“The Potential of South-South Migration for Human Development in Sub-Saharan Africa”

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Abstract

This thesis seeks to analyze the opportunities that migration within and between sub-Saharan African countries can offer as a complement to development frameworks and ways in which it can have a positive impact on the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and human development. The thesis applies the capability approach developed by Amartya Sen and Martha Nussbaum to assess the development potential of South-South migration. According to this approach, human capability is the substantive freedom of people to lead the lives they have reason to value, and to enhance the real choices they have. Hence, from a capabilities perspective, this thesis argues that human mobility is in itself a substantial freedom and has the potential to expand other human capabilities. However, the degree to which it can do so depends to a large extent on the policy and legal environment. In that context, the thesis analyzes the main drivers of South-South migration, its impacts and the implication of migration policies in Sub-Saharan Africa in shaping an environment in which its developmental potential can be maximized.

The thesis reveals that the South-South migration has significant impacts on development in both countries of origin and destination. However, in many cases it entails trade-offs as gains in some dimensions of human development can be accompanied by losses in other dimensions. But the thesis showed that these losses can be offset by migration friendly development policies. Migration friendly development policies are considered to be the kind of policies that contribute to help migrants to become agent of development and promote their social, financial, human and cultural capital accumulated during the migration process for the interest of their own and communities. The thesis showed that the African Union’s Migration Policy Framework for Africa constitutes an example of migration friendly development policies that can minimize the negative impacts of South-South migration and maximize its development potential.

Key words: Human Development and Capability Approach, South-South Migration, Millennium Development Goals, Migration Policy Framework for Africa
Glossary

Asylum seekers: Persons seeking to be admitted into a country as refugees and awaiting decision on their application for refugee status under relevant international and national instruments.

Brain drain: Emigration of trained and talented individuals from the country of origin to a third country, due to causes such as conflict or lack of opportunities.

Brain gain: Immigration of trained and talented individuals from a third country into the receiving country. Also called reverse brain drain.

Child labour: Any work performed by a child which is detrimental to his/her health, education, physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development.

diaspora: Refers to any people or ethnic population that leave their traditional ethnic homeland, being dispersed throughout other parts of the world.

Emigration: The act of departing or exiting from one State with a view to settle in another. International human rights norms provide that all persons should be free to leave any country, including their own, and that only in very limited circumstances may States impose restrictions on the individual’s right to leave its territory.

Forced migration General term used to describe a migratory movement in which an element of coercion exists, including threats to life and livelihood, whether arising from natural or man-made causes (e.g. movements of refugees and internally displaced persons as well as people displaced by natural or environmental disasters, chemical or nuclear disasters, famine, or development projects).

Integration: the process by which immigrants become accepted into society, both as individuals and as groups. The particular requirements for acceptance by a receiving society vary greatly from country to country; and the responsibility for integration rests not with one particular group, but rather with many actors: immigrants themselves, the host government, institutions, and communities.

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2 International migration Law, Glossary on Migration, IOM, Geneva
**Internal migration:** A movement of people from one area of a country to another for the purpose or with the effect of establishing a new residence. This migration may be temporary or permanent. Internal migrants move but remain within their country of origin (e.g. rural to urban migration).

**Internally displaced persons (IDPs):** Persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border.

**International migration:** Movement of persons who leave their country of origin, or the country of habitual residence, to establish themselves either permanently or temporarily in another country. An international frontier is therefore crossed.

**Irregular migrant:** Someone who, owing to illegal entry or the expiry of his or her visa, lacks legal status in a transit or host country. The term applies to migrants who infringe a country’s admission rules and any other person not authorized to remain in the host country (also called clandestine/illegal/undocumented migrant or migrant in an irregular situation).

**Irregular migration:** Movement that takes place outside the regulatory norms of the sending, transit and receiving countries. There is no clear or universally accepted definition of irregular migration. From the perspective of destination countries it is illegal entry, stay or work in a country, meaning that the migrant does not have the necessary authorization or documents required under immigration regulations to enter, reside or work in a given country. From the perspective of the sending country, the irregularity is for example seen in cases

**Labour migration:** Movement of persons from their home State to another State for the purpose of employment. Labour migration is addressed by most States in their migration laws. In addition, some States take an active role in regulating outward labour migration and seeking opportunities for their nationals abroad.

**Refugee (recognized):** A person, who “owing to well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinions, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country”

**Remittances:** monies earned or acquired by non-nationals that are transferred back to their country of origin.
**Trafficking in persons**: The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation

**Xenophobia**: At the international level, no universally accepted definition of xenophobia exists, though it can be described as attitudes, prejudices and behaviour that reject, exclude and often vilify persons, based on the perception that they are outsiders or foreigners to the community, society or national identity. There is a close link between racism and xenophobia, two terms that are hard to differentiate from each other.
Acronyms

ACP African Caribbean and Pacific
AU African Union
COMESA Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
DRC Democratic Republic of Congo
DRC-Sussex Development Research Centre at Sussex University
EAC Eastern African Community
ECOWAS Economic Community of West African States
EU European Union
FDI Foreign Direct Investment
MDGs Millennium Development Goals
MPFA Migration Policy Framework for Africa
GDP Gross Domestic Product
HDI Human Development Index
HDR Human Development Report
IDP Internally Displaced People
IOM International Organisation for Migration
OECD Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
MDG Millennium Development Goal
PRSP Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
SADC Southern African Development Community
SAMP South Africa Migration Project
SSA Sub-Saharan Africa
TICAD Tokyo International Conference on African Development
UN United Nations
UNDESA United Nations Department for Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP United Nations Development Program
UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNHCR United Nations High Commission for Refugees
UN PD United Nations Population Division
USD United States Dollar
Introduction

The human development concept emerged in the 1980s as a leading approach among those seeking an alternative to economic growth and per capita income as a measure of human well-being. Since 1990, it has been promoted by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), more specifically through its annual Human Development Report. According to this concept, the development is “a process of enlarging people's choices” and it aims to “enhance people’s capabilities” (UNDP, 1990:10). The emphasis on capabilities can be traced back to the work of the Nobel Prize-winning economist Amartya Sen on the capabilities approach. The fundamental idea in the capabilities approach is that “social arrangements should be evaluated according to the extent of freedom people have to promote or achieve functionings they value” (Alkire, 2005: 122). According to Sen, functionings are “the various things a person may value doing or being” and capability refers to the freedom to enjoy various functionings or to lead one type of life or another (Sen, 1992:40; 1999:75). Central to the capability approach is also the concept of agency. For Sen, agency refers to the ability to pursue goals that one values and has reason to value (Alkire and Deneulin, 2009). Following the above and considering the diversity of mankind, what people would like to be and do is unlimited and may vary from one society to another. Hence, given that the aim of development is to expand people capabilities, one may wonder which are the capabilities development and public policies should contribute to expand? An answer to this question was provided by the American philosopher Martha Nussbaum by providing a list of key combined capabilities based on the assumption that as human beings recognize themselves as human, “there should be an essentialist basis for any view about what constitutes human life and what deprives it of its full human character” (Alkire and Deneulin, 2009:44). The list mentioned, among other things, the freedom to move from one place to another or human mobility. Hence, from a capabilities perspective, mobility constitutes a key element of human freedom and one of the key valuable choices of people. In this thesis, we refer to human mobility as the ability of individuals, families or groups of people to choose their place of residence, and human movement or migration as the act of changing one’s place of residence (UNDP, 2009:15).
According to United Nations’ estimates for 2010, international migration involved approximately 3.1 percent of the world’s population and in absolute terms about 214 million of people, of which 49 per cent are women. With almost 32.6 per cent of the world’s stock of international migrants, Europe is the main destination of international migrants followed by Asia (28.6%), North America (23.4%), Africa (9%), Oceania (2.8%) and Latin America and the Caribbean (2.4%; UNPD, 2009). These movements do not concern one specific area but all regions and continents. Moreover, migration can take place in different sets of circumstances and in contexts reflecting the diversity of those who are involved. Yet, when reviewing the growing body of literature on migration issues, two striking points emerge. On the one hand, migration issues are often related to national security and strategic interests of hosting countries, making migration one of the most politicized subjects. However, new trends have recently emerged, linking migration to development. On the other hand, research on migration issues has mainly focused on human movements from developing countries towards developed countries (South-North migration), yet migration from developing countries towards other developing countries is also important. Indeed, available data reveals that in 2010, around 128 million international migrants (or 60% of international migrant stocks) were living in developed countries (UN, 2010), of which 74 million (or 60.9%) were from developing countries. International migrants from developing countries moving to other developing countries were estimated at 73 million (ibid). These figures suggest that South-South migration is almost as important as South-North. Yet, they do not take into account movement within countries. According to the UNDP, internal migration has involved around 740 million persons worldwide in 2009 (UNDP, 2009). South-South migration is particularly important in sub-Saharan Africa, where almost 7 out of 10 people who have moved abroad were estimated to live in other sub-Saharan African countries in 2005 (Migration DRC, 2007). However, South-South migration faces severe data gaps. Recently, several researchers and institutions are managing to fill those gaps by conducting more research in view of better understanding its potential for furthering other dimensions of human development. The African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) Observatory on migration has been created for that purpose.

3 The African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) Observatory on Migration is an initiative of the Secretariat of the ACP Group of States, empowered by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and funded by the European Union with the financial support of Switzerland. Its goal is to establish a network of research institutions and governmental entities dealing with migration in the six regions of the ACP Group of States, namely
Given the number of people involved in migration processes worldwide, it appears that moving from one place to another is one of the options people value for achieving their life plan and to improve the quality of their life. This, however, is not a new phenomenon. By defining primary goods as things that any rational person would want no matter what his plan of life or orientation could be and including the freedom to move from one place to another among socials goods, Rawls (1971; 2001) acknowledged the importance of human mobility in human life. In addition, Nussbaum (2000) mentioned the freedom of movement in her list of combined capabilities arguing that a deprivation of those capabilities (including the freedom of movement) may deprive human life of its full human character (Nussbaum, 2000; Alkire and Deneulin, 2009:44). In addition, the UNDP, in its 2009 Human Development Report devoted to human mobility, made the following statement (2009:14-16): “…before we start asking whether the freedom to move has significant effects on incomes, education or health, for example, we recognize that movement is one of the basic actions that individuals can choose to take in order to realize their life plans. In other words, the ability to move is a dimension of freedom that is part of development—with intrinsic as well as potential instrumental value....” Moreover, freedom to move is one of the basic human rights that every human being is entitled to and which is recognized in the 1949 Universal Declaration on Human Rights and the International covenant on civil and political rights (ICCR) as “freedom of movement”.

Furthermore, in 2000, world leaders have committed altogether to set eight objectives known as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to be achieved by 2015. The Goals include eradicating extreme poverty and hunger, ensuring universal primary education, promoting gender equality and empowering women, reducing child mortality, improving maternal health, fighting HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, ensuring environmental sustainability

West Africa, Central Africa, East Africa, Southern Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific. Activities will start in 12 pilot countries (Angola, Cameroon, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Haiti, Kenya, Lesotho, Nigeria, Papua New Guinea, Senegal, Tanzania, Timor-Leste and Trinidad and Tobago) but it is foreseen that other countries will join the process. [http://www.acpmigration-org.org](http://www.acpmigration-org.org)

1 United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948, Article 13: 1. Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each state; 2. Everyone has the right to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country; United Nations (UN); International covenant on civil and political rights, Article12: 1. Everyone lawfully within the territory of a State shall, within that territory, have the right to liberty of movement and freedom to choose his residence. 2. Everyone shall be free to leave any country, including his own. 3. The above-mentioned rights shall not be subject to any restrictions except those which are provided by law, are necessary to protect national security, public order (ordre public), public health or morals or the rights and freedoms of others, and are consistent with the other rights recognized in the present Covenant. 4. No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of the right to enter his own country.
and developing a global partnership for development. Moreover, in its 2003 *Human Development Report* (HDR), the UNDP established a relationship between the Goals and key human capabilities along with essential conditions for human development. The key capabilities identified by UNDP included living a long and healthy life, being educated, having a decent standard of living, enjoying political and civil freedoms to participate in the life of one’s community, and essential conditions for human development referring to environmental sustainability, equity (especially gender equity) and enabling global economic environment. However, unlike the MDGs framework, the human development and the capabilities approach recommends looking beyond the key capabilities mentioned above. In fact, human development also concerns human rights, human dignity, social aspects of life, participation and other combined capabilities highlighted in Nussbaum’s list which are not captured by the MDGs. Yet, the MDGs framework provide specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time-bound indicators that can be used to assess the deprivation and wellbeing of people in some dimensions of human development. Hence, progress accomplished toward achieving these Goals will certainly improve people’s capabilities in some dimensions of human development but not all; likewise, when public policies and development programmes contribute to create an environment in which people can enhance their capabilities; this is likely to have positive impact in the achievement of the Goals. The Goals are essential and need to be supported by people as they contribute to create an environment in which they may enhance some of their capabilities. Regarding the Sub-Saharan African context, the *MDG Report* (2010) reveals that overall, sub-Saharan African countries have made significant progress towards achieving almost all the MDGs despite adverse shocks such as fuel, food, financial and economic crises. But, the progress is unevenly distributed across the region and within countries. However, with four years remaining to the MDGs deadline, sub-Saharan African countries are likely to guarantee only equal access to primary school for girls and boys if the current trends in supporting the progress continue. Whereas for almost all remaining goals, they may face serious challenges to achieve them by 2015 if the current trends persist or no other initiatives to boost the progress are undertaken. Furthermore, the situation has worsened in some areas such as targets related to health and employment.
The purpose of this thesis is to analyze the potential of South-South migration or migration within and between sub-Saharan African countries for human development and the extent to which it can foster the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) both in sending and receiving countries. In view of the above aims, the thesis is posing the following questions: To what extent can migration within and between Sub-Saharan African countries contribute to human development in both sending and receiving countries and foster the realization of the MDGs?

This thesis argues that South-South migration is one of the basic actions that sub-Saharan Africans choose to take in order to realize their life plans and it has the potential for expanding other dimensions of human development of sub-Saharan-Africans while fostering the achievement of MDGs both in sending and destination countries. However, the extent to which it can do so, depend to a large extent on the policy and legal environment.

In terms of methodology, the thesis is a qualitative study based on a review of literature on migration issues and analysis of African Regional Economic Communities’ migration policies as well as available data related to migration issues. The capabilities approach is applied with a view to analyze the development potential of South-South migration. In this thesis, we understand mobility as a positive freedom.

Most of the data used in this thesis are those provided by international agencies such as the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the World Bank, the Population Division of the United Nations (UN DP), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and other international research institutions such as the Centre on Migration, Globalization and Poverty (Migration DRC). Data provided by these institutions are mostly based on information shared by national institutions, yet in some cases are estimates.

This thesis is divided into three chapters. The first chapter introduces the concept of human development and its links with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as well as international migration. It further provides some channels through which migration can affect human development and the achievement of the MDGs.
The second chapter is divided into three sections. The first section provides an overview of progress made by sub-Saharan African countries towards human development and the achievement of the MDGs as well as the challenges they face based on the 2010 *Human Development Report* and *MDG Report*. The second section presents the main drivers of South-South migration in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) while the last section discusses the development potential of these types of human movement. The final chapter outlines the main initiatives undertaken by Regional Economic Communities in sub-Saharan Africa in order to enhance the development potential of South-South migration and freedom of movement.
Chapter 1:

International migration and human development

The aim of this chapter is to introduce the concept of human development and its links with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as well as international migration. It is divided into three sections. The first section focuses on the introduction of the human development concept and the capability approach; the second section examines the links between human development and MDGs while the last one provides some channels through which migration can affect human development and the achievement of the MDGs.

1.1 The Human Development and Capability Approach

The human development approach emerged in the 1980s as a leading approach among those seeking an alternative to economic growth and per capita income as a measure of human well-being. Over time, experience in several countries has shown that high economic growth can be accompanied by an increase in social ills such as inequalities, poverty, insecurity and other factors including environmental degradation (UNDP, 1998). It became clear that human well-being depended not only on income but also on other factors. Moreover, a focus on economic growth and per capita income could not offer a reliable picture of the welfare of nations and human standard of living. It was therefore necessary to develop other indicators that would better capture the complexity of human well-being. In this context, Dr. Mahbub ul Haq and Amartya Sen along with the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) developed the concept of human development and the Human Development Index (HDI), which captures not only income but also other key dimensions of human life such as life expectancy and literacy. In its first Human Development Report, UNDP defines human development as “a process of enlarging people's choices” (UNDP, 1990:10). Regarding the purpose of development policy, it indicates that development policies should aim to “enhance people’s capabilities” and this process should not take place at a specific moment but all the time and in all areas of human life whether social, economic, political or cultural (ibid; Alkire and
Deneulin, 2009). Following the definitions provided above, income is one of the means leading to development but not the end of the process. Moreover, it is clear that unlike economic development, human development focuses on people not only as a means, but also as the end of the development process (UNDP, 2009). In addition, it is highlighted that human development touches upon a wide range of issues that may directly or indirectly affect one’s well-being including economic growth, social investment, human rights, empowerment, social safety nets, political and cultural freedom, international trade, savings, technology and other aspects of people's lives (Alkire and Deneulin, 2009). In other words, human development aims to create an environment in “which people can develop their full potential and lead productive, creative lives in accord with their needs and interests.”5

The emphasis on capabilities can be traced back to the work of the Nobel Prize-winning economist Amartya Sen on the capability approach, which constitutes the philosophical foundation of the concept of human development. To better understand this approach, the following part briefly introduces the general framework that led to its elaboration.

Since the eighteenth century, several scholars have sought to define the concept of human well-being. In this regard, Jeremy Bentham (1781) indicated that human beings were governed by two factors, namely pain and pleasure, important in assessing human wellbeing. For him, well-being that results from an action is measured by utility (Bentham, 1781: 14). In his theory, utility is an abstract term that reflects the ability or the tendency of an action to “augment or diminish the happiness of the party whose interest is in question or to promote or oppose that happiness” (ibid). According to this approach, an individual seeks primarily to maximize the total sum of what can promote happiness. He further underlined that “a thing is said to promote the interest, or to be for the interest of an individual, when it tends to add to the total sum of his pleasures or to diminish the total sum of his pains” (ibid). Over time, this concept of the pursuit of happiness was adopted by several scholars as one of the basic ethical doctrine of utilitarianism; a doctrine according to which a fair society is considered to be the one in which people are happy (Reboud, 2008). In other words, what is right and good is

judged only by their ability to provide pleasure or happiness (ibid). In this context, the purpose of a development policy should be to maximize people’s happiness.

This way of evaluating human well-being in terms of “happiness” has been criticized by several scholars in part because of its restrictive view of human well-being. In fact, an emphasis on psychological happiness ignored the fact that an individual can value certain activities which, while not providing a direct psychological happiness or requiring some efforts from him, may be useful for the society. Such activities may include, for instance, dedication to serving the poor and other social activities (ibid). In addition, a focus on happiness may be misleading and overlook significant deprivations (Alkire and Deneulin, 2009). For example, according to the criterion of utility, a disabled person who is happy, enthusiastic and satisfied despite his/her disability would be considered as someone enjoying a satisfactory level of utility; as a result, he/she will not benefit from any assistance that his/her disability may require (Reboud, 2008; Alkire and Deneulin, 2009).

The limitations of the utilitarian theory have led to its adaptation to welfare economics. According to Pigou, Welfare economics is “that part of social welfare that can be brought directly or indirectly into relation with measuring-rod of money” (Pigou cited by Sen, 1984:288). Associated with welfare economics, utility was defined as “the satisfaction of the individual desires and preferences” (Sen, 1984:288). Among the critics of this theory, Martha Nussbaum points out that preferences may be distorted by a variety of factors, including lack of correct information (Nussbaum, 1997). In addition, Hayek (1960) indicates that a society cannot be considered to be fair only because those who compose it are happy, they should also be free. He further underlines that “what a free society offers to the individual is much more than what he would be able to do if only he were free” (Hayek, 1960: m). Therefore, aspects related to human rights should be taken into account in the evaluation of human well-being, regardless of the value assigned to them (Reboud, 2008). With respect to interpersonal comparison, John Rawls has suggested an evaluation of human wellbeing in terms of primary goods (Rawls, 1971; 2001). For Rawls, primary goods are things that any rational person would want no matter what his plan of life or orientation could be (Rawls 1971, 2001). They can be divided into natural primary goods and social primary goods. The former is composed
of health, vigor, intelligence and imagination and the latter includes basic freedoms like freedom of thought and expression, freedom of movement, wealth, opportunities, the right to participate in political decision making, and self-respect (ibid). According to Rawls, interpersonal comparisons should be based on the distribution of primary social goods.

He called for equal distribution of social goods by stressing that the inequitable distribution of all or part of these goods should be based only on the benefit of the least advantaged (Rawls, 1971). For Sen, however, Rawls’ proposal of equality of primary goods is insufficient insofar as it does not take into account the diversity and heterogeneity of mankind. He indicates for example that in order to achieve a given level of welfare a disabled person may require more primary goods than other people (Alkire and Deneulin, 2009). For him, equality should be sought not in space of social primary goods but rather in the space of capabilities (Sen, 1979). Sen identifies five vital factors that are often overlooked when we focus on income and resources instead of capabilities. They include personal heterogeneities, environmental diversities, institutional variations, differences in relational perspectives and distribution within the family (Sen, 1999). Hence, in order to evaluate people’s well-being, more information related on other aspects of their lives (such as health, education, nutritional status, dignity and autonomy) are required (Alkire and Deneulin, 2009). Considering the shortcomings of utilitarianism and of Rawls’ conceptions of human well-being outlined above, Sen proposed a new framework for the evaluation of quality of human life known as the capability approach. The fundamental idea in this approach is that “social arrangements should be evaluated according to the extent of freedom people have to promote or achieve functionings they value” (Alkire, 2005: 122). Three concepts are central in the capability approach: functioning, capability and agency.

According to Sen, functionings are “the various things a person may value doing or being” (Sen, 1999:75). In other words, they are valuable activities and states that make up people’s well-being, such as being healthy and well-nourished, being safe, being educated and having a good job (ibid). Capability refers to the freedom to enjoy various functionings or to lead one type of life or another. It can also be considered as “the various combinations of functionings (beings and doings) that the person can achieve” (Sen, 1992:40). In other words, capabilities are “the substantive freedoms [a person] enjoys to lead the kind of life he or she has reason to
value” (Sen, 1999: 87). Sen considers freedom in its positive sense in opposition to negative freedom. Negative freedom refers to a lack of interference or external force that may deliberately force or prevent someone to act in a certain way (Berlin, 1969). If such a force exists, it will reduce one’s negative freedom. Positive freedom, on the other hand, refers to the ability to achieve potential and make one's own choices. It often involves actions and can be reduced by one’s own capability in addition to external factors (ibid). Another key concept in the capability approach is agency. Agency refers to the ability to pursue goals that one values and has reason to value (Alkire and Deneulin, 2009). An agent is “someone who acts and brings about change.” (Sen, 1999:19).

In sum, from a capability and human development perspective, the purpose of development is to expand what people are able to do and be, or to expand their real freedoms (Sen, 1999:3). However, what people can be and do is unlimited and may vary from one society to another. What are then the key capabilities that development policies should expand? An answer to this question was provided by the American philosopher Martha Nussbaum. First, she distinguished three kinds of capabilities namely basic, internal, and combined capabilities. For Nussbaum, basic capabilities are “the innate equipment of individuals that is the necessary basis for developing the more advanced capabilities and a ground of moral concern” (Nussbaum, 2000: 84). For example, the capability for seeing and hearing and the capability for speech, language, love, gratitude, practical reason, work. Internal capabilities are “developed states of the person herself that are, so far as the person herself is concerned, sufficient conditions for the exercise of requisite functions…mature conditions of readiness” for example bodily maturity, capability for sexual functioning, religious freedom, freedom of speech and combined capabilities refer to “internal capabilities combined with suitable external conditions for the exercise of the function” (Alkire and Deneulin, 2009).

Assuming that all human beings recognize themselves as human, she argues that there should be an essentialist basis for any view about what constitutes human life and what deprives it of its full human character ( Alkire and Deneulin, 2009:44). Based on this, she suggested a list of what can constitute a threshold level of capabilities necessary for the achievement of a decent standard of living. The list include (Nussbaum, 2000: 78–80; Rise, 2009): to live a life of normal length; bodily health (which includes being adequately sheltered and nourished);
bodily integrity (including, the freedom to move freely from place to place as well as freedom from assault); the use of senses, imagination, and thought; being able to have emotional attachments to things outside of oneself; to exercise practical reason (for instance, to reflect on one’s life); to be able to associate with others in a way that involves the showing of concern for other and having the social basis of self-respect and non-humiliation; being able to live with concern for other species; being able to play; having some control over one’s political and material environment. The list provided some key capabilities that public and development policies should enhance, including the freedom to move from one place to another, which is central in this thesis.

1.2 Relationship between human development and MDGs

The Millennium Development Goals refer to eight Goals to be achieved by 2015, adopted by world leaders at the 2000 United Nations Summit. They include eradicating extreme poverty and hunger, ensuring universal primary education, promoting gender equality and empowering women, reducing child mortality, improving maternal health, fighting HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, ensuring environmental sustainability and developing a global partnership for development.

The MDGs have been established taking into account certain fundamental values such as freedom, human dignity, peace, human rights, tolerance, solidarity, respect for nature and the share of responsibility regarding the challenges the world community is requested to face whether social or economic (UN, 2000: 2). The MDGs provide clear objectives with SMART indicators. However, from a capabilities perspective, the MDGs are incomplete. For example, the United Nations Development Programme (2003) noted that MDGs do not focus on concepts of substantial freedom that are essential for development. Nor do they underline people as agents (UNDP, 2003). Moreover, when we think of development as a process leading to the creation of an environment in which people can develop their full potential and enjoy long, healthy and creative lives; in this case, it can be assumed that the Millennium Development Goals framework provides a restrictive view of development (UNDP, 2003).

---

6 SMART: Specific-Measurable-Achievable-Relevant-Time-bound
However, it is possible to establish a relationship between some key capabilities and the Goals. This exercise was done in the 2003 Report of the United Nations Development Program that focused on the MDGs (see table 1.1).

### Table 1.1 Human development goals and Millennium Development Goals
(Source: UNDP, 2003: 28)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key capabilities for human development</th>
<th>Corresponding Millennium Development Goals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Living a long and healthy life</td>
<td>Goals 4, 5 and 6: reducing child mortality, improving maternal health and combating major diseases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being educated</td>
<td>Goals 2 and 3: achieving universal primary education, promoting gender equality (especially in education) and empowering women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a decent standard of living</td>
<td>Goal 1: reducing poverty and hunger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoying political and civil freedoms to participate in the life of one’s community</td>
<td>Not a Goal but an important global objective included in the Millennium Declaration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essential conditions for human development</td>
<td>Corresponding Millennium Development Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental sustainability</td>
<td>Goal 7: ensuring environmental Sustainability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity (especially gender equity)</td>
<td>Goal 3: promoting gender equality and empowering women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enabling global economic environment</td>
<td>Goal 8: strengthening partnership between rich and poor countries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 1.1, it can be assumed that progress accomplished toward achieving each of these Goals will certainly improve people’s capabilities related to the respective Goals; likewise, when public policies and development programmes contribute to create an environment in which people can enhance their capabilities, such policies and programmes
are likely to have positive impact in the achievement of the Goals related to the capabilities enhanced. Conversely, a State that fails to achieve some MDGs may also fail to enhance people’s capabilities related to respective Goals. Hence, impacts of South-South migration on human capabilities may affect the MDGs as well.

Following the above assumptions, we analyse in the next section the potential channels through which migration can affect both human development and the MDGs.

1.3. Development potential of migration

1.3.1 Living a long and healthy life

Living a long and healthy life refers to MDGs 4, 5 and 6 on reducing child mortality, improving maternal health and combating major diseases.

Available studies on migration issues suggest that migration can affect this dimension of human development both positively and negatively (UNDP, 2009; Chappell et al, 2010). Positive impacts are associated to new attitudes and behaviour that migrants may acquire regarding health issues during their stay abroad and may share with their family and relatives while back in their home countries. However, positive impacts may be related to the country of destination and the global context in which the migrant organise his/her life in hosting areas. Assuming that the migrant resides in a country or region in which he/she has a better access to education, clean water, electricity, health services and enjoy a good standard of living, the human development outcomes of his/her movement will be positive and may have positive impacts on maternal health and reduction of child mortality as well as other diseases (Waddington and Black, 2005; Martin, 2009).

Another avenue through which migration can affect health is through remittances sent by migrants living abroad to their relatives in the country of origin or from urban to rural areas. Evidence suggests that a significant proportion of remittances are spent in food, health and household-related expenses which can in long term have positive impacts on dimensions of
human development and MDGs (Chappell et al, 2010). However, in many cases, sending back remittances may require hard work and sacrifices from the migrant. As a result, his/her health status may be damaged.

Negative impacts of migration on this dimension of human life are often associated to the risk of spreading diseases such as HIV/AIDS. This may happen when migration takes place in conditions reflecting restricted freedoms and high vulnerability as well as when migrants meet language barriers (UNDP, 2009).

Another point that emerges in the literature in relation to this dimension of human life is related to emigration of health care professionals. In fact, several health care professionals from developing countries have left their home countries to seek better opportunities abroad, while creating skill shortages in their respective sectors in their homeland (Clemens and Petterson, 2006). As a result, the capacities of health sectors in countries of origin were weakened, leading to increased child mortality and other negative human development outcomes. Furthermore, evidence suggests that high flow of internal migrants from rural to urban areas can add additional pressure to available services in urban areas (UN-Habitat, 2003). Some researchers argue that when these movements are not managed by relevant policies, they may worsen human development outcomes, not only for migrants themselves but also for local population as their presence may expand informal settlements with no access to water or electricity (UNDP, 2009).

1.3.2 Being educated

Being educated refers to MDGs 2 and 3 on achieving universal primary education, promoting gender equality (especially in education) and empowering women.

Positive impacts of migration are associated to remittances sent by migrants but also to the contribution of diasporas to their countries of origin. In many countries, their respective diasporas have built schools, provided equipment, scholarship and have led diverse initiatives aiming to give more incentives to teachers and pupils (IOM, 2009). More incentive to pupils will in turn contribute to their withdrawal from illegal activities and worse forms of child labour. This kind of actions contribute to reduce school drop-out rates, and increase access to
education, especially in countries in which public authorities have failed to promote people’s capabilities, in particular those related to education (UNDP, 2009).

International and internal migration for educational purposes is also an important phenomenon (UNESCO, UNDP, 2009). Migration for educational purposes allows migrants to benefit from a better level of education. However, countries of origin often complain as most of their students who have gone to study abroad have not returned. This is also the case of several teachers and other skilled workers who have emigrated while creating losses of skilled people for countries of origin and affecting their abilities to achieve some MDGs, especially those related to education (Batista et al 2007; Chappell et al, 2010). However, some studies have shown that migration of skilled professionals could be beneficial for both countries of origin and destination. With respect to the country of origin, in particular low income countries, it is argued that if the proportion of their skilled emigrants range from 10 to 20 per cent of those remaining in the country of origin, then the effects of brain drain may be beneficial through incentive effects that result from the emigration of skilled people (Docquier, 2006; Chappell et al, 2010). However, if that proportion exceeds 30 per cent, then the brain drain effects may be harmful for the country of origin (ibid).

In the case of irregular migration, such as overstaying visas, migrants’ children may not be allowed to attend public schools out of fear to being caught without documents. The only solution for parents will be the one they cannot afford, which is private education. In this context, children may be prevented from enjoying one of their basic rights related to education.

1.3.3. Having a decent standard of living

Having a decent standard of living refers to Goal 1: reducing poverty and hunger. From a capabilities perspective, poverty is multidimensional; it refers not only to a lack of income but to deprivations in terms of capabilities. However, given that we have already analysed the potential impacts of migration on other capabilities earlier and we expect to do so later, we will focus here on income dimension and other economic impacts.
Remittances sent by migrants are reported to have significant impacts on poverty reduction while contributing to expand other key capabilities. In fact, a study based on an analysis of migrants’ remittances in 71 countries has revealed (after controlling the possible endogeneity of international remittances) that on average, a 10 per cent increase in per capita remittances led to a 3.5 per cent decline in the proportion of people living on less than USD 1 per person per day (Adam and Page, 2005; Adenutsi, 2010). According to the World Bank (2010), in 2010, remittances flows to developing countries were estimated at USD 325 billion.

Overall, the impacts of remittances on human development and MDGs are complex to capture and vary according to the context of analysis (micro, meso, macro levels) and to the global context in the recipient country, including public policies. At macro level the inflow of international remittances can stimulate economic activities by increasing the level of aggregate expenditure whether in form of higher household expenditure on consumer goods or increased expenditure on investment and services goods (Adenutsi, 2010). This will in turn contribute to increase the real disposable income of a country and would more likely raise the demand for foreign goods and promote social welfare given the absence of adverse shocks (ibid). At micro level, remittances contribute to increase disposable income of households, giving them more opportunities to achieve key functionings and improve their freedoms. Social impacts of remittances are discussed later in this chapter.

1.3.4. Enjoying political and civil freedoms to participate in community life

The human development impacts of migration on these dimensions are closely related to push factors of migration and also to living conditions in host countries. We will analyse push and pull factors of migration in sub-Saharan African context in the next chapter. However, available studies reveal that in many cases migrants have experienced positive human development outcomes in these areas when public policies in the host countries or in host areas were favourable to the expansion of their capabilities (UNDP, 2009). Moving from a country in which basic human rights are not respected to a free one will entail a lot of benefits to the migrant. This point was also highlighted by Hayek (1960) when he mentioned that “what a free society offers to the individual is much more than what he would be able to do if only he were free” (Hayek, 1960: m). However, in some countries, irregular migrants live in
peri-urban areas, far from the city in order to escape police controls. Moreover, some studies reveal that migrants claimed that in some areas, local populations often see them not as human beings but rather in ways that reflect their capability deprivations (CISP, 2007). In such a case, migrants may experiment worse human development outcomes than if they had not decided to move. Lack of accurate information regarding living conditions in host countries may lead to these results. This underlines the necessity of access to reliable information in the decision making process.

It is also reported in the literature that when women move out from communities that have restricted view of their role to places where substantial freedoms are promoted, the human development outcomes of their movements are likely to be positive (Hugo, 2000; UNDP, 2009). For instance, migrant women may join social organizations in host countries that may contribute to empower other women in their community of origin.

1.3.5. Environmental sustainability

Environmental sustainability refers to Goal 7: ensure environmental sustainability. Migration can affect the environment in several ways. Positive impacts of migration on the environment are often associated with the eco-friendly attitude a migrant may acquire abroad and share with friends and relatives in the country of origin (UNDP, 2009). However, migration can also bring significant strain on environmental resources. Yet, migration can also be caused by the negative effects of climate change and global warming. As migrants loose their livelihood assets due to environmental degradation, migration is often used as a livelihood strategy and a means of survival rather than an option (GMG, 2010).

In addition, in regions undergoing strong environmental pressure due to high population density, migration helps reduce pressures on available resources (ibid). However, several scenarios show that migration can also have adverse effects on environmental resources in destination areas, especially when it involves mass movements of people, for example in the case of forced migration (ibid).
1.3.6. Equity, especially gender equity

Equity, especially gender equity refers to Goal 3: promoting gender equality and empowering women.

In the previous paragraphs we have shown that migration can have positive impacts in achieving gender equality and can contribute to empower women. We have indicated that some societies have a restricted view of roles of women in the community and researchers argue that moving out from such communities may contribute to empower women (Hugo, 2000; UNDP, 2009). In addition, some studies reveal that more and more female migrants contribute to the development in their countries of origin and migration allows them to create networks that may be useful for further activities contributing to empower other women in the country of origin (Martin, 2007). Furthermore, migration can allow women to access paid employment helping them to contribute financially to family expenses and children’s education. Recent research suggests that in some countries, female migrants remit more than men (UNDP, 2009).

However, in the context of irregular migration, migration may have negative human development outcomes for women not only in the area gender equality but also in other dimensions, as they may be obliged to rely on men for their own security. In fact, in some societies it is inappropriate for a woman to rent a house alone as it may be assumed that she is a prostitute. In such a case, she may feel obliged to be with someone even if this was not among the choices she initially valued.

1.3.7. Enabling global economic environment

Enabling global economic environment refers to Goal 8: strengthening partnership between rich and poor countries.

In the context of globalization, migration plays an important role. In fact, movement of people from one area to another creates opportunities for trade, for cooperation and contributes to the creation of networks. It also fosters international cooperation through bilateral or regional
agreements that may contribute to enhance people’s capabilities and improve the human development outcomes of migration.

1.3. 8. Human Rights

Human development also touches upon all the issues related to human rights. Human development outcomes of migration at this level are closely related to push factors and conditions under which migrants leave their countries as well as public policies in host countries (UNDP, 2009; IOM, 2009b). In fact, migration may allow people to flee oppression but if public policies in host countries do not promote their freedoms, they may witness losses in some dimensions of human development. This occurs when migrants are excluded from the societies, are victims of xenophobia and particularly when their basic rights are abused (ibid).

1.3.9. Other impacts

Migration contributes to create an environment in which people from different cultures, societies and educational backgrounds can meet and know each other. This can contribute positively to build peace and to promote tolerance.

However, migration implies moving from one place to another, thus entailing separations. Migrants move away from their families, friends and other relatives. Duration of separation may range from one month to many years. It is reported that long separation may entail psychological problems to those who have moved as well as those who remain in the country of origin (wife, children and parents; UNDP, 2009). In addition, some researchers argue that migration may lead to divorce (ibid). With respect to education of children, it is reported that the absence of one parent may have negative impacts on their education and school attainment (ibid).

Regarding remittances, some researchers argue that they can create laziness and dependency (Gallina, 2008). They further argue that remittance recipients can withdraw from the labour market and rely totally to external sources of money (ibid). Social impacts of remittances are
also significant for those who no longer receive them as a result of divorce or death of a remitter.

In this chapter we have introduced the concept of human development, its links with the MDGs and some channels through which migration can affect key dimensions of human development and the achievement of the MDGs. In the next chapter we will analyze in depth the relation between migration and human development as well as MDGs in the context of sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). The analysis will focus on the main drivers of South-South migration in this region, its impacts on both human development and MDGs, and how public policies can affect its overall development outcomes.
Chapter 2:

South-South Migration, Human Development and MDGs in the Context of sub-Saharan Africa

This chapter aims to analyze the potential impacts of South-South migration on human development and MDGs in sub-Saharan Africa. It is divided into four sections. The first and the second sections provide an overview of progress made by sub-Saharan African countries on human development and MDGs, respectively. The third section analyses the general context of migration in Sub-Sahara with a focus on key drivers of human movements while the last section discusses the development potential of South-South migration.

2. 1. Global Context

2.1.1. Human development in sub-Saharan Africa: An Overview

According to the 2010 Human Development Report by UNDP, over the past twenty years the sub-Saharan Africa region has made a lot of progress in enhancing people’s capabilities in many areas but progress varies between countries and there are still a lot of challenges to be faced. Overall, many sub-Saharan African countries have improved their Human Development Index (HDI). The best progresses were registered by Ethiopia, Botswana, Benin and Burkina Faso. Only the Democratic Republic of Congo, Zambia and Zimbabwe have regressed as their HDI level in 1970 was higher than in 2010. Most of sub-Saharan African countries have increased their budget for education, health sector and other areas that have positive impacts on the expansion of people’s capabilities. Positive outcomes include among other things increased primary school enrolment, especially for girls, and reduction of the gender gap in years of education by 26 per cent in some countries. For example, Mozambique made a lot of progress regarding access of girls to primary school. Success in relation to the reduction of gender gap in years of school was not achieved by all countries. For example, in Benin, Central African Republic, Liberia, Niger and Togo women still have fewer than half the years of schooling than men. The Report further reveals that some countries have abolished school
fees, such as Malawi and Uganda. As a result, primary school enrolments in these countries have increased by 97 per cent for Malawi between 1990 and 1995, and by 72 per cent for Uganda between 1995 and 2000. Sub-Saharan African countries also made substantial advances in democracy. Indeed, the Report indicates that in 1970 only 6 per cent of governments in Africa were democratic whereas by 2008 they have increased to 38 per cent. However, in some democratic countries, presidential elections were followed by riots, fraud, intimidation and conflicts such as in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Kenya and more recently in Côte d’Ivoire.

Africa has made a lot of progress regarding civil and political rights. However many people are still abused and women raped. The report further reveals that in many countries in the region people feel that they do not have freedom of speech. Furthermore, in sub-Saharan Africa, homosexuality is considered illegal in many countries with punishments ranging from several years to life imprisonment. In Sudan, Somalia and some regions in Nigeria it is punishable by death.

In some countries within the region, life expectancy has fallen below 1970 levels. These countries include the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Lesotho, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Declines in life expectancy in DRC were largely due to political instability, armed conflicts and their impacts on other dimensions of human development whereas for southern African countries it was mainly caused by the HIV epidemic and high mortality.

Losses in HDI registered by some countries in the region were also due to high inequalities in many dimensions of human development. For example, it is reported that in many countries of the region, there are greater inequalities between women and men regarding access to paid employment and land. In fact, in some countries, such as Uganda, women account for most of agricultural production but own 5 percent of the land. Some countries in the region have passed land reforms that guarantee gender parity in ownership of land. These countries include Namibia, Rwanda and Tanzania. Regarding access to paid employment, the Report indicates that 82 per cent of women of working age work in vulnerable employment.
Regarding gender equality, the Report reveals that Burundi is likely to achieve gender equality while Cameroon, Côte d’Ivoire, Liberia, Central African Republic, Mali, Niger, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Benin, Malawi, and Sierra Leone are far from achieving this objective. The Report underlines that high gender inequalities have offset progress made in other sectors such as in education. Regarding multidimensional poverty, the Report suggests that sub-Saharan Africa hosts around 28 per cent or 458 million of multidimensional poor of the world. Furthermore, the financial, food and oil crises are expected to affect significantly the human development in the region. Consequences of these crises on human development in the region include increased infant mortality rate and malnutrition. More specifically, estimates suggest that at least 30,000 or 50,000 children may die in the continent because of the recent financial crisis (Ferreira and Schady, 2008). In addition, due to lack of income, poor families may take their children out of school. This may contribute to an increased number of street children in the region and child labour (Harper et al, 2009).

Figures 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 below provide the top ten, the bottom ten countries in sub-Saharan Africa with respect to the HDI and the top ten regarding violations of human rights respectively.

**Figure 2.1: The top 10 Saharan African countries (HDI 2010)**

*Source: UNDP (2010)*
Figure 2.2: The bottom 10 Saharan African countries (HDI 2010)
Source: UNDP (2010)

Figure 2.3: Level of human rights violations in selected countries of sub-Saharan Africa
Score (1-5), 1 is the fewest (2008)
Source: UNDP (2010)
The figures above suggest that Gabon, Botswana and Namibia are among countries that have done well in areas of human development while Niger, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and Zimbabwe are far behind. Regarding violations of human rights, the DRC, Chad and Sudan appear to be among countries in which people’s freedoms are not enhanced.

2.1.2. MDGs in Sub-Saharan Africa: An Overview

Overall, sub-Saharan African countries have made significant progress towards achieving almost all the MDGs despite adverse shocks such as fuel, food, financial and economic crises. This progress is unevenly distributed across the region and within countries. Nevertheless, good achievements have been possible thanks to strong commitment of some African leaders to achieve the MDGs and to sound macro-economic measures adopted in order to offset negative impacts of financial crisis, as well as support by the international community. Progress has been identified in areas such as reduction in the proportion of undernourished people, improvement in universal primary education, gender equality and empowerment. With respect to health goals some progress has been made in reducing tuberculosis but malaria and HIV remain the main threats for young people and adults. With four years remaining to the MDGs deadline, sub-Saharan African countries are likely to guarantee equal access to primary school for girls and boys if the current trends in supporting the progress continue. However, for almost all remaining Goals, they may face serious challenges to achieve them by 2015 if the current trends persist or no other initiatives to boost the progress are undertaken. Furthermore, the situation has worsened in some areas such as targets related to health and employment (see table 2.1)

With respect to peace and security in the region, as underlined earlier, sub-Saharan Africa is more democratic than ten years ago. Botswana and Mozambique are reported to be the most peaceful countries of the region. However, some countries still experiment armed conflict such as Somalia, Chad, and Sudan. Peace and security are substantial to guarantee development.
In sum, despite progress made in some areas, sub-Saharan African countries are still facing serious challenges in order to achieve development. The MDGs provide a framework for assessing the deprivation and wellbeing of people in some dimensions of human development. Hence, progress accomplished towards achieving these Goals will certainly improve people capabilities in some dimensions of human development. However, these Goals are essential and need to be supported by people as they contribute to create an environment in which they may enhance some of their capabilities. As we have underlined in the first chapter, agency is one of the central concepts in the capabilities approach. It is related to the role people have to play in shaping the environment that may enhance their capabilities. In the next sections of this chapter, we will analyze how South-South migration contributes to reduce capabilities deprivation and in the next chapter we will discuss how policies contribute to enhance its development potential.

In the introductory part of the next section we will present the main migration trends and the scale of people’s movements in the region. This will then lead us to provide some answers to questions related to the reasons why they move, where they go and under which circumstances they make the choice to move. In the last part of the section we analyzed the interaction between human movements or migration and capabilities as well as MDGs given the challenges the region has to face (see table. 2.1).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goals</th>
<th>Targets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>GOAL 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger</strong></td>
<td>Reduce extreme poverty by half</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>very high poverty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GOAL 2: Achieve universal primary education</strong></td>
<td>Universal primary schooling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GOAL 3: Promote gender equality and empower women</strong></td>
<td>Equal girls’ enrolment in primary school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>close to parity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GOAL 4: Reduce child mortality</strong></td>
<td>Reduce mortality of under-five-year-olds by two thirds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>very high mortality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GOAL 5: Improve maternal health</strong></td>
<td>Reduce maternal mortality by three quarters*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>very high mortality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GOAL 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases</strong></td>
<td>Halt and reverse spread of HIV/AIDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>high prevalence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GOAL 7: Ensure environmental sustainability</strong></td>
<td>Reverse loss of forests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>medium forest area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GOAL 8: Develop a global partnership for development</strong></td>
<td>Internet users</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>low usage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: United Nations
2.2. Population and Immigration

According to the United Nations’ scheme of geographic regions, forty-nine countries constitute the sub-Saharan Africa region. In 2010, this region hosted, in absolute terms, around 19 million migrants, representing 9 per cent of the world’s stock of international immigrants and 2.1 per cent of the total population of the continent (UNPD, 2009). The main hosts of international migrants in the region include Cote d’Ivoire, South Africa, Ghana, Nigeria, Burkina Faso, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Ethiopia and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) (see figure 2.4).

Immigrants come from African countries and also from other continents such as Europe, America, Asia and Oceania. According to estimates by the Centre on Migration, Globalization and Poverty (Migration DRC, 2007), in 2005, 2.5 per cent of European emigrants were living in Africa (DRC, 2007). The stock of international immigrants in the region is unevenly distributed. The lowest numbers of international immigrants are registered by islands States of the region including Madagascar, Mauritius and the Seychelles.

**Fig 2.4 Countries with the largest number of international immigrants in sub-Saharan Africa, 2010 (thousands)**

Source (UN PD, 2009)

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2.3 Emigration from Sub-Saharan African Countries

Burkina Faso, Tanzania, Ethiopia, South Africa and Nigeria were among the top emigration countries in Sub-Saharan Africa in 2005 (Migration DRC, 2007). South-South migration is very important in this region. According to the estimates of the Centre on Migration, Globalization and Poverty (Migration DRC, 2007), in 2005 South-South migration accounted for 70 per cent of international migration for Sub-Saharan Africans. In other words, 7 out of 10 Sub-Saharan Africans who have left their home countries have moved to other Sub-Saharan African countries (World Bank, 2007). The choice of the destination country is related to many factors including geographic proximity and the cost that moving entails as well as the level of opportunities. Migration within the region appears to be more important for low HDI countries compared to other countries (Fig. 2.5). This suggests that mobility from some of the medium HDI countries of the region is mainly oriented towards countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). For example, 93 per cent of emigrants from Niger were living in Africa compared to 27 and 33 per cent of emigrants from Sao Tomé and Principe and Cape Verde respectively. The case of Liberia, a low HDI country is also interesting compared to other countries with the same category of Human Development Index in the region as only 34 per cent of its emigrants were living in Africa. Indeed, most of Liberian emigrants living out of Africa were refugees and have benefited from resettlement programmes implemented by the UNHCR. As it can be seen from figures 2.4 and 2.5, migration dynamics are complex. Understanding this phenomenon may require a deep knowledge of drivers of human mobility in this part of the world and the diversity of migrants who are involved; this task will be partially completed in the next section of this chapter.
2.4 Drivers of South-South Migration in Sub-Saharan Africa

South-South migration or migration within and across sub-Saharan African countries is driven by several factors, including search for labour opportunities, high unemployment rates, political instability, regional climate variability and vulnerability to climatic shocks, armed conflict and individual projects such as pursuit of studies and family visits. The choice of destination countries is related to factors such as geographical proximity, cultural affinity, historical and personal links and standards of living. In this section we analyze the main driving factors of human movement within the region. In other words, would like to understand why people move within the region and why they consider moving as one of their key options to enhance their capabilities.
2.4.1 Economic factors

One driver of South-South migration of an economic character is labour migration. Sub-Saharan African countries have a long history of internal, cross border and intra-regional labour migration (Cross et al, 2006; Nkamleu et al, 2006; Adepoju, 2007). Over time, labour migration has been promoted within the region by the development of labour intensive industries especially in sectors such as agriculture and mines (Adebusoye et al, 2006). In Eastern and central Africa regions, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda and Democratic Republic of the Congo were the main destination countries for workers coming from Burundi, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda and other central African countries. In Southern Africa, South Africa has recruited workers from Lesotho, Malawi and Swaziland for short term contracts in its mining sectors and tobacco farms. Mining sectors and economic development have also attracted workers in Angola, Mauritius, Namibia, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe. In western Africa, the agricultural sector in Cote d’Ivoire has long been the main destination of migrants from neighbouring countries such as Burkina Faso and Mali.

The gender dimension of labour migration is also important and needs to be brought into the picture. Indeed, while labour migration of men is mainly oriented towards labour intensive industries, increasing number of female migrants are involved in cross-border migration for trade. This labour migration pattern is very intense within East African Community (EAC) member States (Masinjila, 2009).

Migration for economic purpose takes different forms. Within countries human movement from rural areas to urban areas are intense in part because of high inequalities in terms of access to paid employment. These movements involve men and women of working age and to a large extent young people. It is also reported that farmers during the period in-between the planting and harvest season move to urban areas to search for non farm jobs, as a part of their livelihood diversification strategies (Nkamleu et al, 2006).
2.4. 2 Environmental factors

Evidence suggests that climate change and environmental degradation can force people to move. In this case, movements occur against their will. However, given the negative impacts of climate change on their livelihood opportunities, moving may be the best option they may have. In fact, it is reported that in sub-Saharan Africa, impacts of climate change and global warming range from inter-annual rainfall fluctuations, droughts, desertification and floods. Impacts on the most vulnerable communities in the regions include, among other things, reduction of arable and grazing lands, destruction of assets such as livestock, food scarcity, unemployment, tension over access to limited natural resources and health problems (UNDP, 2007). In sum, climate change and global warming have direct impacts on livelihood opportunities of people living in environmentally vulnerable areas in Africa. In such a context, migration whether internal or intra-regional, constitutes an adaptation and income diversification strategy for the most affected households in the region (UNDP, 2007; Black et al, 2008; IOM, 2010). For example, during the years of intense drought that Ethiopia faced from 1999-2004, out-migration was one of the coping mechanisms adopted by families to escape famine and reduce the burden on the household (Ezra, 2001, UNDP, 2007). Furthermore, in Sudan, seasonal internal migration is one of the strategies used by female and male labourers in order to take advantage of regional differences in terms of rainy seasons. But this process was hindered by several conflicts that the country has experienced, in particular in Darfur (Black et al, 2008). However, other migration scholars argue that generally the most vulnerable people do not move because of a lack of income. Their freedom to move is then limited. In the Sahel region, in Niger for example, researchers argue that drought does not create human movement. Despite the negative impacts droughts had on their livelihood opportunities, many people couldn’t move because of lack of resources (Jonsson, 2010). This was also the case in Ghana and Burkina Faso where most of people couldn’t move despite severe droughts (ibid). Among those who had the opportunities to move, it was reported that their ability to do so was not only related to income but also to other factors such as availability of social networks abroad (ibid).
Negative impacts of climate change and global warming are expected to continue in the future. Indeed, Cline (2007), following his analysis of climate-related agricultural models, estimates that by 2080, production losses in countries within the equatorial belt could rise to 60 per cent (Cline, 2007; IOM, 2009). In sub-Saharan Africa, production losses may reach 56 per cent in Sudan, 52 per cent in Senegal, 36 per cent in Mali, 31 per cent in Ethiopia and 19 per cent in Nigeria (IOM, 2009). These estimates suggest that further environmentally-induced migrations can be foreseen in Africa. However, as mentioned above, lack of resources may reduce the freedom of the most venerable people. This suggests that public authorities should work hand in hand with local people in order to reduce the impacts of climate change and enlarge the range of choices of the most vulnerable in the region.

2.4.3 Political and security factors

The 2010 Human Development Report and MDG Report revealed that the sub-Saharan Africa region was more democratic today than it has been ten or twenty years ago. However, in some countries presidential election were followed by riots and protestations. Furthermore, some countries, such as DRC and Somalia are still facing armed conflict. Political instability that some countries have faced over the past decades has generated a large number of refugees and internally displaced people (IDP). According to data by the United Nations Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), in 2010 the sub-Saharan African countries have hosted almost 2 million refugees or 23.2 per cent of world’s stock of refugees. The major refugees hosting countries in the region include Kenya, Chad, DRC, Congo and Cameroon. During the same year, refugees from Sub-Saharan countries were estimated at 2.5 million or 29 per cent of world’s stock of refugees. The major source countries of refugees included Somalia, DRC, Sudan, Eritrea, Central Africa and Angola. Regarding the IDPs, in 2010, their number was estimated at 6.4 million (UNHCR, 2010).
Fig 2.6 Major refugee hosting countries in sub-Saharan Africa
(UNHCR, 2010)

![Bar chart showing major refugee hosting countries in sub-Saharan Africa](chart1.png)

Fig. 2.7 Major source countries of refugees in sub-Saharan Africa
(UNHCR, 2010)

![Bar chart showing major source countries of refugees](chart2.png)
2.5. Development potential of Migration.

2.5.1 Living a long and healthy life

Living a long and healthy life refers to MDGs 4, 5 and 6 on reducing child mortality, improving maternal health and combating major diseases.

The 2010 MDG report revealed that most of sub-Saharan African countries will not achieve the MDGs related to health by 2015 if the current trends persist or no other initiatives to boost the progress are undertaken. According to literature on the impacts of migration in these Goals, public authorities and many researchers point out the emigration of professionals of the health sectors as responsible for this failure. In fact, emigration of skilled and unskilled migrants for economic purpose is widely discussed by migration scholars. More attention has been paid on emigration of skilled workers from sub-Saharan Africa towards OECD countries. At international level, Docquier and Marfouk (2005) reported that a significant proportion of high skilled migrants of sub-Saharan countries have left their countries of origin for better opportunities in OECD Countries. Figure 2.9 shows the eight most affected countries in the region in 2000.
Referring to sending countries and more specifically low income countries, Docquier et al (2006) has indicated that if the proportion of their skilled emigrants range from 10 to 20 per cent of those remaining in the country, then the effects of brain drain may be beneficial through incentive effects that result from the emigration of skilled people. However, if that proportion exceeds 30 per cent, emigration of skilled people may be harmful for the sending country. For the most affected sub-Saharan African countries, the proportion of skilled people abroad ranges from 67.7 per cent (Cape Verde) to 38.4 per cent for Kenya. This suggests that these movements have been harmful for these countries.

Among those who have moved abroad, many were health care professionals. In Ghana for example, evidence suggests that more than two-thirds of medical officers have emigrated to OECD countries from 1999 to 2002 (Adebusoye, 2006). As a result, the health sector capacity was weakened as remaining health professionals had to fill shortages these movements have created.

At regional level, it is reported that South Africa and Botswana were the main beneficiaries of migration of high skilled labour from other countries within the region. Nkamleu et al (2006) reported that almost 60 per cent of Zimbabwean doctors have migrated to Botswana and South Africa in 2006.
Overall, the impacts of skilled and unskilled emigration from the country of origin depend on several factors, including how productive they have been in the country of origin before their departure. However, some researchers, such as Lucas (2005) argue that the presence of skilled labour in origin countries may have various positive externalities including the incentive they may provide to other workers and their contribution to economic growth. While one may be tempted to blame those who move, from a capability perspective, those who move do so in order to enlarge their choices and seek for better opportunities. Hence, what may be brain drain for other people, can only mean better opportunities for those who move (Haas, 2010). Recent research suggests that emigration of health workers from Africa has been caused by low health staffing levels and poor public health conditions in sending countries (Clemens 2007). Other factors include, among other things, unattractive working conditions in the public health sector and the failure to provide basic health services in addition to lack of equipment. Additional evidence suggests that, in the early 1980, many governments in Africa had implemented reforms as a part of the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) administered by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund. The reform mainly affected the health sector and resulted, in the case of Cameroon for instance, in suspending recruitment, strict implementation of retirement at 50 or 55, limiting employment to 30 years, suspension of any financial promotion, reduction of additional benefits (housing, travel expenses, etc. (World Bank , 2004). In addition, paramedical training for nurses and laboratory technicians were suspended for several years and schools closed (ibid). Many countries have taken similar measures which undermined the capabilities of health workers. As underlined in the 2010 Human Development Report, some countries have succeeded to recover from this situation by putting more investment in the health sector. Following the above, health care professionals and other skilled workers should not be blamed when they use their freedom to move. It is however up to governments to create an environment in which people can enhance their capabilities through better work conditions, income, career development and opportunities. Furthermore, people as agents should contribute to shape the environment in which they can fully expand their capabilities.

On the other hand, South-South remittances are reported to have had positive impacts in health, household welfare, nutrition, food, and living conditions in sending countries (Hass, 2010).
Literature often mentions remittances sent from South Africa to Lesotho and Cote d’Ivoire to Burkina Faso as examples.

2.5.2 Being educated

Being educated refers to MDGs 2 and 3 on achieving universal primary education, promoting gender equality (especially in education) and empowering women. The *MDG report* revealed that Sub-Saharan African countries are likely to achieve Goals related to education. Thanks also to the positive impacts of remittances in addition to sound policies implemented by some governments.

2.5.3. Having a decent standard of living

Having a decent standard of living refers to Goal 1: reducing poverty and hunger. Labour migration has several impacts on the economies in both countries of origin and of destination. In the destination country, researchers argue that migrants bring diverse skills, experience and know-how (Hass, 2010). They contribute to fill skill shortages, increase the labour supply and the demand for goods and services. Therefore, they boost the economy which may in turn contribute to improve the living standard of people in hosting areas. However, while local people may complain about the presence of a large number of immigrants putting a strain on their labour market, some researchers argue that migrants’ entrepreneurial abilities to set up businesses in host countries may increase labour demand and this may in turn offset the initial increase in the labour supply that the flow of migrants has created (Nkamleu et al, 2006). Yet, given that many sub-Saharan African countries have very large deficits in decent work, new comers in local labour market faces several challenges. To overcome barriers related to access to decent employment, migrants often adopt other alternatives, for example working as street vendors. This option is used by many migrants from Nigeria, Senegal, Mali, Benin, and Zimbabwe including locals in South Africa because of large informal markets (Nkamleu et al, 2006).

In sending countries, positive impacts of migration in the country’s economy are associated to remittances. Figure 2.10 and 2.11 give the list of the ten top recipients of remittances in Sub-
Saharan Africa in 2010 and the top ten remittances recipient according to remittances as share of the GDP, respectively.

**Figure 2.10** Top ten top recipients of remittances (USD billion) in Sub-Saharan Africa in 2010 (World Bank, 2010)
However, large amount of remittances originate from developed countries. South-South remittances face a critical data gap in part because most of them are sent through informal channels. Even without reliable data, researchers argue that South-South remittances are an important source of development in sub-Saharan Africa. They have positive effects on foreign exchange reserves, balance of payments, livelihoods and investments. In Sub-Saharan Africa, it is reported that remittances were invested in the purchase of land, tools or machinery and to other economic activities. Evidence suggests that money sent back home by migrants working in mines in South Africa had positive impacts on cropping and livestock management in Southern Africa (Lucas 2005). Yet, remittances can create dependencies, inflation and most of the time little is invested.

2.5.4 Environmental sustainability

Environmental sustainability refers to Goal 7: ensure environmental sustainability. Sub-Saharan Africa is experiencing a very fast urbanisation but compared to developed countries the rate is very low. In 2010, the UN Population Division estimated urban population in Sub-Saharan Africa at 321.4 million, representing a rate of 37.2 per cent (34.9
This rate is lower compared to the average rate of urbanization in all developed countries.

The low rate of urbanization in the region can be explained by several factors, including low industrialization, inadequate land policies, lack of pro-urban development strategies (UN-Habitat, 2008). Moreover, estimates for 2020 indicate an increase in urban population, reaching 457 million or a rate of 42.2 per cent (UN PD, 2009).

Urbanization in sub-Saharan Africa is spurred by natural population growth in urban areas and increasing rural-urban migration caused partly by interregional disparities in terms of access to employment (Cross et al, 2006). Young people are the most affected. According to the Townsend Centre for International Poverty Research, some 30-50 per cent of youth in most African countries are deprived of adequate sanitation and around 560 million of them do not have access to safe drinking water (UNDESA, 2010). Furthermore, from the perspective of policy makers, the increasing number of urban population entails additional pressure on available services and environmental resources in urban areas, while expanding informal settlements and slums (UN-Habitat, 2003; UNDP, 2010). However, from a capabilities perspective, people use their freedom to move because of lack of opportunities in rural areas. In some countries like Kenya, opportunities for paid employment are higher in urban than in rural areas. It is therefore up to the public authorities to upgrade infrastructure in urban areas and create in rural areas an environment in which people can fully expand their capabilities instead of restricting people's freedom.

2.5.5 Equity, especially gender equity

Equity, especially gender equity refers to Goal 3: promoting gender equality and empowering women.

More and more women are involved in migration process in sub-Saharan Africa. Estimates by UN PD for 2010 indicate that they account for 47.2 per cent of the international migrants.
stock of the region. This rate is slightly lower than the global average (49%). However, it indicates that migration is an option women value in their life plans. Yet, in some African communities the freedom to move of women is restricted by traditions and cultures. For example in the Sahel region, in the case of droughts, if someone in the family has to move, men are more likely to be selected than women. However, there are some countries in which female migrants account for more that 49 per cent of international migrant stock. They include among others, Mauritius (63.3%), Burundi (54.6%), Rwanda (53.9%), Comoros (53.3%), Kenya (50.8%), Tanzania (50.4%) and Uganda (49.9%). Female migrants are involved in many activities, especially business. It is reported that women become empowered and gain more freedom in most of the cases except when they are trafficked or are victims of sexual gender based violence.

2.5.7 Other impacts

The presence of large numbers of refugees and internally displaced persons in sub-Saharan African countries creates significant challenges related to their protection, integration into the host societies and in the local labour market. However, some researchers argue that refugees contribute positively to economic activities in hosting areas when they are employed (SAMM, 2006). Yet, multiplier effects of their activities do not benefit the local community as a whole, leading thus to negative externalities as local population see their own employment prospects indirectly affected. This underlines that misinformation regarding the contribution of refugees and IDPs in host areas may sometimes lead to and increase xenophobia.
Chapter 3:

Regional Economic Communities (RECs) and freedom of movement

This chapter outlines the main recommendations suggested by the African Union in order to maximize the development potential of South-South migration and minimize its negative impacts. It is divided into two sections. The first section presents some of the main recommendations provided in the ‘Migration Policy Framework for Africa (MPFA),’ while the second section looks at initiatives undertaken by Sub-regional economic unions such as the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS)\(^8\), the Southern African Development Community (SADC)\(^9\), the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA)\(^10\) and the East African Community (EAC)\(^11\), with a view to create an environment in which people can enjoy the freedom of movement.

3.1 Migration Policy Framework for Africa (MPFA)

Overall, migration policies in Africa are shaped by the ‘Migration Policy Framework for Africa’ adopted in 2006 during the Banjul Summit of the African Union by Heads of States and Governments (African Union, 2006). The Migration Policy Framework for Africa provides basic guidelines for migration issues, relevant for both national and regional migration policies. The document is based on the premise that mobility is one of the basic human rights that every human being is entitled to, which is recognized by the 1949 Universal

\(^8\) ECOWAS Member States: Benin, Faso, Cape, Cote d’Ivoire, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo

\(^9\) SADC Member States: Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

\(^10\) COMESA Member States: Burundi, Comoros, D.R Congo, Djibouti, Egypt, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Rwanda, Seychelles, Sudan, Swaziland, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

\(^11\) EAC Member States: Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, and Uganda
Declaration on Human Rights as “freedom of movement”. The following are among the main recommendations provided in the document to African States regarding different issues related to migration. The recommendations include:

- **Labour migration**: Incorporate provisions from ILO Conventions No. 97 and No. 143 and the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families into national legislation.

- **Irregular migration**: Encourage regional consultative processes and dialogue on irregular migration to promote greater policy coherence at the national, Sub-regional and regional levels.

- **Human trafficking**: Explore opportunities for prosecution of traffickers and others involved in such activities, and extend witness protection to victims of trafficking who want to testify against traffickers.

- **Refugees and Asylum-Seekers**: African refugees should be given equal treatment with others from other parts of the world in line with International Standard as it applies to Refugees all over the world.

- **Internally Displaced Persons**: Ensure that refugees and IDPs have access to education and skills training in order to facilitate their eventual integration or reintegration into host and/or home communities.

- **Human rights of migrants**: Harmonize national legislation with international convention to ensure the protection of the rights of migrants.

- **Principles of non-discrimination**: Encourage international agencies dealing with migration and human rights issues to exchange information and coordinate activities aimed at tackling racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia, and related intolerance against migrants, including migrant workers, women, children and the elderly.

- **Internal migration**: Strengthen efforts to address causes of internal migration including poverty, environmental degradation, natural disasters, and conflict, especially as they relate to the process of urbanization.

- **Migration data**: Greater co-ordination between ministries and research institutions gathering migration data, including the establishment of a national migration statistics unit in charge of coordinating the gathering of migration statistics.
- **Migration and development**: Develop national plans of action aimed at comprehensive approaches to migration and development in order to contribute to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

- **Brain Drain**: Maximize the contribution of skilled professionals in the Continent by facilitating mobility and deployment of professionals in a continental and regional framework.

- **Remittance Transfers**: Encourage the transfer of remittances by adopting sound macro-economic policies conducive to investment and growth and appropriate financial sector policy that encourage financial institutions and their outreach: post office networks, supporting credit unions, and rural financial service providers.

- **Inter-State and inter-regional cooperation**: Development of a common migration policy among African countries towards harmonization of laws, standards, procedures, information, dissemination and sharing, statistics, documents, and efficient use of resources.

- **Migration and Poverty**: Include migration, in the framework of development strategies and national and regional programming (MDG, PRSP\(^{12}\), TICAD\(^{13}\)) with the purpose of supporting the economic and social development of the regions (rural and urban) from which migrants originate in order to address the root causes of migration and to reduce poverty.

- **Migration and health**: Ensure migrants have adequate access to health care services by granting access to national healthcare systems and programmes ensuring that cultural and/or linguistic barriers do not prevent migrants from seeking and/or obtaining care especially in relation to dual protection from intended pregnancies, STI’s, Tuberculosis and HIV/AIDS infection.

- **Migration and environment**: Incorporate environmental considerations in the formulation of national and regional migration management policies to better address environment related causes of migratory movements as well as the impact migratory movements have on the environment; increasing collaboration with relevant international agencies to this end, including strengthening research and data gathering and exchange on the relationship between migration and the environment.

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\(^{12}\) Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper

\(^{13}\) Tokyo International Conference on African Development
- **Migration and Trade**: Acknowledge that productive investments can help to address some of the causes of migration, recognize the need to promote economic growth by fostering trade, productive investment and employment, and implementing economic and social policies geared towards alleviating migration pressures.

- **Migration and Gender**: Promote informational/educational campaigns to raise awareness about gender dimension of migration among policy makers and personnel involved in managing migration.

- **Migration, children, adolescent and youth**: Develop policies that encourage and promote migration and sports.

Recommendations provided by the African Union are expected to be implemented at national and regional level. However, they are not binding neither for countries, nor regional economic organisations. As it can be seen from the set of recommendations outlined above, the Migration Policy Framework acknowledges the development potential of migration and recommend to African countries to promote human movement.

### 3.2 Regional initiatives

In this last section we will take a brief look on regional initiatives in relation to mobility and freedom of movement. Our brief analysis will focus on ECOWAS, SADC, COMESA and EAC regional communities. Regarding ECOWAS regional Community, its Members States have adopted the Protocol on Free Movement of Persons, Residence and Establishment. This protocol guarantees to national of ECOWAS Member States, among other things, the right to enter, reside and establish economic activities in the territory of Member States. Similarly, in 2001, COMESA Member States have adopted a Protocol on the Free Movement of Persons, Labour, Services, Right of Establishment and Residence. COMESA Member States gradually agreed to remove all restrictions to the free movement of persons labour, services and the right of establishment and residence within an agreed timeframe. Furthermore, East African Community Member States have recently signed the Common Market Protocol which will allow the free movement of persons, goods, labour, services and capital. However, EAC Member States need to amend their national legislations before full application of the protocol. SADC Member States have also adopted a protocol on the facilitations of movement of persons. It refers to nationals of SADC Member States and aims to facilitate:
(a) entry, for a lawful purpose and without a visa, into the territory of another State Party for a maximum period of ninety 90 days per year, for bona fide visit and in accordance with the laws of the State Party concerned; (b) permanent and temporary residence in the territory of another State Party; and (c) establishment of oneself and working in the territory of another State Party.
Conclusion

Overall, migration within and between sub-Saharan African countries, presents both positive and negative impacts for human development and the achievement of the MDGs in Africa. However, from a capability perspective, the impacts of South-South migration for human development are considerable and its negative effects can be offset by migration friendly development policies. Migration friendly development policies are considered to be the kind of policies that can help migrants to become agent of development and promote their social, financial, human and cultural capital accumulated during the migration process for the interest of their own and communities (Gallina et al., 2010). Indeed, our analysis revealed that South-South migration affects positively all the areas we have identified in this thesis. The most striking impact of migration on development comes from remittances sent by migrants to their countries of origin. It appeared that remittances have positive impacts at macro, meso and micro level of the economy. At macro level, remittances constitute significant source of foreign exchange for countries of origin. For instance, we have shown that in countries such as Lesotho, remittances accounted for almost 25 percent of the GDP in 2009. Although a large amount of remittances come from OECD countries, our analysis revealed that most of South-South remittances are sent through informal channels. Similarly, at the micro level, money and equipments sent by emigrants to their families were often allocated to income generating activities and expenditures related to education, health, housing and food. Hence, remittances played the role of a social safety net at the household level, while generating a multiplier effect. Moreover, cross-border trading provides a significant income earning opportunity for women and contributes to their empowerment. In the destination country, our analysis revealed that migrants bring diverse skills, experience, and know-how, fill skill shortages, increase the labour supply and increase the demand for goods and services. Migrants’ contributions help to boost economy in destination countries which may in turn contribute to improve the living standard of people. In addition, South-South migration creates an environment in which people from different cultures, societies and educational backgrounds can meet and know each other. It also contribute positively to build peace and to promote tolerance as well as to overcome past colonial barriers.
However, South-South migration also has negative impacts. For instance, on the one hand, increasing rural-urban migration raises pressure on available job opportunities in hosting areas and contributes to the expansion of slums in urban areas. On the other hand, cross border migration increases irregular migration, insecurity, armed conflicts and trafficking in persons. Furthermore, migration of high skilled workers, especially those working in health sector create skill shortages in countries of origin and affect negatively the capacities of the same countries to meet targets related to health Goals. Our analysis further revealed that irregular migration can affect negatively the fight against HIV/AIDS and other diseases. Regarding remittances, some evidence suggest that it contribute to increase income and social inequalities within communities and can also create dependency effects and inflation. South-South migration also has negative impacts on those who do not move (wives, children, and parents) as it entails separations. Moreover, the analysis revealed that migration can have negative impacts on children’s education as sometime both parents can move and leave children with other relatives.

In sum, our analysis has shown that migration entails tradeoffs as gain in some dimensions of human development may be accompanied by losses in others. However, our brief analysis of African migration policies showed that migration friendly development policies such as the one suggested by the African Union can offset negative impacts of South-South migration and maximize its development potential.
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