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International Migration in Africa: Framing the Issues

An Issues Paper*

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1. Background

Africa is often seen as a continent on the move, with people escaping poverty, environmental disaster, or violent conflict. The issue of migration is increasingly present in discussions within the international community, driven in part by sensationalist media reportage that only confirms existing stereotypes.

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Even though most Africans migrating out of the continent are in possession of valid travel documents, “irregular migration from Africa to Europe has received extensive attention”.¹ The dominant image is one of European countries being flooded by migrants from developing countries, with millions of Africans waiting to cross to Europe at the first opportunity.²

In an increasingly fractured and polemical debate, concerns revolve around multiple, and sometimes contradictory issues including rising numbers, migrant fatalities, vulnerabilities, criminality, changing migration policies and the global asylum regime.³ International migration has also become intertwined with issues of global and human security.⁴ In addition, skilled emigration, largely seen as a drain on the country’s human resources with a deleterious impact on its long-term development prospects, adds another dimension to an already crowded field of issues surrounding international migration.

Consequently, and in the absence of reliable data, migration policy is “fought over using competing values rather than competing evidence”.⁵ Emotions threaten to influence public policy in both countries of origin and destination, ignoring “mundane social processes that drive mobility, such as the search for an education, a spouse or a better life in the city”.⁶

People choose to move (‘voluntary migration’) or are forced to do so (‘involuntary migration’). Voluntary migration can be either ‘regular’ or ‘irregular’. Regular migration is one that takes place adhering to the regulatory requirements of the sending, transit and receiving countries. There is no clear or universally accepted definition of irregular migration. It usually refers to movement that takes place evading the regulatory norms.

Involuntary, also called ‘forced’ migration, suggests an element of coercion, including threats to life and livelihood, arising from natural or man-made causes (e.g. movements of refugees and internally displaced persons as well as people displaced by natural or environmental disasters, famine, or development projects).

The Issues Paper addresses the different aspects of international ‘regular’ migration and development in Africa so as to guide the discussions and support regional dialogue during the Conference of Ministers (CoM) 2016. After setting the scope, the Paper frames the issues by briefly analysing the extent, nature and drivers of migration in Africa, the process of migration, and the challenges imposed by limited availability of reliable data; reviews what various agencies are doing in each of these areas, and concludes with suggestions for a proposed approach for implementation by African member States and development partners within the continental frameworks on migration.

2. Analytical framework

Globalization has opened new avenues for migration. Distances have shrunk, information on opportunities is easily available and widely shared, at the same time as aspirations for a better life have risen. More than 1 billion of the total world population of 7 billion are estimated to be on the move, of whom 25 percent cross international boundaries.⁷

About 31 million Africans, or little more than 3 percent of the continent’s population, have migrated internationally (including within Africa).⁸ This figure includes both voluntary and involuntary migrants. Nearly 28 percent of them have been from North Africa.⁹

Intra-African migration

Migration streams within Africa are much larger than those out of Africa – more than half of those migrating internationally do so within Africa, with only about

28 percent of migrants from Africa going to Europe. Of the total migrant stock in Europe, less than 12 percent are from Africa.¹⁰

About two-thirds of migrants from Africa, excluding North Africa, particularly poorer migrants, go to other countries within Africa, with the bulk of migrants remaining within their sub-regions. Of those emigrating, more than 70 percent in West Africa, 65 percent in Southern Africa, 50 percent in Central Africa, and 47 percent in East Africa migrate within the sub-region. Only in North Africa do 90 percent of emigrants go to destinations outside of Africa, predominantly in Europe, the Middle East, and North America.¹¹

However, recent research using the Global Bilateral Migration Database (GBMD)¹² concludes that intra-African emigration has shown a *declining* trend between 1960 and 2000, whereas African emigration outside the continent, albeit much lower, showed an *increasing* trend, particularly between 1960 and 1980.

The comparatively high migration levels noticed within the West Africa sub-region on the other hand, seem linked to the fact that this region contains many smaller countries both in population and in land surface, and migration likely spills over national borders.¹³ In fact, crossing borders for trading, especially by women, is common in the sub-region and depending on the length of the stay, may not be thought of as migration.¹⁴

In addition, the many ethnic groups in several West African countries provide strong network connections across borders; coast-bound migration patterns were already established under colonial rule; and the single currency and visa-free movement among ECOWAS (Economic Community of West African States) countries helps promote hassle-free migration with the sub-region.¹⁵

Further, the majority of migrants (and displaced populations) move to urban areas.¹⁶ Almost all countries are now simultaneously countries of origin, transit and destination.

The recent, almost exclusive, focus of the media, and increasingly of policy and research, on irregular migration, smuggling, trafficking and the high death toll amongst those crossing the Mediterranean, have reinforced the impression that African migration is essentially directed towards Europe and driven by poverty.

These beliefs are often “based on assumption, selective observation or journalistic impressions”,¹⁷ for **even though inter-continental migration is increasing, intra-African migration, and especially within the same sub-region, predominates.**

Profile of migrants

Migrants tend to be young adults (usually between the ages of 15 and 40), male, and generally have some education beyond primary school. Usually the young and well educated have the highest propensity to move elsewhere, and the median age of African migrants is 29.9 years.¹⁸

Migration, especially for employment, has historically been a preserve of men. A significant change in migration patterns in the last half century is that migration has increasingly become feminized. More women are migrating on their own than ever before, and **women now constitute almost half (49 percent) of the international migrant population,**¹⁹ - in some countries as much as 70-80 percent.²⁰

Women are now likely to seek employment opportunities abroad in domains previously dominated by men. All the same, a significant proportion of African female migrants are blue-collar workers migrating independently because of high demand for some professional categories dominated by women, such as nursing or domestic and care work. This feminization of migration can be empowering for women but many migrant women tend to fill low-end jobs, and are vulnerable to physical, psychological and sexual abuse, as well as non-payment or under-payment of wages.

Prevailing migration theory largely applies to conventional flows of people from poorer to richer countries (known as south-north migration). The recent flow of skilled migrants from countries in the south to Africa exemplifies the phenomenon of south-south migration.²¹

Most African countries attracting migrants are not traditional migration destinations. Non-traditional destinations are often left out of migration studies due to the continued focus on migration of low-skilled workers to high-income countries. **The migration of better-educated individuals to Africa is a relatively new trend which leads to a diverse migration system, and requires careful analysis for a more nuanced view of migration flows worldwide.**

Skilled migration

Skilled migration rates are particularly high in Africa. Highly educated workers are more likely to emigrate than less educated workers. Nearly 15 percent of tertiary-educated workers migrate from Africa, the third highest rate after the Caribbean and Central America and Mexico.

Since 1990, about 20,000 skilled professionals are estimated to leave Africa every year,²² depriving the continent of trained professionals (doctors, nurses, teachers and engineers) needed to break the cycle of poverty and assist in structural transformation. Small and poor countries are estimated to have lost an unusually large share of their skilled workforce. The stock of skilled emigrants averages 30 percent of the skilled workforce in small countries and almost 25 percent in low-income countries. The rate of skilled migration exceeds 50 percent in countries like Cape Verde, The Gambia, Seychelles, and Somalia.²³

In general, tertiary education graduates fare better than those with lower levels of education in the labour market of destination countries, but young Africans have much less favourable labour market outcomes than migrants from other regions in the world. However, there are cases of well-trained African professionals ending up with jobs below their qualifications. This constitutes a loss, both to the sending and host countries, when well-trained personnel are not fully utilized.

In Africa excluding North Africa, the tertiary educated account for less than 3 percent of the labour force, but more than 35 percent of all migrants. Inadequate remuneration packages, poverty, limited health services and poor working conditions, make it difficult for Africa to compete with richer countries that usually promise or offer bigger salaries, better working conditions and political stability.

However, a study of physician emigration in 53 African countries found no evidence to support the assertion that emigration of health-care personnel from Africa, excluding North Africa, has a negative impact on public health and damages Africa's development.²⁴ The study noted that ironically, the countries in Africa with the lowest rates of physician and nurse emigration are those with the worst overall health outcomes.

A possible explanation is that health professionals in Africa, as in many other developing countries, rarely work in poor rural areas where the burden of disease is highest. Their skills are not the ones usually needed most by people whose children die in the early stages of life. Emigration may thus be more a symptom than a cause of health failures in Africa.²⁵

On the other hand, a study of over 2,000 health professionals across Ghana, Uganda, Cameroon, Zimbabwe, South Africa and Senegal to assess the impact of migration of health personnel²⁶ concluded that their loss had a significant impact in terms of increasing workload of those left behind. It decreased motivation and quality of service provided by those who remained, who are often less skilled and qualified to carry out specialised tasks.

Clearly, much more rigorous research is needed to assess the impact of skilled emigration, pejoratively called 'brain drain', and national development,

to take into account diaspora remittances that are critical sources of additional financial flows to the countries of origin.

Remittances

Remittance inflows to Africa quadrupled between 1990 and 2010, reaching nearly \$40 billion in 2010, equivalent to, on average, 2.6 percent of Africa's gross domestic product (GDP). In Lesotho, remittances contributed nearly 25 percent of the GDP in 2012. Since 2006 remittances have been Africa's largest source of foreign inflows after foreign direct investment (FDI).

Remittance receipts generate large benefits for emigrants' countries of origin. At the national level, migrant remittances are known to contribute to international reserves, help finance imports, and improve the current account position of recipient countries. They tend to be more stable than other sources of foreign exchange; their variation is often countercyclical, helping sustain consumption and investment during downturns; and they improve sovereign creditworthiness, by increasing the level and stability of foreign exchange receipts.²⁷

A study on the characteristics of African remittance senders based on microdata of more than 12,000 African migrants in nine OECD countries²⁸ complements the findings from surveys of remittance-recipient households. The destination country data suggest that Africans remit twice as much on average as migrants from other developing countries. The average annual remittance sent by an African emigrant household is \$1,263 – more than the average annual per capita income of countries in Africa, excluding North Africa. Africans also tend to remit more often, and migrants from poorer countries are more likely to remit than those from richer countries.

However, the evidence on whether skilled or unskilled migrants send larger remittances is mixed. Some studies suggest that skilled migrants remit less, because they are more likely to settle down in their host countries and eventually bring their families.²⁹ Other studies, based on microdata, find a positive relationship between education and the amounts remitted.³⁰ Some authors suggest that remittances sent by skilled migrants may exceed the cost of their training.³¹

Male African migrants in the OECD send larger amounts on average than females (\$1,446 compared with \$878 for females) partly because of their higher earnings, but also because they are more likely to have spouses back home.³²

Common means of transferring remittances include banks or other financial intermediaries, post offices, money transfer operators (e.g. Western Union and Moneygram), carrying cash by hand (personally or through an agent), bringing goods, instructing payment through cell phones or other communications media (with settlement within the transfer firm effected separately), bundling remittances through informal networks to reduce transactions costs, and purchasing goods or services for the benefit of households in origin countries. Fees in informal networks tend to be lower than in banks or money transfer operators, although not necessarily lower than postal orders (though post offices can be slower and less reliable than other transfer modalities).³³

In a recent survey, the cost of sending remittances to countries in Africa, excluding North Africa, averaged almost 10 percent of a \$200 transaction, compared with less than 8 percent for most other developing regions. The cost of cross-border remittances within Africa, if permitted at all, tends to be even higher.³⁴

Remittance flows are likely significantly underestimated. Only about half of the countries in Africa collect remittance data with any regularity, and some major receivers of remittances report no data at all. Few African countries report monthly or quarterly data on remittances. **There is an urgent need to improve the inadequate collection of data on remittances to assist in design of suitable policies.**

Impact of migration

Remittance receipts generate large benefits for emigrants' countries of origin. At the macro level, remittances tend to be more stable than other sources of foreign exchange; their variation is often countercyclical, helping sustain consumption and investment during downturns; and they improve sovereign creditworthiness, by increasing the level and stability of foreign exchange receipts.

At the level of the household, remittances reduce poverty, spur spending on health and education, and promote increased business investments.³⁵ The proportion of remittances invested in food, health and education ranged from 30 percent in Kenya and 37 percent in Nigeria to 47 percent in Burkina Faso and 67 percent in Senegal.³⁶

In addition, migration acts as an intra-household risk-diversification strategy, and remittances support family consumption in case of an adverse shock by diversifying the sources of household income. For example, Ethiopian households that receive international remittances are less likely than other households to sell their productive assets, such as livestock, to cope with food shortages. Remittances helped smooth the household consumption of rural farmers in Ghana and responded positively to shocks suffered by recipient households in rural Mali.³⁷

While producing valuable knowledge on the impact of emigration in countries of origin, the contribution of labour immigration in developing countries has rarely been studied or taken into account in economic and employment policy-making. **There is a need to better understand immigration's contribution to support the design of evidence-based labour and migration policies, secure the protection of migrants' human rights, and make migration work for growth and development.**

3. Key drivers of African migration

Motivations to migrate arise from a combination of factors such as demographic shifts; lack of employment opportunities, especially for the young; endemic poverty; natural disasters; income inequality and perceptions of unequal distribution of wealth; conflict; and economic and political instabilities. Each of these factors requires detailed analysis. The Issues Paper focuses on some of these factors which play a dominant role in encouraging migration.

To understand the drivers of migration in Africa, it is important to recognize the close links between demographic factors, expansion of tertiary education, youth unemployment, and skilled emigration. The size of African youth cohorts (15-24 years) is now more than 20 percent of the population, higher than in any other part of the world, and will continue to grow. Africa today is the youngest region of the world with a median age of 18, which will only climb to 24 by 2050. On current trends, Africa has the fastest growing working age population. Between 1960 and 2010, Africa's working-age population (15-64 years) grew more than four times, and will continue to increase over the next 40 years.

However, African youth are particularly worse off in access to employment opportunities. They constituted about 35 percent of Africa's working age population in 2015, but three fifths of the total unemployed. With a large proportion of youth joining each year, the challenge of employment in Africa is essentially about youth employment.

In most countries youth unemployment rate is more than twice that for adults, though in Nigeria it is more than five times. In Botswana, Congo, and South Africa, more than one in three young people are unemployed, and the average unemployment rate for the youth is about 30 percent in North Africa, compared to the world average of 14 percent.³⁸

The growth of employment in Africa has not been strong enough to absorb the new entrants to the labour force. Within the past 10 years, Africa has created over 37 million wage-paying jobs, but the pace of job creation has not kept pace with the approximately 110 million people who joined the workforce in this period. This has several potential implications for labour markets, including a large number of unemployed or inactive youth, a smaller share of wage employed workers, a growing informal sector, and an increased propensity to migrate in search of suitable employment opportunities.

Demographic factors are likely to increase migration substantially over the next decade, particularly to countries in the OECD and Europe, as the working-age population is projected to grow significantly in Africa and to decline in the OECD. By 2050 one in every four person of working age in the world will be an African.³⁹

Recent research using new migration databases provides a more nuanced analysis of the factors driving migration. Conventional ‘push-pull’ models or neoclassical theories predict that migration decreases as societies develop and income and other geographical opportunity gaps decrease. Most African migrants do not necessarily move from the poorest to the wealthiest countries, and the poorest countries tend to have lower levels of emigration than middle-income and wealthier countries. In other words, development is generally associated with more migration.⁴⁰

Modern mobility is also empowered and inspired by unprecedented levels of connectivity. Individuals and communities in previously isolated societies are exposed to life elsewhere through personal contacts, social media and broadcast media. Surveys suggest that even in relatively stable developing and middle-income countries, the desire to migrate is very high.⁴¹

Thus, **the factors driving migration are rarely uni-dimensional. While the search for employment is a key motivation, it is not the only one.** Migration tends to foster more migration through the development of a ‘culture of migration’ in communities of origin as well as diasporas in preferred destinations that can help facilitate new migration and support a soft landing.⁴² But aspirations to leave are generally rising much more quickly than the opportunities for doing so.

Although poor people do migrate, they tend to do so less often, and if they migrate, they tend to do so overall smaller distances. The higher skilled tend to migrate more and over larger distances because high levels of educational and occupational specialisation requires people to move within and across borders to match qualifications and personal preferences with labour market and social opportunities.⁴³ This seems to explain why the skilled and relatively wealthy are over-represented among long-distance international migrants.⁴⁴

This shows that it is illusionary to think that large-scale migration is somehow a temporary phenomenon that will disappear once – an equally illusionary – equilibrium is achieved, as conventional push-pull models would predict. We therefore need to refute popular ‘push-pull’ models, as they lead to misleading analyses on the nature, causes and future of migration.

The current era is not only the ‘age of migration’,⁴⁵ but also the ‘age of involuntary immobility’.⁴⁶ As a result, it is important for member States to facilitate free movement of people to enable them to make rational decisions about their own futures.

Excessive border controls and immigration restrictions increase the costs and risks of migration and often come in conflict between individual motivation to migrate and state restrictions on mobility. In turn, this conflict facilitates the demand for private, and non-state, entrepreneurs, including smugglers, to facilitate movement, often with disastrous consequences.

4. The role of national policies in the migration process in Africa

While the decision to migrate is usually taken at the level of the individual or the family, state policies also play an important role. The increasing immigration restrictions and border controls put in place by European destination states have received considerable attention, but the role of national policies by African member States in shaping migration processes is not sufficiently understood.

During the period of colonial liberation, millions of people fled conflicts with colonial powers. Yet, the establishment of independent states often did not necessarily mean a return to peaceful conditions. Newly established African states endeavoured to instil a sense of national unity in ethnically diverse societies, which often created considerable internal tensions and has regularly erupted in violent conflicts.⁴⁷

Nation states, not only in Africa, have had an ambiguous approach to migration. While emigration has been encouraged as a means to decrease unemployment, generate remittances, and decrease dissatisfaction, there have also been attempts to introduce immigration restrictions and border controls. Immigrants have been portrayed as a threat to sovereignty, security and ethnic homogeneity to assert national sovereignty and rally political support.

There is a vital role of migration in regional integration, and of cooperation, policy dialogue and partnership with all stakeholders – countries of destination and development partners; private sector, including diaspora entrepreneurs and investors; civil society, including migrants and diasporas to make migration work for structural transformation and regional integration.

Visa openness facilitates free movement whereas restrictive immigration policies and visa regimes challenge intra-regional mobility in Africa. The role of policies in shaping migration flows in general, and in Africa in particular, has been understudied, partly due to the lack of appropriate policy data. New panel data is now being collected which can help assess the extent of free movement in the continent. Using immigration data from selected African countries, the African Development Bank has estimated the Africa Visa Openness Index to assess support for free movement in Africa.⁴⁸ The index ranges from 0 to 1 with higher scores indicating more visa openness.

Data from the DEMIG VISA database⁴⁹ has helped construct a Visa Restrictiveness Index⁵⁰ to measure relative immigration restrictiveness of African and non-African destinations between 1973 and 2014.⁵¹ This Index shows that the level of border restrictions of African countries is high and has increased, particularly since the late 1980s. In 2013, on average, nationals from nearly 80 percent of African countries needed a visa to enter another African country, only slightly less than nationals from 90 percent of non-African countries who need a visa to enter African countries.

Regional economic communities such as the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), the South African Development Community (SADC), the East African Community (EAC) and the Common Market for East and Southern Africa (COMESA) have introduced rules for free movement of nationals among their member states, but except in ECOWAS, these agreements have generally been poorly implemented or contradicted by the restrictive policies and practices of member states.⁵²

The picture on ease of mobility within the continent is mixed. West Africa is the most open to African migration on average, which seems to be linked to the free travel and migration among ECOWAS countries. This was also referred to in an earlier section. North Africa has increased visa restrictiveness from 69 percent in 1973 to 89 percent in 2013, which may be a response to stricter border controls imposed by countries in Europe. East and Central Africa have high scores of visa restrictiveness

which may be because of the high levels of civil conflict experienced by countries in these regions.⁵³

There are two possible consequences of restrictions on mobility. One, it may change the direction of migration without decreasing the overall volumes of migration. So migrants may be willing to substitute traditional with new destinations. This has been noticed in the diversification of African emigration to new destinations such as Canada, the US and Australia over the past two decades which provide more favourable immigration opportunities. **Two, restrictions on mobility, perceived as unfair or unnecessary, may push migrants into undertaking riskier journeys through irregular means.**

5. Data challenges

A major obstacle to furthering the understanding of the dimensions of international migration in Africa is the lack of adequate data.⁵⁴ 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.⁵⁵ This reflects the more general Eurocentric (destination-country) focus of migration research.

Data on migration stock comes mainly from population censuses. The data on migration flow statistics for migration mainly comes from the administrative sources and UN Statistics Division collects it from the countries on an annual basis. Flow data is a bigger challenge given the diverse way in which countries maintain records and registers. ECA has supported the national statistical agencies in member States in conducting censuses to ensure comparability across countries.

The Global Bilateral Migration Database released by the World Bank is a recent, and welcome, addition to migration research that has significantly expanded the scope to conduct analyses on migration from, to and within Africa. It contains data on bilateral migration stock disaggregated by gender for 226 countries spanning the period 1960-2000.⁵⁶ In addition, AfDB in collaboration with the World Bank implemented Migration and Remittances Household Surveys under the Africa Migration Project.⁵⁷ The data collected are open and can be accessed free.

The recently completed DEMIG C2C ('country-to-country') migration flow database (part of the Determinants of International Migration project) has enabled detailed analysis of recent patterns and trends of African migration to and from Europe, North America and Oceania. DEMIG C2C database covers bilateral migration flows for 34 reporting countries from and to a broad range of origin countries over the 1946–2011 period.⁵⁸ Both databases have their limitations, but still provide migration researchers access to reliable data on both migration stock and flows over time.

Any study on migration in Africa cannot exclude data and migration trends from North Africa. However, often the data on North Africa is combined with the Middle East region and this can pose a challenge to present it separately. Future research needs to address this issue as a priority.

In addition to lack of data, there is a policy and research vacuum on the linkages between international migration and development in Africa. Accurate and detailed data and information need to be analysed to draw policy conclusions.

There is a need to make sure that the countries collect and disseminate data on migration on regular and timely bases. Paucity of data, and their often poor quality, is the first step that needs to be addressed if African countries are to evaluate and situate their positions and policies in the regional and global context of international migration for development.

6. Migration in the development frameworks

Africa has embraced both global and continent-wide development frameworks and it is important to ensure that migration-related indicators are harmonized with national development planning frameworks.

The Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development recognizes the positive contributions of migrants and their fundamental role in sustainable development. Migration and human mobility are included in five of the 17 Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) targets, correcting their absence from the earlier Millennium Development Goals (Box 1). Further, in line with the Agenda 2030's focus on 'leaving no one behind', the SDGs also emphasise access to basic human rights by migrants through SDG 3 (Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages) and SDG 4 (Ensure inclusive and quality education for all and promote lifelong learning).

Box 1

SDGs relating to Migration

Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women.

Indicator 5.2: Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation

Goal 8: Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all.

Indicator 8.8: Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment

Goal 10: Reduce inequality within and among countries.

Indicator 10.7: Facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies

Indicator 10.c: By 2030, reduce to less than 3 per cent the transaction costs of migrant remittances and eliminate remittance corridors with costs higher than 5 per cent

Goal 16: Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels.

Indicator 16.2: End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence and torture against children

Goal 17: Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development.

Indicator 17.18: By 2020, enhance capacity-building support to developing countries, including for least developed countries and small island developing States, to increase significantly the availability of high-quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts.

Source: <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/post2015/transformingourworld>

The African Union Agenda 2063 builds on the many existing agreed instruments of the institution developed over the years (Box 2). The free movement of persons, along with goods and services was articulated in the Abuja Treaty establishing the African Economic Community (1991) as a key element in achieving the goal of regional integration on the continent.

In implementing the Abuja Treaty, the African Union (AU) adopted policy frameworks, such as the Migration Policy Framework for Africa (MPFA) that provides guidance to member States and Regional Economic Communities (RECs) on the development of policies to promote integration through migration as part of efforts to strengthen migration governance for regional economic integration and inclusive development. In 2012 the eighteenth Ordinary Session of the Assembly of the AU endorsed the Action Plan for boosting intra-African trade and the Framework,

Roadmap and Architecture for fast-tracking the establishment of a continental free trade area by 2017.

Box 2

African Union Agenda 2063 provisions on migration

The African Union Agenda 2063 under Aspiration 2 alludes to:

23. The political unity of Africa will be the culmination of the integration process, which includes the free movement of people and the establishment of continental institutions, leading to full economic integration. By 2030, there shall be consensus on the form of the continental government and institutions.

24. Africa shall be a continent where the free movement of people, capital, goods and services will result in significant increases in trade and investments amongst African countries rising to unprecedented levels, and in the strengthening of Africa's place in global trade.

Source: Agenda 2063: The Africa We Want, Final edition, February 2015, Popular version

Addressing the implementation of the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) beyond 2014, African Ministers met in Addis Ababa in October 2013 and committed, among other issues, to:

“Protect and fulfil the rights of all migrants, including economic migrants, internally displaced and forced migrants as a result of humanitarian crisis, natural disasters and conflicts and victims of human trafficking, through policy and programmes that ensure their access to work, basic social services as well as enhancing the capacity of security and law enforcement agencies to protect the rights of such persons”.

All existing frameworks relating to migration stress the rights of migrants. It appears that from the perspective of intra-Africa migration, the full benefits stipulated in the existing frameworks will be visible once regional integration is intensified and has deepened across the continent.

7. Proposed role of member states and international partners

International migration has tremendous potential to improve development and welfare in origin countries. African governments face significant difficulties in managing immigration, which can engender resentment and lead to repressive policies, such as mass expulsions, that impose heavy costs on migrants and disrupt African economies.

Member states, intergovernmental bodies like the AUC and ECA, and development partners can contribute to securing the benefits of migration in Africa for Africans in a number of ways by:

- Designing and implementing policies to achieve the global (Agenda 2030) and regional (Agenda 2063) frameworks, both of which recognize the critical role of migration for sustainable development;
- Improving the information base so that African governments, destination countries, and the international community can improve migration policies;
- Undertaking analytical work, in partnership with national and regional research institutions where possible, to better understand the implications of the new trends in south-south migration for Africans;
- Promoting coherence among different national policies in line with regional and sub-regional protocols and agreements, and strengthen the capacity of stakeholders to implement policies for improvement of legal and statistical systems on international migration;
- Designing suitable policies on education and skills in light of the challenges surrounding high-skilled emigration;

- Promoting consultative processes on international migration at global, regional and sub-regional levels, with involvement of countries of destination in the design, implementation and funding of migration-related action plans in countries of origin.

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- ¹ Flauhaux and De Haas (2016).
- ² Arcarazo and Wiesbrock (2015); Flahaux and De Haas (2016).
- ³ Carling et al (2015).
- ⁴ Flauhaux and De Haas, *op.cit.*
- ⁵ Collier (2013).
- ⁶ Flauhaux and De Haas, *op.cit.*
- ⁷ Swing (2015).
- ⁸ This refers to emigrant stock. Official data on migration in Africa significantly understate the actual movement of people, particularly within Africa. The actual number of African emigrants is likely to be significantly larger. The data is from the bilateral migration matrix compiled by the World Bank (2011) which takes stock of migrants by origin as well as destination.
- ⁹ World Bank (2011).
- ¹⁰ UNDESA (2013).
- ¹¹ Shimeles *et al* (2010).
- ¹² Flauhaux and De Haas, *op.cit.*
- ¹³ De Haas (2010).
- ¹⁴ Shaw (2007).
- ¹⁵ OECD (2006) quoted in Flauhaux and De Haas (2016).
- ¹⁶ IOM (2015).
- ¹⁷ Flauhaux and De Haas, *op.cit.*
- ¹⁸ UN (2013).
- ¹⁹ UN (2013)
- ²⁰ United Nations Population Fund: <http://www.unfpa.org/migration>
- ²¹ This is qualitatively different from migration within the sub-regions which occurs with limited procedural formalities between countries with contiguous borders.
- ²² ECA (2006).
- ²³ World Bank (2011).
- ²⁴ Clemens (2007, 2013).
- ²⁵ Newland (2013).
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- ³⁹ UN (2012).
- ⁴⁰ Flauhaux and De Haas, *op.cit.*
- ⁴¹ Carling (2013).
- ⁴² ILO (2011) and ILO (2012).
- ⁴³ Flauhaux and De Haas, *op.cit.*
- ⁴⁴ Another view could be that poor people use informal channels of migrations which are not recorded in official figures.
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- ⁴⁷ Flauhaux and De Haas, *op.cit.*
- ⁴⁸ African Development Bank. (2015). Africa Visa Openness Index.
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- ⁵⁰ The Visa Restrictiveness Index is calculated by computing the percentage of origin countries that need a travel visa to enter destination country for every year.
- ⁵¹ Flauhaux and De Haas, *op.cit.* The AfDB has also implemented the Africa Visa Openness Index to assess support for free movement in Africa.
- ⁵² Adepaju (2001); Ricca (1990).
- ⁵³ Flauhaux and De Haas, *op.cit.*
- ⁵⁴ Zlotnik (2003).
- ⁵⁵ Flauhaux and De Haas, *op.cit.*
- ⁵⁶ Özden, Parsons, Schiff and Walmsley (2011).
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- ⁵⁸ Vezzoli, Villares-Varela and De Haas (2014)