDP	Internally Displaced Persons
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority for Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organisations
IOM	International Organization for Migration
JLMP	Joint Labour Migration Programme
KIIs	Key Informant Interviews
LNGOs	Local Non-Governmental Organisations
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MPFA	Migration Policy Framework for Africa
NCFRMI	National Commission for Refugees Migrants and Internally Displaced Persons
NCM	National Migration Coordination
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NMPs	National Migration Policies
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
RECs	Regional Economic Communities
RMMS	Regional Mixed Migration Secretariat
RMP	Regional Migration Policies
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAMP	Southern African Migration Programme
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SIHMA	Scalabrini Institute for Human Mobility in Africa
SMIC	Solutions aux Migrations Clandestines
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
TOKTEN	Transfer of Knowledge Through Expatriate Nationals
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNEP	United Nations Environmental Programme
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission for Refugees

---

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

---

This consultancy would have not been possible without the support and assistance of several institutions and individuals who took part in it. The African Migration and Development Policy Centre (AMADPOC) is grateful to the supervision of Mr. Peter Mudungwe, Migration Advisor in the AU Commission Department of Social Affairs; and wishes to thank all the seven regional economic communities – AMU, COMESA, EAC, ECCA, ECOWAS, IGAD and SADC as well as their respective Member States that were selected for consultations for their cooperation which helped in the generation of the requisite data and other information for the report; In particular, the centre wishes to thank individuals in the recs and the selected countries for their exemplary cooperation. AMADPOC is also indebted to the regional consultants who collected data and held meetings with respondents in RECs and selected countries. AMADPOC is also wishes to express gratitude to IOM for facilitating meetings with various stakeholders in countries that were visited by the consultants.

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

---

The African Union (AU) adopted the Migration Policy Framework for Africa (MPFA) in 2006 as a non-binding framework and guideline to assist Member States and Regional Economic Communities (RECs) in the formulation of their own national and regional migration policies in accordance with their own priorities and resources. The MPFA was a result of discussions between AU Member States at national and regional level with a view to exploring innovative ways of effectively addressing migration related issues, and also harnessing the benefits of migration for development. This evaluation was commissioned by the African Union in order to assess the extent to which the framework has provided guidance to Member States and RECs in managing migration, and also to provide the basis upon which a continental plan of action on migration can be formulated. To this end, the scope of the evaluation included presenting a situational analysis of migration on the continent, establishing the extent to which Member States and RECs have integrated migration and development into their national and regional development plans and determining the extent to which the MPFA has provided guidance for the management of migration to Member States and the RECs over the past 10 years, highlighting the challenges faced and the opportunities that could be seized moving forward.

The mode of inquiry for the evaluation included a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods. In this regard, consultants that were commissioned to undertake the evaluation conducted interviews in selected countries across the African continent and all the RECs to gain insight on where they stand in terms of developing their migration policies, and also to determine the extent to which the framework is a primary guiding tool in these discussions. The consultants also gathered insights from key migration specialists at national and regional levels to explore their understanding of the framework and how it has been used in discussions related to the design of national and/or regional migration policies.

Key findings of the evaluation include the following:

- A number of countries have used the MPFA as a guiding document in developing their national migration policies;
- Labour migration, forced migration and migration and development are some of the priority areas in the MPFA that are mainstreamed into national migration policies and development plans;
- The Inter-Governmental Authority for Development (IGAD) is the only REC that has recently developed its Regional Migration Policy (RMPs) based on the MPFA;
- Since the MPFA was adopted 10 years ago, migration issues have evolved including growth in international criminal networks that are facilitating human trafficking and smuggling and the threat they pose to human security and the security to nation states. Despite the high irregular migration, there is limited data and research on the same especially on the southern migratory route. New policies, protocols and conventions have been passed which are not reflected in the framework. Furthermore, the Millennium Development Goals have transitioned into the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) which include migration and development as a goal for 2030; and,
- In general, there is a lack of awareness among Member States about the MPFA, which suggests that there has been limited sensitization on the framework.

Although the MPFA has proven to be a useful guiding document to Member States and RECs, it needs to be revised in response to the current migration situation, and needs to embrace new development frameworks, including Agenda 2063 and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Once the MPFA has been revised and a plan of action for its implementation established, it is imperative that the AU formulates a monitoring and evaluation mechanism to track progress in its adoption at national and regional levels. Further, the AU needs to play an active role in popularizing the MPFA among Member States and RECs, and providing support in its adoption. This includes raising awareness about the framework at national and regional levels, and providing a platform where Member States and RECs can share experiences and best practices.

# 1. BACKGROUND TO THE EVALUATION

---

## 1.1. INTRODUCTION

Migration across the globe has become a pertinent issue that many countries are trying to understand and manage effectively. In Africa, migration is now in the forefront of political discussions, especially in those countries where people have been displaced through conflict or climatic change, or where people move in search of economic and social opportunities that do not exist in their countries of origin.

During the United Nations General Assembly of 2015, migration and development was included as one of the sustainable development goals in cognizance of the potential positive impact that migration has on development. It addresses several goals such as eradicating poverty, inequalities and promoting environmental sustainability. Migration features prominently in the agenda under the UN resolution A/RES/70/1 paragraph 29<sup>1</sup>. It also highlights the obligations that origin, transit and destination countries have towards protecting migrant workers and migrants in distress. As African countries attempt to not only understand migration and the impact it has on their countries, they are also in the process of designing and/or implementing policies that effectively manage migration to and from their respective countries and regions. For instance, as part of AU's 2063 Agenda, there is a proposal to introduce a single passport for Africa with the aim of abolishing visa requirements for all African citizens in all African countries by 2018, improving intra-African trade and to ease the movement of domestic goods between Member States.

In 2006, the African Union (AU) adopted the *Migration Policy Framework for Africa (MPFA)*, duly agreed upon by the AU Member States as a non-binding framework and guideline to assist governments and Regional Economic Communities (RECs) in the formulation of their national and regional migration policies. The framework, adopted at the Executive Council Ninth Ordinary Session held on 25-29 June 2006 in Banjul, The Gambia, spells out nine core thematic migration issues, namely: (i) labour migration; (ii) irregular migration; (iii) forced displacement;(iv) internal migration (v) migration and development;(vi) inter-state cooperation and partnerships; (vii) migration data, (viii) human rights of migrants; and (ix) border management.

Ten years after it was adopted, the AU commissioned an evaluation of the MPFA in a bid to assess the usefulness and impact that the framework has had on migration management on the continent. In this regard, the evaluation covered all AU RECs and three Member States in each REC/region. This evaluation sheds light on the current state of the MPFA, provides lessons learned from countries/RECs that have taken steps towards mainstreaming the MPFA, and provides recommendations as to the steps that the AU Commission could take to make MPFA an effective tool and guideline for the management of migration on the continent.

---

<sup>1</sup> Migration is discussed within the context of development under Target 10.7 which mentions the need to facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies.

## **1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT**

The discourse on international migration has become a point of reference in global and regional cooperation, whether from the perspective of trade, international relations or security, and in terms of development and human rights (Oucho, 2012). Several international bodies and initiatives have been launched to manage international migration flows and coordinate the support for migrants all over the world (IOM, 2013a). In Africa, the African Union (AU) has paid special attention to migration from different perspectives, putting the topic at the center stage of regional as well as sub-regional development (African Union, 2006a).

Well-managed migration can yield benefits to both countries of origin and destination especially in terms of labour migration, which can offset labour shortages in destination countries, and generate remittances targeted towards national development in the countries of origin. However, many African countries have had challenges in managing migration issues owing to poor collection and management of data; lack of capacity to handle migration issues as well as limited knowledge about migration-related issues. This has resulted in the following:

- Jeopardized inter-state relations;
- Brain drain/brawn drain;
- Increased irregular migration (human trafficking and migrant smuggling);
- Increased tensions between host and migrant communities;
- Threatened national and regional security; and,
- Dilapidated social services.

It is therefore important to understand the extent to which Member States and RECs have integrated migration into their national and regional development plans and policies and how these have been informed by the MPFA.

## **1.3. PURPOSE OF EVALUATION**

The purpose of the evaluation was to assess the extent to which the MPFA has been adopted and implemented by AU Member States and the RECs in managing migration. The evaluation would also identify opportunities and challenges that Member States and RECs have encountered in using the MPFA as a guide, and provide evidence that would help in revising the framework and its implementation strategy. Thus, the evaluation would assess the continued relevance of the MPFA within the context of the current migration dynamics.

## **1.4. OBJECTIVES**

The evaluation was guided by the following objectives:

- A situation analysis of the current migration situation into, within and out of the African continent, establishing the nature and magnitude of the various migratory flows, and highlighting the migration push and pull factors with respect to various migratory flows.
- Establish the extent by which AU Member States and RECs have integrated migration and development into their national and regional development plans and policies respectively; and
- Determine the extent to which the MPFA has provided guidance for the management of migration to AU Member States and the RECs over the past 10 years, highlighting the challenges faced and the opportunities that could be seized moving it forward.

## **1.5. METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH AND ANALYSIS**

Both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection were used to conduct the evaluation as described below.

### **1.5.1. QUALITATIVE METHODS**

Qualitative methods were used to seek views and perspectives of representatives of the RECs, Member State officials, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) on how the framework has been used in the design of regional and national policies, as well as their implementation. The qualitative methods used include desktop review and content analysis, key informant interviews and peer reviews. These methods are complementary, and allowed triangulation of the results obtained from the data collected using quantitative methods.

The desktop review consisted of two aspects: literature review on what has been written on the topic and closely related issues, and a review of reports, records and grey literature held by the targeted respondents to this evaluation. Existing literature and published information relevant to the MPFA was reviewed and summarized with the aim of understanding current discussions on migration policy making in Africa in order to determine the extent to which the MPFA has been a useful reference tool in the design and/or implementation of migration policy frameworks among Member States and RECs. As a starting point, the research process identified initiatives related to migration management and the mainstreaming of migration into national and regional development plans. It also entailed a critical evaluation of documents held or provided by the AU, RECs, Member States, NGOs, CSOs, research organisations and institutes as well as universities working on migration issues. This tool was resourceful, particularly in areas where data are available on migratory trends on the continent. Some of the key documents reviewed included:

- Regional and national migration policies and legislations;
- Discussion meeting notes on the design and/or implementation of national and regional policies;
- National and regional development plans;
- Issue papers;
- Existing national migration profiles;
- Reports on studies on migration in Africa, RECs and Member States;
- Existing evaluation and assessment reports and other related documents linked to migration policy and practice in the RECs;
- Regional Treaties and Protocols; and
- Assessment reports related to border management and migration conducted by other research agencies, think tanks and NGOs.

A total of 62 key stakeholders were interviewed in 20 AU Member States<sup>2</sup> across Africa, 7 RECs and the AU Secretariat. The sampling of countries that were included in the evaluation was

---

<sup>2</sup> Countries under evaluation included: Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Djibouti, Sudan, Libya, Algeria, Egypt, D.R. Congo, Cameroon, Nigeria, Ghana, Senegal, Zambia, Mauritius, Malawi, South Africa, Lesotho and Botswana. Gabon was dropped due to inability to access key stakeholders at the time of the study due to insecurity.



purposeful. The target was to include 3 countries per REC in the sample. In this regard the selection criteria included the following: (i) Countries that are represented in more than one REC; (ii) Countries that host the headquarters of a REC; (iii) Countries that are major migrant sending, transit or receiving countries; and (iv) Countries that are in close proximity to countries under criteria (i) and (ii). Annex B provides the RECs and their respective Member States.

The IOM identified focal points within their country offices in the sampled countries, and these focal points assisted in identifying the respondents for the study and securing interviews for the consultants. This helped facilitate access to the respondents.

The inquiry used a key informant guide (Annex H) which was designed for respondents to provide:

- A peer review of the existing practices at country and regional level;
- Documentation that would allow identification and analysis of the process and procedures in place in terms of domesticating the MPFA by Member States and RECs; and
- Responses and documentation that would identify the key indicators to be evaluated in relation to the applicability of processes and guidelines as captured in the MPFA, and the Member States'/RECs' conformity to them.

The selection of key respondents was based on their knowledge and experience on migration matters in the respective countries and regions, including those who have played key roles in the implementation of the MPFA, design of national and/or regional migration policies or closely related frameworks in specific countries or regions. The AU and IOM identified key informants in different countries and regions, and provided official letters requesting them to participate in the evaluation.

Given the limited time for the evaluation, and the unavailability of some respondents during scheduled times, some key informant interviews were carried out via skype or telephone. Key informants provided views on the performance of the MPFA against the nature and trends of existing migration perspectives in their respective settings. In this respect, key informant interviews (KIIs) provided insights on the extent to which Member States and RECs have incorporated migration into their national and regional development plans and agendas. Key informants included:

- Representatives from the AU Commission
- Secretariat Chairpersons or appointed representatives from the RECs, namely: AMU, COMESA, EAC, ECCAS, ECOWAS, IGAD and SADC;
- 3 Representatives (one each from 3 selected Member States in the above RECs), working on migration or migration-related issues; and
- International Non-Governmental Organizations (INGOs), Local Non-Governmental Organisations (LNGOs) and Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) working on migration in Africa operating in selected study countries. Annex B provides a list of key informants interviewed by country and REC.

Interviews with key informants provided information that allowed a peer review assessment that was used to compare the existing linkages between migration policies and the MPFA as they influence migration outcomes in the Member States and RECs. The objectives of peer reviews included:

- Establishing Member States' cooperation on migration policies and programmes;
- Assessing the commitment by Member States and RECs to including recommendations advanced in the MPFA in the design of national and regional migration policies and development plans;
- Identifying good migration practices adopted by either a given Member State or REC for purposes of borrowing valuable lessons from the same and fostering overall coordination in Africa; and,
- Offering Member States and RECs opportunities for improving individual and collective migration performance through mutual learning.

### **1.5.2. QUANTITATIVE METHODS**

A structured questionnaire focusing on identifying current processes and procedures in place in relation to the evaluation of the MPFA was administered among selected CSOs, key REC representatives and government officials in the 54 AU Member States. Unlike key informant interviews that focused on the selected 20 Member States, the questionnaire was sent to all the 54 AU Member States. Process evaluations have been used to examine government ministries'/departments' organisational methods, including rules and operating procedures that are used to deliver policy components, the objective being to determine if a process can be streamlined and made more efficient (UNEP, 2009:52). In this exercise, process evaluation was used to understand the applicability of migration processes and guidelines as captured in the MPFA, and the Member States' conformity to them. This tool was resourceful in the evaluation, considering that the MPFA has a checklist against which key indicators can be monitored. Analysis of individual Member States' migration policies and strategies revealed the extent to which they embraced the MPFA.

A total of 46 individuals responded to the survey questionnaire from Member States and RECs. The survey questionnaire was anonymous, and was designed and administered using Google Forms Survey (see Annex H). The survey questions focused on:

- Perceptions on the nature and magnitude of migratory flows at country, regional and continental levels;
- Extent of governments'/RECs' integration of migration in their national and regional development plans; and
- Challenges and opportunities that migration policies (if any) have brought to their countries.

Annex D provides the number of respondents to the survey by country and REC.

### **1.6. LIMITATIONS OF THE EVALUATION**

The evaluation was undertaken between October and December 2016, including making appointments, carrying out key informant interviews, desk review, data analysis and writing of the evaluation report. Below are some of the challenges experienced during field visits:

- Delays in starting the evaluation due to challenges in identifying key informants and fixing interview appointments with key informants;
- Although the desk review was on-going and deemed a key component of the evaluation, several key country documents are not available online. To ensure there were no gaps, the consultants requested any relevant documents that would greatly assist the evaluation;
- The online process evaluation survey was administered prior to the key informant interviews, but had a low response rate. As a solution, the survey was administered during the 24 - 25 November 2016 evaluation report stakeholder validation workshop for those that had not responded. In addition, the survey was left open until 15 December 2016; and
- Coordination of the fieldwork experienced a few challenges as consultants could not guarantee travelling to 2-3 countries within a space of 6 days, as airline connections were not direct to the destinations. Furthermore, respondents were not always available during the same week. For those respondents that were unavailable at the time the consultant travelled to the location, the consultants followed up with skype/phone interviews.

The interviews with key informants could not be confined to one respondent in each country given that in all the countries different ministries address different aspects of migration; these include diaspora issues, labour migration, human trafficking, refugees and IDPs. As such, consultants often interviewed more government representatives in a single country due to their areas of focus to capture a more holistic understanding of how different forms of migration are being addressed especially in terms of policy.

## 2. TRENDS AND DRIVERS OF MIGRATION IN AFRICA

---

IOM defines migration as “the movement of a person or a group of persons, either across an international border, or within a State. It is a population movement, encompassing any kind of movement of people, whatever its length, composition and causes. It includes migration of refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants, and persons moving for other purposes, including family reunion” (IOM Website<sup>3</sup>). Definitions related to terms used in migration are provided in Annex C. This section focuses on highlighting the trends and patterns of the different types of migration in Africa.

While internal migration implies movement of people within a geographically defined territory unrestricted by legal constraints, an international migrant is invariably confronted with a series of sometimes complex regulations; first, to exit from the country of origin and, later, to enter and residence within the receiving country (Rwamatwara, 2005). International migrant stock and flows suggest that the number of international migrants continues to increase.

### 2.1. TRENDS AND PATTERNS OF MIGRATION IN AFRICA

Africa is a region of diverse migration circuits relating to origin, destination and transit. Migration in Africa is both voluntary and forced within and outside national borders. Forced migration is fraught with controversial and sometimes contradictory interpretations and connotations. Whereas the former refers to migrants who leave their respective residence and settle elsewhere in search of economic opportunities such as employment, business opportunities and education (Rwamatwara, 2005), the latter refers to migration due to social and political problems such as armed conflict, violation of human rights and environmental disasters (Anthony, 1999). The major cause of the voluntary movement of populations between and within national borders is rooted in the initial and growing disparity in development between and among states. The causes and consequences of such movements have economic, political, social and demographic dimensions.

According to the AU, multiple factors spur migration both within and out of Africa (African Union, 2006a), including poor socio-economic conditions, low wages, high levels of unemployment, poverty and lack of opportunities. These are because of a mis-match between rapid population growth and available resources as well as low levels of technology and capacity to create employment and jobs in countries of origin. In addition, various political and social factors such as poor governance, corruption, political instability, conflict and civil strife lead to migration of both skilled and unskilled labour in Africa (African Union, 2006a). The perceived opportunity for a better life, high income, greater security, pressure to join relatives, families and friends, better quality of education and health care in destination countries influence decisions to migrate. Lower costs of migration, improved communication and readily available information facilitate migration in Africa. Globalization and information technology have also played a part in shaping migration trends by opening new frontiers and avenues for movement. Thus, emigration becomes a survival strategy for communities.

---

<sup>3</sup>[www.iom.int/key-migration-terms](http://www.iom.int/key-migration-terms), accessed January 30, 2017

African migratory movements are mainly in three routes:

- The Northern Route: through Sudan, Libya, and Egypt into Europe.
- The Eastern Route (Gulf of Aden migration route): Djibouti, Northern Somalia, Yemen and eventually Saudi Arabia and other Middle Eastern countries.
- The Southern Route: through Kenya, Tanzania, Mozambique, Zambia, Zimbabwe, and Malawi to South Africa.

**Figure 1: Key migratory routes within and out of Africa**

Libya/**Europe**

Unknown number, mainly from Nigeria, Senegal, Mali, Ivory Coast



Sudan/Egypt/**Europe**

Unknown number, mainly from Eritrea & Sudan  
(Estimates: up to 5,000 Eritreans per month)



Zambia/Zimbabwe: **South Africa** (unknown number) mainly from DRC

Sudan/Libya/**Europe** / Djibouti/Puntland/Yemen / **Saudi Arabia**

Unknown number of Eritreans, Somalilanders, Ethiopians) / Eritreans 320,000 (80% Somalis, Ethiopians)



Tanzania/Mozambique/Malawi/Zimbabwe/Zambia: **South Africa** (and beyond)

Estimated: 70 100, 000 (Somali & Ethiopia)

Sources: P. Mudungwe (2016); RMMS (2013; 2014) and IOM

Various surveys and studies have established that most of the cross-border migratory movements in Africa occur within the continent. More than 80% of migration is within the continent, and is characterized mainly by intra-regional and inter-regional migration, that is, from West Africa to Southern Africa, from East/Horn of Africa to Southern Africa. The rest of the migrants are heading north to Europe, and east to the Arabian Peninsula. In Africa, there were an estimated 21 million migrants as of 2015 (an increase of 6 million from 15 million migrants in 2000), of which 18 million originated from within the region and the rest originated from Europe, Asia and North America (UNDESA Population Division, 2016). In 2010, 31 million Africans were estimated to be living outside their country of origin, which constitutes 3% of the total African population (Shimeles, 2010). It is noteworthy that although migration on the northern route to Europe is small in comparison to migration on the continent, especially on the southern route from East/Horn of Africa to Southern Africa, a lot of resources are being channeled towards the northern route, perhaps due to the political ramifications that migration has had in Europe. There is scanty data on irregular migration on the southern route, an issue that needs to be addressed if countries and the African continent have to manage migration within the region.

As shown in Table 1, migration on the African continent has been on the increase over the last 15 years in all the sub-regions. There are diverse migratory flows including labour migrants (mainly youths), the feminization of migration, an increase in irregular migration (with the attendant human trafficking/smuggling) and a large number of refugees and IDPs. However, while emigration from Africa has increased substantially in the last decades in absolute terms, the proportion of emigrants to total population is currently one of the lowest in the world, though with marked variations across countries.

**Table 1: International Migrant Stock in African regions**

Region	Number of international migrants (thousands)				International migrants as a %age of total population		Females among international migrants (%age)		Median age of international migrants (years)	
	2000	2005	2010	2015	2000	2015	2000	2015	2000	2015
<b>World</b>	172,703.3	191,269.1	221,714.2	243,700.2	3	3	49	48	38	39
<b>Africa</b>	14,800.3	15,191.1	16,840	20,649.6	2	2	47	46	27	29
<b>Eastern Africa</b>	4,844.8	4,745.7	4,657	6,129.1	2	2	49	49	27	26
<b>Middle Africa</b>	1,756.7	1,928.8	2,140	2,307.7	2	2	49	50	27	24
<b>Northern Africa</b>	1,885.7	1,782	1,921.6	2,159.0	1	1	44	41	28	28
<b>Southern Africa</b>	1,222.3	1,439.4	2,203.3	3,435.2	2	5	41	41	35	37
<b>Western Africa</b>	5,090.9	5,295	5,918	6,618.5	2	2	47	47	26	27

**Source:** UNDESA Population Division (2016)

Table 2 shows the estimated total stock of migration from, to and within Africa for the period 1960 to 2000. As Table 2 shows, the total stock of migration from Africa to the rest of the world and within Africa increased between 1960, 1980 and 2000, while migration from the rest of the world to Africa has decreased in absolute numbers.

**Table 2: Estimated total stocks of migration from, to and within Africa**

	From Africa to the rest of the world	From the rest of the world to Africa	Within Africa
1960	1,830,776	2,811,930	6,176,385
1980	5,418,096	1,872,502	7,966,359
2000	8,734,478	1,532,746	10,500,000

**Source:** Flahaux and De Haas (2016)

Much as there has been a decrease in immigrants from the rest of the world to Africa as indicated in Table 2, the increasing number of Chinese migrants cannot be underestimated. Much as most of the Chinese in Africa today are temporary migrants who are employees of Chinese state-owned enterprises and independent Chinese companies, there are increasingly larger numbers of independent migrants arriving in Africa seeking economic opportunities (Park, 2009). There is presence of Chinese migrants in almost 49 countries in Africa with significant numbers in many countries including South Africa, Nigeria, Madagascar, Mauritius, Sudan, Angola and Algeria (Park, 2009).

As shown in Table 3, South Africa, Côte d'Ivoire, Kenya, Uganda, Ethiopia and Libya have been high migration countries between 2000 and 2015 whereas the low migration countries over the same period include Lesotho, Cape Verde, Eritrea and Mauritius.

**Table 3: African Countries with High and Low Migration Rates**

2000				2015			
High Migration countries		Low Migration countries		High Migration countries		Low Migration countries	
Country	Number of international migrants (Thousands)	Country	Number of international migrants (Thousands)	Country	Number of international migrants (Thousands)	Country	Number of international migrants (Thousands)
Côte d'Ivoire	1 994.1	Western Sahara	3.3	South Africa	3 142.5	Sao Tome and Principe	2.4
South Africa	1 001.8	Sao Tome and Principe	4.4	Kenya	1 084.4	Western Sahara	5.2
Tanzania	928.2	Equatorial Guinea	4.5	Côte d'Ivoire	2 175.4	Lesotho	6.6
Sudan <sup>4</sup>	801.9	Lesotho	6.2	Nigeria	1 199.1	Equatorial Guinea	10.8
DRC	744.4	Seychelles	6.6	Kenya	1 084.4	Comoros	12.6
Kenya	699.1	Cape Verde	11.0	Ethiopia	1 072.9	Seychelles	12.8
Uganda	634.7	Eritrea	13.0	South Sudan	824.1	Cape Verde	14.9
Ethiopia	611.4	Comoros	13.8	Libya	771.1	Eritrea	15.9
Libya	567	Mauritius	15.5	Uganda	749.5	Guinea-Bissau	22.3
Guinea	560.1	Somalia	20.1	Burkina Faso	704.7	Somalia	25.3

**Source:** UNDESA Population Division (2016)

In Southern Africa, the percentage of migrants as a total of population increased significantly from 2% to 5% between 2000 and 2015, which is above Africa's and the world percentages; which stand at 2% and 3% respectively. There was a significant increase in the percentage of migrants as a total of country population between 2000 and 2015 for Botswana (from 3% to 7%)

<sup>4</sup>Estimates for 2000 refer to Sudan and South Sudan

and South Africa (from 2% to 6%). Countries such as Djibouti and Gabon have significantly high percentages of migrants as a total of their population at 13% and 16% respectively. Annex F shows the number of international migrants, international migrants as a percentage of total population, and the estimated refugee stock by country.

With the exception of Southern Africa, the median age of migrants in the rest of Africa is less than 30 years; way below the world average age, which stood at 39 % in 2015, an indication that migration is mainly by the youth in Africa. There was a significant decrease in median age of migrants in Cameroon (from 31 years to 16 years) and Egypt (from 30 years to 19 years) between 2000 and 2015 (UNDESA Population Division, 2016).

Africa has experienced a considerable increase in the feminization of migration during the past half century; with women constituting between 45% and 47% of all migrants on the continent between 2000 and 2015. The percentage of female migrants in the different regions ranged between 41% and 50% in 2015. Southern Africa and Northern Africa had the lowest percentage of female migrants at 41% in 2015 and Middle Africa had the highest percentage of female migrants at 50% followed by Eastern Africa at 49% (UNDESA Population Division, 2016). There were major differences in the percentage of female migrants at country level in 2015 ranging from 29% to 54%. For example, the percentage of female migrants in 2015 was highest in Chad at 54% (increased from 46% in 2000) followed by Niger at 53% and Comoros, Malawi, Mozambique, Angola, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Burkina-Faso and Guinea-Bissau each at 52%. The percentage of female migrants was lowest in Libya at 29% followed by Seychelles at 30%, South Africa at 40% and Mauritania at 42%. There was a significant decrease in the percentage of female migrants in Mauritius from 63% in 2000 to 45% in 2015.

Despite the fact that there is feminisation of migration in Africa, an issue paper by the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (2016) on new directions and trends in African migration points out that migration studies solely focus on movement of males in their economically productive age, leaving out women and children who have always been migrants. This has led to the belief that reasons for migration are employment, and has obscured other motives for migration by women, such as trade, marriage, education, pilgrimage, and seeking better social or health services. The issue paper highlights the increase in female migration, with a significant share of women moving independently to fulfil their own economic needs such as education and career development.

While internal migration implies movement of people within a geographically defined territory unrestricted by legal constraints, an international migrant is invariably confronted with a series of complex regulations, at first, to exit from the country of origin, and later, entry into, residence within, and exit from the receiving country (Adepoju, 1998). For the millions of people who want or are forced to move, international migration has become increasingly expensive and hazardous (Carling et al., 2015). This is not surprising, as contemporary migration regimes deliberately aim to restrict the ability of individuals to secure legal access to preferred destinations. That forces migrants, including refugees who are compelled and have a legal right to seek asylum, into the arms of those who are able to help them circumvent ever-increasing controls. Due to the irregular nature of migration among most migrants moving in and out of the continent, migrants rely on smugglers to facilitate their movement, while others fall prey to



traffickers. In some cases the smuggled turn into the trafficked, and suffer various human rights abuses. Due to limited legal avenues to migrate, migrants are increasingly resorting to irregular means to migrate. Most are resorting to services of smugglers, or are being trafficked by organized criminal groups. Those who facilitate irregular movement have rapidly expanded and diversified their operations, with some recognising the opportunity to maximise their profits by exploiting smuggled migrants either during their journey or at their destination.

For the refugees and migrants from the Horn of Africa, the journey to Europe includes dangerous overland travel through Eritrea, Ethiopia, Sudan and the Sahara desert before they reach the Libyan coast, a journey that some refugees and migrants do not survive (IOM, 2016a). The up-shot of irregular migration on the continent is depicted in IOM's *Missing Migrants* project which recorded 5,083 deaths in the Mediterranean Sea in 2016, an increase from 3,279 in 2014 and 3,777 in 2015 (IOM, 2017). The majority of deaths in 2016 were of African nationals from Western, Central and Southern Africa (585) followed by North Africa (224).

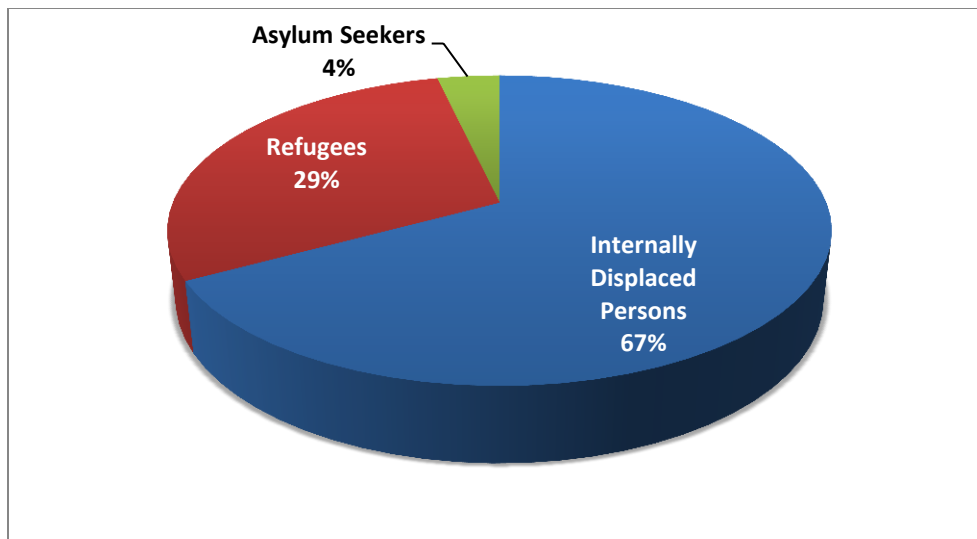
Existing data on migrant smuggling is scarce. International organizations and research centers, such as International Organisation for Migration (IOM), International Centre for Migration Policy Development (ICMPD), Regional Mixed Migration Secretariat (RMMS) and United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) have been collecting data on or related to migrant smuggling, but the data samples are too small to be generalized. Furthermore, data is not collected regularly, making it difficult to identify changes in smuggling activities, trends, routes and recruitment practices or determine whether the legal mechanisms put in place in each country are effective. Smuggling data also gets lost in human trafficking data as legally, there are clear distinctions between the two acts, but conceptually, the distinction has been difficult to draw in practice. The lack of clarity between the two concepts makes it difficult to develop a national law on smuggling, as in the case of Kenya, and loopholes within the legal system allow smugglers to escape prosecution.

In 2004, the ICMPD estimated that the number of irregular migrants from sub-Saharan African via North Africa to Europe stood at 35,000. By 2006, this number had increased to 200,000 of migrants from Africa who enter Europe illegally with the support of smugglers (UNODC, 2010:6). In 2012, over 100,000 irregular migrants from Ethiopia and Somalia were estimated to be destined for Yemen alone, majority of who solicited the services of a smuggler via Bossaso in Somalia and Obock in Djibouti (RMMS, 2013). RMMS reported in 2012 that 85,000 Ethiopians crossed into Yemen with the aim of seeking employment opportunities as casual labourers and domestic workers. Yemen is experiencing difficulties providing the necessary protection to these migrants. Refugees and migrants travelling to and through Yemen face a range of risks and abuses including: physical violence, sexual assault, abduction and torture, mental abuse and discrimination, economic deprivation, detention by the authorities, extortion, trafficking and enslavement, dehydration, starvation and loss of life. The grouping and movement of large numbers of migrants of different status and vulnerability under the control of smugglers places migrants at significant risk of exploitation and presents unprecedented challenges to States seeking to exercise control over their borders. In addition, irregular migration is increasingly being viewed through the prism of national security, which might lead to a generalization that all

refugees and migrants are a potential security threat. For example, Kenya's plans to build a wall on the border between Kenya and Somalia (as well as directives ordering all urban refugees to refugee camps, mass arrests of refugees and irregular migrants and threats to close Dadaab refugee camp) are expressions of securitization of migration (RMMS, 2015)

Africa hosts a large population of displaced persons (internally displaced persons, refugees and asylum seekers). According to Amnesty International, there are five African countries in the top 10 refugee hosting countries, which accounted for 21% of the refugees<sup>5</sup> (see Figure 2 below). A snapshot of Africa's displaced populations based on data from UNHCR and the Internal Monitoring Displacement Centre reveals that 71% of Africa's 18.5 million displaced persons are from 5 countries (Sudan, South Sudan, Somalia, Nigeria, and the Democratic Republic of Congo). Of this 18.5 million, over 27% are refugees, and 67% are IDPs (see Figure 2). The majority of the displaced population are in East and the Horn of Africa (UNHCR, 2016a). The percentage of refugees to international migrant stock for Africa was 36.3% in 1990. This percentage decreased to 24.4% in 2000, and further to 14.3% in 2010 but later increased to 19.5% in 2015 (UNDESA Population Division, 2016). This is the same trend in all regions with middle Africa and East Africa having the highest percentages of refugees to total migrants at 39.5% and 34% respectively in 2015. Southern Africa recorded the lowest percentage of refugees to total migrants at 3.4 followed by West Africa at 4.8% in 2015.

**Figure 2: Population Displacement in Africa**



**Source:** UNHCR (2016b)

Notwithstanding the increasing availability of micro-level data on African migration, data availability remains extremely patchy and is generally focused on migration to Europe from a limited number of better-researched African countries, such as Morocco, Senegal, Ghana and South Africa (Flahaux and De Haas, 2016). What is particularly lacking is macro-data that allows the mapping of overall evolution of the migration patterns from, to and within Africa over the past decade. While the specificity of African migration flows should ideally inform national,

<sup>5</sup>Amnesty International, <http://www.aljazeera.com/news/2016/10/ten-countries-host-world-refugees-report-161004042014076.html> (Retrieved 19 November 2016)

regional and continental policy-making, the type of migration data required to make informed policy choices is often not available and few attempts have been made to track legal and illegal migration movements (Lucas, 2006). Although many countries in Africa are grappling with collecting migration data, they have basic understanding of the flows and trends to the countries. Initiatives such as the migration profiling exercise by IOM have provided insight on migration within, through and to the countries, but not all countries have profiles making it difficult to determine the mixed migration patterns that take place within some countries. In Africa, 23 countries have migration profiles as summarised in Annex G. Comoros and Burkina Faso are some of the countries with forthcoming migration profiles.

As explained in the foregoing and as Adepoju (2004:1) observes, migration in Africa is dynamic and complex, and is reflected in an increase in the migration of youths and females, the diversification of migration destinations and brain drain from the region, trafficking in human beings, the increasing security concerns of migration, the changing map of refugee flows and the increasing role of regional economic organizations in fostering free flows of labour. The choice of destination countries is related to factors such as geographical proximity, cultural affinity, historical and personal links and standards of living (IOM, 2015a). In addition, despite the increasing importance of migration and its impact on development, in general data on migration in African is patchy, and skewed towards migration flows from the continent to Europe.

## **2.2. TRENDS AND DRIVERS OF MIGRATION IN RECs**

This section focuses on trends and drivers of migration in the different African sub-regions and uses examples from Partner States within the respective RECs. This is useful in understanding the different migration dynamics in the sub-regions.

### **2.2.1. ARAB MAGHREB UNION (AMU)**

The North African migratory patterns have been shaped by the historical ties in the region based on cultural affiliation, trade and the geographical shape of the region (World Bank, 2010:1). Migration corridors have been carved through the long-established trade routes, which have now become migratory routes for those seeking a better life or fleeing conflict in their countries. Overtime, policies have been developed to control and manage migration at national and regional level. The types of migration that people engaged in dictated the type of policies that were developed in the region. In recent years, the policies have changed to respond to the increase in migratory flows to and through the North African countries including Libya, Egypt and Tunisia. For example, migration through and to Tunisia became a concern during the 2011 revolution that sparked the 'Arab Spring' that hit Libya and Egypt. Although the revolution increased irregular migration through the country due to the insecurity at the borders, it forced the Tunisian government to review their migration policies on refugees and asylum seekers to respond to the flood of people transiting through the country. The political instability in Tunisia has also pushed some migrants to seek safer destinations where they can access opportunities.

Like the other North African countries, Egypt has been impacted by migratory flows as it produces as well as receives migrants from other North African, sub-Saharan African states and the Middle East who choose to settle in, or transit through the country. As a result, the government has taken measures to address irregular access to and through the country. Instability during the 'Arab Spring' had a significant impact on migration where migrants bound

for Europe or Middle East mainly used it as a transit rather than a destination country (De Bel-Air, 2016). Compared to East and West Africa, North Africa has a low number of international migrants at 2,159,048 in 2015 (UNDESA Population Division, 2016). Within North Africa, Libya has the highest migration stock whereas Egypt has the highest refugee stock in the sub-region. Libya is a transit country for migrants from West Africa (mainly Nigeria, Senegal, Mali and Ivory Coast) to Europe. Both Egypt and Libya are transit countries for migrants from the Horn of Africa (mainly Somalia, Eritrea, Sudan and Ethiopia) who go through Sudan. Libya has a high number of emigrants than immigrants leading to a high net migration level of -100,338 as of mid-2016 (UNDESA Population Division, 2016).

The main drivers of migration in North African countries are lack of employment opportunities especially among the youth and political instability that has pushed some migrants to seek safer destinations where they can access opportunities. France is a top destination for some countries such as Libya due to the strong historical links, and in some countries such as Egypt, Saudi Arabia is the top destination country.

### **2.2.2. EAST AFRICAN COMMUNITY (EAC)**

While the integration process of the East African partner states is reaching some of its benchmarks, migration within the EAC is becoming a central issue in both practice and policy implications (Kanyagonga, 2010). In recent years, cross-border labour migration has become intense within the EAC countries (Odipo et al., 2015). Migration of East Africans is driven by several factors, including the search for economic opportunities, high unemployment rates, political instability, regional climate variability, armed conflict and the pursuit of education and family visits (IOM, 2015b). Eastern Africa<sup>6</sup> has the second largest number of migrant stock next to West Africa on the African continent. Member States within the EAC are source countries, transit countries for migrants heading to Southern Africa as well as destination countries for migrants from EAC Member States as well as Central and Western Africa.

With its booming economy and being a regional hub, Kenya is attractive to neighbours and many other African countries in search for economic opportunities, education and trade (IOM, 2015c; Regional Mixed Migration Secretariat, 2013; Oucho et al., 2013; Masinjila, 2009). The majority of the migrants in Kenya (79% of the total) come from sub-Saharan African countries. Kenya is a major host country for refugees from the Horn of Africa mainly Somalia, Eritrea, South Sudan and Ethiopia. The country has the highest number of refugee camps in the world with the top four collectively known as the Dadaab camp hosting about 589,994 refugees (RMMS, 2015). Kenya is also a transit country for migrants mainly from Ethiopia and Somalia to South Africa, and irregular migrants from Uganda to the Middle East. Though there is limited data on the number of Kenyans residing abroad (IOM, 2015c), there is no doubt that there is an upward trend in the number of emigrants from Kenya to the United States, Europe and of recent Middle East. Kenya is estimated to have the fifth largest African diaspora community after Nigeria, Ethiopia, Egypt and Ghana (McCabe, 2011).

On the other hand, Tanzania has been increasingly affected by mixed migratory flows mainly irregular migration from the Middle East and the Horn of Africa with a proportion departing partly

---

<sup>6</sup>Eastern Africa in this context is not the same as EAC. Eastern Africa has more countries than the EAC partner states.

to Southern African countries (Oucho, 2013). While a few of them settle in Tanzania, the majority use the country as a transit corridor to its southern borders with Mozambique, Malawi and Zambia en-route to South Africa and beyond<sup>7</sup>. A number of irregular migrants take advantage of porous border points in Tanzania, a problem that is faced by a number of African countries including Kenya and Botswana.

Over the years, Uganda has similarly been faced with dynamic and complex patterns of migration in and out of her borders. Migratory patterns in Uganda have existed within diverse social, political and economic contexts (IOM, 2015b), and have been driven by political factors, poverty, rapid population growth and the porosity of the international borders (Mulumba and Olema, 2009). Uganda has been and continues to be a major hosting country for asylum-seekers and refugees (mainly from Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Nigeria, Pakistan and Somalia), standing at the geographical centre of a region characterized by instability and conflict (Zachary, Naggaga and Hovil, 2001). As of 2015, Uganda was hosting about 433,595 refugees and is the third country in Africa with the highest number of refugees after Ethiopia and Kenya and among the top 10 refugee hosting countries in the world. Uganda is 12th of 15 sampled non-organizations for OECD countries with the highest percentage of highly skilled expatriates in OECD countries.

Although migration contributes significantly to remittances in Uganda and Kenya, data and information on the nature of international migration particularly the effect of economic and social remittances are still scanty in Tanzania (Agwanda and Amani 2014). Given the levels of immigration and emigration, the three countries are in the process of developing national migration policies and diaspora policies.

### **2.2.3. ECONOMIC COMMUNITY FOR CENTRAL AFRICAN STATES (ECCAS)**

The recurrent insecurity in a number of countries in the ECCAS region has led to many countries being origin rather than destinations for migrants. For instance, much as DRC is characterized as a source, transit and destination country, it is a large producer of refugees due to the civil unrest in the country. Despite this, DRC hosts refugees from neighbouring countries. The DRC also has a large IDP population and is among the top five countries in the world with the highest number of IDPs since 2013. DRC is a transit country for nationals from Burundi and Rwanda bound for South Africa or Europe (IOM, 2010). The DRC's rich mining resources make the country attractive for migrant workers from Africa and beyond, making it a destination country. The DRC is in the process of drafting a national migration policy.

Contrary to DRC, Cameroon is dominated by internal rural to urban migration. The drivers of migration in Cameroon include poverty, slow economic growth relative to population growth, and the external debt burden that the country bears. Cameroon seems to be the preferred destination due its geographical position and political stability for many people fleeing from wars in their countries of origin or residence. There has been an increase in the number of refugees in Cameroon from 46,454 in 2000 to 327,121 in 2015. Approximately 59 000 of them are Nigerian refugees fleeing Boko Haram violence and living in the Minawao camp, and 267,500 are from Central African Republic (UNHCR, 2016b). Despite the high number of

---

<sup>7</sup>The Ministerial Task Force on Irregular Migration (2008). Report on the Situation of Irregular Migration in Tanzania. United Republic of Tanzania, Ministry of Home Affairs, Dares salaam, April 2008.

international migrants and estimated refugee stock in Cameroon, the country does not have a national migration policy.

#### **2.2.4. ECONOMIC COMMUNITY OF WEST AFRICAN STATES (ECOWAS)**

West Africa presents a unique example of dynamic and complex migration architecture of continuing trends and changing migration configurations. Majority of migration (84%) in ECOWAS is intra-regional. This South-South migration is seven times greater than migration flows from West African countries to other parts of the world (ICMPD& IOM, 2015). Despite the fact that nowadays all ECOWAS Member States are countries of emigration and immigration, intra-regional mobility in West Africa has been generally dominated by a predominantly North-South movement from landlocked countries of Sahel West Africa (Mali, Burkina Faso, Niger and Chad) to the more prosperous plantations, mines and cities of coastal West Africa (predominantly Côte d'Ivoire, Liberia, Ghana, Nigeria, Senegal and The Gambia). In absolute terms, Côte d'Ivoire has the highest number of immigrants with 2,406,700 among which 2,350,024 originate from other ECOWAS countries, followed by Ghana with 1,851,800 migrants residing in the country (ICMPD & IOM, 2015). Ghana and Côte d'Ivoire attracted large numbers of internal labour migrants as well as international migrants from countries such as Togo and Nigeria (mainly to Ghana), Guinea (mainly to Côte d'Ivoire) and Burkina Faso, Niger and Mali (to both Ghana and Côte d'Ivoire). According to the World Bank data, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, and Mali have the largest emigrant population residing abroad in absolute numbers. Some countries, such as Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, and Nigeria, have both a large immigrant and emigrant population. West Africa has the highest migration stock of all the regions in Africa (Annex F).

The recent economic instability in many West African countries resulting in diminished opportunities to secure stable and remunerative work in traditional regional destinations, circulation and repeat migration have extended to a wide variety of alternative destinations such as Europe, United States of America, Italy, Spain and South-East Asia. Traditional labour importing, richer countries in the sub-region (Côte d'Ivoire) and attractive destinations for migrants (Nigeria) have experienced political and economic crises, which also spur out-migration of their nationals. In recent years, there has been an increase in irregular migration from West African countries to Europe through the Sahara desert characterised by human trafficking and smuggling. Human trafficking and migrant smuggling represent significant challenges to human rights and development in the sub-region. Children are trafficked mainly for farm labour and informal/domestic work within and across West African countries and are recruited through networks of agents while women and young girls are trafficked for sexual exploitation mainly outside the sub-region. However, tighter immigration control measures (in the form of stricter immigration laws, and tighter regulations and border controls) in destination countries have had the effect of pushing more people into the hands of smugglers thereby increasing migrants' vulnerability.

Refugee flows in West Africa were usually due to forced movements caused by natural disasters and climate change, food insecurity, large-scale development projects, unresolved tensions around land and property rights, and also epidemics or disease outbreaks. Recently, the trend shows alterations in refugee flows in form of displacements caused by an increase in incidents of political instability resulting in situations of generalized violence, armed conflicts, and human rights violations across the sub-region. These occurrences force individuals and families to flee their communities for safety in neighbouring countries not affected by these crises or even outside Africa mainly in Europe. Preferred destinations for Nigerians on the continent include Sudan in the Horn of Africa, Ghana and Niger in West Africa, and Cameroon in Central Africa (IOM, 2015d). Outside Africa, Nigerians move to Italy, Spain, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Movements towards the European Union are largely irregular.

While African states, and primarily West African states remain the main destination countries for Senegalese migrants, there have been significant changes in the trends of migration flows. Traditional countries of destination, such as Cote d'Ivoire and Gabon have become less attractive and migrations towards Italy and Spain have grown significantly. France has been and still is a destination country for Senegalese emigrants moving out of Africa.

Some ECOWAS Member States such as Nigeria and Ghana have already launched their national migration policies while a number of them have, or are in the process of drafting national migration policies (ICMPD & IOM, 2015).

### **2.2.5 COMMON MARKET FOR EASTERN AND SOUTHERN AFRICA (COMESA)**

The Southern Africa region continues to experience a significant rise in mixed and irregular migration flows. These flows mostly consist of refugees, asylum-seekers, economic migrants, unaccompanied migrant children and victims of trafficking, including women and children (IOM, 2014). The large majority of these migrants attempt to reach their destinations through established smuggling and trafficking networks. Irregular migration has increasingly become an issue of political, economic and social concern to governments and the public in COMESA states. While their contribution to economic development at destination countries is significant, frequent conflict between irregular migrants and nationals stems from perceptions that migrants usurp jobs from deserving nationals. The conflict also relates to social issues such as crime and prostitution, which migrants are universally accused of fostering. Female migration has introduced a commercial dimension to African movements on the continent and this is evident in movements of Zimbabwean women to South Africa and Botswana (Adepoju, 2003). While there is much in favour of female migration, they are frequently exposed to discriminatory behaviour, physical abuse and HIV infection (Peberdy and Dinat, 2005).

A number of COMESA countries are origin, transit and destination countries. For instance, Malawi is not only an important transit country for immigrants heading to other Southern Africa countries, but also a preferred destination choice. Most immigrants to Malawi originate from neighbouring countries, mainly Mozambique, although the number has gradually gone down because of the end of the civil war in Mozambique in 1992. The number of irregular migrants mainly from Ethiopia has been increasing overtime in Malawi. Malawi is also attracting immigrants from Asia mainly from Pakistan and India. It is estimated that more than 400 migrants were in prison in Malawi in 2015. Malawians continue to leave the country, and are destined for countries within Southern Africa, mainly to work on the mines and farms in South Africa (IOM, 2015e)

On a similar note, Mauritius is both a source and destination country for international migrants. However, the inadequacy of data with respect to migration makes it difficult for the Government to elaborate a migration policy to promote the country's socio-economic development (IOM, 2014). Majority of migrants in Mauritius are from China followed by India. In Mauritius, migration management focuses on coordination within different institutions, data management, human resource capacity management, linkages with the diaspora, and the protection of migrants and their dependents. Like the other countries, Zambia is a source, transit and destination for migrants from neighbouring states such as D.R. Congo and Zimbabwe. Much of the internal migration in Zambia is from rural to urban areas. On international migration, Zambia had 127,915 international migrants in 2015. The percentage of immigrants to the total population in Zambia declined from 3% in 2000 to 0.8% in 2015 (UNDESA Population Division, 2016)

### **2.2.6. SOUTH AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT COMMUNITY (SADC)**

Although labour migration within, from and toward SADC has been a feature of the region historically (Crush et al., 2005), there is a lack of comprehensive data on the number and types of labour migration in the region with variances from country to country. Three SADC Member States – South Africa, Botswana and Namibia - enjoy sustained economic buoyancy that has attracted large volumes of foreign migrant labour over the years. Crush and Williams (2010:4) cite a Southern African Migration Project (SAMP) study of 30 000 migrants from five SADC countries in 2005 “which showed that 23% of migrants had grandparents who had gone to work in another country, and 57% had parents who had done so.” Data from the UN suggests that 72% of all African migrants in SADC are from within the region (UNDESA Population Division, 2013).

Mining remains the largest employer of labour migrants from SADC (almost 50%). Lesotho, Swaziland and Mozambique are clearly dominated by mine migration to South Africa. For example, about 80% of emigrants from Lesotho go to South Africa (ACP Migration Observatory, 2010a). Lesotho is one of the most migration dependent and one of the poorest countries in the world due to high domestic unemployment, declining agricultural production, falling life expectancy, rising child mortality and half the population living below the poverty line (Crush et al., 2010). Lesotho is among the top three remittance- receiving countries as a share of GDP worldwide, making remittances an important source of foreign exchange and to pay for basic necessities. For the past 20 years, migration patterns from and in Lesotho have changed considerably, with work opportunities for men in the mines in South Africa decreasing and at the same time increasing female emigration from Lesotho (ACP Migration Observatory, 2010a). Strategically located within Southern Africa, most migrants bound for Lesotho must travel via South Africa to access the country and this is based on the bilateral agreements it has with South Africa.

In the case of Botswana, the country was primarily a migrant sending country in the 1960s but changed drastically to a migrant receiving country with the discovery of diamonds, which attracted mine workers from South Africa and Zimbabwe. From the 1970s onwards, Botswana's rapid economic growth required labour and expertise, and the government's open migration policy approach successfully secured these from across the continent. The political stabilization in the Southern Africa region (culminating in South Africa's first democratic elections in 1994) brought the voluntary repatriation of many non-nationals living in exile in Botswana, and the UNHCR estimated that only 210 refugees remained in the country by 1996. Very few labour migrants leave Botswana for work other than in mining and these numbers have declined over time. Zimbabwe has experienced a progressive rise in emigration since 2000, and the vast majority of the emigrants were to the Southern African region. Emigration patterns have been complex, marked by an increase in informal cross- border movement, migration of highly skilled nationals and survival migration of the poor (IOM, 2010).

Two key factors drive migration in Southern Africa: demography that leads to rising migration pressure and differential economic opportunities among countries. Growing unemployment and economic hardship have prompted some households to look elsewhere for economic livelihoods, either in the urban informal economy or outside the country or both. It should also be noted that there is a long history of informal movements of people across borders in this region (Crush et al., 2005)



South Africa being the strongest economy in Southern Africa attracts many people mainly from neighbouring states and beyond. During the apartheid era, migration was heavily controlled especially among black labour migrants within the country. The collapse of apartheid allowed people to freely move to any location within the country. South Africa also became an attractive destination for other African nationals seeking better economic opportunities. For instance, there has been substantial irregular migration to South Africa making it a country with the highest migration and refugee stock in the sub-region. South Africa has more immigrants than emigrants, hence a positive net migration level of 120,000 in 2016 (UNDESA, Population Division, 2016). Aligning migration and border control policies with economic and security realities is not easy for South Africa. For example, some SADC countries struggle to issue identification and travel documents. This creates significant challenges for managing migration because, in the absence of valid documents, all cross-border movements are illegal. A report by the Department of Home Affairs (2016) reveals that South Africa has limited capacity to manage international migration. Much as South Africa has developed migration policies, successful implementation has always been a problem perhaps because of the sensitive nature of migration in South Africa (Amin and Mattoo, 2007).

### **2.2.7. INTER-GOVERNMENTAL AUTHORITY FOR DEVELOPMENT (IGAD)**

Due to a variety of factors, the IGAD region remains an area where volatile, insecure conditions continue to motivate large numbers of people to move within and across borders. The push and pull factors mobilizing these population movements are varied, and “mixed” in their nature. Some migrants use irregular means, fleeing from the Horn of Africa due to political unrest, fear of persecution and conflict, while others are leaving situations of extreme resource scarcity, including drought, crop failure, food insecurity, and severe poverty (IGAD, 2012). Migration at IGAD is addressed within the framework of the Regional Migration Policy Framework (RMPPF) that is derived from the African Union continental framework adopted in Banjul in 2006. The regional framework was adopted by the IGAD Council of Ministers in 2012 and has become the primary IGAD policy reference on migration.

Ethiopia is the largest refugee hosting country in Africa estimated at 704,816 refugees, followed by Kenya, Uganda, the DRC and Chad. It is classified as a major transit hub in the Horn of Africa. Mixed migration movements predominantly include refugees, trafficked persons, irregular and economic migrants mostly from South Sudan, Somalia, Eritrea, Sudan and Yemen (RMMS, 2016). Although there are a large number of refugees from Yemen entering Ethiopia due to the conflict in that country, some Ethiopians are also transiting through Yemen en-route to Saudi Arabia and other Gulf States, which makes migration bi-directional. The largest number of Ethiopian refugees and asylum seekers is found in Kenya, which hosts a total of 30,662 Ethiopian refugees and asylum seekers as of March 2016, with smaller numbers in other neighbouring countries (RMMS, 2016a).

Djibouti has been identified as a source and transit country for men, women and children subjected to forced labour and sex trafficking (RMMS, 2016b). Female migrants have suffered sexual abuse and gender based violence. The majority of migrants that transit through Djibouti are Ethiopians destined for the Gulf States. It is also a destination for migrants fleeing the conflict in Yemen. Sudan has the second highest number of IDPs in the world. Most of Sudan's

migration flows originate from, or are towards neighbouring African and Arab countries. The drivers of migration in Sudan are internal ethnic conflict, political unrest, and drought(IOM, 2011).

Clearly, all RECs and Member States have complex migration trends and patterns. There are risks that arise with migration which constitute physical and sexual violence, abduction and kidnapping, extortion and torture. Threat of abduction and kidnapping for ransom is the most significant threat particularly for Ethiopian nationals. Other risks include loss of life, exposure to harsh conditions, conflicts, walking long distances especially in the desert without the basic needs, physical and sexual abuse, human rights violations, and threats to organ extraction.

### **3. IMPACT OF MIGRATION ON THE CONTINENT AND POLICY RESPONSE**

---

Migration has had significant political, social and economic impact in origin, transit and destination countries in Africa. The impact has been both positive and negative, and varies by region and country. This section focuses on the political, economic, social and environmental impact migration has had across Africa, drawing examples on selected countries.

Much as studies tend to highlight the negative impact that migration can have in a source, transit and destination country, there is positive impact as well. Emigration of nationals to other African states or outside of the continent can have both positive and negative impact on the origin as well as destination countries. Migrants can positively improve the economic conditions of the destination country as they contribute towards economic development through the labour they provide and filling labour gaps. However, their presence can also stretch the economic resources in a country, which may not be able to support the migrants, especially in the case of those who have been forcefully displaced.

Likewise, countries can benefit from the presence of migrants socially as they introduce new ways of thinking, break cultural perceptions and create a more globalised community that can attract economic opportunities in the country. For instance, the presence of Chinese in Africa cannot be disputed and the influential role that their business ethics have had on the countries may have influenced and changed business practices in Africa. However, their presence has also brought about tensions with local communities who are competing for job opportunities (Park, 2009).

#### **3.1 THE POSITIVE IMPACT OF MIGRATION**

##### **3.1.1. REMITTANCES**

A corollary of the emigration from Africa is the remittance flows to the continent which according to the World Bank amounted to US\$17 billion in 2004, and rose to US\$61 billion in 2013, which amounted to 19% of Africa's Gross Domestic Product that year<sup>8</sup>.

Not only have remittance flows been substantial, they have also been more stable than other financial inflows and more countercyclical, thus, sustaining consumption and investment during recessions. Remittances are also the continent's most significant source of net foreign inflows after foreign direct investment<sup>9</sup>(Africa Development Bank, 2011). Further, a strong flow of remittances can improve the receiving country's creditworthiness, lowering their cost of borrowing money on international markets. For example, migrant remittances are Lesotho's major source of foreign exchange, and Lesotho is one of the leading recipients of officially recorded remittances in the world as measured against GDP. In 2009, remittances accounted for 25% of the country's GDP, making Lesotho the third largest receiver of remittances after Tajikistan and Tonga (World Bank, 2011) and the largest recipient of remittances (as a percentage of GDP) in Africa.

According to the Central Bank of Kenya, over US\$1.4 billion was remitted to Kenya in 2014. In 2010, Uganda's remittance inflows exceeded foreign direct investment (FDI), which provides a clear indication of the growing importance of remittance inflows in the country's economy

---

<sup>8</sup> <http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/migrationremittancesdiasporaissues/brief/migration-remittances-data>

<sup>9</sup> These figures only account for officially recorded remittances and do not include data from about half of the continent's countries that do not report remittance data regularly. When the inflows to these countries and the unrecorded flows to the rest of Africa through informal channels are added, the size of remittance flows will be substantially higher.

(Rutega et al., 2012). According to the World Bank, migration had an impact on poverty alleviation in Egypt as the remittances sent by the diaspora reduced the likelihood of poverty by 8.8% in the country (World Bank, 2010: 35).

### **3.1.2. DIASPORA PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT**

There is a growing consensus that the Diaspora can have a significant impact in the development of their home countries. The challenge however, is in designing effective strategies through which the Diaspora can be fully harnessed for national development. Most government schemes have mostly focused on filling the financing gap, while donors have mainly sought to address the human capacity gap. From a brain gain perspective, emigrants are able to learn new and innovative skills that can be adopted in the country of origin, if and when the migrant chooses to return. The country will benefit from innovative skills, which will contribute to economic and social development, especially when new employment opportunities are created through establishment of industries.

### **3.1.3. TEMPORARY AND PERMANENT RETURNS**

IOM has implemented several temporary return programmes for diaspora professionals in efforts to mitigate the shortage of human resources in affected sectors. For example, between 2008 and 2011, the IOM facilitated the voluntary temporary return of 50 Zimbabwean health professionals working abroad to teach at universities and work in rural hospitals (Mudungwe, 2009). The initiative harnessed the experience and skills of Zimbabwean health professionals in the diaspora in the delivery of health care back home and training local health personnel (through knowledge and skills transfer to locally based professionals), thereby helping to mitigate the effects of the brain drain in the health sector and universities.

Similar to the IOM initiative, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has implemented the Transfer of Knowledge through Expatriate Nationals (TOKTEN) programme in a number of African countries, which have provided opportunities for highly skilled and qualified Diaspora to make contributions to their origin countries through short-term consultancies. Under the programme the average cost of a TOKTEN consultant amounted to about a quarter of the cost of a standard international expert consultant. In this regard the programme placed 5,000 volunteers on assignments in 49 developing countries (Africa Development Bank, 2011).

Countries could also encourage their qualified diasporas (especially those in sectors that are in dire need of qualified and experienced personnel) to return permanently. Such an initiative entails enhancing the conditions for permanent return that is, addressing the push factors that led to emigration in the first place. Further, in order to create conducive conditions for a higher rate of permanent return, it is important to conduct systematic reviews of return programs, including the IOM TRQN and UNDP TOKTEN programs. Achieving a better understanding of the experiences of diaspora returnees who participated in these programs, including the key factors which inspired their decisions to make their return either temporary or permanent, would enable policy makers in origin countries to develop a more favorable policy environment

### **3.1.4. LEVERAGING FINANCIAL RESOURCES OF DIASPORA**

The financial contributions of the Diaspora can be non-commercial (private transfers: direct remittances to family or collective remittances to community groups to support development projects) or philanthropic contributions to specific projects. They can also be commercial/financial investment in commercial enterprises.

Diasporas can play a critical role in accelerating technology exchange and foreign direct investment, as in the case of China, India and Israel where diasporas took on the role of pioneer investors at a time when major capital markets regarded these economies as too risky. For diaspora investors, there is a non-financial intrinsic motivation for early-stage participation, and in general, due to their knowledge of the origin country they have access to risk mitigation mechanisms that are not available to other mainstream investors. Further, due to their broader knowledge of other economies and markets, they serve as an entry point into new markets/products at home (Kuznetsov, 2006).

### **3.1.5. LEVERAGING REMITTANCES OR FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS' ACCESS TO CAPITAL MARKETS**

Large and stable remittance flows improve a country's creditworthiness and thereby the creditworthiness of financial institutions as well. Banks in many countries have used future remittances as collateral for raising bond financing from international markets, and thus benefiting commercial lending (Gayle et al., 2013). Likewise, governments can also issue bonds, which can be targeted to specific development projects. The policy implication of this is that countries should institute policies that encourage the inflow of remittances through the formal channels, and should strive to improve data on remittances and make them available to rating agencies and international investors.

## **3.2 THE NEGATIVE IMPACT OF MIGRATION**

### **3.2.1. BRAIN DRAIN**

It is estimated that some 70,000 skilled professionals emigrate from Africa each year, leaving the continent with a huge human capacity gap. As a result of the brain drain, about US\$4 billion (35% of official development assistance to Africa), is spent annually to employ about 100,000 expatriates (African Development Bank, 2011).

The international migration of healthcare workers has contributed to the Human Resources for Health (HRH) crisis in many countries in sub-Saharan Africa. The flow of health professionals from low-income to high-income countries has received much attention over the past few decades, and is considered to be a significant contributor to the further weakening of already fragile health systems in the sending countries [Poppe *et al.*, 2014]. The 2006 World Health Report estimated a global shortfall of almost 4.3 million health personnel, with 57 countries (most in Africa and Asia) facing severe shortages (IOM, 2013b). Today, nearly all sub-Saharan African countries show increasing outflows of healthcare workers.

“Although precise data on the extent of the skills exodus is lacking, all the countries in the SADC region have expressed concern about the impact of an accelerating brain drain on economic growth and development and on the quality of service delivery in the public sector” (Mudungwe, 2014). Brain drain in the health sector has been identified as one of the most problematic issues in the region (Crush and Williams, 2010; Crush *et al.*, 2005). The emigration of health professionals (doctors and nurses) is particularly evident in the Southern African region, affecting especially countries like Mozambique (where 75% of trained physicians have left the country) and Angola (70%), but also Malawi (59%), Zambia (57%), Zimbabwe (51%) Lesotho (33%) and Swaziland (29%) (Clemens and Pettersson, 2007; ACP, 2011). This has serious implications in terms of delivering adequate health services to the local population and represents a concern for those African countries that do not, at the same time, attract highly skilled migrants (Gallina, 2010). The loss of health workers has had a negative impact on an already precarious health worker density in the Southern Africa region.

The World Bank estimates that one-third of Lesotho-born physicians have emigrated (Cobbe, 2012), while Ambrose (2005) asserts that over 80% of Basotho qualified doctors have left Lesotho, and some 75% of Basotho qualified doctors are working in South Africa. Ambrose (2005) further observes that the situation in the nursing profession is no better as over 70% of qualified Basotho nurses are working outside Lesotho – in countries such as the United Kingdom and United States, and South Africa.

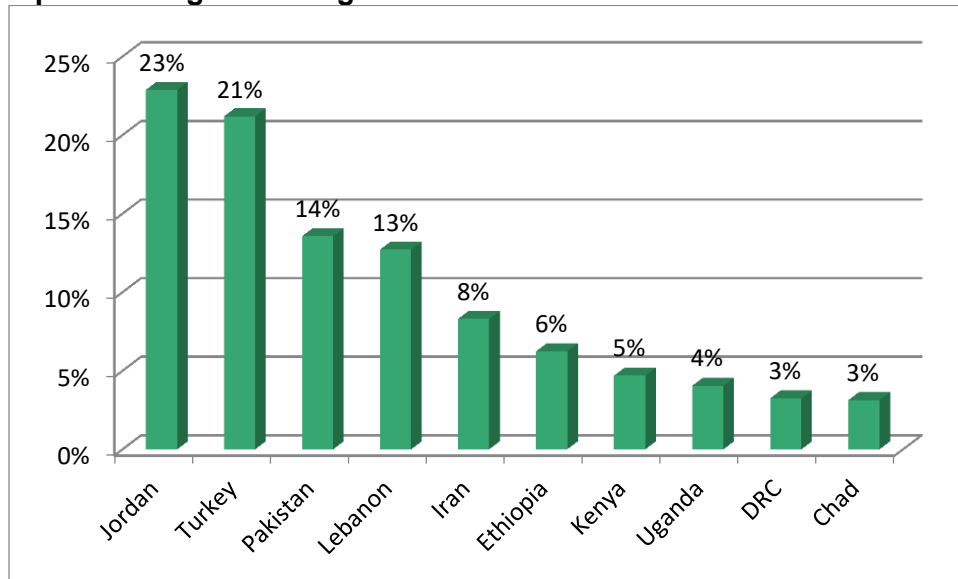
### 3.2.2. DE-SKILLING OF QUALIFIED PROFESSIONALS

However, some highly skilled migrants end up performing low skill jobs overseas due to their inability to secure a job in their area of expertise, which leads to brain waste/de-skilling (though paying higher wages than in countries of origin).

### 3.2.3. COST OF MEETING HUMANITARIAN OBLIGATIONS

According to Amnesty International, ten countries - which account for just 2.5 percent of the global economy - are hosting more than half (56%) of the world's refugees. Thus poorer nations bear the brunt of a worsening crisis.<sup>10</sup> African countries in the top 10 refugee hosting countries accounted for 21% of the refugees (Figure 3).

**Figure 3: Top Ten Refugee Hosting Countries**



Source: Amnesty International, <http://www.aljazeera.com/news/2016/10/ten-countries-host-world-refugees-report-161004042014076.html> (Retrieved 19 November 2016).

Countries like Ethiopia, Kenya, Uganda, DRC and Chad have had to deal with big numbers of refugees, and face challenges with providing for the increasing population of refugees, including challenges related to security, providing employment/livelihood opportunities, human trafficking, civil unrest (xenophobia) and pressures on the environment<sup>11</sup>

<sup>10</sup><http://www.aljazeera.com/news/2016/10/ten-countries-host-world-refugees-report-161004042014076.html> (Retrieved 19 November 2016)

<sup>11</sup><http://mgafrica.com/article/2016-12-21-refugees-in-africa-faced-bitter-disappointments-in-2016>

### **3.2.4. COST OF MANAGING BOUNDARIES AND SECURITY IMPLICATIONS OF MIGRATION**

Some of the externalities of irregular migration include threats to national/regional security and the cost of managing international boundaries, which in some cases may require joint cross-border operations of relevant security authorities of neighbouring countries. The continuation of irregular migration in different AU Member States is a concern for African governments. In North Africa, for example, during the early stages of the 'Arab Spring', many irregular migrants from SSA travelled through Tunisia and Algeria to access Europe. This brief period of instability led to the collapse of border management systems in certain regions. However, in the case of Tunisia, the authorities regained control of their borders making it difficult for migrants to travel through Tunisia. Egypt is still a major transit country for migrants bound for the Middle East. However, the government in October 2016 passed a policy targeting irregular flows through the country to curb migration to and through the country.

The rise of irregular migratory flows through Egypt and Algeria have had a negative impact in the countries in terms of security. Although there was a period when irregular migration was on the increase in Tunisia during the fall of President Ben Ali, the country managed to address the security challenges by taking certain measures with the support of EU states such as Italy.

### **3.2.5. MIGRATION AND HEALTH**

International migration can have a critical impact on disease outbreak dynamics and the spatial spread of infectious disease (Garcia et al., 2014). Conversely, disease outbreak can also trigger migration. For example, the Ebola outbreak in West Africa in December 2013 (specifically in Liberia, Guinea and Sierra Leone) had a similar effect. Migration within and across countries in West Africa was an important contributing factor to the explosive nature of the outbreak. Regional expansion of the outbreak to Senegal and Nigeria was associated with travel from affected regions. Fear of rapid Ebola spread across the continent and the globe precipitated border controls on movement to and from the affected countries (Council UNS, 2014). Border controls themselves, however, can have important negative impacts on the outbreak, preventing movement of urgently needed supplies and resources, prompting the United Nations Security Council to call for an end to the isolation of affected countries. This situation calls for the standardization of country-level disease control and treatment protocols to those at the continental level, and increased understanding of cultural and traditional risk factors within and between nations, delivery of culturally embedded public health education, and regional coordination and collaboration, particularly with governments and health ministries throughout Africa. This should be the same with other emerging threats and risks exposing public health vulnerabilities as a result of migration.

## **3.3 POLICY RESPONSE ON MIGRATION IN AFRICA**

In 2015, when migration and development became a primary Sustainable Development Goal (SDG), the global community began to readjust their focus and attention on some of the drivers of migration from Africa with the aim of addressing those negative drivers to reduce migratory flows especially to the EU states. With an exception of SDGs 6, 7, 12 and 13, the remaining thirteen have targets directly relevant to migrants and migration. An analysis by Taran (2016) provides details on the thirteen SDGs that link to migration. Proper integration of migrants has become a critical aspect of migration in fostering economic development and social cohesion.

Regional Economic Communities (RECs) as well as the African Union (AU) have stood out as platforms for multinational cooperation on migration and development within the respective sub-

regions. A number of initiatives and regional consultative processes have provided opportunities for information sharing, perspectives and experiences in addition to enhancing cooperation, dialogue and capacity building among governments (Adepoju, 2008). As part of AU's 2063 Agenda, there is a focus to introduce a single passport for Africa with the aim of easing movement of Africans and intra-African trade between Member States.

In recent years, many African governments have shown a growing interest and readiness to handle challenges related to migration as well as to better take advantage of the inherent development potential of migration. This is evidenced by the fact that some African countries have launched their national migration policies (for example, Ghana and Nigeria) while a number of countries have drafted migration policies (for example, Kenya, Uganda, Burkina Faso, Mali, Liberia, Niger, Senegal and Sierra Leone), and others are in the process of drafting or explicitly planning to develop a national migration policy. Similarly, a number of African governments have recognised the need to engage the Diaspora and this is illustrated by the formulation of diaspora policies, for example by Kenya, Uganda and Senegal among others. At REC level, IGAD is the only one so far with a regional migration policy framework that was adopted in 2012. Even though other RECs have not yet developed regional migration policies, they have protocols that guide the management of migration issues in the respective regions and there are efforts to revise the protocols to incorporate the emerging migration issues in the sub-regions. Almost all RECs emphasise free movement of persons and services within the sub-regions.

The endeavour to develop migration policies at national and regional level shows that African countries and RECs are aware of the importance of ensuring a concerted approach to migration issues. In terms of regional integration, the impact of migration flows needs to be considered carefully and several policy issues need to be addressed.



## 4. RESPONSES TO MIGRATION IN AFRICA: THE MIGRATION POLICY FRAMEWORK FOR AFRICA

The AU Commission and RECs have formulated or instituted a number of treaties, frameworks, and regional consultative processes that provide Member States with guidelines for managing migration and opportunities for enhancing cooperation, dialogue and capacity building on migration issues (Adepoju, 2008). In this respect, AU Commission adopted the Migration Policy Framework for Africa. This section of the report will explain how the RECs and Member States have used the framework to guide the design of their migration policies but also determine the extent by which they have mainstreamed migration and development into their development plans.

### 4.1. OVERVIEW OF THE MIGRATION POLICY FRAMEWORK FOR AFRICA

The MPFA is a result of discussions between Member States of the AU at national and regional level with a view to exploring innovative ways of effectively addressing migration related issues, and also harnessing the benefits of migration for development. It was developed with the purpose of guiding Member States and RECs on the elements that should be included in their national and regional migration policies as well as development plans.

The MPFA identifies 9 key thematic migration issues and provides a series of recommendations as indicated in Box 1. The framework also highlights other social impact of migration, including migration and health, environment, gender, and conflict among others, an indication that migration is multi-sectoral. The framework recognizes that migration issues are numerous, cross-cutting and complex, and therefore implementation of migration policies should be an evolving process involving multi-stakeholders and addressing both the issues and capacity gaps.

#### Box 1: The Migration Policy Framework for Africa

The MPFA identifies 9 key thematic migration issues and provides a comprehensive and integrated policy guidelines on each of them:

- Labour migration
- Border Management;
- Irregular Migration;
- Forced Displacement;
- Human Rights of Migrants;
- Internal Migration;
- Migration Data;
- Migration and Development; and
- Inter-State co-operation and partnerships.

The framework provides cross-cutting issues and priorities that Member States can focus on including:

- Upholding the humanitarian principles of migration
- Border management and security
- Promotion of regular and labour migration
- Integration of migrants in host communities
- Migration and development
- Capacity building
- Promotion of policy-relevant research and capacity on migration

Considering the identified priorities, Member States are encouraged to adopt the following broad decisions to properly manage migration:

- National laws and policies based on international and regional umbrella principles;
- A comprehensive approach to migration management;
- Involvement of different stakeholders;
- Promotion of inter-state and inter/intra-regional cooperation;
- Resolving conflicts whenever they arise by striking a balance between countries and

- harmonizing national laws and policies with international standards and norms;
- Working closely with IOM to foster inter-state dialogue and regional cooperation for effective migration and border management;
- Encouraging research to generate information; and
- Encouraging capacity building programmes.

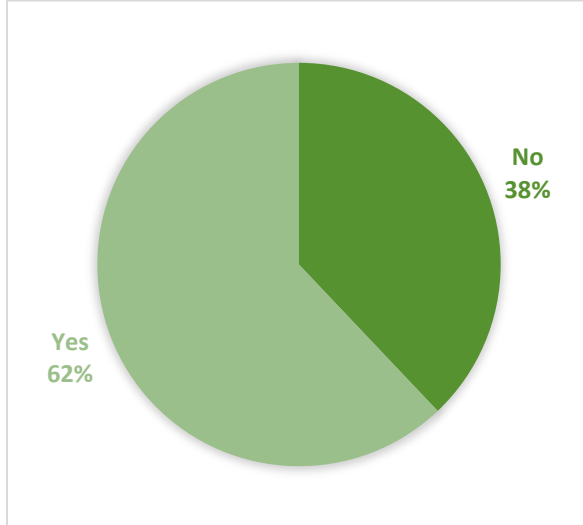
**Source:** Adopted from Klavert (2011)

The MPFA emphasises that Member States could implement the policy in accordance with their own priorities and resources, and that the framework does not envisage priorities or resource mobilisation mechanisms for implementation or evaluation mechanisms for the recommendations. States and regions are also urged to address their specific migration challenges and determine the resources needed to address them. Member States are encouraged to work with international organisations that provide technical assistance and support to states and RECs in implementing their migration frameworks. Despite having identified the key migratory issues in Africa, there are a range of challenges identified by researchers in the adoption and implementation of the MPFA in the various sub-regions.

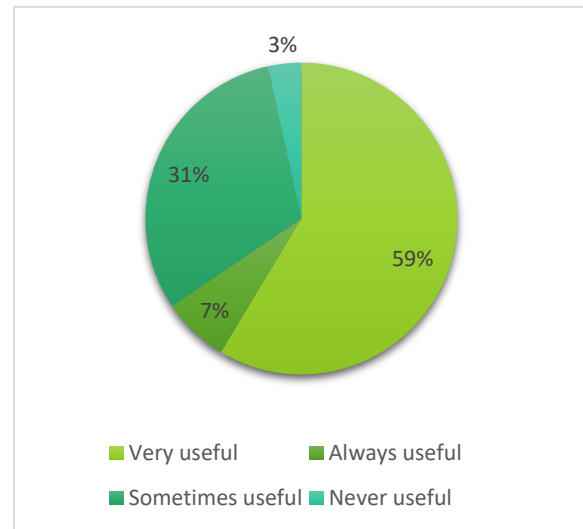
- the absence of an institutional mechanism that guides and monitors AU Member States' compliance with the framework;
- there is a lack of accountability from states failing to comply with the framework and even then, compliant countries can only do so without the necessary guidance from the continental body (Achiame and Landau, 2015);
- the framework also lacks evidence-based recommendations that would guide concrete policy initiatives geared towards ensuring the wellbeing and social integration of migrants and their hosts;
- The African Union (2006a) admits that the lack of political-will stands as one of the major challenges towards policy implementation that promotes access to markets, territories, and services for migrants. However, 10 years later, RECs and Member States have been working towards developing regional and national migration policies using the MPFA as a reference tool; and,
- The AU is cognizant of possible tensions between migrants and nationals, and urges Member States to strike a balance between the rights of the two in accordance with international standards and norms (AU 2006a).

Interestingly, the responses from the study revealed that there were few respondents that were aware of the MPFA as illustrated in figure 4. As a principle guiding framework, there was limited sensitization at the national level and regular changes at governmental level meant that there was little institutional memory of the framework. Nonetheless, majority of the responses (17) revealed that the framework is a useful guiding document for influencing national policy design (see figure 5).

**Figure 4: Are you familiar with the MPFA? (N=28)**



**Figure 5: Usefulness of the MPFA (N=28)**



**Source:** Findings from the Process Evaluation Survey

Initially, the African Union had intended to develop an implementation mechanism for the MPFA. However, the proposal for an implementation mechanism was dropped to enable Member States and RECs to implement the relevant sections that related to their country situations. An implementation mechanism would provide Member States and RECs with different implementation strategies which they would contextualise to their situations. The lack of an implementation mechanism for the framework leaves the AU without any clear indications on the usefulness and effectiveness of the framework (Klavert, 2011). The flexible nature of the MPFA, however, makes it suitable for the diversity of migration circumstances in the various sub-regions. Achime and Landau (2015) applaud it as a valuable normative framework, which can enhance movement of people within Africa and improve their basic protections when in their destinations or during transit.

## **4.2. INTEGRATING THE MPFA INTO REGIONAL MIGRATION POLICIES**

### **4.2.1. THE INTER-GOVERNMENTAL AUTHORITY FOR DEVELOPMENT**

At a regional level, the Inter-Governmental Authority for Development (IGAD) "blazes the trail" by being the first African REC to prepare a Regional Migration Policy Framework, called hereinafter IGAD-RMPF" (Key informant interview). Guided and informed by the MPFA (2006), this regional policy document was adopted by the 45th Ordinary session of the IGAD Council of Ministers in July 2012 in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

The adoption of the IGAD-RMPF reaffirms the commitment of Member States to develop and implement national and regional migration policy measures specific to their context, priorities and resources. Moreover, the framework provides a coherent strategy aimed at guiding IGAD in migration management programmes aligned with its mandate and priorities. Furthermore, the steps taken and lessons learned from the experience would be useful for other RECs that are at different stages of the process.

Like its continental predecessor (the MPFA), the IGAD-RMPF is " a comprehensive and integrated reference document that is non-binding in nature, scope and content". The IGAD-RMPF serves to provide the necessary guidelines and principles as well as "a broad range of recommendations on various migration issues" so that Member States can adopt and implement their own migration policies borrowing "elements as they deem fit, appropriate and applicable to their country specific migration challenges and situations" (MPFA, 2012:2).

Thematically, IGAD-RMPF includes the migration issues and elements incorporated under the MPFA. It specifically recommends strategies to be adopted in addressing specific migration issues in IGAD through the IGAD Secretariat, Member States and other stakeholders in migration management. These migration issues and elements include: Labour migration, Border management, Irregular migration, Forced displacement, Internal migration, Migration data, Migration and development, and Inter-state and Inter-regional cooperation. In addition to these main thematic areas, the IGAD-RMPF takes into consideration a number of other social and economic issues linking migration to health, education and human resources, nomadic pastoralism, culture, tourism, trade, human security and social protection.

In terms of strategy, the IGAD-RMPF covers a wide-range of measures for strengthening the legal, institutional and policy frameworks for managing migration in the IGAD region. It also aims for the development of “a common strategy for implementing migration policy among IGAD Member States that reflects harmonization of laws, standards, procedures, information dissemination and sharing; compilation of statistics; production of documents, and efficient use of resources” (IGAD, 2012:55).

Moreover, the IGAD-RMPF has some features that make it specific and relevant to the region.

- It identifies overarching and cross-cutting pertinent issues that include: national and international security and stability, and migration in relation to poverty and development, and gender;
- It acknowledges that all Member States have experienced migration as a source, transit and destination point in the flow of migrants;
- It places particular focus on regional specific concerns such as mixed migration, pastoralism, human security and internal displacement due to political instability that have been experienced by the Member States;
- It considers overlapping membership to various RECs by Member States in the region (COMESA, EAC); and
- It comprises Member States with relatively homogenous physical and human attributes.

The development of the IGAD-RMPF is a step forward towards the implementation of the continental MPFA. Besides, IGAD has developed a Migration Action Plan that sets out implementation, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms operationalizing the MPFA and IGAD-RMPF. IGAD is making progress towards implementation of the RMPF through its Regional Migration Coordination Committee and the Regional Consultative Process (RCP). One further and recent measure that would facilitate implementation of migration policies is the establishment of Ministerial Sectoral Committee on Migration by the Ministerial Meeting held in Kampala on 10 November 2016 following the technical RCP meetings held the previous two days. The Sectoral Ministerial Committee on Migration was established with a view to strengthening the IGAD institutional framework to implement, monitor and evaluate the IGAD-RMPF. The establishment of the Ministerial Sectoral Committee on Migration is also a policy implementation measure that enhances the migration governance capacity of IGAD.

The IGAD-RMPF cascades to the national level, with IGAD supporting the establishment of national coordination mechanisms the purpose of which is to assist Member States to develop comprehensive migration policies and implementation mechanisms.

#### **4.2.2. THE EAST AFRICAN COMMUNITY**

The East Africa Community is guided by the Treaty signed by Member States and came into force in 2000. In 2005 and 2009, the Member States signed the customs union and common market protocol respectively. Additional to the common market protocol and customs union, the EAC plans to introduce a common monetary union and political federation. All these are in relation to migration opportunities such as the free movement of persons, increased legal labour migration and remittances. Common market is legal and binding to a deeper and stronger functional integration by Member States to remove all trade barriers on goods and services and liberalise the movement of the factors of production amongst themselves. The EAC implements the Treaty through its strategic plan and vision 2050. They are both clear on migration issues in the community.

Article 104 of the Treaty provides for Free movement of persons, Labour Services, Right of Establishment and Residence. The scope of the article stipulates “Partner States agree to adopt measures to achieve the free movement of persons, labour and services and to ensure the enjoyment of the right of establishment and residence of their citizens within the community” (Kanyangoga, 2010:2). This will be achieved by easing border crossing by citizens of the Partner States as well as harmonizing and maintaining common employment/labour policies, programmes and legislation. Although the EAC has developed legal mechanisms to manage migration flows from Member States, it is unclear whether the MPFA has played in shaping the REC’s approach to migration and development as very few documents reference the framework and link the regional approach to managing labour migration. One of the challenges highlighted by Achiume and Landau (2012) is the fact that the framework is non-binding meaning that “Member States cannot be held accountable within these frameworks, and even those states committed to implementing the frameworks must do so without much-needed guidance and support at the level of the AU” (2012:3). This makes it difficult for the AU to determine the usefulness of the framework at regional level.

#### **4.2.3. THE COMMON MARKET FOR EASTERN AND SOUTHERN AFRICA**

The two main policies that have been driving migration management in the COMESA region are the *Visa Protocol* (1984) and the *Protocol on the Free Movement of Persons, Services, Labour and the Right of Establishment and Residence* (2001). The COMESA key informant indicated that the MPFA has been operating as a model for revising the existing protocols in place. According to the COMESA key informant, the MPFA has not yet been mainstreamed in the REC development plan. He adds that although he had observed very little mainstreaming of the MPFA indicating the lack of awareness about the MPFA, he added that “there is a need to develop and circulate an implementation framework to guide the implementation stage as soon as the MPFA will be revised....the RECs and its Member States need human resources, financial and infrastructure capacities in order for them to adopt and implement the MPFA (COMESA, Key Informant). Member states have taken effective steps to address the migration question by setting up the National Monitoring Committees (NMC) in Zambia and Zimbabwe that will implement the COMESA Protocol on free movement. Therefore, an implementation framework will guide RECs to some strategies of mainstreaming the MPFA into the regional framework and examples from other practices in other regions will help RECs to think more broadly on a number of approaches that guarantee the design and implementation of their own regional migration policy.

#### **4.2.4. THE SOUTHERN AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT COMMUNITY**

SADC already had in place the *Protocol on the Facilitation of Movement of Persons* (2005) which seeks to aims to meet the objectives of the SADC treaty (2001) which calls for the development of policies aimed at: “the progressive elimination of obstacles to free movement of

capital and labour, goods and services, and of the people of the region generally, among Member States” (SADC Website: <http://www.sadc.int/about-sadc/overview/sadc-common-agenda>). This policy was developed to reflect, contribute to, and refine existing legal frameworks at regional, bilateral and national level, and international and regional legal instruments and obligations relating to migration and labour.

The SADC protocol remains the most controversial, more so because it has changed complexion twice. Within the decade 1995-2005, the protocol changed from being a “free movement” of persons (FMOP) idea embroiled in a gridlock, giving way to the draft protocol on “facilitation of movement” of persons (FMOP).

SADC’s attempts to bring about free movement have encountered problems. An initial Protocol on Free Movement from 1997 was withdrawn, revised several times following objections, mainly from South Africa, and finally signed in 2005. It allows for visa-free entry for up to 90 days and authorizes permanent and temporary residence. Only five Member States (Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Swaziland and South Africa) have ratified the Protocol.

According to a key informant response concerning the MPFA, stated that;

*“SADC does not have a regional migration policy framework. Individual Member States follow their own laws to manage migration. However, there are protocols and action plans that have been put in place. These include the protocol on the Facilitation of Movement of Person in SADC which is yet to be ratified by the required minimum of two thirds of the member states”.*

**Key Informant, SADC, Botswana**

The SADC respondent argued that although the protocol was not informed and guided by the MPFA, the priority areas of the framework have been useful to SADC in terms of managing migration. However, there is need for “clarity in terms of definition of roles and terms of engagement at the national, regional and continental levels” (Key informant, SADC Official). The challenge facing SADC is the fact that there is no official regional policy in place but they have protocols in place that are influenced by the MPFA indicating that the framework is a key guiding document for the SADC Member States. This is illustrated by the draft Labour Migration Policy (2013) which is guided by the MPFA outlining the RECs approach to managing labour migration with the Member States. The draft policy recognises the MPFA as a key document that sharpens the RECs approach to labour migration under the Migration Dialogue for Southern Africa (2013:5).

#### **4.2.5. ECONOMIC COMMUNITY FOR WEST AFRICAN STATES**

ECOWAS like other RECs have had protocols and frameworks that have been used to manage migration within the region prior to the MPFA. The main strategic framework regulating migration in West Africa is the ECOWAS Protocol on Free Movement of Persons, Residence and Establishment within the region that was signed four years after the establishment of the Community in 1979. The Protocol stipulates the right of Community citizens to enter, reside, and establish businesses in Member States, to be granted over a transitional period of 15 years through three phases. Phase I eliminated the need for visas for stays of up to 90 days in ECOWAS Member States by Community citizens. Phase II regulated Community citizens’ right of residence on Community territory for seeking and taking up paid employment. Phase III aims at facilitating the establishment of businesses through the right of Community citizens to carry out economic activities in other ECOWAS Member States. The protocol was further complemented by four supplementary protocols (1985, 1986, 1989 and 1990) with a view to operationalising the three phases. Phase I came into force in 1980 with the ratification of the 1979 Protocol by all Member States, while Phase II came into force in 1986. Phase III has not

yet been implemented.

In addition, in 1985, the Decision on the Establishment of a Travel Certificate for ECOWAS Member States' was adopted. Furthermore, in 1990, the Decision on the Introduction of a Harmonized Immigration and Emigration Form in ECOWAS Member States was adopted. This sets the requirement for ECOWAS Member States to establish a harmonised immigration and emigration form. The 2008 ECOWAS Common Approach on Migration (2008) is also key in guiding how Member States handle migration issues.

While the right of entry and abolition of visa requirements for a 90-day stay have been implemented in all the ECOWAS member countries, there is less progress on the right of residence, right of establishment and access to employment. The Community is planning for the revision of the ECOWAS Protocols relating to the Free Movement. The development of a regional migration policy is planned based on the conviction that a strong regulatory framework on migration will help to overcome the challenges in the implementation of the 1979 Protocol relating to the Free Movement of Persons and the Rights of Residency and Establishment and its supplementary protocols. This initiative aims to take Member States to the next level of migration governance through the development of the regional migration policy (Elumelu, 2015). The MPFA is a key guiding document that will help shape discussions and the design of the regional migration policy especially since it has influenced the design of the national migration policies of Ghana and Nigeria. Other Member States with NMPs include Burkina Faso, Liberia, Mali and Niger, whereas the rest are at different stages of the process. In other countries, migration policies are based on strategic documents that only address parts of migration, which results in an unbalanced approach that may neglect key migration aspects (ICMPD & IOM, 2015).

#### **4.2.6. THE ECONOMIC COMMUNITY OF CENTRAL AFRICAN STATES**

The Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS) has some measures facilitating the free movement of ECCAS citizens in place although free movement and establishment have not been a priority for ECCAS Member States (IOM, 2016). ECCAS held a high-level meeting to discuss migration issues in 2013. They came up with a draft regional migration policy though there is little evidence of implementation. Although there exist migration policies in the ECCAS region, it is difficult to make a direct correlation between the MPFA and these policies.

#### **4.2.7. ARAB MAGHREB UNION**

In the case of the AMU, although they are Member States of the AU and share interest in addressing migration issues affecting their nations and region, there is limited evidence that illustrates that the MPFA has been a key guiding document for their national and regional approach to migration issues. AMU Member States such as Algeria and Egypt have been closely engaging with EU Member States to address irregular flows of migration and within the region, the Member States have been outlining strategic approaches to effective migration management. This includes agreements between neighbouring states related to regular labour migration. s.

North African states have been focusing more on collaboration with the EU rather than the AU making it difficult for the MPFA to be used as a principle guiding tool for designing the RECs approach to migration. Existing collaborations have been between AMU and EU in relation to security related to migration. Collaboration between UMA and AU is key and interviews from the field revealed that relations between the two are weak. In addition, Morocco's long term absence from the AU made it difficult for UMA and AU to collaborate as Morocco hosts the UMA. However, with Morocco re-joining in February 2017, this presents an opportunity for the UMA and AU to strengthen relations and collaborate especially in terms of developing a regional

approach to migration and development and creating awareness about the MPFA and how it shape the regional approach to migration in North Africa.

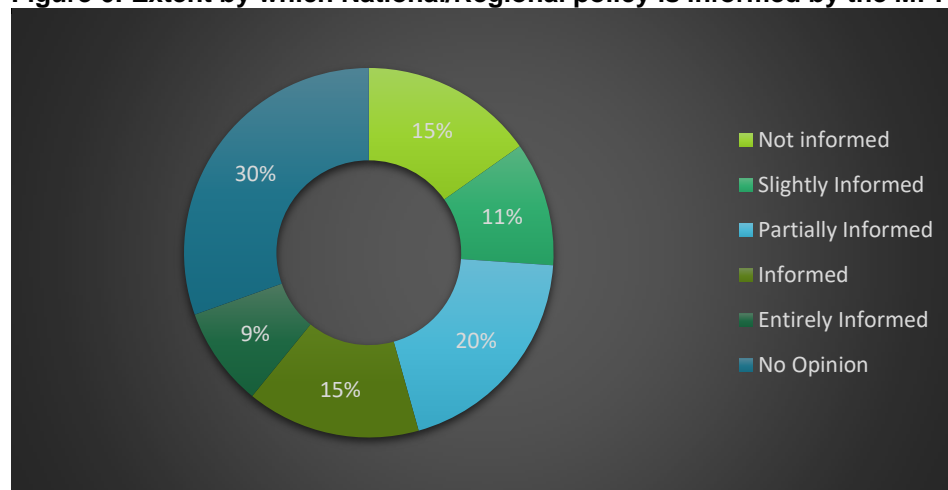
### 4.3. INTEGRATION OF THE MPFA INTO NATIONAL POLICIES

Nearly all the continent’s RECs have attempted to incorporate migration and development in their regional development plans through the adoption of protocols on the free movement of persons and labour, as well as right of residence and right of establishment.

In general, there are a few countries within Africa that have already developed and launched national migration policies such as Ghana and Nigeria, while a number of Member States are currently at different stages of the process. Government focal points have been nominated to lead the migration coordination mechanism that allows all relevant migration stakeholders to discuss migration matters in the same space from different perspectives. These coordination mechanisms are a recommendation from the MPFA that seeks to forge synergies and eliminate duplication in the management of migration among different ministries and departments as well as non-state actors.

Member States have recognised that migration is a potential asset for development but they are also aware of the challenges of migration and the impact it can have on a country especially in terms of security. The MPFA is meant to ensure that Member States have placed certain measures that would potentially minimize these challenges. The recommendations made in the MPFA were meant to ensure that Member States adopt appropriate international conventions and protocols but also have the appropriate mechanisms in place to effectively manage migration. From the responses in the study, 54% indicated that the national policies have been at least slightly influenced by the MPFA with 9% indicated that the national policies were entirely informed by the MPFA (see figure 6).

**Figure 6: Extent by which National/Regional policy is informed by the MPFA (N=46)**



**Source:** Performance Evaluation Survey Responses

The 9 priorities of migration outlined in the MPFA have been used by some AU Member States as guiding principles to identify their policy needs and responses to different forms of migration. The discussion in this section will outline how different Member States have adopted recommendations for specific priorities, namely, labour migration, human rights of migration, migration data, migration and development as well as inter-state cooperation and partnership. Although these priorities are equally important like the rest, the fieldwork responses to these thematic areas will help gain a better understanding of how the MPFA has been used to influence policy design at national level.



### 4.3.1. LABOUR MIGRATION

According to the MPFA, “establishing regular, transparent and comprehensive labour migration policies, legislation and structure at the national and regional levels can result in significant benefits for States of origin and destination” (MPFA, 2006:7). Labour migration is prominent across Africa from internal, regional and international migration. International and regional conventions and protocols are needed to protect the rights of migrants but also ensure that their movements are regular and transparent. The beneficiaries of a well-managed labour migration process would be the country of origin and host as well as the migrants and their families.

The MPFA recommends the need for Member States to incorporate the ILO Conventions No.97 and No.143 and the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families into national legislation. As table 4 below illustrates, some countries have signed and ratified these conventions, whereas others have just signed/ratified and have yet to ratify/sign.

**Table 4: Member States that have Signed International Conventions on Labour Migration**

Convention	Signed	Ratified
ILO Convention No.97	Algeria, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Kenya, Madagascar, Mali, Mauritius, Nigeria, Tanzania and Zambia	Algeria, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Kenya, Madagascar, Mali, Mauritius, Nigeria, Tanzania and Zambia
ILO Convention No. 143	Benin, Cameroon, Kenya, Burkina Faso, Guinea, Togo and Uganda	Benin, Cameroon, Kenya, Burkina Faso, Guinea, Togo and Uganda
International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families	Burkina Faso, Ghana, Lesotho, Madagascar, Morocco, Benin Mozambique, Cameroon, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Gabon, Guinea Bissau, Liberia, Sierra Leone and Togo	Burkina Faso, Ghana, Lesotho, Madagascar, Morocco, Algeria, Mozambique, Cape Verde, Egypt, Guinea, Libya, Mauritania, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles and Uganda

**Source:** ILO Website: <http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12001:::NO::>

In Ghana, for example, their National Migration Policy (2016) goal is to promote the benefits and minimize the costs of internal and international migration through legal means with the rights and security of migrants well-respected to ensure socio-economic development in Ghana. The main objective of the national migration policy is to promote a comprehensive and sustainable approach to migration management which will enhance the potential of migration for Ghana’s development. The Ghana migration policy was guided by a host of principles from the MPFA which included the protection of migrant rights, facilitation of migrants’ equality, adherence to the 1992 Constitution of Ghana which guaranteed the rights of Ghanaians to migrate as well as the right of all persons to move freely within the country. The responsibility for migration management will be assigned to the Inter-Ministerial Steering Committee on Migration (IMSCM) under the leadership of the Ministry of Interior. Once this is set up, the government aims to set up the Ghana National Commission on Migration (GNCM) to implement the actions set out in the NMP (Government of Ghana, 2016).

The Nigerian NMP (2015) also influenced by the MPFA, recognises the need for a national labour market assessment, to regulate and monitor the activities of private employment agencies, and aims at limiting the promotion of employment abroad to sectors of the economy where migration does not impede national economic and social development. It also envisages measures to protect migrant workers before their departure and in the various countries of destination. In 2013, Nigeria finalized the labour migration policy which provides comprehensive guidelines on labour emigration, recognises the need for a national labour market assessment and calls for the protection of migrant workers among others.

### 4.3.2. IRREGULAR MIGRATION

At national level, countries have taken measures to ensure that policies related to irregular migration are in place to address human trafficking identified in their respective countries

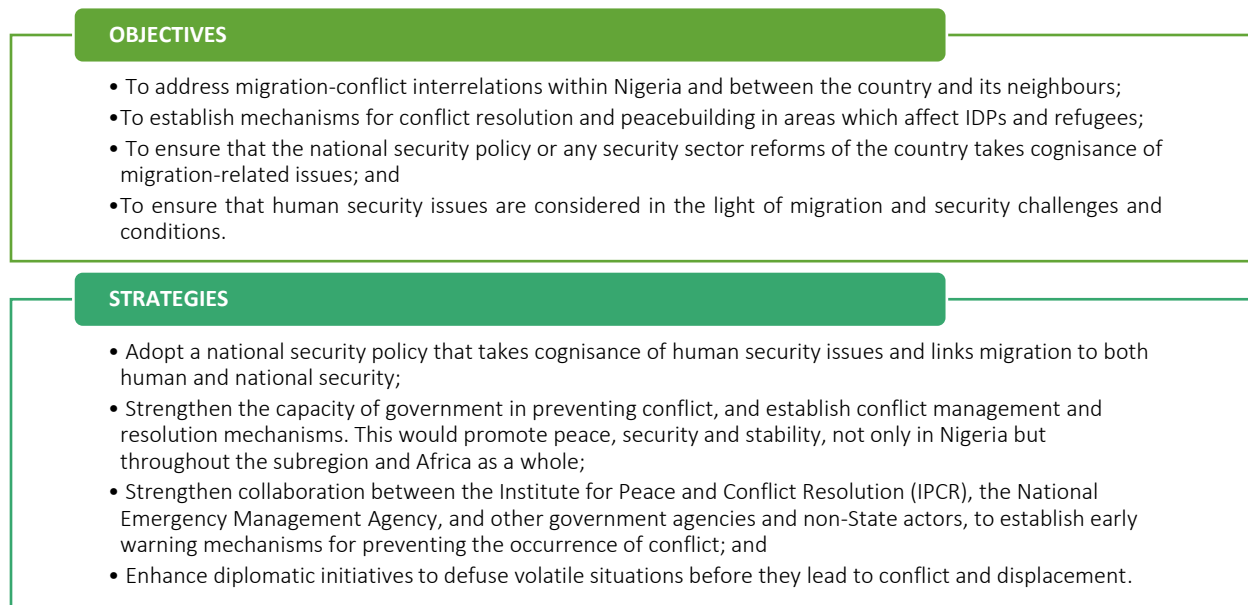
including developing national laws addressing human trafficking. Their laws have adhered to the guiding principles outlined in the MPFA especially in terms of “reinforce[ing] national policy, structures and laws in order to establish a coordinated and integrated approach” (MPFA, 2006:17) to addressing human trafficking. This has also been backed up by capacity building activities with law enforcement on how to identify a victim of human trafficking. The establishment of Human Trafficking Taskforces that are assigned the duty of coordinating efforts to combat human trafficking has been a step in the right direction as it has created a platform where key representatives from different government ministries can discuss measures and approaches of addressing human trafficking cases. Through these taskforces, action plans have been developed to respond to the existing human trafficking situation. Djibouti has an action plan from 2014 – 2020 that aims to strengthen the legislative framework to combat human trafficking, protect and assist human trafficking victims, and establish a national referral mechanism between law enforcement officials and social service providers (US Department of Labour, Report on the Worst Forms of Child Labour, Djibouti, 2015).

North Africa has faced a constant challenge of addressing irregular migration. Recently, the Government of Egypt developed its National Strategy on Combating Illegal Migration (2016-2026) guided by the MPFA. Under the leadership of the National Committee for Combating and Preventing Illegal Migration (NCCPIM), one of the objectives is to contribute to the development of a comprehensive policy on illegal migration. The formation of this strategy was in response to the recently passed anti-human smuggling law which, according to the Chairperson of the NCCPIM, Ambassador Naela Gabr, “the law does not criminalise irregular migrants, does not distinguish between Egyptians and non-Egyptians, and foresees Egypt’s protection in line with the country’s international obligations” (IOM, 2016). This indicates that Member States are taking different measures to address irregular migration in their countries and may have addressed this recommendation by the MPFA.

Some Member States have embraced partnerships with EU Member States and/or the EU to address migration concerns in their countries, for instance, Zambia launched new tools to protect vulnerable migrants in 2014 at a National Symposium on Human Trafficking. This was in cooperation with the UN country team and with the support of the EU and IOM. The tools, which were developed by IOM, UNICEF and UNHCR, together with government and civil society counterparts, include mechanisms for the identification, protection and referral of the most vulnerable people on the move.

Human security has been tied with discussions related to irregular migration as the potential cause of conflict at the borders in relation to migration. This could influence the relations between Member States. Nigeria’s NMP outlines objectives and strategies (figure 7) to handle human security which illustrates a need to understand potential migration-conflict relations, to develop certain measures that are targeted at addressing such conflict and the need to build the capacities of the personnel that would be assigned to handle such matters (IOM, 2015:33).

**Figure 7: Nigeria National Migration Policy Objective and Strategies on Human Security**

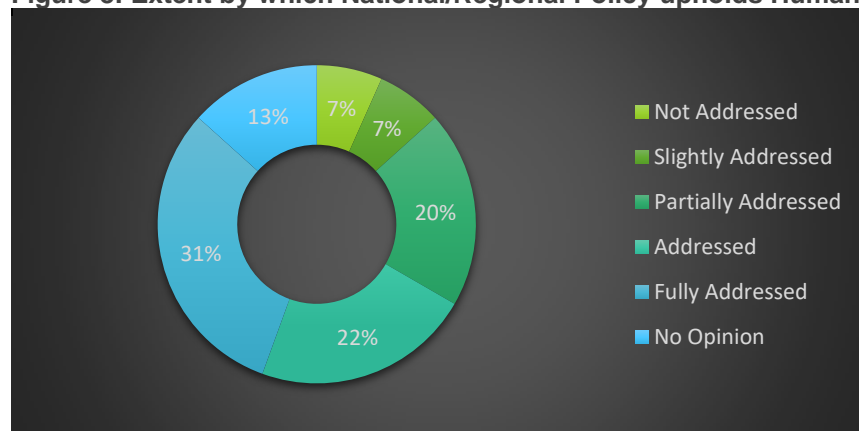


Source: Nigerian Migration Policy (2015)

### 4.3.3. FORCED DISPLACEMENT

Forced displacement is a big challenge experienced more so in Eastern and Central Africa. The largest refugee camps are located in Uganda, Ethiopia and Kenya catering to some of the unstable countries in the region (i.e. South Sudan and Somalia). The state of internal displacement is a bigger concern as a number of Member States have a significant population that are internally displaced. Handling forced displacement is a delicate issue as there are humanitarian principles that need to be upheld. Through international and regional conventions, Member States are able to ensure that the rights of those displaced are protected. In terms of the survey responses, as illustrated in figure 8 below, 73% of the respondents felt that their national/regional policies either partially or fully upheld the humanitarian principles in line with the framework.

**Figure 8: Extent by which National/Regional Policy upholds Humanitarian Principles**



Source: Performance Evaluation Survey Responses

The MPFA recommended a few strategies that would strengthen the approach to refugee management in Member States, even for those countries that already have a refugee policy. Some of the recommendations included capacity building of law enforcement officials that are the first point of contact for the refugees (immigration officers, customs and police) to ensure that the appropriate screening is done. Focal points within the ministries must be identified but also contingency plans should be developed in the event the countries receive a massive influx of refugees and asylum seekers and help them prepare for that eventuality. Collaboration with civil society to increase local protection capacities who will provide the necessary advice and support for refugees and counter xenophobia. Furthermore, Member States need to engage the public through awareness campaigns on the plight of refugees to counter any xenophobic tendencies.

Uganda has been lauded as having the most progressing refugee policy. The Office of the Prime Minister also hosts the Department of Refugee Affairs (DRA) that leads on refugee related matters within the country along with its international and local partners as well as the local community that hosts refugees in northern Uganda. Although the government of Uganda has been commended for its progressive efforts in handling refugee affairs, they face challenges especially with the rise in refugees. According to the Refugee Protection Officer, Uganda currently hosts 800,000 refugees, mostly from South Sudan but also from Ethiopia, Eritrea, Central African Republic and Burundi. The Refugee Protection Officer raised a concern regarding sharing the burden of refugees with other AU Member States. He stated that if:

*“rich countries in Africa that have money and are not hosting refugees....Can't the AU mobilize them to provide financial support through the UN or the government to cope with the burden of refugees”.*

**Key Informant Interview, Refugee Protection Officer, Uganda**

Bilateral cooperation among Member States with the assistance of the AU to provide financial assistance and support to refugee hosting countries would help in refugees management

Uganda is also actively engaging international and local NGOs and CSOs when working with displaced communities. CSOs operating on the ground in Uganda, especially in refugee hosting communities are well informed about the needs of their community as they constantly engage with them. Access to information has not been a challenge to them, but they lack adequate funding as they are reliant on donors. They have capacity needs which reduces their level of contribution. Furthermore, they are not involved in some of the key working groups handling migration matters which will allow them to interact with government officials at a policy level. Despite all this:

*“the framework is really good as it covers all aspects that need to be there to have a good framework...the challenge is operationalising it...commitment by the government that needs to put in place resources to ensure it is operational”.*

**Key Informant Interview, NGO, Uganda**

In other words, the framework needs to be put to good use for it to be viewed at a ministerial level as a useful framework.

Ethiopia, on the other hand, has developed the “out of camp policy” for refugees from Eritrea implemented in 2010 which enables refugees to live out of camp if they can finance themselves (RMMS, 2015). In response to human rights violations against Ethiopian migrants in the Middle East and Gulf states, the government of Ethiopia imposed a temporary ban on overseas labour recruitment between October 2013 and mid-2015 (RMMS, 2016a). A new legislation was introduced with the aim of safeguarding the fundamental rights and dignity of Ethiopian workers

in East and Gulf states. Ethiopia additionally has adopted international and national legislation and migration policy that are in line with the MPFA's. The international legislations call for the protection of human rights, assisting internally displaced persons, eliminating discrimination and national legislations that protect refugees including favourable labour laws (RMMS, 2015). Ethiopia also has bilateral border policy agreement with countries such as Kenya, which allows for free crossing of citizens without visas.

In terms of internal displacement, one of the primary guiding tools is the United Nations Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement and the Kampala Convention (2009). These are non-binding but are principles that are meant to be mainstreamed into national policy. Kenya is yet to sign and ratify the Kampala Convention, but it has passed the Prevention, Protection and Assistance to IDPs and Affected Communities Act (2012) which will be guided by the National Consultative Coordination Committee (NCCC), which meets one of the recommendations from the MPFA.

#### **4.3.4. DIASPORA AND RETURN MIGRATION**

The contribution of the diaspora to national development has been recognised by their governments. The development of a diaspora policy that outlines the positive contribution by the diaspora in terms of financial and social remittances to their country is a target that governments hope to achieve.

Diaspora engagement has been encouraged in many Member States especially in relation to national development. In Cameroon, the government developed a policy framework to address the country's migration management challenges through the 1997 Act No. 97/012. The Act sets out the conditions for the entry, stay and return of foreigners in Cameroon. A review of the migration management policy framework has been under way since 2008, with respect to security policy, the transfer of migrant funds, issues concerning the diaspora (transfer of skills), return policies, the brain drain and the irregular migration phenomenon (Mberu & Pongou, 2012). Both the new national migration policy and the programmes being drafted prioritize support for co-development. Despite systemic policy implementation failures of government institutions and the lack of financial resources (Mberu & Pongou, 2012), the policy focus on creating incentives is consistent with the new resolve to both reach out and harness the country's diaspora and its human and financial investment capacity for the development of the nation.

However, another stance adopted in other Member States is to have a policy that encourages out-migration with the purpose of gaining skills and building bridges between the country of origin and country of destination with the aim of harnessing these connections for development. Tunisia, for instance, used to have a policy that encouraged nationals to migrate as well as monitor their nationals abroad. However, in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the influx of migrants from sub-Saharan Africa has required the government to adopt a policy to address migrants from these regions that may be transiting or looking for opportunities within the country. In 2011, the start of the Arab Spring, there was a revolution within the country that was in response to the migration policy that the government adopted addressing flows of asylum seekers from Libya and migrants heading to Europe via Tunisia. The revolution had a significant impact on the migration flows through Tunisia. First, it led to an increase in irregular movement through Tunisia due to the lack of border management. Second, with the collapse of the Gadhafi regime, the Tunisian government was faced with the task of reviewing its policy on asylum seekers as it began to receive immigrants from Libya in the form of refugees. Third, it increased the visibility and presence of civil society organisations who began to advocate for the rights of migrants.

Tunisia did not have a formal policy that effectively managed the emigration of its nationals. It established bilateral agreements with key countries in Europe based on labour migration needs of the EU states. Readmission agreements with Italy and France offered labour migrants the

opportunity to work in these countries. However, mismanagement of these agreements led to several challenges and irregular flows of migrants from Tunisia. In 2008, the Tunisian and French government signed an agreement that granted highly skilled Tunisians the opportunity to work in France in exchange for establishing strong border management controls for irregular migrants to France.

In the case of Uganda, in 2007, the President of Uganda issued a directive to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to develop strategies to strengthen its capacity to coordinate and manage Uganda's diaspora relations, thus leading to the development of Diaspora Policy. This policy aims to provide a framework for effective engagement with Ugandans in the Diaspora but also ways in using remittances for national development. IOM has supported government led initiatives as they

*“...worked with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs on diaspora issues on the return of qualified Ugandans to come and support back home. It's not running. We hope to revive it not just for return of qualified migrants, but to mobilize the diaspora for development. There is need for diaspora mapping”.*

**Key Informant Interview, NGO, Uganda**

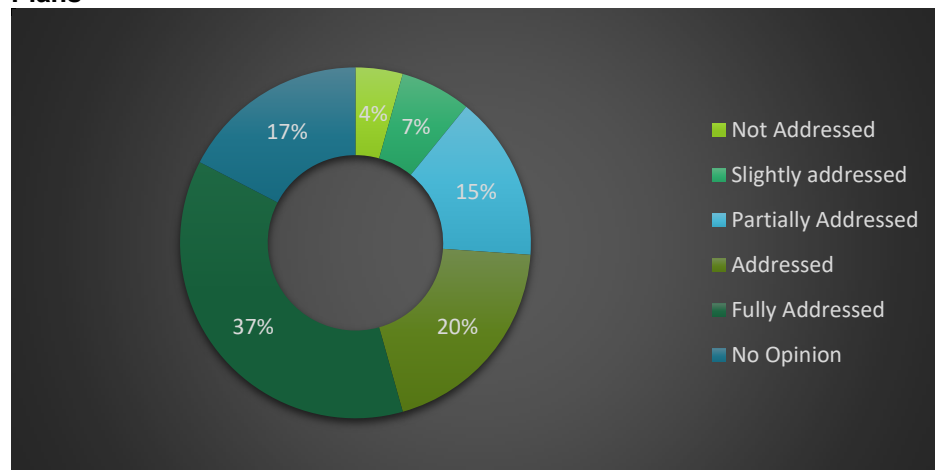
This positive relationship between the government and IOM could address pertinent issues. The fact that government is working in partnership with non-state and state actors on a number of migration issues illustrates a change in approach and perception in relation to migration. This is more so when looking at the link between migration and development.

#### **4.3.5. MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT**

Member States have developed visions or development plans in which migration has been recognised as a key tool to national development. A key recommendation from the MPFA was to “encourage Member States to integrate Migration and Development policies, particularly Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP) in their National Development Plans. [In addition] to development national plans of action aimed at comprehensive approaches to migration and development in order to contribute to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)” (MPFA, 2006:31). Ghana has managed to design its NMP against the backdrop of several policy frameworks including the Constitution of Ghana, Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS) 1 and 2, Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (2010-2013), and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). It is anchored within the context of the 2006 African Union (AU) Strategic Framework for Migration and the 2008 ECOWAS Common Approach on Migration (Government of Ghana, 2016:1-2). In 2016, migration and development have been identified as a target for 2030 under the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) which replaces the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

According to the survey responses, 37% of the responses agreed that migration has been mainstreamed into the national development plans as outlined in figure 9.

**Figure 9: Extent by which National/Regional Policy Mainstreamed Migration into Development Plans**



**Source:** Performance Evaluation Survey Responses

Uganda’s National Development Plan (NDP) II 2015-2020 promotes and upholds the rights of refugees through assistance to attain durable solutions and recognizes the presence of refugees in the planning. At present the government has also developed the Settlement Transformation Agenda (STA) which is a government led initiative including the NGO led initiative Refugee Host Empowerment Program (ReHOPE) which is a UN initiative under the UNDAF that aims to explore innovative development ideas and recognizing the needs of the refugees and displaced population. It will fall under the STA which focused on “refugee host areas, [addressing] environmental issues, livelihood and security [which] are the pillars of the STA and part of the ReHOPE project”<sup>12</sup>. Although some countries have development plans and visions, some of them require revisions to include the SDGs as well as respond to the current migration situation.

Partnerships and collaborations between Africa and EU institutions focusing on harnessing the potential of development through the diaspora also exist. The African Caribbean and Pacific Migration Observatory in partnership with IOM have been engaging African states on discussions on how to harness remittances for development. The establishment of the African Institute of Remittances (AIR) based in Nairobi, Kenya has meant there is a specific institution within Africa that can provide assistance and support to Member States on how to develop approaches whereby remittances can be designed to benefit national development.

However, countries such as Zambia have developed an alternate approach to working positively with their diaspora by initiating the Return of Qualified African Nationals (RQAN) program. In partnership with IOM, this program was a voluntary scheme that African nationals in Europe and the USA could benefit from if they wanted to return to the continent. Zambia was singled out as one of the target countries. The scheme was replaced by Migration for Development in Africa (MIDA), a partnership of the African Union, the African Development Bank and several sub-regional bodies such as ECOWAS, SADC and EAC (Amin and Mattoo, 2007). As such a

<sup>12</sup> Key informant interview.

number of countries have adopted different approaches to working with their diaspora towards national development.

#### **4.4. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS**

The responses from the study reveal that the framework is a relevant guiding document that RECs and Member States have referred to in terms of designing the national and regional approach to migration issues. Furthermore, Member States and RECs that have developed their national migration policies have referenced the MPFA as a key guiding document that shaped their policy. Key priorities such as labour migration, forced migration and migration development have showcased how the MPFA has helped to identify key issues that should be included in the national migration policy but also mainstreamed into national development plans. Nonetheless, the challenges that were identified were lack of sensitization around the framework especially where there have been changes made within the government ministry. Responses from the key informant interviews revealed that there is very little institutional memory on the framework especially where changes in government officials have taken place.



## **5. EMERGING ISSUES, CHALLENGES AND POTENTIAL OPPORTUNITIES**

---

Although the MPFA has been viewed as a useful guiding document at regional and national level as outlined in the previous section, there are some challenges that have been identified concerning the framework, and its relevance at regional and national level. These challenges should be looked at as opportunities for the Member States, RECs and AU to find an effective approach to migration at national, regional, and continental level.

### **5.1. EMERGING ISSUES AND CHALLENGES**

A couple of issues have emerged while countries are in the process of creating mechanisms for addressing migration in their countries. First and more importantly, the framework is out-dated and requires revisions to be able to reflect the current migration situation but also develop recommendations in response to the changing patterns, trends and characteristics of migration on the continent. For instance, the passing of the Kampala Convention (2009) that came into force in 2012 needs to be included in the framework to guide the RECs and Member States to shape their approach to handling internal displacement. In addition, the current situation concerning refugees in the region and across the globe is having an adverse effect on the way national governments can address the refugee situation. For instance, when the Government of Kenya announced the closure of Dadaab Refugee Camp in May 2016, it raised the issue concerning security but also how durable solutions can be achieved for countries that have produced refugees for decades such as Somalia.

A primary issue that emerged from the response was the limited continuous sensitization on the MPFA as some of the respondents of the study were unaware of the framework. Some countries are using the protocols and treaties developed at the regional level to handle migration issues and are not aware of the MPFA. Although the survey responses revealed that government officials were aware about the framework, interviews responses showed that there was little sensitization especially where government positions often change.

The need for data and research have been emphasized in a number of country reports. For example, there is growing evidence in support of the positive effects on trade (especially informal cross-border trade) between immigrants' host and home countries that needs to be explored through research. The major issue is the lack of reliable and up to date migration data and analysis about Africa, which continues to hinder informed policy making. A significant proportion of the intra-regional migratory movements are not recorded in official statistics produced by governments and international entities. A number of countries in Africa use old census data to analyse migration issues. Without up to date data, the governments are unable to identify trends of migration and effectively design policies to address any migration concerns that emerge.

Management of migration for development is beyond the capacity of any single country, especially given the fact that a lot goes on at the borders of different countries. Member States have not yet fully exploited their borders as potential resources for peace, security, stability, and for the greater integration and socioeconomic development of the continent. The *African Union Border Governance Strategy* is an instrument currently being developed to assist Member States to utilize their borders as vectors to promote peace, security, and development through the effective governance of borders and to facilitate the easy movement of people, goods, services and capital among Member States.

Bilateral, regional and multilateral partnerships between governments can significantly contribute to addressing many migration and development concerns, and strengthen the positive impact of the movement of people. Well governed migration is a benefit to both host and origin countries and therefore it is necessary to develop favourable migration policies taking into consideration concerns about security, being overwhelmed by irregular immigrants and foreign workers, and issues of national identities and socio-cultural dynamics.

Leveraging the development potential of the Diaspora is key for Africa's development. Some African countries are developing or have already developed Diaspora policies to strengthen their engagement. Different categories of the Diaspora play roles by committing their skills and knowledge to their countries of origin by sending remittances which stimulate development as well as influence poverty reduction. There is consensus that the Diaspora contribute enormously to the development of their home countries. This requires establishing positive communication between governments and the Diaspora in order to provide different stakeholders with a dynamic and interactive platform to re-engage and reconnect with each other. Diaspora-targeted initiatives have been successful in some countries across Africa such as Ghana and Ethiopia. The major reason behind the successes has been the commitment of governments in origin countries. The successful countries have moved positively to engage and develop favourable policies and legislations and to establish links and networks with their Diaspora. The governments of these countries have flourished in obtaining cooperation from the Diaspora by focusing on practical areas of collaboration directly related to development and humanitarian assistance.

There is a gap between countries' commitment and their actual technical capacity to handle migration issues, especially irregular migration. There is need to sustainably build African governments' capacities to foster regional mobility through migration management that contributes to individuals' and communities' social and economic developments.

Migrants in different African countries are mainly youth who are less than 30 years. It is important for countries, RECs, AU and other international organisations to explore how migration can take advantage of the demographic transitions and successfully integrate the youth in developmental activities. It is also important to carefully look at the human security of migrants, which mostly impacts on women and youth who are at high risk of exploitation and trafficking. Proper integration of migrants is a critical aspect of migration in fostering social cohesion and economic development.

Long, porous borders are problematic in many Member States as governments lack the manpower and resources to manage their borders. Member States must engage in the delimitation, demarcation and reaffirmation of their borders to address these challenges. In addition, it is important for Member States to develop cooperative border management – *cohesive government response to the challenges of border management through the cooperation of public authorities across sectoral and international boundaries towards a shared goal: to balance the easy and legal movement of humans and goods and the prevention of illegal activities, human and national insecurity through effective and efficient joint arrangements* (as defined by the AU Convention on Cross-border Cooperation) policies. Yet the management of borders requires financial and technical resources. There is a need to develop the capacities of Member States in all areas of border management – delimitation, demarcation and cross-border cooperation- in collaboration with relevant institutions. Managing the length of the borders requires considerable financial and technical resources. In addition, migrants in a mixed movement deserve food, water and shelter, legal advice and counselling, and information about their options, including return and the submission of asylum claims, as well as access to health care and other social services.

## **5.2. POTENTIAL OPPORTUNITIES**

Despite these challenges, there is evidence of political will to address migration challenges in Member States. There are several opportunities that Member States can take advantage of to ensure that they develop an effective approach to migration. The opportunities described below have been identified at regional and national level and will be linked to how the Member States can make full use of the framework in their discussions and design of their respective migration policies. But also for the AU to consider when designing an implementation plan for the MPFA that would be useful for the Member States

For the MPFA to reflect the present situation with migration at national and regional level, the policy should be revised to respond to the existing migration needs. Within a few RECs and Member States, they have disparate levels in the implementation of their national policy documents and in some cases, regional migration policies have not yet been validated and in others not even disclosed. However, the fact that there is at least political vision in a few RECs with respect to developing a regional migration policy, constitutes an opportunity to be seized by the partner states which could inspire them in the elaboration of their own vision in conformity with their respective regional policies. The AU should take advantage of this political will by Member States to emphasize the importance of the MPFA to approach migration and development at a national and regional level.

Consciousness about migration realities and the often-dynamic nature of migration can be raised and addressed as better prospects for capacity building can be created. These should be aimed at understanding and handling migration situations/issues. The AU should work closely with the RECs and national governments to capitalize on learning from other Member States on how the MPFA can be used to develop a policy or strategy to manage migration not only addressing the negative impact of migration but seeing migration as an asset for development. This will be helpful as a number of countries are source, transit and destinations countries for migrants though with varying levels.

Development of a common understanding/appreciation of what the wide-ranging migration issues will make way for the development of common strategies thereby paving way for policy coherence. This should also be considered when revising the policy, that is, highlighting different views on migration and recommending a number of strategies that can be used by the Member States. But also attainment of policy coherence will lead to effectiveness in the governance of migration through efficiency in management of resources and avoidance of conflicting objectives. Improvement in quality of migration data generated, collected, analysed and disseminated as uniform/more comparable information can be gathered across countries which will allow countries to make informed decisions based on evidence. Within the MPFA, there will be a need to outline recommendations for efficient migration management but also promoting the need for ongoing research to inform policy design and implementation.

Last but not least, the Diaspora have found entry points with the policy decision-makers of their respective countries. In some countries, this is attributed to pressure movements aimed at valorizing their contributions to the development of their countries. In addition, an increasing number of African governments have established diaspora focal departments with the specific mandate to engage the diaspora for development. However, there remains a lack of technical capacity in terms of developing the appropriate strategies and actions necessary to translate this commitment into tangible development outcomes. Technical partnerships between origin country governments and specialized agencies such as the IOM and others can help strengthen

diaspora engagement policies and programmes, and achieve more integrated participation of the diaspora in national development.

Furthermore, the civil society is an important factor in addressing migration concerns especially with regards to forced displacement and national development. The civil society will be able to ensure community buy-in on national approaches to development but also provide the necessary support especially in situations where there is a mass influx of refugees and asylum seekers. Civil societies need support and if partnerships between them and the government can be used to mobilize contributions from various technical and financial partners to implement projects aimed at: combating illegal migration, mobilizing the diaspora towards development, assistance for the return and reintegration of the diaspora, cities' construction to encourage voluntary returns among others. The MPFA could work closely with the diaspora and the civil society to identify solutions or recommendations of how the government can harness effective working relations with them with the aim of contributing to national development. The experiences and knowledge of these two groups will contribute greatly to revisions to the MPFA not only in design but also implementation.

## **6. RECOMMENDATIONS AND WAY FORWARD**

---

A number of overlapping recommendations apply at regional and national levels, which are based on the analysis of the findings, and from respondents that participated in this evaluation. Through the existing coordination mechanism (such as the NCM), governments will be able to address some of the challenges they face at the policy level as these mechanisms include all the relevant actors that have a say in the formulation of the national and regional policies on migration. The recommendations and way forward are developed within the context of a 10-year strategy for implementation of the MPFA that the AU aims to formulate and adopt. The recommendations are outlined in terms of short, medium and long-term goal. It should be noted that some of the short-term recommendations may overlap to the medium and long term.

### **6.1. SHORT TERM GOALS (WITHIN ONE YEAR)**

In the first three months, revisions to the MPFA need to be made to reflect the changes that have taken place over the past 10 years. These include, but are not limited to:

- Inclusion of migration aspects in the SDGs and Agenda 2063;
- Inclusion of emerging issues such as migration and security on the continent; and
- Encouraging Member States to adopt relevant regional and continental conventions and protocols that relate to migration, including the Kampala Convention (2009).

The AU should embark on a series of sensitization campaigns focused on creating awareness of the MPFA at regional and national levels. There is an immediate need for improved advocacy to keep government officials, CSOs/NGOs and other stakeholders dealing with migration related matters in tune with the aspirations and use of the MPFA. Useful platforms could include regional meetings that have migration on their agenda. This is not only a short-term goal but should run throughout the implementation period of the MPFA.

There is a need to strengthen the partnership between the AU and RECs to ensure greater ownership of the MPFA and other migration related processes by stakeholders working on migration. This collaborating process will help to identify practical measures of cooperation and avoid fragmented and overlapping interventions in the sub-region. In addition, it will help in the sensitization campaign if RECs keep reminding Partner States about the MPFA during sub-regional meetings.

The AU should encourage countries to set up national coordination mechanisms for migration to create better partnerships, cooperation and coordination among different ministries and agencies with migration responsibilities.

### **6.2. MEDIUM TERM GOALS (1-3 YEARS)**

Once national coordination mechanisms are set up and functioning effectively, Member States would play an active role in establishing/strengthening regional coordination mechanisms to address migration at a regional level in the medium term. As IGAD is in the process of developing its regional coordination mechanism, other RECs can learn from their experience and approach and then contextualize their RCM to their needs.

The AU should also create platforms where Member States and RECs can share best practices and successes in their approach to addressing migration. The annual consultative meetings can be targeted for this benchmarking experience to be shared. The AU Commission and RECs should be encouraged to support countries that are experiencing challenges in developing mechanisms for managing migration especially, in terms of mainstreaming the MPFA at national level. Agreements signed on the basis of common understanding under free movement protocols may make the process more effective.

The AU should conduct a rapid assessment of the existing capacities and resources on migration at national and regional level in order to determine the capacity and resource needs of Member States and RECs. By understanding their needs, the AU will be able to adopt an evidence-based approach to strengthening the institutional capacities of Member States and RECs. This will also help in addressing some of the gaps that militate from developing national/regional migration policies and integrating them into development strategies. A list of key expert consultants should be generated who have a solid understanding of the MPFA so that the AU can capitalize on the existing experts within the continent and beyond. Also, by adopting a training-of-trainers programme through the NCMs, the AU will be able to establish capacities within the country to build the capacities of new government officials. The training would be on-going to be able to respond to the changes that take place at regional and national levels.

Capacity building for local NGOs and CSOs should be encouraged through key international and national stakeholders. By adopting a training-of-trainers approach for local organizations, they will be able to improve their understanding on migration dynamics/paradigms and effective usage/application of migration concepts. This will also help to improve relations and encourage partnerships between different stakeholders especially in terms of appreciating the quality of feedback and input they all provide at different levels. CSOs will be able to provide support needed by governments especially when addressing issues where the local organisations can play a prominent role.

Within one to two years, the AU should focus on taking stock of the existing migration related data sources and approaches to understand the current situation with regard to who are the key data collectors and the type of tools that are being used to collect migration related data. This will help the AU to determine differences in approach for collecting migration data but also suggest a solution that can be applicable at national level. Migration profiling exercises initiated by IOM, for example, have been useful sources of information on migration matters by country. If conducted at regular intervals, Member States would be able to keep stock and monitor the changing migration trends. This can be achieved if key partners are identified to assist in the process to collect the data. Furthermore, the AU can encourage Member States to develop their national census to include migration variables using a common approach.

### **6.3. LONG TERM GOALS (OVER 3 YEARS)**

Once the data collection needs are identified at national level, the AU could spearhead the standardization of data collection procedures at national level first and at a later stage at regional level. Adequate migration data management structures should be put in place to effectively organize, collect, process and disseminate timely and relevant information on migration concerns and interests across the sub-regions. By prioritizing this, Member States will be able to agree on data collection procedures and reporting formats that would ensure comparability at regional and continental level. There is an urgent and significant need for the continent to establish a continental observatory, or regional observatories on migration that would generate relevant migration data for use by stakeholders to formulate and implement evidence based migration policies and programmes.

The AU should identify indicators by country based on the information they gather over the 10-year period. By identifying indicators that relate to the MPFA, the AU will be able to keep track of the progress by each country and REC. By setting up annual reviews which can be shared with Member States during the consultative meetings, the AU will be able to identify entry points for the provision of support and assistance, and at the same time can identify countries or RECs that require further support.

The AU should concentrate on ensuring that Member States and RECs use the MPFA as a guiding tool to design their national and regional policies. This includes guaranteeing coherence and harmonization of policies and actions on migration at national and regional levels. This would entail encouraging all Member States to sign, ratify and domesticate the relevant international and regional conventions and protocols that relate to migration, but also to ensure:

- **HARMONIZATION** of legislation, policies and practices to improve the management of migration in various ministries (Foreign Affairs, Home/Interior Affairs, Labour, among others).
- **POLICY COHERENCE** across government ministries and departments to enhance the understanding of the linkages between migration and development, and alignment of national policies to the regional and international policy frameworks.
- **POLICY DIALOGUE** at the regional level, because international migration involves two or more states, policy dialogue between states is important for management of migration, and for sharing of data and information. Harmonization of policies will lead to efficient coordination and a well-organized governance of migration across national boundaries.

Furthermore, the AU should conduct a comprehensive evaluation of the MPFA every five years in order to determine its relevance, usefulness and importance at national and regional level and make necessary interventions where necessary.

## REFERENCES

Adepoju, A.

(1998). Linkages between internal and international migration: the African situation. *International Social Science Journal*, Sep98, Vol. 50 Issue 157, p387-395

(2003). Continuity and changing configurations of migration to and from the Republic of South Africa, *International Migration*, 41(1): 3-28.

(2004). 'Trends in international migration in and from Africa'. In D.S. Massey, & J.E. Taylor (eds.), *International Migration Prospects and Policies in a Global Market*. Oxford: Oxford University Press

(2008). *Migration and social policy in sub-Saharan Africa*. February 2008. Geneva: Switzerland.

African, Caribbean and Pacific(ACP) Migration Observatory

(2010a). Overview on South-South Migration and Development in Lesotho: Trends and Research Needs, Country Overview, ACPOBS/2010/PUB11. Brussels: ACP Migration Observatory.

(2010b). Overview on South- South Migration and Development in Kenya. Trends and Research Needs; Country Overview, ACPOBS/2010/PUB10. Brussels: ACP Migration Observatory.

(2011). Overview on South-South Migration and Development in Southern Africa: Trends and Research Needs, Regional Overview, ACPOBS/2011/PUB06. Brussels: ACP Migration Observatory.

Africa Development Bank (2011). "Leveraging Human Capacity and Financing from the Diaspora: Which Migration Policies for Africa in the 21st Century?" *Africa Capacity Development Brief*, Vol 1, Issue 1. Abidjan: African Development Bank.

African Union (2006a). *The Migration Policy Framework for Africa*. Executive Council, ninth ordinary session, 25-29 June 2006. Banjul: The Gambia.

Agwanda, A. and H. Amani. (2014). "Population growth, structure and momentum in Tanzania." THDR 2014, Background Paper Number 7, ESRF Discussion Paper 61, Economic and Social Research Foundation, Dar es Salaam.

Ambrose, D. (2005). Lesotho health sector in crisis. *Summary of Events in Lesotho*, 12(1) (First Quarter), 2005.

Amin, M. and Mattoo, A. (2007). 'Migration from Zambia: Ensuring Temporariness through Cooperation', World Bank Policy Research Working Paper, No.4145.

Anthony, G. C. (1999). "Africa's Refugee Crisis: State Building in Historical Perspective". *International Migration Review*, 35,3, pp 116-133.



Carling, J., Gallagher, A.T. & Horwood, C. (2015). Beyond Definitions: *Global migration and the Smuggling-Trafficking Nexus*, Regional Mixed Migration Secretariat (RMMS) Discussion Paper 2. RMMS, Nairobi.

Clemens, M.A. and Pettersson, G.(2007). "New data on African health professionals abroad", Human Resources for Health 2007, Center for Global Development, Working Paper No. 95. [http://www.cgdev.org/sites/default/files/9267\\_file\\_CGDWP95\\_Feb\\_2007.pdf](http://www.cgdev.org/sites/default/files/9267_file_CGDWP95_Feb_2007.pdf)

Cobbe, J. (2012). "Lesotho: From Labor Reserve to Depopulating Periphery", Online journal of the Migration Policy Institute, 2 May 2012. Available from [www.migrationpolicy.org/article/lesotho-labor-reserve-depopulating-periphery](http://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/lesotho-labor-reserve-depopulating-periphery)

Council UNS (2014). With the spread of Ebola outpacing response, security council adopts resolution 2177 (2014) urging immediate action, end to isolation of affected States <http://www.un.org/press/en/2014/sc11566.doc.htm>.

Crush, J., Dodson, B.J., Gay, J., Green, T. and Leduka, C. (2010). *Migration, Remittances and 'Development' in Lesotho*. Migration Policy Series 52. Idasa and Southern African Research Centre, Cape Town and Kingston.

Crush, J. and Williams, V. (2010). "Labour Migration Trends and Policies in Southern Africa", Policy Brief No. 23, Southern African Migration Project, <http://www.queensu.ca/samp/sampresources/samppublications/>.

Crush, J., Williams, V., and Peberdy, S. (2005). Migration in Southern Africa. A paper prepared for the Policy Analysis and Research Programme of the Global Commission on International Migration.

De Bel-Air, F. (2016). 'Migration Profile: Egypt', *European University Institute*, Migration Policy Centre: [http://cadmus.eui.eu/bitstream/handle/1814/39224/MPC\\_PB\\_2016\\_01.pdf?sequence=1](http://cadmus.eui.eu/bitstream/handle/1814/39224/MPC_PB_2016_01.pdf?sequence=1)

Elumelu, T.L. (2015) 'Regional Migration Policy: The Current and Future Policy Framework of ECOWAS': [https://www.shareweb.ch/site/Migration/Network%20Activities/F2F%20Benin%20Documents/Benin%20atelier%20MD%20-%20session%206%20-%20ECOWAS%20MIGRATION%20POLICY%20\(Benin%20Republic\)%201st%20June%202015.pdf](https://www.shareweb.ch/site/Migration/Network%20Activities/F2F%20Benin%20Documents/Benin%20atelier%20MD%20-%20session%206%20-%20ECOWAS%20MIGRATION%20POLICY%20(Benin%20Republic)%201st%20June%202015.pdf)

Federal Republic of Nigeria (2015). *National Migration Policy*. Abuja: International Organisation for Migration.

Flahaux, M.L. and De Haas, H. (2016). African migration: trends, patterns, drivers. *Comparative Migration Studies* (2016) 4:1.

Gallina, A. / Secretariat of the African, Caribbean and Pacific Group of States (ACP Secretariat) (2010). *Human Mobility Report 2011, Migration and Human Development in ACP Countries*, ACP Secretariat and A. Gallina, September 2010.

Garcia, A.J., Pindolia, D.K., Lopiano, K.K., Tatem, A.J. (2014) Modeling internal migration flows in sub-Saharan Africa using census microdata. *Migration Studies*. <http://migration.oxfordjournals.org/content/early/2014/08/04/migration.mnu036.short?rss=1>.

Gayle, N., Navarro, D., Murekezi, P. and Barchue, A. (2013). Leveraging and Tapping the Diaspora and Remittances for Development, IFAD.

Government of Ghana (2016). *Ministry of Interior National Migration Policy for Ghana*. Accra: Ministry of Interior.

International Centre for Migration Policy Development -ICMPD & International Organisation for Migration - IOM (2015). *A Survey of Migration Policies in West Africa*. International Centre for Migration Policy Development, Vienna, Australia and International Organisation for Migration, Dakar-Senegal.

Inter-Governmental Authority for Development (2012). IGAD Regional Migration Policy Framework. Addis Ababa: IGAD secretariat.

International Labour Organisation Website:

<http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12001:::NO:::>

International Organisation for Migration (IOM)

(2010). *Migration in Democratic Republic of the Congo: National Profile 2009*, Geneva: International Organisation for Migration.

(2011). *Migration in Sudan: A Country Profile*, Geneva, International Organization for Migration.

(2013a). World Migration report 2013: Migrant Well-being and Development. Geneva, International Organization for Migration.

(2013b). Migration Health Division: Annual Review 2012. Geneva, International Organization for Migration.

(2014). Regional Strategy for Southern Africa 2014-2016. IOM Southern Africa.

(2015a). 'West and Central Africa: The Regional Migration Context': <https://www.iom.int/west-and-central-africa>.

(2015b). *Migration in Uganda, a rapid country profile*. Geneva: International Organisation for Migration.

(2015c). *Migration Profile of Kenya*. Geneva, International Organization for Migration.

(2015d). *National Migration Policy for Nigeria*. Abuja: International Organisation for Migration.

(2015e). Migration in Malawi: A Country Profile 2014. Geneva, International Organization for Migration.

(2016a). Migrant Smuggling Data and Research: A global review of the emerging evidence base. Geneva, International Organization for Migration.

(2016b). *Regional Strategy for West and Central Africa 2014 – 2016*. Dakar: International Organisation for Migration.

- (2017). 'Missing Migrants Project: Recorded deaths in the Mediterranean by month, 2014-2017': <https://missingmigrants.iom.int/mediterranean>
- Kanyangoga, J.B. (2010). Integrating Migration with Development in EAC: Policy Challenges and Recommendations, research paper.  
[http://www.cuts-international.org/arc/nairobi/ppt/Integrating Migration with Development in EAC.ppt](http://www.cuts-international.org/arc/nairobi/ppt/Integrating_Migration_with_Development_in_EAC.ppt).
- Kuznetsov, Y. ed. (2006). "Diaspora Networks and the International Migration of Skills: How Countries Can Draw on Their Talent Abroad". The World Bank, Washington DC.
- Lucas, R.E.B. (2006). Migration and Economic Development in Africa: A Review of Evidence. *Journal of African Economies*, 15(2): 337-395.
- Masinjila, M. (2009). 'Gender Dimensions of Cross Border Trade in the East African Community – Kenya/Uganda and Rwanda/Burundi Border', African Trade Policy Centre and, United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, Nairobi.
- McCabe, K. (2011). 'African Immigrants in the United States.' Migration Information Source. Migration Policy Institute. Washington D.C.
- Migration Policy Centre (2013), "Migration Facts: Algeria":  
[http://www.migrationpolicycentre.eu/docs/fact\\_sheets/Factsheet%20Algeria.pdf](http://www.migrationpolicycentre.eu/docs/fact_sheets/Factsheet%20Algeria.pdf)
- Mulumba, D. and Olema, W. M. (2009). Policy Analysis Report: Mapping Migration in Uganda.  
<http://www.ebe7.net/pdf/policy-analysis-report-mapping-migration.html>
- Mudungwe, P. (2016). Khartoum Process' First Thematic Meeting on People Smuggling, 24-25 May, 2016, Khartoum, Sudan. African Union Commission
- Mudungwe, P. (2014). Migration and Development in the SADC Region: The Case for a Coherent Approach. ADPC Research Brief No. 2016/02. Netherland: The African Diaspora Policy Centre (ADPC).
- Mudungwe, P. (2009). "Engaging Zimbabweans in the Diaspora Towards Economic Reconstruction", Workshop Reports and Occasional Papers, No 11. Geneva: IOM.
- Natter, K. (2015). "Revolution and Political Transition in Tunisia: A Migration Game Changer?".  
<http://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/revolution-and-political-transition-tunisia-migration-game-changer>
- Odipo, G., Olungah, C.O., and Omia, D. O. (2015). Emigration Mobility Trends and Patterns in Kenya: A Shift from South-North to South–South Migration. *International Journal of Development and Economic Sustainability* Vol.3, No.4, pp.29-48, August 2015.
- Oucho, J.O., Oucho, L.A & Ong'ayo, A. (2013). The Biggest Fish in the Sea? Dynamic Kenyan Labour Migration in the East African Community. Brussels: African Caribbean and Pacific Migration Observatory.
- Oucho, J.O. (2012). "International migration: Trends and institutional frameworks from the

African Perspective, in J. Martinez and L. Reboiras (eds.), *Development, Institutional and Capacity Aspects of International between Africa, Europe and Latin America and the Caribbean*. Santiago, Chile: United National Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, pp. 147-188.

Park, Y.J. (2009). Chinese Migration in Africa. South African Institute of International Affairs, Occasional Paper, No. 24.

Peberdy, S. and Dinat, N. (2005) Migration and Domestic Workers: Worlds of Work, Health and Mobility in Johannesburg. Migration Policy Series, No.40, Southern African Migration Project, IDASA: Cape Town.

Poppe, A., Jirovsky, E., Blacklock, C. and Peersman, W. (2014) Why sub-Saharan African health workers migrate to European countries that do not actively recruit: a qualitative study post-migration. *Global health action*, 7(1): 24071.

Regional Mixed Migration Secretariat (RMMS)

(2013). *Migrant Smuggling in the Horn of Africa and Yemen: The Political Economy and Protection Risks*. Mixed Migration Research Series No. 7. RMMS, Nairobi.

(2014). *Going West: Contemporary mixed migration trends from the Horn of Africa to Libya and Europe*. RMMS, Nairobi.

(2015). *A Certain Catalyst: An overview of the (mixed) migration and development debate with special focus on the Horn of Africa region*. Mixed Migration Research Series No. 9, RMMS, Nairobi.

(2016a) "Country Profiles – Ethiopia" regionalmms.org. Last Updated May 2016.  
<http://www.regionalmms.org/index.php/country-profiles/ethiopia>

(2016b) "Country Profiles – Djibouti" Last Updated July 2016.  
<http://www.regionalmms.org/index.php/country-profiles/djibouti>.

Republic of South Africa (2016). *Towards a White Paper on International migration in South Africa: Guidelines for Public Consultation*, 15<sup>th</sup> June, Department of Home Affairs.

Rutega, S., W. Kiryabwire and P. Muwanguzi (2012). *Feasibility study for the establishment of an international diaspora bond*. Unpublished.

Rwamatwara, E. (2005). *Forced Migration in Africa: A Challenge to Development* Stichproben. *Wiener Zeitschrift für kritische Afrikastudien* Nr.8/2005, 5. Jg.

Shimeles, A. (2010). *Migration Patterns, Trends and Policy Issues in Africa*. Working Papers Series N° 119, African Development Bank, Tunis, Tunisia.

Southern African Development Community (2005). *Protocol on the Facilitation of Movement of Persons (FMOP)*. Gaborone, Southern African Development Community.

Southern African Development Community (2013). *SADC Labour Migration Policy (Draft)*.  
[http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---africa/---ro-addis\\_ababa/---ilo-pretoria/documents/meetingdocument/wcms\\_239821.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---africa/---ro-addis_ababa/---ilo-pretoria/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_239821.pdf)

Taran, P. (2016). The Sustainable Development Goals and Migrants/Migration: Regarding the UN 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda. Relevant SDGs, Implementation Actions, Realization Measurement Indicators and Rationale for Inclusion. Global Migration Policy Associates.

[http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/events/coordination/14/documents/backgrounddocs/GMPA\\_14CM.pdf](http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/events/coordination/14/documents/backgrounddocs/GMPA_14CM.pdf)

United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (2016). New Directions and Trends in African Migration. An Issues Paper Prepared for the Tenth African Development Forum: “Migration and Africa’s transformation”, 15-17 November, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

United Nations Environment Programme (2009). Integrated Policymaking for Sustainable Development: A Reference Manual. Nairobi: UNEP.

United Nations High Commission for Refugees (2016a). Africa: <http://www.unhcr.org/africa.html>

United Nations High Commission for Refugees (2016b). Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2015. UNHCR

United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2016). International Migration Report: 2015 Highlights ((ST/ESA/SER.A/375). New York: UNDESA.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2013). International Migration Report 2013. New York: UNDESA.

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, ‘Statistical Snapshot West Africa, mid-2016’, [online data source], <http://www.unhcr.org/pages/49e45a9c6.html>, (accessed 31 July 2014).

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, ‘Protocol A/P .1/5/79 Relating to Free Movement of Persons, Residence and Establishment’:

[http://documentation.ecowas.int/download/en/legal\\_documents/protocols/PROTOCOL%20RELATING%20TO%20%20FREE%20MOVEMENT%20OF%20PERSONS.pdf](http://documentation.ecowas.int/download/en/legal_documents/protocols/PROTOCOL%20RELATING%20TO%20%20FREE%20MOVEMENT%20OF%20PERSONS.pdf)

UNODC (2010). *Smuggling of Migrants into, through and from North Africa: A Thematic Review and Annotated Bibliography of Recent Publications*.

World Bank (2011). *Migration and Remittances Factbook 2011*, World Bank, Washington D.C. <https://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTLAC/Resources/Factbook2011-Ebook.pdf>

World Bank (2010). Labour Migration from North Africa: Development Impact, Challenges and Policy Options. Vol. 1, Main report. Washington D.C.: The World Bank.

Zachary, L., A. Naggaga and L. Hovil (2001). The Phenomenon of Forced Migration in Uganda: An Overview of Policy and Practice in a Historical Context. Working Paper 1, Refugee Law Project, Kampala.

## ANNEXES

### ANNEX A: THE EVALUATION TEAM

Dr. Linda Oucho	Project Coordinator & EAC Consultant
Dr. Darlison Kaija	Lead Consultant
Prof. Eugene Campbell	COMESA Consultant
Prof. Daniel Tevera	SADC Consultant
Dr. Modupeola Kuteyi	ECOWAS Consultant
Dr. Mohammed Limam	UMA Consultant
Mr. Gebeyehu Mebratu	AU & IGAD Consultant
Mrs. Evelyne Ndiopondjou Tiague	ECCAS Consultant

## ANNEX B: REGIONAL ECONOMIC COMMUNITIES AND MEMBER STATES

Regional Economic Community	Date of formation	No. of Member States	Member States	Sampled Member States
Economic Community for Central Africa (ECCAS)	1983	12	Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Republic of the Congo, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe.	Cameroon, D.R. Congo and Gabon
Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA)	1993	9	Burundi, the Comoros, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Djibouti, Egypt, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Rwanda, Somalia, Seychelles, Sudan, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe.	Zambia, Malawi and Mauritius
East African Community (EAC)	2000	6	Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda, South Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda.	Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda
Economic Community of Western African Countries (ECOWAS)	1975	15	Benin, Cape Verde, Cote d'Ivoire, the Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Burkina Faso, Liberia, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo.	Ghana, Nigeria and Senegal
Inter-Governmental Authority on Development (IGAD)	1986	15	Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan, Uganda.	Djibouti, Ethiopia and Sudan
Arab Maghreb Union (AMU)	1989	5	Algeria, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, Tunisia.	Algeria, Egypt and Tunisia
Southern African Development Community (SADC)	1992	15	Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.	Botswana, Lesotho and South Africa
The Community of Sahel-Saharan States (CEN-SAD)	1998	24	Benin, Burkina Faso, Central African Republic, Chad, the Comoros, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Egypt, Eritrea, the Gambia, Ghana, Guinea Bissau, Libya, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, the Sudan, Togo and Tunisia.	

## ANNEX C: KEY INFORMANTS BY REC AND COUNTRY

#	Name	Position	Country
<b>East Africa Community</b>			
1	Dr. Dan Opon	Directorate of Immigration, Ministry of Interior and National Affairs	Kenya
2	Mr. John Njoroge	External Relations and Government Relations and Government Liaison Officer	Kenya
3	Mr. Fred Osore	Senior Immigration Officer, Ministry of Internal Affairs	Uganda
4	Mr Binoga Moses	National Coordinator for Prevention in Trafficking in Persons, Ministry of Internal Affairs	Uganda
5	Mr Douglas Asimwe	Principal Refugee Protection Officer, Office of the Prime Minister	Uganda
6	Mr. Patrick Guma Muganda	Head of Diaspora Department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs	Uganda
7	Mr. Martin Wandera	Director of Labour, Employment, Occupational Safety and Health, Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development	Uganda
8	Jesca Andiga	Government Liaison, Senior Programme Assistant, IOM	Uganda
9	Mr Bornwell Kantande	Country Representative, UNHCR	Uganda
10	Mr. Lilu Thapa	Country Director, Danish Refugee Council	Uganda
<b>Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa</b>			
11	Mr. Martin Mutema	Principal Immigration Officer Home Affairs, Immigration Department	Zambia
12	Houssein Guedi Absieh	Immigration, Free Movement and Labour Expert, COMESA	Zambia
13	Mr Appadu	Permanent Secretary, Prime Minister's Office	Mauritius
14	Nicolette Jackson	Deputy Head of Mission, Mediceins Sans Frontieres	Malawi
15	Mr. Bestone Chisamile	Secretary for Home Affairs	Malawi
16	Mr. Cliff Chiunda	Principal Secretary for Industry and Trade, Ministry of Industry and Trade	Malawi
<b>Economic Community for West Africa States</b>			
17	Lafina Diane	Head of Social Planning Unit, Technical Coordinator for the Elaboration Process of the National Migration Policy for Senegal, Ministry of Economy, Finance and Planning	Senegal
18	Aby Gaye Sarr	Coordinator, RAMIDEV	Senegal
19	Daniel Eklu	Director, Humanitarian and Social Affairs, ECOWAS	Nigeria
20	Anaelo Charles Nwanelo	Assistant Director/Head of Migration Division, National Commission for Refugees, Migrants, and Internally Displaced Persons (NCFRMI)	Nigeria
21	Jide Olatuyi	Executive Director, Policy Management for Governance, Migration, and Development	Nigeria
22	Augustine Safi	Deputy Director, Migration Unit, Ministry of Interior	Ghana
23	Joseph Teye	Coordinator of Postgraduate Studies, Centre for Migration Studies	Ghana
<b>Southern Africa Development Community</b>			
24	Sergio Carciotto	Director, Scalabrini Institute for Human Mobility in Africa (SIHMA)	South Africa
25	Innocent Moyo		South Africa
26	Dr David Mandiyandike	Senior Lecturer, University of Botswana	Botswana
27	Ms. Lebuso Mapitso	Lecturer, University of Lesotho	Lesotho
28	Mr Pelesana Morerane	Senior Statistician, Bureau of Statistics	Lesotho
29	Mr Mohlolo Lerotholi	Commissioner for Refugees – Migration Focal Point, Ministry of Home Affairs	South Africa
30	Mr. Johannes Thiba	Ministry of Home Affairs.	South Africa
31	Mr. Cyril Parirenyatwa	Programme Officer, South African Development Community	Botswana
<b>African Union and Inter-Governmental Authority for Development</b>			
32	Peter Mudungwe	Migration Advisor, Department of Social Affairs, AU Commission	Ethiopia
33	Oumar Diop	Senior Policy Officer, Department of Social Affairs, AU Commission	Ethiopia
34	Rita Amukhobu	Department of Political Affairs, AU Commission	Ethiopia
35	Ato Yibeltal Walelign	Head of Anti-Trafficking Taskforce Secretariat Office, Federal Attorney General	Ethiopia



36	Laline Varsamaay	International Organisation for Migration	Djibouti
37	Deka Dawud	International Organisation for Migration	
38	Jean Claude Bashirahishize	Area Manager, Danish Refugee Council	Djibouti
39	Natalie Groetsche	Migration Expert, Inter-Governmental Authority for Development	Djibouti
40	Ambassador Dr Karar Altohami	Secretary General. Secretariat for Sudanese Working Abroad	Sudan
41	Pooja Bhalla	Project Coordinator, Migration Management, IOM	Sudan
42	Ali Adam	National Migration Officer, IOM	Sudan
43		Chief of Policy and Programs, Nada Elazhar Organization for Disaster Prevention and Sustainable Development	Sudan
<b>Arab Maghreb Union</b>			
44		Ministry of Foreign Affairs	Egypt
45		National Coordinating Committee on Combatting and Preventing Illegal Migration	Egypt
46	Mohamed Saib Musette	Research Director, Division Manager, Human Development and Social Economics	Algeria
47	Hassan Boubkari	President, Centre de Tunis pour la Migration et l'Asile (CeTuMa)	Tunisia
48	Benoit Mayaux	Chargé de Projets- Mobilisation Société Civile Tunisie/UE, Euro-Mediterranean Human Rights Network	Tunisia
49	Naima Christine Zaghoudi	Coordinatrice Nationale de Projet (IRAM Tunisie) Migration de Travail et Protection des Droits des Travailleurs Migrants, International Labour Organization	Tunisia
<b>Economic Community for Central African States</b>			
50	Emery Kianga	Chief of Operations, IOM DRC	DRC
51	Mr Aime Nkanga Elima	Focal Point OIM, Ministry of Internal Security	DRC
52	Mr. David Lelu	Coordinator, Migration of Humanitarian Action	DRC
53	Mr. Francis Bukasa Kadima Katanku	Director, Scientific Research Coordination, Ministry of Scientific Research	DRC
54	Mr. Donatien Mbizi Kionga-Ki Makwala	Minister Counselor, Ministry of International Cooperation, and Diaspora	DRC
55	Mr. Richard Etoundi	Chief of Service for Migrants, Ministry of External Relations	Cameroon
56	Dr. Tabi Akono François Jean	Director, Study Prospective and Cooperative Division, Ministry of Employment, and Professional Training	Cameroon
57	Mr Amidile Ahmadou Gabin	Assistant Director, Study, Prospective and Cooperative Division, Ministry of Employment and Professional Training	Cameroon
58	Mr. Yoko Yves Freddy	Project Coordinator, PARDI-JEDI, Ministry of Youth and Civic Education	Cameroon
59	Mrs. Lemvui Atanga Pascaline	Project Coordinator, PARDI-JEDI, Ministry of Youth and Civic Education	Cameroon
60	Mr. Nseke Ngeng Noe	Project Coordinator, PARDI-JEDI, Ministry of Youth and Civic Education	Cameroon
61	Mr. Philippe Nanga	Coordinator, UN Monde Avenir NSA	Cameroon
62	Mr. Tsala Yves	Coordinator, Solutions aux Migrations Clandestines (SMIC) NSA	Cameroon

**ANNEX D: NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS TO THE SURVEY BY REC AND COUNTRY**

Country	Position of Respondent	Organization
<b>Kenya (13)</b>	Executive Director Migration Specialist Immigration Officer Immigration Officer Immigration Officer Immigration Officer Senior Immigration Officer Senior Immigration Officer Immigration Officer Assistant Director Central Intelligence Officer Civil Servant	East African Community Directorate of Immigration     Moi International Airport, Mombasa Immigration Services
<b>Cameroon (1)</b>	Member	ECCAS
<b>Ethiopia (2)</b>	Team Leader for Illegal Workers Recruitment Protection Team Leader for Illegal Workers Recruitment Protection	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
<b>Namibia (2)</b>	Deputy Director Deputy Director	Visas and Permits Immigration and Border
<b>Zimbabwe (1)</b>	Principal Administrative Officer	
<b>Lesotho (2)</b>	Acting Director Economic Planner	
<b>South Sudan (1)</b>	Director of Legal Administration and Legal Advisor/ Chairperson of the Migration Policy Drafting Committee	Ministry of Interior
<b>Swaziland (1)</b>	Senior Immigration Officer	
<b>Liberia (1)</b>	Deputy Executive Director of the Liberia Refugee Commission and Director	Migration of the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalisation
<b>Nigeria (3)</b>	Assistant Director, European Unit Comptroller of Immigration Executive Assistant and Commissioner	Trade, Customs and Free Movement
<b>Egypt (2)</b>	<b>Not Indicated</b>	Ministry of Foreign Affairs National Coordinating Committee on Preventing and Combatting Illegal Migration
<b>Madagascar (1)</b>	<b>Not indicated</b>	
<b>Senegal (2)</b>	Chef de Division Planification Sociale <b>Not Indicated</b>	
<b>Togo (2)</b>	Direction de la Planification et des Politiques de Developpement Government Official	Ministere de la Planification du Developpement <b>Not indicated</b>
<b>Benin (1)</b>	Directeur Général	Agence Nationale des Migrations et de la Diaspora
<b>Guinee/CEDA0 (1)</b>	Chef de section	Direction des Organisations Internationales
<b>Mali (2)</b>	Secrtaire General Government Official	Ministere des Maliens de L'Extereriu
<b>Burkina Faso (1)</b>	Secretare Permanent des Burikinabe de	Ministere des Affaires Etrangeres de la

	L'Exterieur	Cooperation et des Burkinabe de L'Exterieur
<b>Sudan (1)</b>	Officer de Police	Direction General de Passeport et de L'immigration
<b>Niger (1)</b>	Commissaire de Police	
<b>Guinee (1)</b>		
<b>Libye (1)</b>	Directeur paix et sécurité	
<b>Comores (1)</b>	Directeur de l immigration	
<b>Botswana (1)</b>	SADC Official	SADC
<b>Tunisia (1)</b>	Government official	

## ANNEX E: LIST OF DEFINITIONS

<i>Asylum-seeker</i>	A person who seeks safety from persecution or serious harm in a country other than his or her own and awaits a decision on the application for refugee status under relevant international and national instruments.
<i>Bilateral labour migration agreements</i>	Formal mechanisms concluded between states which are essentially legally binding commitments concerned with inter-state cooperation on labour migration
<i>Border management</i>	Facilitation of authorized flow of persons, including business people, tourist, migrants and refugees across a border and the detection and prevention of irregular entry of non-nationals into a given country
<i>Brain drain</i>	Emigration of trained and talented individuals from the country of origin to another country resulting in a depletion of skills resources in the former
<i>Brain gain</i>	Immigration of trained and talented individuals into the destination country. Also called ‘reverse brain drain’
<i>Circular migration</i>	The fluid movement of people between countries, including temporary or long-term movement which may be beneficial to all involved, if occurring voluntarily and linked to the labour needs of countries of origin and destination.
<i>Country of origin</i>	The country that is a source of migratory flows
<i>Cross-border migration</i>	A process of movement of persons across international borders
<i>Deportation</i>	The action or procedure aimed at causing an illegal foreign national to leave the country either voluntarily or compulsorily, or under detention. In terms of this act and the verb “to deport” has a corresponding meaning.
<i>Diaspora</i>	Individual and members of networks, associations and communities, who have left their country of origin, but maintain links with their homelands.
<i>Emigration</i>	The act of departing or exiting from one State with a view to settling in another.
<i>Emigration</i>	The act of departing or exiting from one State with the view to settling in another.
<i>Forced migration</i>	A migratory movement in which an element of coercion exists, including threats to life and livelihood, whether arising from natural or manmade causes
<i>Immigration</i>	A process by which non-nationals move into a country for the purpose of settlement.
<i>Internal migration</i>	A movement of people from one area of a country to another area of the same country for the purpose or with the effect of establishing a new residence. This migration may be temporary or permanent. Internal migrants move but remain within their country of origin
<i>Internally displaced persons</i>	Persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situation of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or manmade disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized border.
<i>Irregular migration</i>	Movement that takes place outside the regulatory norms of the sending, transit and receiving countries. There is no clear or universally accepted definition of irregular migration.
<i>Labour migration</i>	Movement of persons from one state to another, or within their own country of residence, for the purpose of employment.
<i>Migrant worker</i>	A person, who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national.

<i>Mixed flows</i>	Complex migratory population movements that include refugees, asylum-seekers, economic migrants and other migrants, as opposed to migratory popular
<i>Receiving country</i>	Country of destination or a third country. In the case of return or repatriation, also the country of origin.
<i>Refugee</i>	A person who owing to a well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his/her nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself/herself of the protection of that country.
<i>Remittances</i>	Monies earned or acquired by non-nationals that are transferred back to their countries of origin
<i>Repatriation</i>	The personal right of refugee, prisoner of war or a civil detainee to return to his or her country of nationality under specific conditions laid down in various international instruments. The option of repatriation is bestowed upon the individual personally and not upon the detaining power.
<i>Resettlement</i>	The relocation and integration of people into another geographical environment, usually in a third country
<i>Rural-urban migrants</i>	Internal migrants who move from rural to urban areas, often in response to poverty, low agricultural incomes, low productivity, population growth, shortages, fragmentation and inequitable distribution of land, environmental degradation, and the relative lack of economic opportunities in rural areas.
<i>Smuggling</i>	The 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 permanent resident.
<i>Stateless person</i>	A person who is not considered as a national by any State under the operation of its law.
<i>Trafficking in persons</i>	The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring 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.

**Source:** IOM Glossary

## ANNEX F: INTERNATIONAL MIGRANT STOCK IN AFRICAN COUNTRIES

REGION <sup>13</sup> COUNTRY	Number of international migrants				International migrants as a %age of total population		Estimated Refugee Stock	
	2000	2005	2010	2015	2000	2015	2000	2015
<b>Eastern Africa</b>	<b>4 844 795</b>	<b>4 745 792</b>	<b>4 657 063</b>	<b>6 129 113</b>	<b>1.9</b>	<b>1.6</b>	<b>1 641 559</b>	<b>2 087 514</b>
Burundi	125 628	172 874	235 259	286 810	1.9	2.6	27 136	47 805
Comoros	13 799	13 209	12 618	12 555	2.5	1.6	10	0
Djibouti	100 507	92 091	101 575	112 351	13.9	12.7	23 257	20 530
Eritrea	12 952	14 314	15 676	15 941	0.4	0.3	1 984	2 898
Ethiopia	611 384	514 242	567 720	1 072 949	0.9	1.1	197 959	659 524
Kenya	699 139	756 894	926 959	1 084 357	2.3	2.4	206 106	551 352
Madagascar	23 541	26 058	28 905	32 075	0.1	0.1	50	12
Malawi	232 620	221 661	217 722	215 158	2.1	1.2	3 900	5 844
Mauritius	15 543	19 647	24 836	28 585	1.3	2.2	0	0
Mozambique	195 702	204 830	214 612	222 928	1.1	0.8	207	4 445
Rwanda	347 076	432 797	436 787	441 525	4.3	3.8	30 118	72 763
Seychelles	6 574	8 997	11 420	12 791	8.1	13.3	0	0
Somalia	20 087	20 670	23 995	25 291	0.3	0.2	558	2 502
South Sudan	..	..	257 905	824 122	..	6.7	..	240 673
Uganda	634 703	652 968	529 160	749 471	2.7	1.9	236 622	358 453
Tanzania	928 180	770 846	308 600	261 222	2.7	0.5	680 862	90 650
Zambia	321 167	252 749	149 637	127 915	3.0	0.8	228 663	24 666
Zimbabwe	410 041	392 693	397 891	398 866	3.3	2.6	4 127	5 397
<b>Middle Africa</b>	<b>1 756 687</b>	<b>1 928 828</b>	<b>2 139 979</b>	<b>2 307 688</b>	<b>1.8</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>606 067</b>	<b>912 095</b>
Angola	46 108	61 329	76 549	106 845	0.3	0.4	12 579	15 474
Cameroon	228 383	258 737	289 091	381 984	1.4	1.6	46 454	264 126
Central African Republic	123 529	94 449	93 466	81 598	3.3	1.7	55 661	7 694
Chad	104 825	352 062	416 924	516 968	1.3	3.7	17 692	454 882
Congo	305 002	315 238	419 649	392 996	9.8	8.5	123 190	49 152
Democratic Republic of the Congo	744 387	622 869	588 950	545 694	1.5	0.7	332 509	119 754
Equatorial Guinea	4 517	6 588	8 658	10 825	0.9	1.3	0	0
Gabon	195 571	214 123	243 992	268 384	15.9	15.6	17 982	1 013
Sao Tome and Principe	4 365	3 433	2 700	2 394	3.2	1.3	0	0
<b>Northern Africa</b>	<b>1 885 650</b>	<b>1 782 054</b>	<b>1 921 613</b>	<b>2 159 048</b>	<b>1.1</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>602 901</b>	<b>589 104</b>
Algeria	250 110	247 537	244 964	242 391	0.8	0.6	167 453	94 144
Egypt	173 452	274 001	295 714	491 643	0.3	0.5	6 697	261 741
Libya	567 436	625 212	683 998	771 146	10.6	12.3	11 543	25 561
Morocco	53 034	54 379	70 909	88 511	0.2	0.3	2 105	1 560
Sudan	801 883	541 994	578 363	503 477	2.9	1.3	414 928	205 174
Tunisia	36 446	35 040	43 172	56 701	0.4	0.5	175	924

<sup>13</sup> For consistence with the source of information, categorisation of countries by region is based on the one used by the United Nations Population Division – Department of Economic and Social Affairs (*UNDESA Population Division, 2016*)

Western Sahara	3 289	3 891	4 493	5 179	1.1	0.9	0	0
<b>Southern Africa</b>	<b>1 222 314</b>	<b>1 439 426</b>	<b>2 203 306</b>	<b>3 435 194</b>	<b>2.4</b>	<b>5.5</b>	<b>46 568</b>	<b>117 074</b>
Botswana	57 064	88 829	120 912	160 644	3.3	7.1	3 551	2 766
Lesotho	6 167	6 290	6 414	6 572	0.3	0.3	1	44
Namibia	134 403	106 274	102 405	93 888	7.1	3.8	27 263	1 519
South Africa	1 001 825	1 210 936	1 943 099	3 142 511	2.2	5.8	15 063	112 192
Swaziland	22 855	27 097	30 476	31 579	2.1	2.5	690	553
<b>Western Africa</b>	<b>5 090 860</b>	<b>5 295 046</b>	<b>5 918 053</b>	<b>6 618 514</b>	<b>2.2</b>	<b>1.9</b>	<b>712 043</b>	<b>316 576</b>
Benin	133 730	171 499	209 267	245 399	1.9	2.3	3 977	219
Burkina Faso	520 039	596 972	673 904	704 676	4.5	3.9	686	31 894
Cape Verde	11 027	12 700	14 373	14 924	2.5	2.9	0	0
Côte d'Ivoire	1 994 135	2 010 824	2 095 185	2 175 399	12.1	9.6	120 691	2 842
Gambia	182 514	181 905	185 763	192 540	14.9	9.7	12 016	11 608
Ghana	191 601	304 436	337 017	399 471	1.0	1.5	12 991	18 450
Guinea	560 075	229 611	205 111	228 413	6.4	1.8	427 206	8 766
Guinea-Bissau	20 450	20 736	21 061	22 333	1.6	1.2	7 587	8 684
Liberia	151 868	87 188	99 129	113 779	5.3	2.5	69 315	38 188
Mali	189 475	256 797	336 607	363 145	1.7	2.1	8 412	14 525
Mauritania	57 366	58 119	84 679	138 162	2.1	3.4	350	79 961
Niger	122 260	124 461	126 464	189 255	1.1	1.0	58	61 084
Nigeria	487 882	648 019	920 118	1 199 115	0.4	0.7	7 270	1 530
Saint Helena	405	487	569	604	7.9	15.2	0	0
Senegal	231 901	238 298	256 092	263 242	2.4	1.7	22 715	14 257
Sierra Leone	98 241	149 615	97 452	91 213	2.4	1.4	6 546	2 403
Togo	137 891	203 379	255 262	276 844	2.8	3.8	12 223	22 165

Source: UNDESA Population Division (2016)

### **ANNEX G: MIGRATION PROFILES IN AFRICA BY YEAR**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Year</b>
Benin	2011
Cape Verde	2009
Cameroon	2009
Central African Republic	2011
Côte d'Ivoire	2009
Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)	2009
Ghana	2009
Kenya	2015
Mali	2009
Madagascar	2013
Malawi	2014
Mauritania	2009
Mauritius	2013
Namibia	2016
Niger	2009
Nigeria	2009
Senegal	2009
Seychelles	2013
Sudan	2011
Tanzania	2015
Togo	2015
Uganda	2013
Zimbabwe	2009

**Source:** IOM Website



## **ANNEX H: DATA COLLECTION TOOLS**

### **KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW GUIDE**

#### **Regional Economic Communities (RECs)**

1. In general, how has the REC responded to the Migration Policy Framework for Africa (MPFA) since its formulation in 2006?
2. What policies has the REC been using to manage migration in its area of jurisdiction?
3. If your answer to Q.2 is YES, Please explain in what way(s) the MPFA was useful in providing guidance in the formulation of the RECs migration policy?
4. In your opinion, which areas of the MPFA are least useful as a guide to the RECs in managing migration, and how can these be improved?
5. Have these migration policies been mainstreamed in the RECs' regional development plan? If YES, please explain how this was achieved.
6. If the MPFA was to be revised, which areas do you think would need to be revised, and what are your reasons for suggesting these revisions?
7. What support would the REC need in facilitating the adoption and adaption of the MPFA by the REC and its Member States?
8. What are the migration concerns that affect the Member States in the REC? How has the TEC been addressing these concerns?
9. What specific migration issues within the MPFA has the REC taken up?
10. Describe the existing capacity of the REC in handling migration issues?
  - a. What are your primary concerns regarding the capacity especially in relation to mainstreaming the MPFA at a regional level?
11. How has the REC engaged with the Member States to 'Domesticate' the MPFA?
12. What institutions has the REC engaged/collaborated with in the 'domesticating' exercise?
  - a. What has been the nature of their relationship?
13. What are some of the challenges – social, political, economic and geographical – which you foresee as possible barriers to the implementation/incorporation of the MPFA among your Member States?
  - a. Do you have contingency plans to avoid these barriers? If so, what are they?
14. If adopted by all your REC Member States, what are some of the opportunities that in your view could arise from the MPFA's full implementation?
15. In your opinion, how best can the MPFA be implemented within your REC and across the rest of the RECs?
16. From your observation of migration levels in the region in the last 10 years (in-coming and out-going) how do you project migration levels in the next 10 years?
  - a. Do you think it will increase, reduce or remain the same? Please explain
17. Can you share any relevant documents on migration or related to the MPFA?

#### **Member States Government Officials**

1. How would you describe the current state of migration in your country/region?
2. What are some of the primary migration issues that the country currently faces?
3. How has the government responded to these migration challenges?

4. In general, how has the government responded to the MPFA since its formulation in 2006?
5. What policy has the country been using to management migration?
6. Was the formulation of this policy informed by the MPFA? If so, please explain how this was achieved? If not, please explain?
  - a. If your answer to the question is yes, please explain in what way(s) the MPFA was useful in providing in the formulation of the country's migration policy?
7. In your opinion, which areas of the MPFA are least useful as a guide to the country in managing migration, and how can these be improved?
8. Has the migration policies been mainstreamed in the national development plan? If yes, please explain how this was achieved?
9. If the MPFA was to be revised, which areas do you think would need to be revised, and what are your reasons for suggesting these revisions?
10. What support would the government need in domesticating the MPFA?
  - a. Has this migration policy been mainstreamed in the national development plan? If yes, please explain how this was achieved?
11. Which ministry/department is responsible for managing migration?
  - a. In your opinion, does the ministry/department have the capacity to support the mainstreaming of migration into national policy and implementation?
  - b. If yes, explain your response? If no, what is missing?
12. Does your ministry/department work with any NGOs, CSOs and the private sector on MFPA issues?
  - a. What are they names of these organisations and what has been the nature of your working relationship?
  - b. What do you think about their contribution to the MPFA?
  - c. Are there any other NGOs, CSOs and Private Sector organization that you could work with to implement the Migration Policy Framework for Africa? Which ones and what would be the nature of your working relationship?
13. What assistance has your ministry/department received from the AU/REC/other organizations regarding domesticating the MPFA and mainstreaming migration into national development plans?
  - a. What are your thoughts on the assistance your ministry/department has received?
14. What other assistance does your government require from other actors e.g.AU/RECs/Other organizations to ensure adoption/domestication of the MFPA and mainstreaming migration into national development plans guidelines?
15. What challenges/barriers have you experienced or do you foresee in the domesticating the MFPA? What mechanisms do you have in place to resolve these challenges?
16. What are some of the likely opportunities to be gained from domesticating the MPFA?
17. From your observation of migration levels in the country in the last 10 years (in-coming and out-going), how do you project migration levels in the next 10 years? Do you think it will increase, reduce or remain the same? Please explain
  - a. How useful would domesticating the MPFA be in terms of these future migration trends and impact?
18. Kindly provide all relevant documentation as follows: (i) migration policies; and (ii) national development plan?

## Civil Society Organisation

1. What does your organisation do in relation to migration and related issues in your country and region?
2. What is your opinion about the currently states of migration and migration-related issues in your country and region?
3. How do you think your government or the RECs are handling migration issues in your country and region?
  - a. What are your concerns about the way the government and/or RECs are handling migration related issues?
4. What do you understand about the MPFA and what it is meant to do in relation to migration?
  - a. How did you get to know about the MPFA?
  - b. How is your organization involved in the design and/or implementation of the MPFA in your country?
  - c. Is your organization involved in any working groups that specifically look into migration matters and in particular look at mainstreaming the MPFA into national policy? Which ones and how active are they
5. How does your organization work with government on the implementation of migration activities? How would you describe your working relationship?
6. In what ways did CSO/NGOs contribute to formulation of national/regional migration policies and mainstreaming migration into national/regional development plans?
  - a. What impact has your organization had in assisting the country/REC in domesticating the MPFA and mainstreaming migration into national policy?
7. What are some of the challenges that CSOs, and NGOs face working with the Government/RECs on formulating and mainstreaming migration policies into national/regional development plans?
8. What opportunities does your organization or any other CSOs/NGOs foresee arising from the actualization/implementation of the MFPA by your country as well as the REC to which it is a Member State?
9. What are your suggestions/recommendations on how best to domesticate the MFPA and mainstream migration into national policy?
10. From your observation of migration levels in the country in the last 10 years (in-coming and out-going), how do you project migration levels in the next 10 years? Do you think it will increase, reduce or remain the same? Please explain
11. Can you share with us any relevant documents related to the MPFA and your organisation's activities linked to it?

## PERFORMANCE EVALUATION SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

### Section A: General

1. Type of organisation:
  - Regional Economic Community
  - CSO/NGOs
  - Other (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_
2. Country where the organisation/REC office is located \_\_\_\_\_
3. Respondent's current position \_\_\_\_\_

### Section B: Nature and Trends of Migration

4. To what extent is your country/region experiencing the following forms of migration? On a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being not applicable and 5 being very applicable. N/O means no opinion

<i>N/O</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>
Labour migration	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	○
Irregular migration	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	○
Forced displacement	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	○
d. Other (specify)	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	○

5. To what extent is your country/region experiencing challenges with the following migration concerns - On a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being no challenges and 5 being major challenges. N/O means no opinion

	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>N/O</i>
Labour migration	① ② ③ ④ ⑤		○
Irregular migration	① ② ③ ④ ⑤		○
Forced displacement	① ② ③ ④ ⑤		○
Border management	① ② ③ ④ ⑤		○
Human rights of migrants	① ② ③ ④ ⑤		○
Migration data	① ② ③ ④ ⑤		○
Migration and development	① ② ③ ④ ⑤		○
Inter-state co-operation and partnerships	① ② ③ ④ ⑤		○
Other (specify)	① ② ③ ④ ⑤		○

6. What are the destinations of migrants from your country/region? On a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being not applicable at all and 5 being very common destination. N/O means no opinion

	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>N/O</i>			
Within the Regional Economic Community	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>
Within Africa but outside the region	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>
Outside Africa	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>

7. What drives citizens to move out of your country/region? On a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being not a driving factor at all and 5 being very common factor. N/O means no opinion

	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>N/O</i>			
Political	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>
Socio-economic	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>
Environmental	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>
Other (specify)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>

8. What is the origin of migrants into your country/region (if any)? On a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being not applicable at all and 5 being very common origin. N/O means no opinion

	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>N/O</i>			
Within the Regional Economic Community	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>
Within Africa but outside the region	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>
Outside Africa	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>

9. What attracts migrants into your country/region? On a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being not a driving factor at all and 5 being very common factor. N/O means no opinion

	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>N/O</i>			
Political	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>
Socio-economic	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>
Environmental	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>
Other (specify)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>

10. What is the main gender and age category of migrants in your country/region in the last 10 years? On a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being minimal or no migrants in the category and 5 being common group of migrants. N/O means no opinion

<b>Out-going N/O</b>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>				
Male Youth (15-35 years)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>

Female Youth	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>
Male Adults (above 35 years)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>
Female Adults	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>

In-coming N/O	Min	Max				
Male Youth	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>
Female Youth	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>
Male Adults	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>
Female Adults	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/>

11. From your observation of migration levels in your country/region in the last 10 years, how do you project migration levels in the next 10 years?

Out-going:

- Increase
- Decrease
- Remain the same

In-Coming:

- Increase
- Decrease
- Remain the same

**Section C: Policies on Migration**

12. Are you familiar with the Migration Policy Framework for Africa (MPFA)?

- Yes
- No

13. How useful is the MPFA as a guide in handling migration issues in your country/region?

- Always useful
- Very useful
- Sometimes useful
- Never useful

14. Does your country/region have a national/regional migration policy?

- Yes
- No

15. If YES, when was the latest migration policy put in place?

- More than 10 years ago
- Last 5-10 years ago
- Less than 5 years

16. To what extent does the national/regional migration policy address the following challenges? - On a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being not addressed by the policy at all and 5 being key issue in the policy. N/O means no opinion

N/O	Min	Max
Upholding the humanitarian principles of migration	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/>	
Border management and security	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/>	
Promotion of regular and labour migration	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/>	
Integration of migrants in host communities	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/>	
Migration and Development	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/>	
Capacity building (Human and institutional)	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/>	
Policy relevant research	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/>	
Other (specify)	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/>	

17. To what extent was the national/regional migration policy in your country/region informed by the MPFA? On a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being not informed at all and 5 being entirely informed by MPFA. N/O means no opinion.

N/O	Min	Max
National/regional migration policy was informed by the MPFA	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/>	

18. To what extent does your country/REC work with the following institutions in the design and implementation of migration policies?

	Min	Max	N/O
CSOs/NGOs	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/>		
International Organisation for Migration	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/>		
African Union (AU)	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/>		
Origin, transit and destination states	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/>		
REC headquarter (applies to countries only)	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/>		
Governments of Member States (applies to REC only)	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/>		
Other (specify)	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/>		

19. To what extent does implementation of national/regional migration policies present opportunities for improvement in the following areas in your country/region? On a scale

of 1 to 5, with 1 being no opportunity for improvement at all and 5 being significant improvement. N/O means no opinion

N/O	Min	Max				
Security	1	2	3	4	5	<input type="radio"/>
Stability	1	2	3	4	5	<input type="radio"/>
Development	1	2	3	4	5	<input type="radio"/>
Business opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	<input type="radio"/>
Cooperation with other countries	1	2	3	4	5	<input type="radio"/>
Other (specify)	1	2	3	4	5	<input type="radio"/>

---