

INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION
PAPERS

93

**Integrating Migration Issues
Into Development Planning**

Robert E.B. Lucas



INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION PROGRAMME

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE GENEVA

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Preface

International labour migration and its linkages with development have been prominent on the global policy agenda in the recent years. The Resolution on a Fair Deal for Migrant Workers in a Global Economy adopted by the 92nd Session of the ILO's International Labour Conference in June 2004 called for the: "Promotion of policies that maximize the contribution of migration to development is another essential component of a comprehensive policy to address the global context of migration." Several global initiatives including the Global Commission on International Migration, the United Nations High Level Dialogue on International Migration and Development, and the Global Forum on Migration and Development have called for integrating migration concerns into national development planning. The ILO Multilateral Framework on Labour Migration advocates 'integrating and mainstreaming labour migration in national employment, labour market and development policy' in its Guideline 15.1. While there has been considerable work on migration and development linkages, particularly on remittances, there has been less research on how migration issues can be integrated into development planning. The paper by Professor Robert Lucas addresses this important aspect of the migration-development nexus.

In analysing the issue, the paper sets out to answer three questions: What does integrating migration issues into development planning strategies entail? Which policy instruments are available to take the lead on this initiative? And what are the main issues to be incorporated? From this standpoint, Professor Lucas has reviewed important development strategy and policy documents at country level elaborated by governments with the support of international partners such as the ILO, the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, and UN Country Teams. These are the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers, Decent Work Country Programmes, United Nations Development Assistance Framework and Millennium Development Goals Progress Reports. Lucas highlights three important factors for effectively integrating migration issues into development planning: adopting an integrative approach, ensuring coordination among different government ministries and agencies dealing with migration and promoting international and regional cooperation. He notes that it is also important to involve international agencies to address the lack of technical capacity of the national actors to deal with the migration and development linkages.

The main purpose of ILO working paper series, '*International Migration Papers*' is to disseminate the results of research on relevant and topical issues, among policy makers, administrators, social partners, civil society, and the media and the research community. We hope that this paper will contribute to the efforts of constituents to better analyze the implications of the process of labour migration for development, and support them in the design and implementation of policies and programmes that serve to maximise the development benefits of migration.

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The issue of migration and development has been high on the global policy agenda in recent years. In assessing the situation a number of new global initiatives have advocated greater inclusion of migration issues in the processes of development planning and strategic design. For instance:¹

The UN Secretary-General's Report for the UN High Level Dialogue on International Migration and Development 2006, states: *"There is a need to build capacity and promote research to evaluate policy interventions in both countries of origin and destination and to facilitate the mainstreaming of migration considerations into strategic development frameworks."*²

The Global Commission on International Migration included a reference to this approach as Principle 2 in its six Principles of Action: *"The role that migrants play in promoting development and poverty reduction in countries of origin, as well as the contribution they make towards the prosperity of destination countries, should be recognized and reinforced. International migration should become an integral part of national, regional and global strategies for economic growth, in both the developing and developed world."*³

A number of international donors as well as regional entities have made commitments to promote integration of migration issues into development planning and programming.

According to the UK Department for International Development Policy Paper on migration, *"DFID will work with partner governments, donors and civil society including trade unions, to encourage the inclusion of migration in country-led plans that address poverty reduction and development."*⁴

The African Union Strategic Policy Framework on Migration in Africa encourages *"AU Member States to integrate Migration and Development policies particularly Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP, etc), in their National Development Plans."*⁵

1. See also the World Bank's Global Economic Prospects, 2006 and the International Labour Organization's Multilateral Framework on Labour Migration, adopted in 2004.

2. *International Migration and Development: Report of the Secretary-General*, May 18, 2006, (p.21) at <http://daccessdds.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N06/353/54/PDF/N0635354.pdf?OpenElement>

3. Global Commission for International Migration, *Migration in an Interconnected World: Principles for Action*. Synopsis, (p.4) at <http://www.gcim.org/attachements/GCIM%20Report%20Synopsis.pdf>.

4. *Moving out of Poverty: Making Migration Work Better for Poor People*, DFID, March 2007, (p.12) at <http://www.dfid.gov.uk/pubs/files/migration-policy.pdf>.

5. *The Migration Policy Framework for Africa*, African Union, Executive Council, Ninth Ordinary Session, Banjul, The Gambia, June 25- 29 2006 (p.31) at [http://www.africa-union.org/root/AU/Conferences/Past/2006/November/SA/EU/EXCL276\(IX\)_Strategic_Framework_for_Policy_Migration.doc](http://www.africa-union.org/root/AU/Conferences/Past/2006/November/SA/EU/EXCL276(IX)_Strategic_Framework_for_Policy_Migration.doc).

But what does integrating migration issues into development planning strategies entail? Which policy instruments are available to take the lead on this initiative? And what are the main issues to be integrated? The purpose of the present paper is to consider these questions.

The paper is organized into five main parts. The first section considers some of the chief, potential vehicles to lead on integrating migration into development planning, their current scope and migration content. Section II presents a conceptual framework, outlining some of the more important roles that migration may play in thinking about development strategies as well as noting some of the most glaring gaps in our knowledge on these issues. Section III then selects a few country examples, in which migration issues appear important, to enquire how migration is currently addressed in their planning processes. Section IV considers some of the realistic constraints upon the implementation of integrating migration and development thinking in national planning, while V concludes by attempting to summarize some of the implications of this exercise for future initiatives.

I. INSTRUMENTS OF POLICY

In centrally planned, command economies, both international and internal migrations have been subjected to attempted state controls to achieve the goals of development planning and to maintain political hegemony. Most states today, however, attempt only to control immigration by directives, leaving emigration, internal movements and return migration largely unregulated. In the majority of states, economic planning is also more indicative; concerned with macroeconomic stabilization, promoting growth and at least some of the Millennium Development Goals. Yet this does not imply that migration is not intimately associated with the pursuit of these objectives. Migration, in all of its forms, is shaped by economic performance and policies, but the efficacy of these policies can also be altered by the incidence of migration.

Most states, particularly among the developing countries, generate some form of planning document. Since the widespread demise of central planning, these documents normally focus on describing the state of the economy, setting forth the principal objectives, itemizing the policy strategy targeting these objectives, and sometimes presenting an associated budget. Yet few of these national documents pay much attention to the role of migration. Certainly much more could be done to recognize the importance of migration, in its various forms, in achieving national goals.

Global Instruments

Given this neglect at the national level, there is considerable room for the international organizations to demonstrate what may be achieved in this regard. A number of development strategy documents for individual countries are currently generated in consultation between international organizations and the home states, including: The Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP), intended to provide the basis for assistance from the World Bank and International Monetary Fund; the International Labour Organization's Decent Work Country Programmes (DWCP); the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) outcome papers; and the Millennium Development Goals Progress Reports (MDG_PR) prepared by the UN Country Teams (See Appendix Map 1: Countries Covered by Existing UNDAF Papers and MDG Reports). Each of these incorporates the eight Millennium Development Goals in various ways:

1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
2. Achieve universal primary education
3. Promote gender equality and empower women
4. Reduce child mortality
5. Improve maternal health
6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
7. Ensure environmental sustainability
8. Develop a global partnership for development

Perhaps the most obvious links between migration and the MDG are with goals of poverty eradication and partnerships for development, though education and gender issues certainly overlap substantially with the migration-remittance nexus, while aspects of health and the environment are also touched by the migration process. The emphasis on the different MDG varies substantially among the various agencies, yet none of the country strategy documents systematically incorporates the role of migration to any significant extent. The potential for a more substantial treatment of migration may differ both with the intent of the current reports and the capacities of the staff units that prepare these documents.

United Nations Development Assistance Framework

The UN Development Group website lists UNDAF completed outcome papers for over 111 countries encompassing a large portion of the world's developing regions⁶ (See Map 1). The UN Country Teams assist in the preparation of the UNDAF outcome papers, which generally identify four Strategic Areas of Cooperation encompassing twelve Priority Areas associated with particular agencies:

- Economic Growth with Equity.
- Small and medium industries (UNIDO)

6. <http://www.undg.org/?P=234>

Sustainable livelihood (UNDP)
 Human Development, Human Rights and Human Resource Development.
 Education (UNESCO)
 Food security and nutrition (FAO)
 Child labour (ILO)
 Empowerment of women (UNICEF)
 Reproductive health (UNFPA)
 Indigenous people's empowerment (ILO)
 Peace building (UNDP/Resident Coordinator)
 HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS)
 Environment and Sustainable Development.
 Industry and environment (UNIDO)
 Governance and Development Management.
 Governance (UNDP)

In addition, five Cross-Cutting Concerns are noted for examination in each Strategic Area of Cooperation: protection and promotion of child rights, environment, gender, capacity building and social equity.⁷ The UNDAF documents are ultimately intended to present a business plan, in the form of a Results Matrix, for the operational activities of the UN system in addressing national priorities. Discussion of the state of the economy, not to mention the role of migration, does not necessarily form a part of this. For instance, in 2004, official remittances from abroad amounted to an astonishing 27 percent of GDP for Moldova.⁸ Although the International Organization for Migration was a signatory of the 2006 UNDAF for Moldova the term “remit” appears only in the context of ‘remittances from the state budget’. This omission, in part, reflects the fact that analysis of the state of the economy is normally a part of the preceding Common Country Assessment Exercises. Yet in the 2000 Common Country Assessment for Moldova, remittances from migrants receive no mention at all in a country that is all but dependent on these transfers.

Millennium Development Goals Progress Reports

The National Millennium Development Goals Progress Reports are also typically prepared by the UN Country Teams and encompass even more countries than the UNDAF, including some EU member countries (See Map 1). These reports are relatively brief accounts of progress being made within each country toward achieving the eight MDG. Some of the country progress reports touch upon migration, noting the difficulties in dealing with large population movements. Similarly, the Millennium Project Interim Task Force Reports contain occasional mention of migration. Not surprisingly, the Task Force on Trade and Development report takes up Mode 4

7. See the account in the pilot UNDAF paper for the Philippines in 1998, p.5, at <http://www.undg.org/index.cfm?P=232>

8. UN (2006).

trade in services, for example. Other instances include the impact of the emigration of healthcare workers in various reports on health goals.⁹

Decent Work Country Programmes

Labour issues are taken up much more specifically in the International Labour Organization's Decent Work Country Programmes (DWCP) which "...promote decent work as a key component of national development strategies."¹⁰ In particular, the DWCP documents are intended for "...mapping the situation and identifying priorities and partners, defining outcomes and determining an implementation plan" (ILO, 2005: v). The documents are kept very brief, typically starting with a sketch of the current situation and state of the economy then proceeding to lay out specific priorities. The latter vary from country to country, though specific elements of labour legislation and social protection are common to most of the reports. Labour migration arises far more commonly in the DWCP than in the UNDAF or MDG_PR, and DWCP have been formally adopted in 23 countries, with a particular concentration in Europe and Central Asia (See Map 2). A further 26 DWCP have achieved draft form. The DWCP are expected to identify a maximum of three or four issues, and this makes it likely that migration may not be picked up as a major theme. Nonetheless, of the 49 total DWCP, labour migration is mentioned in 31 and it is a priority area of activity in fifteen of these.

Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers

To the extent that one of migration's strongest links with the MDG is through poverty alleviation, the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP), which were introduced after the turn of the Millennium, would seem an obvious vehicle for integrating migration issues into development strategies. Certainly the economic content of the PRSP is much greater than in the UNDAF and MDG-PR. The PRSP "describe a country's macroeconomic, structural and social policies and programs to promote growth and reduce poverty, as well as associated external financing needs."¹¹ The common elements of a PRSP include a poverty assessment (distinguishing urban and rural poverty), macroeconomic and trade policy issues, human development (social protection, health, nutrition and population, and education), and the role of the private sector and infrastructure. The environment and gender are treated as cross-cutting issues.¹² However, treatment of migration within the PRSP remains very limited. "A recent

9. Usher (2005).

10. <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/program/dwcp/countries/index.htm>

11. <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTPOVERTY/EXTPRS/0,,menuPK:384207~pagePK:149018~piPK:149093~theSitePK:384201.00.html>

12. In a review of the PRSP process, ILO (2002:2-3) notes some limitations, however:

"Employment, and especially the functioning of labour market institutions, is generally insufficiently addressed. Gender equality is another issue where coverage is patchy. Similarly, insufficient attention is given to social protection. Rarely do PRSPs consider the design of the employment and labour relations policies needed to attract, retain and train the significant numbers of people who will be required to provide the quality and quantity of services needed to meet the targets in national poverty reduction... The main problem with PRSPs as documents, however, is the difficulty of linking proposed actions and strategies to poverty reduction outcomes".

review of 48 poverty reduction strategy papers found that 21 made no mention of migration; nine saw it as a cause of ‘brain-drain’” (UK Department for International Development, 2004:73). For instance, the 2002 Final PRSP for Mali mentions the word remittance only in the statistical tables; migration is mentioned five times though only one of these addresses the effect of international migration on livelihoods. Mali’s diaspora amounts to nearly 12 percent of its population (Winters *et al.*, 2007). PRSP are now available, either in final or interim form, for about 65 countries (See Map 2). Yet this coverage has some important omissions. Only limited coverage exists of South America, Southern and North Africa. Moreover, no PRSP is available for some of the largest states: Brazil, China and India. (See Appendix Map 2: Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers and Decent Work Programs)

Regional and Bilateral Instruments

Beyond these global efforts some regional and bilateral instruments could also prove influential in reshaping migration thinking. A number of regional, preferential trade agreements, such as the European Union and the North Atlantic Free Trade Area, already contain important provisions with respect to mutual labour migration. More generally, however, various inter-governmental organizations for regional economic cooperation, such as the Economic Community Of West African States (ECOWAS) and the Southern African Development Community (SADC) could well achieve more with respect to the role of migration in achieving their goals.

Interesting examples of broader, regional efforts are provided by the European Union Action Plans, which are drawn up as part of the European Neighbourhood Policy. At present there are sixteen delegations to this Neighbourhood Policy program, for which twelve Action Plans exist (See Map 3). Certainly some of these states for which Action Plans exist possess high migration rates to the EU. Accordingly, developing partnerships for migration management is an important theme in some of these Plans, though the Plans are statements of priorities over a wide range of issues, from economic matters to human rights, rather than presentations of any analysis, on the importance of migration or otherwise.

Some of the European countries also integrate migration into their bilateral aid programs. The co-development strategies of some of the EU member countries seem largely concerned with containing irregular migration. On the other hand, the UK Department for International Development has generally recognized the importance of migration in poverty alleviation in a series of country strategy papers.

Potential Future Country Focus

Some of these global and regional planning devices address issues that obviously overlap with migration issues. For instance: trade policies and employment creation are intimately tied up with migration and the location of labour; remittances feed into both long term growth strategies

and short term macroeconomic stabilization concerns; educational strategies and financing are reflected in brain-drain concerns; the incidence of poverty and hence poverty relief efforts are altered by migration and remittance options. The geographic scope of many of these documents remains limited, yet each could well provide role models for the potential integration of migration into thinking about development strategies. Where ought the country focus to fall if a more systematic inclusion of migration issues is to be achieved? An obvious answer would be to focus, initially, upon country contexts in which migration is most important, whether in the form of emigration, immigration, return or internal migration.

The current scope of reports certainly includes countries with high international migration rates. To illustrate, Table 1 reports five indices of migration from recent data. The Net Migration Rate per thousand population is a measure of the net contribution of immigration minus emigration to population growth. The diaspora measure is an estimate of the total overseas population relative to that at home, whereas adult expatriates in the OECD countries relative to adult population at home indicates the relative importance of this portion of the diaspora. As an indication of the magnitude of brain drain, the portion of tertiary educated population resident in the OECD countries is tabulated. Finally, the stock of migrants relative to population gives some indication of the importance of immigration to each country. Each category includes some high migration countries. Whereas countries as widely dispersed as Liberia, Grenada and Tajikistan experienced very high net out migration between 2000 and 2005, the return of refugees to East Timor, Sierra Leone and Afghanistan meant high net in-migration during this period. Eight countries are estimated to have had more than a quarter of their home population abroad in 2000: Grenada, Dominica, Guyana, Cape Verde, The Palestinian Territories, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Albania and Armenia. Some of these same countries also had very high rates of brain drain, especially Grenada, Dominica, Guyana and Cape Verde. Yet it is important to note that some of the countries covered by PRSP, DWCP or EU Action Plans are themselves countries with large immigrant stocks: The Gambia and Côte d'Ivoire in Sub-Saharan Africa; The Republic of Moldova, Kazakhstan and Ukraine among Former Soviet States; The Palestinian Territories, Israel, Jordan and Lebanon in the Middle East. Indeed, some countries – such as Grenada – exhibit both very high immigration and emigration. In considering the scope of issues that development strategy documents might encompass, both emigration and immigration patterns warrant serious consideration.

Table 1 Migration Indicators: Countries with PRSP, DWCP and EU Action Plans

	PRSP*	DWCP	EU Action Plan	Net Mig 2000- 5	Diaspora 2000	OECD expatriates 2000	OECD high-skill 2000	Mig Stock 2005
				Per 1,000	% Pop	% Pop	% hi-skill	% POP
Benin	<input type="checkbox"/>			2.53	9.3	0.4	11.3	2.1
Burkina Faso	<input type="checkbox"/>			1.63	11.3	0.2	2.6	5.8
Burundi	<input type="checkbox"/>			5.46	6.2	0.4	8.5	1.3
Cameroon	<input type="checkbox"/>			0.17	1.1	0.8	17.2	0.8
Cape Verde	<input type="checkbox"/>			-2.09	45.8	25.1	67.5	2.2
Central African Rep.	<input type="checkbox"/>			-2.30	3.0	0.3	7.1	1.9
Chad	<input type="checkbox"/>			6.03	3.9	0.1	2.4	4.5
Comoros	I			-2.67	6.9	3.8	21.2	8.4
Congo	I			-0.75	15.9	3.0	22.2	7.2
Côte d'Ivoire	I			-4.26	1.1	0.7	5.7	13.1
Dem. Rep. Congo	<input type="checkbox"/>			-1.20	1.7	0.6	13.7	0.9
Djibouti	<input type="checkbox"/>			-2.60	2.6	0.7	11.0	2.6
Egypt			<input type="checkbox"/>	-1.30	3.2	0.9	4.6	0.2
Ethiopia	<input type="checkbox"/>			-0.41	0.4	0.5	10.1	0.7
Gambia	<input type="checkbox"/>			4.40	3.9	3.3	63.3	15.3
Ghana	<input type="checkbox"/>			0.11	4.9	2.2	46.9	7.5
Guinea	<input type="checkbox"/>			-6.71	7.2	0.5	11.3	4.3
Guinea-Bissau	I			0.16	9.4	2.2	24.4	1.2
Kenya	<input type="checkbox"/>			-1.30	1.5	1.6	38.4	1.0
Lesotho	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		-4.02	2.9	0.1	4.3	0.3
Liberia	I			-15.41	2.9	3.5	45.0	1.5
Madagascar	<input type="checkbox"/>			0.00	0.9	0.5	7.6	0.3
Malawi	<input type="checkbox"/>			-0.33	1.3	0.3	18.7	2.2
Mali	<input type="checkbox"/>			-2.13	13.3	1.0	15.0	0.3
Mauritania	<input type="checkbox"/>			2.10	4.4	1.2	11.8	2.1
Morocco			<input type="checkbox"/>	-2.60	8.9	7.6	17.0	0.4
Mozambique	<input type="checkbox"/>			-0.21	4.7	0.9	45.1	2.1
Niger	<input type="checkbox"/>			-0.16	4.6	0.1	6.0	0.9
Nigeria	<input type="checkbox"/>			-0.27	0.9	0.6	10.7	0.7
Rwanda	<input type="checkbox"/>			1.06	3.1	0.4	26.0	1.3
Sao Tome & Principe	<input type="checkbox"/>			-2.70	15.2	5.6	22.0	4.8
Senegal	<input type="checkbox"/>			-1.82	5.1	2.8	17.7	2.8
Sierra Leone	<input type="checkbox"/>			17.47	2.1	2.2	52.5	2.2
Tanzania	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		-1.89	0.7	1.1	35.6	2.1
Tunisia			<input type="checkbox"/>	-0.40	6.4	5.4	12.5	0.4
Uganda	<input type="checkbox"/>			-0.11	0.8	0.5	12.4	1.8
Zambia	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		-1.16	2.4	0.8	16.8	2.4
Afghanistan	I			15.97	12.2	1.5	23.3	0.1
Armenia	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	-6.56	25.1	3.4	8.8	7.8
Azerbaijan	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	-2.42	16.8	0.7	2.0	2.2
Bangladesh	<input type="checkbox"/>			-0.52	5.0	0.4	4.3	0.7
Bhutan	<input type="checkbox"/>			0.00	0.6	0.0	0.6	0.5
Cambodia	<input type="checkbox"/>			-0.15	2.4	4.0	18.3	2.2
Georgia	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>	-10.79	3.3	3.4	15.5	4.3
Indonesia	I	<input type="checkbox"/>		-0.93	0.9	0.2	2.1	0.1
Israel			<input type="checkbox"/>	4.94	15.8	4.1	7.9	39.6
Jordan		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	3.75	13.3	2.8	7.2	39.0

Kazakhstan		<input type="checkbox"/>		-8.04	23.0	0.4	1.2	16.9
Kyrgyzstan	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		-2.94	12.1	0.2	0.7	5.5
Laos	<input type="checkbox"/>			-0.24	6.7	10.0	37.4	0.4
Lebanon			<input type="checkbox"/>	-2.01	16.6	15.0	38.6	18.4
Mongolia	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		-3.89	0.3	0.4	1.1	0.3
Nepal	<input type="checkbox"/>			-0.78	4.4	0.3	5.3	3.0
Pakistan	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		-2.41	2.4	1.0	12.6	2.1
Palestine Territory			<input type="checkbox"/>	-2.34	33.4	2.9	7.2	45.4
Sri Lanka	<input type="checkbox"/>			-1.57	5.0	2.8	29.7	1.8
Tajikistan	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		-10.90	13.4	0.1	0.4	4.7
Timor-Leste	<input type="checkbox"/>			19.17	3.3	3.4	15.5	0.6
Uzbekistan	I			-2.34	9.4	0.2	0.7	4.8
Viet Nam	<input type="checkbox"/>			-0.49	2.6	3.4	27.1	0.0
Yemen	<input type="checkbox"/>			-1.03	3.3	0.4	6.0	1.3
Argentina		<input type="checkbox"/>		-0.53	1.7	1.0	2.5	3.9
Bolivia	<input type="checkbox"/>			-2.29	4.7	1.7	5.8	1.3
Dominica	<input type="checkbox"/>			-9.38	53.9	40.8	64.2	5.7
Dominican Republic		<input type="checkbox"/>		-3.26	10.9	13.1	21.6	1.8
El Salvador		<input type="checkbox"/>		-1.20	16.1	20.0	31.0	0.3
Grenada	I			-11.74	84.8	53.7	85.1	10.5
Guyana	<input type="checkbox"/>			-10.70	50.3	42.1	89.0	0.1
Haiti	I			-2.55	9.4	11.5	83.6	0.4
Honduras	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		-0.88	5.6	8.1	24.4	0.4
Nicaragua	<input type="checkbox"/>			-3.83	10.4	8.9	29.6	0.5
Panama		<input type="checkbox"/>		0.50	6.3	6.1	16.0	3.2
Albania	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		-6.46	26.3	8.4	9.0	2.6
Bosnia & Herzegovina	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		2.06	31.9	15.8	23.9	1.0
Bulgaria		<input type="checkbox"/>		-1.27	11.4	7.6	6.6	1.3
Republic of Moldova	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	-1.89	15.5	1.2	3.4	10.5
Romania		<input type="checkbox"/>		-1.37	4.7	3.7	11.8	0.6
Serbia & Montenegro	<input type="checkbox"/>			-1.90	15.9	9.5	13.6	4.9
TFYR Macedonia	I			-0.99	12.8	17.4	29.1	6.0
Ukraine		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	-2.93	11.8	2.2	3.5	14.7

Note: * I indicates interim report

Data sources:

<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTPOVERTY/EXTPRS/0..contentMDK:20200608~menuPK:421515~pagePK:148956~piPK:216618~theSitePK:384201,00.html>

<http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/program/dwcp/countries/index.htm>

http://ec.europa.eu/world/enp/documents_en.htm#3

Docquier and Marfouk (2005), UN (2006), Winters *et al.* (2007).

To the extent that such documents as the PRSP are intermittently updated, one strategy to encourage more migration content is to focus upon the high migration cases currently covered by these documents. However, even the combined, current coverage of the PRSP, DWCP and EU Action Plans misses some very high migration states (See Table 2). As new states are incorporated into the coverage of these documents an alternative strategy would be to focus upon the higher migration states. To this, however, there are two limitations:

First, some of the highest migration states are the very tiny ones, which would limit the visibility of adopting these as role models for incorporating migration issues (See Appendix Figure 1: Diaspora and Population Size; 223 Countries at the Millennium).

Nonetheless, there are certainly several countries with populations over one million with high migration incidence and no PRSP, DWCP or EU Action Plan (See Table 2).

A second limitation may, however, serve to deter from pursuing some of these as targets. There may be good reasons that no coverage currently exists, such as the difficulty in reaching agreement on priorities, access to information or willingness to negotiate. Yet among the countries listed in Table 2 it is not apparent that such limitations would be serious, at least in several of the cases: countries such as Jamaica, Mexico and the Philippines have each been quite amenable to research on migration in the past, for example.

Table 2 Selected Countries with Population over one Million and High Migration Rates, Without PRSP, DWCP or EU Action Plans

	Percent of Population	
	Diaspora (2000)	Migrant Stock (2005)
Belarus	17.8	12.2
Costa Rica	2.8	10.2
Eritrea	15.3	0.3
Jamaica	36.8	0.7
Malaysia	3.4	6.5
Mauritius	14.7	1.7
Mexico	10.3	0.6
Namibia	1.3	7.1
Palestinian Territory	33.4	45.4
Philippines	4.5	0.5
Russian Federation	8.3	8.4
Syrian Arab Republic	2.6	5.2
Trinidad and Tobago	25.7	2.9

Data sources: UN (2006), Winters *et al.* (2007).

No matter which countries are selected, both issues of emigration and immigration are likely to arise. Indeed, for several states in both Tables 1 and 2, a high incidence of migration in both directions is apparent. In addition, internal migration is very important in some of the large countries, even though the incidence of international movements is relatively small. Which migration issues need to be incorporated thus vary with the context and with the dominant forms of migration, and to this the following section turns.

II. EMIGRATION, RETURN MIGRATION, IMMIGRATION AND INTERNAL MIGRATION: IDENTIFYING THE MAIN ISSUES

The channels through which migration and development are simultaneously linked are both numerous and varied. Emigration, immigration, return migration and internal migration all impact development, including economic growth and poverty alleviation but also such development goals as educational attainment and health outcomes. In turn development shapes the pressures to migrate. In the confines of this report it is possible only to draw out some of the more salient links that may be identified as warranting careful attention in the development planning process.¹³ The discussion of these points is organized here by major category of migration: emigration, return migration, immigration and internal migration.

Emigration

A number of aspects of emigration warrant emphasis in thinking about a national development strategy, particularly among the high emigration countries.

Perhaps most importantly, emigration should not be seen as a substitute for job creation at home. If appropriate employment, personal security and opportunities for education were available at home, most people would prefer to remain in their own country. Although the option to emigrate offers a critical outlet, particularly where one or more of these criteria fail to be met, long term reliance on emigration is not an attractive solution.¹⁴

Nonetheless, given the massive income and demographic imbalances between nations, international migration is not a temporary phenomenon that will taper away, and some aspects of this process require careful management. Data on the extent of overseas worker programs remain quite incomplete. Yet it seems likely that contracting of overseas employees has been expanding: Europe now has a substantial array of bilateral schemes¹⁵, flows to the Persian Gulf appear to have been rising, and the US may still contemplate some such scheme for Mexican workers. Indeed, the potential for further expansion of such temporary migration schemes under the umbrella of Mode 4 of GATS is commonly noted. Although these schemes frequently offer important routes to poverty alleviation at home, the prevention of worker abuse within such schemes is vital and requires state intervention. Such abuses range from trafficking to violation of contractual terms and extortion. Where overseas worker programs form part of a state's development strategy, monitoring and policing contractors and other intermediaries needs to be provided for, though successful implementation will probably require a cooperative partnership with the host nations.

13. For a more detailed treatment of the links between migration and development see Lucas (2005), on which the arguments in this section draw substantially for evidence.

14. A possible exception is in the context of the very tiny island states, where the extremely limited domestic market size combines with high transport costs to render competitive production at home especially difficult.

15. See Katseli *et al.* (2006) Appendix Table 1.

The departure abroad of highly skilled personnel raises a complex set of issues for which the home state may need to make provision. In terms of the overall development strategy and the MDG at least two broad aspects may be identified: access to key personnel for achieving these goals; and implications for the publicly funded educational strategy.

In moving towards the MDG of universal primary education, plus the health-related goals, availability of suitable teachers and medical personnel are obviously crucial. The departure of such key professionals overseas poses a threat to the potential improvements in these aspects of human development. But what are the appropriate ways in which the home state can respond? Two main categories of response may be distinguished: those addressing replacement of highly-skilled emigrants and those moving toward more effective deployment of remaining personnel.

In terms of the former, a number of countries are finding that departure of their own health workers and teachers is offset to some extent by immigration of qualified persons from a third state. To achieve this, sufficient flexibility in immigration policy needs to be planned for. Similarly, it may be important to offer sufficient flexibility to permit high-level managers of multinationals into the country in order to attract direct investment, particularly where home country managers are emigrating. In addition, however, it may prove important to plan for sufficient training of key personnel to replace those who are departing. Some efforts have been made to pressure the industrialized countries that are benefiting from the brain drain to pay for this additional training, though with very limited success.

In most contexts there is also considerable room to improve on the efficiency of allocation of scarce, highly-skilled persons remaining in the home country. There are typically very large gaps in the capabilities of teachers in rural areas compared to urban areas, for instance, denying an appropriate education to bright children in the villages with a resulting loss in efficiency, not to mention the issues of equality of opportunity. Greater flexibility in modes of healthcare delivery may be called for, and hence in the patterns of training. For example, simple methods can often be deployed with significant reductions in morbidity and mortality, requiring only paramedics. These are areas where more research is really required: the results to date on the effect of a brain drain of medical personnel upon health outcomes remain very mixed and deployment of remaining personnel appears to be at the heart of these conflicting results (Clemens, 2007; Bhargava and Docquier, 2007). Options to improve the efficient deployment of existing personnel range from periods of required service to pay incentives tied to location. Yet, no matter which options are to be considered they typically require integration with the process of emigration. For instance, introducing periods of required service may simply exacerbate the rate of departure and restricting emigration is a violation of a basic human right, and probably not feasible anyway.

A major source of complaint about the brain drain is the 'lost' public investment in the education of the emigrant. Where emigration of highly educated people is common, the likelihood of departure must be integrated into any serious thinking about the educational strategy of the

country and the means of financing that education. It may not be in the interest of the home country to invest in training people in fields where the chances of emigration are especially high. Indeed, the choice of such fields may well reflect an aspiration to work abroad. Overseas education poses a particularly difficult dilemma: taking advantage of specific forms of training abroad that are not available at home, then returning to work in the home country, may prove very valuable, at least if the newly acquired skills have some relevance at home; on the other hand, studying abroad is often a port of entry to more permanent settlement abroad. These tendencies need to be addressed in planning funding of study abroad by younger citizens. Perhaps most importantly, the means of financing higher education may need to be integrated with the potential for emigration. An alternative that is receiving increasing attention is the possibility of student loans rather than grants. Where students in effect perceive their college degrees as a passport to emigrate, loans to finance these personal gains may indeed be an attractive option. This is an area where more information would be necessary, however, to design effective schemes. In particular the policy package needs to be designed not to discourage able children of poorer parents from taking advantage of higher education. Moreover, some thought needs to be given to devices for retrieving loan repayments from nationals abroad.

Emigration normally results in major financial gains for those departing. Typically, the largest potential gain for those remaining at home is derived from the emigrants' remittances. What issues arise in integrating the receipt of these remittances into a development strategy?

A number of observers have emphasized that remittances are a private transfer; how they are spent is a matter of personal preference determined between the sender and recipient. In this sense there is no need for planning with respect to the spending of remittances. Nonetheless some issues arise. Although the determination of whether to consume or invest out of remittances is appropriately a private matter, that decision may be constrained or affected by current policy. For instance, it is often suggested that lack of public infrastructure may deter families from deciding to invest more of their remittances in income-generating activities. This is certainly an aspect that warrants coordination. In doing so some care needs to be taken, however, not simply to redirect most new infrastructure into areas where remittances are already making the local community relatively wealthy.

The potential macroeconomic effects of remittance inflows also require integrating into any development strategy. Substantial inflows of remittances on current account can result in appreciation of the real exchange rate, as with any forms of capital inflows. Given sufficient appreciation, exporting becomes more difficult with potential loss in employment in sectors linked to export performance. This calls for both anticipation of this consequence and possibly some remedial steps, promoting greater flexibility in sectoral transfers within the labour market. In addition, however, those states that have become highly dependent on remittance receipts also need to plan for contingencies in the event that a sudden drop in remittances may occur. Such unanticipated declines in remittances have occurred, for instance, in the event of crises in the migrant destination country or a shift in the form or extent of permitted migration. On a more

positive note, schemes are now emerging to plan against future transfers, securitizing remittances offshore to lower the costs of international borrowing (Ketkar and Ratha, 2005).

Beyond these various economic effects of emigration, departure can have quite profound social effects too. The absence of parents or a spouse can alter the situation of children and the family more generally in significant ways (McKenzie, 2006). Whether these should be seen as purely private matters or whether the state has some responsibility to provide support is a matter of judgement. It may, for instance, be considered desirable to put in place some mechanisms to check on school attendance and progress, on health checkups and inoculations, of children in communities where many of the parents are absent.

Return Migration

From the perspective of the population remaining at home, there are a number of advantages to circular migration - the return of emigrants. The intent to return generally means higher amounts remitted while away. Such intent may also foster more intensive contact with the diaspora, potentially enhancing the transfer of knowledge from absent migrants and fostering any effects the diaspora has in expanding trade with the home country (Rauch, 2001). Moreover, the acquisition of relevant skills while away may render the migrant a more productive worker upon his or her return home (Co *et al.*, 2000). At least three aspects of this process of return migration require integrating into the development strategies of high emigration countries.

The first issue is the potential for encouraging more migrants to return. Although a few countries have set up financial incentives to promote return, including such features as premium salaries, tax breaks, and investments in facilities offering better working conditions, this is generally a very expensive route to follow. Moreover there is little evidence on whether such devices are effective, and they may result in resentment or even greater emigration to gain access to the incentives upon return. On the other hand, removing barriers to financial reward upon return may be cost effective. For instance, permitting gains in seniority in public sector pay scales based on experience abroad may well be worthwhile.

Second, where contact with the home country is cut off while abroad, return is presumably less likely. An active transnational community can prove an important asset for those remaining at home. Not much can be done by the home state to promote this kind of contact, but granting absentee voting rights, providing media coverage for the diaspora and setting up home-country associations in major centres of diaspora can help.

The third issue is the reintegration of returned migrants into the home economy. Here it is important to recognize that many workers are returning to retire; not all are seeking jobs upon return. Nonetheless, it is common to find returned migrants attempting to set up some form of small business. There is little information on the survival rates of these enterprises, though claims are common that lack of management skills and access to credit impose effective limits

on the success of these efforts. Provision of both management advice and credit is feasible, though better information on the cost effectiveness of such programs should probably precede such policies. Certainly there are success stories, which may provide role models. Returned migrants have played a key part in the evolution of high-tech industries in Taiwan province of China; some of the software start-ups in India have returned migrants as chief executives; and more recently, returned migrants have initiated new companies in Shanghai.¹⁶

Immigration

Even though much of the *de facto* migration to the high income countries is irregular, the form of immigration controls imposed matters. These controls may still affect the extent of irregular migration. Employer sanctions can, if actually implemented, affect the livelihoods of irregular migrants (Martin and Miller, 2000). Moreover, more stringent border controls raise the premium extracted by smugglers for irregular entry. All of these affect the selectivity and gains to migration and hence the development outcomes of the migration process.

However, the immigration policies of the industrialized countries are not the only ones that matter. Developing countries as diverse as Jordan, Kazakhstan, Côte d'Ivoire and Grenada are all estimated to have very large migrant stocks relative to their populations. In many of the developing and transition countries the majority of migrants are irregular; few low income countries maintain effective border controls. Nonetheless policies toward the treatment of immigrants matters in these states too.

At a national level, some countries tend to think in terms of designing the pattern of immigration to meet specific occupational “needs” of the domestic economy. In practice, such an approach or justification is misplaced. “Needs” are never a fixed factor, but depend upon earnings commanded by those with scarce skills and ultimately by the mix of productive activities to be undertaken within the country. The incidence of immigrants performing tasks demanding little connection with their specific skills is high (Özden, 2005), suggesting that rational planning to fill particular gaps does not succeed.

Temporary migration schemes have proliferated, not only in the industrialized countries but also in some of the middle-income countries. The pressure to establish and expand these schemes originates very largely from employers in the host country. It remains unclear whether guest worker programs diminish the incidence of irregular migration, satisfying employers’ demands through legal channels, or ultimately expand irregular migration by establishing patterns of employment demands and expectations of migration in the home country. Certainly one of the main attractions of temporary worker schemes from the host country perspective is the apparent lack of permanent settlement. Naturally, some portion of the temporary workers settle in the new country however. Whether temporary worker schemes or irregular migration leads to more

16. See Saxenian (1999, 2000), Nanda and Khanna (2007).

permanent settlement is unresolved; the difficulties, costs and risks of re-entry for irregular migrants certainly deter voluntary return. Ironically, though, temporary migration can raise problems for the host country too. The very nature of temporary migration discourages social integration. Moreover, the lack of family accompaniment, which is a common feature of such schemes, can engender a range of social problems at both ends of the migration chain.

Some of the temporary worker schemes, particularly in Europe, involve bilateral arrangements often seen as part of a co-development strategy. Indeed, for reasons already outlined, temporary migration can lead to a greater contribution to development at home than does a permanent exodus. In the design of migration schemes as part of a regional partnership for co-development it is important to think more broadly about a coherent policy framework, encompassing at least trade and development assistance as well as migration itself. A large portion of employer demands for irregular or temporary workers in the industrialized countries arises in sectors heavily protected from import competition, either by means of trade barriers or through production subsidies. Calls for the withdrawal of development assistance as a bargaining chip to pressure countries into stemming irregular migration are misplaced. If the rich countries are incapable of policing their own borders then how can the poorer countries hope to police their own? Regional partnerships encompassing a trade, development assistance and migration strategy need to be worked out in common, recognizing that the development of poorer neighbors is in the interest of both parties, leading to expanded trade opportunities and to lower migration pressures.

A number of special considerations arise when refugees are the main portion of the migrant stock entering. Surprisingly little is known about the duration of stay of individuals in refugee camps, though certainly some of the camps have existed for long periods. Moreover, the camps contain only a portion of the refugees: others survive wandering in rural areas or squatting in cities. The livelihoods of these refugees raise major issues for planners, both out of concern for the poverty levels of the refugees themselves but also because of potential, substantial impacts upon the country of asylum. This is an area where relatively little is known, particularly with respect to the impact on host country economies and how to address them. Even less is known about the employment, livelihoods and prospects of refugees returned to their country of origin; hardly a single study exists on this important topic, so that planning for reintegration remains almost completely uninformed.

Internal migration

Since most migrations occur over relatively short distances, for large states there is a lower chance of migrations crossing international boundaries; internal migration becomes relatively more important in these larger countries.¹⁷

17. The importance of distance means that much of the internal migration is confined to short distances also. In India, for example, migration within districts is far more common than inter-state movement (Lucas, 2001).

Naturally, internal migration raises a wide range of planning issues in its own right. For instance, planning for the placement of infrastructure demands taking into account future likely migration patterns. This is complicated by the possibility that migration is in turn affected by infrastructure dispersal, though very little research exists on this issue. Intimately related to infrastructure location is the issue of regional job creation, and the whole debate over whether to move jobs to workers or workers to jobs.

A full consideration of the links between internal migration and development planning is well beyond the scope of the present paper.¹⁸ However, a couple of important links between thinking about international and internal migration are nonetheless worth emphasizing. These links arise in large part because of the role of social networks in encouraging migration. The departure of a few initial migrants can begin to establish a network of contacts in other places for those still at home. Subsequent migration is thus made easier, as the network may aid in finding in jobs, facilitating settling into a new environment or help with obtaining visas. The result is that migration patterns come to concentrate on particular places of origin; some villages send large numbers of migrants while the next village sends virtually none. This pattern holds for both internal and international migrations.

One important link between international and internal migration is therefore whether internal migration occurs to replace departed workers from high emigration locations. In turn this is likely to shape the extent of trickle down in the labour market; are wage increases, induced by emigration of workers, focused entirely on the emigrants' places of origin or is there a trickle down effect, tightening labour markets over a wider geographic area? A similar issue arises with respect to any expansionary effect from emigrants' remittance spending.

More generally, with some locations left behind in the internal and international migration processes, pockets of poverty tend to emerge. To the extent that internal migration occurs largely over shorter distances, these pockets of poverty tend to be in the more remote areas, particularly when international migration tends to occur from the major cities and when international migrants tend to settle in these cities upon their return home. This raises concerns for planning to increase mobility options from remote pockets or seeking alternative devices to alleviate these sources of chronic poverty *in situ*.

Summing up

For high migration countries, the implications of the migration-remittance nexus for planning are pervasive. Migration is shaped by an extremely wide range of policies and, in turn, the efficacy of a wide range of policies is shaped by migration. For most states it is inadequate to consider the implications of one form of migration alone: simultaneous patterns of emigration, immigration, return and internal migration are the norm and their consequences are inter-linked.

18. See Lucas (1997) for a review of evidence on internal migration in developing countries. The role of internal migration in planning has attracted particular attention in China. See for example recent contributions by Ping and Shaohua (2005), Wu and Zhang (2007) and Chan (forthcoming).

These inter-linkages present a difficult prospect for planners. Discussions of migrants' rights have implications for remittances. Trade policies that shape domestic employment creation affect migration patterns. Educational planning and finance interact with the implications and extent of the brain. Central bank interventions to support the exchange rate can alter remittance amounts and whether these pass through formal channels. Whether a trickle-down will occur in poverty reduction from international migration and remittances depends, *inter-alia* upon induced internal migrations. Planning for public transfers and foreign aid, to alleviate poverty and to diminish the impacts of natural disasters and of violent episodes, must take account of any tendency to displace private remittance transfers.

The issues are complex and call for an interactive view of the role of migration in promoting or limiting development at home. Indeed, a piecemeal approach can prove dangerous: focusing upon one aspect alone may not only miss the point but actually prove harmful to the development process. How close does the current state of development planning come to achieving such an umbrella approach?

III. COUNTRY EXPERIENCE

This section explores the experience in main-streaming this gamut of migration issues into development planning and programming in a few select countries. The choice of countries for review attempts to cover different global regions while picking countries with different migration experiences and varied coverage by categories of reports.

Lesotho

This is a country with a long dependence on international migration to South Africa, especially to the mines. But the risks of such long term dependence are apparent. The PRSP estimates the number of Basotho miners today to be about half their number twenty years ago. The recent long term plan for Lesotho, *Lesotho National Development Vision 2020*,¹⁹ includes in its list of major threats:

- Brain drain
- Declining mine labour remittances
- Migrant labour retrenchment

Despite the decline in mine labour recruitment the numbers remain large. The PRSP estimates about 60 thousand Lesotho mine workers in South Africa with another 60 thousand Basotho working elsewhere in South Africa.²⁰ This would be about twice the level of employment in

19. This report is available for download as a zip file at <http://www.lesotho.gov.ls/home/>

20. The estimate of Basotho in South Africa in 2000 in Winters et al. (2007) is only 8 thousand, which reflects

manufacturing in Lesotho. Remittances may also have declined, from about half of Gross National Income around 1990 to about 20 percent by 2004. Nonetheless, even by 2004 the official estimates of remittances to Lesotho remained at just over a quarter of Gross Domestic Product.

A major focus of *Vision 2020*, the PRSP, DWCP and UNDAF is the need for employment creation at home in the face of a continued decline in mine recruitment. Direct Foreign Investment is seen as an important component of this strategy, and the PRSP has numerous references to the need for reform of immigration controls in order to facilitate these investments. The DWCP also draws out an important shift in migration patterns, with a growth in internal, rural-urban migration as emigration has tailed off. However, as the DWCP notes, much of this urban employment is for young women in the textile sector and relatively little appears to have been done to plan for the reintegration of retrenched miners.

Little or no attention is drawn to any need to manage on-going movements of workers to South Africa or elsewhere. Indeed Winters et al. (2007) report some 23 thousand Basotho in Mozambique but these appear to receive no mention in the PRSP. Nonetheless, both the PRSP and *Vision 2020* take up the issue of emigration of highly skilled workers, and of healthcare workers during the HIV epidemic in particular, though neither seem to suggest any remedy. Certainly in Lesotho's *Education Sector Strategic Plan*²¹ there is no mention of either emigration or a brain drain.

Thus the dangers of long term dependence on migration are clearly brought out in most of the planning documents, though planning to address this may have started rather late. Otherwise, coverage of other migration issues is very varied. Indeed the particular emphasis on the need for immigration reform is surprising when management of the still massive temporary migration abroad receives very little attention and strategies to address a perceived brain-drain problem are hardly discussed.

Moldova

There is a wide range of estimates of just how many migrants have left Moldova since the dissolution of the Former Soviet Union, but all observers agree that the numbers are very large. The estimates in Table 1 suggest a Moldovan diaspora of about 15 percent of the population in 2000. Moreover, as noted previously, official remittances to Moldova amounted to some 27 percent of GDP in 2004. Yet immigration also assumes importance in Moldova, where the migrant stock is estimated to be over 10 percent of the population.

severe under-counting of the foreign population in the South African 2000 Census. As a result, the estimate of the Lesotho diaspora reproduced in Table 1 appears to be much too low.

21. Accessed at http://www.fasttrackinitiative.org/library/Lesotho_Education_Plan.pdf

A plethora of planning documents has appeared on Moldova, including a PRSP, DWCP, EU Action Plan, UNDAF and MDG Progress Reports. How does the treatment of migration in Moldova compare across these documents? Together these documents address a number of the issues touched upon the previous section. The PRSP remarks upon an excessive dependence on the migration-remittance nexus and the need for job creation at home, particularly to address the issue of youth emigration. On the other hand, the PRSP emphasizes the importance of remittances from abroad as a source of economic expansion, via consumer demand, at home. This point is also brought out in the DWCP as is the need to diminish the cost of remittances to encourage greater net inflows (though specific devices for lowering costs appear not to be suggested). The PRSP also takes up the issue of enhancing the potential of remittance spending, though it does so appropriately by stressing the importance of lowering barriers to this potential through such devices as promoting more transparent and efficient regulatory policies, by developing competition, and by supporting small and medium-sized business.

The poverty alleviating effects of migration are discussed in a number of contexts though, perhaps appropriately, with mixed outcomes. On the one hand, the PRSP argues that international labour migration and consequent remittances have emerged as a major coping mechanism among poorer families. On the other hand, the PRSP also notes that departure of parents is leading to increased poverty incidence among children left at home. The UNDAF maintains that increasing rural poverty is caused in part by urban-to-rural migration in the face of urban unemployment. Yet the PRSP notes how little statistical information exists on rural migration.

The UNDAF takes up almost none of the macroeconomic or poverty effects that migration and remittances may have, but contains instead myriad references to the need to protect migrants' rights. Bringing Moldovan migration legislation into line with international standards is an issue taken up by each of the reports, as are the prospects for improved management of the migration process. For the EU Action Plan, the latter, not surprisingly is a major theme, including specifics of border control and trafficking prevention while the DWCP calls for support mechanisms for the victims of trafficking. The EU Action Plan also considers the need for a readmission agreement between the European Community and Moldova, presumably to promote more return migration. Both the Action Plan and the DWCP also note the need for coordinating social security provisions, which may also be an important component in encouraging return. The PRSP takes a rather different tack and has a section on "promoting legal emigration of the labour force"²², which includes both calls for more regulation of emigration and for negotiating agreements with EU countries regarding legal employment

Taken together this amounts to a substantial coverage of migration issues. However, some themes are notably omitted. For instance, there appears to be no discussion of the brain drain from Moldova or the links with education policy. Moreover, the presence of a very large

22. *Economic Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (2004-2006)*, Government of the Republic of Moldova, Chisinau, May 2004, p.202.

immigrant population, their economic and social situation, do not appear to receive any mention at all.

Nepal

As of 2000 Nepal's diaspora amounted to some 4.4 percent of the domestic population. Sixty three percent of this diaspora are estimated to have been in India and another quarter in Pakistan. Only about 0.3 percent of Nepal's adult population were in the OECD countries, with the US, Germany and the UK as the largest hosts. However, nearly half of the Nepalese in the OECD had completed a college degree, so the brain drain from Nepal has been significant: over five percent of all Nepalese with degrees were in the OECD countries in 2000. Remittances provide an important lifeline to Nepal with official remittances estimated to be about 12 percent of GDP in 2005. About three percent of Nepal's population were reported by the UN to be foreign born in 2005, sixty percent of these coming from the other countries of South Asia (primarily Bangladesh) plus smaller numbers from China and Russia.

The UNDAF, UNDAF 2007 and the latest MDG Progress Report make no mention of remittances at all. Nor does the MDG Progress Report mention migration. However, the UNDAF documents do mention the issue of knowledge about HIV-AIDS among migrant workers, the need to protect migrant workers' rights and to address poverty among migrant workers and refugees.

The PRSP for Nepal and the Tenth Plan squarely address the importance of remittances to the country. Specifically, attention is appropriately drawn to the key role that remittances have played in the face of declining national savings rates. Some concerns are, however, expressed with two aspects of these remittance receipts. First, the concentration of international remittance receipts in urban areas of Nepal contributes to the rural-urban divide in living standards. The extent to which this results in trickle-down to the rural areas may, however, warrant some attention. Second, the uncertainty of future remittances, given the instability in the Middle East is noted. These planning documents therefore advocate exploring 'prudent' exchange rate management and reforms to vocational training as devices to enhance future remittance flows. In other words, this is a context in which the PRSP and Tenth Plan indeed take seriously the integration of the international migration-remittance nexus into future thinking.

Pakistan

Since the early 1970s, temporary worker migration from Pakistan to the Gulf States has continued on a large scale. Emigration to the OECD countries has also been large, both to some of the EU countries (Germany, Italy and UK) and more recently to North America. To these OECD countries the brain drain has been significant: as shown in Table 1, more than 1 in 8 of Pakistan's tertiary educated population is in the OECD countries. Winters *et al.* (2007) estimate

the total Pakistani diaspora in excess of 3.4 million by 2000 (1.3 million of whom were in India, largely reflecting the mass migration at partition), and official remittances in 2004 were nearly 4 billion US\$ or some 4 percent of GDP. In addition, however, the UN estimates a migrant stock of nearly 3.3 million foreign-born persons in Pakistan in 2005, almost a million of whom were recognized as refugees, largely from Afghanistan, though estimates by Winters *et al.* (2007) also indicate large numbers of foreign born people in Pakistan from all of the large countries of South Asia - from Bangladesh, India, Nepal and Sri Lanka.

The MDG Progress Report (2004:7) does note that “The contribution of overseas Pakistani workers to national income and development suggests the need for continuing attention to migration, and to ways in which it could have a greater impact on investment and sustainable employment within the country.” However, little detail is offered on what forms this attention might take and, indeed, whether attempts to redirect migration (and presumably remittances) to have a greater impact on investment are appropriate, which might be disputed. The DWCP notes the role of a study on “optimizing migration and remittances as an employment strategy” in the design of such documents as the *National Employment Policy* which became part of the *Ten Year Perspective Development Plan*. However, by the time of the *Annual Plan (2007-8)*, the chapter on employment mentions only the need to computerize statistics on emigration and return migration.²³ Certainly the chapter on Balance of Payments in this *Annual Plan* is very concerned with the stagnation in workers’ remittances, but does not address mechanisms to encourage remittances or what effects these might have. Rather the concern is with short-term projections on amounts of remittances to be anticipated.

The topic of refugees in Pakistan is taken up in the UNDAF in the context of Disaster Management more generally. The main focus of the discourse on the Afghan refugees is, however, the time frame for the repatriation process and the opportunity that repatriation will present to ‘rehabilitate the local economy’.

The issue of working conditions among Pakistani migrants in the Gulf has been a major concern, and this is taken up in the DWCP, specifically suggesting a revamping of recruitment policies to be more transparent, with increased reliance on bilateral agreements including social protection clauses and a more important role for labour attaches.

The MDG report also touches on the fact that migrant workers are particularly at risk with respect to HIV and its eradication as one of the Millennium Goals.

For a country with very large numbers of emigrants and return migration, high dependence on remittances, potential costs from a high brain-drain rate, and also with a large immigrant population, the extent of incorporation of migration issues in these documents remains quite

23. <http://www.pakistan.gov.pk/ministries/planninganddevelopment-ministry/annualplan2007-08.htm>

circumscribed. Indeed, the words migration, remittance and refugee appear not at all in the PRSP, which seems quite remarkable.

IV. CONSTRAINTS UPON IMPLEMENTATION

Looking across the country examples indicates an awareness of at least some of the major ways in which migration and development interact. Yet most of these examples also point to omissions of potentially important aspects, so that lessons could well be learned from cross-country experience. Moreover, the treatment of migration and especially the policy issues that it raises typically lack much specificity.

A more thorough integration of migration into national plans may need to arise by international agencies taking the lead, demonstrating what is possible. Such agencies as UNDG and UNDP have shown surprisingly little interest in migration in any form. As we have seen, the UNFPA and MDG-Reports contain relatively little of substance on migration. The ILO has a long-standing mandate on international labour migration, especially regarding protection of migrant workers. The World Bank has recently focused a good deal on international migration issues, though in the process there is a conscious lack of attention to internal migration. On balance it therefore seems the lead might realistically come, at a global level, from the PRSP and DWCP, which will no doubt lead into inclusion in the UNDAF. In addition, some of the regional and bilateral agencies, such as the EU, ECOWAS and the UK's DFID, have certainly shown considerable interest and concern for the integration of migration and development issues, so again the planning vehicles of these agencies may also play an important role.

Yet each agency will face substantial constraints in integrating more migration content into development strategy design. Since these are collaborative, negotiated documents, the home country must possess, or be persuaded, to develop an interest in these linkages. National interest tends to be greatest where migration is larger, so this is an obvious criterion by which to select for initial efforts. Nonetheless, as we have seen, there are countries where migration is currently very substantial yet little or not national interest is apparent in their current planning efforts. In other cases, national interest focuses only on certain aspects of migration. The concern to maximize remittance receipts is not uncommon, with little or no concern for the risks and downside of long term dependence on a migration-remittance nexus. Another common omission is high emigration countries that ignore the need to integrate and manage the processes of simultaneous immigration.

Given national interest at some level, a further major constraint arises from the need to coordinate different ministries. Immigration is normally in the hands of the Home Ministries and/or Justice. Typically the chief concerns are with respect to visa implementation and, more recently, with security. In most countries, emigration is not in the bailiwick of any ministry, unless there is an organized overseas worker program which may be under the Labour Ministry

or very occasionally a Migration Ministry. In practice the decisions in the Education Ministry can be quite central to what is happening in migration, particularly the brain drain, yet Education very rarely recognizes any such connection. The macro-economic implications of labour departure and remittance inflows should and sometimes do attract the attention of Finance, normally the most powerful ministry. However, there is a lack of capacity to perceive the broader picture, in Finance and elsewhere, and hence inadequate coordination of the decisions of the various ministries. For most developing countries the need, mechanisms and potential for coordinating these issues will probably thus demand demonstration by external agencies, hopefully leading not only to capacity building at home but also a demonstration effect across countries.

A final, obvious constraint on any nation planning of a migration strategy is the dependence of this strategy upon the choices of other states. This is true both with respect to immigration policies elsewhere but also with respect to choices that shape emigration pressures elsewhere. Irregular migration is ubiquitous. In the industrialized regions this means that immigration policy does not define migration patterns, but it does influence them. Among the developing countries, irregular migration is the norm; yet decisions in one country that lead to conflict readily impact neighbours as large numbers of refugees flee across the uncontrolled border. A wide range of national policy decisions with respect to migration and its impacts may be made, even given the migration-shaping decisions of others. However, other components really call for international coordination and cooperation. Managing temporary worker schemes, monitoring for abuse, exploitation and trafficking all call for such cooperation. Moreover, the dependence of migration upon development at home, combined with the effect of migration upon development, means the interests of host and origin countries are inextricably intertwined. Cooperation is called for, but global agreements on migration are elusive. Since a great deal of international migration occurs to countries nearby, however, regional cooperation can play a major role in this process. The EU Action Plans are a step in the right direction, but are rarely reproduced elsewhere. In particular, a vehicle such as these multifaceted regional agreements have the capacity not only to coordinate migration issues but to place them in the wider perspective of the need for policy coherence in trade, aid and migration.

V. IMPLICATIONS

The cross-cutting nature of migration renders difficult its effective integration into strategic thinking and the planning process. Yet for high migration countries the cross-cutting effects of migration and remittances can profoundly shape the nature and implications of economic development.

Given this pervasive cross-cutting role, linking migration into development strategy requires an integrative approach. In turn this raises an important point. Within both countries of origin and host countries, dispersing the overview of various elements of migration across uncoordinated

ministries can prove counter-productive. Similarly it may be very dangerous for the international community to imagine that the components of migration can be divided up amongst themselves in terms of responsibility. For instance, it has been suggested that migration ought to be under the jurisdiction of one set of international organizations and remittance under that of other agencies. This makes little sense. Migration and remittances cannot be tackled separately. Designing policies aimed at encouraging more remittances per migrant may miss the point, if total remittances are driven largely by the size and composition of the migrant stream. For the family, the micro implications of the migration-remittance nexus are also inseparable; for example, while remittances may permit more education of the household's children by enhancing overall funds, the migration of parents may have the opposite effect by leaving the family with inadequate parental care. Not only are migration and remittances intimately intertwined but simultaneous patterns of emigration, immigration, return and internal migration are the norm and their consequences are inter-linked.

It is also critical to recognize that the strategic issues impacting migration, and impacted by migration, extend well beyond issues of managing migration and incentives to remit alone. Trade policies that shape domestic employment creation affect migration patterns and, in turn, trade opportunities can be enhanced by the diaspora. Exchange rate management affects the flow of remittances and the inflow of remittances may cause currency appreciation. Educational planning and finance interact with the implications and extent of the brain. The efficacy of public transfers and foreign aid to alleviate poverty depends upon any tendency to displace private remittance transfers. Planning the location of public infrastructure must take account of future migration prospects, including the likelihood that migration will respond to the locations chosen. These inter-linkages present a difficult prospect for planners and have hardly been broached in national planning efforts. What steps are then to be recommended?

It seems that to encourage greater integration of migration issues into the design of development strategies a lead will need to be taken by one or more of the international agencies. In part this lead will be necessary because few countries possess the technical capacity to oversee the broad scope of issues that arise. Among the existing global efforts, the PRSP and DWCP appear to be natural candidates to take this lead, with the PRSP offering the advantage of their ties with aid and loan programs of the World Bank and the IMF. Yet whichever vehicle takes the lead, some broadening of scope may be required. Indeed, none of the current global planning efforts by the international agencies really addresses the full gamut of issues that arises: from migrant rights, labour market institutions and social outcomes, through the role of remittances, trade and macro-economic management.

An important limitation should be recognized in approaching the integration of migration into development planning solely through national plans. International migration patterns are often strongly affected by the policies adopted by neighbouring countries. Again a variety of issues arises, from immigration policies set by neighbours, to their trade and aid strategies, to the impacts of civil wars in neighbouring states. Although such issues can be noted in national planning, strategic negotiations clearly require a more regional or bilateral approach. Here such

vehicles as the EU Action Plans (See Appendix Map 3: EU Action Plans) and discussions in the various inter-governmental organizations for regional economic cooperation, such as ECOWAS, have an advantage in addressing the need for coherent mutual strategies.

Although some of the tiny population countries present very high relative migration profiles, these may not make ideal choices for initial cases to provide lead examples. The visibility of such cases would be limited. On the other hand, to develop a sufficiently broad reference framework it would be desirable to select initial country cases presenting a rich array of migration issues, perhaps including immigration as well as emigration, brain drain as well as overseas worker programs. Both the set of countries that already possess a PRSP or DWCP, and countries possessing neither, include examples of such diverse migration issues, so there are many possibilities provided there is interest at the national level.

It may be desirable to assemble a specialized team to participate in integrating migration issues into the first of these exercises. On the other hand, it is clear that mere inclusion of objectives and targets into planning will not have much impact. The home country needs to take ownership of these ideas. In both initial and subsequent efforts it is therefore essential that a national team be intimately involved in preparing the strategy. At least in initial cases, such a national team representing various migration interests might therefore be assembled to work closely with the international migration experts on the strategic issues of integrating migration into future developments. Once a general framework is established, this should offer a background for capacity building at the national and regional levels.

APPENDIX

MAP 1: Countries by Existing UNDAF Papers and MDG Reports

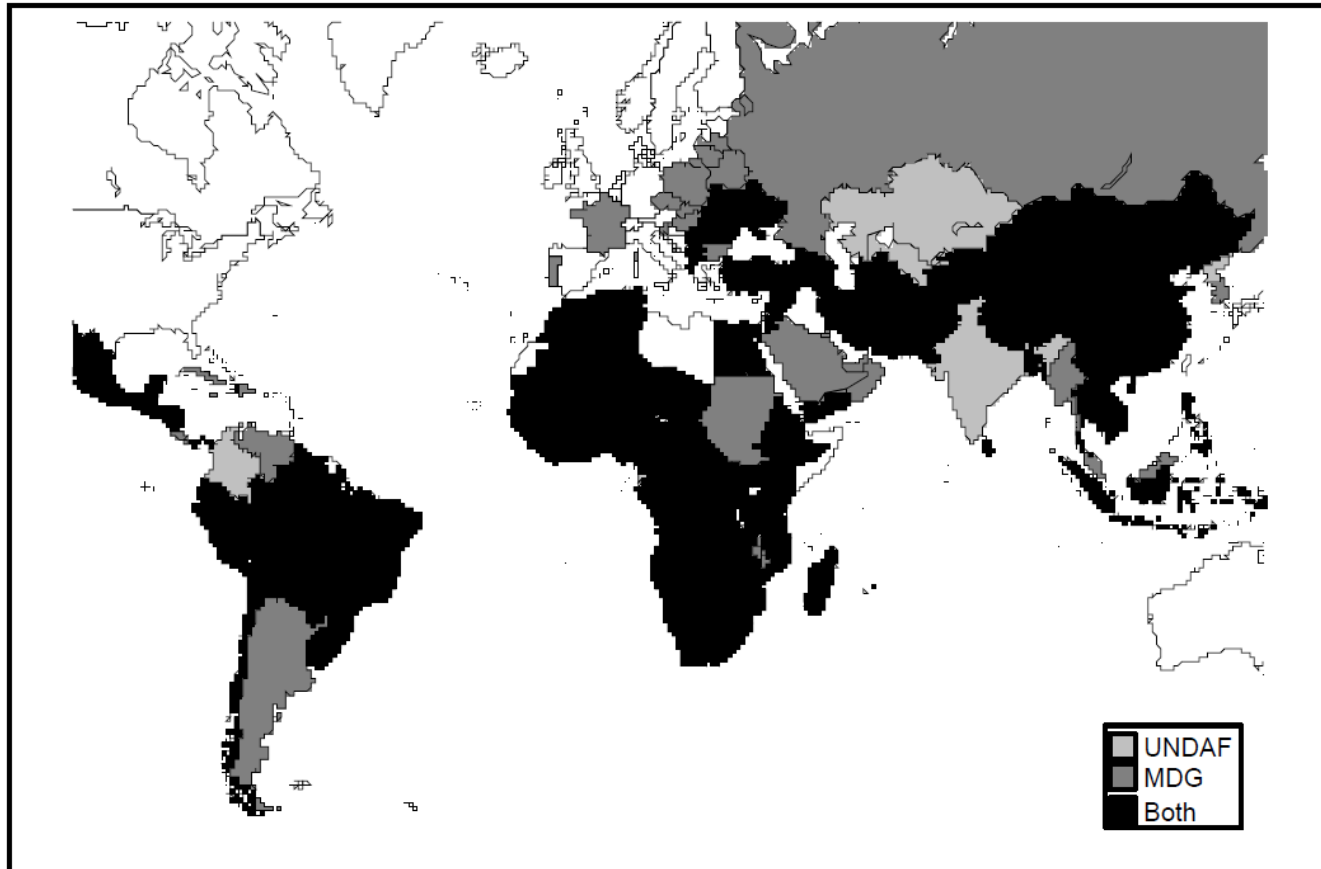
MAP 2: Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers and Decent Work Programs

FIGURE 1: Diaspora and population size. 223 countries at the millennium

MAP 3: EU Action Plans

Map 1

Countries by Existing UNDAF Papers and MDG Reports



MAP 2

Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers and Decent Work Programs

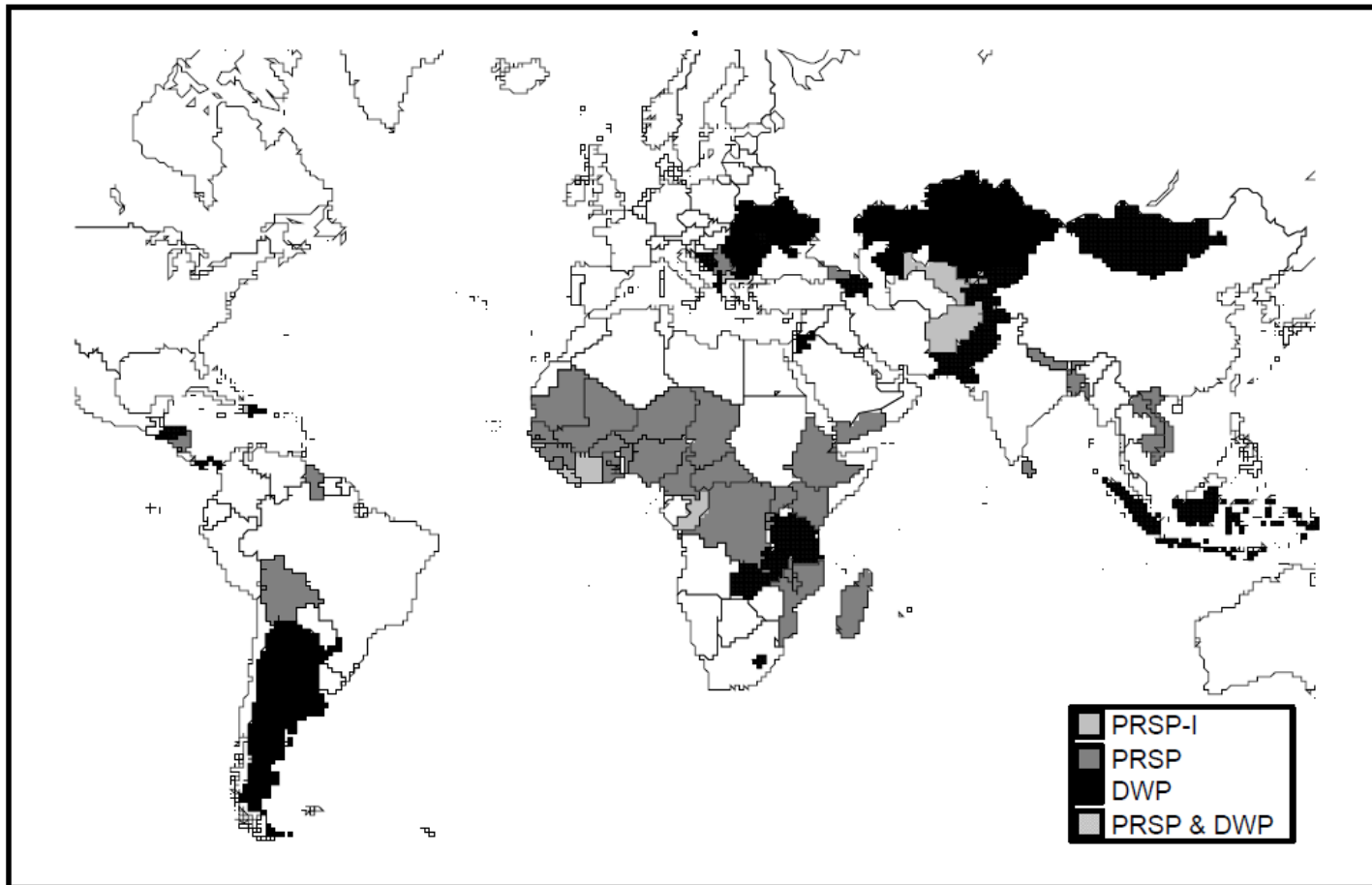
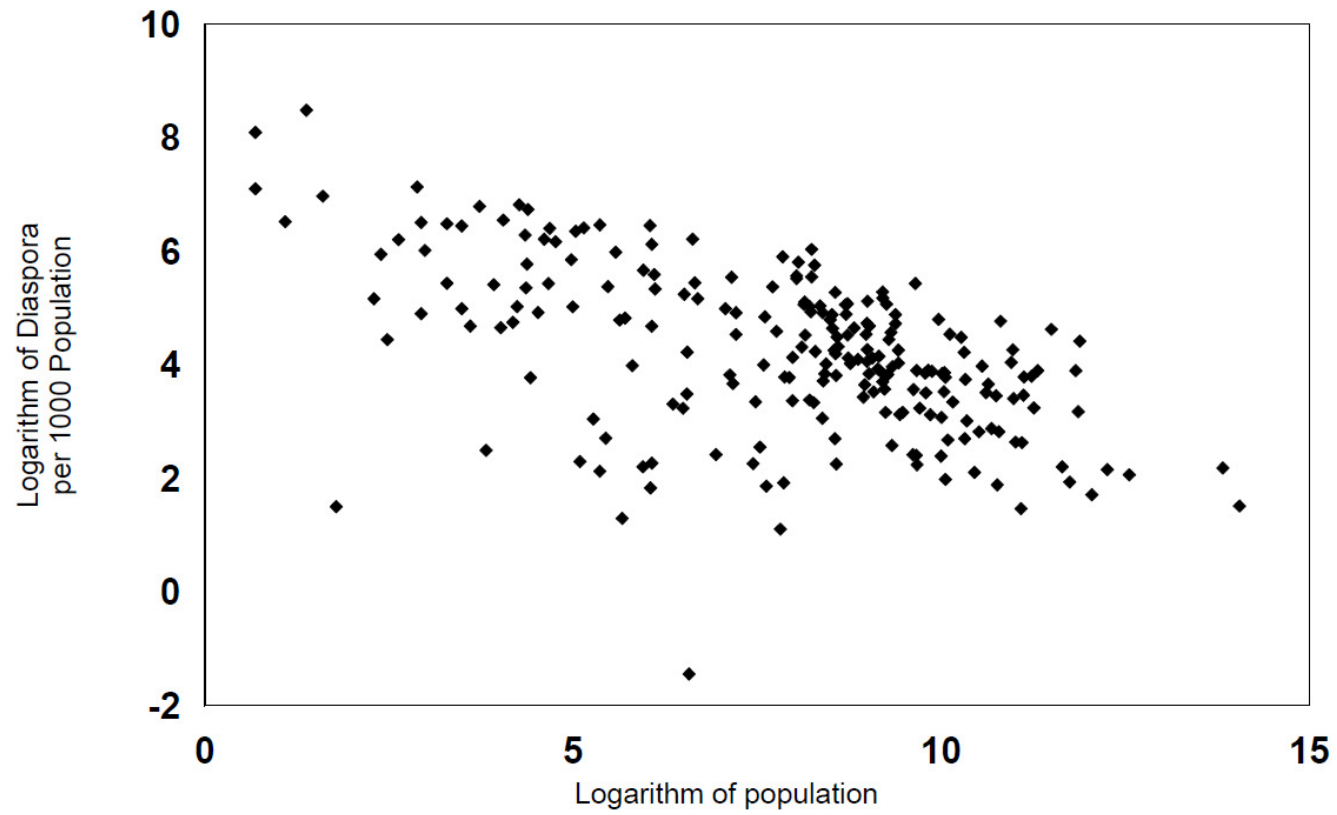
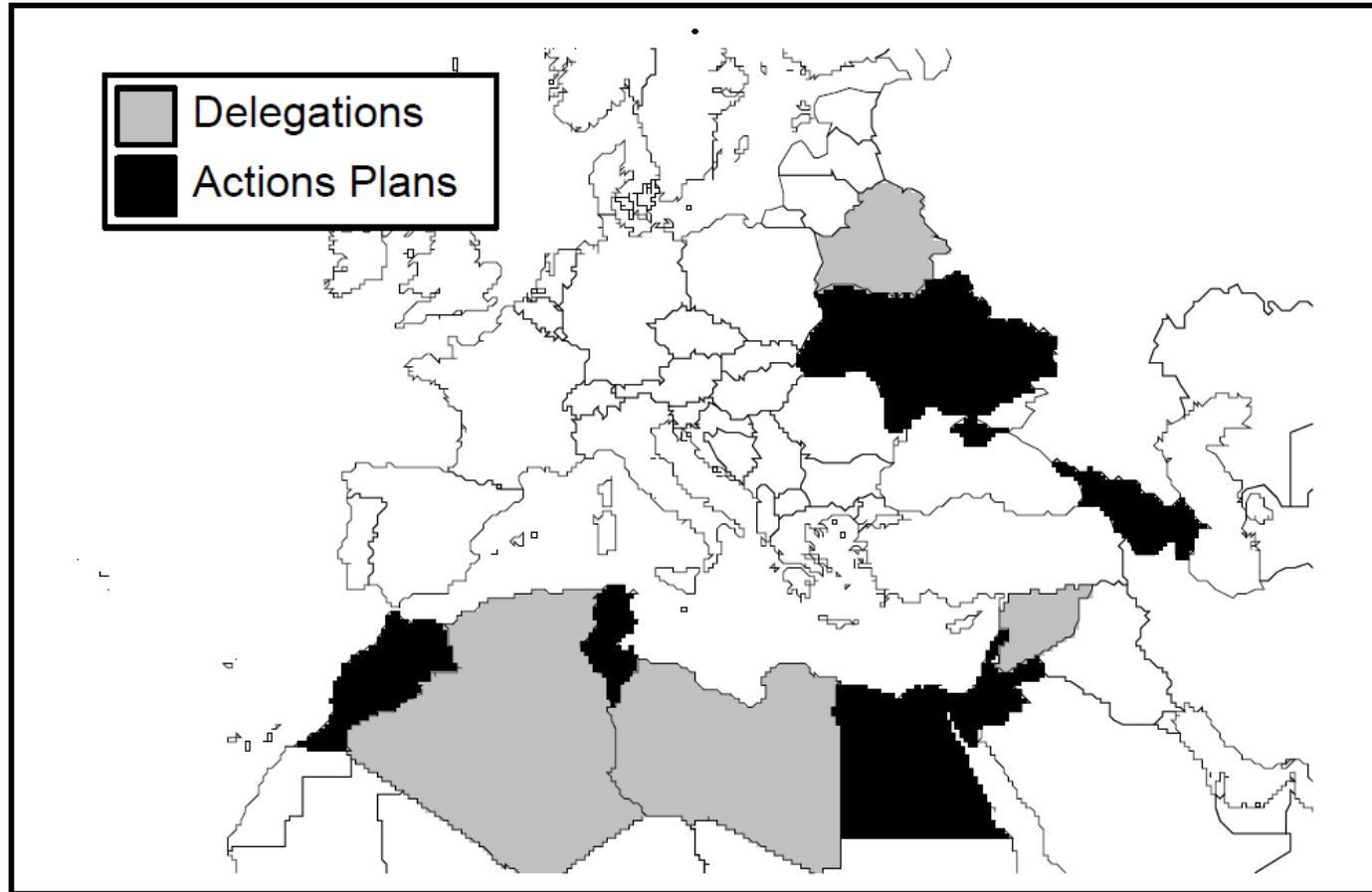


FIGURE 1**Diaspora and population size. 223 countries at the millennium**

MAP 3

EU Action Plans



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