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PEACE, PROSPERITY AND REGIONAL INTEGRATION

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Free Movement of Persons and Transhumance in the IGAD Region

Labour Market Assessment

with focus on migrant workers from the IGAD region

REGIONAL

Synthesis report

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Labour market assessment with focus on migrant workers from the IGAD region:

Regional report

Free Movement of Persons and Transhumance in the IGAD Region: Improving Opportunities for Regular Labour Mobility

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Abbreviations and acronyms

ANEFIP	National Agency for Employment, Training and Professional Integration
CEACR	Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations
CIE	Confederation of IGAD Employers
CMP	Common Market Protocol
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
DRC	Danish Refugee Council
EAC	East African Community
EBRD	European Bank for Reconstruction and Development
EEMIS	External Employment Management Information System
EIC	Ethiopian Investment Commission
EUTF	European Union Trust Fund
GDP	gross domestic product
GIZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit
HACTU	Horn of Africa Confederation of Trade Unions
ICLS	International Conference of Labour Statisticians
ICT	information and communication technology
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IPDC	Industrial Parks Development Corporation
KNBS	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
LMIS	labour market information system
MAP	Migration Action Plan
MoFPED	Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development
MoGLSD	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development
MoLSA	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
MSA	MarketShare Associates
NEA	National Employment Authority
NPA	National Planning Authority
ONTD	Office Nationale de Tourism

PPP	purchasing power parity
RMMS	Regional Mixed Migration Secretariat
RMPF	Regional Migration Policy Framework
SCAPE	Strategy for Accelerated Growth and Employment Promotion
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UN	United Nations
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
USAID	United States Agency for International Development

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Richard Horne from MarketShare Associates authored this regional report. It draws from seven country reports (Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan and Uganda), each commissioned under the same project. Ben Fowler (MarketShare Associates) provided quality assurance while Ranu Nath (MarketShare Associates) assisted in the finalization of the report. The author recognizes the important contributions of Forcier Consulting (Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Sudan and Uganda) and Consilient Research (Somalia, South Sudan) for collaborating on the primary data collection for the country reports. A technical review team composed of two national experts from each MS, and headed by Nicolas Serrière (international consultant) made contributions as part of the validation process.

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Foreword

The ILO in close collaboration with the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) Secretariat has produced this report titled ***Labour Market Assessment with a Focus on Migrant Workers from the IGAD Region*** as part of the project on Free Movement of Persons and Transhumance in the IGAD Region: Improving Opportunities for Regular Labour Mobility financed by the European Union. The report forms part of the knowledge-generation component of the project, and provides an evidence base for improving labour migration and mobility governance in the IGAD region.

The report is unique in its scope and focus, and different from the usual labour market assessments. In terms of scope, the report presents and analyses IGAD as one economic community with an integrated labour market. It provides a comprehensive understanding of the labour migration and labour market dynamics in the region based on individual country labour market analyses conducted in Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan and Uganda, with a focus on migration-prone areas, particularly places of origin, transit and destination. The report is also unique due to its particular focus on the participation of migrant workers in the labour market, drawing on quantitative interviews and focus group discussions with migrant workers as well as key informant interviews with migrant workers, government officials, employers' organizations, workers' organizations, international organizations, non-government organizations and other relevant stakeholders.

The report examines labour force characteristics, current and future demand for skills, and job creation patterns, and it identifies sectors that have high potential for job creation for nationals and migrants in an integrated regional labour market. The report also looks at labour market efficiency and functionality by reviewing institutional arrangements and processes, including policies, legislation, labour market information systems and employment services, among other things. The report then identifies key challenges and opportunities related to improving labour market and labour migration governance, and to supporting employment and job promotion for nationals and migrants in the IGAD region. At the end, the report proposes a number of key strategic recommendations to improve migrants' access to the labour market and labour migration governance in the region. We advise you to consult, in addition to this report, the country level reports, which shed light on economic, labour, employment and migration dynamics, as well as the participation of migrant workers in the national labour markets of each country.

We believe that this series of labour market assessments focused on migrant workers will be instrumental towards the implementation of the road map of the IGAD Protocol on Free Movement of Persons. Understanding the challenges migrant workers face and implementing the recommendations proposed in these reports will also pave the way for increased opportunities for regular labour mobility and regional integration.

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Executive summary

The ILO is implementing the European Union Emergency Trust Fund-financed project entitled Free Movement of Persons and Transhumance in the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) Region: Improving Opportunities for Regular Labour Mobility. The overall objective of the project is to improve opportunities for regulated labour mobility and decent work within the IGAD Member States through the development of models of intervention. In the long-term, the project is expected to extend decent work opportunities to current and potential migrants within the region, as well as contribute to regional integration, strengthen links between economic growth, climate change and job creation; and enhance the social and economic integration of migrants. [1]

This report is a labour market analysis for the IGAD region. It aims to deepen understanding of the labour migration and labour market structures and dynamics in the region and is based on individual country labour market analyses conducted in Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan and Uganda. It focuses on migration-prone areas, particularly places of origin, transit and destination. This analysis falls under a knowledge-building component of the ILO project, which seeks to deepen understanding of migration and labour market dynamics in the region.

The analysis presented in this report looks at labour force characteristics, job creation patterns, and challenges and opportunities for improved labour market governance to support employment and job promotion. It considers labour market information, employment services and migrant workers, as well as labour market efficiency in the wider socio-economic context. Primary data was collected to help inform the analysis, consisting of 2,800 quantitative interviews with migrant workers; 280 key informant interviews with government officials, employers' organizations, workers' organizations, international organizations, non-government organizations and other relevant stakeholders; and 56 focus group discussions with host communities and migrant workers, across different locations in each country. The report concludes with recommendations for IGAD Member States and the IGAD Secretariat.

Overview of migration trends and the labour market

The IGAD region shows considerable promise for economic growth over the medium term. However, despite optimistic forecasts, a number of challenges weigh on the region's growth prospects. Notwithstanding the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on growth prospects, the region is expected to continue growing strongly over the next few years. However, while the region encapsulates an area of around 5.2 million square km, around 70 per cent is arid or semi-arid land with limited rainfall (IGAD 2016). The poorest residents in the region are predominantly smallholder farmers reliant on rain-fed agriculture and pastoralists raising livestock, the rain-fed nature of which exposes these farmers to drought and other climatic shocks that result in food security and poverty. The population in the region is estimated at 286 million in 2020 and forecast to increase to 523 million in 2050 (UNDESA 2019), placing increased pressure on urban areas and contributing to migration abroad.

The IGAD region is positioned on a number of significant migration routes to the North, South and Middle East. The "Southern route" refers to migration via Ethiopia, Kenya and onwards to South Africa; the "Northern route" is via Ethiopia, Sudan and onwards to Northern Africa and Europe; and the "Middle East route" involves migration through Ethiopia, to Djibouti and over to Yemen and the Gulf States. Sudan is a stopover country for migrants from Central and West Africa to the Gulf States, both for economic reasons and pilgrimage to Mecca. Migrants from within the IGAD region and outside of the region cross through multiple countries to their

1 For more information see the project landing page at: https://www.ilo.org/africa/technical-cooperation/WCMS_631153/lang--en/index.htm.

destination, making use of porous land borders, and when necessary, making use of smuggling networks. Migrants are known to pay smugglers to enter or leave countries, raising the risk of human trafficking and forced labour.

Most migration in the region is irregular, that is, migration without any or appropriate visas and paperwork. There are two types of irregular outward migration:

i. without any paperwork at all, which is via land borders and usually with assistance from smugglers, and

ii. on false pretences, via plane or land borders, often obtaining tourist visas or temporary visas in order to exit legally, but then outstaying these visas to work informally in the country of destination or continuing onward travel.

Bilateral labour agreements are used to facilitate low-skilled labour migration; however, they are largely limited to the Middle East and Gulf States. Outside of these agreements, regular migration options are limited, and there is often little alternative other than irregular migration.

Much of the migration into, through and out of the IGAD region can be categorized as mixed migration flows. There are different types of migrants in the region, including: refugees and -asylum seekers; pastoralists seeking water and food for their livestock; farmers moving due to changing climatic conditions; and a range of other economic migrants. These can largely be considered flows of mixed migration, that is, migration for non-exclusive and changing reasons. Youth in both urban and rural areas are acutely affected by a lack of employment and livelihood opportunities, insecurity and conflict, as well as marginalization.

The IGAD region has a relatively high labour force participation rate and a relatively low unemployment rate. Furthermore, variations within the region are marked, with countries like Somalia, Sudan, South Sudan and Djibouti characterized by low labour force participation rates.

Labour force participation rates fail to capture the extent of labour underutilization in the region. Time-related underemployment is rife, and many, particularly youth, are without work but not captured within measures of unemployment (see definitions in Appendix I). Such aspects of labour underutilization have significant implications for policymakers.

Migrant worker characteristics

Two-thirds of the migrant workers interviewed as part of this study left their home country in search of better income opportunities or jobs as their primary reason. A further 10 per cent left for family and personal reasons, and 15 per cent due to conflict. In the context of mixed migration flows, such reasons for initially leaving are likely to change over time, over the course of travel and relocation, and as circumstances change.

More than half of employed migrant workers interviewed were in wage and salaried employment. Primary data collected for these studies identified migrant workers' migration status and length of stay, namely, those who were in the country for more than six months (long-term migrant workers) in terms of whether the migrant had official documentation (regular migration status) or not (irregular migration status). Migration status was not captured for those in the country for less than six months (short-term migrant workers). Among long-term migrant workers, the main difference was that those with regular status were more likely than those without to be classified as employers. For both regular and irregular long-term migrant workers, the cumulative share of own-account workers and contributing family members was similar, at around 25 per cent, indicating a high propensity to vulnerable employment. Short-term migrant workers were more likely to find wage employment (66 per cent) and less likely to be own-account workers or contributing family members (12 per cent overall).

There is a spectrum of informal employment situations rather than a clear dichotomy between formal and informal employment. Results from the interviews shows that informality among respondents was widespread. Calculated out of those in employment, 83 per cent of the migrant workers in the samples were working informally. Informal employment was similar for all lengths of stay and migration statuses, with the highest incidence among long-term migrant workers with irregular migration status (87 per cent). Such high levels of informal employment reflect the situation of national labour markets in each of the IGAD Member States.

Around half of migrant workers interviewed were working for an informal enterprise. Another form of informality is according to the place of work, wherein informal enterprises are unregistered enterprises that typically operate on a small scale and with low levels of organizational structure (ILO 2018a). Such enterprises often are run by individuals through self-employment but can also hire others. Anyone working for an informal enterprise is considered to be in informal employment. But it is also possible to be in informal employment while working for a formal enterprise, that is, a registered, potentially more organized and larger corporation. Across the IGAD Member States, 50 per cent of all the employed migrant workers interviewed were working for informal enterprises, while 46 per cent were working for formal enterprises (the remainder were working in households). This may again be a reflection of the general situation in respective countries, although for migrant workers with irregular status the vulnerability associated with informality is compounded with that of their migration status.

Nearly two-thirds of the migrant workers interviewed wanted to work more hours. Time-related underemployment is one component of the ILO's definition of labour underutilization. The share of underemployment was comparable across the three categories of migrant workers, although it was highest among long-term migrant workers with irregular migration status at 70 per cent, and lowest among short-term migrant workers at 60 per cent.

Key informant interviews highlighted that migrant workers were in demand in a range of sectors and across different skill levels. These ranged from hairdressers to manual labour to skilled agricultural labour to higher-skilled occupations for hotels and NGOs. The primary data suggest that there is demand for migrant workers and that there is potential for job creation derived from migrant workers across a range of skill levels. A priority is that market-oriented skills development initiatives for certain mid- and higher-skilled vocations be developed in consultation with employers to ensure that there is market demand for the skills being developed. However, more comprehensive data collection is necessary to draw such conclusions, namely from establishment surveys on informal employment, including with variables that allow for the identification of migrant workers as business owners and employees.

Job creation and the private sector

All IGAD Member States have national development strategies that target similar sectors and have job creation outcomes. These either include explicit job creation goals or have implicit job creation outcomes. These common areas include:

- agriculture, including raising agricultural productivity and improving food security;
- industry, particularly manufacturing growth and infrastructure development; and
- services, particularly information and communication technology development and tourism.

These areas coincide with the IGAD Secretariat's thrusts for regional development. The implications for migrant workers are mixed. There is demand for higher-skilled migrant workers as IGAD Member States look for skills and knowledge transfers, as well as for expertise that is in short supply within their countries. For low- and medium-skilled migrant workers, there is less potential. These low- and medium-skilled migrant workers are more likely to rely on self-employment or daily labour, and hence are more likely to indirectly benefit from investment in various sectors via economic linkages, that is, products and services linked to the main area of development. For instance, for large-scale development projects, there will be a demand for drivers, cleaners and food suppliers around the site.

While the region has encouraging economic growth prospects, a major impediment are obstacles within the business environment. These obstacles affect domestic and foreign direct investment. Frequently cited shortfalls include limited access to finance; macroeconomic instability, including as a result of conflict and instability; and infrastructure shortfalls, including in both transport and energy. IGAD Member States encourage foreign direct investment from large-scale foreign investors, with some favourable terms, including for the recruitment of migrant workers, and through industrial parks and special economic zones. Smaller-scale entrepreneurship and investment by migrant workers is not widely supported, thereby foregoing potential job creation for both nationals and migrant workers at this level. The roles of migrant workers in this regard are unrecognized in part because of shortfalls in enterprise data, both in the formal economy and the informal economy, the latter being where the majority of migrant workers are likely to be engaged.

Recommendations for decent and productive employment and jobs promotion

Develop a regional framework to foster coherence between national employment policies

Labour migration management in the region needs to be in alignment with the stance towards employment and job creation. All IGAD Member States acknowledge employment and job creation within their national development strategies and many have drafted national employment policies. Migrant workers tend not to feature in development strategies or national employment policies, beyond issues around protection of national workers abroad. Given the prominence of migrant workers in many of the IGAD Member States it is a gap that, along with the omission in labour law for irregular migrant workers, can leave migrant workers in a grey area without recognition or protection, thereby increasing their vulnerability to exploitation and hardship. A regional framework can help align national policies in a manner that incorporates cross-border movements to the benefit of labour market functionality.

- **IGAD Member States should establish a regional framework in a tripartite-plus setting, that is, with employers and workers groups but also with relevant external stakeholders such as the IOM, UNHCR and ILO.** All IGAD Member States should have national employment policies that are developed in tripartite settings with collaboration from all social partners. National employment policies should also be developed using a whole-of-government approach, to ensure alignment with any education, labour migration policies and migration policies.
- **The IGAD Secretariat is well positioned to develop an IGAD regional employment policy that will help align national employment strategies and goals with regional strategies and goals.** As with national employment policies, such a regional approach would need to establish targets and responsibilities to ensure accountability, allow for monitoring of progress and help shape policies to common objectives. Again, such a regional employment policy would need to be developed in line with any regional labour migration or migration policies. Capacity building programmes should be conducted to ensure the integration of regional policies into the national legislation of all Member States.
- **The IGAD Secretariat should conduct gap analyses of the different national employment policies in place (or the absence of such policies) as well as gaps in national legislation** to help identify areas that require attention in order to achieve a regional approach towards employment and job creation, as well as to close gaps and address ambiguity with regard to migrant worker integration in the labour market.

- **IGAD Member States need to ensure labour laws include some provisions for the informal economy.** Those in the informal economy are particularly at risk in terms of job insecurity, irregular and insufficient incomes, and lack of employment protection. Moreover, the lack of social protection means that these workers are particularly at risk during shocks, as displayed by the COVID-19 pandemic. Specific provisions should be in place for all workers regardless of their being formal or informal.
- **IGAD Member States need to ensure labour laws include some provisions for irregular migrant workers.** Currently, labour laws apply to regular migrant workers, but the lack of any guidance for dealing with irregular migrant workers despite their prominence in the region exposes migrant workers to exploitation and poor working conditions, and can lead to situations of forced labour.

Facilitate regional labour market information and analysis

A major challenge is that there is a general shortage of comprehensive and timely labour market information and analysis in the region, albeit with a number of exceptions. Investment in systematic labour market information and analysis is imperative for effective policymaking. This is important for understanding the complexities of national labour markets, and also to understand the role of and potential demand for migrant workers to help inform national employment policies as well as labour migration and migration policies.

- **The IGAD Secretariat is well placed to establish a regional labour migration observatory.** One of the glaring gaps in labour market information in the IGAD region, with regards to labour migration, is around skills compositions of migrant workers and skills needs. Work permit information is insufficient, as it overlooks irregular migrant workers, and there is a lack of national-level systematic labour market information and analysis to collate and analyse through a regional lens. A regional body can also serve to promote standards for comparability and consistency in data collection at the national level.
- **The IGAD Secretariat is well placed to also establish a regional platform for labour market information.** A regional platform supported by a technical working group would allow for sharing of expertise, compliance with international standards, and technical support. There have been discussions of a regional LMIS, which is a welcome development, but it is currently unclear what this LMIS would consist of. Any such system would need to allow for the provision of comprehensive data on both labour supply and demand.
- **IGAD Member States need to establish systematic labour market information and analysis.** This begins by understanding the needs and requirements of systematic labour market information and analysis and its purposes. For instance, as detailed in this report, labour market information goes beyond reporting on employment and unemployment. Effective policymaking requires different degrees of information about different sectors.
- **IGAD Member States need to ensure that there are up to date population and housing censuses every ten years.** Such data, while not necessarily used for analysing the labour market in itself, are imperative for developing the sample frames of subsequent surveys, including labour force surveys, so as to allow for representative assessments of the population. Moreover, these censuses should allow for the capture of comprehensive information on migrants, both regular and irregular, to allow for a clearer understanding of migrant stock in each country.
- **IGAD Member States should conduct labour force surveys in line with ICLS definitions and capture information on migrant workers and returnees.** ICLS definitions – the international standards for labour market concepts and definitions – can be cumbersome and costly to implement, but they are imperative for understanding the complexities of the labour market. In order to be effective, policymaking, including for national employment policies and labour migration policies, requires a comprehensive understanding of the labour market, including labour underutilization and employment characteristics in different sectors and occupations. Further, consistent definitions and standards facilitate assessments of the labour market through a regional IGAD-wide lens.

- **IGAD Member States should conduct establishment surveys periodically, covering both the informal and formal sectors, and gather information on foreign ownership and worker composition.** Establishment surveys need, firstly, to be drawing from up-to-date establishment censuses, and secondly, should cover the informal economy. To omit the informal economy is to paint a very partial picture of establishments in the country. Further, separate surveys should be devised for: (i) micro- and small-sized enterprises; and (ii) medium- and large-sized enterprises. The absence of such information is a major impediment for understanding labour demand in IGAD Member States.

- **IGAD Member States should encourage the sharing of administrative data and job vacancies data, but recognize the limitations of such data with regard to policymaking and drawing conclusions.** While such data are informative, they carry systematic biases in terms of what information they portray. For instance, job vacancies data, whether trawled from the internet, or from job boards, are not representative of all the vacancies available, and instead are likely to reflect only certain types of vacancies or reflect the need for certain types of workers. Establishment surveys can be a more comprehensive means of establishing demand for skills and expertise.

Coordinate labour migration policies at the regional level

Migrant workers in the IGAD Member States are generally disregarded as being predominantly low-skilled competitors for a limited supply of jobs. The job creation potential of migrant workers is not necessarily recognized, besides via large-scale foreign direct investment. Key informants interviewed as part of the study highlighted the roles of migrant workers in establishing small businesses in the informal economy.

- **The IGAD Secretariat should convene regular IGAD-wide dialogue between different ministries and social partners on labour migration and labour market needs.** The Confederation of IGAD Employers (CIE) and the Horn of Africa Confederation of Trade Unions (HACTU) are well placed to support employers and workers. Coordination at the regional level could facilitate skills assessments and allow for their use in guiding labour migration management.

- **IGAD Member States should consider aligning their stances on refugees' access to the labour market.** This can be facilitated at the regional level. A number of IGAD Member States have systems in place that allow refugees access to the labour market. Where these systems are non-existent or processes are cumbersome, refugees instead engage themselves in the informal sector. Facilitating the process would improve governance of working refugees as a form of migrant worker, and also provide information on refugee skills compositions, activities and needs.

- **IGAD Member States should establish labour migration policies in alignment with national employment policies through a whole-of-government approach.** Such alignment is necessary to ensure that migrant workers are able to benefit labour market functionality and that labour migration policies are not established primarily in alignment with migration policies alone. For specific recommendations on labour migration policies, see the recent ILO report An Assessment of Labour Migration and Mobility Governance in the IGAD Region: Regional Report.

- **IGAD Member States should conduct skill needs assessments and use these for guiding labour migration management.** There is a need to better understand migrant worker characteristics, as already mentioned, through systematic labour market information, including population and housing censuses, household surveys (including labour force surveys), and establishment surveys. Moreover, skills assessments are necessary to better understand the needs of the labour market and how these needs can be addressed through labour migration. At present, the focus on higher-skilled migration omits occupational skills that may be in need even though they are not necessarily in the category of being "higher-skilled".

- **IGAD Member States should consider improving refugees' access to the labour market.** A number of IGAD Member States have systems in place that allow refugees access to the labour market. Where these are non-existent or processes are cumbersome, widespread informal employment among refugees is the result. Facilitating such processes would improve governance of working refugees as a form of migrant worker and also provide information on refugee skills compositions, activities and needs.

- **The IGAD Secretariat is well positioned to establish guidance and information sharing with regard to placements abroad.** While a number of Member States have bilateral agreements in place with a number of destination countries, these are primarily with Gulf States. To ensure compliance with these agreements, the IGAD Secretariat could establish an IGAD Data Portal to share information about:

  - requirements for movement;
  - laws and regulations concerning labour migration;
  - opportunities available to migrant workers, such as access to finance, education, etc.;
  - services provided by different ministries for migrants;
  - rules and procedures for investment; and
  - up-to-date information on investment.

Good practice examples concerning the protection of migrant workers abroad go beyond these bilateral arrangements to regulate private employment agencies and also provide assistance in the form of medical check-ups, insurance policy review and other forms of information provision, while sometimes also making arrangements with recruitment agencies in destination countries. The IGAD Secretariat could draw from such good practices and establish guidelines and requirements for IGAD Member States to apply.

Chapter 1

Introduction

The Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) region is characterized by a range of migratory movements driven by political, economic and environmental factors, and encompassing different categories of migrants, including economic migrants, refugees and forcibly displaced persons. To date, IGAD and its Member States have already taken numerous steps to govern and address the issue of migration in the region, including adoption of the IGAD Regional Migration Policy Framework and the Migration Action Plan and promising steps taken towards the adoption of the IGAD Protocol on Free Movement of Persons. Both the Regional Migration Policy Framework and the Migration Action Plan have identified the facilitation of labour mobility, transhumance and free movement of persons as a strategic priority. In addition, in 2013, the Summit of IGAD Heads of State and Government adopted a Minimum Integration Plan to serve as a roadmap for regional integration, in which the free movement of persons is a key pillar. To this end, IGAD Member States recently endorsed a Free Movement and Transhumance Protocol and steps are underway to accelerate the adoption of a roadmap for implementation of the protocol (IGAD 2020).

In order to support IGAD and its Member States aspiration towards a free movement regime, the ILO is implementing the European Union Emergency Trust Fund-financed project Free Movement of Persons and Transhumance in the IGAD Region: Improving Opportunities for Regular Labour Mobility. The overall objective of the project is to improve opportunities for regulated labour mobility and decent work within IGAD Member States through the development of models of intervention, in the broader context of free movement of persons and labour mobility in the region. In the long term, the project is expected to extend decent work opportunities to current and potential migrants within the region, as well as contribute to regional integration; strengthen links between economic growth, climate change and job creation; and enhance the social and economic integration of migrants. The project has two major components: (i) knowledge-building and (ii) operational implementation. One of the main focal areas of the project is to deepen understanding of migration and labour market dynamics in the region, including the constraints and opportunities for employment creation and causes of skills shortages. As part of this knowledge generation component of the project, labour market analyses have been undertaken in IGAD Member States to understand the overall economic, labour, employment and migration dynamics in the countries, focusing on migration prone areas, particularly places of origin, transit and destination.

In this regard, the ILO has commissioned MarketShare Associates to conduct these labour market analyses in IGAD Member States: Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan and Uganda. These are captured in country reports and this regional synthesis report. Each report consists of an analysis of labour force characteristics, job creation patterns, and challenges and opportunities for improved labour market governance to support employment and job promotion. They consider labour market information, employment services, and migrant workers, as well as labour market efficiency in the wider socio-economic context. Notably, each of these areas is focused on their relevance to employment and jobs promotion. Finally, the reports provide recommendations on each of these components, at the strategy, policy and intervention levels, respective to each of the social partners. Both primary and secondary data are used in this analysis.

Chapter 2

About the report

This report aims to deepen understanding of the labour migration and labour market structures and dynamics in the region. This regional report is based on individual country labour market analyses conducted in Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan and Uganda. The methodology applied to each of these consisted of secondary data analysis, including analysis of household survey microdata where available, and primary data collection in the form of:

i. key informant interviews (40 per country) with key stakeholders;

ii. quantitative interviews (at least 400 per country); and

iii. focus group discussions (eight per country) with migrant workers and host communities.

Primary data was undertaken through fieldwork in multiple locations across each country.

2.1. Primary data collection

2.1.1. Key informant interviews

Key informant interviews were conducted face-to-face in a semi-structured format. However, interviewers were encouraged to probe outside of the semi-structured guides depending on the type of stakeholder and depending on how the interview was going. A core semi-structured interview guide was focused on identifying key drivers of labour migration in the broader economic context, including economic disparities and decent and productive work deficits, formal and informal rules around labour migration governance, and the role of employment services to facilitate labour migration. Examples of organizations interviewed as part of the key informant interviews include:

- **Government:** Ministries of Labour, Social Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Interior, and Justice; Departments of Statistics; Immigration Offices;
- **Employers' groups:** Business and employers' groups, industry unions, exporters groups, business owners;
- **Workers' groups:** Trade unions, cooperatives, workers;
- **International organizations:** United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), German Corporation for International Development (GIZ), Danish Refugee Council, IGAD, International Organization for Migration (IOM), ILO, World Food Programme;
- **Other:** Civil society organizations, academia, community leaders.

2.1.2. Quantitative interviews

Quantitative interviews were conducted face-to-face with a standardized questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed to capture the necessary information to be able to calculate variables that complied with International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) adopted labour statistics concepts and definitions. The questionnaire contained four modules to capture information in the following areas:

- **Module 1:** Socio-economic characteristics of migrant workers
- **Module 2:** Labour force status of migrant workers
- **Module 3:** Characteristics of employed migrant workers
- **Module 4:** Nature of labour migration.

The questionnaire allowed for the identification of migrant workers from IGAD Member States, their migration status and length of stay, distinguishing between those that were in the country for more than six months (long-term migrant workers) and less than six months (short-term migrant workers).

Long-term migrant workers were broken down into those who had official documentation (regular migration status) and those who didn´t (irregular migration status). The migration status was not captured for those in the country for less than six months. The data are only presented by migration status, not migrant worker status. While a migrant worker's work permit status can be attached to their migration status, it cannot be assumed in all cases, and so data is only presented by migration status (right to be in the country) and not migrant worker status (right to be in the country as well as the right to work in the country).

Locations were selected for being migrant-prone areas (see table 2), and purposeful sampling was used for identifying potential migrant workers. The sample sought to capture information on migrant workers with a range of basic demographic characteristics (see note on sampling at end of this section).

Table 1. Overview of the sample of migrant workers by country/location and selected indicators

		No. of interviews				
Country	Location	Total	Men	Women	Age 15–24	Age 25+
Djibouti	Djibouti City	300	180	120	59	241
	Ali Sabieh	43	31	12	11	32
	Dikhil	30	25	5	2	28
	Tadjourah	30	21	9	7	23
Ethiopia	Addis Ababa	114	63	51	31	83
	Dire Dawa	100	52	48	9	91
	Jijiga	113	59	54	25	89
	Gambela	113	68	45	46	67
Kenya	Garissa	100	57	43	15	85
	Kisumu	104	68	36	22	82
	Nairobi	109	53	56	42	67
	Bungoma	105	38	67	31	74
Somalia	Mogadishu	152	115	37	18	134
	Dollow	125	97	28	24	101
	Kismayo	125	107	18	13	112
South Sudan	Juba	202	123	79	29	173
	Wau	138	95	43	4	134
	Yei	62	36	26	7	55
Sudan	Blue Nile	128	103	25	47	81
	Gedaref	140	114	26	25	115
	Kassala	133	127	6	23	110
Uganda	Kampala	237	183	52	54	181
	Jinja	54	38	13	8	43
	Mbale	51	27	23	4	46
	Gulu	105	78	25	15	88

Source: Primary quantitative data collection

2.1.3. Focus group discussions

Focus group discussions were conducted in groups of eight to ten people, with a facilitator who used a semi-structured guide to steer conversations around specific areas. The discussions were conducted with host communities and migrant workers, in male and female split groups to prevent sociocultural norms from undermining open discussions. The discussions sought to gather perspectives around labour migration, including the perceived impact on the economy and local community.

ILO modelled estimates were used sparingly for regional and country comparisons. The modelled estimates use a combination of data from available household surveys applied to other wider datasets, including United Nations World Population Projections. Nonetheless, data from ILO modelled estimates are not always comparable with the underlying labour force survey data due to deviations in definitions, among other considerations. Therefore, they are not presented in a comparable manner and where appropriate a footnote is applied to draw attention to this.

▶ Box 1. Definition of migrant workers in the context of this study

"Migrant worker" or "international migrant worker" refers to all persons of working age (in this case, ages 15-plus is used) present in the country of measurement, who were during the specified reference period in one of the following two categories:

i. Usual residents: International migrants who were in the labour force of the country of their usual residence, either in employment or in unemployment; or

ii. Not usual residents (or "non-resident foreign workers"): Persons who, during a specified reference period, were not usual residents of the country but were present in the country and had labour attachment to the country – that is, were either in employment supplying labour to resident producer units of that country or were seeking employment in that country.

Given the primary data collection element of this study, the definition is in line with the 20th ICLS Guidelines Concerning Statistics for International Labour Migration (ILO 2018b).

2.2. Final technical revision and virtual consultations

In their finalization phase, all seven national reports and this regional report underwent a technical revision exercise, which addressed the fact that, due to exceptional circumstances, such as the advent of the COVID-19 pandemic, the publication date of the report was delayed, with the effect that some of the data and information informing the socio-economic and policy sections of the reports had to be updated. The technical review team was composed of 14 national experts and one international expert.

The reports were then further enriched with comments collected during a final consultation workshop which brought together a large group of stakeholders. In line with restrictions adopted in the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic, the workshop was held virtually. It was organized around four parallel sessions, giving participants the opportunity to intervene in structured discussions along the themes of the report.

2.3. Study considerations and limitations

Purposeful sampling, and not randomized sampling, was used to identify migrant workers. The sample is therefore not a representative sample of migrant workers in any of the countries surveyed. It was initially envisioned that the quantitative interviews would be conducted with migrant workers and national workers in order to allow for comparison between the two groups. This would have been conducted using a random sampling process. However, the required sample limit of 400 interviews per country was considered too small to have statistical significance in analysing the differences between the two groups, especially when disaggregating the data further. Furthermore, the absence of data on migrant workers, particularly given the irregular nature of much of the labour migration, means that there is no base data upon which to allow for representative sampling. As a result, enumerators targeted migrant workers only using purposeful sampling. Enumerators with knowledge of local context were asked to identify individuals who were engaged in some form of work or actively looking for and available to work, and then to conduct interviews. Those who were classified as out of the labour force are still included in the dataset for analysis of labour underutilization.

ILO modelled estimates are used for the IGAD regional aggregate labour market data. The modelled estimates use a combination of data from available household surveys applied to other wider datasets, including UN World Population Projections. Nonetheless, data from ILO modelled estimates are not always comparable with the underlying labour force survey data due to deviations in definitions among other considerations. The regional data are therefore not necessarily comparable in terms of definitions with the data used in the individual country reports.

The labour market analysis is intended to complement parallel studies, including on labour mobility and migration governance in the IGAD region. A series of parallel studies were commissioned alongside this labour market analysis in the IGAD region, on: (i) skills; (ii) environmental impacts on migration; and (iii) labour migration and mobility governance (ILO 2020a–h). With this in mind, the individual country studies and this regional labour market analysis seek to complement rather than replicate these other reports, such that the reports should be seen as accompanying each other.

Somalia is a country located at the tip of the Horn of Africa, bordering Ethiopia to the west,

Chapter 3

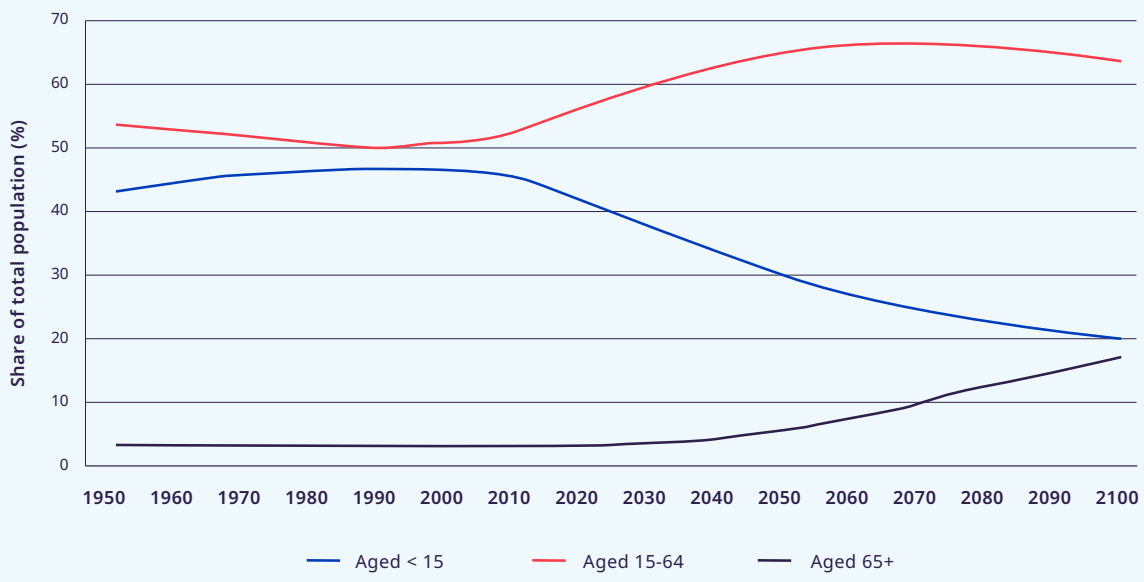
Socio-economic context

3.1. Demographics

The vast population of the IGAD region is expected to continue growing, placing increased pressure on urban areas and contributing to migration abroad. The population in the region is estimated at 286 million in 2020, and forecast to increase to 523 million in 2050, representing an increase of more than 2 per cent per annum over this period (UNDESA 2019). This is likely to put considerable pressure on urban areas as rural populations migrate to cities in search of better opportunities. Insufficient opportunities will likely spur further international migration, in search of job opportunities and improved income opportunities abroad. Policies shaped around increasing opportunities for youth, particularly in urban areas, will be crucial. It also highlights the need to understand the domestic pressures on labour supply in order to devise appropriate labour migration and migration policies.

The region has a relatively young population, with 62 per cent aged below 25. This corresponds to favourable demographic ratios, whereby the working-age population outweighs the non-working age population (children and elderly) (figure 1). However, demographics alone are insufficient to achieve a "demographic dividend", whereby economic growth is able to reap the double benefit of both improved productivity and growth in the number of people of core working age. Achieving this requires investment in human capital, particularly basic education and health.

▶ **Figure 1.** Population shares in IGAD by age group, 1950–2100 (%)

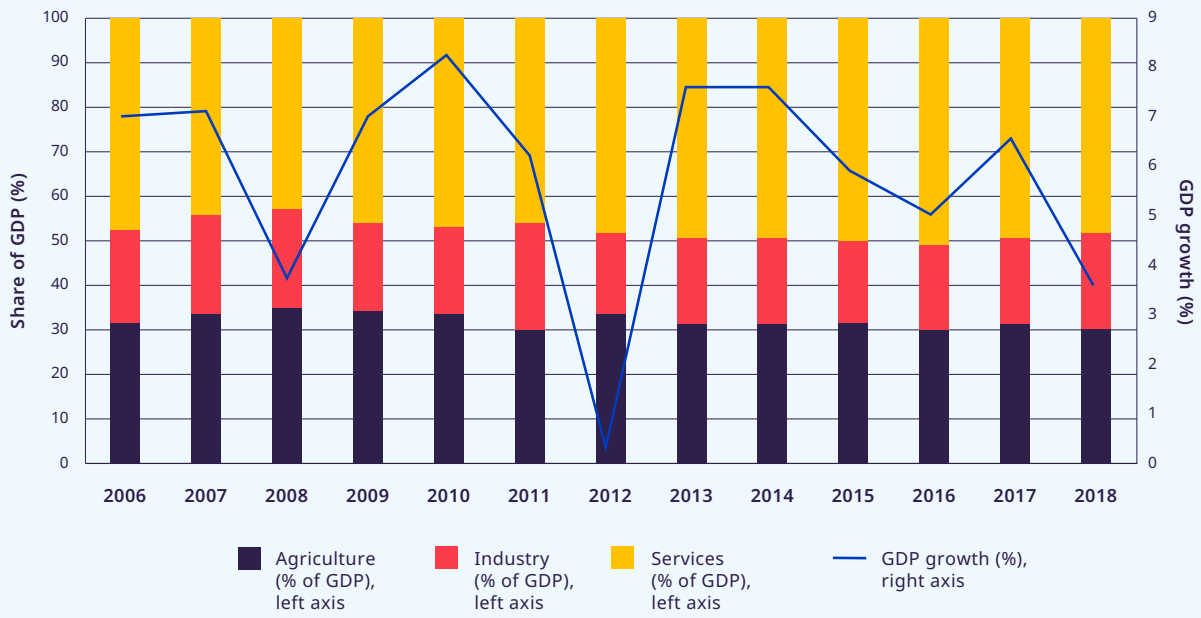


Source: UNDESA 2019.

3.2. Economic performance in the region and challenges

The IGAD region shows considerable promise for economic growth over the medium term. As shown in figure 2, the IGAD region has maintained buoyant average gross domestic product (GDP) growth rates over the last decade, despite a dip in 2012. GDP growth averaged 5 per cent per annum from 2000 to 2015, and 6 per cent per annum between 2012 and 2018. Services account for the highest share of the region's GDP, at just below 50 per cent, followed by agriculture at around 30 per cent. Given that around 70 per cent of the region's workforce is engaged in agriculture, it reflects the largely low-scale and subsistence nature of the sector. According to various forecasts (for example, IMF 2019), the economy of the region is expected to grow at around 6 per cent per annum in 2020–2025. Tourism and improved agricultural productivity are cited as potential cross-cutting sources of sustainable growth for the region, notwithstanding country-specific comparative advantages, as articulated in respective growth strategies (see Chapter 5).

Figure 2. GDP growth rate and composition of GDP for the IGAD region, 2006–2018



Source: UNDESA 2019.

Despite the optimistic GDP growth rates, a number of challenges weigh on the region's growth prospects, including exposure to environmental shocks. While the region encapsulates an area of roughly 5.2 million square km, around 70 per cent is arid or semi-arid land with limited rainfall (IGAD 2016). While these areas are not host to large numbers of the region's 286 million population (UNDESA 2019), it demonstrates the region's exposure to environmental shocks, particularly recurrent or prolonged drought. With agriculture, including crop production and livestock, being the economic mainstay of the region, there are significant risks to food security and poverty, which in addition to security issues and conflicts, all contribute to forced displacement and migration. A recent report on food security in the IGAD region also highlighted that COVID-19 impacts are likely to worsen the already severe state of food security in the region (FSIN 2020).

The lack of diversification in economic production in the region is likely to improve with the IGAD Free Trade Area. For instance, the trade concentration index of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (2020) puts the IGAD region at 0.19 (where 1 indicates high concentration and 0 indicates diversification). For context, this compares to 0.18 for low-income countries and 0.09 for low-middle income countries worldwide. Individual indices show that there is a relatively high concentration across all the IGAD countries, including Ethiopia (0.29) and Uganda (0.27). This lack of economic diversification reflects the lack of regional integration networks, including underdeveloped infrastructure, including road, rail and air. The IGAD Secretariat's transport and infrastructure efforts, as well as the IGAD Free Trade Area, will be instrumental to diversifying the region's exports and bolstering its competitiveness in global markets. As noted in the 2016 IGAD Regional Strategy (p. 14):

> ***"The IGAD Free Trade Area entails the establishment of Free Mobility Regime through the implementation of a Protocol for the Free Movement of Persons. This aims to reduce travel restrictions persisting in the region and to facilitate movement, the right of establishment of business and employment, residence, the acquisition of work permits, and pastoral mobility."***

▶ 3.3. Human capital development

Poor education and health variables reflect the need for improvements in human capital development. From a macroeconomic perspective, the accumulation of human capital improves labour productivity, facilitates technological innovation, increases return on capital and makes growth more sustainable, which, in turn, supports poverty reduction. Human capital development in the region is relatively low, with particularly poor performance in education metrics. The United Nations Development Programme's Human Development Index shows that when various education and health variables are adjusted for inequality, they display substantial differences by sex, with women in the IGAD region significantly disadvantaged in terms of education and health (UNDP 2020). Addressing these shortfalls will be instrumental to improving prospects for women in the labour market and therefore for the region's economic growth.

▶ 3.3.1. Poverty

For the region as a whole, the poorest are predominantly smallholder farmers reliant on rain-fed agriculture and pastoralists raising livestock. The rain-fed nature of smallholder farming exposes these farmers to drought and other climatic shocks that result in food insecurity and poverty. The situation is amplified by the lack of resources and capital to invest in agricultural inputs, such as more modern tools and fertilizers, thereby perpetuating the poverty cycle. At the same time, pastoral communities are highly exposed to drought and degradation owing to the ecologically hostile environments in which they live. In both cases, the risk is growing as a result of vulnerability to recurring drought as a result of climate change, increasing competition for natural resources and restricted movements due to large-scale infrastructure projects and

new settlements. Rural areas are also more exposed to severe food insecurity. At the same time, urban areas are also susceptible, in part due to food security risks as a result of higher food prices during shortages. Djibouti, for instance, has to import the vast majority of its food, exposing it to changing international market prices. High food prices contribute to food insecurity and reduced household purchasing power (USAID 2019).

Certain groups are more vulnerable to poverty than others, contributing to widening inequality gaps between different groups of the population. In Somalia, for instance, poverty incidence is highest in internally displaced persons settlements, where seven out of ten people are poor, with more than 1.1 million Somalis (9 percent of the population) considered internally displaced (World Bank 2017a). In many of the IGAD Member States, inequality, as depicted by the Gini Index, is either low or worsening. Pro-poor policies need to include access to employment opportunities, alongside direct transfers (social protection programmes) and in-kind transfers (such as education and health), with additional spending on water and agricultural inputs.

3.3.2. Migration in the region

Much of the migration into, through and out of the IGAD region can be categorized as mixed migration flows. There are a range of different types of migrants in the region, from refugees and asylum-seekers, pastoralists seeking water and food for their livestock, farmers moving due to changing climatic conditions, and a range of other economic migrants. All of which can largely be considered flows of mixed migration, that is, non-exclusive and changing types of migration. For instance, in Djibouti it can be difficult to distinguish between those who are in transit and those who are looking to work long-term, in part because transit migrants often have to work for six months to a year in order to pay for their onward travel. Somalia is witnessing unprecedented levels of mass youth migration. Youth in both urban and rural areas are acutely affected by the lack of employment and livelihood opportunities, insecurity, conflict as well as marginalization.

The IGAD region is positioned on a number of significant migration routes to the North, South and Middle East. The "Southern route" refers to migration via Ethiopia, Kenya and onwards to South Africa; and the "Northern route" is via Ethiopia, Sudan and onwards to Northern Africa and Europe; while the "Middle-East route" is for migration through Ethiopia, to Djibouti and over to Yemen and the Gulf States. Sudan is also a stopover country for migrants from Central and West Africa to the Gulf States, both for economic reasons and pilgrimage to Mecca. As a result, migrants from within the IGAD region and outside of the region cross through multiple countries to their destination, making use of porous land borders, and when necessary, making use of smuggling networks.

3.3.3. Refugees and asylum-seekers

Refugees and asylum-seekers from the IGAD region accounted for 18 per cent of all refugees and asylum-seekers worldwide. Many of these people obtain or seek asylum in developed countries, including Europe and North America; however, the IGAD region itself accounted for 17 per cent of the world's refugees and asylum-seekers in 2018 (UNHCR 2019). The nature of mixed migration flows can distort the actual count, particularly with migrants failing to register or leaving originally to seek asylum but instead integrating into communities. Uganda is the largest recipient of refugees in Africa, at 1.4 million (UNHCR 2019). Uganda is regarded as having one of the most progressive approaches to hosting refugees in the region, with refugees given relative freedom of movement; equal access to primary education, healthcare and other basic social services; and the right to work and own a business (RMMS 2016). Ethiopia is also the second-largest recipient of refugees in Sub-Saharan Africa, hosting over 900,000 refugees and asylum-seekers in 2018, reflecting both the conflict and insecurity in neighbouring countries and also its open-door policy towards refugees (UNHCR 2019).

3.3.4. Irregular migration

The majority of migration in the region is irregular, that is, migration without any or appropriate visas and paperwork. There are two types of irregular outward migration:

i. without any paperwork at all, which is via land borders and usually with assistance from smugglers, and

ii. on false pretences, via plane or land borders, often obtaining tourist visas

or temporary visas in order to exit legally, but then outstaying visas to work informally in the country of destination, or continuing onward travel.

For instance, Ethiopians who depart via Metema typically obtain visas for Sudan from the Sudanese Embassy but then continue onward to Chad, Libya and Europe; while exit through the south is facilitated by a visa-free agreement with Kenya. Entry into Somalia and Somaliland can also be facilitated through visas. Insights from key informant interviews suggest that most migrants enter South Sudan on regular tourist visas, and then find work once inside.

Irregular migration is driven in part by the lack of regular migration options. Some IGAD countries are already part of the East African Community (EAC) or the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA), which are each looking to improve regional integration, including labour migration and mobility. However, the EAC Common Market Protocol largely facilitates skilled labour and excludes low-skilled workers. According to the ILO (2020h), challenges faced include security concerns, protection of national labour markets and the complexity of harmonizing immigration laws and systems. Bilateral labour agreements are used to facilitate low-skilled labour migration, but they are largely limited to the Middle East and Gulf States. Besides these options, regular migration is limited, and there is often little alternative than to seek irregular migration options.

3.3.5. Smuggling networks

Smuggling networks are widespread and facilitate movement across borders. For instance, key informants highlighted that the main exit route out of Ethiopia is via the northeast primarily through Galafi and via Djibouti, for migrants headed to Yemen and Saudi Arabia. One route for irregular migration involves being dropped on the Ethiopian border, and then to walk through valleys and mountains to avoid the Djiboutian border immigration posts (including the Dawaleh post in the Ali Sabieh region, Kalafi post in the Dikhil region, and Balho post in the Tadjourah region). Smuggling networks exist to facilitate movements and arrange onward travel, typically involving temporary residence in Djibouti before arrangements are in place to travel onwards. The result is that there are clusters of thousands of migrants in different areas awaiting transit out of Djibouti. In Somalia, due to high demand, well-established human smugglers and strong smuggling networks have emerged to encourage and facilitate the mass youth migration. Most Somalis who arrive in Europe seek asylum, with the most popular countries of asylum including Germany, Sweden, Austria, Belgium, Finland and France. In 2015, 63 per cent of Somali asylum applications were successful in Europe (Wasuge 2018).

Smuggled migrants, refugees and asylum-seekers are particularly susceptible to falling into situations of trafficking and forced labour. While much of the migration, including through the use of smugglers, is voluntary, there are reports of widespread trafficking in existence, according to key informant interviews. Risks of human trafficking, abduction and abuse are widely reported along the routes taken by refugees and migrants in Djibouti (UNHCR 2015). Migrants are known to pay smugglers to enter or leave countries, raising the risk of human trafficking and forced labour. In Ethiopia, an ILO report found that more than half of returnees were in forced labour (Admassie, Nuru, and Ferede 2017). In Sudan, South Sudanese refugees and Somali migrants represent a significant proportion of smuggled individuals who are at risk of trafficking. At the same time, refugee camps in Sudan's eastern states and migration channels from Eritrea are exposed to trafficking, with evidence that communities in and around camps, as well as cross-border tribes, including the Rashaida and Tabo tribes, are involved in the abduction and trafficking of Eritreans.

3.3.6. Remittances

Migration is a major source of remittance inflows and underscores the importance of effectively engaging with the diaspora. For many of the countries in the region, remittances from the Gulf States, Europe and North America form the majority of the inflows to the IGAD region, reflecting the greater propensity for economic migration to the Gulf States region. In Djibouti, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Cooperation is looking to improve engagement with the Djiboutian diaspora. In Somalia, through private efforts and public initiatives like the Somali Diaspora Corps, Somali expatriates are actively involved in boosting the local economy (Mulupi 2012).

Chapter 4

Labour force characteristics

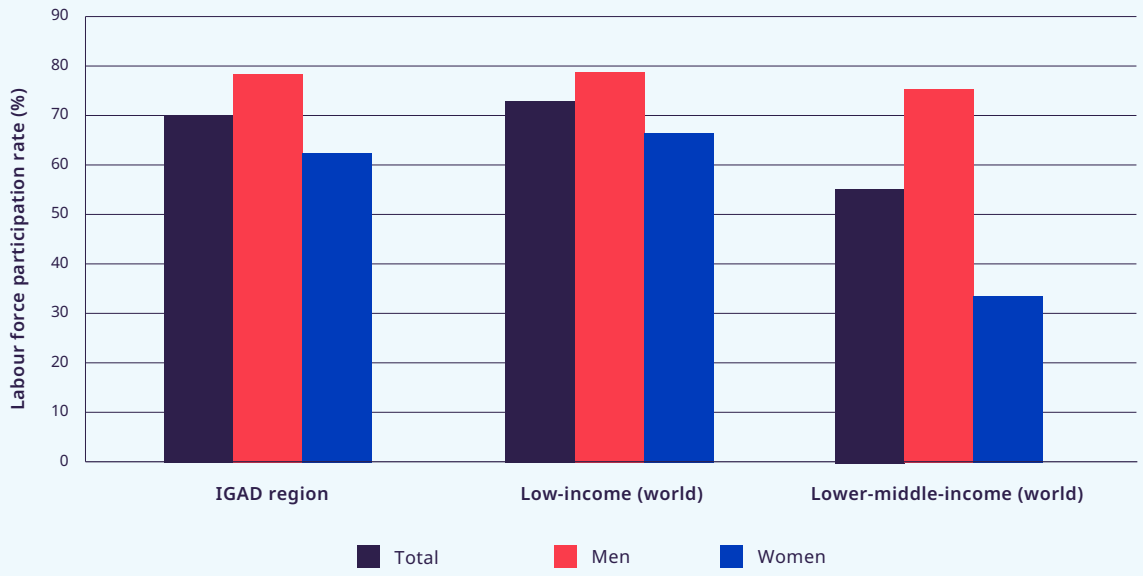
4.1. Labour force

4.1.1. Participation rates

The IGAD region has a relatively high labour force participation rate, in line with the average for low-income countries. The IGAD region is estimated to have a labour force of around 115 million people aged 15-plus in 2019, equivalent to a labour force participation rate of 70.4 per cent. [2]The labour force participation rate is relatively high compared to the average for lower middle-income countries worldwide at 55.5 per cent, but somewhat consistent with low-income economies, which average 72.6 per cent. The higher labour force participation rate is typical of lower income economies where household savings are lower, there is a lack of social protection available, and it is less feasible to remain outside of the labour force. Variations within the region are marked, however, with countries like Somalia, Sudan, South Sudan and Djibouti characterized by low labour force participation rates.

Female participation rates are relatively high by global standards but still reflect a gender gap in participation. The labour force participation rate for women was estimated at 62.5 per cent in 2019 – a total of 16 percentage points lower than the rate for men at 78.5 per cent. This gender gap is again relatively similar to the figures for the low-income average worldwide at 12 per cent, but substantially lower than the lower middle-income average of 42 percentage points. It reflects relatively low female labour force participation in a number of IGAD Member States, including Sudan, Somalia and Djibouti.

Figure 3. Labour force participation rates, 2020



Source: ILO modelled estimates – Labour force estimates, November 2019.

2 All aggregate IGAD region labour market data in this section uses ILO modelled estimates. Please see note at the end of the methodology section for further details.

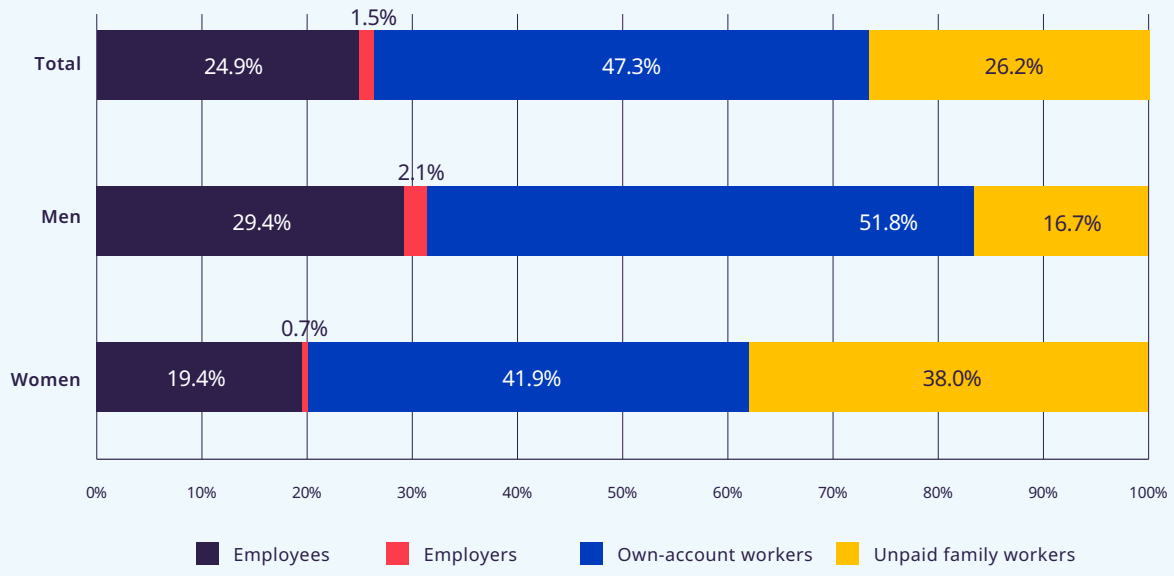
4.1.2. Employment

The total employed population in the IGAD Member States is estimated at 110 million in 2019, many of whom are in informal jobs. It is widely recognized that much of the labour market is informal, with either workers engaged in informal employment, or working for informal enterprises, such as unregistered, and often small family-run enterprises. There is, however, a lack of data on the informal economy in the region, and therefore it is necessary to assess other variables for which data are more available and which typically are associated with informal jobs, such as vulnerable employment. The plight of those in the informal economy – including their lack of job security and protection – has been brought to the fore with the impact that COVID-19 has had on informal workers. The pandemic highlights the need for social protection systems that extend eligibility to informal as well as formal workers.

Around a quarter of the employed population are in wage and salaried work (that is, they are "employees"). This share is higher than the global low-income country average at 17.5 per cent, but lower than the 36 per cent for lower middle-income countries. Given the region includes lower middle-income countries such as Kenya, Sudan and Djibouti, it is somewhat in line with expectations. Wage and salaried employment, also known as paid employment, tends to be associated with higher degrees of job quality, particularly in terms of job security, regular income, paid leave and other benefits. While this is not always the case, particularly in the informal economy, it is still considered a more desirable form of employment than self-employment and unpaid family work.

Nearly three-quarters of the employed population were considered to be in vulnerable employment. The ILO classifies own-account work (self-employment) and unpaid family work as "vulnerable employment" due to the higher degrees of job insecurity, less regular income, and other forms of precariousness. In the IGAD region, 73.6 per cent of the employed population were considered to be in vulnerable employment in 2019, representing an estimated 81 million people. The share is higher for women at nearly 80 per cent, than men at 68.4 per cent, which is a reflection of the higher propensity of women to be in unpaid family work. For instance, 38 per cent of all employed women were in unpaid family work in the IGAD region, compared to 17 per cent of men. Unpaid family work includes contributions to household productive activities, such as to smallholder farming plots or small-scale retail, and often without a say in decision-making or finance.

▶ **Figure 4.** Status in employment, by sex, 2019



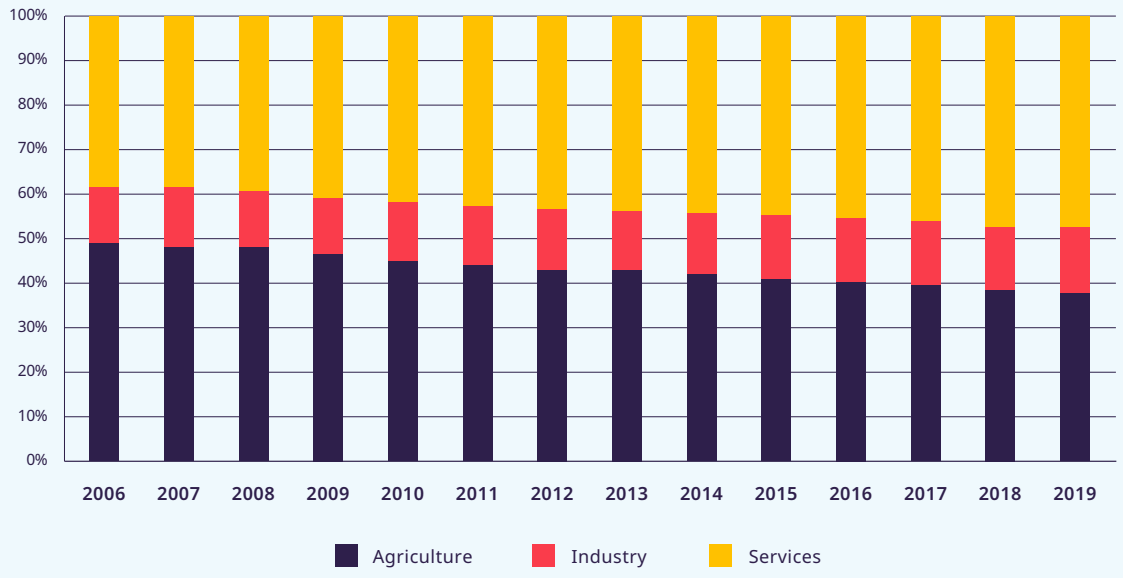
Source: ILO modelled estimates – Status in employment, November 2019.

Agriculture is estimated to account for the livelihoods of around 62 per cent of the population, while contributing a third of GDP. Around 62 per cent of all employment in the IGAD region was estimated to be in agricultural activities in 2019. This is estimated to have decreased from around 69 per cent in 2006 (figure 5) in line with growing urbanization, as an increasing share of the population are moving to cities and towns for employment. Nonetheless, the relatively high share is reflective of the relative lack of industrialization that has taken place in the region. Structural transformation has seen shares of employment in agriculture decrease alongside increases in industry and services, with shifts to higher productivity jobs. While this transition is slowly taking place, as reflected by decreases in the agricultural share, the fact that six out of every ten employed persons are still in agriculture while the sector accounts for just 33 per cent of GDP suggests many of these workers are predominantly in low-productivity agricultural activities, including smallholder farming.

Less than one in ten of the employed population in the IGAD region were estimated to be engaged in the industry sector – that is, in mining and quarrying, manufacturing, construction and utilities. This share (8.7 per cent) is estimated to be marginally increasing year on year. However, it has a considerable way to go to meet the lower middle-income average of 21.7 per cent. Moreover, the share of the employed population in industry has been growing for men, from 8.8 per cent in 2006 to 11 per cent in 2019, but is estimated to have decreased from 6.2 per cent to 5.9 per cent for women over the same period. This is despite the prominence of women in the manufacturing sector. For men, the growth of employment in the industry sector is largely driven by employment in construction, particularly with major infrastructure projects.

The service sector is estimated to be increasing as a share of the total employed population in the IGAD region, growing from 22.7 per cent in 2006 to 28.2 per cent in 2019. This is another reflection of the structural transformation that is taking place in the region. However, much of the work in the service sector is not necessarily of high productivity. Many of those in the services sector are in small-scale retail, including street vendors and traders, operating informally. Structural transformation needs to be shaped not only to see rebalancing of employment in different sectors, but also to promote productivity growth and quality jobs.

Figure 5. Share of employment by sector, 2006–2019



Source: ILO modelled estimates – Employment by economic activity, November 2019.

Having a job is not necessarily a guaranteed path out of poverty, and the IGAD region is no exception. Of the total employed population in the IGAD region, more than a quarter are classified as being working poor at the international threshold for extreme poverty (that is, working but living on household incomes of less than $1.90 PPP [3] per day, per person). This increases to 58 per cent when applying the moderately poor international poverty threshold ($3.10 PPP per day). This highlights the vulnerability of the region to poverty, and the lack of decent and productive opportunities that allow workers and their families to earn enough to stay out of destitution. The region's vulnerability to environmental shocks, combined with the high proportion of the employed population working in agriculture is testament to the precarious situations of many of the region's employed.

3 PPP = purchasing power parity.

4.1.3. Unemployment and labour underutilization

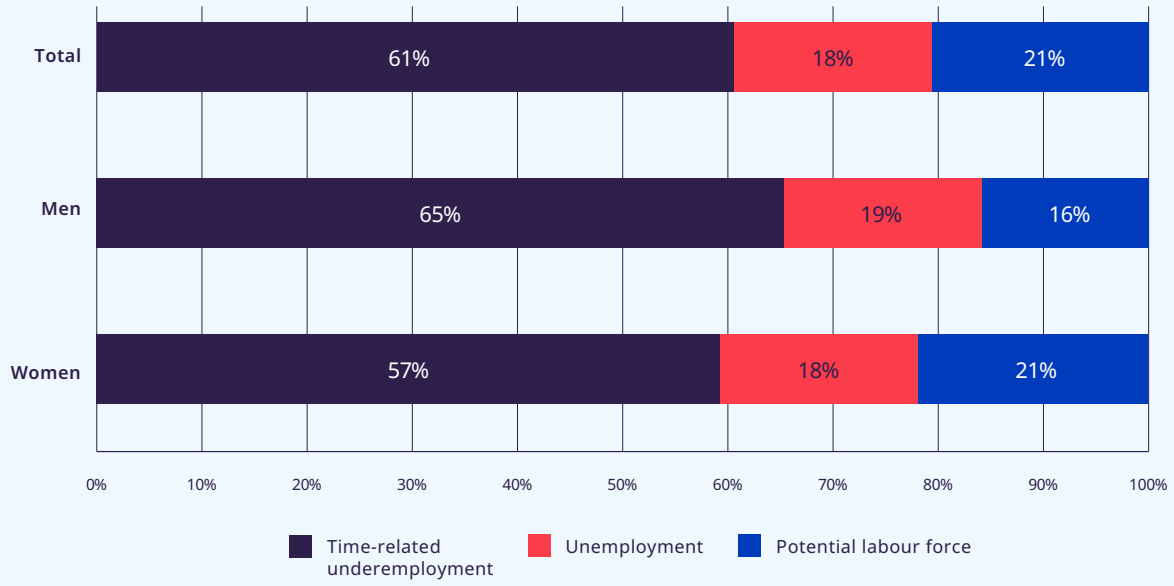
A relatively low unemployment rate fails to capture the extent of labour underutilization. As a labour market measure, unemployment is widely used to assess the state of the labour market and mismatches between labour supply and demand in high-income countries. However, it is not the most suitable indicator for policymaking in low-income and lower middle-income countries, where underemployment and working poverty are more prevalent. This is visible in the IGAD Member States, where the unemployment rate is estimated at 4.5 per cent in 2019. This is lower than the global average of 5.4 per cent and the lower middle-income average of 5.3 per cent, but higher than the low-income average of 3.9 per cent. In the IGAD region, a 4.5 per cent unemployment rate corresponds to a total of more than 5 million unemployed. However, wider measurements, such as underemployment or the use of "relaxed" definitions to measure unemployment, present a more comprehensive and pertinent insight into the region's labour underutilization.

A wider measure of labour underutilization suggests five times more people are underutilized than depicted by unemployment numbers alone. Labour underutilization can be considered in terms of three categories:

1. time-related underemployment (that is, those who are in employment, but working insufficient hours for their needs);
2. unemployment (that is, those who are looking for work and are available for work); and
3. a concept known as the "potential labour force", which represents those who would be classified as unemployed, only they have either:
   a. been looking for work but are not available to start work immediately; or
   b. have not been looking (for example, they are discouraged) but are available to work.

In the IGAD Member States, those in these three categories account for more than 28 million people, more than five times the number cited as unemployed (figure 6).

▶ **Figure 6.** Disaggregation of total labour underutilization, by sex, 2019



Source: ILO modelled estimates – Status in employment, November 2019.

The extent of labour underutilization highlights the need to target people with different degrees of labour market attachment. The labour underutilization rate (labour utilization as denoted above, as a share of the labour force + potential labour force) further highlights the extent of labour underutilization in the IGAD Member States, even compared to similar income groups. The labour underutilization rate for the IGAD Member States is estimated at 23 per cent, this compares to a global rate of 13 per cent, and it is also higher than both the low-income average (20 per cent) and the lower middle-income average (12.3 per cent). This is further indication that policymaking in the region needs to look further than unemployment and to consider the policy implications of the different components of labour underutilization.

Youth unemployment is an important metric for the IGAD region, but again understates the challenge of youth underutilization. The youth unemployment rate can, however, be misleading, because it is calculated as a share of the labour force and those who are in full time education are not included in the labour force; that is, a decrease in the unemployment rate can actually be a negative phenomenon if it is driven, for instance, by increase in the size of the labour force as people drop out of school to work. Instead, labour underutilization for youth is a more informative measure for policymakers.

There are more youth in the IGAD region that can be classified as being in the potential labour force rather than being unemployed. The labour underutilization rate for youth in the IGAD region is estimated at 28.5 per cent, equivalent to 10 million youth aged 15–24, of whom 50 per cent are in time-related underemployment, and just 23 per cent are unemployed. This highlights how youth attachment to the labour market is a more complex phenomenon than unemployment rates alone. Moreover, in the IGAD region it shows that more youth are considered to be in the potential labour force rather than unemployed – that is, either available to work but not actively looking, or looking but not available to start immediately. These have significant implications for policymaking for youth and for understanding the labour market and opportunities available for youth.

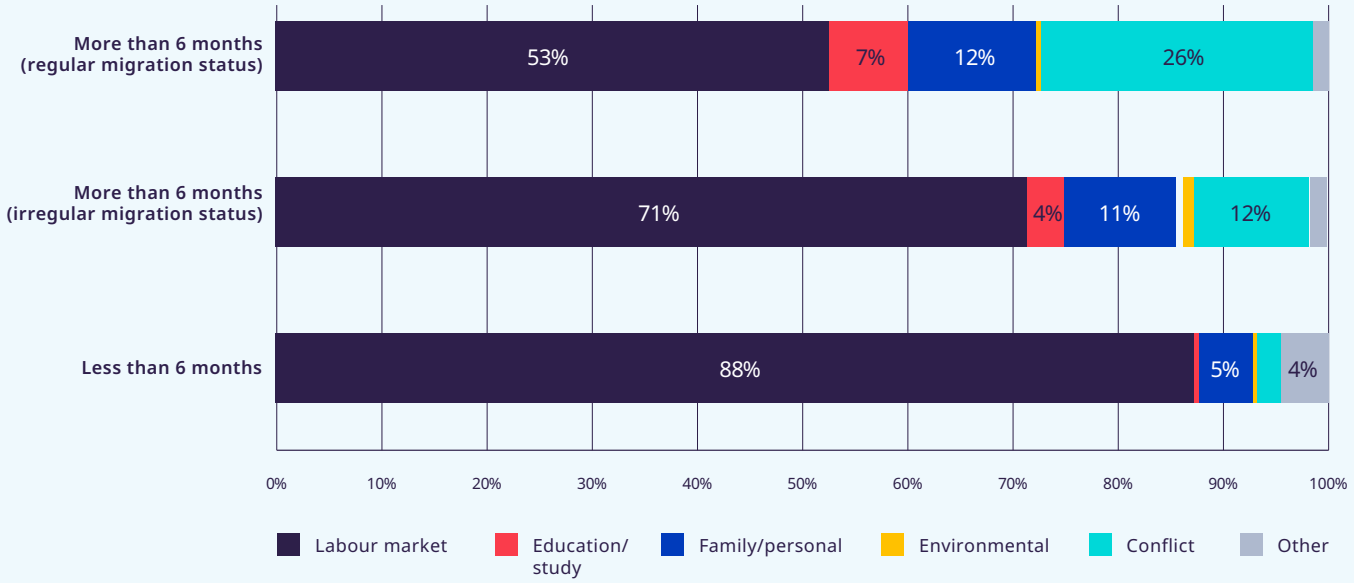
4.2. Migrant workers

This section focuses on migrant workers in the IGAD region. While data exist on migration flows and stock, there is a shortage of data explicitly on international migrant workers in the region. Most IGAD Member States collect data on work permits, which therefore limits information to regular migrant workers – likely a small share of total migrant workers in the region. In light of this, primary data were collected on migrant workers via a structured questionnaire. The data allowed for identification of migrant workers' migration status and length of stay. Namely, long-term migrant workers who were in the country for more than six months and who had official documentation (regular migration status) or not (irregular migration status). Migration status was not captured for short-term migrant workers (those in the country for less than six months). Please note that regular and irregular migration status is not synonymous with regular and irregular migrant workers.

4.2.1. Reasons for leaving

Two-thirds of the migrant workers interviewed as part of this study left their home country in search of better income opportunities or jobs as their primary reason, 10 per cent for family and personal reasons, and 15 per cent for reasons of conflict. In the spirit of mixed migration flows, the reasons for initially leaving are likely to change over the course of the migration. Nonetheless, the initial reasons for migration broken down by migration status and length of stay expose some differences. As shown in figure 7, short-term migrant workers interviewed were much more likely to have come for better labour market or income opportunities than long-term migrant workers.

▶ **Figure 7.** Main reason for leaving home country, by migration status and length of stay



Source: Primary quantitative data collection.

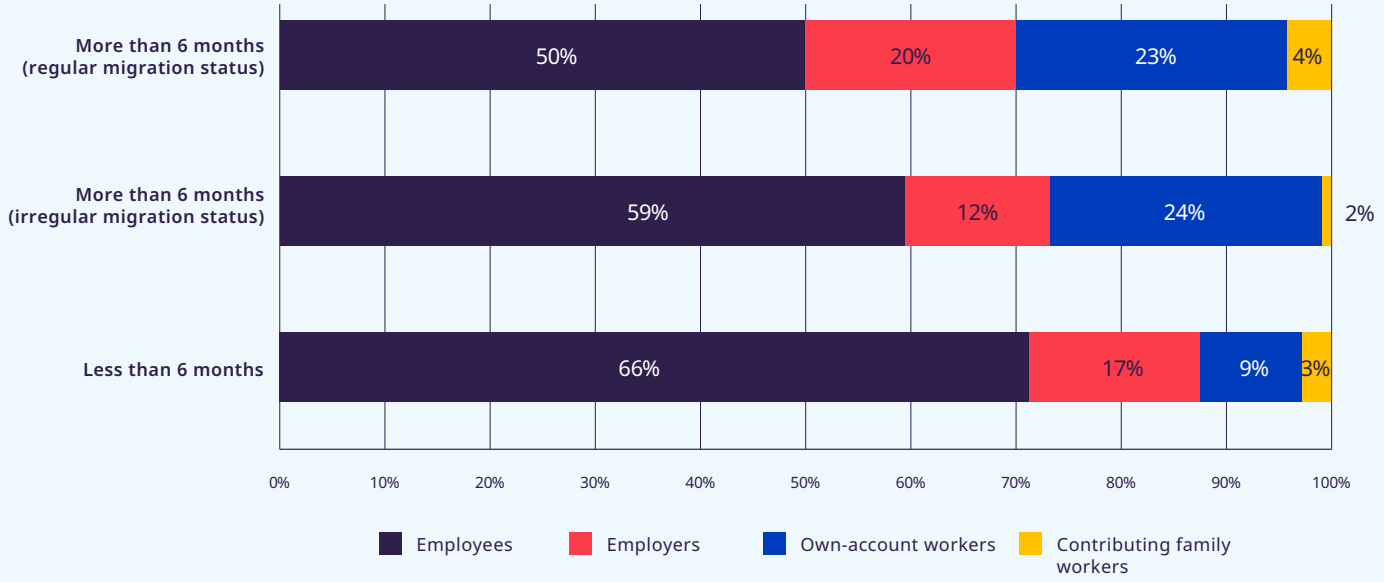
There are distinct differences in the driving reasons for migration according to migration status (figure 7). Long-term migrant workers with regular migration status were less likely to have initially left for better labour market or income opportunities (53 per cent) than those with irregular migration status (71 per cent). Notably, those with regular migration status were more likely to cite conflict as the main reason for leaving initially, at 26 per cent, compared to 12 per cent for those with irregular migration status. Those that left for reasons of conflict are more likely to be refugees and asylum-seekers than those that left for better labour market or income opportunities, suggesting that it may have a role in their regular migration status. However, depending on the countries, regular migration status does not necessarily mean that these people have the right to work, and in such cases, they would be considered irregular migrant workers. These findings highlight the need for alignment between national migration policies and labour migration policies to effectively manage labour migration, including the potential gains from IGAD regional policies.

4.2.2. Employment status

More than half of employed migrant workers interviewed were in wage and salaried employment (that is, "employees") (figure 8). The share was slightly higher among men (60 per cent) than among women (51 per cent). Women were more likely to be in own-account work (28 per cent) than men (17 per cent). Within long-term migrant workers, the main difference was that those with regular status were more likely than those with irregular status to be classified as employers (20 per cent and 12 per cent, respectively). For both categories, the cumulative share of

own-account workers and contributing family members was similar, at around 25 per cent, indicating a high propensity to be engaged in vulnerable employment. Short-term migrant workers were more likely to find wage employment (66 per cent) and less likely to be own-account workers or contributing family members (12 per cent overall). This finding is consistent with results from figure 7, which showed that the main reason for leaving their home country among short-term migrant workers of the sample was for labour market reason. It is also important to note that short-term migrant workers represented only 18 per cent of all migrant workers interviewed in these studies.

Figure 8. Status in employment, by migration status and length of stay



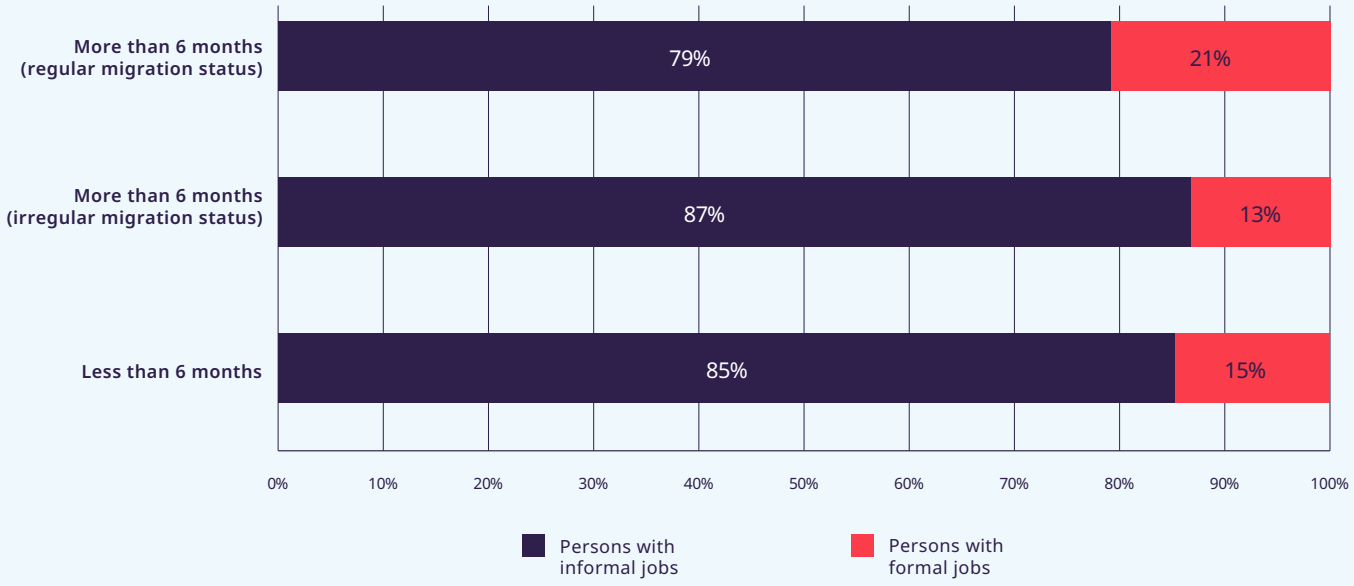
Source: Primary quantitative data collection.

4.2.3. Informality

There is a spectrum of informal employment situations rather than a clear dichotomy between formal and informal employment. Results from the interviews shows that informality among respondents was widespread. Calculated out of those in employment, 83 per cent of the migrant workers in the samples were working informally (figure 9), with similar shares between men and women. In addition, 50 per cent were working for informal units (figure 10). These two metrics complement each other, and analysed together, they show how the limits between formality and informality can be blurred in the world of work. By showing that most migrant workers interviewed were informal, yet that a smaller portion of them worked in informal units (or, conversely, that a meaningful share, 46 per cent in this instance, worked for formal units), the data underline the fact even formal units are likely to employ people (migrants or nationals) informally.

The vast majority (83 per cent) of the migrant workers interviewed as part of this study were in informal employment, meaning they did not have access to social security entitlement or forms of paid leave (see full definition in Appendix I). Informal employment was similar for all lengths of stay and migration statuses, as depicted in figure 9, with the highest incidence being among long-term migrant workers with irregular migration status (87 per cent). Such high levels of informal employment reflect the situation of national labour markets in the respective IGAD Member States.

▶ **Figure 9.** Informal employment, by migration status and length of stay

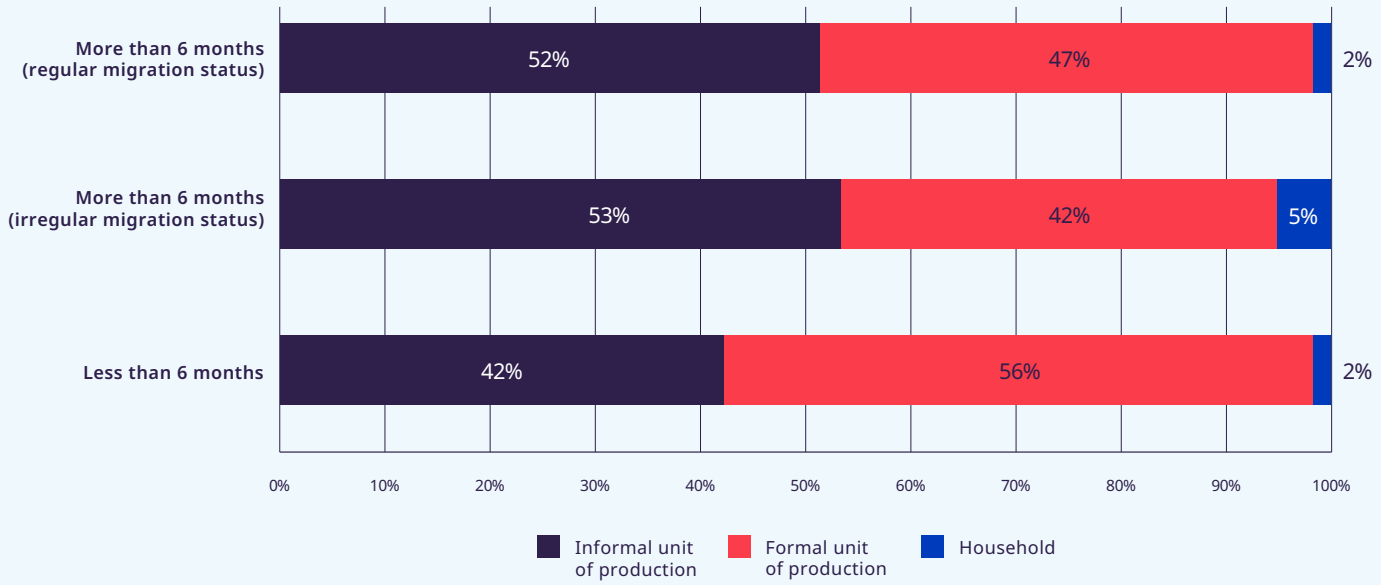


Source: Primary quantitative data collection.

At the same time, around half of migrant workers interviewed were working for an informal enterprise. Another form of informality is according to the place of work, where informal enterprises are unregistered enterprises, typically operating on a small scale and with low levels of organizational structure (ILO 2018). Such enterprises are often run by individuals through self-employment but may sometimes also hire others – without it being necessarily a sign of success or sustainability. Anyone working for an informal enterprise is considered to be in informal employment. But it is also possible to be in informal employment working for a formal enterprise, that is, a

registered, potentially more organized and larger corporation. In the IGAD Member States, 50 per cent of all the migrant workers interviewed were working for informal enterprises, however, 46 per cent were working for formal enterprises (the remaining 3 per cent were working in households). This may again be a reflection of the general situation in respective countries, although, especially, for migrant workers with irregular status, the vulnerability associated with informality is compounded with that of their migration status.

Figure 10. Employment in informal enterprises, by migration status and length of stay



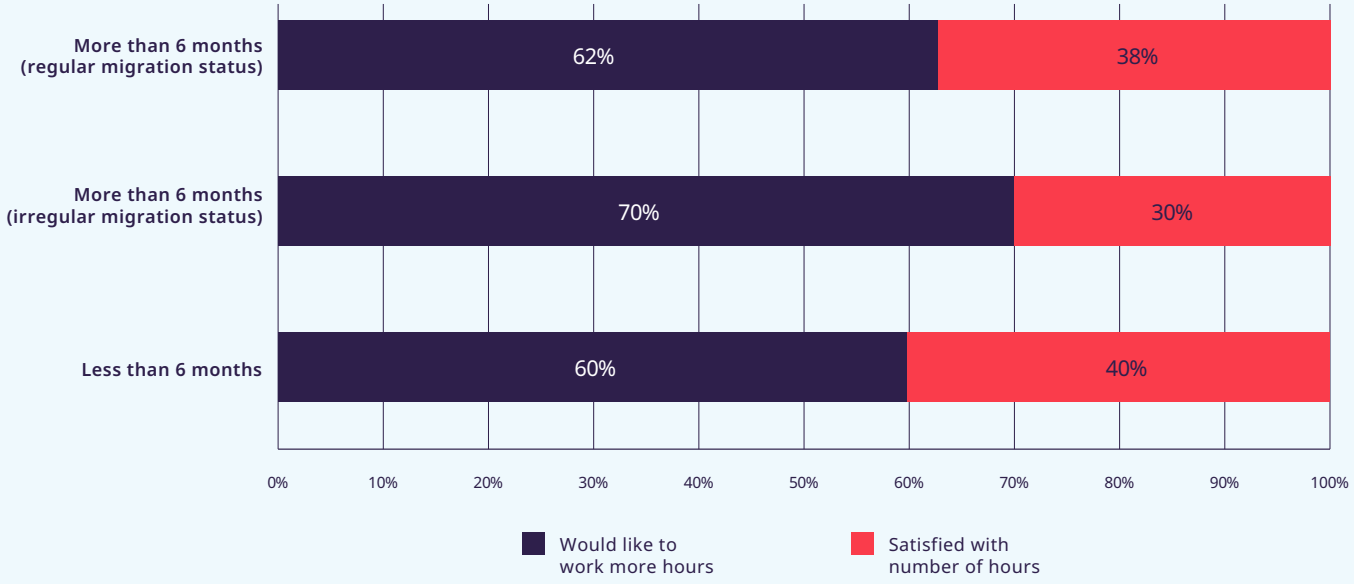
Source: Primary quantitative data collection.

For those who were hired as employees, only 22 per cent had a permanent contract and 33 per cent had a temporary contract. The remaining 45 per cent were unaware of what length of contract they were under. Considering that 83 per cent of all respondents were working informally, most likely with oral contracts rather than written contracts, this could be due to the fact that the employment relationship is valid until circumstances change and without specific dates being stated. It highlights the need for a labour migration policy that encourages written contracts provided in a language that workers can understand, to promote formal work arrangements and to make migrant workers aware of their rights and obligations.

4.2.4. Under-employment and labour underutilization

Nearly two-thirds of the migrant workers interviewed wanted to work more hours. As detailed in Section 4.1.3., time-related underemployment is one component of the ILO's definition of labour underutilization. The share of underemployment was comparable across the three categories of migrant workers, although it was highest among long-term migrant workers with irregular migration status at 70 per cent, and lowest among short-term migrant workers at 60 per cent (see figure 11).

▶ **Figure 11.** Time-related underemployment, by migration status and length of stay



Source: Primary quantitative data collection.

A non-negligible share of migrant workers interviewed (17 per cent) were classified as out of the labour force. This may seem surprising considering that the methodology specifically targeted migrant workers but can be explained by the fact that a strict definition of unemployment has been used in the framework of this study. According to this definition, three criteria need to be fulfilled to define a situation of unemployment: (i) not having a job; (ii) being actively searching for a job; and (iii) being immediately available to start a job should an opportunity arise. In labour markets that are largely informal, these criteria cannot always be fully observed, and the application of this strict definition results in classifying more people as out of the labour force than if a relaxed definition were to be applied. In this sense, these 17 per cent may be characterized as potential labour force.

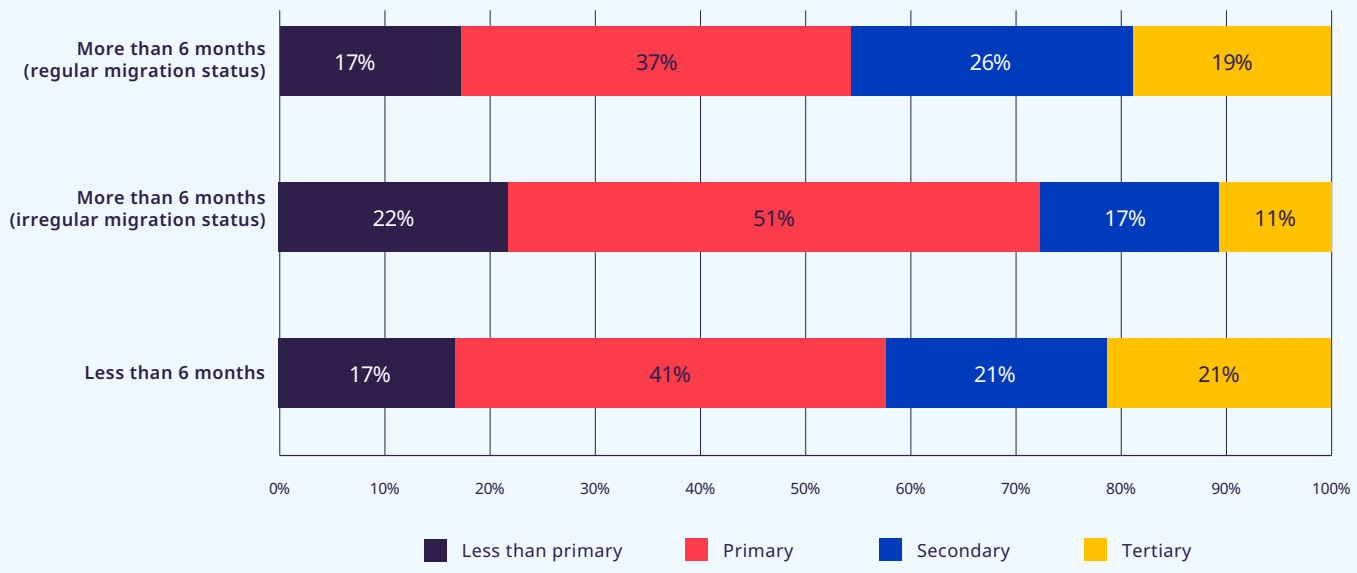
4.3. Skills composition and educational attainment

4.3.1. Educational attainment

There is a lack of standardized data on the educational attainment of the working age population or the workforce in the IGAD region, notwithstanding country data from the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Institute for Statistics. As a result, it is challenging to assess the average educational composition of the working age population in the region. However, drawing on country data that vary by year as well as by source (such as labour force surveys, household integrated surveys, population and housing censuses), the educational composition of the region is largely characterized by low levels of education. Nonetheless, in light of this, this section relies on ILO modelled data for occupational skill levels in the IGAD region as a whole, alongside primary data on the skills and educational composition of migrant workers interviewed as part of this study.

Of the migrant workers interviewed as part of this study, 62 per cent had a primary or less level of education, 21 per cent had a secondary level education, and the remaining 15 per cent had a tertiary level education. This supports the findings from key informant interviews that much of the migrant workers in the IGAD region from other IGAD Member States had predominantly low levels of education. This was one of the driving factors behind IGAD Member States' protectionist stances towards migrant workers, that with already low levels of education in the national labour market, these migrant workers would be competing for many of the same jobs.

Figure 12. Time-related underemployment, by migration status and length of stay

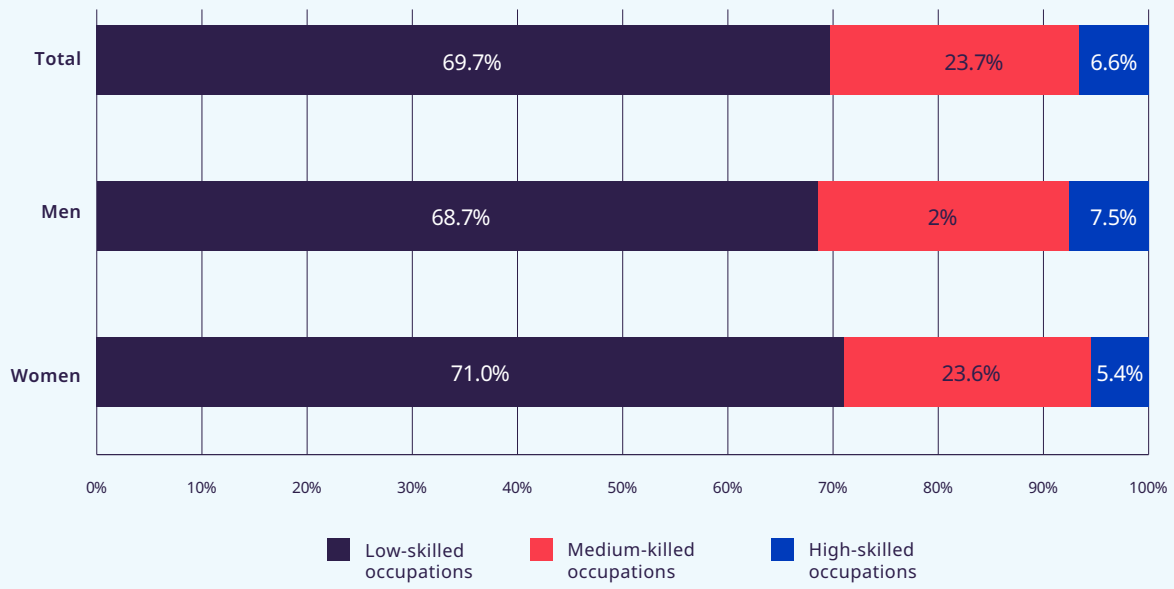


Source: Primary quantitative data collection.

4.3.2. Occupational skill levels

Occupational skill levels in IGAD Member States are very low. The estimates for occupational skill levels of the employed population in the IGAD region show that around 70 per cent were in low-skilled occupations in 2019 (figure 13), which is consistent with the high shares of employment in low-productivity agriculture (see Section 4.1.2.). It further estimated that only 6.6 per cent of the labour force were engaged in high-skilled occupations and 24 per cent in medium-skilled occupations. However, to have access to quality data, IGAD Member States would benefit from collecting data on the skills composition of their own citizens as well as of the migrant workers in their countries. A regional skills repository would further assist regional management of labour migration.

▶ **Figure 13.** Occupational skill levels, by sex



Source: Derived from ILO modelled estimates – Employment by occupation, November 2019. Note: In this context, low-skilled levels include those in elementary occupations as well as all agricultural workers due to difficulties in separating the skill levels of different agricultural workers.

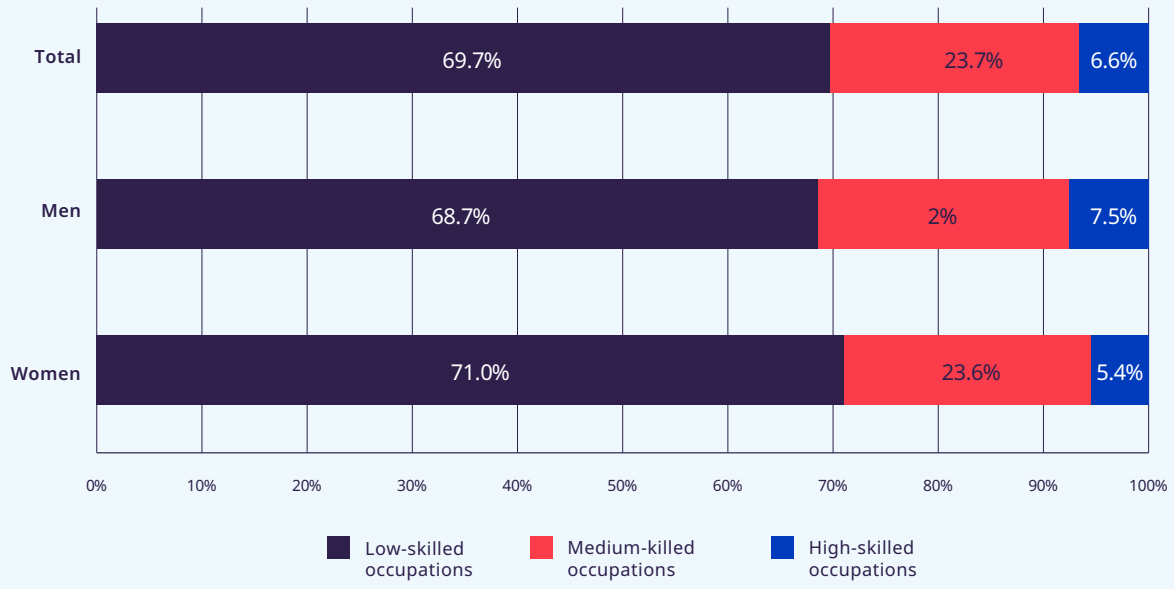
The occupational skill composition of the migrant workers interviewed varied somewhat according to length of stay in the host country and the regularity of their migration status, but showed overall low levels of specialization. Data from figure 14 show that the occupational skill profiles of short-term migrant workers and long-term migrant workers with regular status were very similar. For both these categories, only a quarter of respondents were engaged in low-skilled occupations, whereas just under half (around 46 per cent) were engaged in medium-skilled occupations, such as services and sales, skilled agriculture and crafts and related activities, and around a third were engaged in high-skilled occupations, such as managers, professionals and technicians and associates.

By comparison, long-term migrant workers with irregular status were more likely to be engaged in low-skilled occupations (38 per

cent) than in high-skilled occupations (18 per cent), which seem to indicate that they were not able to regularize their migration status the way others have.

Data nevertheless underline the fact that irregularity is associated with poorer employment outcomes, although the causality remains to be determined (are long-term migrant workers irregular because of their bad jobs, or are bad jobs the only employment opportunities for migrant workers with irregular status). Essentially, some migrant workers end up accumulating various layers of vulnerability (informality, low productive employment, irregular status of migration), which should be the focus of appropriate policies, including the establishment of a skills database to assess the needs of the country that goes beyond a blanket assessment at the educational/skill level.

Figure 14. Migrant workers occupational skill composition, by migration status and length of stay



Source: Primary quantitative data collection. Note: Medium- and low-skilled occupational classification adjusted to match those presented for IGAD region. See note attached to figure 13.

Key informant interviews highlighted that migrant workers were in demand in a range of sectors. These ranged from hairdressers/barbers to manual labour and skilled agricultural labour to higher-skilled occupations for hotels and NGOs. Ultimately, it suggested that there was demand across a range of skill levels and the status in employment findings suggest there may be potential for job creation across different skill levels. A priority is that market-oriented skills development for certain mid- and higher-skilled vocations are developed with employer engagement to ensure market demand for the skills (ILO 2020i). [4] However, more comprehensive data collection is necessary to draw such conclusions, namely from establishment surveys on informal employment, with variables that allow for the identification of migrant workers as business owners and employees.

4 See ILO 2020i for a more detailed overview of migrant workers' access to services and recognition of their qualifications and skills.

Chapter 5

Job creation and the private sector

5.1. Sectoral growth prospects for job creation

In all the IGAD Member States there are national development strategies that target focal sectors to facilitate structural transformation. These either have explicit job creation goals or implicit job creation outcomes. Due to the low-income and lower middle-income nature of countries in the IGAD region, structural transformation is still relatively undeveloped. Sectoral growth initiatives in development plans and trends in investment can therefore help identify where job creation may occur in the medium to long term. When considered in the context of industrialization, this can shed further light on job creation potential by sector. With regards to migrant workers, there are two main avenues to consider: firstly, the degree to which migrant workers are able to establish businesses in these sectors that can result in job creation for both host country nationals and other migrant workers; and secondly, the degree to which there is potential for job creation for migrant workers, and whether or not this results in competition with locals.

Many of the national development strategies in the region focus on common areas. These common areas include:

- agriculture, including raising agricultural productivity and improving food security;
- industry, particularly manufacturing growth and infrastructure development; and
- services, particularly information and communication technology (ICT) development and tourism.

All of these areas are covered within the IGAD Secretariat's thrusts for regional development. This is encouraging, as it also means there is scope for alignment between these initiatives and the role of migrant workers from the region. For instance, transport infrastructure projects are labour-intensive during the developmental phase, creating many jobs. But while the completion of such projects leads to job creation outcomes as a result of improved infrastructure, the many jobs stemming directly from the infrastructure project itself ultimately come to an end. However, the skills acquired from working on these projects can be applied in other locations, both in the same host country and in other IGAD Member States, allowing for skills and knowledge transfer to new host communities while not necessarily compromising the job availability that comes from improved infrastructure.

Agriculture is one of the main areas of focus, being the predominant source of livelihoods for much of the region's population. The range of activities to enhance the agricultural sector include bolstering productivity of smallholder farmers and pastoralists through the provision of modern inputs and services; modernizing research and development activities; and improving economic linkages between agricultural producers and commodity markets. A major consideration is that increased agricultural productivity will inevitably lead to displacement of agricultural workers. Many of whom will migrate to urban areas, or potentially abroad. It is therefore necessary to balance agricultural policies and outcomes with initiatives in light of rural–urban migration and international migration, including provision of training in key growing sectors for rural youth.

The role of migrant workers in agriculture is mixed. A number of key informants underscored that migrant workers play little role in agriculture, besides as manual day labour. However, Sudan is a significant exception, with a heavy reliance on migrant workers in the eastern states for seasonal work. In Uganda, while migrant workers may be engaged in manual labour in agriculture, foreign investors are prohibited from engaging or investing in agriculture, without an exemption from the ministry responsible for planning and economic development (ILO 2020g). Meanwhile, much of the agriculture is nomadic pastoralism, raising sheep, goats and camels, which is highly vulnerable to climatic shocks. Forecasted environmental change will need to be factored into anticipated shifts in the movement of persons and in transhumance.

Fishing is one sector that has been highlighted as a potential growth sector in countries such as Djibouti and Somalia, but with little potential for migrant workers. Djibouti's Strategy for Accelerated Growth and Employment Promotion (SCAPE) acknowledges the untapped fishing resources at Djibouti's disposal and the potential for job creation. It estimates that this industry could create between 2,500 and 5,000 jobs in a sustainable manner without depleting resources. There is little information to ascertain the role of migrant workers in fishing; however, the small-scale nature suggests that fishermen are likely to be involved in operations with few hired staff, thereby more likely presenting opportunities for job creation for Djiboutian rather than migrant workers. In Somalia, fishing has also been identified as a sector that could be expanded to create jobs in, but it would require a shift to large-scale operations, as currently the sector is characterized by artisanal fishing with little potential for hiring workers.

For industry, specific areas of focus include manufacturing sectors with strong local content, such as agro-processing and leather products. In Ethiopia, the use of industrial parks is also fundamental to its industrialization strategy. The industrial park strategy implemented by the Industrial Parks Development Corporation seeks to attract foreign direct investment in key strategic manufacturing industries, with an eye to bolstering export earnings, creating jobs and particularly facilitating technological transfer. Such an approach requires high-skilled migrant workers for skills transfer, as well as investment in the national labour force. In Ethiopia, the most relevant component with regard to migrant workers is the Jobs Compact, a high-level government pledge committing to the creation of economic opportunities, including in industrial parks, with 30,000 jobs for refugees (World Bank 2018a).

Another core area of focus is infrastructure development, including road, rail and ports. There are three main areas for job creation:

i. Infrastructure development can supply basic access to markets and local growth opportunities. For instance, in South Sudan, approximately 2 per cent of roads are paved, hindering access to markets and potential to trade.

ii. Infrastructure development linking regions and countries within the IGAD Member States can help diversify goods, finding new markets and increasing the region's economic diversification and therefore reducing vulnerability to price shocks.

iii. The region is positioned to allow for areas to become logistics hubs, particularly via ports in Djibouti, and connected networks, including rail. In Djibouti the industrial sector's growth has been driven by large-scale investments in infrastructure as part of Vision 2035 with its goal of transforming the country into a logistics and commercial hub. This includes development of ports, a major water pipeline, and construction of an electric railway connecting with Ethiopia.

Infrastructure development and construction can be a source of work for migrant workers, owing to the low-skilled, labour-intensive nature of much of the work.

In many of the IGAD Member States, the telecommunications sector has been identified as a crucial sector both for its direct growth and job creation potential, particularly around skills development and jobs for young people, but also as an enabler for wider economic activity. In Ethiopia, for instance, a major focus for productivity and job creation is anticipated to be through the ICT sector. Improvements and investments in ICT are expected to bolster capacity and the efficiency of public and private services, facilitate technological advancement and Ethiopia's digital economy, and especially to provide jobs for young entrants to the labour market. In Somalia, telecommunication is perhaps the most prolific growth sector. The IOM (2019) has suggested that high mobile penetration was resulting in significant expansion of the sector and of job opportunities to accompany it. Small-scale telecommunications retail provides an opportunity for low-skilled migrant workers, but there is still some degree of start-up capital required, which may not be feasible for migrant workers. In all countries, enhanced ICT education in schools would also help equip future labour market entrants with skills that are likely to be in demand.

Tourism is one of the main growth areas, but with little direct opportunity for migrant workers. In Djibouti, tourism is one of the focal sectors under the SCAPE strategy for both economic growth and job creation. According to SCAPE, around 4,500 jobs are in the tourism sector, with a large share in the informal economy (Djibouti 2015). According to the report "Tourism and Jobs", Ethiopia's tourism sector now accounts for 2.2 million people and grew by nearly 50 per cent from 2017 to 2018. Ethiopia's Jobs Creation Commission claims that of the 2.3 million target jobs to be created per annum, nearly 90,000 per annum will be created in the tourism sector. In Uganda, the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) forecast suggests that the sector has the potential to create around 350,000 direct jobs per annum over the next decade. Notably, the WTTC (2018) also suggests that while the tourism sector has contributed to around 3 per cent of GDP, 60 per cent of which is generated in the informal economy. The expansion of the tourism sector is likely to be predominantly a provider of jobs for the national labour force; however, there is potential for economic linkages that will benefit sectors that migrant workers are engaged in, including transport, construction and services.

Expansion in tourism is, however, not without obstacles. In Djibouti, pre-requisites for tourism expansion include:

i. the creation of a master plan for the development of primary touristic areas;

ii. the establishment of a suitable airport policy;

iii. the enhancement of the National Tourism Office capacity;

iv. the improvement of training for jobs in tourism; and

v. the deployment of efforts to classify the remarkable sites of Djibouti on the UNESCO World Heritage List (Djibouti 2015).

While in Kenya, tourism contributes significantly to employment, and has strong links to the rural economy that are most prominent in wildlife tourism (World Bank 2017b). However, there are deepening risks that Kenya's focus on tourist numbers rather than sustainability will continue to undermine the industry and limit its growth. Problems of congestion, overcrowding and ecosystem degradation in popular tourist spots may worsen as more tourist visits threaten habitats.

Expansion of retail and wholesale has potential for job creation; however, options for migrant workers are more limited owing in part to language barriers. In Somalia, for instance, the IOM (2019) has highlighted the growth and potential of the retail and whole sector and suggests that the ease of opening a small business in this sector allows for self-employment opportunities. However, the extent to which this helps migrant workers depends on the ease with which migrant workers can set up a business, and little information is available to this end. At the same time, a challenge cited in focus group discussions and key informant interviews was the language barrier, even though it is often more a matter of dialectal differences. This barrier prevents access to job opportunities in occupations that require client interactions, such as most of those in the services sector.

Primary data collected as part of this study suggests migrant workers are engaged across a range of sectors but often in the informal economy. Employment in the informal economy varied from construction to sales and service workers, and including paid employees and the self-employed. This suggests that while sectoral growth will bolster job creation, migrant workers are less able to capitalize directly as a result of their operating in the informal economy. However, there is potential for job creation resulting from indirect and induced impacts from development initiatives, such as economic growth and the wider community spending, which can result in increased demand for goods and services offered by migrant workers.

5.2. Private sector and business environment

A result of data shortfalls, a challenge for the region is understanding the composition of enterprises in IGAD Member States. There is a shortage of establishment censuses and surveys in the region, and when they do exist, they can fail to fully capture the informal economy, thereby painting a partial picture. Nonetheless, according to the data that do exist, the majority of businesses in the region are micro- and small-sized enterprises. In Kenya, only around 3 per cent of businesses employ more than 50 people (KNBS 2019), and in Uganda, more than 93 per cent are micro-sized enterprises, with less than four workers per enterprise. The majority of these enterprises are family-based and usually operate in the informal economy (Uganda 2017). Only in Uganda was information on migrant workers captured in an establishment survey, with the Manpower Survey 2016 asking whether businesses had hired migrant workers or envisaged hiring migrant workers. Thought the use of up-to-date establishment censuses and surveys, IGAD Member States would be able to achieve more effective policymaking in a range of areas, including national employment policies, ease of doing business policies, investment policies and labour migration policies.

There are a number of common challenges for the region's business environment, ranging from access to electricity, to corruption. In Djibouti, for instance, nearly half of all firms in the World Bank Enterprise Survey data for 2013 identified electricity as the primary obstacle in the business environment (EBRD, EIB, and World Bank 2016). Somalia has one of the most expensive electricity rates (roughly US$1 per kilowatt-hour) and as a result has one of lowest rates of electricity usage in the world. As electricity is vital to the efficiency of most businesses, the high cost of electricity, invariably drives up the cost of maintaining a business and drives up the prices of goods and services (World Bank 2018b). While a number of IGAD Member States have established anti-corruption commissions and implemented anti-corruption frameworks, corruption-related challenges to conducting business are part of a range of obstacles that hinder private sector growth and therefore job creation.

Access to finance is commonly cited as a major challenge for doing business in IGAD Member States, as seen in the World Bank's Ease of Doing Business Index and reaffirmed in key informant findings. In Ethiopia, for instance, a report on the private sector in IGAD also specifically highlighted access to capital as a major constraint for private sector growth, underscoring both the nascent domestic banking system and public sector dominance in supply of and demand for credit (Ahmed 2017). In Somalia, access to finance is severely limited as a result of an undeveloped financial sector. Access to credit instead relies largely on informal lending channels, often supported by the diaspora. There is little information on access to credit for migrant workers, but due to the informal nature of migrant workers' employment in much of the region, it can be assumed that the finance channels available are equally informal with little access to formal services and institutions.

In a number of locations, conflict is a major obstacle to private sector development. In Sudan, for instance, particularly in Darfur, Kordufan and Blue Nile State, internal conflict has jeopardized private sector activities and the economic potential from natural resources and minerals. Internal conflicts have cut trade links, ended livelihoods for small farmers and interrupted migratory patterns of nomadic pastoralists. While the conflict has resulted in significant displacement, for those that have stayed and continued to run their businesses, they have been subjected to higher taxes. At the same time, wider political stability is actually serving as a negative factor for foreign investment based on fears over nationalization and other appropriation of businesses and investments, despite government guarantees against this happening. In Somalia, infrastructure was severely impacted by the war, and current limitations weigh heavily on the ease of doing business.

Investment rules for foreigners have implications for both the attractiveness for foreign direct investment as well as guidelines around hiring of migrant workers. In Ethiopia, for instance, foreign investors are awarded favourable visa terms, including multiple entry visas for foreign investors of up to five years and up to three years for employees, including service providers, managers, board members and senior experts (EIC 2017). In Kenya, KenInvest – the body responsible for encouraging foreign investment – stipulates that hiring of any expatriates is permitted provided no Kenyan is available with the required skillset. Similarly, in Sudan, the Ministry of Investment allows for 20 per cent of staff in an investment to be foreign, but the same caveats apply, including proof that no Sudanese could do the work. If the Ministry of Investment considers a project to be highly strategic then up to 100 per cent of staff can be foreign and in special economic zones, there are no restrictions on the number of foreign workers (ILO 2020f). In Uganda also, recruitment of migrant workers by foreign investors is permitted on condition that no Ugandan can perform the task (ILO 2020g).

In terms of migrant workers starting a business, the focus is mostly on large-scale foreign investors rather than small-scale migrant workers starting businesses. The informal nature of migrant workers portrayed in the primary data collected as part of this study and from key informant interviews suggests that small-scale informal enterprises are established by migrant workers, but mostly on an own-account worker basis with little opportunity for job creation. This, however, could be more accurately gauged from an establishment survey that collects data on micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises, including in the informal economy. In Djibouti, for instance, key informant interviews and focus group discussants mentioned the small-scale business activities of migrant workers and how this results in job creation. It is possible that job creation potential from migrant worker activity in business creation is overlooked due to its largely informal nature.

Chapter 6

Improved governance for employment and job promotion

6.1. Employment policy and legislation

All IGAD Member States acknowledge employment and job creation as a core component of their national development strategies, despite varying approaches. For instance, the Government of Djibouti has laid out its plans to address the employment challenge in its long-term development blueprint Vision 2035, and sees employment as a critical element to foster the structural transformation of the economy towards higher-productivity employment (Djibouti 2014). In Ethiopia, the 1995 Constitution stipulates the Government's position to "undertake all measures necessary to increase opportunities for citizens to find gainful employment" (art. 41). Whereas in South Sudan, employment features prominently in the National Development Plan, yet most of the priority areas described to tackle the employment challenge are not specifically employment policies, but broader economic development measures such as improving roads, access to extension and financial services, and the regulatory environment for the private sector.

While most IGAD Member States have a national employment policy, implementation commonly falls short. [5] For instance, in Ethiopia there is a National Employment Policy and Strategy wherein the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA) is mandated with the responsibility of implementation and assessing the effectiveness of measures taken. However, MoLSA's mandate appears largely focused on labour governance, rather than employment policy and strategy, with a lack of mainstreaming of employment policies and strategies through wider governmental strategy. In Uganda, the National Employment Policy 2011 sought to provide a framework to achieve "decent and remunerative employment for all women and men seeking such work, in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity" (Uganda 2011, iii). However, an evaluation commissioned by the Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development conducted on the National Employment Policy as part of a review of the Government's overall approach to employment found that implementation of the Policy was insufficient (Uganda 2014). Part of the challenge is in the comprehensiveness of the national employment policies drafted, with a need for responsibilities and targets to be established for effective monitoring and greater accountability. Further, there is a need for whole-of-government approaches that align the national employment policies with labour migration policies and others.

Any acknowledgement of migrant workers tends to be shaped around nationals abroad or protecting jobs and employment for national workers at home. In Djibouti, for instance, migrant workers are not featured in the national employment policy (and there is no labour migration policy). Instead, the approach is shaped towards limiting opportunities for migrant workers under the notion that this will safeguard employment opportunities for Djiboutians. In Kenya, the National Employment Authority addresses migrant workers issues but predominantly from an outbound migration perspective and does not adequately consider migrant workers in Kenya's labour market. Instead, the focus is on regulating the export of Kenyan migrant workers to the Gulf States of Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates. There is also no mention of the emigration of Kenyans to other African, European and other countries for employment. While in Somalia, migration factors are only considered in the national employment policy with regards to the lack of opportunities contributing significantly to the outflow of Somali youth. Further, Somalia's National Development Plan looks to regularize migration to facilitate the repatriation of labour migrants and refugees (Somalia 2017).

5 The General Survey 2020–2021 (Certain Instruments Related to the Strategic Objective of Employment) published by the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations (CEACR), provides an assessment of the degree to which countries comply with components of the Employment Policy Convention, 1964 (No. 122) and other employment-related conventions, whether or not a country has adopted Convention No. 122.

All IGAD Member States have labour laws that incorporate international labour standards; however, such labour laws typically only cover regular migrant workers and sometimes exclude informal activities altogether. For instance, in Ethiopia, the Labour Proclamation (1156/2019) is the principal source of labour governance in the country but applies only to Ethiopian nationals and regular migrant workers in Ethiopia. In Djibouti, the main legal framework is the Labour Code 2006, which outlines all the regulations for the labour market, but focuses only on the formally employed. In Sudan, foreign workers without legal status have no protection under the law. This has major implications in the face of socioeconomic shocks, as seen with the COVID-19 pandemic, where those in informal employment lack the job security, regular income, protection and even means to make a living as a result of restrictive measures put in place to help stem the spread of COVID-19. This raises the need to explore how to ensure that the informal economy is covered to some degree by labour laws and social protection in order to mitigate impacts on the large proportion of the population engaged in the informal economy and their households.

Table 2. Ratification of ILO fundamental Conventions in the IGAD region, by country

Convention	Djibouti	Ethiopia	Kenya	Somalia	South Sudan	Sudan	Uganda
Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29)	In force (1978)	In force (2003)	In force (1964)	In force (1960)	In force (2012)	In force (1957)	In force (1963)
Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87)	In force (1978)	In force (1963)	Not ratified	In force (2014)	Not ratified	Not ratified	In force (2005)
Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98)	In force (1978)	In force (1963)	In force (1964)	In force (2014)	In force (2012)	In force (1957)	In force (1963)
Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100)	In force (1978)	In force (1999)	In force (2001)	Not ratified	In force (2012)	In force (1970)	In force (2005)
Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105)	In force (1978)	In force (1999)	In force (1964)	In force (1961)	In force (2012)	In force (1970)	In force (1963)

Convention	Djibouti	Ethiopia	Kenya	Somalia	South Sudan	Sudan	Uganda
Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111)	In force (2005)	In force (1966)	In force (2001)	In force (1961)	In force (2012)	In force (1970)	In force (2005)
Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138)	In force (2005)	In force (1999)	In force (1979)	Not ratified	In force (2012)	In force (2003)	In force (2003)
Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182)	In force (2005)	In force (2003)	In force (2001)	In force (1999)	In force (2012)	In force (2003)	In force (2001)

Source: ILO n.d.-a.

6.2. Labour market information

While most Member States acknowledge the importance and necessity of systematic labour market information and analysis there has been mixed progress in this regard. A subset of labour market governance, labour market information provides the foundation of effective and evidence-based labour market governance and labour migration and mobility governance. Systematic labour market information and analysis refers to institutional mechanisms that:

i. collect and compile data and information relevant to the labour market;

ii. act as a repository for such information;

iii. provide analytical capacities and tools; and

iv. facilitate institutional arrangements and networks. [6]

In the IGAD Member States, all governments acknowledge to different degrees the necessity of such information and usually outline plans to develop a labour market information system (LMIS) in national planning strategies; however, with some exceptions, the lack of development of such systems reflect different interpretations as to what an LMIS construes and entails. For instance, in Uganda the notion of an LMIS was never fully or clearly defined. Instead, it was predominately perceived as a database or tool to facilitate job training, with the following components: (i) job matching database; (ii) external employment management system; (iii) labour claim information system; (iv) internal employment information system; and (v) Labour Officers sharing system (ICON-Institute 2019).

The benefits of systematic labour market information and analysis, and what the process entails, need to be clarified across Member States. An LMIS is best thought of as systematic labour market information and analysis that allows for: (i) collection and compilation of data and information; (ii) repository of information; (iii) analytical capacity and tools; and (iv) institutional arrangements and networks. Further, an LMIS allows for the facilitation of labour market analysis; provides the basis for monitoring and reporting on employment and labour policies; and constitutes a mechanism to exchange information or coordinate

6 Adapted from ILO n.d.-b.

different actors and institutions that produce and utilize labour market information and analysis. In this regard, and in the context of labour market information along with labour migration and mobility, information should be able to capture information on both labour supply and labour demand, both for nationals (in the country and abroad) and migrants according to their degree of attachment to the labour market.

Ethiopia is emerging as a good practice example in the IGAD region for systematic labour market information and analysis. In 2019, Ethiopia's Jobs Creation Commission established an LMIS that seeks to help "understand the drivers, barriers, needs and aspirations of the people of Ethiopia through data and insights" (Ethiopia 2019). It is split into two parts:

i. an online portal known as the Labour Market Insights (LMIS-I) component, that provides labour supply and demand information from a range of different data sources, including the labour force survey and administrative data and trade and enterprise data;

ii. a mobile app known as the Labour Market Services (LMIS-S) component, which offers digital solutions for workers and employer intermediaries, including recruitment agencies and public employment service centres.

Both components are still under development at the time of this analysis. Ethiopia can be considered a good practice example because the following also exist:

- labour force surveys conducted every five years;
- regular Urban Employment and Unemployment Surveys;
- bulletins provided by MoLSA on labour relations information, including on work permits to non-Ethiopians;
- MoLSA bulletins on vacancies; and
- enterprise surveys.

Gaps exist, particularly around skills, however there has been significant progress.

Labour force surveys are the principal source of information on labour market supply, but currently lack information on migrant workers, outbound migrants and returnees. Different data sources can be used for information on labour supply, including population and housing censuses, other household surveys and ad hoc assessments, however, there are limitations to these alternatives, including the fact that they do not provide for regular and consistent data collection (for instance, population and housing censuses are often conducted every ten years and ad hoc assessments are often one-off studies). Further, labour force surveys should follow international definitions and concepts as outlined in by the International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS). This is the standard setting body for labour statistics and the use of ICLS definitions allows for comparability over time and between countries. Further, the use of ICLS definitions allows for the calculation and analysis of a variety of labour market concepts, for instance, different degrees of labour market attachment and labour underutilization, as well as informality. Further, resources are available to support countries on the design and implementation of labour force surveys. A key source of information is guidance and questionnaire modules around the collection of data on migrant workers. [7] While most Member States have labour force surveys, currently none apply this migration module.

While population and housing censuses are not advised as principal sources of labour market information, they are crucial to the representative sampling of labour force surveys. Population and housing censuses exist for most of the Member States, however, in cases such as South Sudan and Somalia, the lack of recent data undermines plans to conduct labour force surveys. Labour force surveys are less resource intensive than population and housing censuses because they are samples of the population (rather than answered by the whole population, as per Censuses) and can therefore be conducted more regularly. As samples, in order to be representative of the population the underlying sampling frames need to be based on a recent population and housing census. The absence of a recent population and housing census means that the sampling is unlikely to be an accurate representation of the population.

7 For more information, see the ILO's online resources for conducting labour force surveys: https://ilostat.ilo.org/resources/lfs-resources/.

Establishment surveys exist in Member States but are largely insufficient for deriving information on labour demand characteristics, including in the informal economy and for migrant workers. As per the labour force survey and population and housing census, establishment surveys rely on recent establishment censuses in order to ensure the representativeness of the establishments surveyed. This needs to include information on the informal economy. In Kenya, for instance, the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics conducted a Census of Establishments in 2017 and reportedly has recently completed a similar census for micro- and small-sized enterprises. However, the main limitation is that it only collects data on formal enterprises. Further, the Census of Establishments does consider foreign-owned enterprises and Kenyan offices of foreign enterprises, but provides no indication with regards to the nationalities of workers. These are instrumental for understanding the demand for migrant workers and their role in the labour market.

Administrative data and information on job vacancies is important information but insufficient as a reflection of labour demand. For instance, Kenya has been lauded for its development of the Kenya Labour Market Information System (KLMIS). The KLMIS presents vacancies data drawn from job vacancies published on its website and also in selected publications. It presents this information on a quarterly basis, highlighting the occupations and skills most in demand based on these sources. While this information is certainly useful, particularly with regard to viewing changes over time, the underlying data are too narrow and present a limited scope of labour demand. Further, the data clearly show a tendency towards higher-skilled occupations, which are presumably more likely to be advertised in these forums. Administrative data and job vacancies information need to form only one component of systematic labour market information and analysis.

A distinct shortfall on the demand-side is the lack of a skills anticipation mechanism by which to forecast future skills needs and therefore to use this information in economic policy, education policy and migration policy. The main source of information on skills composition is from existing labour supply data sources, while skills anticipation can be captured from establishment surveys, as well as administrative data and job vacancies. However, this approach tends to be narrow, with job vacancies in particular focused on higher-skilled occupations only. This undermines the ability to design active labour market programmes, to inform curriculum development and technical and vocational education and training (TVET) programmes, and to better manage both the inflows and outflows of migrant workers according to skill needs and mismatches.

The main data sources for migrant workers are currently work permit databases, which fail to capture irregular migrant workers and therefore paint a narrow and limited picture of migrant workers. In Somalia, for instance, the main sources of information on migrant workers are formed from work permit data collected by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. This information contains details such as employer's name, contract length and nationality. It also contains information on what the job entails. However, such information is limited to formal migrant workers only, and according to key informant interviews these are predominantly higher-skilled individuals working for international organizations and NGOs. Therefore, the vast majority of migrant workers, who either enter informally or are engaged in informal employment, will not be captured. Similarly, in South Sudan information on migrant workers is limited to administrative data collected through immigration procedures and the issuing of work permits. Considering that irregular migrant workers vastly outnumber those that come with regular work permits, these data do not provide an accurate picture of labour migration inflows, nor do they capture outgoing migration and the South Sudanese diaspora.

More comprehensive data need to be collected on both regular and irregular migrant workers to understand their roles in and contributions to the labour market, and these data should be shared with IGAD Member States. In order to allow for migrant worker information to feature within systematic labour market information and analysis, it is necessary to allow for the capture of information on regular and irregular migrant workers, as well as on the informal economy. This includes in population and housing censuses, labour force surveys and other household surveys, and establishment censuses and surveys, among

others. Further, the data collected needs to be made publicly available and shared with the IGAD Secretariat to allow for the development of regional policies and for an understanding of intraregional migrant worker dynamics.

Labour market information can only be used effectively with appropriate and rigorous analysis. For effective policymaking, labour market information requires solid analysis. For instance, labour force survey data and establishment survey data can be used to assess skill gaps via the skills composition and skills needs of the economy, thereby helping to shape labour migration policies effectively. This requires the analysts of the data to be aware of the concepts, definitions and interpretations. As such, it is necessary that IGAD Member States ensure that there are analysts with these required skills and that appropriate budgets and resources are allocated for analysis and not be overshadowed by the data collection itself.

6.3. Employment services

In the IGAD region public employment services provide only minimal functions and instead rely on private employment agencies to provide key job matching services. Employment services are believed to be one of the major conduits for job matching, enhancing employability, addressing skill mismatches and linking support directly to employers and workers through the operation of various active labour market programmes. However, public employment offices are often found to have capacity constraints, thereby limiting their potential services on offer. In Djibouti for instance, while the objectives of the National Agency for Employment, Training and Professional Integration (ANEFIP) are sweeping and appropriate, the reality is that with widespread shortages of jobs, particularly outside of Djibouti City, ANEFIP offices are sometimes resigned only to the role of registering jobseekers and adding them to the national database. Further, given the large number of jobseekers, it is often not possible to assist with placements and professional trainings (such as languages and soft skills), which falls under ANEFIP's mandate.

Ethiopia is an example of good practice through initiatives to revitalize low-capacity public employment services. Ethiopia's public employment services are largely focused on registering jobseekers, but were found to lack the resources and coordination to do this effectively while also overlooking other key labour market service functions (Yilak 2018). To address these shortfalls, the Jobs Creation Commission is developing, as part of its Labour Market Services module, digital services to facilitate job matching, including computer software used by public employment service agents to register jobseekers. It is also developing a mobile app to be used by private individuals to start the registration of new companies. While these services already exist, they had not been made fully digital yet, and so are now also better integrated with a wider labour market system, including pensions management (Ethiopia 2019).

Migrant workers tend not to have access to resources offered by public employment services, with some exceptions, such as in Sudan. Public employment services, also known in Sudan as Labour Offices or Employment Services Centres, assist with:

- registering jobseekers;
- counselling jobseekers;
- appraising jobseekers of job vacancies;
- canvassing among jobseekers and employers for jobseeker registrations and vacancies, respectively; and
- other types of referral services.

According to key informant interviews, Labour Offices can also assist with the placement of migrant workers with employers in Sudan, particularly for types of workers that fall outside the scope of the Labour Act, 1997, including agricultural workers, casual workers and domestic workers. This is an exception, and in most Member States migrant workers are not eligible for any public employment services besides registration for formal employment and obtaining work permits.

Private employment services are the main providers of job matching in the national labour market. Private employment agencies or recruitment firms operate on the basis of provision of job matching services through the advertising of employers' job vacancies and by providing placement services on behalf of employers. Often these job matching services are provided using digital services through online platforms. Private employment agencies' job matching services in IGAD Member States appear to be mostly focused on the hiring of high-skilled migrant workers. Rather than developing their public employment services, it can be more efficient for governments to instead link to private employment agencies for national job matching. For instance, Ethiopia's Jobs Creation Commission publishes a list of job vacancy websites, linking jobseekers with these private employment agencies (Ethiopia 2019).

Protection of national workers abroad is a priority for a number of IGAD Member States, and regulation of private employment agencies forms one component of this. In Kenya, overseas placement is a priority area for the National Employment Authority, and regulation of private employment agencies has been considered one of the Government's priorities in terms of labour migration. This includes the 2016 Code of Conduct for Private Recruitment Agencies that was developed between the Government and a number of private employment agency bodies. The Code is focused on the protection of Kenyan migrant workers abroad, particularly in the Middle East. In Uganda, the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development is expanding its employment service function to predominantly support the externalization of labour through licensed private employment agencies. The Ministry's National Labour Externalization Programme is intended to guarantee the protection of the rights and promotion of welfare of emigrant worker. The programme is meant to address the uncoordinated and illegal movement of workers out of the country that have characterized much of past outbound migration. The programme seeks to establish bilateral agreements with countries that are interested in workers from Uganda.

6.4. Migrant workers

For a comprehensive overview of labour migration and mobility governance in the IGAD Member States, detailed information is provided in the parallel study IGAD Regional Report: An Assessment of Labour Migration and Mobility Governance (ILO 2020h). Certain key findings from this study and the country reports that supported the regional study are highlighted in this section.

6.4.1. Labour market functionality

While some countries have draft policies in place, none of the IGAD Member States have standalone labour migration policies adopted and in effect. Key informants highlighted that labour migration policies have been in development or have been under discussion in most Member States, but in no cases has a labour migration policy been adopted. Kenya is one such example, having produced a draft labour market policy in 2010 that was not officially adopted. Then a more recent draft National Labour Migration Policy and Strategy for Kenya was developed in 2017 by the National Employment Authority, but this expected to be subsumed by a National Migration Policy that is also still in the process of being developed (ILO 2020c).

With the lack of labour migration policies, governance of labour migration is implicitly covered by a range of policies and legislation that do not necessarily have the same objectives. Ethiopia, for example, does not have a labour migration policy or a migration policy, and instead, labour migration policy objectives are spread across different laws and policy frameworks (ILO 2020b). While in South Sudan, the procedures and rules governing labour migration and

mobility are spread across various laws and regulations, which are at times contradictory and inconsistently applied (ILO 2020e). There is, therefore, a need to develop labour migration policies through a whole-of-government approach, so that there is consistency and alignment with the different policies under the jurisdiction of different government ministries and departments, including any national employment policies and national migration policies.

All IGAD Member States tended to focus on protection of their national labour force, with perceptions around the benefits of migrant workers limited only to those derived from higher-skilled migration. In the absence of labour migration policies, governments' stances towards migrant workers can be gleaned from existing policy frameworks and legislation. Consistently, all the IGAD Member States showed a tendency to see migrant workers as a threat to the national labour force, with the exception of higher skilled migrants. Even then, work permits and visas protocols tend to support the notion of higher skilled migration only for short periods, or until a national worker is able to do the work. In Djibouti, for instance, key informant interviews supported the notion that the priorities of the Government are around regulating the number of migrant workers in Djibouti as a means of protecting the Djiboutian labour force. In Ethiopia, key informant interviews often stressed the importance and priority of higher-skilled migrant workers to the Ethiopian economy.

Skills assessments are a necessary means of systematically assessing the needs of the labour market that could be addressed through labour migration. The focus on higher-skilled migrant workers means that lower-skilled migrant workers are more likely to be irregular. The focus on higher-skilled migrant workers is also based on the notion that these workers will be able to transfer skills and knowledge to the domestic labour force. Ethiopia is a good example, as the Government acknowledges that migrant workers are sometimes necessary where there are skill gaps and that the priority is that the country will be able to benefit from knowledge, technology and skill transfer. Ethiopia's National Employment Policy and Strategy seeks to facilitate this through periodic labour market assessments for skill gaps, and establishes mechanisms to ensure the country benefits from these migrant workers. An approach of this sort is helpful as skill needs are not limited to higher-skilled jobs or professional roles. For instance, in Djibouti, the activities of migrant workers were often considered to not be commonly practiced by nationals, and therefore migrant workers were thought to be introducing new skills and know-how into the labour market. This includes farming, where a number of key informants highlighted the need for and even reliance on migrant workers' experience in the sector.

Other regional blocs such as the EAC and COMESA display some of the challenges with regard to free movement of persons and labour market functionality. Membership of these various regional bodies facilitates different degrees of free movement from neighbouring countries; however, according to key informant interviews in Kenya, it does not always correspond to free movement of labour. This points to the need for a regional labour migration policy to facilitate skills recognition systems and matching of supply and demand for labour across borders.

A number of IGAD Member States' openness to refugees and integration in the labour market is a reflection of progress towards the UN Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework and the IGAD Declaration on Durable Solutions. The IGAD region contains a number of countries that have relatively progressive stances with regard to integration of refugees. This includes Ethiopia, in which the Refugees Proclamation (1110/2019) focuses on increased integration of refugees and affords refugees with the rights to employment and to engage in business, with equal rights as nationals under labour laws. In addition, the Proclamation includes the allocation of agricultural land for cultivation by refugees as well as quota systems in industrial parks. In Uganda, refugees have the right to work and self-employment under the same conditions as nationals, and upon registration, a piece of land is given to each refugee family for settlement and agricultural use.

Where there is a lack of access to the labour market for refugees, it tends to result in informal employment. The stance towards refugees is not as progressive in all IGAD

Member States. In Kenya, for instance, the 2006 Refugees Act makes it an offence for refugees to live and work outside refugee camps or transit centres without permission from the Government. The lack of institutional capacity and the lack of necessary steps for implementation of the Act means that many refugees have different types of documentation and many are actually working informally. While in South Sudan, procedures for refugees seeking to work in South Sudan are very similar to those of regular work migrants. However, few refugees in South Sudan have been issued with work permits, and the ones that do work seem to do so mainly informally. In Sudan, key informants working in this area specify that while it is a priority to comply with formal processes (including medical and security checks) for facilitating employment for refugees, it is not uncommon for refugees to move in and out of camps to work, often using public transport and without work permits.

6.4.2. Equal treatment of migrant workers

Labour laws in the IGAD Member States are shaped around regular migrant workers only, leaving irregular migrant workers with few rights and little access to recourse and remedy. For instance, the Labour Code 2006 in Djibouti contains all procedures and regulations for the employment of migrant workers, but it only covers regular migrant workers, that is, those with the correct paperwork for both entry into the country and authorization to work. The Labour Code therefore omits the vast majority of migrant workers, who are irregular and most commonly employed informally. While in Ethiopia, difficulties in obtaining work permits and the focus on higher-skilled migrant workers mean that the vast majority of migrant workers in Ethiopia – which are more likely to be irregular – are outside the scope of the Labour Proclamation and the National Employment Plan and Strategy objectives. This leaves these migrant workers highly vulnerable to exploitation and subject to poorer working conditions than their regular and national counterparts.

▶ Box 2. Equality of opportunity and treatment for migrant workers with nationals

Article 6(1) of the ILO Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97), provides that each Member for which this Convention is in force undertakes to apply, without discrimination in respect of nationality, race, religion or sex, to immigrants lawfully within its territory, treatment no less favourable than that which it applies to its own nationals in respect of: remuneration, membership of trade unions and rights to collective bargaining, accommodation, social security, employment taxes and legal proceedings related to matters referred to in this Convention.

Article 10 of the Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143), (Part II on Equality of Opportunity and Treatment) provides that: "Each Member for which the Convention is in force undertakes to declare and pursue a national policy designed to promote and to guarantee, by methods appropriate to national conditions and practice, equality of opportunity and treatment in respect of employment and occupation, of social security, of trade union and cultural rights and of individual and collective freedoms for persons who as migrant workers or as members of their families are lawfully within its territory."

Source: ILO Conventions Nos 97 and 143.

Few IGAD Member States have ratified the ILO Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97), the ILO Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143), or the 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families. In Djibouti, the Ministry of Labour has indicated that it will do so once it has established a labour migration policy (ILO 2020a). In its response to the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations (CEACR) General Survey on Member States' National Law and Practice on Migrant Workers Instruments in 2016, Ethiopia suggested that ratification was not possible for Conventions Nos 97 and 143 "as it was mainly a country of origin, it would need to examine national law and practice for conformity with the instruments" (ILO 2016, para. 573). Uganda has not ratified Convention No. 97, but it has ratified Convention No. 143. In the CEACR General Survey, Uganda noted that Convention No. 97 was an instrument the Government is considering for ratification, but the main obstacle to ratification was financial (ILO 2016). Kenya has ratified Conventions Nos 97 and 143, but has not ratified the 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families.

Bilateral labour agreements are increasingly relied upon for protection of migrant workers going to the Gulf States. In Uganda, bilateral agreements have been made with Jordan, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates, with others being developed for Bahrain, Kuwait, Lebanon and Qatar (ILO 2020g). All of these agreements are purposed to promote the safe migration of Ugandans to these countries. In Ethiopia, the Overseas Employment Proclamation (923/2016) made it mandatory to have a bilateral agreement with a destination country in place in order to send over migrants. In 2017, Kenya signed bilateral labour agreements with the Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates on the welfare and protection of migrant workers from Kenya.

Additional good practice measures have been implemented by IGAD Member States concerning the protection of nationals who migrate abroad for work, often through regulation of recruitment agencies. In Uganda, the External Employment Management Information System (EEMIS), which includes a service to allow private employment agencies to apply for licences, is designed to help monitor private employment agencies and therefore provide better protection for Ugandan migrant workers using the services of these agencies. In Djibouti, recruitment through private employment agencies for positions abroad has a number of provisions in place for the protection of the Djiboutian migrant workers. In Ethiopia, the Overseas Employment Proclamation (923/2016) – which is implemented by the Inter-ministerial Committee on Overseas Employment – includes a number of measures for improving outward labour migration governance, including reassessment and reissuance of recruitment agencies licenses. In addition, trainings are conducted for relevant authorities as well as jobseekers, medical check-ups are conducted, and insurance policies were revisited.

Chapter 7

Recommendations

This report has presented a labour market study with a focus on labour migration from and to IGAD Member States, or more specifically on migrant workers from IGAD Member States in a labour market context.

On the basis of findings this analysis, key recommendations are proposed for IGAD Member States and the IGAD Secretariat, as follows:

Develop a regional framework to foster coherence between national employment policies

Labour migration management in the region needs to be in alignment with the stance towards employment and job creation. All IGAD Member States acknowledge employment and job creation within their national development strategies and many have drafted national employment policies. Migrant workers tend not to feature in development strategies or national employment policies, beyond issues around protection of national workers abroad. Given the prominence of migrant workers in many of the IGAD Member States it is a gap that, along with the omission in labour law for irregular migrant workers, can leave migrant workers in a grey area without recognition or protection, thereby increasing their vulnerability to exploitation and hardship. A regional framework can help align national policies in a manner that incorporates cross-border movements to the benefit of labour market functionality.

- **IGAD Member States should establish a regional framework in a tripartite-plus setting, that is, with employers and workers groups but also with relevant external stakeholders such as the IOM, UNHCR and ILO.** All IGAD Member States should have national employment policies that are developed in tripartite settings with collaboration from all social partners. National employment policies should also be developed using a whole-of-government approach, to ensure alignment with any education, labour migration policies and migration policies.
- **The IGAD Secretariat is well positioned to develop an IGAD regional employment policy that will help align national employment strategies and goals with regional strategies and goals.** As with national employment policies, such a regional approach would need to establish targets and responsibilities to ensure accountability, allow for monitoring of progress and help shape policies to common objectives. Again, such a regional employment policy would need to be developed in line with any regional labour migration or migration policies. Capacity-building programmes should be conducted to ensure the integration of regional policies into the national legislation of all Member States.
- **The IGAD Secretariat should conduct gap analyses of the different national employment policies in place (or the absence of such policies) as well as gaps in national legislation** to help identify areas that require attention in order to achieve a regional approach towards employment and job creation, as well as to close gaps and address ambiguity with regard to migrant worker integration in the labour market.
- **IGAD Member States need to ensure labour laws include some provisions for the informal economy.** Those in the informal economy are particularly at risk in terms of job insecurity, irregular and insufficient incomes, and lack of employment protection. Moreover, the lack of social protection means that these workers are particularly at risk during shocks, as displayed by the COVID-19 pandemic. Specific provisions should be in place for all workers regardless of their being formal or informal.
- **IGAD Member States need to ensure labour laws include some provisions for irregular migrant workers.** Currently, labour laws apply to regular migrant workers, but the lack of any guidance for dealing with irregular migrant workers despite their prominence in the region exposes migrant workers to exploitation and poor working conditions, and can lead to situations of forced labour.

Facilitate regional labour market information and analysis

A major challenge is that there is a general shortage of comprehensive and timely labour market information and analysis in the region, albeit with a number of exceptions. Investment in systematic labour market information and analysis is imperative for effective policymaking, and there are a number of steps that should be addressed both on the labour supply and labour demand sides. This is important for understanding the complexities of national labour markets, and also to understand the role of and potential demand for migrant workers to help inform national employment policies as well as labour migration and migration policies. Such information is also valuable to jobseekers, while public employment services are well placed to act as platforms to provide guidance to jobseekers, including on skills demand and needs, based on analysis of labour market information. Different definitions, standards and sources of data result in data not being comparable between countries, which can be addressed by ensuring that common standards are followed.

- **The IGAD Secretariat is well placed to establish a regional labour migration observatory.** One of the glaring gaps in labour market information in the IGAD region, with regard to labour migration, is around skills compositions of migrant workers and skills needs. Work permit information is insufficient, as it overlooks irregular migrant workers, and there is a lack of national-level systematic labour market information and analysis to collate and analyse through a regional lens. A regional body can also serve to promote standards for comparability and consistency in data collection at the national level.

- **The IGAD Secretariat is well placed to also establish a regional platform for labour market information.** A regional platform supported by a technical working group would allow for sharing of expertise, compliance with international standards, and technical support. There have been discussions of a regional LMIS, which is a welcome development, but it is currently unclear what this LMIS would consist of. Any such system would need to allow for the provision of comprehensive data on both labour supply and demand.

- **IGAD Member States need to establish systematic labour market information and analysis.** This begins by understanding the needs and requirements of systematic labour market information and analysis and its purposes. For instance, as detailed in this report, labour market information goes beyond reporting on employment and unemployment. Effective policymaking requires different degrees of information about different sectors. Support from international organizations is necessary to assist in establishing the requirements of systematic labour market information. For instance, the ILO is well placed for outlining the needs of labour force surveys and labour supply information, while the World Bank is well placed for guidance on enterprise surveys and labour demand. Moreover, adequate resources should be made available for effective analysis and not all invested in the collection of data.

- **IGAD Member States need to ensure that there are up to date population and housing censuses every ten years.** Such data, while not necessarily used for analysing the labour market in itself, are imperative for developing the sample frames of subsequent surveys, including labour force surveys, so as to allow for representative assessments of the population. Moreover, these censuses should allow for the capture of comprehensive information on migrants, both regular and irregular, to allow for a clearer understanding of migrant stock in each country.

- **IGAD Member States should conduct labour force surveys in line with ICLS definitions and capture information on migrant workers and returnees.** ICLS definitions – the international standards for labour market concepts and definitions – can be cumbersome and costly to implement, but they are imperative for understanding the complexities of the labour market. In order to be effective, policymaking, including for national employment policies and labour migration policies, requires a comprehensive understanding of the labour market, including labour underutilization and employment characteristics in different sectors and occupations. Further,

consistent definitions and standards facilitate assessments of the labour market through a regional, IGAD-wide lens. The ILO provides technical support and guidance materials, including templates and modules for labour migration, for conducting labour force surveys in line with ICLS definitions.

- **IGAD Member States should conduct establishment surveys periodically, covering both the informal and formal sectors, and gather information on foreign ownership and worker composition.** Establishment surveys need, firstly, to be drawing from up-to-date establishment censuses, and secondly, should cover both informal and formal sectors. To omit the informal economy is to paint a very partial picture of establishments in the country. Further, separate surveys should be devised for: (i) micro- and small-sized enterprises; and (ii) medium- and large-sized enterprises. The absence of such information is a major impediment for understanding labour demand in IGAD Member States.

- **IGAD Member States should encourage the sharing of administrative data and job vacancies data, but recognize the limitations of such data with regard to policymaking and drawing conclusions.** While such data are informative, they carry systematic biases in terms of what information they portray. For instance, job vacancies data, whether trawled from the internet or from job boards, are not representative of all the vacancies available, and instead are likely to reflect only certain types of vacancies or reflect the need for certain types of workers. Establishment surveys can be a more comprehensive means of establishing demand for skills and expertise.

Coordinate labour migration policies at the regional level

Migrant workers in IGAD Member States are generally disregarded as being predominantly low-skilled competitors for a limited supply of jobs. The job creation potential of migrant workers is not necessarily recognized, besides via large-scale foreign direct investment. Key informants interviewed as part of the study highlighted the roles of migrant workers in establishing small informal businesses. Improved data collection via enterprise surveys would help shed light on the role of migrant workers, which would help facilitate appropriate labour migration policies to allow migrant workers to help maximize the functionality of the labour market. At present, migrant workers, who are often irregular, tend not to be covered by labour laws, and as a result are exposed to exploitation, poor working conditions and a lack of protection. There is a need to recognize the need to protect migrant workers with the same degree of attention given to the protection of national workers abroad.

- **The IGAD Secretariat should convene regular IGAD-wide dialogue between different ministries and social partners on labour migration and labour market needs.** The Confederation of IGAD Employers (CIE) and the Horn of Africa Confederation of Trade Unions (HACTU) are well placed to support employers and workers. Coordination at the regional level could facilitate skills assessments and allow for their use in guiding labour migration management.

- **IGAD Member States should consider aligning their stances on refugees' access to the labour market.** This can be facilitated at the regional level. A number of IGAD Member States have systems in place that allow refugees access to the labour market. Where these systems are non-existent or processes are cumbersome, refugees instead engage themselves in the informal sector. Facilitating the process would improve governance of working refugees as a form of migrant worker, and also provide information on refugee skills compositions, activities and needs.

- **IGAD Member States should establish labour migration policies in alignment with national employment policies through a whole-of-government approach.** Such alignment is necessary to ensure that migrant workers are able to benefit labour market functionality and that labour migration policies are not established primarily in alignment with migration policies alone. For specific recommendations on labour migration policies, see the recent ILO report An Assessment of Labour Migration and Mobility Governance in the IGAD Region: Regional Report.

- **IGAD Member States should conduct skill needs assessments and use these for guiding labour migration management.** There is a need to better understand migrant worker characteristics, as already mentioned, through systematic labour market information, including population and housing censuses, household surveys (including labour force surveys), and establishment surveys. Moreover, skills assessments are necessary to better understand the needs of the labour market and how these needs can be addressed through labour migration. At present, the focus on higher-skilled migration omits occupational skills that may be in need even though they are not necessarily in the category of being "higher-skilled".

- **IGAD Member States should consider improving refugees' access to the labour market.** A number of IGAD Member States have systems in place that allow refugees access to the labour market. Where these are non-existent or processes are cumbersome, widespread informal employment among refugees is the result. Facilitating such processes would improve governance of working refugees as a form of migrant worker and also provide information on refugee skills compositions, activities and needs.

- **The IGAD Secretariat is well positioned to establish guidance and information sharing with regard to placements abroad.** While a number of Member States have bilateral agreements in place with a number of destination countries, these are primarily with Gulf States. To ensure compliance with these agreements, the IGAD Secretariat could establish an IGAD Data Portal to share information about:

  - requirements for movement;
  - laws and regulations concerning labour migration;
  - opportunities available to migrant workers, such as access to finance, education, etc.;
  - services provided by different ministries for migrants;
  - rules and procedures for investment; and
  - up-to-date information on investment.

Good practice examples concerning the protection of migrant workers abroad go beyond these bilateral arrangements to regulate private employment agencies and also provide assistance in the form of medical check-ups, insurance policy review and other forms of information provision, while sometimes also making arrangements with recruitment agencies in destination countries. The IGAD Secretariat could draw from such good practices and establish guidelines and requirements for IGAD Member States to apply.

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Appendix I. Glossary of terms

Bilateral labour agreements refer to agreements between two entities which create legally binding rights and obligations governed by international law and are usually more specific and action-oriented, non-binding memoranda of understanding which set out a broad framework of cooperation to address common concerns, as well as other arrangements, including between specific government ministries or agencies in destination and origin countries. [8]

Domestic worker refers to a person engaged in domestic work within an employment relationship. A person who performs domestic work only occasionally or sporadically and not on an occupational basis is not a domestic worker. [9]

Employment by education refers to those in employment by level of educational attainment, which is classified according to International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) levels, namely: less than primary education (ISCED level 0); primary education (ISCED level 1); secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3); and tertiary education (ISCED levels 5 to 8). [10]

Employment by occupation refers to employed persons classified according to the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO).

Employment by sector refers to employed persons classified according to the International Standard Industry Classification (ISIC), Revision 3.

Employment by skill level refers to employed persons classified according to low (skill level 1), medium (skill level 2) and high (skill levels 3 and 4) skill levels that correspond to ISCO guidelines.

Employment in the informal economy refers to those employed in the informal sector and those in informal employment (that is, it also includes informal employment outside of the informal sector).

Employment in the informal sector (informal enterprises): According to the international standards adopted by the 15th ICLS, the informal sector consists of units engaged in the production of goods or services with the primary objective of generating employment and incomes to the persons concerned. The informal sector is a subset of unincorporated enterprises not constituted as separate legal entities independently of their owners. They are owned by individual household members or several members of the same or different households. Typically, they are operating at a low level of organization, on a small scale and with little or no division between labour and capital as factors of production. [11]

Forced labour refers to all work or service which is exacted from any person under the menace of any penalty and for which the said person has not offered himself voluntarily. [12]

Informal employment: The concept of informal employment refers to jobs as observation units. In the case of own-account workers and employers, the informal employment status of the job is determined by the informal sector nature of the enterprise. Thus, own-account workers (without hired workers) operating an informal enterprise are classified as in informal employment. Similarly, employers (with hired workers) operating an informal enterprise are classified as in informal employment. All contributing family workers are classified as having informal employment, irrespective of whether they work in formal or informal sector enterprises. [13]

8 ILO, Addressing Governance Challenges in a Changing Labour Migration Landscape, ILC.106/IV (2017), para. 68.

9 ILO Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189), Article 1(b–c).

10 UNESCO Institute for Statistics, International Classification of Education 2011, 2012.

11 ILO, Women and Men in the Informal Economy: A Statistical Picture, 2018, box 2.

12 ILO Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29), Article 2(1).

13 ILO, Women and Men in the Informal Economy: A Statistical Picture, 2018, box 2.

Irregular migrant worker refers to a migrant worker considered to be in an irregular situation or non-documented situation if they are unauthorized to enter, to stay and to engage in a remunerated activity in the State of employment pursuant to the law of that State and to international agreement to which that State is a party. [14]

Labour force refers to the current supply of labour for the production of goods and services in exchange for pay or profit.

Labour mobility refers to temporary or short-term movements of persons for employment-related purposes, particularly in the context of the free movement of workers in regional economic communities. [15]

Labour underutilization refers to mismatches between labour supply and demand, which translate into an unmet need for employment among the population. Measures of labour underutilization include, but may not be restricted to, time-related unemployment, unemployment and the potential labour force.

Less than primary education: Less than primary education (ISCED-A level 0) refers to a broad level of educational attainment covering no participation in education, some participation in early childhood education and/or some participation in primary education.

Migrant worker or international migrant worker refers to all persons of working age (in this case, those aged 15+) present in the country of measurement, who were during the specified reference period in one of the following two categories:

i. Usual residents: International migrants who were in the labour force of the country of their usual residence, either in employment or in unemployment; or

ii. Not usual residents (or "non-resident foreign workers"): Persons who, during a specified reference period, were not usual residents of the country but were present in the country and had labour attachment to the country, that is, were either in employment supplying labour to resident producer units of that country or were seeking employment in that country.

Given the primary data collection element of this study, the definition is in line with the 20th ICLS Guidelines Concerning Statistics for International Labour Migration.

Mixed migration lacks a standard definition however the principal characteristics of mixed migration flows include the multiplicity of factors driving such movements and the differentiated needs and motivations of the persons involved. Many migration streams include people who are on the move for different reasons but share the same routes or modes of travel. They may include refugees, asylum-seekers, forcibly displaced persons, smuggled persons, economic migrants, victims of human trafficking and stranded migrants. People may also move between these categories during the course of their migration. Increasing recognition of these complex migration dynamics has led to the rise of the notion of "mixed migration". [16]

Permanent migrant refers to a person who enters with the right of permanent residence or with a visa or permit which is indefinitely renewable. Permanent immigrants would generally include marriage immigrants, family members of permanent residents, refugees, certain labour migrants, etc. [17]

Persons in employment are defined as all those of working age who, during a short reference period, were engaged in any activity to produce goods or provide services for pay or profit.

Persons in time-related underemployment are defined as all persons in employment who, during a short reference period, wanted to work additional hours, whose working time in all jobs was less than a specified hours threshold, and who were available to work additional hours given an opportunity for more work.

Persons in unemployment are defined as all those of working age who were not in employment, carried out activities to seek employment during a specified recent period, and were currently available to take up employment given a job opportunity.

14 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, Article 5.

15 ILO, Addressing Governance Challenges in a Changing Labour Migration Landscape, ILC.106/IV (2017), para. 6, footnote 8.

16 ILO, "Media-Friendly Glossary on Migration: Middle East Edition".

17 ILO, "Media-Friendly Glossary on Migration: Middle East Edition".

Persons outside the labour force are those of working age who were neither in employment nor in unemployment in the short reference period.

Potential labour force refers to persons not in employment who express an interest in this form of work but for whom existing conditions limit their active job search and/or their availability.

Primary education: Primary education (ISCED level 1) provides learning and educational activities typically designed to provide students with fundamental skills in reading, writing and mathematics (that is, literacy and numeracy) and establish a solid foundation for learning and understanding core areas of knowledge and personal development, preparing learners for lower secondary education. It focuses on learning at a basic level of complexity with little, if any, specialization.

Private employment agencies refer to any private individual or enterprise (that is, independent of the public authorities) which provides one or more of the following labour market services: (i) services for matching offers of and applications for employment; (ii) services consisting of employing workers with a view to making them available to a third party; or (iii) other services relating to jobseeking. [18]

Public employment services are usually the primary government institution responsible for implementing a variety of active labour market programmes including the provision of career guidance and labour exchange services. The basic mandate of Public Employment Services is to facilitate the adjustment of firms and workers to changing labour market conditions. [19]

Recruitment agencies are used for the purpose of this report synonymously with the term "labour recruiter", and refer to both public employment services and to private employment agencies and all other intermediaries or subagents that offer labour recruitment and placement services. Labour recruiters can take many forms, whether for profit or non-profit, or operating within or outside legal and regulatory frameworks. [20]

Refugee refers to someone who has been forced to flee his or her country because of persecution, war or violence. A refugee has a well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, political opinion or membership in a particular social group. A person is an asylum-seeker until they are determined to be a refugee in accordance with national and international law. [21]

Seasonal worker refers to a migrant worker whose work by its character is dependent on seasonal conditions and is performed only during certain part of the year. [22]

Secondary education: Secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3) provides learning and educational activities building on primary education and preparing for labour market entry, post-secondary non-tertiary education, and tertiary education. Broadly speaking, secondary education aims at learning at an intermediate level of complexity. ISCED distinguishes between lower and upper secondary education.

Smuggling of migrants is defined as the procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State Party of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident. [23]

Status in employment refers to employed persons classified according to the International Standard Classification of Employment (ISCE)-93 as either an employee, employer, own-account worker, contributing family worker or member of producer's cooperative or employee, depending on the characteristics of the job.

18 Adapted from Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 (No. 181), Article 1.

19 ILO, "Public Employment Services".

20 ILO General Principles and Operational Guidelines for Fair Recruitment.

21 UN Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, 1951; see also ILO, Background Paper and Draft ILO Guiding Principles for Discussion at the ILO Tripartite Technical Meeting on the Access of Refugees and Other Forcible Displaced Persons to the Labour Market, TMARLM/2016 (2016).

22 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, Article 2(1)

23 Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, Supplementing the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organised Crime, Article 3(a).

Temporary migrant refers to a person of foreign nationality who enters a country with a visa or who receives a permit which is either not renewable or only renewable on a limited basis. Temporary immigrants are seasonal workers, international students, service providers, persons on international exchange, etc. [24]

Tertiary education: Tertiary education (ISCED levels 5 to 8) builds on secondary education, providing learning activities in specialized fields of education. It aims at learning at a high level of complexity and specialization. Tertiary education includes what is commonly understood as academic education but also includes advanced vocational or professional education.

Trafficking in persons is defined as the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation.[25]

24 OAS and OECD, International Migration in the Americas: Third Report of the Continuous Reporting System on International Migration in the Americas (SICREMI), 2015, 3; ILO, Addressing Governance Challenges in a Changing Labour Migration Landscape, ILC.106/IV (2017), para. 21

25 Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organised Crime, Article 3(a)

Free Movement of Persons and Transhumance in the IGAD Region

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