Measuring well-governed migration
The 2016 Migration Governance Index

A study by The Economist Intelligence Unit
About this report

This document contains the methodology and key findings of a policy-benchmarking framework that assesses country-specific migration governance policies and institutions. The analysis and content of this report cover the period from October 2015 to February 2016. The research programme was undertaken by The Economist Intelligence Unit (The EIU) and supported financially by the International Organization for Migration (IOM). The views and opinions expressed in this publication are those of The EIU and do not necessarily reflect the official position of the IOM.

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About The Economist Intelligence Unit

The Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU) is the research arm of The Economist Group, publisher of The Economist. As the world’s leading provider of country intelligence, it helps governments, institutions and businesses by providing timely, reliable and impartial analysis of economic and development strategies. Through its Public Policy, Economics and Politics Consulting practice, the EIU provides evidence-based research for policymakers and stakeholders seeking measurable outcomes in fields ranging from gender and finance to energy and technology. It conducts research through interviews, regulatory analysis, quantitative modelling and forecasting, and displays the results via interactive data visualisation tools. Through a global network of more than 350 analysts and contributors, the EIU continuously assesses and forecasts political, economic and business conditions in over 200 countries. For more information, visit www.eiu.com.

About the International Organization for Migration

Established in 1951, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) is the leading intergovernmental organisation in the field of migration and is committed to the principle that humane and orderly migration benefits migrants and society. The IOM works with its partners in the international community to assist in meeting the growing operational challenges of migration, advance understanding of migration issues, encourage social and economic development through migration and uphold the well-being and human rights of migrants.

More people are on the move today than at any other time in recorded history—approximately one billion people, accounting for a seventh of humanity. A variety of elements—not least the information and communications revolutions—contribute to the movement of people on such a large scale. The forces driving migration as a priority issue include climate change, natural and man-made catastrophes, conflict, the demographic trends of an ageing industrialised population, an exponentially expanding jobless youth population in the developing world, and widening north–south social and economic disparities.

As a consequence of this large-scale movement of people, the IOM continues to grow. It currently has 162 member states, with a further nine states holding observer status, along with numerous international and non-governmental organisations. The number of field locations has increased...
from 119 in 1998 to more than 400 in 2015. The number of operational staff has also increased from approximately 1,100 in 1998 to more than 9,000 today, with more than 95% of staff members based in the field and a ratio of 1:8 international versus national staff.

IOM activities include work on migration governance, migration in the 2030 Agenda, migrant human rights, migration law, migration policy, migrant health and gender, as well as providing support to emergency operations, such as displacement tracking, camp co-ordination and camp management, and the migration crisis operational framework.
Acknowledgements

We are grateful to the International Organization for Migration for funding this work. As part of the research process for this project, in-depth interviews were conducted with policymakers and migration experts from multilateral and consulting institutions. We would like to express our thanks to all of the experts for their advice and input.

The core research team included Leo Abruzzese (project director), Stefano Scuratti (engagement manager), Andrew Viteritti (advisor), Norah Alajaji (analyst), and Lisa Teubner (analyst).

The following researchers, country analysts and specialists also contributed to this study and we thank them for their support: Diane Alarcon, Kim Andreasson, Adam Robert Green, Tom Felix Joehnk, Tamar Koosed, Jaekwon Lim, Alessandro Mulieri, Tatiana Savva, William Shallcross and Deen Sharp.

The expert panel that gathered in London to discuss the analytical framework included: Steffen Angenendt, Tara Brian, Marta Foresti, Andrew Geddes, Marc Helbling, Frank Laczko, Lars Johan Lönnback, Claire Melamed, Pietro Mona, Ann Singleton, and Astrid Ziebarth. The expert panel meeting was funded by the Swiss Government and we would like to extend our gratitude to them.

We would also like to thank Frank Laczko, Lars Johan Lönnback, David Martineau, Marzia Rango and Susanne Melde for their comments on the report and overall input into the research programme.
# Table of Contents

About this report .......................... 1
Acknowledgements ......................... 4
Executive summary ......................... 6
The research programme ................. 10

- Migration governance and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 10
- Existing analytical frameworks on migration policy 10
- Definitions of migration governance 12
- Developing a migration governance framework 13
  - The research process 13
  - Country selection and analytical framework 13
- Migration governance metrics: new efforts, key challenges and opportunities for the future 16

Thematic analysis ......................... 19

- Domain one: institutional capacity 20
- Domain two: migrant rights 23
- Domain three: safe and orderly migration 25
- Domain four: labour migration management 27
- Domain five: regional and international co-operation and partnerships 29

Conclusion ................................ 31

Annex I: Country summaries ............ 32

  - Bahrain 32
  - Bangladesh 34
  - Canada 36
  - Costa Rica 38
  - Germany 39
  - Ghana 41
  - Italy 42
  - Mexico 44
  - Moldova 46
  - Morocco 48
  - The Philippines 50
  - South Africa 52
  - South Korea 54
  - Sweden 56
  - Turkey 58

Annex II: Analytical framework ........ 60

  - Institutional capacity 60
  - Migrant rights 64
  - Safe and orderly migration 66
  - Labour migration management 69
Executive summary

We live in an era of unprecedented human mobility, in which over 244m international migrants worldwide are searching for economic opportunity, peace and security.

Well-governed migration brings profound benefits to both “receiving” and “sending” countries. Receiving countries get productive workers who fill key gaps in the labour market and help their demographic profiles. Sending countries receive billions of dollars in remittances from their overseas workers, attract investment from affluent members of their diaspora, and leverage the benefits of “circular migration” when returning emigrants bring back their skills, expertise, contacts and personal wealth.

Conversely, poorly managed migration can lead to harm, danger and insecurity. It can encourage migrant smuggling and human trafficking, as well as social unrest, xenophobia and discrimination—as observed amid Europe’s ongoing “migration crisis”. It can also create missed opportunities when receiving and sending countries are blocked from harnessing the development gains available through mobility.

Effective migration governance has always been essential to promoting the benefits of migration while reducing its costs. However, the need for coherent, multidimensional and strategic approaches to migration management is now more urgent than ever. On September 25th 2015, the United Nations General Assembly adopted 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and 169 accompanying targets as part of a global agenda to promote sustainable development over the next 15 years. The programme includes important references to human mobility and represent a historic step towards incorporating migration into mainstream global development policy. Target 10.7 of the SDGs features migration most prominently, motivating countries to “facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies.” Migration also plays a key role in a variety of other targets, including those concerning education (Goal 4), gender equality (Goal 5), employment and decent work (Goal 8), reducing inequality (Goal 10), peaceful and inclusive societies (Goal 16), and global partnership (Goal 17).

The SDGs clearly communicate migration’s potential to serve as an effective and multifaceted engine for development. However, this potential cannot be unlocked without constructing deliberate and intelligently designed migration governance structures. It is equally important to develop
dedicated tools for measuring progress. If migration governance gives countries the momentum to achieve the migration-related SDGs, strong measurement tools provide these efforts with direction.

The Migration Governance Index (MGI) was born out of an appreciation for these connections between development, migration, governance and metrics. Commissioned by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and designed by The Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU), the project aims to provide a consolidated framework for evaluating country-specific migration governance structures, and to act as a potential source for informing implementation of the migration-related SDGs. The MGI looks at 15 countries—selected to provide a broad representation of levels of economic development, type of migration profile (including receiving and sending countries), and geographic scope—and uses 73 qualitative questions to measure performance across five domains identified as the building blocks of effective migration governance. These domains include: 1) institutional capacity, 2) migrant rights, 3) safe and orderly migration, 4) labour migration management, and 5) regional and international co-operation and other partnerships.

It is important to clarify the parameters of the MGI. Firstly, the MGI is not intended to function as a measurement of outcomes related to migration policies and institutions. Instead, it operates as an input-based benchmarking framework that offers insights on policy levers that countries can action to strengthen migration governance. Secondly, the MGI is not meant to rank countries on their development and implementation of migration policies. Such a purpose would be controversial and ultimately unproductive, given that countries face diverse (and often unique) contexts concerning migration. Rather, the project aims to assist countries in assessing how comprehensive their policies are, what gaps exist and what areas may need improvement. Finally, the MGI is not a rigid tool, and its model and findings are not set in stone. It is better understood as a point of departure—a pilot project aimed at advancing conversations on migration governance by taking a definitive step towards clarifying what “good governance” can actually mean.

As more countries become part of the MGI, greater political, economic and geographic diversity will facilitate more nuanced cross-country comparisons, allowing the tool to function as a repository for a broader array of “good practice” case studies and institutional design and policy ideas. The MGI will become a valuable resource through which policy responses to the full spectrum of migration dynamics can be gathered, measured and assessed, providing a foundation for a global research effort that helps countries benchmark their migration governance systems, learn lessons from their peers, and adapt promising strategies to suit their unique circumstances. This exercise and its findings will also inform the development of metrics for Target 10.7 of the SDGs and provide a foundation for tracking policy progress over time.

**Key findings**

The MGI process has generated insights into common trends and contrastive differences across the 15 studied countries. Measuring policies in terms of how comprehensive and coherent they are reveals a range of behaviours, strategies and approaches used by a diverse set of countries to manage migration. This, in turn, provides ideas and identifies good practices to help MGI countries benchmark their performance, and to help other countries in similar circumstances.
Several key findings emerged from this exercise, including the following:

**Comprehensive migration policy depends on both institutional coherence and policy “connectivity”.** Across the domains measured, comprehensive governance depended on collaboration between institutions and connectivity between migration and broader policy objectives. At the institutional level, a comprehensive migration policy relies, in part, on the work of a “lead” institution mandated to take charge of the issue and co-ordinate across departments. Migration affects many public services, from healthcare and education to policing and labour, and countries benefit from a proactive agency that forges collaboration and co-ordination across government. Countries with the best performing migration governance frameworks had this characteristic in common. At the policy level, “connectivity” means that migration-related policy is not pursued in isolation; instead, it is pursued holistically, in tandem with many other policy domains. Migrant-sending countries, for instance, can leverage their overseas migrants through diaspora outreach programmes, ensuring migration supports wider development objectives. Migrant-receiving countries, meanwhile, can use labour market audits and “critical skills lists” to guide their migration frameworks, ensuring migration contributes to national development goals.

**Transparency is an essential marker of a comprehensive migration policy.** Countries with the most advanced migration governance frameworks share a common trait: transparency. This is evident across the spectrum of the “migrant journey,” including: clear information for potential immigrants about laws, regulations, visas and opportunities; publicly available data about migrant flows, migrant

### Table 1: Key findings¹

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Institutional capacity</th>
<th>Migrant rights</th>
<th>Safe and orderly migration</th>
<th>Labour migration management</th>
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¹ Countries are categorised based on their performance in the benchmarking framework as nascent, emerging, developed and mature. For a full explanation please see section “Developing a migration governance framework”
deaths and human trafficking; robust information-sharing systems between government departments; integrated programmes to aid repatriation of migrants; and structured information exchange and dialogue with other countries. Such transparency ensures migration flows are orderly, safe and productive.

**From regional consultative processes (RCPs) to bilateral migration agreements and international conventions, national collaboration is more important than ever.** As an inherently cross-border issue, migration necessitates collaboration between the governments of different countries. International conventions on migrant rights, regional migration forums and bilateral agreements on issues such as work visa programmes or repatriation are some of the key mechanisms for international collaboration. All countries in the MGI are involved in RCPs, many have signed international conventions on migrant-relevant rights, and many have bilateral agreements with migration partners. However, as the European migrant crisis demonstrates, there is room for greater collaboration between nations when dealing with rapidly evolving migration dynamics.
The research programme

Migration governance and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Migration’s inclusion in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) highlights its growing importance in the international development agenda. Target 10.7 of the SDGs establishes as a key objective the need to “facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies.” Whilst this is the centrepiece of the post-2015 development framework as far as migration is concerned, the multiple dimensions of migration mean that the topic is also included in other SDGs:

- Goal 4 – Education : Indicator 4.b on scholarships
- Goal 5 – Gender equality : Indicator 5.2 on trafficking of women and girls
- Goal 8 – Employment and decent work : Indicator 8.7 on ending modern slavery
  : including trafficking : Indicator 8.8 on migrant worker rights
- Goal 10 – Reducing inequality : Indicator 10.c on migrant remittances
- Goal 16 – Peaceful and inclusive societies : Indicator 16.2 on trafficking of children
- Goal 17 – Global partnership : Indicator 17.18 on data disaggregation (by migration status)

The themes identified in the SDG framework highlight that migration is a complex, cross-disciplinary and multifaceted issue. This calls for a structured approach to migration policy analysis that effectively conceptualises migration governance and identifies clear, measurable indicators to assess the level of policy sophistication.

Existing analytical frameworks on migration policy

Due to their importance, migration policy metrics have been the focus of a number of studies. These studies offer a range of metrics, from full analytical frameworks to benchmarking tools focused on
specific aspects of migration management and dashboards that track key indicators and foster the development of good migration data. A non-exhaustive list of these studies is presented below.

- **Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX):** The MIPEX focuses on policies designed to integrate migrants in European Union (EU) member states, Australia, Canada, Iceland, Japan, South Korea, New Zealand, Norway, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States. Measuring “migrants’ opportunity to participate in society”, it features eight policy areas and focuses on receiving countries.

- **Commitment to Development Index:** Developed by the Center for Global Development, this index ranks openness to migration (among other indicators) for 27 countries. It compares advanced economies on “how easy they make it for people from poor [economies] to immigrate, get education or find work, and even return home with new skills and capital.”

- **The Immigration Policies in Comparison (IMPIC) project:** The aim of the IMPIC project is to create a set of quantitative indices to measure immigration policies in all countries in the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) between 1980 and 2010.

- **International Migration Policy and Law Analysis (IMPALA) Database:** IMPALA is an ongoing cross-national, cross-institutional, cross-disciplinary project on comparative immigration policy. The database, which is intended to enable both qualitative and quantitative research across a range of disciplines, aims to improve existing databases on policy and capture trends in immigration selection policy, naturalisation policy, irregular immigration policy and bilateral agreements across 20 OECD countries (mostly receiving countries).

- **Determinants of International Migration (DEMIG) database:** The DEMIG project targets migration flows, policy and visa information. It aims to capture migration policy and flow developments from the 1950s through to the present day.

The MGI makes a unique contribution to the conversation on migration policy metrics because it differs from these existing studies in a number of ways. Firstly, while existing studies tend to focus narrowly on one or a few migration policy domains (e.g. the MIPEX looks exclusively at immigrant integration policies), the MGI attempts to measure migration policies in a holistic manner. The framework assesses institutions, regulations and operational structures that inform the quality of migration governance across the board, focusing on a number of key input factors that can determine migration outcomes. While this means that the MGI is unable to go into the same level of detail as narrower studies, its broad focus gives policymakers a 360-degree overview of important areas where national policies can be improved, providing the foundation for more in-depth analysis.

Secondly, the MGI stands apart from other studies in its inclusion of metrics that are specifically relevant for both sending and receiving countries. Countries face different challenges when they send or receive migrants, and the pillars of good migration governance vary in importance depending on which role is played. For sending countries, good migration governance includes the introduction of remittance schemes, bilateral labour agreements and additional initiatives to leverage diaspora populations. For receiving countries, good migration governance typically includes protecting migrant rights, supporting migrants’ integration into society and managing the flow of migrants. We believe
that good migration governance should account for the challenges and responsibilities of both of these roles, which are neither static nor mutually exclusive. Historically migrant-sending countries may have sophisticated emigration policies, but can find themselves unprepared when local economic development makes them attractive destinations for migrants from poorer neighbouring countries. Similarly, disasters or other crises can spontaneously cause mass migration, transforming net receiving countries into net sending countries, or vice versa. Such examples underline the importance of developing migration policies across a comprehensive set of domains, so that countries are equipped to respond effectively to the shifting realities of international mobility.

Lastly, the MGI has been designed to capture migration governance structures in countries with different degrees of socioeconomic development. The pilot country sample includes ten emerging economies and five advanced economies from five regions, and the assessment method has been calibrated to account for institutional differences that typically emerge as a consequence of this diversity.

Definitions of migration governance

Migration governance is a complex concept involving a wide range of actors, including individuals, governmental and non-governmental organisations, and the private sector. For this reason, there is considerable debate amongst academics and reputable research institutions about how best to define migration governance. A commonly referenced definition is provided by Betts (2011), who applies a general definition of global governance to migration: “global governance includes a range of norms, rules, principles, decision-making procedures that exist over and above the level of a single nation-state.” Kunz, Lavenex and Panizzon (2011), meanwhile, present an alternative definition that focuses on the existence of multiple actors: “migration governance explores the emerging concept of ‘migration partnerships’ in the political management and governance of international migration flows. The partnership approach to migration seeks to balance the responsibility and benefits of migration more evenly between source, transit and destination countries.” Other research institutions and multilateral bodies have also contributed to this debate, and a non-exhaustive list of definitions is provided below.

- **United Nations General Assembly**: “[Migration governance refers to] the migration policies and programmes of individual countries, inter-state discussions and agreements, multilateral forums and consultative processes, the activities of international organisations, as well as relevant laws and norms.”

- **Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights**: “International governance of migration can be understood as a process in which the combined framework of legal norms and organisational structures regulate and shape how states act in response to international migration, addressing rights and responsibilities and promoting international cooperation.”

- **Migration Policy Institute**: “The creation of a more or less formal set of norms and rules to regulate the behaviour of states with respect to the movement of people across borders and to begin taking concrete actions in pursuit of a shared agenda of safe, secure, legal, and orderly migration.”
**United Nations Research Institute for Social Development:** “Migration governance relates to all possible governance levels and actors (state and non-state) involved in the process of negotiation, implementation, enforcement and monitoring of regulations.”

For the purposes of this research, two elements of these definitions are of particular importance. Firstly, effective migration governance involves a variety of actors across multiple levels, and platforms that facilitate interaction among governmental institutions, the private sector, multilaterals and non-governmental organisations are essential to ensuring positive outcomes. For this reason, our analytical framework is not limited to regulations; rather, it takes institutions across different sectors into account and evaluates the effectiveness of existing mechanisms for multi-stakeholder coordination. Clear examples of this include the role of the private sector in labour migration flow management and the involvement of multiple actors in diaspora networks.

Secondly, while the MGI uses a broad definition of migration (which accounts for all types of migrants), the framework focuses primarily on labour migration, building on the assumption that the desire to improve one’s economic conditions remains a primary driver of international mobility. This is particularly clear in the domains on migrants’ rights and labour migration management, which have a clear focus on access to basic services and labour markets. Nonetheless, specific indicators pertaining to the humanitarian aspects of migration are present in the framework, touching on issues such as trafficking, family reunification, and the existence of structures to manage mass-inflows.
Developing a migration governance framework

The research process

The development of the MGI followed a multi-step process. After conducting secondary research on existing migration policy assessment frameworks and key conceptual issues, The EIU developed a draft analytical framework to benchmark migration governance. In July 2015, a panel of technical experts met in London to attend a day-long workshop to refine this framework. The panel agreed on the five domains that constitute the backbone of the MGI, as well as the key indicators for each domain. These insights were incorporated into the development of a full scoring model (see Annex II), inclusive of 73 qualitative sub-indicators and a full evaluation methodology.

Table 2: The research process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preliminary research and draft indicators</th>
<th>Expert panel</th>
<th>Development of scoring analytical framework</th>
<th>Country research into migration governance</th>
<th>Model finalisation</th>
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<tr>
<td>We conducted extensive research into key issues related to migration governance and existing scoring models and developed a draft analytical framework.</td>
<td>In July 2015, in collaboration with the IOM, The EIU hosted in London a panel of 14 international migration experts to refine the framework.</td>
<td>The EIU consulting team implemented the panel’s input into a refined analytical framework, inclusive of 73 qualitative sub-indicators and a scoring methodology.</td>
<td>Our team of country analysts and researchers conducted in-depth research into country-specific migration policy and strategy.</td>
<td>We produced an interactive model in Excel, allowing users to compare countries, deep dive into individual countries or indicators, and build customised analytical profiles.</td>
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EIU analysts and researchers conducted extensive research on country-specific migration governance structures and produced qualitative scorecards to inform the evaluations. This research was modelled through an interactive workbook, allowing for country comparisons and identifying the good practices, trends and insights contained in the thematic analysis section of this report.

Country selection and analytical framework

The MGI includes 15 countries that provide a broad representation of economic development, type of migration profile (including sending and receiving countries), and geographic scope. These countries were selected in conjunction with the IOM in order to maximise the opportunity to test the framework across a variety of institutions and government types, and to assess the validity of the framework as a suitable tool for a global cross-country comparison.

Table 3: Country selection

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<td>Turkey</td>
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The MGI evaluates these countries across the following five domains, which have been identified as building blocks for effective migration governance.

- **Institutional capacity**: This domain assesses countries’ institutional frameworks, the existence of migration strategies, the existence of inward and outward migration governance legislation, and data availability and transparency.

- **Migrant rights**: This domain assesses countries’ structures to ensure access to basic social services for migrants, family rights, the right to work, and long-term residency and paths to citizenship.

- **Safe and orderly migration**: This domain assesses countries’ border control and enforcement mechanisms, measures to combat human trafficking and smuggling, and re-integration policies.

- **Labour migration management**: This domain assesses countries’ policies for managing labour migration, skills and qualification recognition schemes, student migration regulation, bilateral labour agreements and remittance schemes.

- **Regional and international co-operation and other partnerships**: This domain assesses the regional and international dimension of migration through an analysis of international conventions, treaties and laws, regional consultative processes, and bilateral agreements.

These domains are measured through 23 indicators, which in turn are measured through 73 sub-indicators. All sub-indicators are qualitative and are scored through a rigorous process, mostly through binary scoring questions.

**Table 4: The MGI framework**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Institutional capacity</th>
<th>2. Migrant rights</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Institutional framework</td>
<td>2.1 Access to basic social services and social security</td>
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<td>1.2 Migration strategy</td>
<td>2.2 Family rights</td>
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<td>1.3 Legal framework</td>
<td>2.3 Right to work</td>
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<td>1.4 Institutional transparency and coherence</td>
<td>2.4 Long term residency and path to citizenship</td>
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<td>1.5 Data gathering and information availability</td>
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<th>3. Safe and orderly migration</th>
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<td>3.1 Border control and enforcement</td>
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<td>3.2 Admission and eligibility criteria</td>
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<td>3.3 Re-intergration policies</td>
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<td>3.4 Measures to combat human trafficking and smuggling</td>
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<th>4. Labour migration management</th>
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<tr>
<td>4.1 Labour migration management</td>
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<td>4.2 Skills and qualification recognition schemes</td>
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<td>4.3 Student migration regulation</td>
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<td>4.4 Bilateral labour Agreements</td>
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<td>4.5 Migrant Remittances</td>
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<th>5. Regional and international cooperation and other partnerships</th>
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<td>5.1 Signature and ratification of international conventions</td>
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<td>5.2 Regional cooperation</td>
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<td>5.3 Bilateral agreements</td>
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<td>5.4 Global cooperation</td>
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<td>5.5 Other partnerships</td>
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\(^2\) Bandings are based on a scale of 0-10 where 10 is best. Nascent: 0-2.49; Emerging: 2.5-4.99; Developed: 5-7.49; Mature: 7.5-10.
The framework operates on an aggregation structure with neutral weights (i.e. all domains are considered equally important in assessing a country’s overall migration policy governance structures). Within each domain, all indicators—as well as the sub-indicators that determine them—have equal weight. Results are presented through bandings that quantify the overall institutional development level, ranging from nascent to emerging, developed and mature².

Table 5: Example: Sweden’s domain-level performance

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<tr>
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<th>Nascent</th>
<th>Emerging</th>
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<tr>
<td>1: Institutional capacity</td>
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<td>2: Migrant rights</td>
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<td>3: Safe and orderly migration</td>
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<td>4: Labour migration management</td>
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Results are presented in relative terms, allowing for an analysis of the relative positioning of specific countries. This visualisation is possible at all levels, including domains, indicators and sub-indicators.

Migration governance metrics: new efforts, key challenges and opportunities for the future

Global development policy was recast following the adoption of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) at the UN General Assembly in September 2015, which included the issue of migration in mainstream development policy. The SDGs acknowledge migration as a significant driver of development, and facilitating “safe and orderly migration” through “well-managed migration policies” was inserted into one of the SDGs’ hallmark goals: to “decrease inequalities within and between countries” by 2030. Implementing comprehensive and multifaceted migration policies requires the development of equally robust and nuanced tools for monitoring policy implementation. In early 2016, the international statistical community, led by the United Nations at the UN Statistical Commission (UNSC), endorsed a basic statistical indicator to capture progress in relation to “well-managed migration policies”, which will provide a unique evidence base for its deliberations on course adjustments. The meta-data underpinning this indicator has the same point of departure as the MGI in terms of defining the fundamental policy realms.

Motivated by this need to create a broader consensus around these issues, the IOM convened a panel of experts in February 2016 to discuss different approaches for measuring progress on Target 10.7 of the SDGs. Held at the United Nations Headquarters in New York as part of the IOM’s annual policy forum (the International Dialogue on Migration), the panel contributed to a larger conversation on implementing the migration-related SDGs by exploring new and innovative resources for measuring “good migration governance”. The Economist Intelligence Unit was among the panellists and presented the methodology and findings of the MGI. Other panellists included representatives from the IOM’s Global Migration Data Analysis Centre, research firm Gallup, and United Nations Global Pulse.

The IOM’s new Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (GMDAC), based in Berlin, is at the forefront of its work to advance the development of migration governance metrics. Established in September
2015 at the invitation of the German government, the GMDAC aims to improve the collection, distribution and analysis of migration data, with the understanding that effective migration policies require informed migration policymaking. One of the GMDAC’s three objectives is to contribute to the monitoring of migration-related SDG targets, and initiatives like the SAFE Migration Project (funded by the UK’s Department for International Development) work towards identifying the requisite components of well-managed migration. Other IOM initiatives include a project with the Economic Community of West African States to enhance data collection and analysis for the purpose of facilitating data harmonization and sharing across the 15 ECOWAS countries plus Mauritania. This project is being conducted in collaboration with the EU, the International Labour Organisation and the International Centre for Migration Policy Development. The IOM is also participating in the development of the forthcoming Migration and Development Data Handbook by the Global Migration Group—a guide for policymakers and practitioners on innovative migration measurement practices and their impacts on development.

Gallup is working with the IOM on a proposed “Migrant Lives Matter” project, which aims to leverage the resources available through the Gallup World Poll to develop a global framework for measuring migrant outcomes in key regions across core SDG themes. The project builds on previous joint Gallup/IOM initiatives, including the How the World Views Migration 2015 study and the World Migration Report 2013: Migrant Well-Being and Development. Since 2006, the Gallup World Poll has surveyed more than 140 countries annually, representing over 98% of the world’s adult population. The survey features over 100 global questions and additional items specific to regions.

UN Global Pulse has made considerable strides in using so-called big data to guide sustainable development. Big data allows real-time monitoring of what people say and do. In the context of migration, this can support more precise measurements of attitudes toward migrants, migrant perceptions of opportunities and challenges, reporting on relevant events or conditions, and migrant movements and spending patterns (among others). In 2014, for example, UN Global Pulse and its partners used anonymised mobile phone records from Telefonica Mexico to track displacement patterns during severe flooding in 2009 in the Mexican state of Tabasco. The project demonstrated that mobile phone data can help to generate indicators to improve crisis management. Similarly, in a study conducted in 2014 with the UN Population Fund, UN Global Pulse used worldwide Google search data to see whether digital search information could be used as a proxy statistic for migration to a given destination country. Using Australia as a case study, the project found correlations between search queries (e.g. “jobs in Melbourne”) and official migration statistics (e.g. migrant inflows to Melbourne).

All of these efforts (including the MGI) represent an important contribution towards overcoming the persistent data inadequacies that hinder effective migration policy reform. However, substantial obstacles remain. Firstly, many countries still lack the capacity to generate accurate, detailed and updated migration measurements. More effort is needed to improve internal capacities where possible, or to provide external monitoring assistance if necessary. Secondly, the landscape for developing comprehensive, global and multidimensional tools for measuring migration governance remains relatively empty. While projects like the MGI (and the others mentioned above) mark a clear step in a positive direction, more work is needed to enhance the sophistication of existing frameworks, enlarge datasets and facilitate scale-up. Finally, as the nexus between migration and development becomes clearer, additional measurements will be needed to monitor the diverse ways in which migration and development affect one another. This will require the creation of more disaggregated metrics to ensure that all of these impacts are fully captured.

None of these required changes will happen overnight, nor will they be achieved easily. However,
migration’s inclusion in the SDGs marks the start of a promising new chapter, placing a high premium on the improvement of data resources. By giving migration a formal presence in the international development agenda, the SDGs encourage policymakers to consider migration and data within the same context—as necessary collaborators for development that require decisive and immediate action.
The overall findings of the MGI highlight that migration governance structures are present to a degree in all the countries analysed. Their level of sophistication, however, varies. These top-level assessments are discussed in detail in the following sections, which identify key trends specific to each domain. A number of good practices and areas for improvement are identified, providing indications of the types of interventions that are required to improve migration governance structures at the national and international level.

### Table 6: Key findings

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<tr>
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<th>Institutional capacity</th>
<th>Migrant rights</th>
<th>Safe and orderly migration</th>
<th>Labour migration management</th>
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Domain one: institutional capacity

Institutional capacity is the foundation upon which migration policy is built. When assessing a country’s institutional capacity, key considerations include the presence of agencies and public bodies, transparent laws and regulations, policy coherence across departments and synergies between migration strategies and broader socioeconomic development.

Institutional capacity requires a dedicated “lead” agency.

Migration governance involves many parts of government. Labour agencies might focus on registering regular migrants and writing “key skills” lists, for instance, while law enforcement bodies deal with irregular migration or human trafficking. Schooling of migrant children may fall under an education ministry’s mandate, while migrant access to healthcare involves the health ministry. With so many stakeholders involved, determining how to manage policy co-ordination in an effective way is a key challenge.

All countries in the MGI have dedicated government entities focused on migration policy; some countries have a single lead agency, while others spread migration policy across several actors. Countries that favour single agency-led approaches include: Germany, where migration policy is the responsibility of the Federal Ministry of the Interior (BMI); Canada, where migration policy is the responsibility of Citizenship and Immigration Canada; and Morocco, where migration policy is the responsibility of the Ministry for Moroccans Residing Abroad and Migration Affairs. Countries that distribute migration policy across several actors include: Costa Rica, which has an inter-ministerial body consisting of the Ministries of Labour and Social Security, Public Security, Agriculture, and Foreign Affairs, among others; the Philippines, where responsibility for migration policy is shared by the Bureau of Immigration (which manages incoming migrants) and the Commission for Overseas Filipinos (which supports the emigrant workforce); and Ghana, which has three agencies dedicated to migration policymaking, all of which are housed within the Ministry of the Interior.

It is worth noting that a country’s institutional structure does appear to influence its MGI score. Of the six nations categorised as “mature”, three adopt a lead-agency approach (Germany, South Korea and Turkey), while the Philippines has one migration body that actively takes the lead in inter-departmental work.

Migrant-sending countries link migration to development through diaspora outreach and circular migration programmes.

Migrant-sending countries in this study link migration to development by leveraging the skills and assets of their overseas citizens. For instance, the Philippines (which has a sizeable diaspora population) has been particularly active in leveraging the economic development benefits of migration beyond the conventional remittances channel. The Philippine Development Plan (2011–16) has 60 provisions on migration and development, and notable programmes include the Diaspora to Development (D2D) initiative (which encourages circular migration) and the government-run Return and Reintegration Program (which provides incentives for emigrants to return). Ghana has also been strengthening ties with its diaspora to encourage investment in the country and entice (through salary
improvements) its large cohort of emigrant health professionals to return, while Turkey established the Presidency for Turks Abroad and Relative Communities in 2010 to improve communications with diaspora groups.

**Migrant-receiving economies link migration to economic development through labour market audits and “critical skills lists”**.

For migrant-receiving countries, forging links between inward migration and economic development requires governments to attract workers who can fill identified labour and skill gaps in the workforce. Canada, Germany and South Korea all make proactive efforts to leverage migration for economic development. Canada’s federal government works with the provinces to identify labour shortages and uses a related points system to govern inflows, while Germany’s Federal Employment Agency publishes lists of in-demand occupational groups and informs qualified foreign professionals about career prospects in Germany through the Make it in Germany programme. South Korea sets worker quotas each year based on labour market demand, and the 2013–17 immigration plan (implemented by 17 agencies) includes measures to ease visa access for academics and professionals, upgrade foreign workers’ skills and attract more “investor” immigrants. South Africa has also created a national skills list and an accompanying 2030 National Development Plan\(^3\) that advocates for more migrants with critical skills.

**A majority of countries seek to increase the transparency and coherence of migration policy across government structures.**

For the “institutional transparency and coherence” indicator, all but two countries in the MGI were categorised as “developed” or “mature”. This suggests a high level of engagement in fostering policy coherence across different domains, achieved through specialised inter-departmental committees. In South Korea, for example, the high-level Immigration Policy Commission (chaired by the prime minister) seeks to provide policy coherence across government, while South Africa’s inter-ministerial committee (launched in 2015 following a president’s directive) explores the consequences of its migration legislation. Coherence can also be achieved through national plans that actively specify the roles that different government bodies should play, such as Ghana’s 2014 National Migration Policy,\(^4\) which outlines the responsibilities of over 20 government agencies in delivering migration policy. Alternatively, a single agency can work proactively with a wider group of stakeholders to identify issues and improve practices in order to achieve greater coherence.

**Transparency can be pursued at every stage of the migration process.**

Countries with transparent migration governance frameworks pursue openness across the full spectrum of migration activity, from making information available to potential immigrants (e.g. about work opportunities and visa processes) through to migration policies and the collection and publication of migration data (including sensitive data on migrant deaths and human trafficking). Countries with the strongest migration governance tend to favour open access to information, clear laws and regulations, and user-friendly online resources. This includes providing clear information about different visa options and administrative requirements (as in Costa Rica), clear instructions on laws and legal processes (as in Germany) and clear information about eligibility (as in South Korea).
User-friendliness also relates to the web resources offered by a country. South Africa, the Philippines and Moldova all have simple, straightforward and user-friendly information portals on migration, which cover both laws and logistics, while steering clear of technical or complex legal language. In “mature” countries, transparency is also achieved by proactively communicating with migrant groups who may not have the information relevant to them, and by publishing migration information in multiple languages.
Domain two: migrant rights

The second indicator assesses migrants’ rights, as measured through access to social security, health services, education (primary, secondary and tertiary), family reunification rights, and rights to work, residency and citizenship. These profoundly determine a migrant’s quality of life and prospects in a new country, but they can strain public resources in the short term, for example in the context of sudden influxes of people.

Ten of the 15 MGI countries were categorised as “developed” or “mature” for their protections of migrant rights overall. The right to work and the right to long-term citizenship were most likely to be protected, while access to social services and family reunification rights—which are more complex and more costly to administer—were more constrained.

Sweden excels in migrant rights.

Sweden scored highly overall on the protection of migrant rights, due to the broad access to health and social security it offers to migrants, as well as its open labour market. Healthcare entitlements are virtually the same for Swedish citizens and regular migrants, and undocumented migrants and asylum seekers have the right to essential care that “cannot be postponed.” Sweden’s education system and its labour markets are inclusive, and, since 2008, Sweden has pursued a more flexible, demand-led labour approach, driven by employers’ recruitment needs. Temporary migrant workers can quickly change jobs and sectors if desired.

Practical, non-legal factors can constrain access to services.

In some cases, migrants are barred from accessing basic services. In other cases, they may have access to such services but not take advantage of them, either through lack of knowledge, lack of interest or other, non-legal factors. In Turkey, for instance, language barriers prevent some migrants from utilising health services that are available to them, while in Costa Rica, some migrants from Nicaragua and El Salvador who have low levels of education do not take advantage of educational opportunities once in the country, taking low-skilled jobs instead. (The government is working to provide better access for migrants, especially to secondary and tertiary education.) In Mexico, meanwhile, the costs of validating academic qualifications acquired in the country of origin to enable young migrants to attend school can be prohibitively high for less-affluent families, potentially preventing children from accessing education. This calls for a combination of better communication around available services and programmes that encourage migrants to take advantage of them.

All countries have paths to long-term residency and citizenship. Five years is the most common minimum residence period for residency or citizenship eligibility.

All countries in the MGI offer some pathway to long-term residency and citizenship for migrants, although criteria vary. Usually, applicants must have spent a specified period of time (ranging from 3 to 15 years) residing in the country to be eligible. Many countries require three to five years of residency, including Costa Rica and Morocco (three years); Mexico (four years); Canada (three to five years); and Italy, Moldova, South Korea, Ghana and Germany (five years). Other countries require longer periods of residency, including Turkey (eight years) and Bahrain (15 years). Some countries
also require periods of “uninterrupted” residence. Other criteria for residence or citizenship include having no criminal record and posing no public threat (e.g. Ghana, Turkey), or having knowledge of the language (e.g. Germany).

**Undocumented migrants can receive basic health services in most countries.**

While most countries offer regular migrants and citizens similar access to social services, managing access for undocumented migrants is more complex. Some countries offer basic health services to such groups. In Italy, for example, undocumented migrants are entitled to essential and urgent basic healthcare services, such as maternity care and healthcare for infectious diseases. Canada offers access to the health system for migrants with illnesses that may pose a public health threat, and in Costa Rica and Morocco, foreigners who are in the country irregularly can access the health system for emergency services. In other countries, rules on access to health services are at times ambiguous or unclear.
Domain three: safe and orderly migration

Migrant safety is very much in the spotlight following a marked increase in the number of migrants attempting to enter Europe across the dangerous Mediterranean crossing since 2011. The third domain explores critical questions pertaining to safe and orderly migration, including the quality and efficiency of border control, training of border staff, clarity of admission and eligibility criteria, reintegration support for migrants and measures to combat human trafficking.

The European migrant crisis is putting a heavy strain on outdated infrastructures and policies. Europe is in the midst of a migration ‘crisis’, driven by the human fallout of conflicts in Iraq, Afghanistan and Syria; continuing migration attempts from North Africa due to economic insecurity, generalised violence and human rights violations; and (to a lesser extent) conflicts in Ukraine and Georgia. Current infrastructures and policies in a number of countries, most of which were designed for a “normal” migration scenario, are buckling under the strain of these waves of migration, largely because of a lack of co-ordination across the European Union (EU).

Some MGI countries have made substantive efforts to improve the safety and orderliness of inward flows of distressed migrants. Germany, for example, has worked to protect refugees by providing temporary shelters and food. Sweden’s Migration Agency and civil society groups have also organised migrant and refugee housing, helping migrants to transition to stable living conditions and providing travel assistance to those wishing to return to their country of origin or move to another country. (Travel assistance is offered in other countries as well, including Italy and Germany.) Developing countries have also taken steps to assist distressed migrants. Turkey has increased spending on healthcare infrastructure in response to the Syrian crisis, for example, increasing the number of doctors and expanding hospitals in dedicated sites. In January, it also took a landmark step in allowing some of the roughly 2.5m Syrian refugees in the country to apply for temporary work permits. In Moldova, the government responded to increased inflows of migrants—such as those from Ukraine in 2014—by amending its social assistance laws to cover stateless persons and beneficiaries of international protection.

However, a large majority of asylum seekers in the EU lodge their claims in a small cluster of countries (primarily Germany and Sweden) also due to a lack of European co-ordination on resettlement. This lack of co-ordination puts a strain on countries with more inclusive policies, which in turn makes it challenging to house, protect and integrate the tens of thousands of migrants who seek shelter.

Responding to human trafficking requires coalitions across governments. Migrant safety, measured as human trafficking, is greatest in countries with strong systems and procedures, including dedicated agencies, national strategies and open data. All but two MGI countries have an agency or strategy to combat human trafficking. In some cases, there is a specific body tasked with combatting human trafficking, such as South Korea’s Ministry of Justice, Germany’s Federal Criminal Police Force and Ghana’s Human Trafficking Secretariat. Other specialised agencies include Mexico’s Special Prosecutor for Crimes Against Women and Trafficking in Persons, and the Philippines’ Inter-Agency Council Against Trafficking. In many cases, however, it is networks and

6 http://www.unhcr.org/569ca19c6.html
coalitions that manage human trafficking responses. Moldova has a national consultative committee that co-ordinates multiple public authorities, for example, while Costa Rica has a national coalition (consisting of 21 public institutions) to tackle human trafficking. South Africa also has a multi-sectoral task team consisting of the Departments of Justice and Constitutional Development, Home Affairs and Social Development, the police service, and civil society groups. In several countries, the issue of human trafficking has received political attention in recent years, with new anti-trafficking laws and regulations instituted in Mexico (2012), Costa Rica and South Africa (2013). Some countries have also published national anti-trafficking documents, notably Bangladesh’s National Plan of Action 2012–14 (which provides a template of activities and identifies implementing agencies) and Canada’s National Action Plan to Combat Human Trafficking (launched in 2012).

**Developing countries nurture circular migration through networking, diaspora engagement and reintegration incentives.**

Orderly migration is necessary not only when migrants arrive in a new country, but also when (and if) they decide to return home. For this reason, countries like Ghana, Morocco and the Philippines all have active systems in place to help reintegrate returning citizens. The Philippines runs a Return and Repatriation Programme, which offers loans, counselling, training and scholarships, and it has established a dedicated National Reintegration Centre that seeks to leverage the skills of returning nationals. Ghana, meanwhile, has been strengthening dialogue with emigrants through conferences such as the Homecoming Summit, expatriate surveys and embassy activities, and its 2014 National Migration Policy proposed further reintegration incentives.
Domain four: labour migration management

Labour markets are a key consideration in migration policy, for both migrant-receiving and migrant-sending countries. Host countries must consider whether migrants meet their labour-market needs. For Western countries with ageing populations, for example, migrants who are young, productive and healthy can make welcome contributions to their workforces. Migrant-sending countries, meanwhile, should assess the impact of emigration on their economies (e.g. loss of human capital).

The fourth domain measures labour migration management. In particular, it assesses whether governments connect migration to national development needs; whether there are systems in place for assessing, validating and recognising the skills and qualifications of migrants, based on their experiences within and outside the country of destination; and whether there are post-graduation labour market opportunities for migrant students.

Migrant-receiving countries perform skills audits and labour market reviews.

In migrant-receiving countries, effective labour management requires governments to ensure that migrants entering the country have the skills to support national economic goals. Countries can achieve this by auditing their national skills, identifying shortages and publishing critical skills lists (as in South Africa, Canada and South Korea), and/or creating different visas to attract different types of migrants (as in Canada, Costa Rica, South Africa and South Korea). Specific in-demand skills lists vary based on national needs, but they typically include healthcare professionals, technical professionals (such as engineers and information technology experts) and scientists.

Developing countries need to assess the effects of outward migration on their national economies.

Developing economies are generally migrant-sending countries (although in many cases, such as Mexico and Turkey, they are also destination countries with large migrant populations). While this brings benefits in the form of remittances and (later) circular migration, it can also create gaps in the national labour force. In Ghana, for instance, many healthcare professionals have migrated, resulting in a lack of healthcare professionals across the country. While developing economies are aware of brain drain or worker shortages, they do not generally carry out assessments of the impact of emigration. South Africa and Morocco engage in some reporting and analysis in this area, but the remainder of countries do not. Rigorous reviews of the effects of outward migration on the national economy would help countries to design policies and programmes that mitigate the negative impacts of outward migration whilst capitalising on its potentially positive effects. Similarly, holistic assessments that determine whether better infrastructure and regulation could limit loss of talent and encourage skilled migrants to return would bring substantial benefits.

Protecting foreign workers requires both adherence to international codes and unilateral initiatives.

Ensuring decent working conditions for migrant workers is a critical component of labour management. This can be achieved in several ways. Firstly, countries can agree to abide by the International Labour Organization’s (ILO) conventions and rules to protect migrant workers, notably
Measuring well-governed migration
The 2016 Migration Governance Index

the ILO’s Migration for Employment Convention (1949)\(^8\) and Migrant Workers Convention (1975).\(^9\) These contain provisions to uphold minimum standards and codes in support of migrant health, hygiene and working conditions, rights to collective bargaining, family reunification, and provisions clarifying the legal status of migrant workers.

Secondly, countries can undertake unilateral initiatives, such as laws guarding against discriminatory pay. Sweden’s Migration Agency, for instance, stipulates that migrants must receive a specified minimum salary, fair remuneration compared to norms in the sector and relevant insurance benefits. Similarly, South Africa’s 2014 Immigration Act specifies that any application for a work visa must include a certificate from the Department of Labour confirming that the salary and benefits are not inferior to those enjoyed by citizens or permanent residents occupying a similar position. Moldova’s migration law specifies that migrants must be protected by the same labour laws as citizens and cannot be paid less than nationals in the same job.

There are also broader provisions to uphold migrants’ rights, particularly relating to illness, injury and loss of work. Signatories to the ILO conventions, for example, cannot deport permanent migrants and their families due to illness or injury that occurred after entering the country (ILO 1949, Article 8). Countries can also pursue their own unilateral measures to deal with injury and illness. The Korean Workers’ Compensation and Welfare Service, for example, supports occupational rehabilitation expenses for injured migrant workers. Other countries have included migrant worker protections in national laws, such as Costa Rica’s human trafficking law (which supports the ethical recruitment of migrants), while the Philippines has granted constitutional protections for migrant workers.

All countries are open to international university students, and four proactively engage this demographic.

All countries offer access to education for international students, but some countries (Canada and South Korea) proactively engage this group by offering equality of access and post-graduation support to find jobs. Canada views international students as catalysts for national growth and prosperity, and in 2014, the country set a goal of doubling the number of international students by 2022, streamlining visa applications and introducing some fee waivers for international students in pursuit of this goal. Italian universities have also launched policies to attract international students (including minimum quotas), and some South Korean universities now charge foreign students lower tuition fees. Fee support and quotas help to attract international students, but in order to truly benefit from educating these students, countries need to ensure that they can contribute to the labour force once they have graduated. Allowing international students to work during study and providing visas that give students a reasonable timeframe in which to find work after they graduate are particularly helpful in this regard. Canada grants international students the right to stay and work for up to three years after graduating, while South Korea allows students to transfer their visa to residence status upon graduation.
Domain five: regional and international co-operation and partnerships

The final domain covers the regional and international dimensions of migration. Productive, safe and harmonious migration can only be achieved if there is collaboration and co-operation among all countries—those that send migrants and those that receive them. This co-operation can lead to improvements in governance by aligning and raising standards, increasing dialogue and providing structures to resolve problems. Examples of co-operation include:

i) International conventions, treaties and laws upholding standards and codes, such as for human rights and equal treatment. The International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (ICRMW), the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), the ILO Migration for Employment Convention, and the Conventions on Statelessness are critical agreements relating to migration, and the MGI reviews adherence to each among the countries.

ii) Regional consultative processes, such as the Puebla Process, the Rabat Process, the Bali Process, the Abu Dhabi Dialogue and the 5+5 Dialogue. These bring together countries that share interests and migrant corridors, such as the Gulf nations and Asia.

iii) Bilateral agreements consisting of formal and semi-formal bilateral arrangements between migrant-sending countries and migrant-receiving countries. These cover conduct and codes, including equal treatment of migrants by each country.

iv) Global co-operation, notably involvement in the GFMD. This informal, non-binding, voluntary, government-led United Nations initiative seeks to “advance understanding and cooperation on the mutually reinforcing relationship between migration and development and to foster practical and action-oriented outcomes.”

Overall, there is strong engagement in regional and international initiatives among MGI countries, with 11 out of 15 countries categorised as “mature” or “developed.” Countries most commonly engage with voluntary initiatives that do not contain binding articles, such as the GFMD. There are close regional and bilateral networks of countries with common areas of interest, but adherence to international conventions is somewhat mixed.

Regional consultative processes have high rates of government engagement.

Regional consultative processes (RCPs) on migration bring together governments, international organisations and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) for non-binding dialogue on migration issues. All MGI countries are involved in RCPs, which suggests that these are a popular form of collaboration. Although these processes are non-binding, there are RCP success stories. The Budapest Process, for example, played a role in governing migration between Western Europe and its eastern neighbours, leading to readmission agreements between Western and Eastern European countries and the adoption of a 2013 Istanbul Ministerial Declaration (“A Silk Routes Partnership for Migration”)—a far-reaching declaration involving a diverse group of stakeholders. The Asia-based Colombo Process also led to concrete steps such as amending regulation and legislation, creating new government
structures for managing migrant flows, and signing bilateral agreements between migrant-sending and migrant-receiving countries. There are also several examples of successful EU-led regional initiatives, from funding to technical assistance programmes, such as the EU–Moldova Mobility Partnership and various collaborations to bring Moldovan regulations in line with those of the EU in areas such as human trafficking.\(^{10}\)

**Bilateral relationships remain the most vital mode of co-operation.**

Migration corridors are a feature of labour mobility, as migrants tend to follow particular, well-trodden routes in order to benefit from established infrastructures and networks. As a result, while regional and global collaboration is welcome (and productive and helpful in supporting migration governance), more tangible co-operative ventures tend to happen at the bilateral level and are critical for dealing with specific migration policy issues. Examples of bilateral co-operative ventures include:

i) **Ministerial/diplomatic engagement.** This involves high-level diplomatic visits and discussions on labour-specific issues. In 2014, for example, Bangladeshi Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina travelled to the United Arab Emirates (UAE), where 700,000 Bangladeshis work, to discuss migration issues.\(^{11}\)

Countries that have particularly close migration dynamics with distant nations may also subsequently develop a direct line of diplomatic communication for discussing migration issues, as happened between Sweden and Iraq (Iraqi citizens having fled to live in the Nordic state).

ii) **Inter-governmental networks.** Discussions at the head-of-state or ministerial level can take place between several countries that share a migration corridor. The Abu Dhabi Dialogue, for example, was initiated in 2012 in an attempt to shape the practices and policies associated with contractual labour between the Gulf nations of Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, the UAE and Yemen and the 11 Asian countries that, between them, send sizeable numbers of migrants to the Gulf.

iii) **Direct bilateral labour programmes and agreements.** These can include administrative initiatives, such as visa and temporary work programmes. Canada and Mexico, for example, have a bilateral temporary worker programme, while Ghana has a bilateral migration agreement with Italy (where some Ghanaian migrants work in the agriculture sector).

iv) **Border collaboration.** The United States and Mexico consult regularly on border infrastructure, providing a notable example of border collaboration. Other countries in the MGI also pursue such initiatives, particularly Costa Rica and Panama. Bordering countries may also launch policies to support distressed migrants. South Africa, for instance, launched a 2009 amnesty for undocumented Zimbabweans who emigrated to the country.

v) **Economic or trade unions (EU, Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa [COMESA], North American Free Trade Agreement [NAFTA]) .** Countries may engage individually with neighbouring regional bodies. Morocco, Moldova and Turkey offer the most pertinent example of this, engaging in migration consultation at the EU level and participating in EU-initiated/funded migration support programmes. Alternatively, countries may be party to a regional union with labour mobility provisions and codes. Of these, the most relevant are the NAFTA (United States, Canada and Mexico); the EU (Germany, Italy and Sweden); the COMESA (South Africa); and the South Korea–China free trade deal (2015).


Conclusion

Migration is a complex and dynamic process affecting a wide range of actors, from border control agencies to universities, employers, hospitals and foreign investment agencies. At times, it can rapidly change in unpredictable ways (as in Europe today), putting pressure on existing policies and institutions. However, as history has proven, migration is a fundamental driver of human progress, and no country is unaffected. Policies and institutions are essential to capitalise on the potential of migration, and effective migration governance frameworks can make a major contribution towards protecting the welfare of migrants, the countries they travel to, and their homelands.

To support comprehensive, coherent and intelligently designed migration policies, this inaugural Migration Governance Index has attempted to measure policy in a manner that is rigorous, generates insights and (most importantly) is scalable. The MGI is the first project to measure migration governance structures across a diverse set of countries, using an input-based benchmarking framework. However, this study represents only an initial step in this project, and the MGI’s footprint will inevitably grow as its methodology becomes more nuanced and as additional countries are included in its framework. Flexibility and improvement are built into its design, which means that any country can be included in its evaluation, individual measurements can be clarified to reflect more diverse country contexts, and an iterative process can be developed to illuminate the evolution of policy trends across countries over time.

In essence, the MGI is an enabling tool that provides decision-makers with practical ideas and insights to help them to design and implement effective and comprehensive policies. As more countries become part of the MGI, greater political, economic and geographic diversity will facilitate more nuanced cross-country comparisons, allowing the tool to function as a repository for a broader array of “good practice” case studies and institutional design and policy ideas. The MGI will become a valuable resource through which policy responses to the full spectrum of migration dynamics can be gathered, measured and assessed, providing a foundation for a global research effort that helps countries benchmark their migration governance systems, learn lessons from their peers, and adapt promising strategies to suit their unique circumstances. This exercise and its findings will also inform the development of metrics for Target 10.7 of the SDGs and provide a foundation for tracking policy progress over time.
Annex I: Country summaries

Bahrain

Migration context
Bahrain—a member of the Gulf Cooperation Council—is predominantly a migrant-receiving country. Inflows rose rapidly during the 2000s as a result of an oil boom in the Arabian Peninsula, peaking in 2010.12 In 2014, Bahrain’s population was 1.3m, of which 630,000 were Bahraini citizens, according to the government-run Central Informatics Organisation.13 The migrant population is predominantly male (79%), young (with a mean age of 33), and from Asia (84%), specifically India (257,000). Filipinos are the only group made up mostly of females.

Migration governance
The Labour Market Regulation Authority (LMRA), established in 2006, regulates work permits for immigrants.14 It has a monitoring system for work visas and overstays, including a website in eight languages that sends SMS text messages, allowing workers to keep track of their visa status. Created as part of a broader labour market reform effort that aimed to increase foreign employees’ labour mobility, the LMRA also oversees the national anti-trafficking committee, working with a variety of ministries and state institutions. Although Bahrain’s outward migration flows are modest, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs provides a free service to assist Bahraini citizens abroad. Bahrain Customs is the primary border protection agency.

The Aliens (Immigration and Residence) Act of 1965 governs the entry, exit, and stay of foreigners in the country and provides the legal framework for immigration.15 Other rules that affect inward migration include past laws on citizenship (1963), social insurance (1976) and anti-trafficking (2008).16 Key recent policy milestones include a 2009 reform to the Kafalat (sponsorship) system, allowing migrant workers to change jobs without their employer’s consent after a three-month notice period. (A 2011 revision now requires migrants to work for their first employer for a full year before changing jobs). “Bahrainisation”—local employee quotas that companies are obliged to meet—has also been reduced, and a new labour law passed in 2012 offers more legal protections and contractual clarity for workers, notably domestic workers.17

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12 http://cadmus.eui.eu/bitstream/handle/1814/35882/GLMM_ExpNote_06_2015.pdf?sequence=1
16 http://cadmus.eui.eu/bitstream/handle/1814/34579/GLMM_ExpNote_01_2015.pdf?sequence=1
17 http://gulfmigration.eu/media/pubs/rp/GLMM%20Research%20new%2024-6-14.pdf
Indicator summary
A social security system provides benefits to citizens, but only long-term residents have full access to this system. There is no specific law granting or denying migrants access to government-funded healthcare. Bahrain has a subsidised public healthcare system for nationals, and immigrants can also access this service if they have a Population Registration Card, although services are not free, creating de facto limitations on access for less affluent migrants.

Education is compulsory for all students, and free education is offered to both Bahraini and non-Bahraini nationals in public schools. Bahrain allows international students access to education, but students are charged higher fees and may have to pass an entrance exam. There are no quotas for foreign students, and the government is seeking to increase the number of foreign students in the country.

Foreign nationals tend to have different employment terms and conditions (compared to nationals) and are not able to accept public-sector employment under the same conditions as nationals. In order to be self-employed, a migrant must obtain a sponsor and must be a property owner in Bahrain or a foreign investor.

Bahrain is up-skilling its border staff and has launched a new customs training institute, which provides a purpose-built, hi-tech environment, using teaching aids to deliver regular training programmes to new (and existing) customs officers.

Bahrain is somewhat active in dialogues, migration forums and regional initiatives. It is part of the Abu Dhabi Dialogue, which seeks to address migrant worker protection and reintegration. The General Directorate of National Qualifications Framework is responsible for contributing to the development of the Gulf Cooperation Council’s qualifications framework.
Bangladesh

Migration context
Bangladesh is primarily a migrant-sending country, with workers particularly concentrated in the Gulf Cooperation Council. It also attracts a small number of migrants, either in high-skilled professions (such as management in the garment sector) or in the aid and NGO sector. It also hosts some immigrants from Myanmar.

Migration governance
Bangladesh’s lead stakeholder is the Expatriate Welfare and Employment Ministry, which consists of five divisions and was formed in 2001 to ensure the welfare of expatriate workers. The Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training (BMET) is in charge of overall planning and implementation of manpower, reporting monthly on the number of workers who leave Bangladesh. The Border Guards Bangladesh is a paramilitary force in charge of border security (along the 4,100 km land border with India and Myanmar), which falls under the Home Ministry. The Special Branch of Bangladesh Police handles airport security, and the Ministry of Disaster Management and Relief handles “mass-influx” migration emergencies. Two such inflows occurred in the 1970s and 1990s, both from Myanmar.

The Overseas Employment and Migrants Act (2013) is the primary legal framework governing migration. It replaced the Migration Ordinance (1982) and seeks to uphold migrants’ rights, provide for the emergency return of migrants, and prevent fraudulent practices and enforce accountability among recruiting agencies and agents. The Foreign Employment Policy (2006)—the first of its kind in South Asia—also seeks to ensure the rights of workers in overseas employment, aiming to regularise migration movements; protect the rights, dignity and security of workers; and ensure social protection of migrants’ families.

Indicator summary
Only Bangladeshi citizens have access to government-funded health services. While Bangladesh’s statutory health system covers all citizens and provides a range of services, there is a funding constraint and some provision is private or carried out by NGOs. Many foreigners who live in Bangladesh access private healthcare in Singapore or Thailand.

In terms of education, expatriates tend to either leave their children in their home country or send them to private schools in Bangladesh. Foreign students can access tertiary education, but they pay higher fees. The number of international students is small.

To work in the public or private sector, foreign residents need a work permit. Three authorities issue these permits: the Board of Investment (for firms outside Export Processing Zones, or EPZ); the Bangladesh Export Processing Zones Authority (for employment of foreign nationals in the EPZ); and the NGO Affairs Bureau (for employment of foreign nationals in any NGO). Foreign residents have access to self-employment regardless of residence status, provided they have a work permit, but such permits are available only for jobs for which locals are not available. The ratio of expatriates to local employees cannot exceed 1:20 in the industrial sector and 1:5 in the commercial sector.
Bangladesh signed the ICRMW (1998) and the CRC (1990) and is a member of the Budapest Process, the Bali Process and the Colombo Process. It also participates in the Abu Dhabi Dialogue—a collaborative effort to address temporary labour mobility in Asia, which has 18 members, including Bangladesh’s most important overseas labour markets (Saudi Arabia, Qatar, Kuwait and the UAE). Bangladesh also has several bilateral labour agreements in place and will host the GFMD in 2016.
Canada

Migration context
Canada is largely a migrant-receiving country, attracting both skilled migrants and refugees and asylum seekers. In 2013, 20% of the population was foreign-born—one of the highest proportions in the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). The country is shifting its immigration system towards a points-based approach in order to increase the number of well-educated migrants, but it has also constructively engaged with the Syrian refugee crisis.

Migration governance
Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC) is responsible for designing migration policy—a mandate granted to it by the Department of Citizenship and Immigration Act of 1994. CIC administers acts and regulations requiring co-operation from other government agencies, and the Minister for Citizenship and Immigration Canada shares responsibility for the Immigration and Refugee Protection Act with the Minister of Public Safety. The CIC collaborates with Health Canada, Justice Canada, Public Works and Government Services Canada on migrant resettlement and support. Statistics Canada keeps data on migration, and the Canada Border Services Agency is responsible for borders. Canada has diplomatic missions in over 100 countries, and it provides an e-government portal (Service Canada) through which the government supports overseas Canadians.

The Immigration and Refugee Protection Act of 2001 regulates inward migration, and recent policy documents of note include a National Action Plan to Combat Human Trafficking (2012), a 2014 goal to double the number of international students in Canada by 2022, and a 2015–16 plan to increase the number of caregivers offered permanent resident status.

Indicator summary
Canada’s migration policy is inclusive. Most third-country nationals (including long-term residents, residents on family reunion permits and temporary workers) have access to social security benefits. All citizens and permanent residents can access public health insurance, although asylum seekers from certain countries are only eligible for healthcare for diseases that pose public health risks.

Every child in Canada (other than a child of a temporary resident not authorised to work or study) is allowed to study at the pre-school, primary and secondary level. Canada has also programmes to support equal access to university, such as international tuition waivers and vocational training.

Indeed, Canada is actively seeking international students. In 2014, it set a goal of doubling the number of international students by 2022, streamlining visa applications and giving international students the right to stay and work for up to three years after graduation (with a chance of being granted permanent residence) in pursuit of this goal.

Permanent residents, reunited family and some temporary residents have the same rights as citizens in terms of accessing the labour market, and Canadian law aims to ensure that migrant workers have decent working conditions. Migrant workers have the same rights to minimum wages and conditions as permanent residents and citizens. Canada also has settlement services including orientation, language
programmes and bridging/internship programmes. Immigrants on certain temporary visas, such as the “start-up visa”, can pursue self-employment opportunities.

Canada is among the more active countries when it comes to leveraging migration to further economic development. The federal government works with the provinces to identify labour shortages and, over the last decade, has sought to attract particular classes of skills, such as caregivers and high-performing international students. Canada’s immigration policy uses a points system.

In terms of regional and international co-operation, Canada signed the CRC (1990) and has ratified the Status of Refugees (1969) and the Conventions on Statelessness (1978). It is a member of the Puebla Process and has a statement of mutual understanding (SMU) with the United States on sharing migration information. Canada participates in the GFMD and is a member of the NAFTA, which includes regulations about labour mobility.
Costa Rica

Migration context
Costa Rica is predominantly a migrant-receiving country, although the total percentage of foreign-born residents remains low (under 9% of the population). Nicaraguans represent the largest group of foreign-born residents (75%). Costa Rica also attracts wealthy individuals and some refugees from Latin American countries, including Haiti and Cuba. Costa Rica is also an important transit country for migrants travelling to North America.

Migration governance
Following a 2010 law, the National Council on Migration is charged with designing overall migration policy, while the General Directorate on Immigration is responsible for implementing inward and outward migration policies, including offering specialised visas for professionals such as scientists, investors and athletes. The National Council on Migration is an inter-ministerial body consisting of the Ministries of Labour and Social Welfare, Public Security, Agriculture and Livestock, Foreign Affairs, the Interior and the Attorney’s Republic. Members seek to develop efficient programmes and reduce overlap. The Professional Immigration Police is a specialised police force attached to the Directorate General of Immigration.

Costa Rica has clear and transparent migration rules and regulations. The General Law on Migration is the legal framework governing inward migration and regulating the entry and exit of foreigners. Landmark laws and policy documents include the 2013 approval (by the National Council on Immigration) of the Integrated Migration Policy for Costa Rica 2013–2023, which provides a guiding framework of objectives for migration, including strategic programmes. In 2013, the government also passed a law to protect victims of human trafficking and punish perpetrators, creating a dedicated institution (the National Coalition Against Migrant Smuggling and Trafficking in Persons) to support that goal.

Indicator summary
Costa Rica scored in the “developed” or “mature” category for four out of five indicators. A 1973 law grants all residents the right to healthcare provisions under a contributory insurance scheme, but irregular immigrants do not participate in the national social security scheme (the CCSS), although they can access emergency services. All migrants can access government-funded education, and enrolment cannot be denied if a student does not have authentic documents.

Costa Rica’s labour market is open. All foreign residents have the same access to employment as nationals, although they may not always receive equal pay. The government has taken measures to remedy this, including a 2013 policy seeking to improve migrant working conditions. Foreign residents can accept any private-sector job under the same conditions as nationals, as long as they meet the requirements for the job. Most jobs in the public sector (excluding exercise of public authority) are also open to foreigners, and foreigners can be self-employed under the same conditions as nationals. Costa Rica encourages student migrants and allows foreign students equal access to education.

Costa Rica is an active participant in conventions and regional forums. It ratified the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (1978), the CRC (1990) and the Conventions on Statelessness (1977), and it is a member of the Puebla Process, founded in 1996 to provide an inter-governmental regional migration forum for the exchange of experiences and best practices.
Germany

Migration context
Germany’s advanced immigration policies make it a top destination for many migrants. More than most countries in this index, the government aligns migration with its national development goals and supports the return of immigrants to their country of origin as a central element of its migration policy. The country has invested considerable efforts in leveraging skilled immigration to meet labour needs.

Migration governance
The Federal Ministry of the Interior (BMI) directs migration policy, while the Federal Office for Migration and Refugees—an authority within the BMI—is responsible for processing asylum applications, protecting refugees, facilitating integration and promoting voluntary return. It also allocates migrants to temporary shelters, publishes quarterly figures on inward and outward migration and manages programmes that support reintegration and repatriation. The Alien Registration Authority is responsible for organising housing and food for asylum seekers, and the federal police are responsible for border security. The Federal Office of Administration helps citizens who wish to emigrate or spend an extended period of time abroad, and the Federal Foreign Office assists outward migrants through its 227 missions.

The main migration law (2004) has provisions for different types of inward migration. In 2014, Germany embraced dual nationality for second-generation-born German citizens following the 1999 citizenship reform. The Asylum Procedure Act defines the rules of Germany’s asylum and refugee policy, including a formula for the nationwide distribution of asylum seekers by state.

Indicator summary
All regular migrants have equal access to social security, but Germany has more limited healthcare entitlements for asylum seekers and undocumented migrants. All children who reside in Germany have the right to attend school, regardless of their status, but compulsory education ends at 16 in some states, and children with undocumented parents have somewhat limited access to vocational or higher education. Germany does not enforce any quotas for the number of foreign students, and the government plans to raise the number of foreign students by one-third (to 350,000) by 2020. The country is engaged in supporting students to find work after graduation. Since August 2012, foreign students have been able to extend their residence permit for up to one year for the purpose of seeking employment relevant to their field of study.

Access to the German labour market depends on resident status. Foreign residents can accept private- and public-sector employment under the same conditions as nationals if they have a residence title. The German Federal Employment Agency publishes a list of occupational groups with unmet demand for skilled labour, and the Make it in Germany programme informs qualified professionals interested in migrating to Germany about their career prospects. The Federal Ministry for Economic Affairs and Energy, in co-ordination with the Federal Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and the Federal Employment Agency, administers this programme.
Germany has been active in migration policy co-operation, signing or ratifying the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (1951), the CRC (1990), the ILO’s Migration for Employment Convention (1949), the Convention Relating to the Status of Stateless Persons (1976) and the Convention on the Reduction of Statelessness (1997). Germany also initiated the Budapest Process in 1991 and has signed bilateral labour agreements with Italy (1955), Spain and Greece (1960), Turkey (1961) and, in later years, Tunisia, Morocco, and Eastern European countries (after 1990). Germany is also a member of the European Commission’s European Migration Network (EMN).
Ghana

Migration context
A popular destination for West African migrants, Ghana’s working-age population is projected to grow at a higher rate than its natural population. However, emigration is also significant, with a sizeable number of health professionals emigrating to the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom and other OECD countries. While this provides good career prospects for emigrants and generates remittance flows to Ghana, it has also driven a low doctor–patient ratio. The country is exploring mechanisms to encourage circular migration and leverage its migrant population (for instance, through diaspora investment projects).

Migration governance
Ghana has three agencies dedicated to migration policymaking, all housed within the Ministry of the Interior. The Ghana Immigration Service (GIS) advises the ministry on immigration policy implementation, supported by the Border Patrol Unit. A Migration Unit advises on integrating migration into economic development strategy, while the Ghana Refugee Board generates refugee and asylum policies. Ghana’s agency for combatting human trafficking is part of the Ghana Police Service. In May 2014, the Diaspora Affairs Bureau was established within the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Regional Integration to provide incentives to encourage diaspora investment in Ghana.

Ghana’s primary migration legislation dates to 2000 and 2001, with focus on inward migration. The main policy document is the National Migration Policy for Ghana (NMPG), which seeks to enhance policy coherence across a range of issues including border control, refugees and asylum seekers, diaspora engagement and economic development. The NMPG also clarified the roles and responsibilities of over 20 government agencies in implementing the plan.

Indicator summary
For migrant access to social services, Ghana scored in the “developed” category. The National Health Insurance Scheme gives legally resident foreigners the same coverage as citizens, and all migrants and their families have access to social security. Ghana also signed the ILO’s Equality of Treatment Compensation Convention (1925), which requires it to provide “compensation for individual accidents to nationals of other States which have ratified the convention as they do for their own nationals.”

In terms of primary and secondary education, the Children’s Act of 1998 grants all children under the age 18 the right to education, but it does not specify whether this applies to foreign children. Foreigners with permanent resident status have the same access as citizens to college and university education. In terms of labour market access, permanent residents can accept private-sector employment, though some restrictions apply. For example, they may not operate taxis, and there are fees associated with working for a non-Ghanaian business. Ghana has made some progress in combating human trafficking, establishing an Anti-Human Trafficking Unit.

Ghana has signed the ICRMW (2000) and the CRC (1990). It is also a member of the Migration Dialogue in West Africa and the Mediterranean Transit Migration Dialogue (MTM) and a participant in the GFMD.
Italy

Migration context
Italy is largely a migrant-receiving country, although recent statistics suggest that the country’s migration profile is changing, with nearly 3m Italians now living abroad. It has experienced a large inflow of migrants from Africa and has responded by improving its migration infrastructure and policies, notably through the Mare Nostrum initiative in 2013 (co-ordinated by the Ministry of Defence) and a 2014 national migration plan.

Migration governance
Migration policy is the responsibility of various divisions. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs focuses on visas and outward migration, while the Ministry of Interior and the National Institute of Statistics report on migration. The Ministry of Interior also enacts most inward migration policy through the Department of Civil Liberty and Immigration (which also co-ordinates territorial commissions for refugee status recognition) and is responsible for border control and security. The Department of Public Security works to prevent human smuggling, and the Directorate General in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs supports Italians living abroad.

Current migration legislation is based on a 1998 law and subsequent modifications. The most notable strategy document is the July 2014 National Operative Plan, written by government and local authorities in response to high inflows of migrants from Africa. The Minister of Interior is charged with enacting this plan, which includes efforts to provide improved infrastructure (such as migrant camps) and strengthen the coherence of national migration policies.

Indicator performance
Documented migrants who enrol in the national healthcare service enjoy the same services as Italian citizens. Irregular immigrants are entitled to essential and urgent healthcare services, including maternity care and infectious disease treatment.

Both regular and irregular migrants have access to government-funded education. However, there are some practical obstacles for irregular migrants, as many Italian schools use legal residence to determine place allocation. At the tertiary level, Italy is attracting international students and has dedicated universities for these students, such as the University for Foreign Students of Perugia. There are quotas for foreign students, but these are designed to minimise discrimination against them.

Permanent residents, residents on temporary permits of more than one year and residents on family reunion permits all have the same access to labour markets as nationals. Foreign residents with long-term EU permits or one-year work permits, officially recognised refugees and people in the country under family reunion rules all have equal access to public-sector employment, excluding the exercise of public authority.

Italy is active in regional and international co-operation initiatives. It is a signatory to the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees and the CRC (1990) and has bilateral labour agreements with Mauritius, Moldavia, Albania, Sri Lanka, Morocco and Egypt. It has also discussed or signed bilateral migration negotiation agreements with Tunisia, Bangladesh, China, Colombia, Ecuador,
Ghana, India, Iran, Lebanon, Pakistan, Peru, Senegal, Syria, Turkey and Ukraine. Together with the World Bank, Italy set up the Global Remittances Working Group in 2009, and it is part of the Intergovernmental Consultations on Asylum, Refugee and Migration Policies in Europe, North America and Australia. It is also an observer and partner of the South American Conference on Migration, a member of the Regional Ministerial Conference on Migration in the Western Mediterranean, a member of the 5+5 dialogue, an observer of the Abu Dhabi Dialogue, and a participating country in the Bali Process. It is also part of the Budapest Process and the Dakar Declaration.
Measuring well-governed migration
The 2016 Migration Governance Index

Mexico

Migration context
Around 12m Mexicans—approximately 10% of the population—live abroad. Mexicans have been the largest immigrant group in the United States since 1980, and they account for 28% of the country’s 41.3m foreign-born. Migrants accessing the United States from Mexico also come from other countries in Central and Latin America, including El Salvador, Honduras and Guatemala. In 2013, there were 414,000 apprehensions at the south-west border of the United States—an increase of 27% from 2011. Mexico also receives some Central and South American migrants deported from the United States, many of whom have spent decades in the United States and require special assistance.

Migration governance
At the federal level, the Subsecretaría de Población, Migración y Asuntos Religiosos leads migration legislation. The Instituto Nacional de Migración (INM), within the Secretariat of the Interior, implements policy, supervises migration and carries out programmes, such as a repatriation initiative to help vulnerable Mexicans deported from the United States. The Secretary of Labour plays a role in aspects of the national migration plan, and the Registry for Mexican Citizens Abroad (housed within the Secretariat of Foreign Affairs) facilitates communication with citizens abroad.

The 2014 update to the national migration strategy (Programa Especial de Migración [PEM] 2014–2018) was a key policy milestone that sought to consolidate migration management, promote regional co-operation, enhance co-ordination of policy and align migration with national development strategies. The PEM was developed in consultation with the Secretariats of the Interior, Finance and Public Credit, and Social Development. Mexico also passed a law against human trafficking in 2012 (the Ley para Prevenir y Sancionar la Trata de Personas), which appointed a Special Prosecutor for Crimes of Violence Against Women and Trafficking in Persons and obliges states to align anti-trafficking legislation with national legislation.

Indicator summary
Migrants without legal status have access to basic medical services, but do not have full access to government-funded health services. Long-term residents and residents on family reunion permits have equal access to social security, as do Mexican nationals, although some migrants may not access social security rights due to lack of information. Residents on temporary work permits do not have equal access to social security.

Mexico is a signatory to conventions that guarantee education to migrants, and the government is working to build capacity to provide education to all migrant children. In reality, however, access can be limited. Children must have valid immigration papers, and fees for validating previous academic studies can decrease access for less-affluent families.

Foreign residents with a work permit can accept employment under the same conditions as nationals, and foreign students can access educational institutions and courses mostly on an equal footing with local students. However, some public institutions charge additional fees, especially at the university level, or restrict access to some courses.

21 http://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/mexican-immigrants-united-states
23 http://www.gobemacion.gob.mx/es_mx/SEGOB/Subsecretaria_de_Poblacion_Migracion_y_Auntos_Religiosos
25 http://www.pgr.gob.mx/Fiscalias/fevimtra/Paginas/default.aspx
Mexico is active in regional and international collaborative initiatives. Mexico’s closest collaboration is with the United States, most notably in the area of border co-operation. In 2010, a high-level steering committee was created to strengthen the security and efficiency of the border, and a multi-agency US–Mexico Binational Group on Bridges and Border Crossings meets three times a year to improve the efficiency of existing crossings and co-ordinate planning for new ones. At the international level, Mexico has signed the ICRMW (1991), acceded to the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (2000), and is a signatory to the CRC (1990). Mexico is also a member of the Puebla Process (the ten US and Mexican border states are active participants in these meetings) and a participant of the GFMD.
Moldova

Migration context
Over the past two decades, Moldova experienced increased emigration flows (especially among young people) representing around a quarter of the workforce, and it is estimated that between 340,000 and 1m Moldovan citizens are now working abroad. Moldova is also a destination for migrants from Russia, Ukraine, Armenia and Azerbaijan, among others, and the country is part of several EU initiatives to support migration management in Eastern Europe. The global economic crisis caused a substantial number of Moldovan nationals to return, and the government has sought to facilitate the reintegration of returning migrants by helping them to access healthcare, counselling, job-seeking services and grants.

Migration governance
Responsibility for migration policy and management is shared between the Bureau for Migration and Asylum, the Bureau for Diaspora Relations, the subdivision on Migration and Demographic Policies within the Ministry of Labour, Social Protection and Family, and the border police. The Bureau of Migration and Asylum, located within the Ministry of Internal Affairs, was created to promote state policy on migration, while the subdivision on Migration and Demographic Policies focuses on labour migration and aligning migration policies with national strategies and international best practice (including relevant conventions). Moldova also has a centre for managing and placing irregular migrants and a committee for combatting human trafficking. The Department of International Relations within the Ministry of Education is responsible for recognising foreign qualifications. The Bureau for Diaspora Relations supports Moldovan citizens abroad, and Moldova has consulates, diplomatic missions and embassies in 35 countries. The National Bureau of Statistics publishes data on migrant flows, country and purpose of destination, and gender each year, and the country has a technical group (created in 2010) to support policy coherence. Stakeholders include the Ministry of Labour, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the National Bureau of Statistics.

The primary laws governing migration date to 2008 and 2010, and Moldova also has a National Strategy on Migration and Asylum (2011–20) and an Action Plan (2011–15).

Indicator summary
Foreigners employed in Moldova, foreign citizens and stateless persons have the same access to health services as citizens if they are contributors to the Medical Fund for Obligatory Medical Assistance. As long as migrants contribute to the social security system or have refugee status, they are entitled to all social benefits offered to citizens. Migrants with resident status have access to all levels of public education, and all foreigners (regardless of status) have access to pre-school, primary and secondary education. Foreign students can also access tertiary education, although they pay a higher fee than Moldovan citizens and are not eligible for national scholarships.

Migrant access to private- and public-sector employment is equitable and without legal restrictions, with the exception of some public authority jobs. Migrant workers cannot be paid less than Moldovan
nationals and are protected against forced labour by national laws. There are some constraints on self-owned businesses: foreign residents need an investment sum of at least US$100,000 to start a business.

Moldova is active in EU-supported regional initiatives to strengthen migration management in Eastern Europe, including the Strengthening Migration Management and Cooperation on Readmission in Eastern Europe (MIGRECO) initiative, which aims to enhance co-operation between Moldova, Ukraine and Belarus. Moldova also participates in the Budapest Process and the Cross-Border Cooperation Process—a multi-stakeholder initiative (dating back to 2001) to promote dialogue on asylum and irregular migration, launched by the Swedish Migration Board, the UN Refugee Agency (UNHCR) and the International Organization for Migration (IOM). Moldova has signed the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (2002), the CRC (1996), the revised ILO Migration for Employment Convention (2005) and the Convention on Statelessness (2012).
Morocco

Migration context
Morocco is historically a migrant-sending country, with an estimated 5m nationals residing outside of the country (mostly in Europe, specifically France). However, Morocco has also become a destination country for migrants, especially those from Sub-Saharan Africa. Some of these migrants come to study (between 10,000 and 12,000 students from Sub-Saharan Africa are estimated to be studying in Morocco), while others settle in Morocco having failed to enter Europe.

Migration governance
The Ministry for Moroccans Residing Abroad and Migration Affairs (MMRE) is responsible for overall migration policy. Responsibility for enacting inward migration policy is shared across multiple agencies, including the Ministries of Interior, Labour, Justice, and Foreign Affairs and Cooperation. The National Human Rights Council (a government-funded body) is responsible for issuing reports on inward and outward migration and monitoring migrants and refugees. The Auxiliary Forces and Ministry of Interior are responsible for border security.

Landmark policy and regulatory milestones include the Diaspora Engagement Strategy (published in 2007), the creation of a Minister for Migration Affairs (2013) and the country’s first National Strategy on Immigration and Asylum (2014), which covered 11 areas (education and culture, youth and sport, health, housing, social protection, professional training, employment, migration management and combatting human trafficking, international co-operation, regulation, and governance and communication). In 2015, the government approved a new draft law against human trafficking that simplifies the processes for investigation, data collection and prosecution.

Many of these institutions are also engaged in outward initiatives, as Morocco is also a migrant-sending country. The Ministry for Moroccans Residing Abroad and Migration Affairs, in particular, has an economic investment programme that encourages investment in Morocco from the diaspora and promotes circular migration.

Indicator summary
Legally resident migrants hold a Carte Séjour (or residence permit), which allows them to enter the RAMED system—a form of medicaid. Migrants without formal status are able to receive emergency services and seek health services from civil society organisations. Pension portability benefits are available for countries that have signed an agreement with the government, and Morocco has social security agreements with Belgium (1968), Canada (1998), Denmark (1982), France (1965), Germany (1981), Libya (1993), the Netherlands (1972), Portugal (1998), Romania (1983), Spain (1979), Sweden (1980) and Tunisia (1987).

If migrants have a residency permit, they have the same status as citizens in terms of accessing government-funded education at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels. Foreign students have equal access to public higher education facilities, and many Sub-Saharan students come on scholarships granted by the Moroccan government through the Moroccan Agency of International Cooperation.
Labour market access is reasonably equitable. Foreign nationals can accept public-sector employment, and access to the private labour market is open to all, provided individuals have a legal work contract, a visa and proof of skills.

Morocco is an active signatory to conventions and international agreements. It has ratified or signed the ICRMW (1993) and the CRC (1990) and is involved in the Third Global Meeting of Chairs and Secretariats of Regional Consultative Processes on Migration, which includes the Rabat Process. Morocco has also been part of the High-Level Dialogue on International Migration and Development at the United Nations and participates in the GFMD.
The Philippines

Migration context
The Philippines is primarily a migrant-sending country, and it has a well-developed policy and institutional architecture for managing outward migration. The Philippine Development Plan 2011–2016 had 60 provisions on migration and development, discussed in seven out of nine chapters. The government wants to encourage circular migration, and to promote the country as a destination for business process outsourcing and as a retirement haven, indicating that increasing inward migration and repatriation of overseas Filipinos are core parts of its migration strategy going forward.

Migration governance
The Commission for Overseas Filipinos (CFO), founded in 1990, upholds the welfare of overseas Filipinos and has reported the number of emigrants since 1981 (including by destination, sex, age, civil status, education level and pre-emigration occupation). For inward migration, the Bureau of Immigration enforces and administers immigration laws—including admission, registration, exclusion, deportation and repatriation laws—while the Bureau of Local Employment reports data on foreign employment holders. Other relevant government agencies include the Department of Labour and Employment, the Department of Foreign Affairs, the Department of Justice and the Office of the President. The Overseas Workers Welfare Administration deals with emergency repatriations, and the Inter-Agency Council Against Trafficking is tasked with combatting human trafficking. The Philippine Coast Guard is responsible for maritime security and border control. A number of agencies promote migrant reintegration. For instance, the National Reintegration Center for OFWs (overseas Filipino workers) and the Overseas Workers Welfare Administration conduct employment programmes, providing financial literacy seminars, loans and training.

At the legal and policy level, the Philippines has a four-pronged strategy focusing on regulating, protecting, reintegrating and supporting migrant families and providing protections for workers. Inward migration is primarily regulated through the Philippine Immigration Act of 1940. Recent programmes of note include Diaspora to Development (D2D)—an initiative led by the CFO to encourage circular migration. The Commission on Filipinos Overseas also runs a Return and Reintegration Program, which provides incentives for emigrants to return.

Indicator summary
The central role of outward migration in the country’s history means that policymakers have been active on migration-related matters, and the Philippines scored highly across the board on the MGI as a result.

Most inward migrant workers are skilled and face few restrictions. Migrants have access to some services covered by the National Health Insurance Programme (NHIP, or PhilHealth), and foreigners who live and work in the Philippines have access to the state-funded social security system. (Contributing to this system is mandatory for Filipino workers under the age of 60 and expatriates.) Access to private-sector employment is independent of residency status, and there are no conditions beyond possession of an Alien Employment Permit. Refugees can also access the labour
market, provided they have the correct documentation. Foreigners are not able to accept public-sector employment under the same conditions as nationals.

The Philippines has been active in its efforts to work with its international citizens (including through its repatriation and reintegration programmes), and the Philippine Development Plan (2011–16) has 60 provisions on migration and development. Notable programmes include the Diaspora to Development (D2D) initiative, which encourages circular migration, and the government-run Return and Reintegration Program, which provides incentives for emigrants to return.

The Philippines has been an active participant in bilateral, regional and multilateral initiatives concerning migration governance. It has signed the ICRMW (1993), acceded to the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (1981), ratified the CRC (1990), signed several ILO conventions related to migration (1949, 1975, 2006 and 2009) and ratified the Convention Relating to the Status of Stateless Persons (2011). The Philippines is also part of the Colombo Process, regularly participates in bilateral consultations with receiving countries, and has signed more than 20 bilateral labour agreements concerning land-based OFWs.
South Africa

Migration context
South Africa’s immigrant population (most of whom are from the African continent) is expected to surpass 3.7m in 2016—a 68% increase from 2011. The South African government views foreign workers (especially skilled workers) as integral to economic growth, and the country is party to regional labour mobility agreements with the Southern Africa Development Community and the COMESA, which envision increased movement of workers between countries.

Migration governance
The Department of Home Affairs (DHA) manages migration and its economic development linkages. The Border Control Operational Coordinating Committee is an affiliated structure of the Justice, Crime Prevention and Security Cluster and was charged with border management in 2005. The Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET), in collaboration with the DHA, assesses labour market needs in the context of the national development strategy. Multiple agencies collaborate on combatting human trafficking, including the Departments of Justice and Constitutional Development, Home Affairs and Social Development, the National Prosecuting Authority, and the South African Police Service. For South Africans abroad, the Department of International Relations and Coordination offers a registration service, and there are over 100 institutions to assist South Africans overseas.

Key policies and laws include a 2013 human trafficking law and the national task team’s National Action Plan on human trafficking. The Immigration Regulations and its updates (2007, 2011, 2014) influence broader migration policy, the most recent of which introduced the critical skills work visa. (South Africa’s 2030 National Development Plan advocated for more migrants with critical skills.) The Draft Border Management Agency Bill, presented to Congress, provides for the establishment of a Border Management Agency to strengthen border governance.

Indicator summary
Permanent residents and refugees have equal access to social security, including unemployment benefits, old-age pensions, invalidity benefits, maternity leave, family benefits and social assistance. However, asylum seekers and temporary residents do not have equal access to these services.

All migrants have the same status as citizens when accessing government-funded education at the primary and secondary level. For higher education, only South African citizens can access loans and bursaries for public schooling. South Africa allows equal access to education for foreign students if they are financially independent.

Permanent residents and residents on some temporary permits have the same access to employment as nationals. Foreign residents may accept public-sector employment under the same conditions as nationals and permanent residents, and residents on temporary business visas can become self-employed under equal conditions. Protective legislation is also in place for foreign workers: under the 2014 Immigration Act, any application for a work visa or critical skills visa must receive a certificate from the Department of Labour confirming that the salary and benefits are not inferior to the average salary and benefits of a citizen or permanent resident occupying a similar position.
South Africa is actively aligning migration with development plans. The National Scarce Skills List identifies 100 key occupations and was produced by the Department of Higher Education and Training, the South African Government Joint Initiative for Priority Skills Acquisition, the Minister of Home Affairs, the Department of Trade and Industry and the Department of Labour. South Africa is also making efforts to enhance overall migration policy coherence. In August 2015, the president established an Inter-Ministerial Committee to look at the unintended consequences of immigration laws.

South Africa participates in some international conventions and forums. It is a signatory to the CRC and is part of the MIDSA initiative—a collaborative effort between the IOM and the Southern African Migration Project. MIDSA workshops bring together senior government officials from Southern African Development Community countries to agree on migration-related issues.
South Korea

Migration context
South Korea is an attractive destination for Asian immigrants, and the country’s ageing population stimulates domestic demand. According to the Ministry of Justice, the number of foreigners regularly living in South Korea increased from 1.4m in 2011 to 1.8m in 2014, including 1.4m long-term residents. Outgoing migration is relatively small: the number of South Koreans emigrating peaked at 46,533 in 1977 and amounted to only 7,257 in 2014.27

Migration governance
The Korea Immigration Service, under the Ministry of Justice, is responsible for planning and enforcing immigration policy, and handling border control and visa and residence affairs. The Ministry of Justice trains law enforcement personnel and combats human trafficking, while the Korean National Police Agency publishes data on counter-trafficking enforcement. The Immigration Policy Commission—which is chaired by the prime minister and includes private-sector representatives—oversees the Basic Plan for Immigration Policy and provides policy coherence. The Ministry of Unification operates a resettlement programme for North Koreans, and the Settlement Support Center for North Korean Refugees provides social integration for new arrivals. Agencies working on outward migration include the Overseas Koreans and Consular Affairs Bureau, which works with the private sector-led Overseas Koreans Foundation to foster synergistic economic opportunities. Statistics Korea compiles annual migration reports.

At the legal and policy level, the Nationality Act provides the framework for inward migration, while the Basic Plan for Immigration Policy serves as a five-year plan for immigration, supplemented by annual action plans. The Second Basic Plan for Immigration Policy sets goals to be implemented by 17 government agencies between 2013 and 2017. Under this plan, an electronic visa issuance scheme will be introduced for academics and professionals, skills-upgrade programmes will be provided for foreign workers at South Korean factories, and the existing investor immigrant programme will be expanded.

Indicator summary
South Korea has a well-developed and accessible database of migration regulations, and the Employment Permit System efficiently manages the flow of workers, chiefly from China and South-East Asia. Central and local governments are trying to attract students and investors by offering quicker visa processes, and China continues to be the biggest source of student and investor migration to South Korea.

South Korea’s universal national health insurance (National Health Insurance Corporation) gives regular residents equal access to healthcare, and enrolment in the National Pension Service is mandatory for all residents aged between 18 and 60. South Korea allows children of regular residents to receive compulsory education at six-year elementary schools and three-year middle schools (public or private) and offers educational opportunities for foreign students. Universities are expanding their international co-operation and exchange programmes, and are charging lower tuition fees for foreign students.

Permanent residents and long-term family reunification visa holders have the same access to employment as nationals, while temporary work visa holders are allowed to work in designated occupations outlined in the Employment Permit System, designated annually by the Foreign Workforce Policy Committee according to labour market demand.

South Korea is engaged in regional migration collaboration. It complies with the minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking according to the US Department of State, and has migration-related memoranda of understanding (MoUs) with 15 countries (the Philippines, Mongolia, Sri Lanka, Vietnam, Thailand, Uzbekistan, Pakistan, Indonesia, Cambodia, China, Bangladesh, Kyrgyzstan, Nepal, Myanmar and East Timor) to import workers under its Employment Permit System. South Korea is a signatory to the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees and the CRC (1991) and has ratified the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (1992) and the Convention Relating to the Status of Stateless Persons (1962). It is also a member of the Bali Process and the Inter-Governmental Asia-Pacific Consultations on Refugees, Displaced Persons and Migrants. It participates in the GFMD, has a government-run nationwide network of migrant advocacy and support organisations, and is actively involved in labour mobility discussions and programmes promoted by Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), the OECD, ASEAN+3 (which includes the ten members of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations, plus China, Japan and Korea) and the Group of Twenty (G20).
Sweden

Migration context
In the early 20th century, over 1m Swedish citizens migrated abroad, mostly to the United States. Today, the country has a population of 10 million and predominantly receives migrants. In the first ten months of 2015, Sweden received 120,000 asylum-seekers, and it has been (along with Germany) one of the main European destinations for asylum seekers and refugees from Syria, Iraq and Afghanistan. In 2014, Sweden’s population grew by over 100,000 people (a historical record), primarily as a result of migration.28 The country also attracts skilled migrants, and its critical skills list includes roles in education, engineering and healthcare.

Migration governance
The Swedish Migration Agency29 is responsible for the operational aspects of migration policy, including migrant and refugee housing, migrant transitions to stable living, and travel assistance for those wishing to return to their country of origin or move to another country. The government publishes migration policy online (along with proposed budgets), and Statistics Sweden tracks migration data. The Swedish Ministry of Foreign Affairs is responsible for Swedish citizens abroad and collaborates with the Swedish Institute. Individual agencies (including Business Sweden) also engage the diaspora population. Sweden has 98 foreign offices (embassies, consulates and delegations).

Notable policy and legal developments include a 2008–10 plan to address prostitution,30 and a September 2014 inquiry to evaluate trafficking laws and explore how legal authorities should handle trafficking cases. More recently, policy activity has focused on the massive inflows of migrants (including rulings on how municipalities should collaborate), although it is unclear if these will become permanent policies.31

Indicator summary
Sweden offers regular migrants broad access to social services. All regular residents have access to free, government-funded healthcare, and entitlements are similar for Swedish citizens and regular migrants. Since 2013, undocumented migrants have had the same rights as asylum seekers to essential healthcare that “cannot be postponed”.32

All regular residents also have access to free, government-funded education. Immigrant pupils, regardless of status, can benefit from measures to guarantee equal access in pre-primary, compulsory and vocational education. There is equal university-level access to education for students within the EU, but fees apply for students who are not citizens of EU countries, European Economic Area countries, Nordic countries or Switzerland, and who enrol in studies at the bachelor’s degree or master’s degree level. To study in Sweden, people from outside the EU usually need a residence permit, but anyone can apply for this.

Migrants enjoy equal rights in the labour market. Prior to the 2008 labour market reform, migrant workers could only be hired if public authorities identified a labour market need, but today Sweden has a more flexible, demand-led approach, driven more by the recruitment needs of employers. Temporary migrant workers can quickly change jobs and sectors, and anyone can access self-employment as

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28 https://sweden.se/migration/#1940
29 http://www.migrationsverket.se/English/About-the-Migration-Agency.html
31 http://foreignpolicy.com/2016/02/10/the-death-of-the-most-generous-nation-on-earth-sweden-syria-refugee-europe/
32 MIPEX: http://www.mipex.eu/sweden/#/tab-health
34 http://www.migrationsverket.se/English/Private-individuals/Working-in-Sweden/Employed/Work-permit-requirements.html
long as they have a resident permit. Sweden is also active in ensuring ethical treatment of workers. According to the Swedish Migration Agency, migrant workers must be offered a salary on par with those established in Swedish collective agreements (or a salary that is customary within the occupation or industry), must have been offered a minimum salary of SEK 13,000 per month before taxes, and must have an employer who intends to provide insurance covering health, life, employment and pension when they begin to work. Sweden also has different visa application requirements for some jobs such as berry-pickers, au pairs and the highly skilled, due in part to different protections needed in these professions.

Sweden has been active in signing conventions, including the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (1951) and the CRC (1990). Sweden is a member of both the Prague and Budapest Processes.
Turkey

Migration context
In the 1960s, a sizeable number of Turkish emigrants settled in Western Europe, and the emigrant community now stretches further afield, including the Arabian Gulf, the United States, Canada and Australia. More recently, Turkey has also become a migrant destination country, with an influx of Syrian refugees since 2012, as well as migrants from Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Iran, Pakistan and the Middle East.

Migration governance
The Directorate General of Migration Management (GDMM) is responsible for developing new legislation and strategies on migration and serves as Secretariat of the Migration Policies Board, which operates under the chairmanship of the Minister of Interior. The GDMM implements migration strategies determined by the Council of Ministers, both for inward and outward migration. The Migration Policy and Projects Department publishes migration data in co-operation with the Turkish Institute of Statistics. Other government institutions responsible for inward migration include the Ministries of Justice, Foreign Affairs, EU Affairs and Labour, the Turkish Coast Guard, the national police, the Border Management Bureau and the Asylum and Migration Bureau. The Disaster and Emergency Management Authority is responsible for mass migration management, and the Gendarmerie of the Turkish Republic and the Turkish Land Forces are responsible for securing the country’s land border.

Notable policy and legal developments include Turkey’s 2005 National Action Plan and a 2013 law, which marked a significant step forward by outlining clear rules and regulations on migration and establishing the GDMM. The first National Plan to Combat Human Trafficking was completed in 2006, and the second was approved in 2009. In January 2015, Turkey also began allowing some Syrian refugees to apply for work in the country.35

Indicator summary
Turkey provides extensive health coverage to asylum seekers (similar to that granted to citizens), and asylum seekers are included within general health insurance coverage. However, not all migrants have the same status as citizens when accessing government-funded health services: short-term residents need private insurance, and undocumented migrants are not covered. Language barriers also prevent some migrants from utilising health services. In response to the large number of incoming Syrian refugees, Turkey has increased spending on healthcare infrastructure, increasing the number of doctors and expanding hospitals in dedicated sites.

Children of regular immigrants, asylum seekers and refugees are guaranteed the right to compulsory education, although not all children of asylum seekers and refugees are able to attend primary schools due to practical constraints. Foreigners are allowed to enrol in higher education institutions and receive a student residence permit. Turkey is trying to boost the number of foreign students in the country to 150,000 by 2020.35

http://www.unhcr.org/569ca19c6.html
Labour market access varies depending on status. Only non-nationals who have been working legally for a total of six years can be given permission to work for an indefinite period of time without being restricted to a certain enterprise, profession or geographical area. Turkey’s Vocational Qualifications Authority is a member of the European Qualifications Framework, and the country’s Higher Education Council recognises foreign qualifications. In response to the large number of incoming Syrian refugees, Turkey has improved access to work opportunities.

Turkey is active in responding to the safety challenges of migration, constructing an inter-agency national task force to combat human trafficking. Turkey is also engaged in migration issues at the regional and international level. It has bilateral labour agreements with Germany (1964), Australia (1967), France (1965), the Netherlands (1964), Sweden (1967) and Qatar (1986); is part of the G20 plan to facilitate remittance flows; has acceded to or ratified several international conventions and agreements, including the ICRMW (1999), Convention on the Status of Refugees (1968) and Convention on the Rights of the Child (1995); chaired the GFMD (July 2014–December 2015); and has social security agreements with 28 countries.
## Annex II: Analytical framework

### Institutional capacity

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
<th>Sub-indicators and scoring scheme</th>
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</table>
| 1.1 Institutional framework| An institutional framework is needed for a country to generate and implement policies. The existence of a well-structured, comprehensive and operational institutional framework allows a country to effectively adopt measures to address migration issues. This indicator looks at the institutional framework tasked with the design and operational implementation of inward and outward migration policies. | (a) Institutional structure  
The entities responsible for the formulation and tracking of migration policy  
Scoring:  
(a.1) Is there at least one dedicated government entity responsible for designing an overall migration policy?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat (e.g. a division within a larger ministry or agency)]  
(a.2) Is there a dedicated government agency responsible for issuing periodic (e.g. on a quarterly or annual basis) reports on inward and outward migration?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat (e.g. on an occasional basis)]  
(b) Operational structure for inward migration  
The entities responsible for the practical implementation of inward migration policy  
Scoring:  
Is there a dedicated government entity or agency responsible for enacting inward migration policy (e.g. a border agency)?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat (e.g. functions are enacted by an entity with a different primary mandate)]  
(c) Operational structure for outward migration  
The entities responsible for the practical implementation of outward migration  
Scoring:  
Is there a dedicated government entity or agency responsible for enacting outward migration policy (e.g. a “citizens abroad” agency)?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat]  
(d) Operational structure for large-scale migratory movements in terms of both contingency and long-term planning  
Scoring:  
(d.1) Are there operational structures to provide an effective response in the case of mass migrant influx situations (e.g. migrant or refugee camps, dedicated support staff, infrastructure to transition migrants to more stable living solutions)?  
[Yes / No / Yes, but they are insufficient]  
(d.2) Is urban planning in place in preparation for migratory movements caused by climate-related disasters?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat (e.g. only on paper)] |
### Institutional capacity

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Migration strategy</td>
<td>The presence of a designated migration strategy signals a country’s shift from a reactive migration policy framework to a more proactive and comprehensive framework. This indicator assesses whether there is a national migration strategy, and whether this strategy is coherent with the national economic development strategy.</td>
<td>(a) National migration strategy The foundation of the migration framework of a given country Scoring: Is there a national migration strategy defined in a programmatic document or manifesto? [Yes / No / Somewhat (e.g. the document is 5+ years old)] (b) Strategy interconnectedness The connection between the migration strategy and other sectoral strategies Scoring: Is this strategy aligned with national economic development strategies? [Yes / No (e.g. if answer to previous question was “no – national development strategy is not defined”, or if national development strategy is not aligned) / Somewhat (e.g. national economic development strategy is only vaguely defined)] (c) Diaspora engagement How governments are facilitating diaspora contributions that bring value to development efforts at home through direct and indirect investments that specifically target diasporas as development actors Scoring: Does the country have a national strategy to engage with its diaspora population? [Yes (e.g. a holistic strategy) / No / Somewhat (e.g. isolated initiatives)]</td>
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### Institutional capacity

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| **1.3 Legal framework** | A well-established and coherent migration policy addresses all aspects of migration through a sound legal and regulatory framework. This indicator assesses the presence and sophistication of an inward and outward migration policy legal framework. | (a) Policy establishment: inward migration  
Legal framework for managing inward migration  
Scoring:  
Is there a national migration law regulating inward migration?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat]  
(b) Policy establishment: framework sophistication  
Existence of specific provisions for special migrant types  
Scoring:  
Are there encompassing provisions regulating migrant groups according to reason for migration or migrant characteristics such as age and gender?  
[Some / None]  
(c) Policy establishment: outward migration  
Legal framework for managing outward migration  
Scoring:  
(c.1) Are there specific policies regarding outward migration?  
[Yes / No]  
(c.2) Are there institutions to assist nationals residing abroad (embassies or consulates)?  
[In 100+ countries / In 100<x<50 countries / In 50- countries] |
| **1.4 Institutional transparency and coherence** | Operationalising migration policies requires transparency and coherence across all relevant government entities and policies. This indicator measures the level of transparency of migration regulation and policy coherence across different domains. | (a) Transparency  
Assessing transparency to promote openness and accountability  
Scoring:  
Does the country have a clear and transparent set of rules and regulations pertaining to migration (e.g., available, easy to consult, easy to understand)?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat]  
(b) Coherence  
Assessing coherence to promote efficiency and decrease overlapping efforts  
Scoring:  
Is the country making efforts to enhance policy coherence (e.g., through inter-ministerial co-ordination bodies)?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat] |
### Measuring well-governed migration

The 2016 Migration Governance Index

Institutional capacity

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| 1.5 Data gathering and information availability | In order to ensure that migration is safe and orderly, it is important to have a better understanding of migration trends worldwide. This requires reliable data on migration, including the number of migrant deaths. This information must be made available to the wider public. | a) Migration data  
Scoring:  
Does the government collect and publish data on a regular basis (e.g. on a quarterly or annual basis) on incoming migrants’ deaths? If not, please specify in the comments whether a different organisation (e.g. an NGO) collects this information.  
[Yes / No / Somewhat]  
b) Migrant deaths  
Scoring:  
Does the country collect and publish data on a regular basis (e.g. on a quarterly or annual basis) on incoming migrants’ deaths?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat] |
## Migrant rights

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</table>
| **2.1 Access to basic social services and social security** | Access to basic social services and social safety nets is important for migrants’ well-being and their inclusion in society, particularly refugees and forced migrants. This indicator assesses the extent to which migrants can access healthcare, education, social security, equal pay, etc. in a non-discriminatory manner. | (a) Access to healthcare  
Access to health services  
Scoring:  
Do all migrants have the same status as citizens in accessing government-funded health services?  
[Yes, to all services regardless of their legal status / Yes, to all services depending on their legal status / Yes, to some services / No]  
(b) Access to education  
Access to primary, secondary and tertiary education  
Scoring:  
Do all migrants have the same status as citizens in accessing government-funded education?  
[Yes, to all three levels of education / Yes, to two out of three levels of education / Yes, to less than two out of three levels of education / No access to any levels of education]  
(c) Access to social security  
Access to unemployment benefits, old-age pension, invalidity benefits, maternity leave, family benefits, social assistance, etc. This indicator is scored through the Migration Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) framework. Categories include:  
1. Long-term residents  
2. Residents on temporary work permits (excluding seasonal permits)  
3. Residents on family reunion permits (same as sponsor)  
Scoring:  
(c1) What categories of third-country nationals (TCNs) have equal access to social security?  
[All of them / Long-term residents and residents on family reunion permits and/or certain categories of residents on temporary work permits / Only long-term residents / None]  
(c2) Can migrant workers ensure access to benefits accrued under contributory social security schemes in other countries (e.g. pension portability)?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat] |
| **2.2 Family rights** | This indicator gauges the provisions around migrants’ rights regarding family reunification. | (a) Family reunification  
Family reunification is a recognised reason for immigration in many countries if one or more family members reside there. Reunification enables the rest of the family to immigrate to that country as well.  
Scoring:  
Family reunification is possible for (please consider the status of the migrant already living in the country):  
[All types of migrants / Some types of migrants / Not regulated by migrant type] |
## Migrant rights

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| 2.3 Right to work | This indicator measures whether legal migrant workers and their families can access and change jobs in all sectors like nationals. | a) Immediate access to labour market  
This indicator is scored based on the MIPEX framework.  
Scoring:  
What categories of foreign residents have equal access to employment as nationals?  
1. Permanent residents  
2. Residents on temporary permits (excluding seasonal) within a period of ≤ 1 year  
3. Residents on family reunion permits (same as sponsor)  
[All of them / Permanent residents and residents on family reunion permits or certain categories of residents on temporary permits / Only permanent residents / None]  
(b) Access to the private sector  
This indicator is scored based on the MIPEX framework.  
Scoring:  
Are foreign residents able to accept any private-sector employment under the same conditions as nationals?  
[Yes, there are no additional restrictions beyond those based on the type of permit mentioned in (a) / No, other limiting conditions apply to foreign residents (e.g. linguistic testing) / No, certain sectors and activities are solely for nationals]  
(c) Access to the public sector  
This indicator is scored based on the MIPEX framework.  
Scoring:  
Are foreign residents able to accept any public-sector employment under the same conditions as nationals (excluding exercise of public authority—e.g. police, defence, heads of units or divisions—but not excluding civil servants and permanent staff)?  
[Yes, the only restriction concerns exercise of public authority and safeguarding general state interests / No, there are other restrictions (please specify) / No, only for nationals]  
(d) Immediate access to self-employment  
This indicator is scored based on the MIPEX framework.  
Scoring:  
What categories of foreign residents have equal access to self-employment as nationals?  
1. Permanent residents  
2. Residents on temporary permits (excluding seasonal permits) within a period of ≤ 1 year  
3. Residents on family reunion permits (same as sponsor)  
[All of them / Permanent residents and residents on family reunion permits or certain categories of residents on temporary permits / Only permanent residents / None]  
(e) Access to self-employment  
This indicator is scored based on the MIPEX framework.  
Scoring:  
Are foreign residents able to take up self-employed activity under the same conditions as nationals?  
[Yes, there are no additional restrictions beyond those based on the type of permit mentioned in (a) / No, other limiting conditions apply to foreign residents, e.g. linguistic testing (please specify) / No, certain sectors and activities are solely for nationals (please specify)]
### Migrant rights

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<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
<th>Sub-indicators and scoring scheme</th>
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</thead>
</table>
| 2.4 Long-term residency and path to citizenship | This indicator measures the possibility of non-national migrants acquiring residency and citizenship. | (a) Permanent residency access  
Migrant access to permanent residency  
Scoring:  
Are temporary legal residents entitled to apply for an indefinite residence permit?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat]  
(b) Access to nationality  
Can migrants become nationals?  
Scoring: [Yes / No] |

### Safe and orderly migration

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<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
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</table>
| 3.1 Border control and enforcement | Border agencies— notably customs, border police and immigration services—are primarily responsible for the processing of people and goods at points of entry and exit, and for the detection and regulation of people and goods attempting to cross borders illegally. This indicator assesses whether there are mechanisms for gathering information on migrants, whether there is a body tasked with border control and security, and whether that body is effectively trained. | (a) Border monitoring  
A clear understanding of irregular migration offers a basis for devising appropriate response strategies.  
Scoring:  
Does the country have a system to monitor visa overstays?  
[Yes / No / Partially]  
(b) Border security  
Scoring:  
Is there a dedicated body tasked with integrated border control and security?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat]  
(c) Border control staff training  
Border control staff training is essential to adequately handling migrant entry.  
Scoring:  
Are border staff specifically and regularly trained (think of specific training, as well as languages and cultural aspects)?  
[Yes / No / Partially (e.g. training is a one-off)] |
# Safe and orderly migration

<table>
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</table>
| 3.2 Admission and eligibility criteria | Having clear admission and eligibility criteria allows for clarity and enables migrants to comply with the law. This indicator measures whether admission and eligibility criteria are clear and accessible to potential migrants, and whether pre-departure planning is possible. | (a) Visa policy clarity  
Clear and encompassing information is essential to enabling legal migration.  
Scoring:  
Does the government have a website clearly outlining visa options?  
[Yes / No / Partially (e.g. there is a website but it is unclear)]  
(b) Visa processing efficiency  
Awarding visas prior to arrival enables migrants to gain clarity and information on their status.  
Scoring:  
Is there a formal system for applying for specific visa types prior to arrival?  
[Yes, a fully online process / Yes, a mixed online and paper system / Yes, a paper-based process / Somewhat / No, visas can only be obtained on arrival] |
| 3.3 Reintegration policies | Reintegration is an essential part of return migration, as it empowers and protects returnees by providing them with the necessary tools and assistance for their reinsertion into the society of their country of origin, while generally contributing to the sustainability of return. This indicator measures the existence of active reintegration policies, either for nationals residing abroad or for residing migrants who want to return to their home country. | (a) Reintegration policies for returning citizens  
Active reintegration policies encourage the return of citizens who emigrated, facilitating circular migration.  
Scoring:  
Is there a formal governmental programme or dedicated policy focused on attracting citizens who migrated from the country of origin (e.g. tax breaks)?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat]  
(b) Return and reintegration assistance policies for immigrants returning to their countries of origin  
Policies to support immigrants wishing to return to their home countries  
Scoring:  
Is there a formal governmental programme that focuses on facilitating migrant reintegration in the home country?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat (e.g. a non-holistic, limited set of initiatives)] |
Measuring well-governed migration
The 2016 Migration Governance Index

## Safe and orderly migration

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<tr>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>Measures to combat human trafficking and smuggling</td>
<td>Eradicating modern-day slavery (which may include forced labour, human trafficking or smuggling) is a key priority in ensuring that migration is safe and orderly. This indicator measures a country's compliance with international safety regulations and Sustainable Development Goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a) National strategy to combat human trafficking</td>
<td>Scoring:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(a.1) Does the country have an agency or strategy to combat human trafficking?</td>
<td>[Yes / No]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(a.2) Does the country regularly (e.g. on a quarterly or annual basis) publish information about its counter-trafficking activities?</td>
<td>[Yes / No / Somewhat (e.g. occasional reporting)]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(a.3) How does the country fare on the US State Department’s annual Trafficking in Persons Report?</td>
<td>[1 / 2 / 3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour migration management</td>
<td>Rationale</td>
<td>Sub-indicators and scoring scheme</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>4.1 Labour migration management</td>
<td>Every country has policies for managing labour migration to meet demand for skills (from high-level to low-level skills) and support economic growth. Government intervention in both sending and receiving countries through transparent and appropriate regulatory institutions and measures is essential if labour markets are to function in a way that is efficient and equitable. This indicator measures the level of labour demand management and the policies in place to monitor demand.</td>
<td>(a) Labour demand and supply monitoring Assessing labour demand and supply management reflects the country’s orderly labour migration flow and the needs of business and the economy. Scoring: (a.1) Is there a national assessment for monitoring labour market demand for inward migrants (e.g. shortage occupation lists)? [Yes / No / Somewhat] (a.2) Is there a national assessment for monitoring the effects of outward migrants on the domestic labour market? [Yes / No / Somewhat] (b) Labour demand management Scoring: (b.1) Is there an existing, defined programme for managing labour migration (i.e. adjusting visa awards based on labour market demand) into the country? [Yes / No / Partially] (b.2) Does the country have different types of visa to attract specific labour skills? [Yes / No / Partially]</td>
</tr>
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</table>

| 4.2 Skills and qualification recognition schemes | Recognising migrants’ qualifications is a form of skills assessment that seeks to ensure migrant eligibility and counteract brain waste among different groups of migrants. This indicator investigates existing national practices for assessing, validating and recognising migrants’ skills and qualifications, based on selected experiences within and outside the country of destination. It also reviews national practices or requirements for labour markets and the differing needs of various migrant skill groups. | (a) Recognition of qualifications Recognition of migrants’ qualifications and competences, and measures for skills assessment procedures Scoring: (a.1) Does the country account for labour migrants’ skills and capabilities when deciding whether to admit them? [Yes / No / Partially] (a.2) Does the country have formalised criteria (accreditation) for recognising foreign qualifications (degrees, skills and competencies)? [For most professions / For some professions / No / Other (explain)] (a.3) Does the country participate in international schemes with common vocational qualification frameworks (e.g. the European Qualifications Framework)? [Yes / No / Partially] |
## Labour migration management

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<td><strong>4.3 Student migration regulation</strong></td>
<td>There is a growing trend for international students to remain in the country in which they study after graduation. Governments should formulate policies that take advantage of the positive consequences of increased student mobility associated with this trend. This indicator assesses access to education in terms of acceptance, equal opportunities and post-graduation labour market opportunities.</td>
<td>(a) Access to education&lt;br&gt;Programmes allow student migrants to apply for education in the country of destination. Scoring:&lt;br&gt;Does the country allow international students access to education? [Yes / No / Partially] (b) Equal opportunities for education&lt;br&gt;Providing equal opportunities for foreign students in terms of access and number of accepted students&lt;br&gt;Scoring:&lt;br&gt;(b.1) Does the country allow equal access to education for foreign students (e.g. fees, access to specific courses, etc.)? [Yes / No / Partially]&lt;br&gt;(b.2) Does the country enforce quotas for the number of foreign students it can accept, based on the capacity of the labour market to absorb them? [Yes / No / There are quotas, but they are not based on labour-market demand]&lt;br&gt;(c) Access to labour&lt;br&gt;Providing opportunities for foreign students to work in the country after graduation&lt;br&gt;Scoring:&lt;br&gt;Does the country have a scheme for allowing international students to work in the country after graduation? [Yes / No / Partially (e.g. depends on the degree)] (d) Opportunities to work while studying&lt;br&gt;Scoring:&lt;br&gt;Are there provisions that allow students to work during the course of study? [Yes / No / Partially]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **4.4 Bilateral labour agreements** | Labour migration between states is governed by the admission and post-admission policies of the migrant-receiving country. Labour agreements formalise each side’s commitment to ensure that migration takes place in accordance with agreed principles and procedures. This indicator measures the availability of formal, less formal and consultative processes, as well as the ethics of labour migration. | (a) Bilateral labour agreements<br>An effective collaboration mechanism between countries of origin and destination<br>Scoring:<br>Does the country have any formal bilateral labour agreements (BLAs) in place? [Yes / No] (b) Decent working conditions for migrant workers<br>Measures have been developed to ensure that no labour migrant is exposed to forced labour, extreme working conditions (heat, cold, radiation, etc.), undue recruitment fees or earnings below the minimum wage. Scoring:<br>Has the receiving country developed measures that promote ethical recruitment for migrants? [Yes / No / Partially (e.g. not operationalised)] }
### Labour migration management

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| 4.5 Migrant Remittances | Migrant economic remittances are an important and growing source of foreign funds for some developing countries. They represent a major source of income for millions of families globally and are an important avenue to greater financial inclusion. This indicator measures the availability of remittance schemes and the cost of transferring remittances. | (a) Remittance schemes  
Personal transactions from migrants to their friends and families  
Scoring:  
Is the government actively involved in promoting the creation of formal remittance schemes (e.g. G20 Plan to Facilitate Remittance Flows)?  
Yes / No / Partially]  
(b) Remittance transfer costs  
The average cost of transferring remittances from country of destination to country of origin  
Scoring:  
What is the average cost of transferring remittances to or from the country?  
[Less than 3% / Between 3% and 7% / More than 7%] |
## Regional and international co-operation and partnerships

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<thead>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>5.1 Signature and ratification of international conventions</td>
<td>International conventions, treaties and laws build the basis for efficient migration governance. Once a treaty has been signed, each state will deal with it according to its own national procedures. Ratifying international conventions indicates a state’s willingness to act in accordance with international agreements. This indicator measures the signature and ratification of the main international treaties pertaining to migration: the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (ICRMW); the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees; the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC); the ILO Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143); and the Convention on Statelessness.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(a) International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (ICRMW)</td>
<td>This convention goes beyond existing human rights legislation to focus on this specific category of individuals, advancing how the international community conceives the application of human rights in its provisions for “equality of treatment” between female and male migrant workers, between documented and undocumented workers, and between nationals and non-nationals. It seeks to establish a framework for migration management through the promotion of equitable, humane and lawful conditions for international migration. Among other things, it requires co-operation between states in order to prevent and eliminate illegal movement and employment of migrants in an irregular situation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scoring:</td>
<td>(a.1) Is the country a signatory of the ICRMW? [Yes / No]</td>
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<td>(a.2) Has the country ratified the ICRMW? [Yes / No]</td>
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<td>(b) Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees</td>
<td>This convention was the first international agreement covering the most fundamental aspects of a refugee’s life. It spelled out a set of human rights that should be, at the very least, equivalent to the freedoms enjoyed by foreign nationals living legally in a given country and, in many cases, the freedoms of citizens of that state. It recognised the international scope of refugee crises and the necessity of international co-operation in tackling the problem, including burden-sharing among states.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scoring:</td>
<td>(b.1) Is the country a signatory of the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees? [Yes / No]</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(b.2) Has the country ratified the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees? [Yes / No]</td>
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<td>(c) Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)</td>
<td>“State Parties shall take appropriate measures to ensure that a child who is seeking refugee status or who is considered a refugee … shall … receive appropriate protection and humanitarian assistance in the enjoyment of … rights…. State Parties shall provide … cooperation in … efforts … to protect and assist such a child and to trace the parents or other members of the family of any refugee child … for reunification with his or her family. In cases where no parents or other members of the family can be found, the child shall be accorded the same protection as any other child … deprived of his or her family environment….” [See Article 22].</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scoring:</td>
<td>(c.1) Is the country a signatory of the CRC? If yes, when? [Yes / No]</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(c.2) Has the country ratified the CRC? If yes, when? [Yes / No]</td>
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<td>(d) ILO Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97); the ILO Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143); and the Convention on Statelessness.</td>
<td>This is one of the ILO’s two legally binding instruments relating to migrant workers: Convention No. 97 (1949) on migration for employment, and Convention No. 143 (1975) on migrant workers. Both are complemented by non-binding recommendations. This convention applies to the whole labour migration continuum, from entry to return, including the conditions governing the orderly recruitment of migrant workers. It also articulates the principle of equal treatment with national workers in terms of working conditions, trade union membership and enjoyment of the benefits of collective bargaining, accommodation, social security, employment taxes and legal proceedings relating to matters outlined in the convention.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scoring:</td>
<td>Has the country ratified the revised ILO Migration for Employment Convention? If yes, when? [Yes / No]</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(e) ILO Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143)</td>
<td>This convention complements Convention No. 97 (1949) by addressing migration in abusive conditions (including irregular migration) and promoting equality of opportunity and treatment for migrant workers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scoring:</td>
<td>Has the country ratified the Supplementary Provisions of the ILO Migrant Workers Convention? [Yes / No]</td>
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<tr>
<td>(f) Conventions on Statelessness</td>
<td>The 1954 Convention Relating to the Status of Stateless Persons and the 1961 Convention on the Reduction of Statelessness are key instruments for the protection of stateless people’s rights, as well as the reduction and prevention of statelessness.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scoring:</td>
<td>Has the country ratified the conventions on statelessness? [Yes / No]</td>
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Regional and international co-operation and partnerships

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
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</table>
| 5.2 Regional co-operation | Regional governance has emerged as an intermediate layer of governance, situated between national policymaking and global attempts to achieve closer inter-state co-operation. This indicator measures whether a country is part of any regional consultative processes. | (a) Regional consultative processes (RCPs)  
Inter-governmental fora promoting dialogue and co-operation on international migration at the regional level.  
Scoring:  
(a.1) Is the country part of any official RCPs?  
[Yes / No]  
(a.2) Are there any reported instances of formal intra-regional mobility that have been achieved as a result?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat] |
| 5.3 Bilateral agreements | There are a number of ways to achieve co-operation between sending and receiving countries, including bilateral agreements and efforts mounted under international organisations to ensure that migration takes place in accordance with agreed principles and procedures. This indicator assesses the presence of formal or semi-formal bilateral labour agreements and the presence of bilateral migration consultations. | (a) Formal bilateral agreements  
A formal bilateral agreement that sets out each side’s commitments and may provide for quotas to ensure that migration takes place in accordance with agreed principles and procedures  
Scoring:  
Does the country have any formal bilateral agreements with other sending/receiving countries?  
[Yes / No]  
(b) Semi-formal bilateral agreements  
Non-binding agreements that are easier to negotiate and implement (memoranda of understanding, or MOUs)  
Scoring:  
Does the country have MOUs with other sending or receiving countries?  
[Yes / No]  
(c) Bilateral migration consultation  
Open platforms for reviewing, discussing and exchanging good practices and ideas between sending and receiving countries  
Scoring:  
Does the country participate in bilateral migration negotiations, discussions or consultations with corresponding sending or receiving countries?  
[Yes / No] |
| 5.4 Global co-operation | Efforts have been mounted through international organisations to ensure that migration takes place in accordance with agreed principles and procedures. This indicator assesses the country’s active contribution in ensuring that all efforts are made to secure fair and orderly migration. | (a) Participation in the Global Forum on Migration and Development (GFMD)  
The GFMD is a voluntary, informal, non-binding, government-led process open to all states, members and observers of the United Nations to advance understanding and co-operation on the mutually reinforcing relationship between migration and development, and to foster practical and action-oriented outcomes.  
Scoring:  
Is the country a participant in the GFMD?  
[Yes / No / Observer]  
(b) Country’s degree of participation and engagement in International Organization for Migration (IOM) or UN Refugee Agency (UNHCR) governing bodies (including chairing and membership of bureau)  
Scoring:  
Is the country represented in IOM/UNHCR governing bodies?  
[Yes / No / Observer] |
### Regional and international co-operation and partnerships

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Indicator</th>
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</tr>
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| 5.5 Other partnerships | Countries can collaborate with non-governmental actors (such as the private sector and civil society) on migration-related issues. This indicator measures a country’s partnerships with non-government entities in order to mobilise people and public opinion and build greater momentum for effective migration policy. | a) Partnerships with civil society organisations (CSOs)  
Scoring:  
Does the country formally engage civil society organisations in agenda setting and implementation of migration-related issues (e.g. working groups)?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat (i.e. semi-formal engagement)]  
b) Partnerships with the private sector  
Scoring:  
Does the country formally engage with the private sector in agenda setting and implementation of migration-related issues?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat (i.e. semi-formal engagement)]  
c) Regional agreements / economic communities that promote labour mobility  
Scoring:  
Is the country part of a regional agreement promoting labour mobility (e.g. the EU)?  
[Yes / No / Somewhat (e.g. under negotiation)] |
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