Migration across the Mediterranean: An Exploration of its Causative Factors and the Role of International Organization for Migration in Effective Migration Management

Eneasato Benjamin
Anikwe Johnson Azubuike

Department of Political Science Enugu State University of Science and Technology (Esut)
Email: benjamin.eneasato@esut.edu.ng,anikwejohnson@yahoo.com.

Abstract

Migration is a global phenomenon caused not only by economic factors, but also by social, political, cultural, environmental, health, education and other factors. In the case of Africa, the rising level of migration across the Mediterranean gives cause for concern. Authoritarian regimes in quasi-democratic regalia at home, a lack of security and quest for better and secured economic environment necessitates migration. In the past decades, also there has been a sporadic increase in brain drain (labour migration) due to globalization, disparities in the development levels of countries, culture and environment, social instability, repression of political opposition and muzzling of fundamental freedoms and war. In worse case scenarios, peoples preferred to drown in the Mediterranean Sea than remain alive in their home countries due to lack of economic and political prospects. Against the backdrop of the above, the objective of this paper was to explore the trajectories of migration across the Mediterranean with emphasis on its causes and challenges in relation to the roles of International Organization for Migration (IOM). The study relied on secondary materials for evidence while adopting the push and pull theory as the frame of analysis. The results of the study showed that the major push factors were both political, social and economic related, for which the main motives for migration were insecurity, lack of social justice, marginalization and repressive regime; others were unemployment, low or instable income, galloping inflation, economic downturn and poverty. Likewise, the pull factors were composite of political, social and economic, whereby the motivation to migrate was driven by political stability and secured environment, high wages, social security, the opportunity to save and secure better future as well as access to quality education. Relevant recommendations were made to ensure effective migration management.

Keywords: Migrants, Migration, Mediterranean, Causative Factors, International Organization for Migration, Effective Migration Management

Introduction

Migration is the movement of people within or across national or international boundaries. Persons considered as migrants include: Persons who are outside the territory of the State of which they are citizens, are not subject to its legal protection; Persons who do not enjoy the general legal recognition of rights which is inherent in the granting by the host State of the status of refugee, naturalized person or of similar status; And persons who do not enjoy either general legal protection of their fundamental rights by virtue of diplomatic agreements, visas or other agreements (IOM, 2019). Unfortunately, both legal and illegal African migration to Europe is growing and indeed already endemic to the management of complex mixed migration in both sending and receiving countries. Globally, countless millions of Africa political and economic migrants including refugees and asylum-seekers are at risk of migration each year. In reality, African migrants, Asylum-seekers and refugees are often subjected to very

difficult circumstances such as death(when trying to cross both the Sahara desert and the Mediterranean sea on their way to Europe), unlawful detention(migrants are detained for months or in some cases years often in overcrowded and unhygienic conditions that predispose them to illness and suffering.

It has also been believed that, most of African youth migrants, asylum-seekers and others do involve in illegal business of smuggling drugs abroad, because any undocumented migrant is not allowed to work in most of the European countries. Migrants find themselves in this circumstance in an attempt to get extra money for living as even the amount of money provided to them by some of the European governments is actually less enough to sustain life of each individual concern as life in very expensive in those countries. As a result of this, the reputations of African youths in general on the international stage are really not good, and this has resulted in stiffer conditionality in relation to migrants across the Mediterranean who are mainly illegal immigrants to say the least.

It is in the light of the global dimensions of the migrants' problems that the International Organization for Migration (IOM) evolved for the purpose of providing effective migration governance globally. IOM was born in 1951 in response to the large number of internally displaced people in Europe following the Second World War. First, a logistics agency for arranging transport for nearly a million migrants during the 1950s, IOM has experienced multiple name changes since its beginnings. The transition from the Provisional Intergovernmental Committee for the Movement of Migrants from Europe (PICMME) in 1951 to the Intergovernmental Committee for European Migration (ICEM) in 1952, to the Intergovernmental Committee for Migration (ICM) in 1980, and finally to the International Organization for Migration (IOM) in 1989, reflects the evolution of IOM's mandate over its existence by becoming the lead agency in the field of migration.

In September 2016, Member States of the United Nations (UN), through the General Assembly, have unanimously adopted a resolution approving the Agreement to make IOM a Related Organization of the UN. This Agreement has thus strengthened the relationship between IOM and the UN and enhanced their ability to fulfill their respective mandates in the interest of migrants and Member States. This paper therefore while exploring the political economy of the challenges of Migration across the Mediterranean attempts to bring to the front burner the roles of the International Organization for Migration in dealing with global migration issues and ensuring better prospects (IOM, 2020).

Objective of the Study

The objectives of this study are
➢ To explore the imperative of push and pull theory as consequential in understanding international migration issues;
➢ To identify the contending causative factors of migration across the Mediterranean;
➢ To ventilate knowledge on the trajectories of international migration with focus on the flow of migration across the Mediterranean;
➢ To ascertain and assess the role of International Organization for Migration and proffer measures for enhancing its effectiveness in international migration management.

Methodology

The descriptive method is used for this study. Descriptive method is mainly concerned with describing the nature or condition of a present situation. It is applied in order to investigate and explore the causes of a particular phenomenon. Descriptive studies provide a detailed highly accurate profile of people, events or situations. It also locates new data that contradicts past data and it clarifies a sequence of steps or stages. Additionally, a descriptive study reports on the background or context of a situation. In this study, the descriptive approach was employed to explore the Political Economy of Migration across the Mediterranean with focus on its Challenges and the Roles of United Nations International Organization for Migration.

This is a qualitative study; the use of the qualitative method is advantageous as it is more open to change and refinement of research ideas as the study progresses. Furthermore, secondary data is used for this study, as well as, newspaper articles and academic reviewed articles as a primary source of information. "In choosing media sources, the study prioritized those with a reputation of credibility, and sought to ensure diversity of geographical regions and of perspectives" (Cotula, Vemeulen, Leonard, Keeley; 2009).

Theoretical Framework

The most elementary way of explaining international migration is by identifying 'push' and 'pull' factors. According to this basic framework, international migration is the result of a combination of reasons that incite or force a person to leave a country of origin (push factors) and reasons that draw a person to a particular destination country (pull factors). Push factors can include existence of repressive authoritarian regimes, armed conflict, insecurity, natural disasters, the lack of job opportunities, economic downturn, low income and lack of basic amenities or general dissatisfaction with one's own life and surroundings. Pull factors can often be the polar opposites of the push factors, i.e. greater security, better job opportunities or the prospect of a more exciting life. But some pull factors have no immediate correlation with push factors, for example geographic proximity or the presence of family or community members in the destination country (Kainth, 2009).

Of course, everything would be too easy if migration were simply a question of being pushed and pulled! Migration is far more complex, and so are the political social, economic and historical contexts in which this process takes place. First of all, push and pull factors are never the same for everyone. These can change depending on social class, gender, ethnicity, age, physical ability and so on. The reasons why they change need to be explained as well. One should also distinguish between the individual and the structural level. At an individual level, push factors include the immediate reasons that compel a person to migrate, such as the loss of a livelihood through recession, redundancy or drought or, contrarily, the possession of capital required to embark on a migration project. Individual push factors may even include subjective aspects of a person's character; for example, the fact that one has the courage to leave their country of origin (Kyaing, 2013).

There are therefore many political and economic reasons why people emigrate and they can usually be classified into push and pull factors. The question now is; what are push and pull factors? Push factors are those associated with the area of origin (these are factors of frustration and dissatisfaction compelling someone to leave the current place of abode) while Pull factors

are those that are associated with the area of destination (they are factors of attraction and inducement that presents better prospects in a new place motivating someone to come over to a new abode). However, economic motives loom large in all human movements, but are particularly important about migration. Thus, the Pull Factors include; more jobs, better jobs, higher wages and the promise of a " better life. Sometimes this is encouraged by the destination country for example, Saudi Arabia or United Kingdom coming to Nigeria to recruit medical doctors who are on strike and not been paid for them to move to Saudi Arabia or London to work as health personnel, who were then often followed by their families.

Another example might be the " brain drain to America that occurred in the latter half of the 20th century from several other western countries. Such brain drain has continued to affect most African countries till date. Economic push factors tend to be the exact reversal of the pull factors: overpopulation, few jobs, and low wages. This lack of economic opportunity tends to push people to look for their futures outside the area of their origin. An example of this is the migration of Mexicans and people from other Central American countries into the US, where they often work low-wage, long-hour jobs in farming, construction and domestic labour. Presently almost every Nigerian youth wants escape from the country because of back governance, insecurity, lack of opportunities, ethnic cleansing and more in the country. It is difficult to classify this case purely with push factors though, because often the factors associated with the country of origin are just as important as the factors associated with the country of destination. Forced migration has also been used for economic gain, such as the 20 million men, women and children who were forcibly carried as slaves to the Americas between the 16th and 18th centuries (Todaro, 1976).

Conceptual Insights

There is no clear, universally accepted definition of a migrant, sometimes referred to as international migrant. However, there are four categories of mobile persons to which international law may refer: people who have moved voluntarily, within one State for the purpose of improving their situation, people who were compelled to move internally within one State, people who moved voluntarily across a border for the purpose of improving their situation, and people who were compelled to move across a border. This guide defines migrants as those who cross borders either because they were compelled to or because they chose to do so voluntarily (Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR, 2013). Migrants include different categories of persons, including but not limited to migrant workers, migrants in an irregular situation, victims of human trafficking, and smuggled migrants.

Most countries have adopted the UN DESA (2013). definition of someone living outside their own country for a year or more. But in reality, the answer is more complicated. First, the concept migrant covers a wide range of people in a wide variety of situations. Second, it is very hard to actually count migrants and to determine how long they have been abroad. Third, just as important as defining when a person becomes a migrant is to define when they stop being a migrant. One way for this to happen is to return home; another is to become a citizen of a new country, and the procedures governing that transformation vary significantly. Finally, it has been suggested that, as a result of globalization, there are now new types of migrants with new

characteristics, at times described as members of transnational communities or Diasporas. The concept of migrant can be understood as "any person who lives temporarily or permanently in a country where he or she was not born, and has acquired some significant social ties to this country."However, this may be a too narrow definition when considering that, according to some states' policies; a person can be considered as a migrant even when he/she is born in the country.

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Migrants (2011) defines a migrant worker as a "person who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national." From this, a broader definition of migrants follows: "The term 'migrant' in article 1.1(a) should be understood as covering all cases where the decision to migrate is taken freely by the individual concerned, for reasons of 'personal convenience' and without intervention of an external compelling factor."This definition indicates that 'migrant' does not refer to refugees, displaced or others forced or compelled to leave their homes. Migrants are people who make choices about when to leave and where to go, even though these choices are sometimes extremely constrained. Indeed, some scholars make a distinction between voluntary and involuntary migration. While certain refugee movements face neither external obstacle to free movement nor is impelled by urgent need and lack of alternative means of satisfying them in the country of present residences others may blend into the extreme relocation entirely uncontrolled by the people on the move.

However, according to Pizarro (2014), the Special Rapporteur of the Commission on Human Rights has proposed that the following persons should be considered as migrants: (a) Persons who are outside the territory of the State of which they are nationals or citizens, are not subject to its legal protection and are in the territory of another State; (b) Persons who do not enjoy the general legal recognition of rights which is inherent in the granting by the host State of the status of refugee, naturalized person or of similar status; (c) Persons who do not enjoy either general legal protection of their fundamental rights by virtue of diplomatic agreements, visas or other agreements. This broad definition of migrants reflects the current difficulty in distinguishing between migrants who leave their countries because of political persecution, conflicts, economic problems, environmental degradation or a combination of these reasons and those who do so in search of conditions of survival or well-being that does not exist in their place of origin. It also attempts to define migrant population in a way that takes new situations into consideration (Robin, 1995).

The term migration can be described as the movement of animal, human being including good and services within a national political territory and across the national political boundaries by land, air or water as the case may be. However, our concern is that of human migration. Hence, migration can be defined as the movement of people from one place in the world to another for the purpose of taking up permanent or semi-permanent residence, usually across a political boundary. It is the crossing of the boundary of a political or administrative unit for a certain minimum period of time. It includes the movement of refugees, displaced persons, uprooted people as well as economic migrants (Comenius, 2015).

Dimensions and Dynamics of International Migration

The United Nations (UN DESA (2013) defines as an international migrant a person who stays outside their usual country of residence for at least one year. According to that definition,

the UN estimated that in 2005 there were about 200 million international migrants worldwide, including about 9 million refugees. This is roughly the equivalent of the fifth most populous country on earth, Brazil. One in every 35 people in the world today is an international migrant. Another way to put this is that only 3 per cent of the world's population today is an international migrant. But migration affects far more people than just those who migrate. It has important social, economic, and political impacts at home and abroad.

According to Stephen and Mark Miller (2003), authors of the influential book 'The Age of Migration' the number of international migrants has more than doubled in just 25 years, and about 25 million were added in only the first five years of the 21st century. Before 1990 most of the world's international migrants lived in the developing world; today the majority lives in the developed world and their proportion is growing. Between 1980 and 2000, the number of migrants in the developed world increased from about 48 million to 110 million, compared with an increase from 52 million to 65 million in the developing world. In 2000, there were about 60 million migrants in Europe, 44 million in Asia, 41 million in North America, 16 million in Africa, and 6 million in both Latin America and Australia.

Almost 20 per cent of the world's migrants in 2000 –about 35 million lived in the USA. The Russian Federation was the second most important host country for migrants, with about 13 million, or nearly 8 per cent of the global total. Germany, the Ukraine, and India followed in the rankings, each with between 6 and 7 million migrants. It is much harder to say which countries most migrants come from, largely because origin countries do not keep count of how many of their nationals are living abroad. It has been estimated nevertheless that at least 35 million Chinese currently live outside their country, 20 million Indians, and 8 million Filipinos (International Commission of Jurists, Migration and International Human Rights Law, 2012).

These facts and figures convey striking message that international migration today affects every part of the world. Movements from 'South to North' have increased as a proportion of total global migration; indeed, there are powerful reasons why people should leave poorer countries and head for richer ones. At the same time, it is important not to ignore the significant movements that still take place within regions. There are about 5 million Asian migrants working in the Gulf States. It is estimated that there are somewhere between 2.5 million and 8 million irregular migrants in South Africa, almost all of them from sub-Saharan African countries. There are far more refugees in the developing world than the developed world. Equally, more Europeans come to the UK each year, for example, than do people from outside Europe; and many of these Europeans are British citizens returning from stints overseas (Megan, 2017).

Besides the dimensions and changing geography of international migration, there are at least three trends that signify an important departure from earlier patterns and processes: First, the proportion of women among migrants has increased rapidly. Very nearly half the world's migrants were women in 2005; just over half of them living in the developed world and just under half in the developing world. According to UN statistics, in 2005 there were more female than male migrants in Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, North America, Oceania, and the former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics(USSR). What is more, whereas women have traditionally migrated to join their partners abroad, an increasing proportion who migrate today

do so independently; they are often the primary breadwinners for the families they leave behind (Stark and Bloom, 2006).

There are a number of reasons why women comprise an increasing proportion of the world′s migrants: The demand for foreign labour, especially in more developed countries, is becoming increasingly gender-selective in favour of jobs typically fulfilled by women services, healthcare, and entertainment. An increasing number of countries have extended the right of family reunion to migrants in other words allowing them to be joined by their spouses and children. Most often, these spouses are women. Changing gender relations in some countries of origin also mean that women have more independence to migrate than previously (Stark and Bloom, 2006). Finally, and especially in Asia, there has been a growth in the migration of women for domestic work (sometimes called the ‗maid trade‘); organized migration for marriage (sometimes referred to as mail order brides‘), and the trafficking of women into the sex industry.

Second, the traditional distinction between countries of origin, transit, and destination for migrants has become increasingly blurred. Today almost every country in the world fulfils all three roles migrants leave, pass through, and head for all of them. Perhaps no part of the world better illustrates the blurring boundaries between origin, transit, and destination countries than the Mediterranean. About 50 years ago, the situation was fairly straightforward. All the countries of the Mediterranean ‒in both North Africa and Southern Europe ‒were countries of origin for migrants who mainly went to Northern Europe to work. About 20 years ago Southern Europe changed from a region of emigration to a region of immigration, as increasing numbers of North Africans arrived to work in their growing economies and at the same time fewer Southern Europeans had an incentive to head north for work anymore.

Today, in the submission of Stark and Bloom (2006),.North Africa is changing from an origin to a transit and destination region. Increasing numbers of migrants from sub-Saharan Africa are arriving in countries like Libya, Morocco, and Tunisia. Some remain, others cross the Mediterranean into Southern Europe, usually illegally, where again some stay and others try to move on into Northern Europe. Finally, while most of the major movements that took place over the last few centuries were permanent, today temporary migration has become much more important. Even people who have lived abroad for most of their lives often have a ‗dream to return ‘to the place of their birth, and it is now relatively unusual for people to migrate from one country to another and remain there for the rest of their lives.

Furthermore, the traditional pattern of migrating once then returning home seems to be phasing out. An increasing number of people migrate several times during their lives, often to different countries or parts of the world, returning home in the intervening periods. Even those who are away for long periods of time return home at more and more frequent intervals, as international travel has become so much cheaper and more accessible. ‗Sojourning‘, involving circulation between origin and destination and only a temporary commitment to the place of destination, has a long history: much of the Chinese migration to South-East Asia and Australia in the 19th and early 20th centuries, for example. However, this circulation is now occurring on an unprecedented scale and has been facilitated by developments such as transport and communications revolutions (Human Rights Watch, 2003).

In his 2005 report to the Council of Europe on Current Trends in International Migration in Europe, Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) migration

expert John (2005) identifies several new types of flow in Europe: Algerian migratory routes have undergone radical change. The traditional labour migration into France has been replaced by forms of circulation in which many Algerians have become suitcase traders throughout the Mediterranean region. Often serving tourist markets, their moves take place within family networks, which allow them to seize trading opportunities in whichever city they are presented. Romanians have also been observed to circulate within informal transnational networks, which they use to exploit whatever work niches are opened to illegal workers. The migration of ethnic Germans from Transylvania to Germany in the early 1990s has also become a circulatory movement with periods of work in Germany interspersed with living back in Romania.

Unraveling the Mediterranean Migration Crisis

Consequent upon rising political and economic challenges in Africa there has been seemingly mass exodus of migrants finding their ways across the Mediterranean to Europe and other parts of the world. In 2015, over one million people crossed the Mediterranean to Europe in search of safety and a better life. Thousands died along the way. The study sought to better understand these unprecedented movements in the region by examining the journeys, motivations and aspirations of people from Africa to move into Europe through the Mediterranean into countries like Italy, Greece, Malta, Spain and Turkey. The need for an in-depth analysis of the experiences of their journeys across the Mediterranean cannot be over-emphasized, as there is need to cast new light on the ' migration crises as challenges to the public, politicians, policy makers and the media to rethink their understanding of why and how people move (IOM, 2015).

By 2012, 51 percent of migrants entering the EU illegally did so via Greece. This trend shifted in 2013 after Greek authorities enhanced border controls under Operation Aspida (or "Shield"), which included the construction of a barbed-wire fence at the Greek-Turkish border. But by July 2015, Greece had once again become the preferred Mediterranean entry point, with Frontex reporting 132,240 illegal EU border crossings for the first half of 2015, five times the number detected for the same period the previous year of 2014. Syrians and Afghans made up the "lion's share" of migrants traveling from Turkey to Greece (primarily to the Greek islands of Kos, Chios, Lesbos, and Samos) in the first seven months of 2015. This most recent migrant surge coincided with the country's tumultuous debt crisis, which brought down its banking system and government (IOM, 2015).

In addition to the above, the Central Mediterranean passage connecting Libya to Italy was the most trafficked route for Europe-bound migrants in 2014: Frontex (2016) reported more than 170,000 illegal border crossings into Italy. In October 2014, the country's Mare Nostrum search-and-rescue program, credited for saving more than 100,000 migrants, was replaced by Frontex's Triton program, a smaller border-control operation with a third of Mare Nostrum's operating budget. In April 2015, EU leaders tripled the budget for Frontex's Triton border patrol program to 9 million Euros a month ($9.9 million), but refused to broaden its scope to include search and rescue. While the number of illegal border crossings into Italy for the first half of 2015 remained high at 91,302, the rising death toll (the IOM estimates that more than 2,000 people died along this route in 2015) and the deteriorating security situation in Libya have pushed many migrants to seek out alternate paths to Europe through Greece and the Balkans.

Ninety percent of the migrants using this route in the first half of 2015 were from Eritrea, Nigeria, and other sub-Saharan African countries.

Available Statistics on Migrants flow from Africa to Europe via the Mediterranean

Years	Arrivals *	Dead and missing
2020	92,350	959
2019	123,663	1,319
2018	141,472	2,277
2017	185,139	3,139
2016	373,652	5,096
2015	1,032,408	3,771
2014	225,455	3,538

* Arrivals include sea arrivals to Italy, Cyprus and Malta, both sea and land arrivals to Greece and Spain
Source: Refugees Operational Data Portal by UNHCR (2021)

Factors Contributing to African Migration to Europe

The poverty situation of citizens of most African countries has been the major force driving migration across the Mediterranean to Europe. The former Nigeria President Olusegun Obasanjo has said the worsening level of unemployment, poverty and unresolved conflict across the African continent are major threats responsible for increasing illegal migration from Africa, through Mediterranean, to Europe by Africans, saying the African leaders must act now to end illegal migration on the continent (Ayinla, 2015). In Africa, there are practical cases to explain these issues of unemployment, poverty and conflict scenarios necessitating Africans migrating to Europe. In the midst of current challenges, African migrants are adopting more sophisticated, daring, and evasive methods to elude increasingly tight border controls and enter countries in the developed North. A growing number of young people are involved in daredevil ventures to gain entry into Europe. Such movements are more clandestine, involving riskier passages and trafficking via diverse transit points, such as trafficking through Senegal to Spain by way of the Canary Islands. Individual stowaways engage in life-threatening trips hidden aboard ships destined for Southern Europe, and recently they have headed as far as East Asia. Unscrupulous agents exploit these desperate youths with promises of passages to Italy, Spain, and France.

Increasing numbers of West Africans especially from the coastal states are risking their lives to get to Europe by sea as insecurity and unemployment soars in their countries. These cases form part of the rising tide of illegal immigrants gambling with their lives at sea for better work, better pay, and better lives in Europe. They are the faces behind the increasingly political debate surrounding illegal immigration by Africans to northern neighbouring countries in Europe. On 3[rd]July 2015 the UN Refugee Agency (UNHCR) and the International Maritime Organization (IMO) called for more action to prevent humanitarian tragedies associated with illegal migration across waters. "There's a very mixed flow of people... risking their lives on unseaworthy vessels often operated by ruthless smuggling rings who care nothing for human life" (Erika and Feller, 2015).

According to the International Organisation for Migration (IOM, 2016), the Canary Islands remains another route for migrant from Senegal to Europe, if it is established that the

migrant is Senegalese, they will normally be repatriated within 40 days under the terms of an agreement between the Spanish and Senegalese governments.IOM estimates over 31,000 Africans in 901 vessels attempted the trip from West Africa to the Canary Islands in 2016. Of those, about 6,000 died or went missing at sea. Between January and June, 2020, 101 boats carrying illegal immigrants reached the Islands carrying a total of 4,304 passengers, according to IOM. Studies show that socio-cultural aspects are playing an increasingly important role in migrants decisions to make the trip, Manuel Lopez Baumann (2019), West Africa Information Officer for IOM, said.—It's not just the economic struggle any more, though that remains the most pressing issue. Now, part of the motivation for trying to reach Europe is the social recognition that comes with living and working abroad, this is despite increasing rates of illegal immigration with tighter border security, joint repatriation efforts, and aid money aimed at encouraging Africans to remain in their countries.

African migration to Europe is often characterized by crowd-psychology and limited understanding of African people over the western countries, and in many European countries, migration is among the most irritating topics of political, social, legal, economic and public administration and management. Many legal human rights violations do happen in these circumstances and the social, economic, legal, cultural, political and psychosocial impacts of even very limited migration are well documented in both sending and receiving countries. Children of undocumented African migrants born in the immigration detention areas are often not recognized in terms of nationality in some of the receiving countries, and studies have shown that lack of clear information on the receiving countries prior to migration can have life-long physical and mental health impacts to migrants who most of the time expect better life prior to migration when it turns to worst moments ever in destination countries.

Repressive Political Regimes as a Factor of International Migration

The political regimes prevailing in host and source countries (democracy or authoritarianism) matter in the decision to emigrate. Individuals prefer to live in countries in which civic freedoms and individual rights (such as freedom of speech and association, access to a fair trial, religious freedom and the right to elect public authorities) are respected and economic rights (property rights, contract enforcement) are protected. This tends to occur more often in liberal democracies than in dictatorships, which curtail individual rights and engage in repressive activities. Albert Hirschman, in his classic book Exit, voice and loyalty (1972), draws a distinction between purely economic choices and collective action, which is useful in understanding the economic and political causes of migration decisions.

`   While the decision to leave a country is often an economic choice, voice belongs to the realm of collective or political action. This framework suggests that individuals who are dissatisfied or discontent with current political situation in their home countries, where —voice has become an ineffective expedient for change, may choose to leave their countries (that is to emigrate). Thus, voluntary migration, which differs from the situation of refugees and asylum-seekers, (which are instances of forced migration) as a decision is also affected by political conditions that are considered to be inadequate by nationals and foreign residents. This suggests a direct relationship between the emigration of nationals (or the repatriation of foreigners) and the existence of authoritarian regimes which suppress political rights and civil liberties. There are several examples of this in Africa, Latin America, the Caribbean and Asia, which curtailed civil liberties and intervened in universities (suppressing academic freedoms), was followed by

a massive outflow of professionals and scientists, with serious consequences for the countries in terms of the brain drain. In these cases, emigration (very often of individuals with a high stock of human capital) becomes an individual response to non-democratic political regimes, which fail to respect civic rights.

Exploring the Roles of International Organization for Migration

Established in the year 1951, with Headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland, the International Organization for Migration is the leading inter-governmental organization promoting humane and orderly migration for the benefit of all, with a presence in over 150 countries, and supporting 174 member states to improve migration management. Broadly speaking, the IOM activity centres on Promotion of international migration law and policy debate and guidance with specific focus on the following activities: Migration and development, facilitating migration, regulating migration, forced migration, protection of migrants' rights, migration health and the gender dimension of migration. In 2019, IOM provided support to 30 million persons, including 23 million persons on the move (internally displaced persons, migrants and refugees) and 7 million host community members (IOM, 2019). It does so by providing services and advice to governments and migrants.

IOM works to help ensure the orderly and humane management of migration, to promote international cooperation on migration issues, to assist in the search for practical solutions to migration problems and to provide humanitarian assistance to migrants in need, be they refugees, displaced persons or other uprooted people. The IOM Constitution gives explicit recognition to the link between migration and economic, social and cultural development, as well as to the right of freedom of movement of persons.IOM works in the four broad areas of migration management: migration and development, facilitating migration, regulating migration, and addressing forced migration. IOM works closely with governmental, intergovernmental and non-governmental partners.

Through the Department of Migration Management, IOM works on the development of policy guidance for the field; the formulation of global strategies; standard-setting and quality control; and knowledge management relating to "mainstream" migration sectors, including labour and facilitated migration, migration and development, counter-trafficking, assisted voluntary return, migration health, assistance for vulnerable migrants, immigration and border management and overall capacity-building in migration management. In addition, the Department also manages the IOM Development Fund and is responsible for reviewing, endorsing and managing multiregional and global projects. The Department provides technical supervision of project review and endorsement to experts in the field. It is also responsible for maintaining operational partnerships with relevant governmental, multilateral and private sector industry partners in coordination with the Department of International Cooperation and Partnerships.

Through its Migrant Protection and Assistance Division (MPA), the International Organization for Migration (IOM) works to realize IOM's commitment to address the needs, as well as promote and uphold the rights of migrants. MPA supports these individuals and communities to access and exercise their rights. It also offers support to governments in

carrying out their duties to respect, protect and fulfill these rights, thus contributing to managing in line with international standards and practices (IOM, 2019).

The Division's activities aim to reduce protection risks of individuals in vulnerable situations, and in particular those who are exposed to abuse, exploitation, violence, neglect and deliberate deprivation. It does so by addressing protection threats and vulnerabilities while increasing the capacities of individuals, their communities as well as those of their duty bearers. Working in partnership with other stakeholders, MPA responds through the following six pillars: direct assistance; training and capacity development; data, research and learning; convening and dialogue; advocacy and communications; as well as the provision of thematic guidance. Protection encompasses all activities aimed at obtaining full respect for the rights of the individual in accordance with the letter and spirit of the relevant bodies of law. Specifically, protection involves activities that seek to directly secure, individual or group rights, as well as activities that aim to create a society in which individual and group rights are recognized and upheld.

Assistance includes all direct support activities that target individuals and their families, their communities, as well as broader structural level interventions and support to governments as duty bearers. Individual and family assistance can include support to meet immediate, medium or long-term needs including food; shelter and accommodation; healthcare; education and training; employment and/or income generation; family assessments and reunification; counseling; referrals; safe and dignified return and/or sustainable reintegration (IOM, 2019). Together with its partners, MPA has:

➢ Helped more than 1.7 million migrants return voluntarily to their countries since 1979.
➢ Helped thousands of returning migrants to reintegrate within their communities.
➢ Assisted over 100,000 persons trafficked for forced labour or begging, sexual exploitation, organ removal and other purposes since the mid-1990s.

Through its **Immigration and Border Management (IBM) Division,** IOM supports Member States in improving the policy, legislation, operational systems, human resources and administrative and technical structures required to respond more effectively to diverse migration and border management challenges. Immigration and Border Management (IBM) activities are in line with IOM's commitment to facilitate orderly, safe and regular migration and mobility.IBM activities are designed as partnerships with governments and other relevant interlocutors to identify needs, determine priority areas, and shape and deliver interventions. The IBM team's activities are continuously evolving to meet new migration challenges on the national, regional and international level. During 2018, expenditures for IBM projects worldwide reached approximately 125 million USD, with several hundred IOM experts and support staff active in the IBM field around the globe (IOM, 2019).

There are two distinct and complementary portfolios within IBM: Border and Identity Solutions (BIS) and Immigration and Visas (IV). In addition, the IBM team is in charge of facilitating and co-leading a number of organizational cross-thematic initiatives, notably the responsible and ethical use of biometrics, programming related to Counter Terrorism/Counter Violent Extremism (CT/CVE), IOM's African Capacity Building Center for Migration and Border Management (ACBC) in Moshi, United Republic of Tanzania, and IOM's upcoming flagship training programme the "Essentials in Migration Management 2.0 (emm2.0)" (IOM,

2019). The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development recognizes that migration is a powerful driver of sustainable development, for migrants and their communities. It brings significant benefits in the form of skills, strengthening the labour force, investment and cultural diversity, and contributes to improving the lives of communities in their countries of origin through the transfer of skills and financial resources.

The benefits of migration should not be seen only from the perspective of what migrants can bring to any given territory. The relationship between migration and development is much more complex: the political, social and economic processes of potential destination countries will also determine how, where and when migration occurs. If migration is poorly governed, it can also negatively impact on development. Migrants can be put at risk and communities can come under strain.

As outlined in the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration, "migration is a multi-dimensional reality that cannot be addressed by one government policy sector alone. IOM therefore applies a whole-of-government and whole-of-society approach to migration governance, striving to ensure that migration and migrants' needs are considered across all policy areas, laws and regulations from health to education and from fiscal policies to trade. More so, since 2001, the IOM Development Fund has provided a unique global resource aimed at supporting developing Member States in their efforts to strengthen their migration management capacity. With over 800 projects implemented in more than 122 countries worldwide, the Fund has successfully addressed the capacity-building needs of eligible Member States by providing essential "seed funding" for innovative projects (IOM, 2019).

The Fund is designed to contribute to the harmonization of eligible Member State migration management policies and practices with their overall national development strategy. Priority projects are identified by Member States in coordination with IOM Offices worldwide and include activities that enhance migration management practices and promote humane and orderly migration. Projects include the following focus areas:

- Counter-trafficking
- Enhancement of inter-governmental dialogue and cooperation
- Labour migration
- Migration and development
- Migration, environment and climate change
- Migration health
- Border management
- Policy and legal framework development
- Research and assessment
- Assisted Voluntary Return and Re-integration (AVRR) on an exceptional basis, for projects focusing on government capacity building activities (IOM, 2020)
- Emergency operations and migrant return schemes among others are not covered under the Fund (see Eligibility Criteria for a complete listing).

Eligible Member States can access one of two funding lines and projects range from USD 50,000 to USD 300,000 for **national** projects and USD 100,000 to USD 400,000 for **regional** projects. Country eligibility is based on the most recent version of the list of low-income through to upper middle-income economies as designated by the World Bank. Equitable

allocation of the funds across regions and within regions remains a core management principle in assessing requests for funding under the Fund (IOM, 2020).

IOM Roles and Projects in Nigeria

The data available on the IOM Nigeria website indicate that with respect to Nigeria, IOM has embarked on projects focused on strengthening the delivery of reintegration assistance to returning Nigerian migrants from Europe under the auspices of AVRR Programmes with location in Lagos and Abuja, and other places in Nigeria where migrants are returning. The project is contributing to enhancing sustainable voluntary return and reintegration of migrants to Nigeria, including vulnerable cases (victims of trafficking, unaccompanied and separated children) (IOM Nigeria, 2016). The project is complementing the ongoing Assisted Voluntary Return and Reintegration (AVRR) national programmes by ensuring that additional in-kind grants are provided to an estimated 450 returnees returning under various existing European Union Member States AVRR programmes in Nigeria. The project will institute appropriate mechanisms and strategies to ensure that the project beneficiaries are well informed about the project and support is provided in most timely and efficient manner (IOM Nigeria, 2016).

Following the end of Phase 9 of the AVRR programme in December 2014, IOM began implementing Phase 10 of the AVRR Switzerland-Nigeria programme in January 2015. IOM Nigeria commenced implementation of the AVRR programme in 2002. It has facilitated the return and reintegration of more than 2000 returnees from more than 20 countries in Europe, the Middle East, and North Africa. The programme has assisted a wide spectrum of returnees, including irregular and stranded migrants, labor migrants, survivors of trafficking, and unaccompanied children (IOM Nigeria, 2016)..

More so, in the area of Migration Health Assessment Centre, the project is designed to provide health assistance to Nigerian migrants travelling to the United Kingdom for a period of more than six months. The purpose of the health assessments is to identify and address conditions of public health concern in order to mitigate the impact of the migrants' disease burden on national health or social services. The programme also seeks to address the migrants specific health needs in order to facilitate integration with the host community. Health assessments are valuable in the migration process. Migrants benefit from the health assessment by becoming more aware of their own personal health conditions and by being empowered to take preventative or curative actions. Migration health assessments contribute substantially to addressing the health needs of migrants and of hosting communities alike, particularly when supported by adequate pre- and post-arrival health services and community-based interventions. These measures can also promote positive health seeking behaviours through pre-departure health education and awareness campaigns (IOM Nigeria, 2016).

Measures for Mitigating the Migration Crisis across the Mediterranean

The challenge of managing migration has grown dramatically over the past few decades as more and more people are driven to move out of their homes by diverse economic, political, social and environmental factors. To start with, most migratory movements are regular: they take place legally through regulator channels and legal means. By contrast, irregular migration occurs when a person enters, stays or works in a country without the necessary authorization or documents required under immigration regulations. Migration is a social phenomenon caused by a broad variety of reasons including the search for better economic or educational opportunities, the desire for family reunification, climate change or disasters. However,

migration that is not safe, orderly and regular results in problems that the world is currently seeing unfold, like the thousands of migrants that have died or gone missing along dangerous migration routes; or the proliferation of migrant smuggling and human trafficking.

In response to the growth of irregular migratory movements, many countries are looking towards border control as a solution: closing ports of entry to deter migration. It is true that efficient border management policies and tools, help prevent irregular migration, dismantle organized criminal networks, and protect the rights of migrants. They are an essential part of migration governance, but not the only part. Beyond border control, countries can approach migration from a holistic point of view, which seeks to take advantage of its potential to boost countries´ economy while also addressing the risks of the process and the causes that drive people out of their countries.

Conclusion

The study has established that vast majority of people migrate across the Mediterranean because they believe that their lives are in danger and/or that there is no future for themselves (and their families) in countries of origin and transit. Simply put factors relating to economics and political mostly induce migration across the Mediterranean. Migration into Europe in the last decade was made up of distinct ' sub-flows' from many countries and regions and includes individuals with diverse trajectories. Changes to migration policies and increased border controls have however led to fluid, fragmented or protracted journeys and make it increasingly difficult for people to safely and legally access protection and employment in destination countries of Europe.

The absence of legal routes to reach the EU has fuelled the demand for smugglers and has pushed people to undertake dangerous crossings resulting in increased violence and loss of lives on the high sea. Most times refugees and migrants who are desperate to leave their countries of origin due to political, economic and related challenges embark on such journeys having only partial information about migration policies in particular countries. Information sharing is dynamic and unpredictable and it occurs more frequently en route rather than at origin, often in a haphazard manner. This makes the role of IOM highly consequential in such circumstance.

It is however unfortunate, that the situation gets worse by the day as more and more peoples struggle to migrate from their countries of origin by all means on a daily bases, especially people of African origin where there is economic hardship and bad governance with high level of insecurity. This has made the efforts of the IOM more or less insignificant; an indication that much more needs to be done domestically and internationally to arrest the rising trend of migration across the Mediterranean.

Recommendations

Here are recommendations to enhancing IOM's Migration Governance Framework:

- Countries should promote stability, education and employment opportunities and reduce the drivers of forced migration, including by promoting resilience, thereby enabling individuals to make the choice between staying and migrating.

- The collection, analysis and use of credible data and information on, among other things, demographics, cross-border movements, internal displacement, diasporas, labor markets, seasonal trends, education and health is essential to creating policies based on facts, that weighs the benefits and risks of migration.

- Regional cooperation can help minimize the negative consequences of migration and preserve its integrity. It can also contribute to regional and global development goals by improving human capital through sustainable development and ensuring longer-term economic growth.

- There is need for the government of African countries to address those institutional challenges both politically and economically that ventilate migration across the Mediterranean.

- The needs for human capital development and the enabling environment for individual or private enterprises to flourish become the priority of government as a matter of urgency.

- African countries such as Nigeria should immediately take extra measure to begin to address challenges of insecurity, poor governance and retrogressive economic policies that frustrate the dreams and aspirations of the younger generation.

- There is need for the IOM to invoke relevant international human rights laws and conventions to guarantee rights of migrants no matter their migration status, race, ethnicities, religions and countries of origin

References

Ayinla, G. (2015). Migration and Human Rights: Improving Human Rights-Based Governance of International Migration. Geneva: IOM Series.

Comenius, N. (2015). The Politics and Discourse of Migrant Return: The Role of UNHCR and IOM in the Governance of Return. In Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies 40 (6), pp. 905-923.

Cotula, M. Vemeulen, K. Leonard, J. and Keeley, T. (2009). Approaches in Research Writing. New York: Prentice Hall Inc.

Erika, G. and Feller, H. (2015). Handbook on European Law Relating to Asylum, Borders and Immigration. Law Library of Congress: Immigration, Nationality and Citizenship

Frontex Triton Program (2016). Migrants Basic Operational Data. General Comments of the UN Committee on Migrant Workers.

Georgi, F. and Schatral, S. (2017). Towards a Critical Theory of Migration Control. The Case of the International Organization for Migration (IOM). In Martin Geiger and Antoine Pécoud (Eds.): International Organisations and the politics of migration: Routledge.

Hirschman, A, (1972). Exit, Voice and Loyalty. London: Longman Publishers Limited

Human Rights Watch (2003). "The International Organization for Migration (IOM) and

Human Rights Protection in the Field: Current Concerns (Submitted by Human Rights Watch, IOM Governing Council Meeting, 86th Session, November 18-21, 2003, Geneva)". www.hrw.org. Retrieved 2019-10-25.

International Commission of Jurists, Migration and International Human Rights Law (2012). A Practitioner's Guide (2014).

International Organisation for Migration (IOM, 2016),

International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2019)."Global Compact for Migration, International Organization for Migration". unofficeny.iom.int. Retrieved 2020-07-24.

IOM (2015). IOM, World Migration Report 2015. Geneva.

IOM (2017). Data Provided by the IOM to the OECD as part of a data collection exercise, October 2017, Geneva..

IOM (2020). "History". International Organization for Migration. Retrieved 3 Jan 2021.

IOM Nigeria, (2016). IOM Country Projects and Report on Nigeria. IOM Abuja Nigeria.

John, S. (2005). Report to the Council of Europe on Current Trends in International Migration in Europe, Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).

Kainth, G.S. (2009), "Push and Pull Factors of Migration: A Case of Brick Kiln Industry of Punjab State", Asia-Pacific Journal of Social Sciences, 1, 82-116.

Kyaing, K. T. (2013). Pull and Push Factors of Migration: A Case Study in the Urban Area of Monywa Township, Myanmar

Manuel, L. B. (2019), Assessment of Migration Crises across the Mediterranean and Sahara Desert. IOM Field Report, Geneva.

Megan, B. (2017). "The International Organization for Migration (IOM): Gaining Power in the Forced Migration Regime". Refuge: Canada's Journal on Refugees. 33 (1): 97.

Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR, (2013). Migration and Human Rights: Improving Human Rights Based Governance of International Migration, UN Publication.

Pizarro, G. (2014), Recommended Principles and Guidelines on Human Rights at International Borders, UN Doc. A/69/CRP.1, 23 July 2014.

Robin, C. (1995). The International Organization for Migration and the international government of borders. In Environment and Planning D: Society and Space 28 (6), pp. 977-999.

Stark, O. and Bloom, D. (2006). The New Economics of Labor Migration. The American Economic Review, 75(2):173-178.

Stephen, C. and Mark, M. (2003), ' The Age of Migration. London; Oxford Press.'

The United Nations (2011). Convention on the Rights of Migrants, New York; UN
Publication.

Todaro, M. (1976). Internal migration in developing countries: A review of theory, evidence,
methodology and research priorities. International Labour Office, Geneva.

UN DESA (2013). International Migration Policies: Government Views and Priorities.
Official Report.