

Senegal

MIGRATION PROFILE

*Study on Migration Routes
in West and Central Africa*



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1. Introduction

The Republic of Senegal is home to the most western point on the African continent, which is also the country's capital, Dakar. Mauritania is to the North, Mali to the East, Guinea and Guinea-Bissau to the South, and The Gambia is enclosed along the western stretch of the Gambia River in the South. A majority of the population is situated in the west, in and around Dakar, and about 56% of the population lives in rural areas of the country (World Bank, 2017). A high fertility rate has made the <25 age cohort the largest, representing over 60% of the population, however, literacy rates are low, at just 57.7%. Unemployment figures for Senegal are significantly divergent, though seemingly in decline: 48% in 2007 (CIA, 2017); 26% in 2013 (World Bank, 2017); and 9.3% in 2015 (UNDP, 2016). Agriculture is the dominant economic sector, accounting for 46.1% of the employed in 2014, followed by services and other at 22.4%; and industry at 18.1% (World Statistics Pocketbook & UNdata, 2017). Senegal's Human Development Index scores just 0.494, ranking 162 in the world, behind Mauritania, but ahead of the rest of the bordering countries. Table 1 gives the key demographic and development indicators.



Table 1: Senegal Key Demographic and Development Indicators

Indicator	Senegal
Total area, <i>in sq km</i> ^a	196,722
Population (2015), <i>in million</i> ^c	15.1
Urban Population (2015), <i>% of total</i> ^c	43.7
Population Growth Rate, <i>average annual growth (2010-2015) %</i> ^c	3.1
Ethnic Groups ^a	Wolof 38.7% Pular 26.5% Serer 15% Mandinka 4.2% Jola 4% Soninke 2.3% Other 9.3%
Human Development Index (2015), <i>country rank out of 188</i> ^c	0.494 162
GDP Based on PPP per Capita, <i>current international dollars per capita</i> (2016 est.) ^a	2,600
Life Expectancy at Birth (2015), <i>years</i> ^c	66.9
Unemployment (2015), <i>% of labour force</i> ^c	9.3

Youth Unemployment (2015), % ages 15-24 ^c	13.1
Multidimensional Poverty Headcount (2014), % ^c	51.9
Gini Coefficient (2010-2015) ^c	40.3
Foreign Direct Investment (net inflows, 2015), <i>current USD millions</i> ^d	345.21
Net Official Development Assistance Received (2015), <i>current USD millions</i> ^d	879.2
Personal Remittances Received (2016), <i>current USD billions</i> ^d	2.005

^a (CIA, 2017); ^b (UNDESA, 2017); ^c (UNDP, 2016); ^d (World Bank, 2017)

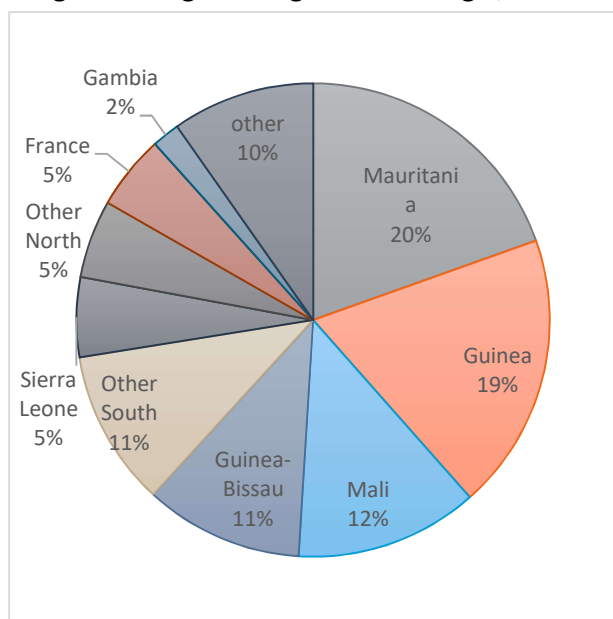
In the past, Senegal was an important destination country for migrants from West and Central Africa, but shrinking economic opportunities have made it mainly a country of emigration, and transit on the western Mediterranean route to Europe (CIA, 2017; IOM, 2015a, 2015b). However, Senegal is still seen as an attractive destination for its education and university offers, and its borders are common sites for intra-regional movement (Charrière & Frésia, 2008, p. 13). Of the 263,242 migrants in Senegal, 20% are from its northern neighbour, Mauritania. About 10% of these are black Mauritanian refugees, who were expelled from their native land as a result of the 1989 border conflict between the two countries.

Figure 1 shows that most of the immigrant stock in Senegal (263,242 in total) is from neighbouring West African countries, accounting for about 1.7% of the total population¹. Since Senegal is a member of ECOWAS, which affords free movement between its member states, this is unsurprising. The migrants in Senegal are important economic actors: Guineans work in the fruit and vegetable trade and transportation; Malian women specialize in paintings; and Malian men work in the cola nut industry (IOM & ICMPD, 2015a). However, Senegal's weak economy and low labour opportunities have made the country more unattractive to labour migrants over the years (Bartolomeo, Fakhoury, & Perrin, 2010). The immigrant stock figures also account for the foreign-born population and includes data on refugees provided by UNHCR.

As seen in Figure 2, about half of the 586,870 Senegalese abroad are in western countries. However, Senegalese authorities estimate that there were 3-4 million nationals abroad in 2013 (IOM & ICMPD, 2015). Emigration towards OECD countries, specifically Spain and Italy, has increased significantly since the 1990s. However, intra-regional migratory movements in West Africa are more significant than to Europe or elsewhere in the world, and while the western area around Senegal has traditionally been a hub, resource rich countries like Congo and Gabon are becoming popular destinations (UNICEF & WCARO, 2016). Inward sent personal remittances received have grown exponentially since 2000, leaping from \$233.5 million to \$2 billion in 2015 (World Bank, 2017). These remittances are important supplements to household incomes for Senegalese with expatriate family members (Some & IOM, 2009).

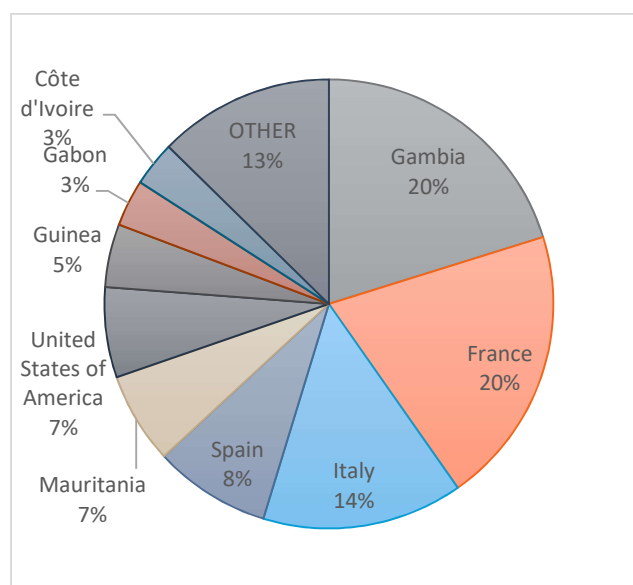
¹ Note that migration statistics from UN DESA (2015a) illustrate mixed migration stocks and may include some, but not all, of refugees in/from a given country. For further information visit: <http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/data/estimates2/estimates15.shtml>

Figure 1: Origin of Migrants in Senegal, 2015



Source: UN DESA, 2015

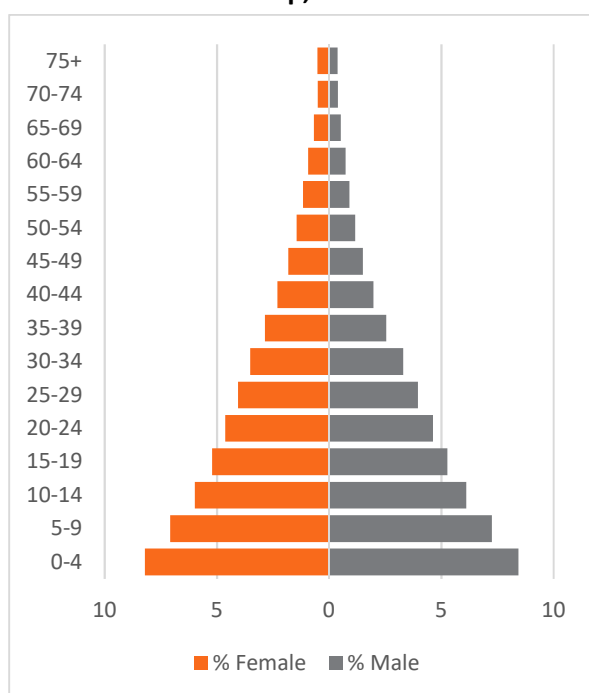
Figure 2: Destination of Migrants from Senegal, 2015



Source: UN DESA, 2015

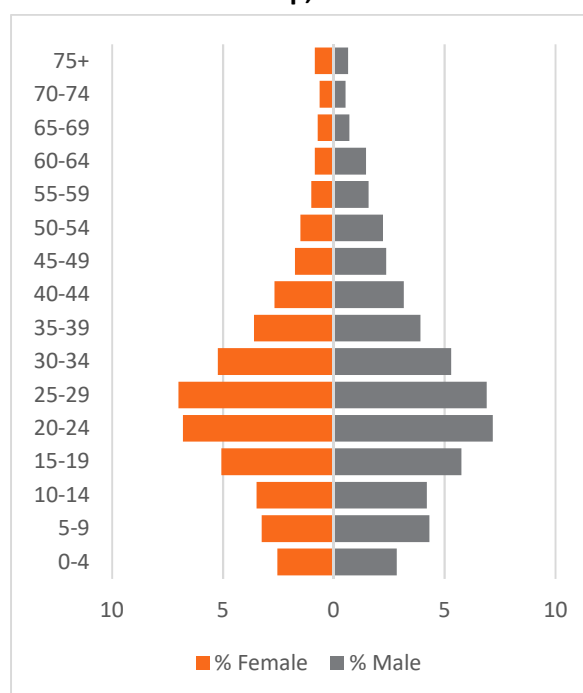
As seen in Figure 4, the stock of migrants in Senegal is notably older than the average Senegalese. While the share of 20-39 year-olds makes up a relatively larger cohort (45.9%) of the migrant stock than in the total population in Senegal (29.5%), it is a mere fraction in absolute terms, at just 6,670 compared to 120,836 in the total population. Migrants only make up 1.79% of the population in Senegal. Males and females are almost perfectly balanced in the total population (Figure 3), while in the migrant population they are 53.06% and 46.94% respectively.

Figure 3: Total Population in Senegal by Age Group, 2015



Source: UN DESA, 2017

Figure 4: Migrant Stock in Senegal by Age Group, 2015



Source: UN DESA, 2015

2. Forced Migration/ Displacement

2.1. Refugees in Senegal

The most complete segmentation of asylum seekers and refugees in Senegal is from mid-2016, as seen in Table 2. Refugees and asylum seekers only account for about 6% of the foreign population in Senegal. Of the 14,443 refugees in Senegal, 95% of them are Mauritians. The large and protracted presence of Mauritanian refugees in Senegal dates back to the 1989 Senegal-Mauritania conflict, when some 53,000 Mauritians with black African origins were expelled from their homeland (Bartolomeo, Fakhoury, & Perrin, 2010; MPC, 2013). The number of refugees in Senegal (Figure 5) has remained relatively low recently, between about 14,000 and 30,000 since 1999, after peaking at 71,908 in 1991 (World Bank, 2017).

Through a 2007 tripartite agreement, Senegal, Mauritania and UNHCR have worked together towards the continued repatriation of Mauritanian refugees to their homeland (Manby, 2015). Naturalization is allowed by Senegalese law, and reaffirmed by Senegalese authorities, but many Mauritians are not interested, instead, preferring resettlement in another country or repatriation with reparations in Mauritania. Given the length of displacement for the Mauritanian refugees, their position subjects them to the risk of statelessness and those of protracted refugee situations i.e. establishing nationality of those displaced and born into displacement (Manby, 2015, p. 59).

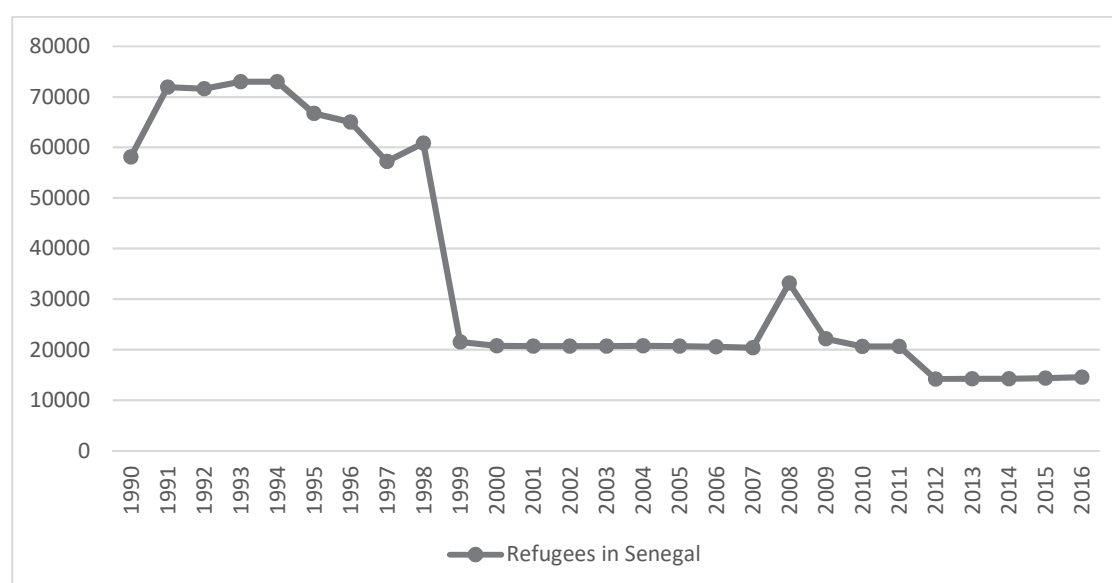
More recently, uncertainty over the 2016 Gambian presidential election results caused 76,000 people to cross, through official and unofficial crossings, from the Gambia into Senegal for safety in early 2017 (Caux, 2017). Those fleeing the political uncertainty were Gambians, Senegalese, bi-nationals, in addition to Ghanaians, Liberians, Lebanese, Guineans, Mauritians, and other foreigners (UNHCR, 2017). Once the ex-president ceded power, those who had fled began returning home.

Refugees in Senegal are vulnerable in terms of meeting food and housing needs, for which UNHCR and OFADEC (L'Office Africaine pour le Développement et la Coopération) offer assistance, dependent on vulnerability criteria (UNHCR, 2017c). According to Law no. 68-27 of 24 July 1968 on the status of refugees, refugee status is granted by a committee of the concerned ministries, in which UNHCR operates as an observer but can also comment on cases (CARIM, 2009). Refugee status grants citizen-level access to education, scholarship, labour laws and benefits, but can be deported from Senegal on grounds of national security and public order.

Table 2: Refugees and Asylum Seekers in Senegal, Mid-2016

Country of Origin	Asylum Seekers	Country of Origin	Refugees
Central African Rep.	556	Mauritania	13,683
Liberia	384	Rwanda	274
Nigeria	355	Central African Rep.	138
Côte d'Ivoire	306	Gambia	83
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	277	Liberia	61
Gambia	270	Burundi	50
Congo, Republic of	251	Côte d'Ivoire	45
Guinea	107	Dem. Rep. of the Congo	22
Guinea-Bissau	93	Congo, Republic of	19
Other	532	Other	68
Total	3,131	Total	14,443

Source: UNHCR, 2017

Figure 5: Refugees in Senegal

Source: World Bank, 2017

2.2. Refugees from Senegal

Ongoing internal conflict in the Casamance region between the Senegalese military forces and the Casamance Movement of Democratic Forces rebel group has created a protracted refugee situation resulting in IDPs and refugees. The conflict is causing issues with civil registration and documentation for refugees, IDPs and others who live in affected areas where records have been burnt (Manby, 2015). Lack of documentation is most significant for children and prevents them from having access to schooling.

The number of Senegalese refugees has grown steadily since the early 2000s, when numbers were as low as 8,332 in 2004 (World Bank, 2017). This is partly due to protracted internal conflict in the Casamance region (Some & IOM, 2009, p. 27). As seen in Table 3, the majority of Senegalese

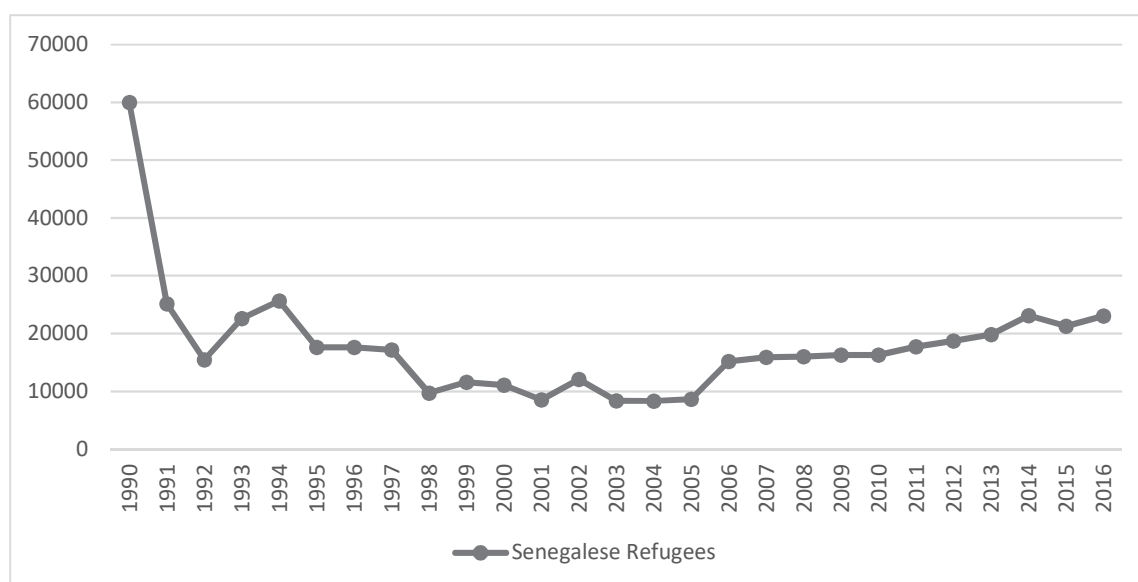
refugees are in Gambia and Guinea-Bissau. The significant number of Senegalese in Italy is discussed in Section 5, due to the irregular nature of the migration.

Table 3: Senegal's Refugees and Asylum Seekers in Country of Asylum, mid-2016

Country of Destination	Refugees	Country of Destination	Asylum Seekers
Guinea-Bissau	8,601	Italy	5,406
Gambia	7,429	Brazil	5,272
Italy	3,880	Germany	1,977
France	881	South Africa	707
Belgium	411	Argentina	645
Other	1,122	Other	3,970
Total	22,324	Total	16,000

Source: UNHCR, 2017

Figure 6: Senegalese Refugees



Source: World Bank, 2017

2.3. Internal Displacement in Senegal

Of greater enormity than the presence of refugees in Senegal are internally displaced persons. Flooding and storms displaced 24,192 people in Senegal in the summer of 2016 (IDMC, 2017). Ongoing violence and weather-related disasters have contributed to protracted IDP situations since 2009 (IDMC, 2017). Sporadic conflict in the southern region of Casamance, caused by the Casamance Movement of Democratic Forces, has left 24,000 people displaced, with ongoing instability disallowing return (IDMC & NRC, 2017; Some & IOM, 2009).

While there's a lack of comprehensive data on IDPs, there are observable "pendular pattern[s]" to the displacement: people shelter near their homes and are able to return to them once clashes die down, which can be on a daily, weekly or seasonal basis (IDMC, 2013). Yet access is to land, basic

services, economic and education opportunities are limited, and returnees are further endangered by landmines, which are in the process of being demined. As of 2013, Senegal had signed, but not ratified the Kampala Convention related to the protection and assistance of IDPs in Africa.

3. Regular/ Labour Migration

3.1. Immigration

As seen in Figure 2, most of the immigrants in Senegal are from neighbouring West African countries, which is unsurprising, given that Senegal is a member of ECOWAS. Mauritians, Malians, and Guineans account for about half of the 263,242 immigrants in Senegal. Foreign workers overwhelmingly find low-skilled positions in the informal sector and tend to work in labour market niches determined by country of origin: Guineans work in the fruit and vegetable trade and transportation; Malian women specialize in paintings; and Malian men work in the cola nut industry (IOM & ICMPD, 2015a). Higher-skilled immigrants are commonly from Côte d'Ivoire, Benin, and Togo.

The most recent segmentation of the profile of foreigners in Senegal comes from the 2001 Senegalese Household Survey (ESAM II). According to the survey, many immigrants were in Senegal for family reunification, as 51.4% of immigrants said that family reasons had brought them to the country, while about one third of respondents in ESAM II cited economic and job-related reasons (Some & IOM, 2009, p. 25). Additionally, 34.2% of the foreigners in the survey were engaged in trade, 26.4% in agriculture, and 15.4% in production and processing, while 55.5% were illiterate (Some & IOM, 2009, p. 25).

3.2. Emigration

As discussed in the introduction, emigration is a common pursuit of the Senegalese, especially among the youth. It has even become institutionalized in some communities, where it is expected and valued as part of a life trajectory (RMMS West Africa, 2017). Remittances received from emigrants abroad have shot from 2.97% of GDP in 1996 to 13.8% in 2016, becoming a more common part of communities' survival strategies (Some & IOM, 2009; World Bank, 2017). Recognizing this, there are several initiatives the Senegalese Government has undertaken to link migration to development efforts:

- Migration for Development in Africa programme (MIDA–Senegal), in partnership with IOM;
- the Transfer of Knowledge Through Expatriate Nationals (TOKTEN) project, in partnership with the United Nations Development Programme; and
- the Co-development Initiative, by the Senegalese President's Office (Some & IOM, 2009, p. 29).

Senegal's emigrant stock abroad represents about 4% of the country's population, which is comparatively lower than other countries in the region; Burkina Faso has 8%, CAR has 7%, and Mali has 5% (UNICEF & WCARO, 2016). However, among the highly skilled, emigration rates are upwards of 45% (UNICEF & WCARO, 2016). In 2011, tertiary-educated emigrants accounted for 19.3% of total

emigrants in OECD countries, while tertiary-educated women accounted for 21.8% of total women emigrants in OECD countries (Ratha, 2016).

The number of Senegalese emigrants has increased over the years, growing from 387,983 in 2000; to 472,297 in 2005; to 586,870 in 2015 (UN DESA, 2015)². However, according to Senegal's Foreign Ministry, there were 648,600 Senegalese living abroad in 2003-2004 (Bartolomeo et al., 2010). The most recent census (2002) put the number at 168,953, based on emigration flows from 1997-2001, estimating that 82.2% were men and 65.1% were between the ages of 15-34. Motivations were mainly for family reasons but also included work and study. The tertiary-educated population has an emigration rate of 17.7% (IOM & ICMPD, 2015).

To curb labour emigration and illegal migration, the Senegalese Government has implemented the following programmes with the hopes of increasing youth employment:

- the National Action Fund for Employment (FNAE);
- the National Fund for Youth Promotion (FNPJ);
- the Agency for the Execution of Works of Public Interest (AGETIP);
- the Project for the Promotion of Rural Micro-businesses (PROMER); and
- the Labour Service within the Directorate of Employment (Some & IOM, 2009, p. 28).

Over the past few decades, preferred destinations have shifted to non-African countries (Bartolomeo et al., 2010), which account for about 50% of Senegalese abroad in 2015 (see *Figure 2*). Destinations are also dependent on the regions of origin within Senegal. Based on flows from 1997-2001, Dakar was linked to Europe and the US; Matam and Podor – which are near the Senegal River in the North – were linked with West and Central Africa; and the Peanut Basin was linked to Southern Europe (Bartolomeo et al., 2010).

Senegal is party to several bilateral agreements with the major EU destination countries for Senegalese emigrants, notably with Spain, France, and Italy (Some & IOM, 2009, p. 28). The deals are multi-faceted and concern “regular or legal migration; irregular or illegal immigration; and development or co-development migration” (*ibid.*). Further bilateral agreements with other countries can be seen in Table 4 in Section 7.

4. Internal Migration

Senegal is an urbanising country with a slowly shrinking rural population, falling from 62% in 1985 to 56% in 2015 (Beal et al., 2015). Desertification and drought drive seasonal migration in Senegal, which also accounts for some of the rural-urban migration (UNICEF & WCARO, 2016). Small towns and urban areas are often the destination of temporary migration for women and young people. Moreover, environmental change is an ongoing threat to the livelihoods of approximately 600,000 Senegalese who work in the fishing industry or related areas (Zickgraf, 2015). The St. Louis region in the northwest of Senegal is particularly environmentally fragile and is threatened by rising sea levels. The unstable environment forces some in the fishing industry to become international labour

² Note that emigration statistics from UN DESA (2015) illustrate mixed migration stocks and may include some, but not all, refugees from Senegal in 2015.

migrants, but only households with the most resources can relocate entire families within the country.

5. Irregular Migration

Senegalese authorities are only concerned with irregular migration as far as it concerns the irregular migration of Senegalese nationals and other foreigners on their way to EU member states, with whom the Senegalese state has implemented relevant policies to address (IOM & ICMPD, 2015). While some irregular Senegalese migrants still aim to reach the Spanish Canary Islands, the more significant route of irregular migration undertaken is through the Central Mediterranean via Libya. Most of those who survive the crossing make an application for asylum. Expulsion of foreigners is rare, and those in irregular situations have paths available to them to regularise their status. But while the Senegalese state is concerned with irregular migrants aiming for Europe, there are issues of irregular migration within the country itself. According to the US Department of State (2017), Senegal is on the Tier 2 Watch List, meaning that the Senegalese Government “does not fully meet the minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking; however, it is making significant efforts to do so.” Senegal has swung between Tier 2 and Tier 2 Watch List since 2010.

5.1. Human Smuggling

Italy has become the most significant non-African destination for Senegalese asylum seekers (see Table 3). Between January and March of 2015, 1,200 Senegalese made the Mediterranean crossing into Italy, many of whom are in search of economic opportunities beyond what Senegal is able to provide them (Köpp & Diallo, 2015). However, the number of those arriving in Europe through the Western Mediterranean route, on which Senegal is a starting point, are negligible due to border security cooperation (Frontex, 2016). Dakar is often a location where fraudulent documents are detected in the hands of those trying to reach the EU; as such, Frontex identified Senegal as a key country of origin for irregular migration to the region (Frontex, 2016, pp. 24, 36). According to RMMS (2017a), “Between January and July 2017, 5,366 migrants and refugees from Senegal arrived in Italy by sea via the Mediterranean route, a slight increase from the 4,998 who arrived during the same period in 2016. Arrivals during this period in 2017 also included 667 unaccompanied children.”

5.2. Trafficking in Human Beings

According to the US Department of State’s 2017 Trafficking in Persons Report, the Senegalese government is ranked as Tier 2 Watch List and the country is “a source, transit, and destination country for women and children subjected to forced labour and sex trafficking” (USDS, 2017, p. 349). The country was also listed on the Tier 2 Watch List in 2016, a downgrade from its Tier 2 status from 2013 to 2015. While Senegal does not fully meet the minimum requirements for the elimination of trafficking, it is making significant efforts to do so (USDS, 2017). Particularly, the Senegalese “government demonstrated significant efforts during the reporting period by convicting at least five sex traffickers; identifying and providing short-term services to an increased number of trafficking victims; allocating funding to its trafficking-specific victim shelter; and disbursing some funding to the Ministry of Women, Family, and Childhood (MFFE) to remove vulnerable children, including forced begging victims, from the streets and refer them to services” (USDS, 2017, p. 347).

The Senegalese government has also taken a number of other steps to combat trafficking:

- Establishment of a National Taskforce against Trafficking, especially of Women and Children
- Agreement with Mali (2004), on the return of child VoTs to their country of origin
- Agreement with Senegal, on fighting instances of cross-border trafficking
- Holding trainings and conferences for public officials (although no public awareness campaigns)
- Operation of a shelter for VoTs, which provides food, medical, and psychological assistance, family mediation, and education services
- Cooperation with NGO-run shelters (but no SOP for shelters) (IOM & ICMPD, 2015)

Despite these efforts, human trafficking remains a significant issue for the country and efforts did not improve in comparison to past years. The funding provided by the Senegalese government to MFFE was not sufficient to assist VoTs in Dakar, nor in other parts of the country. In addition to this, “the government did not provide sufficient protections for workers employed in the informal economy, including children in mining, rendering such workers vulnerable to trafficking” (USDS, 2017, p. 347). In the case of Senegal, internal trafficking occurs more frequently than international trafficking. Despite this, boys from Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, and Mali are subjected to forced begging and labour in Senegal’s gold mining industry. Women and girls from Senegal are frequently also found in situations of forced domestic servitude in Senegal’s neighbouring countries as well as countries in Europe and the Middle East. Women and girls from other West African countries are also found to be subjected to domestic servitude, sex trafficking, and child sex tourism in Senegal (USDS, 2017).

Moreover, another issue of significant concern is the situation faced by vulnerable *talibés*. In 2014, there were an estimated 30,000 *talibés* forced into begging in Dakar alone (USDS, 2017). Poor parents in Senegal will often entrust their children to local imams, or *marabouts*, in the hope that they will receive a Quranic education and be cared for by the religious leaders. However, the *enfants talibés*, as they are known in francophone speaking countries, in this traditional practice of caregiving and education have become subject to abuse at the hands of their guardians, as the children are often forced to beg and serve as income generators for the *marabouts* (Manby, 2015, p. 78). While there are regulations for legal guardianship and housing children in difficulty, the imams are not subject to them, allowing them hold custody of a child without providing a birth certificate or establishing legal identity to the authorities in order to obtain usually required guardianship order (*ordonnance de garde*). The undocumented status of the *enfants talibés* and their unregulated position under the guardianship of the *marabouts* makes these children particularly vulnerable to trafficking. More than 1,547 children were identified to be potential victims of forced begging in Senegal, though many were returned to exploitative conditions in their Quranic schools. Moreover, a lack of understanding and political will of this situation at governmental levels means that forced begging of children is largely unaddressed by Senegal’s law enforcement. During the US Department of State’s most recent reporting period, “the government did not report investigating, prosecuting, or convicting any *marabouts* for forced begging offences” (USDS, 2017, p. 347).

6. Migrant's Vulnerabilities and Protection Issues

The following vulnerabilities and protection issues have been identified in the case of Senegal:

- Irregular migrants from the ECOWAS region transiting outside it are at greater risk without access to basic services, and in a position of legal vulnerability. Traveling outside the region makes irregular migrants highly dependent on smugglers, putting them at risk towards exploitation, abuse, and trafficking (RMMS, 2017b, p. 15).
- Migrants travelling to Europe across the Central Mediterranean are at risk of drowning during the passage, which is the most dangerous sea-crossing, in addition to the other inherent risks of irregular migration and smuggling (Frontex, 2016).
- Residents of the Casamance region are in protracted refugee situations, living in insecurity, and face the risk of violence in returning home (Some & IOM, 2009).
- Migrant and Senegalese children, especially those from poorer families, are at risk of being trafficked and forced to beg as *enfants talibes* under the guardianship of imams. Even when these situations are identified, the government is without a monitoring system or follow-up procedure (USDS, 2017).
- Those working in the informal sector, including children, are at risk of being trafficked. The Ministry of Women, Family, and Childhood received inadequate funding to aid victims of trafficking (VoT) (*ibid.*).

7. Relevant National Policies and Stakeholders

As Toma (2014) describes it, “International migration has become a central feature of Senegalese identity and the standard model of social advancement” (p. 7). That being said, the Senegalese state has become increasingly concerned and occupied with managing irregular and illegal migrant flows, adopting a rather European perspective on the issue as well its solution, whereby development in the country of origin will curb irregular flows. Examples of these initiatives can be found in the Section 3.2.

Regarding outward migration, the following government institutions are involved: the Higher Council of Senegalese Abroad; the Ministry of Foreign Affairs; the Ministry of the Interior; the Ministry of the Youth and of Employment for the Young; the Ministry of the Senegalese Abroad; the Ministry of Labour and Public Service; and the National Commission for Managing and Following Up on Employment Offers (Bartolomeo et al., 2010). However, out-migration of Senegalese citizens and foreigners is unregulated since the elimination of exit visas in 1981 (Toma, 2014).

The Senegalese Government has aimed to improve local development by encouraging investment or permanent return of the Diaspora (Bartolomeo et al., 2010). That being said, the country lacks a coherent strategy for mobility management, instead opting for ad-hoc measures which are developed in response to matters that are more urgent or on a case-by-case basis (Toma, 2014). According to Toma (2014), Senegal's migration management is focused on the following:

- “raising awareness among youth to the dangers of clandestine migration;
- controlling the maritime borders to stop clandestine migration;
- managing the legislative setting of legal migration;

- engaging with the diaspora in order to stimulate migrant investments in Senegal; - engaging with the high-skilled diaspora in an effort to transfer knowledge;
- accompanying the reinsertion of repatriated migrants;
- researching and producing data on migration flows and the diaspora; - reinforcing legislation against human trafficking” (p. 7).

There are several recent bilateral agreements between Senegal and European destination countries that primarily concern management of legal migration, measures against illegal migration, and co-development (Toma, 2014, p. 9). Senegal signed an agreement with France in 2006 (ratified in 2008), which focuses on “training and education, the return of highly skilled migrants and co-development programs.” Agreements with Spain (signed in 2006 and 2007), on the other hand, emphasize border security and measures against illegal migration (Panizzon 2008, as cited by Toma, 2014). These agreements, along with one with Italy (2008), also address the readmission of irregular migrants. Other bilateral labour agreements, mainly with other African nations, are notably older (details in Table 4).

Regarding inward migration, the following government institutions are involved: the Ministry of Interior, Ministry of Labour, and Public Service; the General Directorate of National Security; the Directorate of Air and Border Police; and the Directorate of Foreigners Police (Bartolomeo et al., 2010; IOM & ICMPD, 2015). The entry and stay of foreign nationals in Senegal is governed by the law of 25 January 1971. It establishes family reunification and sanctions for irregular entry/stay (strengthened in 1978), but there are gaps in its coverage for stay permits of certain categories of foreigners, on protections against expulsion, and on judicial and procedural guarantees (Bartolomeo et al., 2010; IOM & ICMPD, 2015, p. 280).

IOM is a key stakeholder in the effort of linking migration and development in Senegal, working with the government to increase its capacity in the management of labour migration and towards the expansion of legal labour migration opportunities. Additionally, IOM is implementing programs that aim to harness the investment and participation of the diaspora for the benefit of development in Senegal (IOM, 2015). While the Senegalese government has its own procedure for processing refugees, it abides by international standards (1951 and 1961 Conventions ratified) and permits UNHCR to participate in proceedings as an observer (Bartolomeo et al., 2010). UNHCR funds and manages protection measures for refugees in Senegal.

To encourage diaspora participation in Senegalese development, the government established the programme, “Diaspora Estates (*Cités de la diaspora*),” which “offers land for construction purposes to migrants who are organized in associations that agree to pay 20% of the total construction cost and the rest as a 5-year loan” (Toma, 2014, p. 13). Migrant Associations and The Housing Bank of Senegal are non-state actors which are also involved in the mobilization of remittances for local development (Toma, 2014). International organizations also play a role in migration-related Senegalese development project: IOM in the Migration for Development in Africa (MIDA) project and UNDP in the Transfer of Knowledge Through Expatriate Nationals (TOKTEN) project (Some & IOM, 2009).

Table 4: Senegal's Key Migration Policy Response

Policy	Content
Law No. 61-10 of 7 March 1961 on Senegalese nationality (amended in 1992)¹	<p><i>Nationality</i></p> <p>"<i>Jus sanguinis</i> by father's descent. Discrimination: children born to a Senegalese mother and a foreign father are not nationals of origin, they can opt for the Senegalese nationality when they come of age.</p> <p><i>Jus soli</i>: double, without any discrimination - nationality of origin for a child born in Senegal to a parent also born there. A foreign woman getting married to a Senegalese man obtains his nationality unless she renounces that right. The delay of access to naturalization is reduced for a foreign man married to a Senegalese woman. A naturalized Senegalese citizen must renounce the nationality of origin. There is then the principle of exclusive allegiance, but dual citizenship is possible when there is access to another nationality."</p>
Law No. 71-10 of 25 January 1971 on the conditions of entry, stay and establishment of foreign nationals²	<p><i>Stay</i></p> <p>"A distinction is made between two legal statuses: non-immigrant and immigrant</p> <p>Law, Art. 3: Non-immigrant status applies notably to foreigners who do not seek to engage in a remunerative activity, as well as those who intend to work temporarily in specific fields, such as journalism, research, and art. Law, Art. 2; Art. 3: Non-immigrants are required to request the delivery of a stay authorisation before entry on the national territory. This authorisation is valid for a period of four months."</p> <p>Law, Art. 4: "Immigrant status applies to foreigners who "have the intention to establish their residence in Senegal, engage in a lucrative activity in a permanent manner, or exercise a profession"."</p> <p>Law, Art. 4: "Immigrant stay in Senegal is subject to the delivery of a residence authorisation, which is to be delivered before entry on the national territory."</p> <p>Law, Art. 4: "Foreigners holding a stay authorisation who wish to change their legal status can request the delivery of a residence authorisation on the territory."</p> <p><i>Family migration</i></p> <p>Law, Art. 4: "A specific provision regarding family migration that applies to the spouse, ascendants, dependent minor children and adult unmarried children of the migrant. The law does not recognise a right of the individual to be accompanied by his/her family members but simply foresees this possibility."</p>
Decree No. 71-860 of 28	<p><i>Entry</i></p>

<p>July 1970 on the conditions of entry, stay and establishment of foreign nationals²</p>	<p>Decree, Art. 1; Art. 39 to Art. 74: "Admission on the national territory is subject to the delivery of a visa, and the production of a guarantee of return, which may take the form of a return ticket to the country of origin, a deposit or a bank guarantee."</p> <p><i>Stay</i></p> <p>Decree, Art. 13: Delivery of the residence authorisation leads to the issuance of a foreigner identity card, which is to be requested within fifteen days of entry."</p>
<p>Labour Code, 1997²</p>	<p><i>Access to the national labour market</i></p> <p>Art. L 33; L 34: "Work contracts that include "the establishment of the worker outside of his/her place of habitual residence" are to be approved by the General Direction of Labour and Social Security within the Ministry of Public Service, Labour, Social Dialogue and Professional Organisations."</p> <p>Art. L 224 "foresees the possibility to adopt secondary legislation to "forbid or limit the employment of foreigners for specific occupations or professional qualification levels" in order to ensure full-employment of the national workforce. Such secondary legislation has yet to be adopted."</p> <p><i>Rights within employment</i></p> <p>Art. L 1 "provides for equal treatment between foreigners and nationals. Foreigners, regardless of their legal status, benefit, as a principle, from all obligations and rights from the labour legislation."</p> <p>Art. L 9 "includes an exception to the principle of equal treatment. While all foreigners can join a trade union, only those who have stayed in Senegal for a minimum of five years can fulfill administrative and executive functions, provided that their country of nationality grants similar rights to Senegalese nationals."</p> <p>Art. L 156 "states that the cost of transportation from the country of origin to the place of employment must be undertaken by the employer. This principle does not only apply to the migrant worker but also to the spouse and minor children."</p> <p>Art. 106: "Housing must be provided by the employer."</p>
<p>Law No. 71-10 of 25 January 1971 on the conditions of entry, stay and establishment of foreign nationals²</p>	<p><i>Irregular migration</i></p> <p>Law, Art. 10; Decree, Art. 34 to Art. 38 "foresee expulsion of those who have committed a criminal offence or pose a threat to public order."</p> <p>Law, Art. 11; Art. 12: "irregular stay and irregular employment constitute a criminal offence, which expose the individual to a ne</p>

	and imprisonment for one month to two years.”
Decree No. 71-860 of 28 July 1971 on the conditions of entry, stay and establishment of foreign nationals²	Decree, Art. 32; Art. 33 “foresee deportation of foreigners who are not in possession of the documents required to enter the country.”
Law No. 2005-06 on Trafficking in Persons and Assimilated Practices and Victims’ Protection²	<p>Art. 4; Art. 5: “Smugglers, and those who falsify visas, travel documents and stay permits are subject to fines comprised of between 1,000,000 and 5,000,000 CFA francs (USD 1,895 to 9,480), as well as penalties of five to ten years’ imprisonment.”</p> <p><i>Migrants at risk</i></p> <p>Art. 1: “Penalties foreseen range from five to ten years’ imprisonment and 5 to 20 million CFA francs (USD 9,480 to 37,920). In case of aggravating circumstances, such as the use of torture or barbaric acts, penalties rise to 10 to 30 years in prison.”</p> <p>Art. 15: “Foreign victims have a right to stay in the country during penal proceedings. They can also apply for temporary or permanent stay in Senegal.”</p>
Decrees, 2008³	<p><i>Emigration and Diaspora</i></p> <p>“Creating a fund for the investment of Senegalese expatriates”</p> <p>Establishing the National Commission for the Management of Legal Labour Migration</p>
Bilateral Agreements^{1,2,3}	<p><i>EU</i></p> <p>France (1974; 1980; 1995; 2000; 2000; 2001; 2006; 2007), Germany (1977), Spain (2006; 2006), Italy (2007)</p> <p><i>Neighboring States</i></p> <p>Egypt (1998), Mauritania (1972; 2007), Morocco (1964)</p> <p><i>Other</i></p> <p>Canada (1983), Djibouti (2001), Gabon (1979; 1982), Saudi Arabia (1988), Kuwait (1992)</p>

This table has been adapted from: (Bartolomeo et al., 2010)¹; (IOM & ICMPD, 2015)²; and (CARIM, 2009)³

Gaps

The Senegalese government’s absence of effort in the gathering of migration-related data has forced this profile to rely heavily on dated and incomplete information. The *Global Report on Internal Displacement* (GRID) scored Senegal on the lowest tier for data sharing on internal displacement, saying that there was “no evidence of systematic collection or sharing of displacement data by the government” (IDMC & NRC, 2017). The most recent household level survey (ESAM II) is from 2001,

which provides the data for much of IOM's migration profile of the country from 2009 (Some & IOM, 2009). Specifically, the lack of data on migration limits the possibilities for evidence based policy making.

In addition to the data gaps, Senegal's migration policy is also lacking: "Senegal has neither a formal migration policy nor a structure dedicated to the migration issue for determining and implementing the national migration policy" (Some & IOM, 2009, p. 28); "Senegal has yet to adopt a formal migration policy" (IOM & ICMPD, 2015, p. 278); and "one cannot talk of a global emigration or diaspora policy framework in Senegal" (Toma, 2014, p. 7). Toma (2014) and Some & IOM (2009) both point to a lack of coordination between the separate agencies and ministries involved in migration management.

Moreover, VoTs, especially children, are not provided with insufficient protections by the government. Even when VoTs are identified, investigations, prosecutions, and convictions are commonly absent due to government authorities' lack of understanding of trafficking and political will to bring about change. Additionally, the Senegalese government fails to maintain or publish statistics on anti-trafficking efforts (USDS, 2017).

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