Towards Development-Friendly Migration Policies and Programmes: Some Concrete Examples from European Member States

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Introduction – Migration Policy and Development

"Countries and international organizations increasingly perceive migration as a phenomenon whose positive impacts in development terms can be substantial, *provided that appropriate policies are in place*" (emphasis added, 'EC Communication from the Commission - Migration and Development: Some Concrete Orientations' 2005:1).

The above statement from the European Commission highlights both the positive potential of migration for development and the important role that policies can play in enhancing the development impact of migration.

Although the conditions under which migration has positive or negative effects on development remain a matter of dispute, there is broad agreement and evidence that migration can have a positive impact on development; and insofar as migration policies help to determine migration flows, it can be argued that these policies also affect development (GEP 2006; WMR 2005). By influencing the volume, mix, and terms of migration, migration policies may have an impact on those factors commonly assessed to be relevant for development, including human capital formation, remittances (size and value), trade flows, foreign direct investment, and skills transfer. These factors may be more or less amenable to the influence of migration policies.

However, although there is a growing recognition of the positive linkage between migration and development, there is still great uncertainty about what this linkage means in policy terms. Much less well understood and explored are the specific policy options for rich and poor countries, which can maximize the positive impact of international migration on development (Grieco and Hamilton, 2004).

There is scattered evidence that migration policies can play a significant role in ensuring that migrants contribute positively to development in sending countries. There is no coherent overview of this, and there has been little systematic evaluation of the effects of migration policies on development. Few studies have examined how migration policies may foster or hinder development and poverty reduction over time (Grieco and Hamilton, 2004).

So much is unknown about the complex relationship between migration and development that it is extremely difficult to determine what would be "development-friendly" outcomes of migration policies (Newland, 2003). To describe a policy as "development-friendly" implies some knowledge of the impact of such policies. It also implies the use of some criteria to define whether a policy is to be considered "development-friendly".

Nonetheless, there seems to be a growing consensus - articulated in several recent policy papers prepared by the European Commission, national governments, international bodies and others – that some migration policies and programmes should be promoted because they are likely to be more "development-friendly" than others.

For example, in its recent Communication on "Migration and Development: Concrete Actions" (September 2005), the European Commission encourages EU Member states to adopt a number of "development-friendly" migration policies. Such policies include measures to promote circular migration, enhance the development impact of remittances and facilitate migrant diasporas' involvement in development projects. Similarly, in a report prepared by the International Development Committee of the UK Parliament – entitled "Migration and Development: How to make migration work for poverty reduction" (House of Commons, 2004, p.70), a number of "development-friendly" migration policies are identified. Furthermore, in its latest Global Economic Prospects report, the World Bank suggests a number of ways in which migration policies might be made more "development-friendly" (WB, 2005).

An example of a "development-friendly" migration policy might be measures that foster low skilled migration from developing to developed countries through legal channels and high skilled migration that is managed jointly by countries of origin and destination to yield economic and social returns to the former. There is growing evidence that low skilled migration can help reduce poverty and has the greatest development impact (GEP 2006).

It has also been suggested that migration policies are likely to be more "development-friendly" where there is greater "policy coherence" within states, meaning that development and migration policies are closely aligned. There is a growing recognition that there is a development dimension to migration, but there is a need to do more to ensure that policies on related issues are coherent and support development goals. In countries of destination in the developed world, migration and development policies generally constitute separate policy domains with very different goals. For the most part, migration policies are developed to serve the national interests of the destination country. Migration policy is mainly concerned with domestic, economic, labour, and demographic needs and is less concerned with global development issues.

Purpose of this note

Many areas of government policy will impact on migration, and immigration policies can have both positive and negative effects on development. This paper does not attempt to assess the impact of the immigration policies of EU Member States on developing countries. The main focus of this paper is on the more limited number of migration policies and programmes in EU Member States, which are specifically intended to have a positive impact on development and that have been described as "development-friendly" measures in recent policy documents, including the EC's 2005 Communication on Migration and Development. The paper presents examples of the different types of approaches that are being tried in a number of EU Member States, but it is not intended to be a comprehensive review of policy and practice across the European Union.

This paper draws on some of the work that IOM has begun as part of a study that it is conducting on behalf of the World Bank, entitled ‘‘ ‘Development-Friendly' Migration

Policies: A Survey of Innovative Practices in Countries of Origin and Destination". The study is expected to yield a better methodology for larger-scale mapping of development-relevant migration policies and a basis for further analytical work by the World Bank on the impact of migration policies on poverty reduction. The study is funded by the World Bank's Knowledge for Change (KCP) Trust Fund.

I) Background: Migration from Developing Countries to Europe at a glance

It is not easy to find reports from the EC or EU Member States where data on migration trends from developing countries to Europe are presented in a concisely, nor is there any EU annual report on migration from the developing world to Europe. The information that does exist tends to be scattered and incomplete. Nevertheless, there is little doubt that a substantial portion of migrants in Europe are from the developing world and that their numbers are increasing and will continue to rise further in the future. Some of the key trends are summarized below.

- ***The total number of migrants from outside the EU is estimated at 13 million***. The main regions of origin: Europe (45 per cent), North Africa (18 per cent), Asia (17 per cent), Sub-Saharan Africa (9 per cent), USA (3 per cent), and others (8 per cent) (COM {2002} 703: 9).

- ***Migrants from non-OECD countries account for a significant share of the foreign population of European Union Member-States.*** In 11 member states of the EU 15, such migrants account for more than 50 per cent of the foreign population. The proportion of non-OECD migrants is particularly high in recent immigration countries, such as the Mediterranean countries (Italy, Spain, Portugal and Greece), Hungary, and Finland (Sopemi 2004) (Map 1).

- ***In seven EU Member States, the number of non-DAC migrants account for more than 70 per cent of total inflows of migration.*** Italy (2000: 93 per cent); the United Kingdom (2001: 87 per cent); Spain (2002: 86 per cent); France (1999: 83 per cent); Finland (2001: 78 per cent); Austria (2001: 75 per cent); The Netherlands (2001: 73.7 per cent) (Grieco and Hamilton 2004:8).

- ***The majority of refugees and asylum seekers in Europe come from developing countries.*** Of the 1.9 million refugees and asylum seekers in Europe in 2001, 1.6 million came from non-European developing countries (EU COM 2002: 13).

- ***Immigrants to Europe have been coming from a wider range of countries and particularly from lower income countries***. Spain, for example, has recently started to attract migrants from Senegal and Nigeria (a total of 4,500 in 2002) (OECD/Sopemi 2004:56). There were an estimated 63,000 Chinese migrants in Germany in 2001, double the figure in 1993 and ten times that of 1988. In Italy, 68,000 residence permits were granted to Chinese citizens in 2001, more than five times that in 1993 (Council of Europe 2005:19).

- ***France and the United Kingdom, and to a lesser extent, Belgium and Portugal, remain the main destination countries of migrants originating from Sub-Saharan Africa***. Around 76,2000 Africans entered France in 2002, 18,500 of whom came from Sub-Saharan Africa. In 2001, the United Kingdom reported approximately 16,000 admissions of migrants from Ghana, Botswana, Nigeria, Zimbabwe, Kenya, and South Africa (SOPEMI: 56).

- ***There are more female than male migrants in Europe, many of whom are from the developing world.*** Of all migrants, 52.4 per cent are women. In 2001, 60 per cent of migrant stocks from Latin America in Europe were female. In particular, the number of Latin-American women immigrating to Spain has risen sharply, increasing from about 57,000 in 1996 to 570,000 in 2003. This is due partly to the expansion of domestic services and elderly care (OECD/Sopemi 2004:44).

- ***Highly skilled migration to Europe has increased sharply since 1990.*** While there was only a marginal increase in the number of immigrants with primary education in the EU 15 in the period from 1990 to 2000 – from 8.4 million to 9.7 million – the number of immigrants with tertiary education increased from 2.16 million to 4.2 million during the same period (Figure 1).

- ***Skilled migration from developing countries is high in the health sector.*** In Ireland, for instance, nurses from other parts of the world excluding Ireland and the EU, accounted for 50 per cent of new entrants to the Irish nursing register in 2005 (Figure 2). In the UK, there was a 40 per cent increase in nurse registrants from non-EU countries during the period from 1999/2000 to 2000/2001. The main source countries were Ghana, India, Nigeria, and Zimbabwe (Stilwell et al 2003: 13).

- ***Foreign student migration from the developing world is on the rise in Europe.*** In 2001/2, 63.2 per cent of foreign students in the EU came from countries outside the EU (7.9 per cent from EEA, and 55.3 per cent from other parts of the world) (Figure 3). There were 13.3 per cent more Asians registered in French schools and universities in 2001 than in the previous year; 12.9 per cent more Africans; and 24.1 per cent more citizens from the Maghreb (Groupe permanent 2002). In Germany, the number of students coming from Africa and Asia rose by 23.1 per cent and 24.1 per cent respectively, in the period from 1997-2000 (Isserstedt/Schnitzer 2002:5).

- ***Irregular migration remains high in Europe and tends to diversify in terms of the source countries.*** An estimated five million of Europe's 56.1 million migrants in 2000 had irregular status (10 per cent). Some 500,000 undocumented migrants are estimated to arrive in Europe each year. Four main waves of regularization have occurred in Europe: in the 1980s, in the early and late 1990s, and in early 2000. Over the period, as a whole, around 3,219,500 regularizations occurred, but it is the fourth wave that has been the largest. In Belgium, Greece, Italy, Portugal, and Spain together, 1,615, 400 migrants have been regularized (Figure 4). The source countries of irregular migration have tended to diversify in recent years. China, for instance, has figured prominently among the top five source countries of irregular migration in Spain and Italy in recent years (OECD/Sopemi 2004:100) (Figure 5).

- ***According to International Monetary Fund (IMF)'s Balance of Payment statistics, four EU countries –Germany, Spain, France and Italy – are among the top ten remittance source countries in the world*** (IMF, Balance of Payments, 2004). Remittance payments have increased dramatically in Spain and Italy. In the period between 1997-2003, Italy registered a four-fold increase in remittances from USD 332 million to USD 1,331 million, while remittance payments from Spain grew five-fold, from USD 590 million to USD 3,282 million.

Broadly-speaking, EU Member States are seeking to attract migrants with skills, including students, from the developing world. This in itself may not pose a problem to developing countries where recruitment is from a large skills base, where migration is temporary, and where migrants return with enhanced experience and skills. However, the loss of skilled personnel in certain sectors, such as health and education, and in certain fragile economies with a limited skills base may be more problematic.

The other key trend that is more difficult to document precisely, due to lack of data, is the high number of irregular migrants in Europe from the developing world. This is in part the result of the limited opportunities available for low skilled migrants to obtain legal employment in Europe.

II) Linking Migration and Development in Practice

a) Mitigating the Adverse Effect of "Brain Drain" on Sending Countries

At the beginning of the millennium, the EU receives more highly skilled migrants than ever before. While the possibilities for legal migration programmes generally remain limited, a number of European countries, such as the UK, Germany, France, and the Czech Republic have opened up possibilities for selected (especially highly-skilled) labour migrants. The expansion of possibilities for labour migration reflects problems of labour shortages and mismatches of supply and demand in many European countries.

The growing demand for highly skilled migrants in Europe may pose a significant challenge to developing countries if it leads to the depletion of scarce human resources in critical sectors such as health and education. Aware of the potential risks, the European Commission has now called on members states to find mechanisms to "discipline recruitment" (COM 2005). A more managed approach to highly skilled migration has already been pursued by some member-states, especially in the health sector. Three sets of measures have typically been adopted to address the negative effects of highly skilled migration:

- Ethical codes of conduct to limit active recruitment
- Joint migration management with sending country, e.g. bilateral agreements
- Skill-replenishment schemes
- Institutional partnership in higher education

Ethical recruitment codes:

The establishment of codes of practice and policy that seek to influence the active recruitment of highly skilled migrants has particularly received attention in the health sector. At the international level, the World Family Doctors' Association adopted such a code and similar principles were endorsed by The International Council of Nurses. The Commonwealth, at its meeting of Health Ministers in May 2003, endorsed a code of practice and an associated companion guide on international recruitment. At the national level, however, it is the UK government that has proceeded farthest to manage international recruitment on an ethical basis. As a leading recruiting country of health care workers in Europe, the UK has gradually tightened the regulation of international recruitment by individual hospitals trusts that, as part of the National Health Service (NHS), are directly controlled by the central government.

In 1999, the Department of Health issued guidelines requiring the NHS (i.e. public sector employers) not to recruit actively from South Africa and Caribbean. In September 2001, a more detailed code of practice was issued, which included guidance on working with recruitment agencies and reiterated that NHS trusts should not target recruitment at developing countries (as defined by the OECD/Development Assistant Committee list of aid recipients) unless the Department of Health had a formal agreement with a particular country. In 2003, the Department of Health published a list of less developed countries to end the uncertainties amongst NHS trusts about which countries they were prevented from recruiting from. Nevertheless, the flows of nurses from many countries that are prohibited by the Code continued, including from some of the poorest countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, and Swaziland) continued in 2003/04. Therefore, the Department of Health further strengthened the Code of Practice in 2004. The 2004 Code required the NHS to only use recruitment agencies that complied with the Code; it also partially incorporated the independent sector by making compliance with the Code a contractual requirement of independent providers that supply [patient] services to the NHS. However, this still excludes the bulk of the independent care sector that constitutes long-term nursing and social care (Bach 2005:24-27).

Bilateral Agreements and cooperation on health system development

A second key strand of managed migration concerns the development of bilateral agreements. The UK Code of Practice stipulates the signing of bilateral agreements as a precondition for recruiting health care workers. Linking ethical recruitment codes to bilateral agreements can reinforce the ethical basis of recruitment. First, bilateral agreements reduce the need to utilize commercial recruitment agencies. There are many well-managed and responsible agencies, but there are others that facilitate unmanaged migration, often charging high fees and misleading applicants about their final employment destination and job. The bilateral agreement ensures a more predictable and transparent process for both parties. It also has the important effect of shifting the costs of migration from the individual migrant to the final client. Secondly, these agreements are flexible tools that can incorporate a variety of provisions. For example, they can include best practice guidance related to induction, training, etc.

An agreement that has particularly received attention in the health sector is that signed between the UK and the Philippines, one of the main exporting nations of health professionals. The UK-Philippine agreement sets out in detail the requirements placed on the Philippine Overseas Employment Administration (POEA) and the National Health Service (NHS) to ensure transparency and eliminate potential abuse. The costs are shifted from the individual migrant to the client. For example, it states that the NHS will pay the cost of initial application, entry visa application costs and the costs of initial airfare to the UK, provided workers remain in the post for 12 months. Employers are also required to pay the POEA a processing fee of GBP 17 as a contribution to the Worker's Welfare Fund and GBP 35 as a contribution to the Employees' Guarantee Trust Fund administered by the POEA (Bach 2003:24). The agreement also includes requirements related to induction and other forms of good practice.

Skill replenishment schemes

For source countries, highly skilled migration often represents a loss of significant investment in training and education – at least when people who migrate have been trained by public sector institutions. Some initiatives have therefore been aimed at helping developing countries that suffer from significant skills shortages (as the result of migration) to replenish their skill bases. These skill replenishment schemes can take various forms. Some may be based on the idea of "twinning", where institutions in "source" and "destination" countries develop links based on staff exchanges, staff support, and flow of resources to the source country. Bilateral twinning arrangements are particularly promoted in the health sector. Other schemes focus on staff exchanges. Some schemes provide educational support in the sending country for prospective migrants.

The government or private sector may decide to develop training infrastructures to train health professionals in the sending country for their own labour market. An innovative example of this kind is the recruitment programme for Romanian nurses by the Friuli-Venezia-Giulia region in Italy. In cooperation with a Romanian-based not-for-profit association, Friuli-Venezia-Giulia launched a recruitment programme for nurses in 2002 that places emphasis on preparatory training in Romania and social criteria for the selection of candidates (OECD Bilateral 2004: 215).

Other linkage programmes may more explicitly be designed to promote retention in the source country. In Egypt, the Department of Health (UK) introduced a programme to improve the care of the elderly, pathology and mental health services, and a fellowship programme for Egyptian doctors to come to the UK to gain additional experience (Bach 2005).

Institutional partnerships in higher education

Compared to other categories of EU Third Country Nationals (TCNs), the entry regulations for students from non-EU states are relatively liberal. Most typically, the entrance requirements include admission by an education institution in the receiving country and proof of sufficient financial means of subsistence. In principle, most European states do not permit students to change status from education to employment. However, a number of European countries have recently eased this regulation in order to fill gaps in their skilled labour market (ICMPD 2000). Thus, student migration from developing countries can become a backdoor for permanent migration and, therefore, also a potential source of "brain drain".

Institutional partnerships are often advocated as a possible response to the adverse effects of mobility in the education sector. They can be complementary to efforts in the sending country to reform education and be beneficial to both the sending and receiving country.

Box 1. Linnaeus-Palme – A Swedish exchange programme for students and teachers from developing countries

The Linnaeus-Palme is an exchange programme financed by the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA) for university teachers and students from the developing world as well as for Swedish teachers and students, established in 2000. The first part, Linnaeus, enables Swedish teachers and students to study in the third world. The second part, Palme, offers teachers and students in developing countries the opportunity to come to Sweden. The exchange is normally for one or two semesters of studies and is intended to provide eligibility for credit on return. The purpose is to strengthen Swedish teaching institutions' co-operation with universities in developing countries and enable mutual benefit of the participants.
http://www.programkontoret.se/templates/Page865.aspx

b) Building Capacity in the Diaspora Community for Home Country Development

One key principle of development assistance is to look at what spontaneous or unassisted social processes have helped development, and then figure out how to catalyse those processes in other countries or regions. In the field of migration, the re-involvement of the diaspora in the home country – not necessarily through permanent return but through investment and integration in networks – has become the focus of much policy attention.

As diverse as the manifestations of “diaspora” are, so too are the initiatives targeting this group of migrants. Here, the focus shall be particularly on two types of diaspora institutions: small grassroot organizations known as Home Town Associations (HTAs) and diaspora businesses. The assistance of governments and donors to these institutions can consist of the following two sets of measures:

- Supporting HTAs in home country development projects at the level of capacity-building, technical assistance, and finance.
- Providing financial and in-kind assistance to diaspora businesses.

Supporting HTAs in home country development projects

Migrants from the same home region or locality often concentrate in the same geographical areas in the host country, and sometimes form associations to support their home region/town, thus called Home Town Associations. HTAs can play an important role in helping allocate part of the savings of individual migrants towards productive investment in the home country (e.g. industry and agriculture) or at least in improving the living conditions of people in the communities of origin via the financing of small-scale local infrastructure (water-sanitations, health infrastructure, etc.) (Johnson and Sedaca 2004). Although most often HTAs are able to perform this role without government assistance, the institutional capacity of these organizations may at times be too limited to achieve their full potential. Governments and donors can assist HTAs in their institutional development by developing specific capacities and providing technical assistance.

Box 2. Catalan Fund for Development Cooperation- Co-development project

As part of the Interdepartmental Immigration Plan of the Catalan Government, the Catalan Fund for Development Cooperation (Fons Catala de Cooperacio al Desenvolupament) operates a programme dedicated to the idea of “co-development” – where immigrants should be central agents in the development of their country of origin. Supporting immigrant associations in their effort to promote development is an important strategic focus of the co-development activities of the Catalan government. The Fons Catala programme comprises four sets of activities:

1) The identification, analysis and mentoring of organizations: this set of activities is dedicated to identifying the appropriate HTA prepared to undertake development work. Fons Catala goes through the local councils in Catalunya; 2) providing training courses on development work; 3) providing research on the three priority areas of the organization’s development work (i.e. agriculture, health, and education); 4) granting support to community projects with social development goals. The Fons Catala has financed more than 20 projects with a view to promoting exchanges between immigrant organizations, local public authorities, and communities of origin (Terron 2004:12).

HTAs are also known to be important channels for collective remittances. There are attempts by public authorities to channel these flows into productive investment by providing incentives, such as cheap loans and matching funds. A widely-cited initiative is the “tres por uno” scheme, initiated by the Mexican state of Zacatecas and other Mexican states. The “3x1” programme aims to match HTA donations with funds from the three levels of government (federal, state, and municipal). Similar schemes exist in Europe.

Box 3. De-centralized cooperation: Montreuil-Mali partnership

In France, matching grants have been part of the government’s “co-development” strategy and a policy of decentralized cooperation. The 1992 law on decentralized co-operation allows local communities in France to link with local communities in other countries, by giving local authorities the right to sign agreements containing financial clauses. The French Ministry of Foreign Affairs provides additional funding for these partnerships provided they focus on the ministries’ priority area – Africa, ACP countries, and other Francophone countries. Within this scheme, the Malian migrant community and the city of Montreuil managed to implement a development project for Mali. A steering committee, on which Malian migrants are represented, was created to decide on the projects to be funded. Migrants finance up to 20 per cent of the project, while the rest of the funding comes from the local government (Magoni 2004: 11).

Supporting diaspora business and investment

There is a growing recognition among European governments that migrant entrepreneurs can play a significant role in the development of the sending country. Policy initiatives by member states in this area have particularly focused on business creation in the context of return and reintegration programmes and channelling existing entrepreneurial activities into development in the home country.

A transnational business relationship between migrant entrepreneurs and the home country might start with discussions and information exchanges. However, the challenge lies in developing transactions and business deals that might lead to the investment of diaspora expertise and capital in the development of the home country. In this regard, the development of intermediaries or networks that help establish and cultivate business relationships between diaspora entrepreneurs and their public and private sector counterparts can be crucial in facilitating these transactions and investment.

Although they do not primarily focus on a particular business diaspora, chambers of commerce can play an important role in linking the diaspora to the business community in their country of origin. Most chambers already have a mandate to promote commercial ties (trade and investment) between two (and sometimes more) countries. Within their regular programmes, they are already actively involved in networking, matchmaking, business facilitation, and the provision of commercial information, as well as market research, and conference and export promotion assistance. Chambers of commerce also provide a link to the wider business community within a country or region that a diaspora may avail of. Furthermore, chambers of commerce can play a key role in interacting with governments and businesses in order to advocate economic policies surrounding both domestic and international commerce. Each of these activities provides an opportunity for diaspora involvement in the promotion of business in a country of origin (Johnson and Sedaca 2004:39).

While supporting "diaspora business networks" may be a way of tapping already-existing business resources among the diaspora, initiatives in this area also focus on the creation of these resources. Providing assistance to migrants in business start-ups is sometimes offered as a dignified way out for migrants whose migration project has failed in the host country. Business start-up assistance is, therefore, part of some of the member-states return and reintegration programmes.

Box 4. Programme Migrations et Initiatives Economique (PMIE), France

Business creation is an integral part of the French co-development programmes, some of which have a return-oriented focus. A innovative example is the *Programme Migrations et Initiatives Economique* (PMIE), funded by the French Ministry of Social Affairs and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and executed by the French NGO, pS-Eau. This programme assists legal and irregular migrants from Africa who wish to establish a business in France or in their country of origin in terms of training, technical assistance, and funding. As part of this programme, ps-Eau launched a scheme within which migrants are permitted to use their savings as a guarantee to obtain a loan. The loan is granted in local currency and tied to the condition that the funds are productively invested (i.e. job-generation or/and rural development). Interest rates are kept low in order to facilitate repayment (Magoni 2004: 8).

c) Facilitating Knowledge Transfer and Other Non-Financial Exchanges

The policy idea of organizing the diaspora is complementary to efforts within the home country to increase retention of scientists, engineers, and professionals. In fact, diaspora initiatives can assist these efforts. Highly skilled migrants might, and in fact do, transfer knowledge and skills back home. There are a number of mechanisms to facilitate this type of transfer:

- Professional diaspora networks and e-learning initiatives.
- Physical return: short-term consultancies (MIDA etc).

Professional diaspora networks, especially internet-based ones, have proven to be an effective means to link migrant professionals to professionals in their homeland to pool their collective knowledge and contacts**.** Members of such a network can connect with potential research or project partners and network with members of similar interests, fields of experience, and geographical regions.

Box 5. Digital Diaspora Networks

The Digital Diaspora Network Africa (DDNA), the South African Network of Skills Abroad (SANSA), and the African Foundation for Development (AFFORD) conduct networking activities to promote links with transnational communities of skilled professionals abroad – to encourage their return or circulation and for the transfer of technology for home country development. The DDNAA initiative, created by the United Nations Information and Communications Technology Task Force, promotes the resource mobilization of diaspora entrepreneurs. The SANSA exclusively targets South Africa's expatriate graduates in medicine, education, and engineering, particularly those in Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The AFFORD connects UK-based African organizations with African civil society organizations (ILO 2005:46).

Most interactions within these networks are between professionals. This means that those who are not within the professional realm can be left out of the knowledge transfer process. Providing virtual or distant learning opportunities through e-mail and the Internet may be one way of spreading the benefits of professional diaspora networks more widely.

Box 6. E-learning: a New Option for Skills Transfer

The "Migration for Development in Africa" (MIDA) programme of the International Organization for Migration launched its pilot initiative in distance learning. The project facilitates the virtual transfer of skills, using ICT to reach a wider audience than possible in the traditional higher education setting. Approximately, 700 second-year PhD. students have so far benefited from this project funded by the Belgian Government (IOM World Migration: 2005:293).

IOM's MIDA programmes have also been closely associated with another type of knowledge transfer: knowledge and skills transfer through short-term, on-time, repeated visits or consultancies.

MIDA is a demand-driven institutional capacity building programme that is independently implemented in a number of European countries, such as Italy, Belgium, and the Netherlands. It targets African professionals, entrepreneurs, and experts in the diaspora willing and able to contribute their skills, finances, and other resources to the development efforts of their countries of origin. It is based on the notion of mobility of people and resources and as such offers options for reinvestment of human capital, including temporary, long-term, or virtual return. Approaches are tailed to meet the needs of the origin country, without jeopardizing migrants' legal status in their host countries or newly adopted home countries (IOM MIDA Strategy).

In 2003, for instance, an Italian MIDA was launched in order to define a strategy for resource mobilization (technical, financial, human) among African nationals residing in

Italy. Information on community/individual skills, investment capacities, and plans to support their communities of origin have been collected and registered in a database. The project addresses, in particular, those migrants who are willing to set up micro-enterprises and job-creating activities in their areas of origin; at the same time, it entails some research on alternative mechanisms money/remittance transfer from diasporas to their respective countries (CeSPI 2006).

d) Circular Migration and Return

The MIDA programme might be seen as a new generation of “return” programmes. Instead of focusing on permanent return, this programme seeks to promote circular migration. This emphasis on circularity is in line with a broader shift in patterns of mobility: the increase of temporary migration.

Temporary migration is commonly regarded as offering new development opportunities for the country of origin. There is some evidence that temporary migrants remit more money to their home country than permanent migrants. Similarly, skill transfer may be facilitated if there is repeat migration between host and home countries. Generally, temporary migrants are less likely to sever their ties to the home country and, therefore, more prepared to invest in their country’s development.

Recognizing the potential benefits of temporary migration, the most recent communication by the European Commission encourages European Member States to facilitate this type of migration by removing some potential barriers to return, such as forfeiting the possibility of re-entry and the loss of social security benefits.

Another obstacle to return may lie in the mismatch of demand and supply. A frequent issue in the recruitment of foreign labour is the difficulty to obtain reliable information about the skill level of migrants and the particular requirements of the job. Lack of appropriate information often results in inefficient use of human resources. Migrant workers, for instance, may work in jobs below their skill level and thus undergo a process of deskilling. On the other hand, they may also acquire skills at a job in the host country for which there is little demand in the home country. In either case, circular migration or/and a productive return is impeded. A number of European Member States have therefore sought to remove some of the uncertainties regarding the value of skills of migrants and the specific requirements of the job by improving the flow of information between prospective employers and migrant workers.

Box 7. The IMIS Project – Labour Migration from Egypt to Italy

The IMIS (Integrated Migration Information System) is a two-pronged project designed on the one hand to facilitate the legal migration and insertion of Egyptian migrants in receiving countries and to improve their social standing in these countries, and on the other to channel the resulting human and financial resources back into Egypt's development. The project was jointly implemented by IOM and the Italian† and Egyptian governments between 2001 and 2004, and was expected to benefit potential migrants, foreign entrepreneurs and the Egyptian Diaspora (individuals and organizations).

IMIS is a technical match-making tool: its website provides information on job opportunities abroad and at the same time creates a virtual portal for Egyptian migrants, providing services to Egyptian job-seekers and to employers abroad. IMIS operates on the concept of supply and demand – foreign companies/employers seeking specific employees' profiles may consult the website roster and, after identifying potential candidates, may contact the MME*. It is then the MME's responsibility to validate the job-seekers' profiles and provide support to the foreign employers. The latter can then use the MME service to short-list candidates, and then either appoint a local recruitment agency or directly select employees. It should be pointed out, however, that the IMIS system does not create a binding relationship between the employer and the potential candidate, as foreign employers reserve the right to choose employees according to their recruitment needs.

For the potential Egyptian migrant, IMIS provides practical and comprehensive information regarding the (mostly west European) destination countries, gathered together in an information module called *Masriat*. Currently, *Masriat* contains information on Austria, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Ireland, Malta, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the USA. The portal for Egyptians abroad is a tool provided to the Egyptian government to strengthen relationships between the home country and the Egyptian Diaspora. This will also involve closer cooperation between the MME and Egyptian NGOs abroad and other structures supporting Egyptian migrants.

† Italian Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Italian Ministry of Welfare
**The Emigration and Egyptians Abroad Sector of the Ministry of Manpower and Emigration (MME).*

Permanent return programmes are still a salient feature of the migration policies of European Member States. Although "reintegration assistance" has been offered to migrants since the 1980s, it has expanded in scope and changed in kind, sometimes reflecting greater awareness of the beneficial effects of return for development. Some European countries, for instance, now grant social and economic reintegration assistance not only to legal but also to illegal migrants.

Box 8. The "Alnima Project": Return Assistance for Illegal Migrants

The Italian "Alnima" project is an innovative example of reintegration assistance to irregular migrants. The project, promoted by the European Commission within the budgetary line B7/667 and co-financed by the Piemonte region, assists the return of Moroccan and Albanian prisoners and Nigerian trafficking victims. In particular, migrants who are completing a period of detention in Italy will receive six-month training in prison (chosen on the basis of a local labour market assessment carried out previously), while in the countries of origin, they will receive a subsidy for completing in-firm traineeships or further profession training. Micro-credit will be granted to selected returnees who are willing to set up their own business (CeSPI 2006).

Reinsertion in the home labour market plays a crucial role in making the return of migrants sustainable and productive. Job training is therefore an essential component of reintegration assistance. However, some return programmes deliver job training in a novel manner. While job-training is most often offered in the host country, some initiatives consider the possibility of supporting training in the sending country.

For instance, between 1992 and 1997, the German government developed a reintegration programme for Bulgaria, Poland, and Romania, to encourage the return of former asylum-seekers. These were designed to provide vocational training for the establishment of small enterprises, not only for returning refugees but also for the local population. Two vocational colleges providing training in engineering and information technology were established in rural districts in Poland. They have, since 1994, been handed over to the Polish authorities who have continued to manage them successfully (IOM, Return 2004: 158).

Relocating parts of the training in sending countries can have a multiplier effect: it may strengthen existing or help to create new training infrastructure while ensuring that the training of return migrants reflects the needs of the home labour market.

e) Improving Remittance Transfer and Facilitating Contributions of Remittances to Home Country Development

High transfer costs and, more generally, the conditions under which they are sent, are often obstacles to higher remittance flows. With respect to remittances, most receiving states are non-interventionist or have had little engagement to date, but this is changing with the growing appreciation of the significance of remittances for development. The European debate on remittances has particularly focused on two sets of policy interventions:

- Making transfers cheaper, faster, and safer.
- Enhancing their development impact in recipient countries.

Fostering cheap, fast and secure ways to send remittances

One way in which the remittance transfer can be made less bureaucratic and cost-effective is to increase competition within the money transfer market. A relatively simple but potentially forceful measure to increase competition is to make the information on costs and other conditions – including the exchange rates used – that apply to each remittance channel more widely available to the public. Increasing transparency of the remittance market will enable potential remitters to make better informed choices. A number of European states have taken active steps to improve transparency in the remittance market.

Box 9. 'Sending Money Home: A Survey of Remittance Products and Services in the United Kingdom'

This is a report commissioned by DFID for the purpose of addressing the lack of information and transparency in the remittance marketplace. According to DFID, better information on remittance services should not only help migrants choose the service that best meets their needs, but would also promote healthy competition between money transfer providers, thus reducing costs and improving services for remittance senders. The survey provides baseline information on the products, costs, experiences, motivations to remit, and decision-making processes involved in sending small amounts of money from the UK to six targeted developing countries: Bangladesh, China, Ghana, India, Kenya, and Nigeria. Information on how long it takes money to get home, expected fees, coverage in the UK and the receiving country, and even the opening times of the surveyed providers can be accessed through a website. An outreach campaign is also planned with the printing and dissemination of leaflets with information on money transfers in four languages. http://www.sendmoneyhome.org

Another area of concern is to improve access to banking and financial services for migrants. The US facilitation of banking for both regular and irregular migrants from Mexico and Guatemala through the "matricular consular" mechanism has proven to be highly successful in drawing more migrants into safer and cheaper formal remittance modes (GEP 2006). There does not appear to be any other country offering this facility to mgiratns access banks at this stage, although banks and other financial institutions in Europe have gradually discovered migrants as potential customers. Several Spanish banks have taken significant steps to attract migrants; for example, by opening off-hours banking facilities and hiring employees from the main migrant communities (EU 2005)**.**

Encouraging cooperation on infrastructure and competition in service provision is another way to improve remittance transfer (GEP 2006:147). There have been some attempts to set-up shared networks in remittance-source countries. For example, the Banco Solidario of Ecuador joined forces with a number of Spanish banks to capture a share of the Spanish remittances market and offers an innovative range of services to migrants. As part of the 2002 agreement, anybody can transfer remittances from any one of the alliance branches. Senders do not need to be members of the banks to send money and payments can be received at any one Banco Solidario branch (Johnson and Sedaca, 2005: 10).

Improving the development impact of remittances

In migrant-sending countries, insufficient access of the rural population and the poor to banking services often remains a critical issue, as banking networks rarely extend beyond large cities. Solutions include partnerships between "mainstream" banks and those networks that are present in rural areas (i.e. micro-finance institutions or post offices).

Box 10. Improving access to remittances: The Union Postal Union-Eurogiro partnership

The Union Postal Union (UPU) and Eurogiro have recently joined forces to create a network for transmission of tele-money orders, which will greatly assist migrant workers in transferring remittances and reducing costs. This programme began with approximately 30 postal administrations, in both industrialized and developing countries, using UPU's electronic data interchange to send money-order data, and with nearly 50 post offices and banks using Eurogiro for cash and account transfer. The tele-money order enables post offices and potentially banks using either system to transfer funds electronically. As it expands, it will widely extend the reach of this service across the world and will be particularly valuable for migrant workers and their countries of origin (see ILO: 46).

f) Towards Policy Coherence

There is a growing awareness of development issues in the formulation and implementation of migration policy, especially at the local and regional levels. In Europe, local and regional governments have been active in initiating a range of projects directly addressing the migration and development nexus. These projects are often carried out in partnership with diaspora organizations and local counterparts in the sending countries, in the context of de-centralized cooperation.

Some of the incentives to initiate these projects may also be set by the central government. In France, for instance, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs supports migrant initiatives to invest in their country of origin or to allow their home countries to benefit from their skills, know-how, and network of contacts acquired in the host country. A number of projects are being carried out in four pilot countries: Senegal, Mali, Morocco, and the Comoros, in cooperation with several French NGOs, local French communities, and migrant associations. The French government co-finances local community projects; at least 15 per cent of the project costs should be covered by a migrant association and, subject to certain conditions, up to 70 per cent can be provided by the government. Decisions regarding the financing of these projects are made in bipartite committees, which include representatives of the home and host countries (IOM 2005 Mainstreaming).

In order to create synergies between migration and development, some governments also solicit the views of migrants at the policy formulation stage. For instance, the UK consulted Sierra Leonean and Indian diasporas to develop its country assistance plans for Sierra Leone and India. Since 2000, the French government has been working closely with the Forum des organizations de solidarité internationale issue des migrations (Forum of International Solidarity Organization on Migration), which represents migrant associations and provides consultations to the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Policy incoherence can have grave consequences for the development of the sending country. An active recruitment of health workers, for instance, can seriously undermine the efforts of the development cooperation policy to build up capacities in this sector in the home country. In order to avoid such inconsistencies, the UK Department of Health, for instance, prohibits the active recruitment in those parts of India that are major recipients of aid from DFID.

Some governments in Europe have therefore recognized the need for broad intra-governmental coherence between migration and development policy. The Government of the Netherlands, for instance, has brought together the Ministry of Development Cooperation and the Ministry of Immigration and Integration – in consultation with other stakeholders – to explore the various connections between migration and development, with the aim of identifying ways in which the two policy areas can be mutually reinforcing (Netherlands House of Representatives, 2004).

Conclusion

This brief note has described some of the recent initiatives which have been taken by some EU countries to enhance the potentially positive contributions of migration for development. There is a need for a much more detailed and comprehensive overview of policy and practice in this area in order to be able to assess what works and what doesn't work. This will require better data and indicators of the impact of migration policies on development.

Note:
Non-DAC countries are countries which are not members of the OECD's Development Assistance Committee (DAC). Members of the DAC are: Australia, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, European Commission, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Luxemburg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom, United States.

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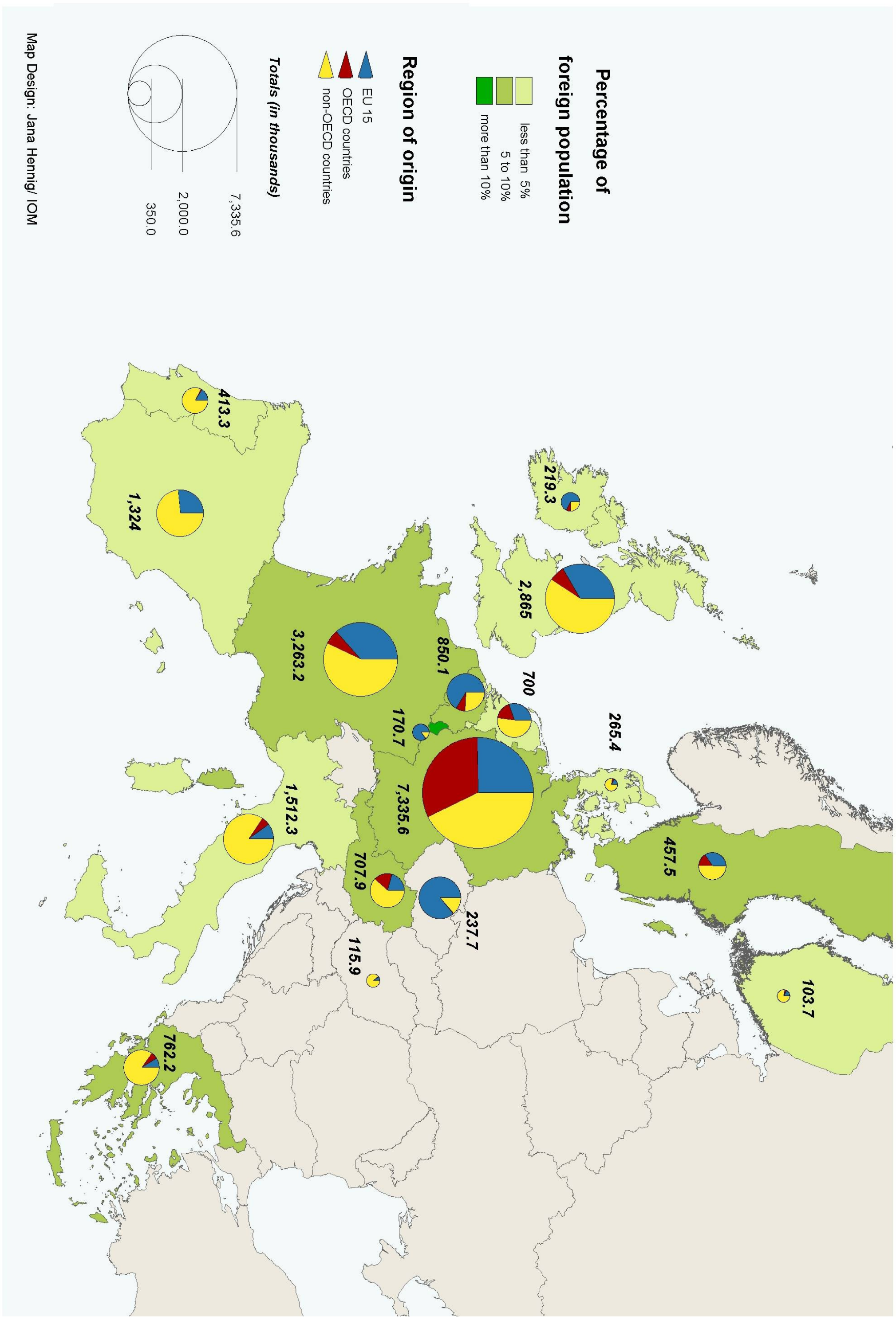
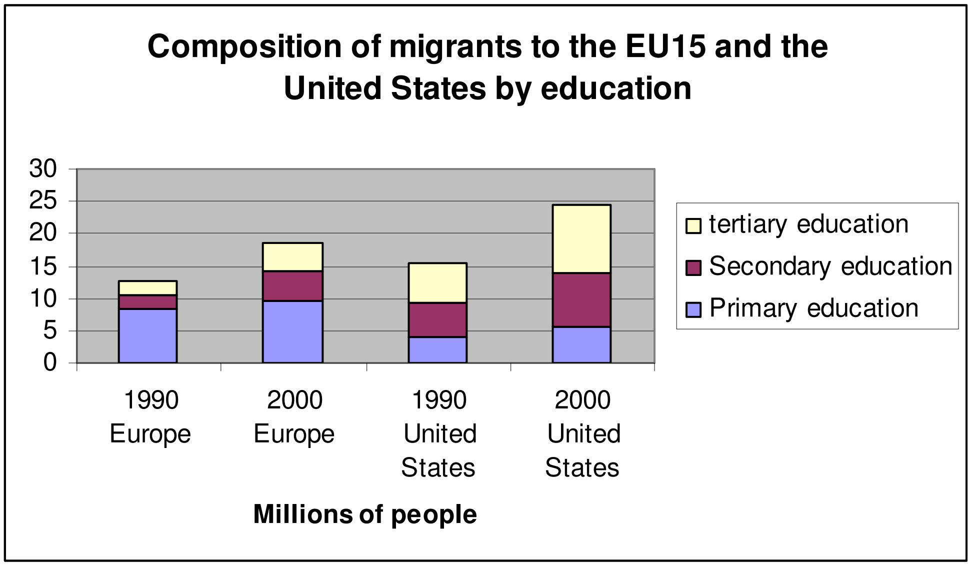
ANNEX:

Map 1: Percentage of Foreign Population Europe:



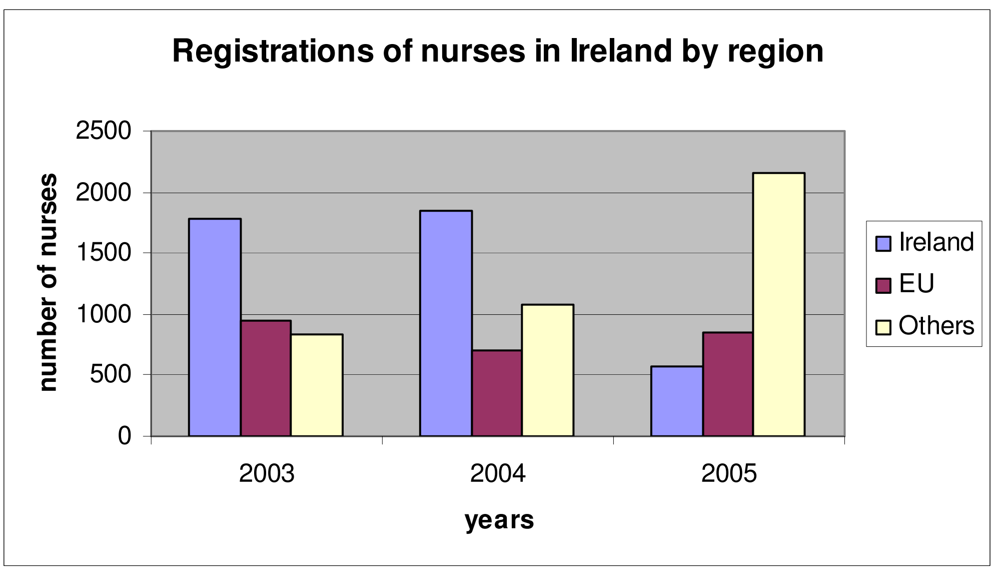
Source: OECD/SOPEMI 2004

Figure 1:



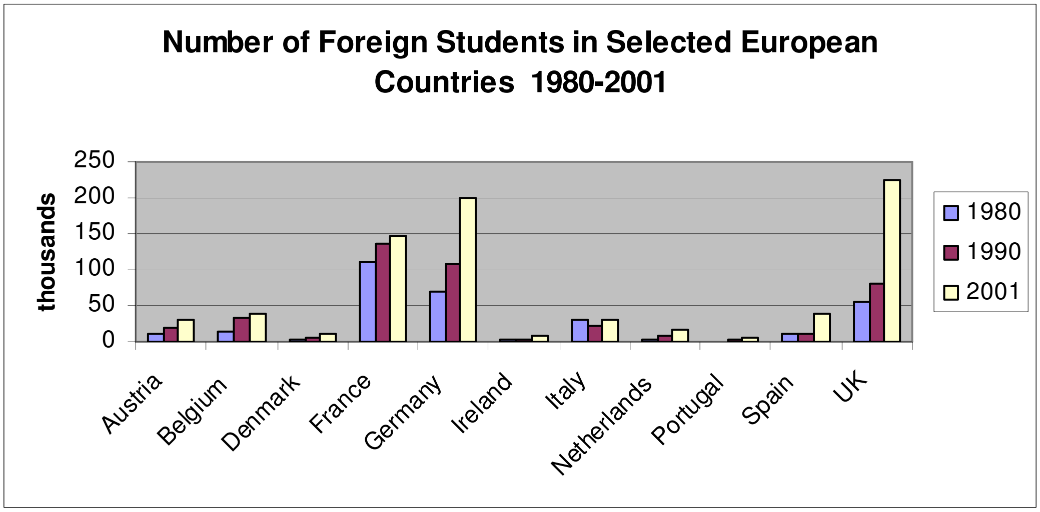
Source: Ozden, C., Educated migrants: is there brain waste? in International migration, remittances and the brain drain, World Bank, 2006, p. 236.

Figure 2:



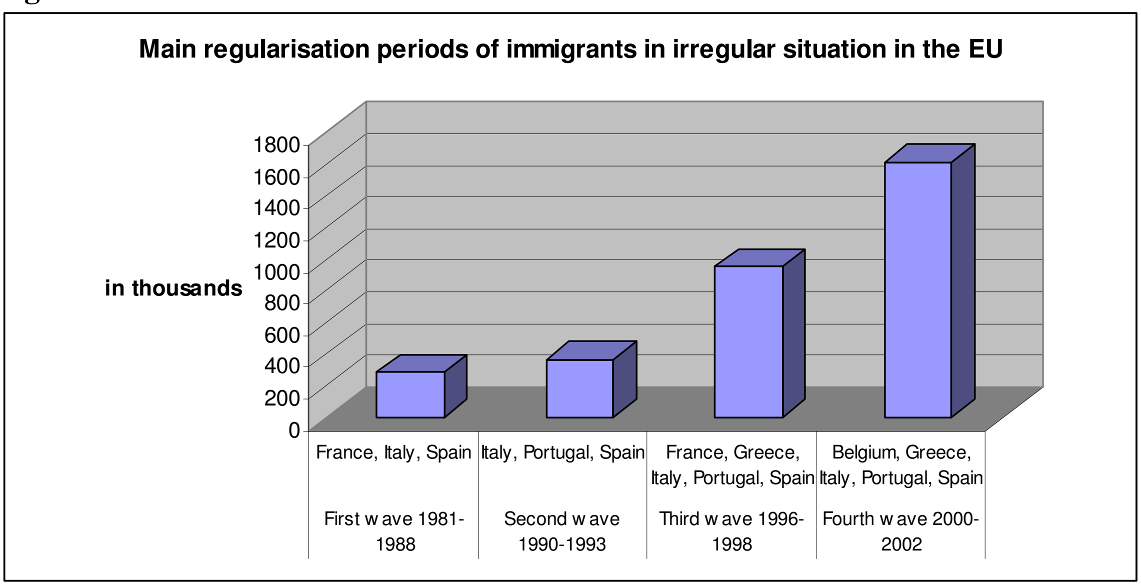
Source: An Bord Altranais Annual Reports, Ireland, www.nursingboard.ie

Figure 3:



Source: Data from Table 4.9, Tertiary level foreign students in selected OECD countries, 1980-2001, Lucas, R. E.B, International Migration and Economic Development, EGDI, p. 130

Figure 4



Source: OECD, 2004

Table 1. Top eleven remittances source countries

Top eleven remittances source countries 2004 (in $millions)		
1	US	25, 542
2	Saudi Arabia	14,916
3	Germany	3,766
4	Spain	3,282
5	France	2,987
6	Switzerland	2,661
7	Malaysia	2,643
8	Kuwait	2,144
9	Bahrain, Kingdom of	1,340
10	Italy	1,331
11	Russia	1,306

Source: IMF, Balance of Payments, 2004