

## **Background Paper**

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### **Roundtable 2 - Factoring Migration into Development Planning**

#### ***RT 2.2: Addressing South-South Migration and Development Policies***

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This paper was drafted by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and the ACP Observatory on Migration, with input provided by ICMPD, UNDESA, the RT 2.2 government team and the RT 2 Coordinator Dr. Rolph Jenny. The aim of the paper is to inform and facilitate the discussion of Roundtable session 2.2 during the Mauritian GFMD summit meeting in November 2012. It is not exhaustive in its treatment of the session 2.2 theme and does not necessarily reflect the views of the GFMD organizers or the governments involved in the GFMD process.

## Context

This Background Paper aims to contribute to the discussions of Roundtable (RT) 2.2 on ‘Addressing South-South Migration and Development Policies’, to be held at the 21-22 November 2012 Sixth Global Forum on Migration and Development (GFMD) in Mauritius. The paper builds in part on the findings of the GFMD 2011 thematic workshop ‘From Evidence to Action: Facilitating South–South Labour Migration for Development’ (Abuja, October 2011), the GFMD 2012 brainstorming meeting on ‘Enhancing Intra-African Cooperation on Migration and Development’ (Port Louis, June 2012), the IOM expert workshop ‘Fostering the Development Impact of South-South Migration in West Africa through enhanced Knowledge and Cooperation’ (Accra, July 2012) and the ICMPD/FIIAAP/IDEP meeting on ‘Enhancing Migration, Mobility Employment and Higher Education in RECs of Africa’ (Addis, July 2012).

## Objectives

The GFMD has so far mainly focused on the impact of migration on development from a South-North perspective. The RT 2.2 session aims to deepen the understanding of South-South migration patterns, examine their impacts and linkages with development, discuss possible policy solutions that harness the development potential of South-South labour mobility and offer a brief review of latest development in the context of environmental migration. The session will then assess existing capacity gaps with regard to the collection and analysis of data, migration mainstreaming processes and migration governance, and explore possible cooperative partnerships to build such capacities.

In support of these session objectives, this paper aims to:

- i) Present latest available data, information and trends on South-South migration;
- ii) Focus on labour mobility and development among countries in the South and discuss the opportunities and challenges in harnessing the development potential of South-South labour migration;
- iii) Provide an overview of the impact of environmental change on migration in the South;
- iv) Identify key challenges and capacity building needs in developing countries.

## 1. South-South Migration: What does the evidence tell us?

### *1.1 Defining the ‘global South’ and latest available data*

There is no universally agreed definition for the ‘South’ (Bakewell, 2009). The definition broadly used by the United Nations (UN) distinguishes between more or less developed regions<sup>1</sup>, while the World Bank groups all countries with low or middle income in the South. More recently, UNDP used the Human Development Index (HDI) as the criterion to define the South, i.e. all countries without a very high HDI. According to these different definitions, some countries might be part of the ‘global South’ or the ‘North’.<sup>2</sup> Consequently, the total number of international migrants living in the global South depends on how the ‘South’ is defined.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Less developed regions (i.e. the ‘South’) include Africa, the Americas without North America, the Caribbean, Asia except Japan, and Oceania except Australia and New Zealand.

<sup>2</sup> For instance, countries in Eastern Europe (such as Russia, Ukraine, Moldova, Belarus) are part of the ‘North’ only when using the UN definition. Instead, some of the Gulf Council Cooperation (GCC) countries (e.g. Bahrain, Qatar, United Arab Emirates) and emerging Asian economies (e.g. Hong Kong, Singapore, Republic of Korea) are part of the ‘North’ according to the definition used by the World Bank and UNDP while being part of the ‘South’ for the UN. Lastly, some Caribbean countries (Barbados, Bermuda, Trinidad and Tobago and Puerto Rico) are included in the ‘North’ when using the World Bank definition, while Argentina and Chile are ‘North’ according to UNDP’s classification.

<sup>3</sup> For instance, in 2010, the stock of international migrants living in the South was 82 million according to the definition used by the World Bank, 86 million according to the UN, and 94 million according to UNDP (equal to a share of 38% 40% and 44% of the total 214 million international migrants).

Since 2007, reports have suggested that South-South migration is almost as important in scale as South-North migration (Ratha and Shaw, 2007; UNGA, 2010; UNDESA, 2011, 2012; Ratha, 2011). Based on the UN definition, available data reveals that in 2010 about 73 million international migrants were born in the South were also residing in the South, equal to 34 per cent of the global migrant stock and almost the same as migrants born in the South residing in the North (74 million equal to a share of 35%). However, between 1990 and 2010, the total number of migrants born in the South and residing in the North increased faster than the number of migrants born and residing in the South. There was an 85 per cent increase in South-North migration and only a 22 per cent increase in South-South migration (UNDESA, 2012).<sup>4</sup>

### ***1.2 Different migration realities in the 'global South'***

Regardless of the definition used for 'global South', it will include a large number of countries that represent a range of different migration (and development) realities. While countries in regions such as sub-Saharan Africa, the Caribbean, South-East Asia, the Pacific, etc. share common aspects with regard to international migration, they also present distinguishing characteristics.

Some of the key differences can be identified when considering emerging migration patterns, existing legislative frameworks and migration policies, and government capacities to manage migration effectively. For instance, concerning the protection of human rights of migrants, important measures have been taken to advance the rights of migrants in Latin America, both at regional (e.g. by the Southern American Common Market (MERCOSUR) or the Organization of America States (OAS)) and national levels (e.g. Argentina, Law No.25.871 of January 2004) (UNECLAC, 2012). In terms of drivers of migration, environmental change plays a more prominent role in the Pacific, South-East Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, while migration crisis situations are currently characterizing the MENA region, and labour market needs of emerging economies such as Brazil and Argentina influence migration patterns in the Southern Cone. As for governments capacities to manage South-South migration effectively, differences can be found inter alia with regard to the production of reliable and up-to-date migration statistics (e.g. progress made by CIS countries in recent years), pre-departure orientation, recruitment and reintegration programmes (e.g. South and South-East Asian experiences such as the Philippines, Indonesia and Sri Lanka), and Regional Consultative Processes (RCPs) discussing the role of South-South migration (e.g. Puebla Process (RCM) and the South American Conference on Migration (SACM)).

This background paper does not attempt to present a comprehensive overview of the different experiences in the South. Instead, it will describe key migration patterns and policy issues common in many countries which form part of the 'global South'.

### ***1.3 Human mobility trends: Differences between South-North and South-South migration***

While there are significant knowledge gaps with regard to migration patterns between developing countries, some key distinctive characteristics of South-South migration as compared to South-North can be drawn from existing data and summarised as follows:

- a) **High degree of irregularity of flows.** Since a large proportion of South-South movements is irregular it is estimated that the total number of migrants moving in the global South is significantly higher than that captured by official data. According to UNDP (2009), irregular migration accounts for about one third of all migration between developing countries. National borders in the global South are often porous and less controlled, and capacities to collect migration data are limited.

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<sup>4</sup> Given the predominantly informal nature of population movements between developing countries, it can be assumed that the total number of South-South migrations has risen more significantly.

- b) **South-South migration appears to be predominantly intra-regional.** In 2010, the majority of international migrants born in the South resided in their region of origin: 53 per cent of African migrants resided in Africa, while 56 per cent and 57 per cent of migrants from Asia and Oceania respectively resided in their region (UNDESA, 2012). The only exception is Latin America and the Caribbean, but recent data now indicate that 60 per cent of current movements are also intra-regional (SICREMI, 2011). In sub-Saharan Africa the share of intra-regional migration is particularly high (69%) (Ratha, 2011). It is further estimated that four out of five of those migrants staying in another country in the South migrate to a neighbouring country (Ratha and Shaw, 2007), which has important implications for integrating this type of mobility into national development plans.
- c) Many developing countries are characterized by the **absence or lack of effective implementation of national migration policies.** In addition, existing labour migration policies are often restrictive towards highly skilled workers and do not correspond to the labour market needs of receiving countries (GFMD, 2011). Also, in some cases, certain population groups are deprived from free movement (e.g. women), in particular those of poorer social classes of developing societies (Murrugarra et al. 2011). In the absence of well-functioning migration policies, migrants might face violations of human rights, social exclusion, discrimination and inhumane living conditions (e.g. housing, health access). There is a need to better manage labour migration in the South and go beyond mere border control and visa regulations. Policies should also include issues such as skills matching schemes, recognition of qualifications and social security mechanisms (GFMD, 2012). This appears even more important in view of increasing North-South flows resulting from the ongoing difficulties of many economies in developed regions.
- d) Another significant feature of South-South migration is the **high number of refugees and displaced people.** According to UNHCR (2012), developing countries hosted 8.4 millions of the 10.4 million global refugee population at the end of 2011, which means that four out of five refugees are living in the global South. By the end of the same year, sub-Saharan Africa alone hosted more than one quarter (2.7 million) of all refugees.<sup>5</sup> The majority of these refugees flee from conflict and political instability in the global South. Further, refugees from developing countries usually stay within their region of origin (between 75% and 93% per cent for major refugee-generating regions)<sup>6</sup> (UNHCR, 2012). However, refugees only represent about 10 per cent of all migrants living in the global South. The number of internally displaced people (IDPs) living in the global South is also significant. By the end of 2011, Africa alone hosted more than one third of the 26 million persons displaced worldwide by either conflict or violence (IDMC/NRC, 2012a). The role of forced migration in the global South was further highlighted during the Libya crisis. In 2011, almost 800,000 migrant fled Libya, more than one quarter originating from West Africa, with many of them being young male migrant workers (Naik and Laczko, 2012).
- e) On average, **migrants moving between developing countries are younger** than those migrating to or between developed countries (UNDESA, 2012). This partially reflects a younger age distribution among populations in the South. In 2010, almost every fourth migrant in the South was younger than 20 years, which is significantly higher than the world average (15%)<sup>7</sup> (UNDESA, 2011). The share is particularly high in Africa (28%) indicating the need for an increased policy attention towards migrant youth and children residing and moving in the global South. In sub-Saharan Africa, just over half of young migrants (below 20 years) (52%) are female. Older migrants - aged 65 years or more – account for 9 % of migrants in the South representing a lower share compared to those of the same age group residing in more developed

<sup>5</sup> The 48 Least Developed Countries (LDCs) hosted 2.3 million refugees equal to 22 per cent of the global refugee population (UNHCR, 2012a).

<sup>6</sup> In 2011, South Africa was the major recipient of asylum claims receiving 10 per cent of all applications worldwide.

<sup>7</sup> In 2010, international migrants younger than 20 years represent as many as 28 per cent of migrant stocks in Africa, 21 per cent in Asia and the Pacific, and 23 per cent in Latin America and the Caribbean.

regions (13%). Similar shares of female migrants are recorded also in key destination countries in South America (e.g. in Argentina, in 2010, shares range between 50% and 58% for major countries of origin) (IOM, 2012), while women from South Asia recently started migrating also to non-GCC countries in Western Asia (e.g. Jordan and Lebanon) and East and South-East Asia (e.g. Malaysia, China) (ESCAP/IOM, 2012).

- f) For some of the poorest countries in the world, **remittances from the South are as important as remittances sent from the North**. According to UNCTAD (2011), about two thirds of the remittances received by Least Developed Countries (LDCs) in 2010 originate either from others LDCs (5% of the total inflow, equal to 1.3 USD billion) or other developing countries (59%, 15.3 USD billion). However, compared to remittances sent from the North, sending remittances in the South-South context is more expensive and undertaken through informal channels.
- g) **Environmental change is likely to play a prominent role for future South-South migration patterns**. An increasing number of developing countries face population movements due to sudden-on set disasters (such as earthquakes or tsunamis) and slow-on set environmental events (e.g. droughts). Natural disasters affected in particular Asian countries, in particular in East, South and South-East Asia. Asian countries recorded a total of 13 million people displaced in 2011 due to natural hazard-induced disasters, equal to 89 per cent of the global number of displacements (IDMC/NRC, 2012b). According to Foresight (2011), by 2060, between 114 and 192 million additional people living in floodplains of rural areas in Africa and Asia might be forced to move elsewhere.

## **2. Labour mobility and development in the global South**

While forced migration plays a prominent role in the South-South context, the key driver for moving to another country in the global South is the search for employment. Even if wage differentials are small when moving to another developing country, in 2010 some 36 million migrants have migrated between developing countries to look for a better job (ILO, 2010). The contribution of these migrants to the development of their country of origin can be significant if their movements are managed effectively, in response to existing labour market needs and in respect of human rights.

### ***2.1 Lower and highly-skilled labour migration in the South***

While lower-skilled migrants accounted for the majority of South-North movements in 2000 (except in South Asia where they represent 49%; Ratha, 2011), they are expected to be even more present in the South as less distance makes mobility less costly and thus more accessible. Intra-regional labour migration thus consists primarily of poorer migrants and with lower levels of education, which in turn affects their level of information on the migration process itself (Hujo and Piper, 2010). Nonetheless, this type of migration is believed to entail a significant poverty alleviation potential that has not yet been taken into consideration (Murrugarra et al., 2011). By being more accessible to a larger number of people and despite lower wage differentials, South-South migration could entail larger poverty alleviation gains through more households receiving remittances from one of their members working abroad. Their contribution to the development of their countries of origin should receive greater attention and be promoted more actively. Extending Mode 4 of the General Agreements on Trade and in Services (GATS) to the temporary movement of lower skilled migrants represents one possible option to increase the development impact of South-South migration (Melde, 2011).

Contrary to public perceptions, highly-skilled migrants from developing countries also move to destination countries in the South. In 2005, almost one out of five migrants (17.5%) with tertiary education resided in a destination country in the global South, such as the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries (9.6 million in 2000), Malaysia, Taiwan Province of China, Singapore and Hong Kong Special Administrative Region of China (4 million in the two last ones) and South Africa (1.3 million in 2000) (Docquier and Marfouk, 2005; Clemens, 2006).

However, lower-skilled migrants often face larger obstacles to migration, including in the South, and should be the focus of greater policy attention to alleviate poverty and promote human development. In the context of labour mobility and development in the global South, it seems essential, therefore, to address lower skilled migration and its development implications in more depth, and move away from the prevailing focus on the highly-skilled only.

## ***2.2 Informality of labour mobility and social protection in the South***

A key feature of labour markets in the South is their high degree of informality (estimated between 70% and 90% across Africa) and lack of formal job creation. This affects migrants as well, who are even more likely than nationals to work in the informal sector. The largely porous borders characterizing many developing countries contribute in part to informal market activities. Indeed, porous borders are usually highly frequented among neighbouring countries in the South due to the different trade opportunities they often provide.

A study of African countries (Touzenis et al., 2009) showed that despite the fact that immigration tends to be overlooked in migration and development discussions, the existing migration frameworks on immigration are quite well developed in African countries. This applies in particular to residence and work permits. However, the practical implementation of these frameworks is poor due to different reasons: Procedures to obtain work permits and visas are often lengthy and bureaucratic, and both migrant workers and officials lack adequate information on frameworks in place. This can be observed in the free movement areas of the East African Community (EAC) and the Economic Commission for West African States (ECOWAS) (Touzenis et al., 2009). In addition, visa requirements may be linked to specific employers, in particular for lower skilled and irregular migrants (Avato et al., 2009), which puts these workers at risk of abuse and exploitation, especially women and girls who represent the majority of domestic workers and constitute a largely invisible workforce linked to global care chains of South-North migration. The informal nature of most labour mobility in the South thus hampers the human development potential of this type of migration. South-South labour migration policies should thus focus on rights protection and the creation of formal employment.

**Social protection<sup>8</sup> mechanisms are scarce in many developing countries.** For instance, in almost two out of three developing countries temporary migrants had no access to health care, and nowhere was such access granted to migrants with irregular status<sup>9</sup> (Klugman and Pereira, 2009). In absence of public services, migrant networks, local organizations and philanthropic institutions often provide social protection assistance to migrants. The situation of adequate social protection for migrants also differs significantly between developing regions<sup>10</sup> and appears to be particularly serious in sub-Saharan Africa. The agreement on medical portability between Zambia and Malawi and labour agreements between South Africa and other SADC countries represent notable exceptions (Avato et al., 2009).

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<sup>8</sup> “Social protection is defined by the ILO as the set of public measures that a society provides for its members to protect them against economic and social distress that would be caused by the absence or a substantial reduction of income from work as a result of various contingencies (sickness, maternity, employment injury, unemployment, invalidity, old age, and death of the breadwinner); the provision of health care; and, the provision of benefits for families with children.” The definition and approach towards guarantee social protection can change significantly between countries due to differing cultures, values, traditions, and institutional and political structures. (ILO, 2003)

<sup>9</sup> Access rates are significantly high in the case of emergency health care.

<sup>10</sup> Good examples are social security system in countries like Argentina, Belarus, Russia, Ukraine and Venezuela. Regional social security agreements include the Agreement on Social Security (CASS) by the Caribbean Community (CARICOM). However, only a limited number of migrants (2%) are actually benefitting from it due to a lack of information, differences in eligibility among CARICOM Member States and a lack of implementation. In the Southern American Common Market (MERCOSUR in Spanish), 27% of all migrants are covered by the Social Security Agreement. This is attributed to the fewer Member States of MERCOSUR which facilitates coordination of policies as well as the existence of relatively good social security frameworks. The latter is also the reason why the social security agreements of CARICOM and MERCOSUR are not easily applicable to poorer countries and regions in the South (Avato et al., 2009).

The creation of channels for legal migration within regions and the safeguarding of fundamental human rights for marginalized groups should represent the main priority for many developing countries (Sabates-Wheeler and Taylor, 2010). Protection of migrants' rights is key for the human development potential to be realized. However, the issue of the portability of social benefits (such as health access and pensions) can only be treated as a key issue in those countries that have in place well-functioning social protection systems for their nationals.

The process of mobility itself can be considered a means of social protection for migrants and their families, with considerable human development gains in terms of income, enabling access to education and health care to name a few. This applies in particular to poor people accessing better opportunities through South-South migration (Avato et al., 2009). Particular attention needs to be given to the protection of migrant youth and children who are particularly vulnerable and represent the working age population of tomorrow. The International Labour Organization (ILO) identifies the 'youth jobs crisis' as one of the key global challenge for the future and estimating in 2012 about 75 million unemployed young people worldwide.<sup>11</sup> A large share of these unemployed young people lives in the South and risk creating a threat to social cohesion in many developing countries.

Overall, it is important that States provide an enabling socio-economic, political and legal environment to leverage the human development impact of South-South migration. This needs to go hand in hand with the protection of migrant workers' rights which creates an incentive for migrants to move and helps maximising their contributions to the development of their country of origin (de Haas, 2012; Wickramasekara, 2010).

### ***2.3 Informality in financial and other transfers***

As with the movement of people, knowledge and data on **remittances** are also very much **focused on migrants from developing countries sending money from the North towards the South**. Information and data on remittances sent among countries in the South are scarce. In addition, the official data by the World Bank does not cover informal remittance flows, which however represent the largest share in developing countries (IMF, 2009; World Bank, 2010a).

Ratha and Shaw (2007) consider total flows to be at least 50 per cent higher when informal transfers are taken into consideration. For corridors such as between Tanzania and Uganda or Lesotho and South Africa, they were found to be as high as 60 and 85 per cent respectively (IOM, 2009; Nalane et al., 2012 forthcoming). As the high number of informal remittances makes existing remittance data rather inaccurate, some African countries do not even include remittances in their Balance of Payments (World Bank, 2010b). Not using regular channels can also expose migrants to exploitative situations, such as high interest rates or other fees (Hujo and Piper, 2010).

**The cost of sending remittances is particularly high between Least Developed Countries (LDCs) in Africa where costs can be twice as high as those paid for sending the same amount from a developed country: In some cases, costs can reach about 20 per cent of the amount sent compared to only 12% for remittances sent from a developed country to a sub-Saharan Africa country or 8% to other developing country (Ratha, 2011). This can be attributed to a lack of competition among the different service providers, including banks and post offices, limited financial infrastructure and high foreign exchange commissions (Ratha and Shaw, 2007). Innovative practices are needed beyond regular transfers through the banking systems since when the local population does not trust national banks to open bank accounts, migrants will not either as in the case of Tanzania (Hansen, 2012). These high intra-regional transfer costs hinder the contribution these financial flows can make towards human development in the global South.**

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<sup>11</sup> [http://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/press-and-media-centre/news/WCMS\\_174901/lang--en/index.htm](http://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/press-and-media-centre/news/WCMS_174901/lang--en/index.htm)

## ***2.4 Regional frameworks, bilateral agreements and other initiatives promoting labour mobility***

Bilateral agreements focus predominantly on South-North migration. In some cases these bilateral arrangements can even be in contradiction with intra-regional frameworks<sup>12</sup>. Existing bilateral labour mobility arrangements between countries in the global South include, *inter alia*, the training of South African doctors in Cuba, Iran and Tunisia; the temporary recruitment of doctors and qualified health personnel from Cuba, Iran and Tunisia to fill labour shortages in South Africa; recruitment of mining workers of selected SADC countries<sup>13</sup> in South Africa; recruitment of Chinese workers and the protection of regular workers in Mauritius under a Memorandum of Understanding; guaranteeing fair work and wage conditions for Sri Lankan workers in Jordan and Libya; cooperation between countries of origin and destination to protect Filipino migrants in Indonesia; reciprocal regularization and facilitating labour migration through an agreement between Argentina and Bolivia; granting the right to equal access to education for children of migrants, including undocumented ones in agreements between Argentina and Bolivia and Argentina and Peru; as well as a mass information campaign in the framework of a seasonal worker programme between Guatemala and Mexico (IOM, ILO and OSCE, 2008).

Policy makers increasingly highlight the importance of labour mobility.<sup>14</sup> However, regional free movement agreements do not seem to be fully applied in practice and most do not include labour migration provisions (Touzenis et al., 2009; Deacon et al., 2011). Reasons for the lack of implementation of such regimes include slow ratification processes –such as the SADC Protocol that still has not been ratified by all Member States–, lack of effective monitoring and enforcement mechanisms, limited institutional capacities and human resource base, political volatility and conflicts, and differences in the level of human development in the different member countries (Nita, forthcoming). These challenges need to be addressed to increase the human development benefits of South-South labour mobility.

It may be necessary to develop a specific labour mobility policy in regional integration processes (Hamidou, 2006). Free movement and labour mobility schemes in the South can be particularly beneficial to the development of the region: A migrant can return more frequently due to the proximity to the country of origin and reduced travel costs, and usually integrate in the destination country more easily due to a more familiar socio-cultural environment<sup>15</sup> (Hujó and Piper, 2010; Melde, 2011).

Some of the Regional Consultative Processes (RCPs) could further promote the discussions on regional labour migration schemes, with enhanced focus on the development impact of labour migration in the South-South context<sup>16</sup>. At the 2011 ‘Third Global Meeting of Chairs and Secretariats

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<sup>12</sup> Such as some bilateral agreements between Western Africa and European countries vis-à-vis the ECOWAS Protocol on Free Movement, which require external border control of the respective African country (Touzenis et al., 2009).

<sup>13</sup> Mozambique, Lesotho, Botswana, Swaziland and Malawi

<sup>14</sup> Different free movement regimes exist in most regions of the global South –such as the Southern Common Market (MERCOSUR), the Andean Community (CAN) and the Caribbean Community and Common Market CARICOM in Latin America and the Caribbean; the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), the East African Community (EAC) and the Economic Community for Central African States (ECCAS) in Africa; or the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) and the Association of Southeast Asian States (ASEAN) in Asia (Deacon et al., 2011).

<sup>15</sup> However, events of social discrimination and xenophobia also take place between immigrants and host communities of similar cultural background. According to a study conducted by Adida (2008), “immigrant group leaders face incentives to sharpen cultural boundaries in order to preserve the distinctive identity of the communities they lead”. On the other hand, host society members may feel threatened by immigrants similar to them as they are less easy to identify.

<sup>16</sup> Many RCPs focus primarily on border and security issues rather than development aspects of migration (IOM, 2011). With regards to RCPs discussing South-South movements, it is worth mentioning that the Puebla Process (RCM) currently studies the possibility of establishing links with other cooperation processes in the area of migration and development; the South American Conference on Migration (SACM) reinforced the migration and development discourse and highlights migrants’ contributions to the welfare and culture in their country of origin; the Migration Dialogue for Southern Africa (MIDSA) assists governments to participate at global debates about migration and development such as the GFMD or the HLD; and the Inter-governmental Authority on Development – Regional Consultative Process on Migration (IGAD-RCP) included migration and development in one of their priority areas.



of RCPs on Migration' participants suggested that RCPs assume a more active role in advocating for the developmental benefits of migration, support governments to improve the existing evidence base and build capacities on migration and development (IOM, 2011).

### **3. Environmental change and South-South Migration**

The influence of environmental change on migration in developing countries is an issue of growing importance. The recent increase in extreme weather events led to a high number of displacements, and continuing slow-onset changes jeopardize domestic food security and households' livelihoods.

While migration has for long been a traditional response to slow onset hazard, the latter is likely to lead to an increase in short term, rural-urban migration (Foresight, 2011). Slow onset environmental changes include, for instance, soil degradation or changing rainfall patterns and contribute significantly to **mass urbanization** in many developing countries. Migration in the context of environmental change will put additional burden on existing challenges, especially in cities where urban growth has to be considered in the face of the increased vulnerability of many cities to environmental change.

Both at the global level and in the South, evidence and recent events show that the **majority of people moving due to environmental reasons stay within their own country or within the same region** (Foresight 2011, Global Humanitarian Forum 2009, IOM 2009, Care 2008, Ehrhart C. 2008). Displacements due to sudden natural disasters are in many cases even taking place in the same local area (Naik, 2009). On the other hand, cross-border movements due to environmental changes (such to droughts or desertification) generally involve neighbouring countries – in particular where borders between countries are porous (Leighton, 2009). This might also be due to the fact that people in the South, whose decision to migrate is influenced by environmental change, often form the poorest group of the national population and do not have the sufficient resources to move towards more developed regions.

#### ***3.1 The impact of environmental changes is more severe in the South***

Countries in the South are the most affected and exposed to current and emerging environmental challenges (UN-OHRLLS, 2009). Developing countries are likely to continue suffering disproportionately from the impact of environmental change due to different factors such as the lack of both social and financial capital to adapt to changing environmental conditions, disadvantaged geographical conditions (such as semi-arid zones prone to desertification, coastal area exposed to sea-rise level or low-lying delta rivers subject to floods); dependency of large shares of the population on the performance of climate-affected economic sectors (agriculture, farming or fishing)<sup>17</sup>, diffuse poverty increasing the number of people trapped in the case of environmental change; existence of traditional seasonal and circular migration routes modified or disrupted by current environmental changes (Black et al., 2011; Foresight, 2011; Knievton et al., 2009; Schicklinksi and Noorali, 2011).

#### ***3.2 Knowledge gaps and migration as an adaptation strategy for developing countries***

The migration and environment nexus in the South remains largely unexplored. Current<sup>18</sup> and forthcoming research activities should focus more on patterns characterising the influence of environmental change on migration in the South, such as slow-onset environmental changes, vulnerability of 'trapped' populations (whether by lack of money or legal barriers to movement) or

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<sup>17</sup> Estimates by UN DESA foresee a drop of 2-3 percentage points in the annual average growth for each 1°C rise in global temperature (UN DESA, 2009).

<sup>18</sup> Such as the Asia-Pacific Migration and Environment Network (APMEN) IOM and ADB, 2012; ACP Observatory on Migration, country studies on migration and environment, 2012; The Global Environmental Migration Project, Foresight, 2011; The Environmental Change and Forced Migration Scenarios (EACH-FOR), 2009.

environmental degradation in urban centres (Schicklinksy and Noorali, 2011).

Available evidence indicates that migration can alleviate pressure on natural resources and, thus, represent a possible adaptation strategy for communities at-risk. However, while many low-income developing countries<sup>19</sup> referred to migration in their National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs), most of them focus on either measures allowing people to remain in their home community or the relocation of communities. Only few consider the possible use of migration as adaptive strategy. Furthermore, most NAPAs have not been integrated into national development plans or into Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (Martin, 2009).

Adaptation strategies aiming at preventing displacement and using migration as a livelihood diversification and adaptation mode should be supported in a number of situations, while in others relocation of communities should be considered. Migration can build on human capital in populations and empower members of communities to diversify their income from different locations, leading to viable channels for communities and individuals alike to build resilience (Foresight, 2011).

Building on the lessons learned from NAPAs and other existing planning tools<sup>20</sup>, the forthcoming National Adaptation Plans (NAPs)<sup>21</sup> should consider the impact of environmental change on population movements, highlight when relevant the role of migration as adaptive strategy, promote risk assessments, resilience building, enhance preparedness and response capacities, and integrate migration within the NAPs as part of national development strategies.

#### **4. Challenges and capacity building in the global South: The way forward**

The scale and complexity of South-South migration and the resulting current problems and new emerging challenges require greater policy attention and appropriate response capacities. Many governments in developing countries lack the necessary knowledge, skills and resources to manage South-South migration effectively and benefit from its development potential. This final part tries to identify key capacity building needs and possible next steps to address migration challenges in the global South.

##### ***4.1 Lack of knowledge: Encourage research and evaluation to promote a more evidence-based policy-making process***

###### *a) Identify data gaps, produce new information and promote systematic data sharing*

While some information on South-South migration already exists, available data is limited, scattered between different sources and often not reliable or dated. There is an urgent need to gather existing knowledge, identify and start filling key data gaps. Reliable, up-to-date information is crucial to examine the impact of South-South migration on development. To date, no comprehensive databases on migration<sup>22</sup> and well-established statistical infrastructures generating in-depth migration information<sup>23</sup> are in place in the global South.

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<sup>19</sup> Notable examples citing migration in their NAPAs include inter alia Bangladesh, Cambodia, Cape Verde, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, Mali, Maldives, Mauritania, Mozambique, Sao Tome and Principe, Solomon Islands, Tanzania, Tuvalu and Uganda.

<sup>20</sup> Such as climate change adaptation strategies (CCAs) and disaster risk reduction strategies (DRRs).

<sup>21</sup> NAPs are intended to succeed to NAPAs as country-driven strategic frameworks for climate change adaptation following the decisions adopted at the CP17 Durban Summit in 2011. NAPs were originally conceived under the Cancun Adaptation Framework (CAF), a process to enable least developed country Parties (LDCs) to build upon their experience in preparing and implementing national adaptation programmes of action (NAPAs). However in contrast to the NAPAs that usually cover small areas and address a few components within a given sector with a view to addressing urgent and immediate needs, NAPs aim to identify medium- and long-term adaptation needs. Furthermore NAPs have a wider base of entitled countries that may participate.

<sup>22</sup> Besides the bilateral migration matrices by the World Bank and the Migration Development Research Centre at the University of Sussex and information retrievable from the UN Global Migration Database.

<sup>23</sup> Such as Eurostat or the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).

Initiatives such as the African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) Observatory on Migration contribute to addressing this gap by disseminating existing and new data through its national and regional networks linking policy makers, academia and research institutes, and civil society. Apart from these global programmes, there is an urgent need to foster the exchange of information and creation of new data at national and regional levels.<sup>24</sup> More in-depth information on the sex, age and educational level of migrants originating and living in the South should allow formulating tailored policy responses specifically targeting each different migrant group and avoiding a one-size-fits-all approach. More attention should also be given to the impact of South-South migration on development, the role of informal remittances flows between developing countries, the impact of environmental change on internal and regional migration in the South and well-being of migrants residing in the South. Developing so-called Extended Migration Profiles<sup>25</sup> or other forms of comprehensive migration reports can contribute to achieve this objective and be specifically tailored to focus on the South-South migration.

*b) Assess and evaluate existing migration practices*

There is also a need to learn from different migration practices implemented in the global South, both at national and regional levels, and promote an evaluation culture for migration and development planning. For instance, assessing the achievements and obstacles of existing free movement schemes or bilateral labour agreements in the global South can provide crucial insights for similar initiatives in the future. Free movement in the ECOWAS region and the Pacific Island Countries Trade Agreement is currently being assessed by the ACP Observatory on Migration towards obstacles and good practices for labour mobility in the South.

#### **4.2 Lack of comprehensive and coherent migration policies: Building national capacities, harnessing the development impact of migration and addressing environmental migration**

*a) Promote labour force circulation, development and the protection of migrants' rights*

With the focus being on the contributions of nationals living and working abroad, immigration to developing countries is often a policy area overlooked in the global South. Governments in developing countries do not usually perceive themselves as immigration countries but mainly as emigration countries to the North. Consequently, they often lack capacities and resources to respond effectively to South-South migration. South-South labour migration can represent an effective response to labour market needs and can bring development benefits to both sending and receiving countries. Governments should create labour market information mechanisms which allow a broader circulation of skills in the global South. This requires a greater recognition of qualifications and the reduction of costs for travel documents. As developing economies are often characterised by large informal labour markets and lack of formal jobs, increased government capacities and future programmatic activities are also needed to promote the protection of migrants' rights (e.g. through the implementation of so-called social protection schemes/floors) and to foster their integration into the host society to prevent social exclusion, discrimination or even xenophobia.

*b) Engaging diasporas in development and facilitating the development impact of remittances*

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<sup>24</sup> National inter-ministerial working groups (created, for example, in the framework of so-called mainstreaming migration or extended migration profile exercises) and regional consultative processes (RCPs) could represent one possible way to address this need.

<sup>25</sup> Such exercises often include an in-depth assessment, collection and analysis of existing migration data and provide a comprehensive overview of the migration situation in a specific country. They identify key priorities and may be complemented by targeted capacity building promoting the ownership and sustainability of the process by the Government. Consultation with all relevant stakeholders, including the civil society, should be integral part of such exercises and foster coherent and comprehensive migration governance (IOM, 2011).

There is a need to look beyond the development benefits from highly-skilled emigration towards the North and pay more attention to the contribution of South-South migration to development. Policy interventions are needed with regard to the role played by the diasporas from developing countries living in the global South. Despite the fact that these diasporas are geographically closer, governments in developing countries are usually more connected with diaspora networks and associations in the North. The new IOM-MPI Handbook '*Developing a Road Map for Engaging Diasporas in Development: A Handbook for Policymakers and Practitioners in Home and Host Countries*' aims to help governments by providing viable policy and programme options based on actual experiences from around the world. An ICMPD-IOM pilot initiative entitled *Strengthening African and Middle Eastern Diaspora Policy through South-South Exchange* (AMEDIP) in selected African and Middle Eastern countries attempts to further develop and improve diaspora policies by supporting a South-South expert exchange mechanism. Governments in developing countries should also try harnessing the contribution of South-South remittances by reducing transfer costs and facilitating the inflows of remittances through regular channels. Innovative initiatives contributing to achieving these objectives include mobile transfer systems, extending the coverage of ICTs, campaigns building trust in national bank system and informing on existing products, financial literacy/education programmes, introduce financial products linked to remittances and tailor them for specific target groups such as women, etc. (Melde and Schicklinski, 2011; Nalane et al., 2012 forthcoming). The International Migrants Remittances Observatory in Benin focuses specifically on the role played by remittances on poverty reduction and development in LDCs and could play a lead role in contributing to this objective.

c) *Addressing environmentally induced migration*

Governments in the South have little experience on how to anticipate and address migration driven by environmental change. As environmental change in developing countries is likely to play a role in people's decision to migrate, capacities in this area will need to be strengthened. Governments should be able to implement measures preventing harmful environmental changes and building resilience in communities (Foresight, 2011). Research on all aspects of migration in the context of environmental change in the South should be fostered and results made available to policy-makers, including local level authorities. Such data should also be integrated in environmental and migration profiles. In addition, improved preparedness and response capacities with regard to disaster risk reduction and disaster management will significantly reduce the negative impact of extreme weather events. Including migration as an adaptive strategy into National Adaption Plans (NAPs) and linking it with national development strategies can represent a way to respond to on-going and emerging environmental changes in the longer term. Discussions on addressing the impact of environmental change on migration, including issues of international protection that have not yet been considered (ICMPD 2011), should be pursued in regional and international fora.

**4.3 Lack of alignment between migration policies and development objectives: mainstreaming migration into national development planning**

Countries in the global North and South share an interest in governing migration in a way so as to enhance the development benefits to their nations and mitigate potential negative consequences, be they in the social, economic, environmental or other spheres. Countries in the global South tend to formulate their development aspirations in the form of national development strategies (NDS), which often translate international development goals, such as the Millennium Development Goals, into national objectives. Articulating a mid-to long-term vision for the country, NDS provide strategic direction for various areas of policy making and also guide the support of external actors, including bilateral and multilateral development partners, such as through the UN Development Assistance Framework in the case of UN country teams.

The decision to mainstream migration into a country's national development strategy represents an important statement of political will to prioritize migration as a factor affecting (positively or negatively) the whole range of national development aspirations and to mandate its consideration across different government portfolios. There are at least two mainstreaming scenarios: 1) A country can have formulated a national migration policy – or policies relating to specific aspects of migration, such as labour mobility or diaspora relations – and may wish to ensure that the objectives of those policies are reflected in its national development targets and priorities, so that migration or diaspora contributions can be leveraged towards the achievement of those targets (e.g. poverty reduction) and the interests of migrants (e.g. access to social protection) are being properly taken into account. A similar approach has been taken in the Philippines, for example.<sup>26</sup>

Where countries do not yet have comprehensive migration policies in place, they can use the development planning process – which usually moves through a cycle of assessment, prioritization, planning, implementation, and M&E – as an opportunity to a) improve the evidence base on migration and associated flows, and their development impacts; b) identify priority areas for policy formulation; and c) develop a national migration and development policy and plan of action that contribute to the goals set out in their national development plan. This course of action has been taken in Jamaica, one of the countries participating in a GMG-supported global pilot project on “*Mainstreaming migration into national development strategies*”, which is led by UNDP and IOM and builds on the joint GMG handbook on this topic.

Initial lessons from the pilot project (which is also implemented in Bangladesh, Moldova and Tunisia) suggest that no ministry, government, or country, can deal with migration in its many forms, and its impacts on various dimensions of human development alone. A ‘whole-of-government’ approach and broad-based, institutionalized engagement with non-governmental stakeholders emerge as key ingredients for success at the national level. Yet, there is also a need to look beyond national borders and engage with bilateral and regional partners if national policies and strategies are to be fully effective. The links established by South-South migration between neighbouring countries and regional partners may offer the best prospects for exploring a reciprocal approach to migration mainstreaming, involving countries on both ends of a migration corridor, which could lead to better coordinated and mutually beneficial policies under joint development frameworks, benefitting countries of origin, destination and migrants alike.

## **Questions to guide the discussion**

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- 1. What capacities are needed by governments to produce better data and information promoting evidence-based policy making on South-South migration? How can the gathering, analysis and sharing of migration and development data be promoted in the global South?**
- 2. How can governments harness the development potential of South-South labour mobility? What practices and tools already exist? How can the international development community and regional entities assist governments in promoting the development impact of migration?**
- 3. How can governments in developing countries better address migration challenges resulting from environmental changes? What can be learned from past experiences?**
- 4. What are key future challenges for managing migration in the global South? What capacities are required by the different actors to respond effectively to these challenges, both at national and regional levels?**

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<sup>26</sup> See: Migration Mainstreaming in Development Planning: The Philippine Case, presentation given by Cabinet Secretary Imelda M. Nicolas, Chairperson, Commission on Filipinos Overseas, GFMD Preparatory Workshop on “Factoring Migration into Development Planning”, 12-13 June 2012, Mauritius,

## Possible outcomes

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- **Direct the discussion on South-South migration towards key thematic areas**
- **Highlight the role of South-South labour mobility for development and identify major obstacles to maximise the development impact;**
- **Promote mainstreaming of South-South migration into national development plans.**
- **Highlight the potential impacts of environmental change on migration and the need to address them through a mix of policy options including humanitarian, adaptation, development and migration measures.**

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## ANNEX TO BACKGROUND PAPER 2.2

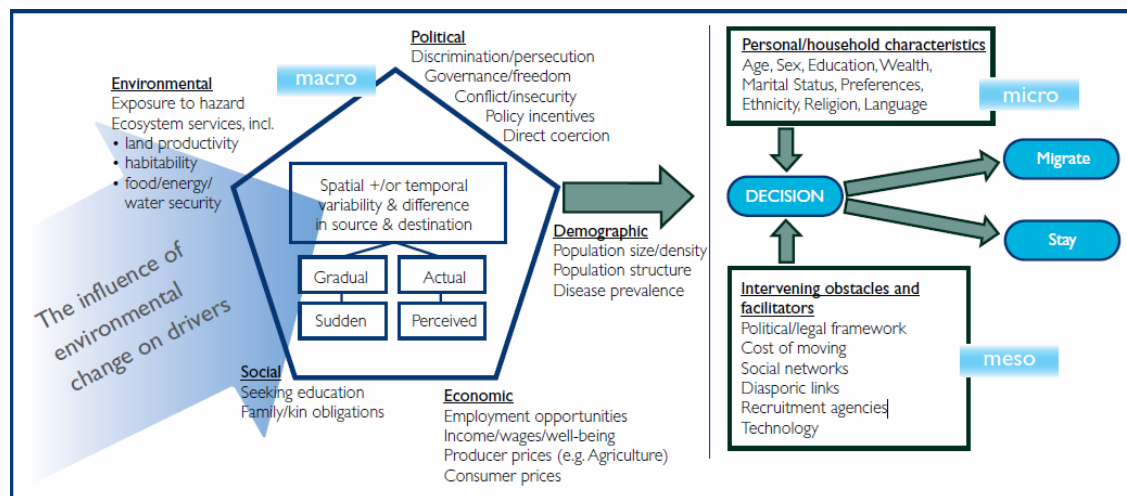
### Input by the UK Foresight Programme to 2012 GFMD Roundtable 2.2

#### Migration, development, environmental change and adaptation

The relationship between environmental change and migration has seen an upsurge in attention in recent years. Much of the impetus originates from environmental commentators and has often been characterised by a perspective which sees migration as a ‘failure’ of climate policies. These contributions have succeeded in raising awareness of migration and environmental change, to the extent that the issue is mentioned in the Cancun Adaptation Framework of the UN Framework Convention for Climate Change. Yet it is important that the GFMD grasps hold of this debate, building on the discussions at the 2010 GFMD Roundtable 3.2, to ensure it is informed by a nuanced understanding of the synergies between migration and development. There are three areas where this is particularly appropriate:

1. **Understanding how environmental change influences decisions to move and the drivers of migration.** The Foresight report ‘Migration and Global Environmental Change’ (2011)<sup>27</sup> illustrates this relationship in the conceptual framework in Figure 1. Environmental change, which includes climate change, interacts with five migration drivers which often underpin South-South migration, including economic drivers, such as employment opportunities and wages, and social drivers, such as access to education and family obligations.

**Figure 1: Foresight’s conceptual framework for how environmental change affects migration (Foresight 2011)**

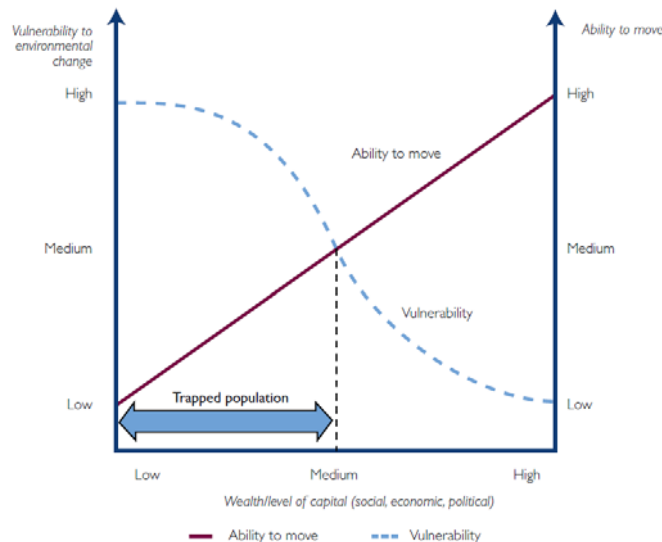


There are two important implications for the relationship between migration, development and the environment. First, a key force is the *disparity* or *variability* in source and destination areas, or at least the perception of such ‘deficits’, in key indicators of development: economic progress, social access, political freedoms, and so on. For example, environmental change may exaggerate *existing* income differentials between rural and urban areas and thus increase the *desire* to migrate. Second, and running counter to the first trend, the *ability* to migrate is often determined by individual wealth, social networks and political/legal status (shown on the right of Figure 1). A

<sup>27</sup> The Foresight report was based on contributions from over 350 experts from more than 30 countries across the world. The report’s findings were informed by four international workshops in Dhaka (Feb 2011), Istanbul (Feb 2011), Kathmandu (March 2011) and Johannesburg (March 2011); following publication the report’s findings have been tested and developed in a workshop with the Government of Ghana in Accra (March 2012). The report has been led by the UK Government Office for Science, although the findings do not constitute the policy of the UK or of any other government.

result of these conflicting trends is that the poorest, without access to economic, political or social capital, may be the most vulnerable to environmental change, yet have the fewest options to migrate, especially internationally. This ‘trapped population’ is shown in Figure 2 below.

- **Key question: what should be the GFMD’s role in regards to this vulnerable population who do not have access to (especially international) migration?**



**Figure 2: Representation of how the level of wealth/capital (social, economic or political) correlates with vulnerability to environmental change and at the same time determines ability to move (Foresight 2011)**

**2. Migration can be part of a portfolio of actions taken by individuals, households or communities to adapt to environmental change and reduce vulnerability.** Rather than seeing migration as a ‘failure’, the Foresight report builds on the work of the GFMD which sees migration as an important tool for development. The report extends this argument to show how this migration-development dynamic also has positive outcomes for *adaptation* to environmental change. For example:

- migration allows a diversification of livelihoods so that households or communities are no longer over-dependent upon rural income streams which are more vulnerable to environmental change;
- remittances have been shown to increase following environmental disasters in Jamaica and Philippines (Wallsten 2004; Yang and Choi 2007); migration thus increases the resilience of communities to environmental events and reduces resulting forced migration; and
- migration can allow individuals to build geographically-dispersed social networks and enables the sharing of best practice to deal with environmental challenges.

Climate change threatens existing development gains made by many countries in the global South, with Africa one of the most vulnerable (IPCC 2007). The GFMD have led international efforts to understand the positive relationship between migration and development;

- **Key question: should the GFMD also consider how this relationship can help solve one of the most strategically important challenges the global South is facing, in climate change?**

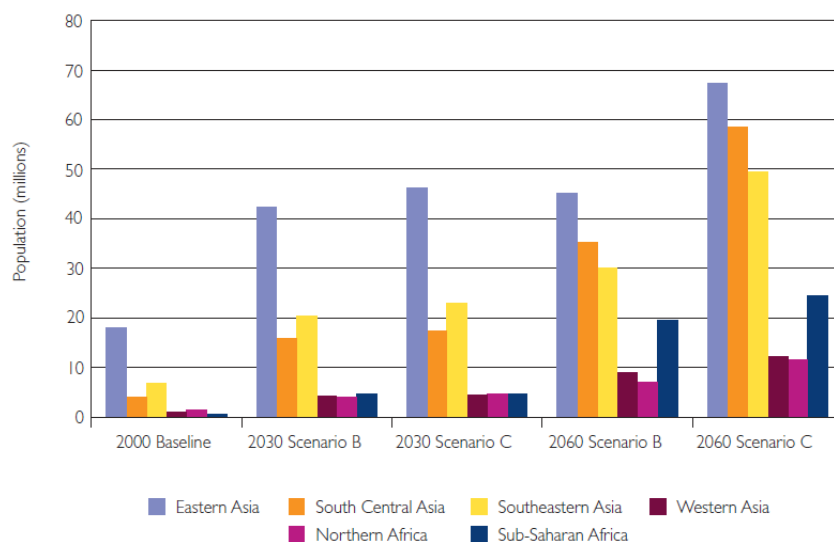
The evidence in the Foresight report suggest that it should, especially because a positive approach to especially internal migration will assist those ‘trapped populations’ highlighted above.

**3. If urban planning is not adequate, migration and environmental change may combine to undermine development in receiving areas.** The Foresight report shows that in certain

scenarios, 192 million additional people will be living in urban coastal floodplains in Africa and Asia by 2060; locations which will become increasingly environmentally vulnerable (see **Figure 3**). Much of this increase will be because of rural-urban migration, yet the Report cites evidence that policies to reduce rural-urban migration often fail (Beuchemin and Schoumaker 2005, Bakewell 2008, Massey et al 2010). Instead, effective policies build physical and social infrastructure to ensure that migrants are safe where they arrive, are able to contribute to communities, yet can retain links to origin communities (including migrating back-and-forth).

- **A key question is whether the GFMD should focus on migration to fast-developing urban areas which are vulnerable to climate change, and policies which can address resultant challenges through:**
  - **providing safe, clean and affordable housing to migrants;**
  - **ensuring water and sanitation infrastructure is adequate where migrants arrive;**
  - **providing access to education services, health services and social benefits, which migrants are often unaware of or unable to access; and**
  - **ensuring migrants can send cheap and affordable remittances, including to rural areas and where amounts are very small.**

**Figure 2: People living in urban coastal flood zones in 2060 (Vafeidis 2011, reproduced in Foresight 2011)**



*Explanatory note: Scenario B is lowest and Scenario C is highest, therefore representing the full range from these scenarios.*

**In summary**, over 350 experts from more than 30 countries have contributed to the Foresight analysis which shows it is beneficial to consider migration, development and the environment together. If policy approaches which are already under consideration in the GFMD are built upon and tailored, then migration can facilitate adaptation to the global challenge of environmental change. Migrants may be particularly vulnerable to environmental change which can endanger important development gains. The forum of the GFMD is very well placed to lead the international debate on the links between these issues.

### **Foresight, August 2012**

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