

BACKGROUND PAPER WMR 2010

The Future of Migration Policies in Africa



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The Future of Migration Policies in Africa

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FOREWORD

This paper is one of 19 background papers which have been prepared for the IOM, 2010 World Migration Report which is entitled the “Future of Migration: Building Capacities for Change”. The 2010 report focuses on likely future trends in migration and the capacities that will be required by States, regional and international organizations, civil society and the private sector to manage migration successfully over the coming decades.

Over the next few decades, international migration is likely to transform in scale, reach and complexity, due to growing demographic disparities, the effects of environmental change, new global political and economic dynamics, technological revolutions and social networks.

The 2010 World Migration Report focuses on capacity-building, first because it is good governance to plan for the future, especially during a period of economic downturn when the tendency is to focus on immediate impacts and the short-term period of recovery. Second, capacity-building is widely acknowledged to be an essential component of effective migration management, helping to ensure the orderly and humane management of migration.

Part A of the World Migration Report 2010 focuses on identifying core capacities in key areas of migration management. The aim is not to recommend “one size fits all” policies and practices, but to suggest objectives of migration management policies in each area, to stimulate thinking and provide examples of what States and other actors can do.

Part B of the World Migration Report 2010, provides an overview of the latest global and regional trends in migration. In recognition of the importance of the largest global economic recession since the 1930s, this section has a particular focus on the effects of this crisis on migrants, migration and remittances.

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INTRODUCTION

The key objective of this paper is to assess current capacities to cope with changing migration patterns and processes in formulating comprehensive migration policies in Africa, to identify existing gaps and to make recommendations concerning capacity-building in the future. Part 1 presents a brief overview of the future of migration policies in Africa and how they will be affected by changing international migration patterns and processes. Within the context of the framework of the 3Ds – demography, democracy and development (which includes the impact of climate change) – the role of the civil society actors is examined, as is the emerging involvement of the business, corporate sector in migration issues in Africa. The economic crisis is impacting migration in many ways, including loss of jobs and programmes for voluntary return of migrants, and these dynamics will shape the orientation of future migration policies.

Part 2 assesses the existing capacities to respond to the impact of changing migration patterns and processes on migration policies in Africa. The specific gaps that need to be filled in order to enhance the efficiency of such policies are also identified. Part 3 focuses specifically on capacity-building and the areas where further capacity is required, based on the key areas identified. The concluding section highlights recommendations targeted at local, national and regional levels, as well as the organizations and agencies responsible for implementing the recommendations.

PRESENTATION OF THE TOPIC

Over the past few years, a series of important international-, regional- and national-level meetings and events focusing on migration and development have had a catalytic effect on migration discourse and policy in Africa. At the international level, the report of the Global Commission for International Migration (2005), the UN High-Level Dialogue on Migration and Development (2006) and the Global Forum on Migration and Development (Brussels, 2007; Manila, 2008; and Athens, 2009) have helped place international migration at the forefront of policy debate. At the regional African level, significant events include the African Union's Strategic Framework for a Policy on Migration (2001) and the ECOWAS¹ common approach on migration (2006). The European Union (EU) and African Union (AU) have held a series of meetings to address issues relating to regular and irregular migration between the two regions: the Euro-African conference on migration and development (2006); the Joint Africa-EU Declaration on Migration and Development (2006); the Follow-up Meeting of the Rabat Process (2007) in Madrid; and the EU-African summit in Lisbon (2008).

In Africa, intraregional migration is dominant, and economic organizations at subregional levels are potential vehicles for migration policy development. Where these organizations are dominated by the economies of one or two countries, movements of people have been directed to its core countries, as in Botswana and South Africa in southern Africa, Gabon in central Africa, Kenya in eastern Africa, Côte d'Ivoire and Nigeria in West Africa, and Libyan Arab Jamahiriya in North Africa. Many of these dynamics are set to change, especially in the face of ongoing global financial and economic turmoil, and the profound impact of climate change.

ECOWAS was a pace-setter in articulating a protocol on free movement of persons in 1979; it also adopted a common position on migration in 2006, as did the African Union earlier on. Nigeria, the region's demographic giant, formulated a national migration policy in 2007. South

¹ Economic Community of West African States

Africa, the region's economic hub, adopted such policy in 1999, as a post-apartheid measure to manage migration. Recently, Rwanda has done the same and many other countries, such as Ghana, Senegal, Uganda and Zimbabwe, among others, are set to follow.

Expected future migration trends and policies

In the next two decades, migration trends in Africa will be largely shaped by economic, demographic and climate change dynamics. The speed and depth of ongoing economic crises make African countries very vulnerable. South Africa, for its part, is experiencing the worst economic depression since 1992, and its impact is being felt by the labour-sending countries whose economies are very largely dependent on that of South Africa and on migrants' remittances. Botswana's economy – the best managed in Africa – has also been hard hit, forcing the country to borrow USD 1.5 billion from the African Development Bank to buttress a fiscal deficit as diamond export earnings are hit by the recession (Adepoju, 2009). Unlike high-income countries, African countries are unable to launch robust stimulus plans, due to financial and institutional constraints, thereby exposing their already poor, aid-dependent populations to further hardship, and reshaping the architecture of the dominant intraregional migration flows. Many industries where migrants predominate (such as tourism in Ireland, construction in Spain and North America, and financial services in Britain) have been among the first to shed jobs (Ghosh, 2009). More recent arrivals in Europe have been distressed by the restricted global labour market and the increasing challenge of finding even menial work. With unemployment in most receiving countries at its highest levels for 15 years – 12 per cent in Spain and over 7 per cent in the United States – prospects for immigration, especially of unskilled workers, are dim.

The predictable impact of an economic slump in rich countries is that some potential migrants from Africa may be discouraged from making the move, some may have to return voluntarily or be forced to take that decision, while yet others may opt to instead migrate to emerging economies such as China, Brazil and India. Any South–South migration already set in motion would intensify. Set against the International Labour Organization's (ILO's) projected global loss of about 20 million jobs in 2009, migration is bound to slow down – perhaps for longer than currently projected (*The Economist*, 2009a). For now, Spain and Switzerland are implementing return programmes, providing cash incentives for migrants to return home. In effect, African migrant-sending countries have to implement reception, reinsertion and resettlement programmes for returning migrants, while concurrently revamping viable economic activities to retain potential emigrants. These and other developments will need to be factored into future migration policy formulation and implementation.

Migrants' remittances to African countries have exceeded funds obtained via official development assistance and foreign direct investments and, for many remittance-dependent countries, have become major sources of foreign exchange earnings. Remittances provide a lifeline and have lifted many families and individuals out of poverty, while boosting educational enrolment and enhancing the health status of migrants' household members left behind. But will this trend continue, in view of the massive job losses in host countries that employ migrants? Migrant-sending and aid-dependent countries will suffer most from the financial and economic crisis, given the uncertainties surrounding continued migrant remittance flows, while development assistance is set to dwindle. With poverty and human deprivation intensifying, out-migration to relatively resource-rich localities within and outside the region would accelerate. It is in this context that migration policy will need to incorporate education programmes in financial literacy to promote a more productive use of remittances by recipient households.

Africa's unemployment rate (estimated at 10 per cent in 2006) is compounded by the growing number of working poor (ILO, 2007). The projected youth population of 500 million by 2050 raises the spectre of a deepening employment crisis. Currently, the lack of decent work prompts youths to emigrate in search of a more secure future. Due to difficulties in obtaining entry permits, these young migrants often engage in dangerous journeys to enter Europe as irregular and undocumented migrants. That trend may accelerate in the coming decades, thereby necessitating migration policies and programmes aimed at regulating these flows of young migrants.

Africa suffers the most from the consequences of global climate changes, although it accounts for only a small proportion of greenhouse gas emissions. Major environmental challenges and the degradation of natural resources (deforestation, desertification, drought (in the Sahelian region), soil erosion and floods (in coastal regions)) would result in the displacement of millions of people, intensify internal (especially rural–urban) migration and could also create international migration within and outside the region that may become self-perpetuating. To these must be added water, air and ground pollution, especially in already overcrowded cities. However, current knowledge on the relationship between climate change and migration is incomplete and we need to explore more systematically why most people impacted by environmental degradation in Africa do not, in fact, migrate (Hietanen, 2009).

Africa contains half – or 12 million – of the world's internally displaced persons (IDPs). While the number displaced by conflicts appears to be falling, the number of those displaced by climate change "is climbing fast", with Africa set to host the bulk of the world's 200 million migrants predicted to result from the effects of climate change. Already, by 2008, 700,000 Africans were displaced by climate change (*The Economist*, 2009b).

CURRENT CAPACITIES

In the current migration–development nexus, with emigration pressure intensifying in African countries, while receiving countries are reinforcing their entry requirements and shutting their gates against irregular migrants, new approaches are required to formulate coherent and concerted migratory policies congruent with those of other fields related to migration. Such policies need to focus particularly on trade, development, environment and human rights, and they must be comprehensive enough to include the needs and interests of sending, transit and receiving countries.

Thus far, there is a severely limited capacity to deal with the three key aspects of migration that have engaged the attention of policymakers in Africa: huge inflows of migrant remittances, brain drain of skilled professionals and its impact on the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), and the potential for diasporas to contribute to the development of their home countries. (The latter's potential is considered to be very significant, as demonstrated by the fact that the AU recognized the African diaspora as its 6th region.) In addition, the irregular migration of youths and the impact of climate change and environmental deterioration on both internal and international migration are crucial elements that will have to be factored into responsive migration policies in the coming decades.

At the moment, most African countries lack both the institutional and the human resources capacity to formulate synchronized migration policies, and several agencies are often involved in dealing with issues relating to migration, resulting in its uncoordinated implementation. Nigeria's case vividly illustrates this: the Ministry of Foreign Affairs' unit of Nigerians in Diaspora Organisation (NIDO) serves as the headquarters of NIDO worldwide – in Europe,

North America, Africa and Asia. The Nigerian National Volunteer Service (NNVS) coordinates the involvement of the Nigerian diaspora in domestic development and the annual Diaspora Conference. A Special Assistant on Diaspora was appointed by the former President Obasanjo. The Lower House has also established a House Committee on Diaspora to, among other things, promote an exchange of ideas with the Nigerian diaspora and is working on a legal framework aimed at creating a Nigerian Diaspora Commission. In spite of the migration policy's focus on the diaspora, related activities remain disparate, uncoordinated and inefficient, due to insufficient human capacity.

There is a general dearth of reliable migration data. In order to ensure a coherent migration policy, current data collection methods must be reviewed, updated and expanded. Migration management involves the development of a comprehensive policy framework that takes into account: the direct and indirect impacts of sectoral policies on trade, investment, employment, health etc.; comprehensive and coherent migration management policy formulation and implementation; research in partnership with policymakers; and intra-agency collaboration and synergy between sectoral policies (IOM, 2004). Currently, there is no forum for policy dialogue to engage all stakeholders – policymakers, politicians, civil society, the media and migrant associations – who have conflicting interests in matters of migration management.

African countries are facing daunting challenges on, and lack the capacity to deal with, changing migratory configurations; the AU strategic framework for a policy on migration (2004), designed to ensure integration of migration and related issues into national and regional agendas for security, development and cooperation, remains largely unimplemented. Its common approach on migration and development (2006) encouraged Member States to, among other things: establish a central body to manage migration; introduce legal frameworks to tackle irregular migration; establish appropriate mechanisms for national focal points to regularly exchange information; and coordinate research to provide reliable information on migration. More importantly, African States were encouraged to: adopt a policy on migration; facilitate and encourage the return of skilled migrants; and foster intersectoral or inter-ministerial coordination and dialogue on migration. However, the institutional capacity at the AU Secretariat is very weak, and it is even weaker at the country level, with only one or two officials responsible for managing the migration unit and its activities.

The ECOWAS common approach on migration (2006) advanced the Protocol on the Free Movements of Persons, Rights of Residence and Establishment. The Secretariat established a special Task Force on Migration and, following its transformation into a Commission, a Department on the Free Movement of Persons was created. The clusters of the common approach focus on:

- better implementation of the Protocol on the Free Movement of Persons, the Right of Residence and Establishment;
- combating human trafficking and providing humanitarian assistance.
- harmonizing policies and bilateral agreements with additional countries;
- promoting the adoption of migration policies by ECOWAS Member States, together with harmonized migration management and sector development policies;
- protection of the rights of migrants, asylum seekers and refugees;
- ensuring the implementation of protocols relevant to international conventions;
- recognition of the gender dimension of migration.

As in the case of the AU, the major challenge lies in reinforcing the fragile capacity of relevant institutions and officials of the ECOWAS Commission. In response, Spain provided substantial funding support to strengthen the Commission's human capacity; two positions for migration experts were subsequently advertised and were to be filled by early 2009.

At the national level, Nigeria crafted a draft national migration policy in 2007; before that, in 1999, South Africa developed elements of a migration policy and, recently, Rwanda did the same. In Senegal, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Senegalese Abroad was restructured in 1993 to enhance the welfare of nationals abroad and to encourage emigrants to be actively involved in the socio-economic development of their home communities; it also articulated programmes for the repatriation and rehabilitation of its overseas nationals. In a determined effort to resolve the perennial constraints of human and financial resources inhibiting the implementation of programmes, Senegal asked Spain to establish a school to provide professional training for workers in the hospitality industry to further promote tourism in the country.

Mali also created a ministerial-level post to conduct public relations visits to help destination countries understand the circumstances that prompt Malians to emigrate. Consular positions were expanded in the major receiving countries to deal with the Malian migrants' problems, including their return, and migrants are encouraged to send money home regularly. In 2007, a job training and information centre was established by the EU, with ILO's technical support, to match skills with labour market needs in EU countries. Mali, as well as Senegal, is promoting agricultural skills to meet domestic needs and to enable workers to acquire qualifications that are marketable internationally (Adepoju et al., 2010).

More than 10 African countries have now set up diaspora-related institutions and ministries in order to coordinate diaspora-led development-related issues in Ethiopia, Ghana, Mali, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal and Sierra Leone (Oucho, 2009). In addition, the AU Commission has created the African Citizens Directorate to engage overseas diasporas and homeland government. These structures are new and weak, and their activities are often uncoordinated. IOM and other agencies are providing technical assistance to reinforce the institutional capacity of these agencies and train local staff to manage them.

With respect to climate change dynamics, African countries lack the capacity to develop efficient early-warning systems, to monitor the effects of climate change on migration, and to factor these effects into migration policies. Most climate change-related forced migrations are likely to be internal and regional. Environmental and ecological degradation and natural disasters require the intervention of specific policy sectors or actors: agencies dealing with environmental issues could focus on combating desertification; humanitarian agencies are responsible for emergency relief operations for victims of natural disasters; and the asylum sector takes care of refugees (Some and Sedgo, 2001). However, the boundaries of these sectors and actors overlap and coordination between them is often difficult to ensure.

Intermediate actors, especially international non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and UN agencies, are helping to: empower people to plan and manage their local adaptive mechanisms; educate and train people on sustainable and natural resource management practices, and promote environmental education, including health-related issues, at school and village levels. However, few viable local NGOs address deforestation issues at the village level, implement efficient civic education at the school and community levels, develop good early-warning systems for conflict prevention, or promote social harmony, democratic principles and popular participation.

CAPACITY-BUILDING

In the next two decades, many African countries will be formulating national or sectoral migration policies. Such policies, together with the ongoing formulation of labour migration policies in Ghana, Nigeria and Senegal, and of national migration policies in Rwanda, Uganda and Zimbabwe, would require capacity to deal with:

- legal and normative frameworks
- institutional arrangements
- training of immigration officials
- stakeholders' (civil society) involvement and participation
- strengthening administrative structures at national and subnational levels
- establishing migration information and management centres
- enhancing migration data collection, retrieval, analysis and dissemination
- promoting 'Migration Profiles' to support policies and programmes and to promote the Priority Actions defined in the EU-Africa Strategic Partnership and Action Plan on Migration, Mobility and Employment (Lisbon, 2007).

In many African countries, there is little institutional capacity for managing migratory flows and for effective policy formulation and implementation. This capacity must be strengthened, particularly with regard to the ability of officials – in customs, immigration, police and security – to deal with the managed movement of persons as well as the rights and obligations of migrants. Officials currently functioning as border control and security officials could therefore see their role expanded to include that of migration manager. At the national level, collaboration between and within government agencies dealing with migration matters is rare, although essential, resulting in a lack of synergy and coherence, and duplication of efforts and activities.

In general, demographic and economic processes drive migration dynamics yet they seem to be ignored by the political processes that drive migration policies. Moreover, there are wide gaps between what governments agree to and what, in fact, they have the capacity – human and institutional – to implement. In addition to governments (the major stakeholders), civil society organizations, the business community and migrant communities have yet to be fully engaged in migration matters – partly due to a lack of capacity to deal with these complex issues. The key consideration, therefore, is how to bring together all stakeholders or actors – governments, the business community, and civil society at national levels – to engage in a common effort to promote and implement comprehensive migration policies.

Newly-formed Diaspora Ministries lack capacity, experience and resources, as well as institutional competence. Officials must, therefore, receive training to ensure that they are able to develop diaspora-oriented strategy policy papers and proposals that can be translated into feasible strategic interventions.

Given that bilateral and multilateral migration agreements between migrant-sending African countries and countries of the North will feature more prominently in the coming decades, articulating comprehensive and relevant bilateral agreements require capacity-building, especially for officials within Ministries of Justice, Foreign Affairs and Labour, responsible for drafting such agreements and/or endorsing and implementing them. EU countries have been the prime architects, drafting and initiating bilateral agreements, as well as the modalities for their implementation (Adepoju et al., 2009). African governments do not seem to be providing sufficiently critical input in the negotiations leading to the agreements, largely because they

lack the capacity to effectively negotiate and ensure that their specific interests are fully recognized and adequately enshrined in such agreements.

By 2015, over 50 per cent of Africa's population is projected to live in urban areas. In many countries, major capital cities are already home to the majority of the urban population. Big cities are increasingly the big actors in creating jobs, or where migrants hope to secure jobs; they also have a huge responsibility to manage the environment, without the mandate to set national migration policies or agendas. Their officials should share in capacity-building efforts to mainstream migration into development activities. The dialogue process between city mayors and the business sector, initiated by The Hague Process on Refugee and Migration Policy, is a model that can be adapted.

On 23 October 2009, the AU Convention for the protection and assistance of internally displaced persons was signed in Kampala, urging African governments to look after their displaced citizens. Civil society organizations have been mounting intense advocacy campaigns to ensure that enough governments signed the convention, translated it into national laws, and provided sufficient funds for capacity-building and rehabilitation of IDPs.

Each country will vary in terms of the intensity and coverage of the training of officials; the technical assistance needed to carry out surveys; the dissemination of results; and the formulation of migration policy. The drafting of concrete actions plans will also, necessarily, be country-specific.

With respect to climate change, the following critical areas need to be addressed:

- low adaptive capacity;
- lack of skills, technology and information;
- weak institutions and inadequate physical infrastructure;
- poor access to resources;
- inadequate management capabilities.

There is also a need for regional capacity-building, training, research and development relating to climate change, socio-economic systems and migration dynamics so that reliable data and analyses can be used to develop policies at local, national, regional and international levels.

In view of the socio-economic impact of remittances by migrants, and given the existence of migrant associations at family, community and national levels, policies should promote a more creative, effective use of remittances. There is therefore a need to build the capacity for generating financial literacy among recipient households so that migrants' remittances can be used for productive domestic investment, including investment in small and medium-sized enterprises.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The future of migration policies in Africa will be significantly shaped by the following:

- diaspora linkages with home country development;
- remittances and their more productive use for investment;
- measures to encourage migrant return and the retention of skills;
- the medium-to-long-term impact of the current global economic crisis on jobs and opportunities for regular migration.

Other compelling factors will have to be factored into the equation – notably, a young and rapidly growing population, rapid urbanization fuelled by rural–urban migration, and the impact of climate change and environmental degradation.

Resources

African countries must capitalize on ongoing efforts to enhance cooperation and coordination among countries and between/within subregions in the harmonization of migration policies and adoption of common regional approaches to migration issues. To ensure a comprehensive approach and to maximize the gains from migration, there is a need for harmonized data collection, analysis and exchange on labour needs in sending and receiving countries, which will assist such countries in matching labour skills with labour demands.

To ensure a coherent migration policy, current data-collection methods must be reviewed, updated and expanded, and the key agencies responsible for migration matters need to coordinate their activities more effectively. Migration data management and dissemination are crucial to the formulation of relevant and comprehensive migration policies and programmes. Of special significance is the role of observatories in providing governments and other stakeholders with reliable and harmonized migration-related information. Establishing such observatories was one of the key recommendations of the West African Regional Ministerial Meeting in Dakar in 2001. While no Observatory has yet been established specifically for West Africa, IOM supported the launch of the ACP Observatory on Migration in October 2010 which aims at the creation of a network of research centers and private researchers to provide policy-makers, the civil society and the public at large with reliable and harmonized data in the African, Caribbean and Pacific countries. An Observatory on Remittances to LDC countries will also soon be established by the government of Benin in collaboration with IOM. When operational, these observatories could ultimately be linked to the Euro-Mediterranean Consortium for Applied Research on International Migration (CARIM), launched in 2004, which covers migration originating from, transiting through, or destined for the countries of the Middle East and North Africa that border the Mediterranean. Both observatories (the forthcoming IOM Observatory and CARIM) could be linked to the European Migration Network (EMN), to provide a comprehensive picture of the origin-transit-destination migration system. IOM has a critical role to play in helping to set up these observatories.

Countries need to institutionalize the collection of data on internal migration (particularly rural–urban migration), intraregional migration and international migration, and to endeavour to keep track of the number and profile of their nationals migrating abroad. They also have to synchronize their migration policies (where such exist) or, at least, to formulate coherent policies. The problems posed by migration, circulation, permanent residence and settlement – and the policy responses to them – are quite different for each migratory configuration within

the various subregions, and even within individual countries, and are seemingly insurmountable.

Two regional consultative processes were launched in Africa with IOM assistance – the Migration Dialogue for Southern Africa (MIDSA, 2000), and the Migration Dialogue for West Africa (MIDWA, 2001) – to provide a forum for the exchange of information, experience and perspectives, and to facilitate cooperation among governments on migration policy and practice (IOM, 2003). This process laid the foundation for dialogue and cooperation on migration and development between countries, aimed at harmonizing, coordinating and integrating regional migration policies in Africa. It is desirable that the African Economic Community (AEC), when fully established, head in the direction of Article 43 (OAU, 1991) that addresses “free movement of persons, rights of residence and establishment”. The dilemma, however, is how the AEC can succeed where subregional organizations have floundered with respect to the free movement of persons.

There is no formal forum in the region specifically for the discussion of migration matters by all stakeholders – particularly the media and the public, which are filled with anxiety, misconceptions, myths and prejudices, and often subject to xenophobia. Dialogue and consultations among the various stakeholders, to discuss common approaches to their migration concerns and interests, share ideas and enhance understanding and cooperation in migration management, could lead to the development of a coherent policy framework for the management of migration. The dialogue will not happen on its own; it will need to be facilitated and nurtured by relevant organizations such as IOM.

Legal and institutional frameworks

Many African countries remain ambivalent about the principle of free movement of persons and are reluctant to modify domestic laws and administrative practices. Intensive advocacy is therefore needed to harmonize national laws that conflict with regional and subregional treaties to facilitate intraregional labour mobility, establishment and settlement within the region. Growing xenophobia, fanned by the media and politicians hastily, and erroneously blaming irregular migrants for particular problems (as has happened in South Africa and Côte d’Ivoire), highlight the need for public education programmes to halt the hostility towards migrants. Such programmes should showcase the positive aspects of migrants as agents of development in both source and destination countries.

African leaders are exploring ways to retain, attract back and effectively utilize the valuable skills of nationals for national development. Leaders must now implement integrated migration policies in concert with the corporate business sector to ensure that businesses operate at optimum capacity, provide an enabling environment for the private sector to thrive, and promote democratic governance and popular participation so that returning nationals can be more effectively integrated into domestic economies.

Although States retain the power to decide who enters the country and under what conditions, a wide range of civil society organizations, international organizations, financial institutions and the private sector must be more engaged in migration matters. Businesses benefit from multinational skilled labour and are part of the cause of brain drain. They must therefore participate in the development of pragmatic approaches to addressing issues relating to highly skilled migrants from Africa. The challenges are to achieve effective collaboration among non-State actors themselves and between non-State actors and governmental institutions.

African countries need to ensure that their specific interests and concerns are adequately reflected in any bilateral or multilateral migration negotiations. The need to review the unfair trade regimes that impoverish millions of their nationals who are engaged in farming at home should assume centre stage in future migration discussions and agreements. Efforts should be made to revisit existing agreements in order to review and amend unfavourable conditions. The key role of trade relations – especially the short- and long-term effects of trade agreements – is not yet evident to, or appreciated by, many migration stakeholders. This important role needs to be explicitly recognized through capacity-building of officials involved in trade agreements.

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