



**A MODEL PROPOSAL AGAINST ILLEGAL  
IMMIGRATION. A CASE STUDY IN SOUTHERN  
LIBYA**

**2024  
PHD  
BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION DEPARTMENT**

**Salih Barkah Toukah ANY**

**Thesis Advisor  
Assist. Prof. Dr. Neşe YILDIZ**

**A MODEL PROPOSAL AGAINST ILLEGAL IMMIGRATION. A CASE  
STUDY IN SOUTHERN LIBYA**

**Salih Barkah Toukah ANY**

**Thesis Advisor**

**Assist. Prof. Dr Neşe YILDIZ**

**T.C.**

**Karabuk University**

**Institute of Graduate Programs**

**Department of Business Administration Department**

**Prepared as**

**Phd**

**KARABUK**

**June 2024**

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS</b> .....	<b>1</b>
<b>THESIS APPROVAL PAGE</b> .....	<b>5</b>
<b>DECLARATION</b> .....	<b>6</b>
<b>FOREWORD</b> .....	<b>7</b>
<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	<b>8</b>
<b>ÖZ</b> .....	<b>9</b>
<b>ARCHIVE RECORD INFORMATION</b> .....	<b>10</b>
<b>ARŞİV KAYIT BİLGİLERİ</b> .....	<b>11</b>
<b>ABBREVIATIONS</b> .....	<b>12</b>
<b>SUBJECT OF THE RESEARCH</b> .....	<b>13</b>
<b>PURPOSE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE RESEARCH</b> .....	<b>13</b>
<b>METHOD OF THE RESEARCH</b> .....	<b>13</b>
<b>RESEARCH PROBLEM</b> .....	<b>13</b>
<b>POPULATION AND SAMPLE</b> .....	<b>14</b>
<b>SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS / DIFFICULTIES</b> .....	<b>14</b>
<b>1. CHAPTER : LITERATURE REVIEW</b> .....	<b>17</b>
<b>1.1. Concept of Migration</b> .....	<b>17</b>
<b>1.1.1. Definition of Migration</b> .....	<b>17</b>
<b>1.1.2. Reasons for Migration</b> .....	<b>18</b>
<b>1.1.2.1. The Push Factors</b> .....	<b>19</b>
<b>1.1.2.2. The Pull Factor</b> .....	<b>20</b>
<b>1.1.3. Factors of Migration</b> .....	<b>21</b>
<b>1.1.3.1. Safety Factors</b> .....	<b>21</b>
<b>1.1.3.2. Economic Factors</b> .....	<b>22</b>

1.1.3.3. Environmental Factors .....	22
1.1.3.4. Social Factors .....	22
1.1.3.5. Demographic Factors .....	22
1.1.3.6. Political Factors .....	23
1.1.4. Types of Migration.....	23
1.1.4.1. Labor Migration .....	23
1.1.4.2. Forced Migration.....	25
1.1.4.3. Internal and International Migration.....	25
1.1.5. Historical Overview of Migration .....	26
1.1.6. Theories on Migration .....	30
1.1.6.1. Macro-Level Theories .....	31
1.1.6.2. Micro-Level Theories .....	32
1.1.6.3. Meso-Level Theories .....	32
1.1.6.4. Internal Migration Theory .....	34
1.1.6.5. International Migration Theory.....	34
1.2. The Concept of Illegal Migration.....	35
1.2.1. Definition of Illegal Migration .....	35
1.2.2. Reasons for Illegal Migration .....	36
1.2.3. Global Struggles Against Illegal Migration.....	37
<b>2. CHAPTER : MIGRATION AND ILLEGAL MIGRATION IN LIBYA ...</b>	<b>39</b>
2.1. Migration and Illegal Migration in Libya.....	39
2.1.1. Middle East and South Asia.....	47
2.2. Impact of Illegal Migration in Southern Libya .....	49
2.2.1. Murzuq .....	50
2.2.2. Al-Kufra.....	51
2.2.3. Ghat.....	52
2.3. Smugglers of Migrants.....	56
2.4. Investment and Job Opportunities .....	57
2.4.1. Investment .....	57
2.4.2. Job Opportunities .....	61
<b>3. CHAPTER : FINDINGS ILLEGAL IMMIGRATION IN LIBYA .....</b>	<b>64</b>
3.1. Findings Related to the Question: "What are the Economic and Social Effects of Illegal Immigration on Southern Libya?" .....	65

<b>3.2. Findings Related to the Question: "What are the Current Policies and Strategies in Place to Address Illegal Immigration in Southern Libya? How Effective are They?"</b> .....	<b>66</b>
<b>3.3. Findings Related to the Question: "What are Potential Solutions that Could be Implemented to Address Illegal Immigration in Southern Libya?"</b>	<b>68</b>
<b>3.4. Findings Related to the Question: "How Can Regional and International Cooperation be Enhanced to Address the Root Causes of Illegal Immigration and Improve the Overall Situation in Southern Libya?"</b> .....	<b>70</b>
<b>3.5. Findings Related to the Question: "How Do Organized Crime Networks Benefit from Involvement in Migrant Smuggling?"</b> .....	<b>71</b>
<b>3.6. Findings Related to the Question: "What Factors Do You Think Increase Migrant Smuggling?"</b> .....	<b>73</b>
<b>3.7. Findings Related to the Question: "Do You Think Stricter Border Control Measures are an Effective Way to Combat Smuggling? Why or Why Not?"</b> .....	<b>74</b>
<b>3.8. Findings Related to the Question: "What Role Do You Think Government Policies Play in Addressing the Issue of Migrant Smuggling?"</b> ..	<b>76</b>
<b>3.9. Findings Related to the Question "Can you provide examples of initiatives or approaches that have been effective in combating migrant smuggling?"</b> .....	<b>77</b>
<b>3.10. Findings Related to the Question "How can international cooperation assist in addressing the challenges posed by smugglers in migration?"</b> .....	<b>78</b>
<b>3.11. Findings Related to the Question "Are there any specific legislative or legal measures that you believe should be implemented to deter and punish those involved in migrant smuggling?"</b> .....	<b>80</b>
<b>3.12. Findings Related to the Question "Does unemployment play a role in the increase in illegal migration?"</b> .....	<b>81</b>
<b>3.13. Findings Related to the Question: "Do you believe that investment and development can help reduce illegal migration?"</b> .....	<b>83</b>
<b>3.14. Findings Related to the Question: "How can investment and development be targeted to specifically reduce illegal migration in southern Libya?"</b> .....	<b>84</b>
<b>3.15. Findings Related to the Question: "What types of investment would be most beneficial to reducing illegal migration?"</b> .....	<b>86</b>
<b>3.16. Findings Related to the Question: "What Role Should the Government Play in Encouraging Investment and Development to Reduce Illegal Immigration?"</b> .....	<b>87</b>

<b>3.17. Findings Related to the Question: "What are Some of the Biggest Challenges in Implementing Effective Development and Investment Strategies that Reduce Illegal Immigration?"</b> .....	<b>89</b>
<b>CONCLUSION</b> .....	<b>91</b>
<b>REFERENCES</b> .....	<b>99</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b> .....	<b>109</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b> .....	<b>110</b>
<b>CURRICULUM VITAE</b> .....	<b>111</b>



## THESIS APPROVAL PAGE

I certify that in my opinion the thesis submitted by Salih Barkah Toukah ANY titled A MODEL PROPOSAL AGAINST ILLEGAL IMMIGRATION. A CASE STUDY IN SOUTHERN LIBYA is fully adequate in scope and in quality as a thesis for the degree of Business Administration Department.

Assist. Prof. Dr. Neşe YILDIZ .....  
Thesis Advisor, Department of International Trade and Finance

This thesis is accepted by the examining committee with a unanimous vote in the Business Administration Department as a PHD degree thesis. June 28, 2024

<b><u>Examining Committee Members (Institutions)</u></b>	<b><u>Signature</u></b>
--	-------------------------

Chairman : Prof. Dr. Fatma Zehra SAVI (KBU)	.....
---	-------

Member : Assist. Prof. Dr. Neşe YILDIZ (KBU)	.....
--	-------

Member : Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hakan VARGÜN (KBU)	.....
--	-------

Member : Assoc. Prof. Dr. Sabahattin ÇETİN (BARU)	.....
---	-------

Member : Assist. Prof. Dr. Adil AKKUŞ (ASUN)	.....
--	-------

The degree of PHD degree by the thesis submitted is approved by the Administrative Board of the Institute of Graduate Programs, Karabuk University.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Zeynep ÖZCAN .....  
Director of the Institute of Graduate Programs

## **DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own work and all information included has been obtained and expounded in accordance with the academic rules and ethical policy specified by the institute. Besides, I declare that all the statements, results, materials, not original to this thesis have been cited and referenced literally.

Without being bound by a particular time, I accept all moral and legal consequences of any detection contrary to the aforementioned statement.

**Name Surname : Salih Barkah Toukah ANY**

**Signature :**

## **FOREWORD**

I would like to say thank you to my advisor Assist. Prof. Dr. Neşe YILDIZ for all her help, dedication, guidance, cooperation and patience. This all helped and encouraged me to accomplish this research. She has a huge role in turning this study into an interesting piece of work with her useful advice and continuous support. I also thank each of Prof. Dr. Fatma Zahra SAVI and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hakan VARGÜN, for their insightful comments and encouragement.

Special thanks to all the respondents, for their time and accepting to share their experiences and professional expertise in this study.

Finally, I would like to dedicate this Phd thesis to my family for their endless support and patience from the beginning to the end of this research.

Karabuk, 2024

## **ABSTRACT**

Human migration is primarily driven by the quest for economic prosperity and safety. Historically widespread across Europe, Africa, and Asia, contemporary migration is often propelled by conflicts and the pursuit of better living conditions, leading to both positive economic impacts and public concerns. This study focuses on southern Libya (Fezzan), a critical migration route to Europe. By employing qualitative data from diverse interviews, it examines a model proposal against illegal immigration. The study aims for a deeper comprehension of illegal migration and its mitigation by analysing the motivations behind unlawful activities. The findings explore the multifaceted impacts of illegal immigration on southern Libya's economy and society. Positive contributions include labor market participation and increase commercial activity, while negative effects involve heightened unemployment, reduced productivity, and increased inflation. Social tensions and crime concerns are prevalent, exacerbated by resource competition and strained public services. Current security-focused policies are criticized for failing to address root causes such as poverty and persecution. Political instability and militia activities further undermine policy effectiveness. A holistic strategy emphasizing socio-economic development and community involvement is advocated. Proposed solutions include local development, vocational training, improved public services, and legal migration pathways, alongside international cooperation. Addressing organized crime necessitates economic development, enhanced security, and improved governance. The research underscores the need for economic investment, infrastructure improvement, and vocational training to mitigate illegal migration. Policy reforms and a stable political climate are essential for sustainable development, requiring alignment with community needs and robust international collaboration.

**Keywords:** Illegal Immigration, Southern Libya, A Model Against Illegal Immigration

## ÖZ

İnsan göçü öncelikle ekonomik refah ve güvenlik arayışı ile tetiklenmektedir. Avrupa, Afrika ve Asya genelinde tarihsel olarak yaygın olan çağdaş göç, genellikle çatışmalar ve daha iyi yaşam koşulları arayışı ile itilerek hem olumlu ekonomik etkilere hem de kamuoyunda endişelere yol açmaktadır. Bu çalışma, Avrupa'ya kritik bir göç rotası olan güney Libya'ya (Fezzan) odaklanmaktadır. Farklı röportajlardan elde edilen nitel verileri kullanarak, yasadışı göçe karşı bir model önerisini incelemektedir. Çalışma, yasadışı göçü ve bu göçün azaltılmasını, yasadışı faaliyetlerin arkasındaki motivasyonları analiz ederek daha derinlemesine anlamayı amaçlamaktadır. Bulgular, yasadışı göçün güney Libya'nın ekonomisi ve toplumu üzerindeki çok yönlü etkilerini araştırmaktadır. Olumlu katkılar arasında işgücü piyasasına katılım ve ticari faaliyetlerin artması yer alırken, olumsuz etkiler arasında artan işsizlik, düşen verimlilik ve artan enflasyon yer almaktadır. Kaynak rekabeti ve zorlanan kamu hizmetleri nedeniyle sosyal gerginlikler ve suç endişeleri yaygındır. Mevcut güvenlik odaklı politikalar, yoksulluk ve zulüm gibi temel nedenleri ele almada başarısız oldukları için eleştirilmektedir. Siyasi istikrarsızlık ve milis faaliyetleri politika etkinliğini daha da zayıflatmaktadır. Sosyo-ekonomik kalkınmayı ve topluluk katılımını vurgulayan bütüncül bir strateji savunulmaktadır. Önerilen çözümler arasında yerel kalkınma, mesleki eğitim, gelişmiş kamu hizmetleri ve yasal göç yollarının yanı sıra uluslararası iş birliği de yer almaktadır. Organize suçla mücadele ekonomik kalkınma, güvenliğin artırılması ve yönetişimin iyileştirilmesini gerektirir. Araştırma, yasadışı göçü azaltmak için ekonomik yatırıma, altyapı iyileştirilmesine ve mesleki eğitime olan ihtiyacın altını çizmektedir. Sürdürülebilir kalkınma için politika reformları ve istikrarlı bir siyasi iklim elzemdir ve topluluk ihtiyaçları ve güçlü uluslararası iş birliği ile uyumlu olmayı gerektirir.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Yasa Dışı Göç, Güney Libya, Yasadışı Göçe Karşı Bir Model

## ARCHIVE RECORD INFORMATION

<b>Title of the Thesis</b>	A Model Proposal Against Illegal Immigration. A Case Study In Southern Libya
<b>Author of the Thesis</b>	Salih Barkah Toukah ANY
<b>Thesis Advisor</b>	Assist. Prof. Dr. Neşe YILDIZ
<b>Status of the Thesis</b>	Phd
<b>Date of the Thesis</b>	28/06/2024
<b>Field of the Thesis</b>	Business Administration Department
<b>Place of the Thesis</b>	UNIKA / IGP
<b>Total Page Number</b>	111
<b>Keywords</b>	Illegal Immigration, Southern Libya, A Model Against Illegal Immigration

## ARŞİV KAYIT BİLGİLERİ

<b>Tezin Adı</b>	Yasadışı Göçle Mücadelede Bir Model Önerisi: Güney Libya'da Bir Durum Çalışması
<b>Tezin Yazarı</b>	Salih Barkah Toukah ANY
<b>Tezin Danışmanı</b>	Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Neşe YILDIZ
<b>Tezin Derecesi</b>	Doktora
<b>Tezin Tarihi</b>	28/06/2024
<b>Tezin Alanı</b>	İşletme Bölümü
<b>Tezin Yeri</b>	KBU/LEE
<b>Tezin Sayfa Sayısı</b>	111
<b>Anahtar Kelimeler</b>	Yasa Dışı Göç, Güney Libya, Yasadışı Göçe Karşı Bir Model

## **ABBREVIATIONS**

<b>IOM</b>	: International Organization for Migration
<b>DTM</b>	: Displacement Tracking Matrix
<b>GNA</b>	: Government of National Accord
<b>MOU</b>	: Memorandum of Understanding
<b>ILO</b>	: International Labour Organization
<b>UNHCR</b>	: United Nation High Commissioner for Refugees
<b>IDMC</b>	: Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre
<b>IDP</b>	: Internally Displace Persons
<b>BSCL</b>	: Bureau of Statistics and Census in Libya
<b>LCG</b>	: Libyan Coast Guard
<b>LNOC</b>	: Libya's National Oil Corporation
<b>ECCR</b>	: European Center for Constitutional and Right
<b>WTO</b>	: World Trade Organization
<b>IMF</b>	: International Monetary Fund
<b>GATT</b>	: General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade
<b>OECD</b>	: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
<b>CHRD</b>	: Coalition for Human Rights in Development
<b>ESCWA</b>	: Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia
<b>ETF</b>	: European Training Foundation
<b>UNDP</b>	: United Nation Development Programme

## **SUBJECT OF THE RESEARCH**

The subject of the research is a model proposal against illegal immigration. a case study in Southern Libya

## **PURPOSE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE RESEARCH**

The research is significant as it addresses a noted deficiency in the scholarly literature, particularly the lack of focused studies on curbing illegal immigration and smuggling in southern Libya, through adopting a model proposal. Also, this study will contribute to a deeper comprehension of illegal migration and its mitigation by analysing the motivations behind unlawful activities and proposing solutions. Furthermore, southern Libya's strategic position as a transit hub for migrants en route to Europe accentuates the need for comprehensive solutions to combat human trafficking and smuggling.

## **METHOD OF THE RESEARCH**

The research was conducted in southern Libya, and data were collected through direct interviews with a diverse group of participants including ministers, government officials, university professors, civil activists, and representatives from various sectors in the region, to obtain varied perspectives on illegal immigration. The research employs a qualitative methodology, relying on in-depth interviews which were conducted with the consent of the participants. Additionally, all participants were asked for their explicit consent regarding the inclusion of their names or characteristics in the research. All participants provided their explicit consent, and none expressed any reservations or objections to the mention of their names or personal characteristics in the context of the research.

## **RESEARCH PROBLEM**

The southern Libya (Fezzan) encounters numerous challenges, many of which are beyond local control. The legitimate economy of Fezzan is floundering amidst national economic and financial institutions that remain largely ineffective. In stark

contrast, the underground economy is flourishing. Geographically pivotal, the Fezzan acts as a crucial nexus linking southern Libya to the Sahel and the principal migration corridors from sub-Saharan Africa through northern Libya to Europe. Given Libya's strategic role on the migration route to Europe and its historical significance as a hub for both Arab and African labor migration, the country is a vital arena for testing various migration diplomacy approaches.

The main aim of this study is to explore a model proposal against illegal immigration in southern Libya, to address the gap in research. Accordingly, the key research questions are:

- What are the principal factors fueling illicit trade and illegal immigration in southern Libya?
- what kinds of instruments/solution can be developed to combat illegal Trade in southern Libya?
- Can a modal Proposal be developed against illegal trade according to participating social actors?

## **POPULATION AND SAMPLE**

Data was collected through semi-structured interviews with 16 participants from various sectors relevant to the study. The data collection tool consisted of 17 questions that were administered to all participants.

## **SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS / DIFFICULTIES**

This study is specifically conducted in southern Libya due to a notable dearth of research addressing this topic. The Fezzan region, characterized by its vast desert landscapes and borders with Niger, Chad, and Algeria, possesses numerous untapped resources. The study will therefore focus on leveraging these aspects to inform its investigation and proposed solutions.

During the data collection process in Libya, I encountered complex geographical and security challenges. The geographical challenges involved the

necessity of traveling between various Libyan regions, including the southern city of Murzuq and Sabha, Tripoli in the west, and Benghazi in the east.

These challenges were exacerbated by the unstable security situation in Libya and the presence of two competing governments.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Human migration has always been a global phenomena, with people moving all over the world in search of wealth, safety, and nutrition. The transmission of illnesses, genetic materials, cultural practices, and languages has all been made easier by this dispersal. Human settlements progressively spread throughout Europe, Africa, and Asia, and as transportation technologies advanced, so did the opportunities for long-distance migration (Ferrie & Hatton, 2015). Presently, immigration often arises from conflicts that compel individuals to seek refuge and safety. Over time, migration can enhance the distribution of labor and generally yields positive outcomes for the economic and social development of the involved nations. It provides opportunities for income, career advancement, and personal freedom that may be unavailable in one's home country. However, migration also incites public concern and political debate regarding its long-term sustainability and potentially disruptive effects on both origin and host communities. Annually, many individuals migrate in search of better living conditions, commonly driven by unemployment (Hamoudi & Aimer, 2017).

Illicit trade is no longer a phenomenon confined to urban areas or major ports but now permeates even the most isolated villages and smallest towns globally. Understanding the drivers of illegal trade and the conditions under which it flourishes is crucial for developing effective countermeasures (Battal Saleh, 2020). Both legal and illegal trades emerge from the pursuit of profit, yet illegal trade specifically thrives where the potential returns outweigh those of lawful commerce.

In southern Libya, residents often resort to illegal trading due to the absence of employment opportunities, which challenges their ability to support and provide a stress-free life for their families (Battal Saleh, 2020). This activity not only affects individual lives but also contributes to a broader national concern, such as brain drain, which can diminish a country's long-term development potential.

This case study will examine strategies to deter illegal trading and its mitigation by analysing the motivations behind unlawful activities and proposing solutions. Legal employment opportunities could invigorate the economy and motivate residents to contribute to national development. Beyond generating income, jobs also facilitate access to essential services such as safe water and reliable energy, which improve overall health and educational outcomes. Furthermore, there are economic advantages to investing in job creation (Hamoudi & Aimer, 2017).

In the broader economic context, investment is essential for boosting productivity and enhancing a nation's competitive edge. Without such investment, an economy may sustain high consumption levels but at the expense of long-term growth (Hamoudi & Aimer, 2017).

# **1. CHAPTER : LITERATURE REVIEW**

Migration represents a global challenge that demands coordinated responses across various levels. Existing research highlights the importance of understanding migration and emphasizes the critical role of strategic investments and their relationship to migration and development. Such research calls for localized solutions and integrated research agendas.

## **1.1. Concept of Migration**

### **1.1.1. Definition of Migration**

Migration, an intrinsic aspect of human societies since antiquity, has profoundly influenced development. Today, it is at an unprecedented scale and has captured the attention of policymakers, academics, and global citizens. As a focal point in global development discourse, migration is integral to achieving Sustainable Development Goals (Faist, 2014) . Its worldwide significance is rooted in the social, political, and economic benefits it offers to individuals, as well as to host and home nations. However, disorganized, unsafe, and irregular migration can adversely affect human and social development. Therefore, migration and migrant needs are prominently featured in the Sustainable Development Goals (Alla-Mensah & Published, 2019; Lomborg, 2023).

Migration is also central to the major challenges of the 21st century, as reflected in the intense international focus on the topic. Numerous high-level meetings have underscored the necessity of international collaboration in addressing migration. The World Summit on International Migration and Development, held in New York in September 2006, marked a pivotal moment in integrating migration into developmental strategies. Since 2007, an annual Global Forum on Migration and Development has convened (Abdoulaye, 2018; Angenendt & Koch, 2017).

Migration is a complex global issue that affects every country as a point of origin, transit, or destination (FAO, 2016). However, universally accepted definitions remain elusive due to variations in usage across and within countries, perspectives, and approaches (Sugawara & Nikaido, 2014). The United Nations characterizes a migrant as an individual who has resided in a foreign country for a period exceeding one year,

irrespective of the reasons for their migration or the legality of their residency. (Illés, 2014; Moreno, 2017). Nevertheless, shorter-term migrants, such as seasonal agricultural workers, are often considered migrants in common usage (Gerbeau, 2017).

Migration encompasses all types of human movement, both internal and international. It includes economic migrants, distressed migrants, internally displaced persons (IDPs), refugees, asylum seekers, returnees, and those moving for education or family reunification (Dimitris, 2023; Vincent, 2022). It is driven by various factors, such as conflicts, violence, and natural disasters, as well as poverty, food insecurity, lack of social protection, environmental degradation, and climate change (Beine et al., 2021; FAO, 2016). Migration is of particular concern to governments, police, border authorities, NGOs, and the migrants themselves (Sugawara & Nikaido, 2014).

Migration can be classified based on destination (internal or international), duration (seasonal, medium-term, or permanent), motivation (climate, economic, political), and voluntariness (forced or voluntary) (Alla-Mensah & Published, 2019). Internal migration occurs within national borders, while international migration involves moving across national boundaries for work or residence (Abdoulaye, 2018). Scholars across disciplines approach migration from diverse angles: sociologists explore its social and cultural impacts, geographers study its temporal and spatial dimensions, and economists emphasize its economic implications (Balinchenko, 2021; Thet, 2014).

### **1.1.2. Reasons for Migration**

Migratory processes are driven by diverse factors, including environmental, political, economic, social, and cultural reasons. In certain instances, migration was imperative for survival, compelling individuals to flee from conflicts, droughts, and other crises. However, migration is not always a result of dramatic or coercive circumstances. Nomadic cultures exemplify how mobility can be an integral aspect of a lifestyle, rather than a forced endeavor (Gerbeau, 2017). Migration is driven by various factors, often involving individuals leaving their communities to benefit themselves or their home regions, to escape adverse conditions, or due to forced displacement (Manning, 2012). Individuals relocate for various reasons, including marriage and family considerations, educational opportunities, employment prospects,

and humanitarian concerns. Migration may be voluntary or involuntary. Involuntary migration includes refugees escaping persecution, displacement due to environmental disasters, climate change, prolonged conflict, severe poverty, and land dispossession (Morrice et al., 2017).

Historically, migration has been a consistent phenomenon, with environmental, economic, political, humanitarian, social, and cultural factors often working in combination to compel movement (Chidiogo et al., 2024; Van Praag & Timmerman, 2019). Though environmental changes have long contributed to social and political conflicts, they now exacerbate pressures on living conditions and other migration causes. Migration occurs in response to the unequal distribution of opportunities across regions. Individuals tend to move from areas with limited opportunities and safety to those offering greater chances for prosperity and security, resulting in both positive and negative impacts on both sending and receiving regions (Mlambo, 2017).

People who migrate voluntarily are often economic migrants, moving to improve their standard of living. Other voluntary migrants include retirees seeking more favorable climates. In contrast, involuntary migrants, also known as refugees, are compelled to leave due to war or natural disasters. Migration can be categorized into various forms, including counter-urbanization, internal migration, international migration, rural-urban migration, emigration, and immigration (Rosni & Zainol, 2020).

Migration causes are generally categorized into push and pull factors:

#### **1.1.2.1. The Push Factors**

Push factors which drive people away from their places of origin, include unemployment, crop failures, drought, flooding, war, inadequate educational opportunities, and insufficient services and amenities (Archbishop et al., 2017). The primary push factors prompting migrants to leave their place of origin include inadequate education, healthcare, and transportation infrastructure. The foremost reason for migration was the absence of quality educational institutions and campuses, healthcare facilities, and the challenges associated with transportation. Additionally, poverty significantly contributed to migration among these households, driven by limited employment opportunities and low agricultural productivity (Kamal Adhikari,

2023). Other push factors include low productivity, economic underdevelopment, mechanization of agriculture, and limited alternative income sources in rural areas (Krishna J, 2022; Rosni & Zainol, 2020; Thet, 2014). Undoubtedly, economic inequality within the region serves as the primary impetus for cross-border migration. The persistent and expanding disparities in economic growth, development, and employment opportunities have significantly contributed to the escalation of regional cross-border migration (Mlambo, 2017). Economic migration often results from the desire for better earnings and opportunities, leading individuals to migrate to regions with higher development levels and quality of life (Podra et al., 2020).

#### **1.1.2.2. The Pull Factor**

Pull factors significantly influence migration by encouraging individuals or populations to relocate from their place of origin to specific destinations. These factors promote migration to areas characterized by favorable conditions, particularly economic prosperity. In contrast, areas with adverse economic conditions tend to experience out-migration (Kamal Adhikari, 2023). Pull factors, attract people to new locations due to favourable conditions like better employment opportunities, improved living standards, higher wages, and access to better education and healthcare (Archbishop et al., 2017; Choudhury & Agarwal, 2018; Ezeabasili, 2023). Among the various pull factors, the most significant in attracting a substantial number of migrants from different regions of the country are employment opportunities, educational facilities, business prospects, physical infrastructure, and agricultural productivity (fertile land), (Kamal Adhikari, 2023).

During internal migration, individuals frequently relocate in search of housing or employment opportunities. University-educated people tend to migrate more frequently, confirming that individuals with higher education levels are the most mobile (Sira & Dubravaska, 2015).

The phenomenon of economic migration is influenced by various factors such as urbanization, industrialization, economic disparities, and demographic dynamics. Urbanization and industrialization play a significant role in economic migration by attracting individuals from rural areas in search of employment and economic advancement. This is particularly evident in regions where there is a stark contrast in

economic fortunes between neighboring countries, leading to cross-border economic migration (Chidiogo et al., 2024).

According to Krishna J, (2022) the major push and pull factors which influence migration are:

**Table 1: Push and pull factors**

<b>Push factors of migration</b>	<b>Pull factors of migration</b>
<b>Low wages</b>	Better opportunity to earn higher wages
<b>Unemployment</b>	Better opportunity for employment or occupation
<b>Indebtedness</b>	Better job security
<b>Natural calamities</b>	Opportunity to obtain desired specialization, education, skill, or training
<b>Poverty and malnutrition</b>	Preferable environment, living conditions
<b>Depletion of natural resources</b>	Better food
<b>Social conflict</b>	Better social network
<b>Land Alienation</b>	Dependency movement like migration of the bride to join her husband

Source: Krishna J, (2022)

### **1.1.3. Factors of Migration**

Migration is influenced by several key factors that drive people to relocate, including safety, economic, environmental, social, demographic, and political considerations.

#### **1.1.3.1. Safety Factors**

Individuals migrate due to threats to personal safety, often resulting from persecution or discrimination based on nationality, ethnicity, religion, political beliefs, or social group membership. They seek safer environments that provide them with freedom and security. Such threats can be formal, like war, or informal, such as organized crime (Archbishop et al., 2017).

### **1.1.3.2. Economic Factors**

Economic considerations play a primary role in motivating migration. In developing countries, factors like low agricultural income, unemployment, and underemployment drive people toward developed regions where job opportunities are more abundant. Most studies agree that migrants generally move to secure better economic prospects. This trend includes both permanent and seasonal migration, with people often relocating from poorer to wealthier regions or from rural areas to cities (Agwu et al., 2021; Nagesha B, 2018; Okic Yor, 2021).

### **1.1.3.3. Environmental Factors**

Environmental changes increasingly lead to involuntary displacement. Crop failures can cause both food scarcity and job losses, prompting migration to regions with better employment and climate. Pollution of air, water, and soil creates health risks, pushing people to seek safer living conditions. Natural disasters like hurricanes, tsunamis, and earthquakes also force displacement (Mohammad, 2020; Reznikova & Danilina, 2021).

### **1.1.3.4. Social Factors**

Social factors encompass the desire for improved quality of life. People often migrate to secure better educational and employment opportunities, such as access to higher-quality schools, higher-paying jobs with benefits, and better career prospects. Access to critical medical services is another significant motivator, with individuals traveling for life-saving treatments unavailable in their home regions (Archbishop et al., 2017).

### **1.1.3.5. Demographic Factors**

Demographic factors, such as the differing population growth rates across various regions within a country, significantly influence migration patterns. Higher fertility rates and natural population growth in rural areas often drive migration

towards urban centers. Additionally, marriage serves as another demographic determinant, with women frequently relocating to join their spouses (Thet, 2014).

#### **1.1.3.6. Political Factors**

Political issues, including inadequate governance, lack of security, poor service delivery, and election violence, can either encourage or discourage migration. In many instances, people migrate to escape unsafe political environments. Since 1948, many rural residents have migrated to urban areas due to safety concerns. Political conditions, public attitudes, and individual perspectives can significantly influence migration patterns (Ojakorotu, 2023).

### **1.1.4. Types of Migration**

Migration is a complex phenomenon driven by diverse motivations and circumstances. It is essential to comprehend these distinctions, especially when examining the impacts of migration on land use. Over recent decades, three primary types of international migration have been identified: labor and temporary migrations (including illegal migration), forced migration (refugee movements), and internal migration. Internal migration frequently involves movement from rural to urban areas or, occasionally, counter-urbanization (Bell et al., 2010).

#### **1.1.4.1. Labor Migration**

Labor migration is characterized by the movement of people across borders to find work or respond to recruitment initiatives in a foreign country. Within this category, migrants are generally classified into two types: highly skilled labor and unskilled low-wage labor (Bell et al., 2010; Khamzin et al., 2023).

##### **1.1.4.1.a. Highly Skilled Labor Migration**

This small subset involves individuals with specialized skills, often sought by host countries through targeted incentives. Professionals such as doctors and engineers

are especially valued because their recruitment helps the receiving nation gain human capital without bearing the costs of education or training. However, the emigration of such talent from their home countries, termed "brain drain," can negatively impact those nations by draining vital skills and undermining their development prospects (Bell et al., 2010; Van Riemsdijk & Basford, 2022). While destination countries benefit from the influx of skilled professionals, source countries may experience brain drain, where the emigration of educated individuals hampers local development. Conversely, brain gain can occur when these migrants return home with new skills and experiences (Docquier & Rapoport, 2012). Many countries have introduced policies to attract highly skilled migrants, such as streamlined visa processes, pathways to permanent residency, and incentives for innovation and entrepreneurship (Czaika & Parsons, 2017).

Highly skilled migrants often contribute to significant innovations in science and technology. Their expertise helps advance research and development (R&D) efforts, leading to new products, services, and industries (Kerr & School, 2018). By filling skill shortages and boosting productivity, highly skilled migrants play a crucial role in driving economic growth. They enhance the human capital of the host country, which is essential for sustaining long-term economic development (Peri, 2016). The movement of highly skilled individuals fosters cultural exchange and the dissemination of knowledge. Migrants bring diverse perspectives and experiences that can enhance creativity and problem-solving within organizations (Chiswick & Miller, 2015).

#### **1.1.4.1.b. Unskilled Low-Wage Labor Migration**

Unskilled low-wage labor migration involves individuals with minimal formal education and low levels of specialized skills. These migrants typically work in labour-intensive industries such as agriculture, construction, manufacturing, and domestic services.

Unskilled migrants often take on jobs that are less desirable to native workers, contributing to sectors that are essential for the economy but suffer from labor shortages. Their work supports local economies and helps maintain competitive production costs (Martin, 2013). These migrants are more vulnerable to exploitation, poor working conditions, and limited access to social services. They may face legal

and social barriers that restrict their rights and integration into the host society (Anderson, 2010).

#### **1.1.4.2. Forced Migration**

Forced migration denotes the involuntary or coerced displacement of individuals or groups from their home regions, precipitated by factors such as conflict, persecution, natural disasters, or development initiatives. Unlike voluntary migration, forced migration is marked by the absence of choice for those affected, resulting in substantial humanitarian, social, and economic challenges (IDMC, 2021). This occurs when people are forced to flee their homes due to armed conflicts, wars, or violence. Examples include the Syrian refugee crisis and the displacement caused by conflicts in South Sudan (UNHCR, 2020). Individuals depart from their countries to evade persecution grounded in race, religion, nationality, political opinion, or affiliation with a specific social group. These individuals frequently seek refuge by applying for asylum in other nations (Betts & Collier, 2017).

Natural disasters such as earthquakes, hurricanes, and floods can force people to leave their homes. Climate change is increasingly contributing to such displacements (IDMC, 2021).

#### **1.1.4.3. Internal and International Migration**

Migration can be broadly classified into two main categories: internal and international. Internal migration occurs within a country, often driven by domestic socioeconomic conditions. In contrast, international migration involves crossing national boundaries, often shaped by international socioeconomic and political factors, particularly immigration and emigration policies (Abdoulaye, 2018). The causes, processes, and impacts of these two types are distinct and reflect the varying motivations and challenges migrants face.

Internal migration occurs within a country, often driven by domestic socioeconomic conditions (Abdoulaye, 2018). Refers to the movement of people within the same country or region. This type of migration can be further divided into rural-to-urban, urban-to-rural, and intra-urban migration. Often driven by the search

for better employment opportunities, education, and healthcare. This type of migration is common in developing countries undergoing rapid urbanization. Occurs when individuals seek a lower cost of living, better quality of life, or retire to rural areas. This trend has been observed in some developed countries. Involves movement within the same city, often driven by housing needs, changes in family status, or employment opportunities (Clark & Maas, 2012). Can lead to economic growth in urban areas but may also result in overpopulation, unemployment, and strain on infrastructure and can also cause social dislocation but also cultural exchange and diversity within urban settings (UN DESA., 2018).

International migration involves crossing national boundaries, often shaped by international socioeconomic and political factors, particularly immigration and emigration policies (Abdoulaye, 2018). Motivated by factors such as employment opportunities, better living conditions, education, and family reunification and includes refugees and asylum seekers fleeing conflict, persecution, or natural disasters (UNHCR, 2020). Can contribute to the labour market, economic growth, and demographic changes in destination countries. Remittances sent back home can support the economies of origin countries (World Bank, 2016).

### **1.1.5. Historical Overview of Migration**

Migration is an age-old human practice, with long-distance movement occurring for thousands of years as people sought food, fled enemies, or pursued wealth. Throughout history, migration facilitated the spread of cultures, languages, diseases, and genes. Early migration was primarily limited to Europe, Africa, and Asia but proceeded at a slow pace (Rostetska et al., 2023).

Migration is an expansive and complex field that encompasses a wide array of issues. This phenomenon includes seasonal and temporary migration as well as migration intended for permanent settlement. Additionally, it covers various forms of forced migration, the expulsion of entire ethnic groups, and the deportation of specific individuals. Migration driven by political persecution, civil war, famine, and environmental disasters also falls within this broad category (Rystad, 2014). The emergence of syntactic language around 70,000 years ago facilitated cross-community migration, which became integral to the dispersion and exchange of ideas, languages,

and customs. Over time, additional practices such as network-maintained exchanges and hierarchical social structures emerged. The global spread of humans transformed habitats, climates, and biota, leading to social conflicts and losses. Despite these challenges, migration has reinforced diversity and contributed positively to the evolution of human societies (Micinski, 2021).

Migration has been a fundamental aspect of human behavior since the dawn of history. From the global dispersal of hominids originating in Africa approximately 40,000 years ago to contemporary large-scale population movements, humans have consistently exhibited a propensity for both establishing and relocating their habitats (Gerbeau, 2017).

In what we refer to as "ancient" times, over two thousand years ago, Greek sailors established prosperous commercial colonies along the peripheries of the Mediterranean and Black Seas. Subsequently, Rome successfully integrated these and surrounding territories into a vast empire. In those and preceding eras, land-based migrations significantly influenced the cultures of two major subcontinents: speakers of Indo-European languages dispersed from Central Asia into Iran and northern India, while Bantu-speaking peoples migrated from present-day Nigeria and Cameroon to various parts of Central, Eastern, and Southern Africa. In much earlier epochs, the expansion of *Homo sapiens* from Africa across the Eastern Hemisphere included – most notably, around sixty thousand years ago – maritime voyages that led to the settlement of Australia and New Guinea (Manning, 2012).

During the three centuries following Columbus's voyage, commonly referred to as the "early modern" period, approximately two million European settlers migrated across the Atlantic to establish colonies in the Americas. Concurrently, nearly eight million Africans were forcibly transported to the Americas, predominantly as enslaved individuals. The interactions among these immigrant groups, along with the indigenous Amerindian populations, led to the formation of a novel social structure across the two continents (Manning, 2012).

In the Middle Ages, European feudalism restricted short-distance movement, tying many to the land or urban privileges. Legal barriers, such as England's Statute of Artificers of 1563, further constrained migration until the 18th century. Despite this, long-distance migration expanded as transportation improved, although for centuries it

was mostly limited to adventurers, merchants, and seamen. With the discovery of the New World, opportunities for treasure, trade, and production drew settlers, and intercontinental migration became defined by coercion and contracts (Rostetska et al., 2023).

During the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, advancements in transportation infrastructure coupled with various economic incentives, both favorable and unfavorable, facilitated the migration of approximately fifty million Europeans within their own continent and subsequently to North and South America and other regions. Concurrently, an additional eighty million individuals migrated across East and South Asia, repopulating areas from the Indian Ocean to Manchuria and Central Asia. In this context, the ongoing long-distance migrations of Africans, totaling around four million during this period, seemed relatively minor in comparison (Manning, 2012).

Between 1820 and the onset of the First World War, mass migration experienced a significant surge, with 55 million Europeans emigrating to various parts of the world. Of these migrants, 71% relocated to North America, 21% to South America, and 7% to Australasia. Historically, scholarly attention has predominantly concentrated on the so-called greater Atlantic economy, which, however, represented only approximately one-third to 40 percent of long-distance international migration up to 1940. Notably, another major migration stream involved over 50 million individuals from India and South China, who moved to labor-scarce regions such as Burma, Ceylon, parts of Southeast Asia, the Pacific Islands, and further destinations along the coasts of Africa, South America, and the Caribbean. Moreover, the total number of international migrants nearly tripled between 1965 and 2010 (Ferrie & Hatton, 2013).

The history of the world is replete with significant narratives of migration across various epochs. Over the past fifty years, the migration from rural areas to urban centers worldwide has resulted in an increase in the proportion of city dwellers from one-fifth to over half of the global population. Consequently, human life, which was predominantly rural, has now become predominantly urban (Manning, 2012). with almost 281 million people living outside their birth countries as of mid-2020. Despite this growth, the majority of people remain in their native lands. (see Table 1), (IOM, 2024).

**Table 2: International migrants since 1970**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Number of international migrants</b>	<b>Migrants as a % of the world's population</b>
<b>1970</b>	84 460 125	2.3
<b>1975</b>	90 368 010	2.2
<b>1980</b>	101 983 149	2.3
<b>1985</b>	113 206 691	2.3
<b>1990</b>	152 986 157	2.9
<b>1995</b>	161 289 976	2.8
<b>2000</b>	173 230 585	2.8
<b>2005</b>	191 446 828	2.9
<b>2010</b>	220 983 187	3.2
<b>2015</b>	247 958 644	3.4
<b>2020</b>	280 598 105	3.6

Source: (IOM, 2024).

Globally, the number of male international migrants exceeds that of female migrants, and this disparity has increased over the past two decades. In 2000, the distribution was nearly equal, with males comprising 50.6% and females 49.4% of the migrant population (88 million men and 86 million women, respectively). By 2020, the gender composition had shifted, with males representing 51.9% and females 48.1% (146 million men and 135 million women). This trend indicates a decline in the proportion of female migrants and an increase of over 1 percentage point in the proportion of male migrants (IOM, 2024).

The quest for improved living and working conditions, coupled with increasing inequalities both between and within nations, discrimination and other human rights violations, poverty, environmental degradation, conflict, and violence, as well as labor market demands, continue to drive migration across international borders. It is estimated that migrants in irregular situations constitute 15 to 20 percent of all international migrants, translating to approximately 30 to 40 million individuals globally (Shah & Alkazi, 2023). Over 65 million people are forcibly displaced,

including 22.5 million refugees and 2.8 million asylum seekers. The majority are hosted in the Global South, primarily in regions adjacent to conflict zones. European nations host only 17% of refugees globally (Amadeus, 2017). Various intersecting factors, such as race, ethnicity, gender, and social class, influence the opportunities and outcomes for migrants in their new countries (Morrice et al., 2017).

Historically, migration has evolved through several phases. In the mid-1800s to World War I (1860- 1914), migration within Europe and to other continents was largely unrestricted, leading to significant population movements. During World War I and World War II (1914-1945), migration controls were imposed to support national security, but post-war (1945-1974), a period of relative openness returned due to high labor demand in Western Europe (1974-1980). However, the 1980s marked a fourth phase, characterized by increased refugee migration from the Third World (Studies et al., 2014). The era commencing in the early 1980s, marked predominantly by a notable surge in refugee migration from developing countries (especially from Asia), may be regarded as a potential fifth phase (Rystad, 2014).

Migration has thus been intrinsic to human development, with each phase marked by different motivations and societal impacts. Whether driven by economic opportunities, environmental pressures, or political conflict, the movement of people has shaped global systems and will continue to do so. The nature of migration reflects the innate human drive to explore, adapt, and seek better conditions (Gerbeau, 2017).

### **1.1.6. Theories on Migration**

Migration theories encompass a multilevel model that considers micro-, meso-, and macro-level factors affecting potential migrants' decision-making processes within specific socio-economic and political contexts. The proposed multilevel framework encompasses micro-, meso-, and macro-level factors, positing that environmental changes within a given socio-economic and political context influence the decision-making processes of prospective migrants. Environmental transformations become apparent to local residents through the interaction between macro- and micro-level factors, with meso-level factors serving as intermediaries. Macro-level factors pertain to the broader social, political, and economic context. Meso-level factors encompass discourses on environmental change, existing local and transnational migrant

networks, and the community's ability to manage the impacts of environmental changes on the local population. Micro-level factors include the characteristics of individuals and households. Expanding on Carling's aspirations/ability model, this interaction of factors will be crucial in determining the perceived necessity and desire to change one's environment or place of residence, as well as the availability of resources, networks, and legal frameworks to facilitate such changes. This interplay can also provide deeper insights into the nature of migration journeys undertaken by individuals and offer an understanding of immobile groups. Each level is examined separately in the following sections (Van Praag & Timmerman, 2019).

#### **1.1.6.1. Macro-Level Theories**

Macro-level theories primarily emphasize the structural elements at the national or global level that affect the migration of individuals across borders. These factors function either by attracting individuals to destination countries or by compelling them to leave their countries of origin. Economic factors, such as job opportunities or labor demand in host countries, and political factors, such as conflict and persecution in countries of origin, exemplify these influences by driving individuals to seek safer and more secure environments. Additionally, structural factors encompass environmental elements like natural disasters and hazards, as well as social aspects such as educational opportunities and family connections (Alla-Mensah & Published, 2019). According to Van Praag and Timmerman (2019), Macro-level factors can be categorized into 'natural' and 'social' components. The natural environment, characterized by specific types of environmental changes, provides an initial understanding of the challenges that individuals face within their living environment and their ability to remain there. In contrast, the social environment is shaped by social, political, and economic contexts, which significantly influence a community's capacity to manage the impacts of environmental changes on its inhabitants. Both the natural and social environments play a critical role in shaping migration decisions or alternative adaptation strategies. Nonetheless, these strategies and decisions are also significantly influenced by individual and household characteristics at the micro-level, as well as prevailing discourses and networks at the meso-level (Van Praag & Timmerman, 2019).

### **1.1.6.2. Micro-Level Theories**

Micro-level theories of migration analyze the phenomenon from the perspective of individual actors. These theories attribute the decision to migrate to an individual's rational assessment of perceived benefits and costs. They emphasize the personal characteristics that affect one's capacity to migrate, such as age, education, gender, language proficiency, religion, wealth, and marital status. Additionally, this level of analysis acknowledges instances where migration decisions are compelled on behalf of individuals (LGOS & Foresight, 2011). Individuals' vulnerabilities, adaptation strategies, and decision-making processes in response to environmental changes are influenced by the broad spectrum of opportunities available within their living environment, often shaped at the macro level. Certain groups are disproportionately affected by environmental changes compared to others. Moreover, within specific regions, environmental changes can exacerbate living conditions, heightening the risk of poverty and causing the immobilization of the most vulnerable groups. Decisions at the individual level are frequently considered alongside alternative adaptation strategies, such as utilizing savings, selling livestock, or withdrawing children from school. These strategies might also involve alterations in agricultural practices, such as adopting new production technologies, switching crops, increasing reliance on grains, storing water, or using fertilizers and pesticides. Consequently, individuals may invest more in non-agricultural work. However, these adaptation strategies do not necessarily lead to migration. The issues mentioned at the meso level also influence micro-level factors, as they shape migration aspirations, the "ability to stay," the "ability to migrate," and partially determine the types of human mobility trajectories individuals will follow. In other words, the nature and perception of the effects of environmental changes on people's lives create significant tensions regarding their ability and aspirations to migrate (Van Praag & Timmerman, 2019).

### **1.1.6.3. Meso-Level Theories**

Meso-level theories serve as a bridge between macro and micro migration theories, addressing the gaps in the decision-making process related to migration. These theories emphasize the relational aspects of migration, which include the social

and symbolic connections among migrants and groups, as well as the resources embedded within these relationships. A prominent example of such a resource is social capital, encompassing the networks individuals rely on. These networks and resources are relevant to both the countries of origin and destination. In situations where social ties are lacking, other entities, such as recruitment agencies and smugglers, facilitate the migration process and influence employment outcomes in the host countries. Furthermore, meso-level theories offer insights into the persistence of migration and provide comprehensive views of the enabling circumstances that subsequently affect systemic feedback (Alla-Mensah & Published, 2019). Meso-level factors bridge macro- and micro-level dynamics by focusing on the social networks and institutions that facilitate or deter migration. Transnational networks, migration cultures, and community structures can empower individuals to pursue migration or develop localized solutions to environmental challenges. Moreover, traffickers and recruitment agencies may fill the gap when social networks are lacking. Shared perceptions and local cultures influence migration aspirations and the willingness to invest resources in collective adaptation strategies (De Jesus et al., 2023). Meso-level factors, such as the presence of transnational networks, traffickers, migration cultures, the community's ability to manage environmental change impacts, and remittances, play a significant role in shaping migration aspirations and enhancing migration capacity. Access to local and transnational networks fosters social imaginaries and expectations concerning remittances. These resources can be utilized to address existing issues exacerbated by environmental change, transforming individual aspirations into collective ones. Consequently, migration serves not only as a strategy to diversify family income sources or provide support during environmental crises but also as a means to collectively address the consequences of environmental change, thereby increasing financial resources and political influence. Therefore, incorporating meso-level factors such as networks, local cultures, and strategies for addressing environmental changes, alongside perceptions of these changes, could offer novel insights into a relatively unexplored area of sociological research (Van Praag & Timmerman, 2019).

#### **1.1.6.4. Internal Migration Theory**

Classic internal migration models highlight economic forces as critical factors influencing migration within borders. Individuals generally migrate from low-wage areas to regions with higher incomes and opportunities. Ravenstein's "laws" of migration emphasize short distance moves, with longer journeys typically leading to larger cities. Additionally, preferential patterns emerge based on gender and age, with females and younger individuals more likely to migrate (D. Saracoğlu, 2015; Wright & Ellis, 2016). Migration typically follows a pattern wherein individuals move from regions with low wages and high labor demand to areas with higher income levels and greater opportunities compared to the originating regions. Migration demonstrates a specific directionality, with rural residents migrating more frequently than their urban counterparts. The decision to migrate is influenced by two primary categories of causal factors: push and pull factors. Push factors pertain to the home country or region and include elements such as limited job opportunities, adverse environmental conditions (e.g., famine, natural disasters), inadequate infrastructure, and lack of political or religious freedom. Conversely, pull factors are associated with the potential destination and include enhanced job opportunities, better living conditions, freedom of speech, and improved infrastructure and security. These factors are relevant not only to internal migration but also to international migration (Holobinko, 2012).

#### **1.1.6.5. International Migration Theory**

International migration theories, like Borjas' two-stage model, recognize disparities between source and destination countries and the complex interplay of personal and economic variables. They suggest that migration rates correlate with income levels in destination countries but inversely relate to wages in source countries and the costs of migration itself. Further, workers' skill levels and their transferability between countries significantly influence migration likelihood (Holobinko, 2012). Together, these perspectives provide a comprehensive framework for understanding how global, regional, and local factors interact to shape individual migration decisions.

## **1.2. The Concept of Illegal Migration**

### **1.2.1. Definition of Illegal Migration**

Illegal migration, also known as undocumented or irregular migration, primarily stems from economic motivations. The majority of undocumented migrants seek employment opportunities or higher wages than they could obtain in their home countries. This pursuit of economic benefits serves as a primary driver behind illegal migration (Aleshkovski, 2013).

During the late 20th and early 21st centuries, illegal immigration became increasingly urgent, impacting the living standards of native populations, contributing to rising crime rates, and raising concerns over international terrorism. This led to heightened attention from policymakers, non-governmental organizations, scholars, and international organizations like the UN, IOM, and ILO. The post-9/11 focus on national security, coupled with the "Arab Spring" of 2011, further highlighted the challenges posed by illegal and forced migration to Europe (Aleshkovski, 2013).

Although human migration has been a longstanding phenomenon, illegal migration is relatively recent. The contemporary passport and visa system was established in 1920 through the League of Nations. This system was implemented after an era of relatively unrestricted migration, during which people could move freely across borders, allowing markets to equilibrate globally. However, today, all nations impose qualitative and quantitative restrictions on international migration, limiting the free movement of labor and human capital (Donato & Massey, 2016; Privara & Rievajova, 2021).

The first significant international document addressing illegal migration was ILO Convention No. 143, which was adopted in 1975. This convention defined clandestine migration as any movement that contravenes international or national regulations (Aleshkovski, 2013). The International Organization for Migration (IOM) describes irregular migration as a movement occurring outside regulatory norms, encompassing unauthorized entry, stay, or work. In destination countries, this includes border crossings without authorization or with falsified documents. Similarly, the 2005 "Report of the Global Commission on International Migration" categorizes irregular

migration as involving migrants who violate national laws, are smuggled or trafficked, or circumvent controls via fraudulent means (IOM, 2011; Obikaeze & Iloh, 2023).

Illegal migration is broadly characterized by unauthorized entry, residence, or employment. Some migrants enter without inspection by crossing borders illegally, while others overstay their visas or remain after being denied asylum or protected status. Restrictive policies and imperfect enforcement have made illegal migration widespread, prominently featuring in public discourse (Casarico et al., 2016).

Two primary types of illegal migration exist: illegal emigration and illegal immigration. Migrants often seek refugee status, and those denied may remain as unauthorized immigrants and face deportation. Illegal migration is frequently associated with informal job placement, where migrants initially cross borders legally as tourists or business travelers but then work without proper legal registration. Smuggling and trafficking networks facilitate these movements as profitable but low-risk ventures, comparable to the drug trade in profitability (Aleshkovski, 2013; Lanza & Pasculli, 2012).

### **1.2.2. Reasons for Illegal Migration**

Illegal migration is driven by various factors that compel individuals to leave their countries of origin. Key reasons include dire economic conditions, scarce job opportunities, and political and security instability, coupled with human rights abuse (Darne et al., 2017).

Economic disparities between the source and destination countries often serve as primary motivators. Additionally, political instability, demographic pressures, and environmental challenges such as drought and resource depletion also play significant roles in prompting migration (Bacon & Robin, 2018). The International Organization for Migration (IOM) identifies several "push" factors, including poverty, economic crises, foreign debt burdens, population growth, and urbanization, alongside political upheavals like coups d'état.

In contrast, "pull" factors are equally influential, attracting migrants to specific sectors in neighboring or distant countries with favorable labor market conditions and demand for specific skills (Chappell et al., 2011). Together, these interconnected

forces shape migration flows and contribute to the persistence of illegal migration across borders.

### **1.2.3. Global Struggles Against Illegal Migration**

In the 20th century, governments implemented "guest worker" programs to limit immigrants' status to workers, often through international agreements detailing the number of migrants, duration of their stay, and employment conditions. In the United States, the Bracero Program (1950s-1960s) brought hundreds of thousands of seasonal Mexican workers annually. Similarly, Western European nations negotiated agreements with Southern Europe, the Middle East, and North Africa to bring temporary workers for post-war economic growth. However, when attempts were made to curtail these programs due to economic or political pressures, it became evident that these "workers" were individuals who often sought to settle permanently. For instance, after the U.S. Congress terminated the Bracero Program in 1964, unauthorized migration from Mexico eventually resumed, reaching pre-1964 levels by the late 1970s (Massey et al., 2014).

The rise of undocumented migration created a perception of migrants as "illegal aliens," seen as a threat to society, which led to increased border control and militarization. Despite stricter enforcement along the U.S.-Mexico border after 1986, many migrants opted to stay in the U.S. to offset rising border crossing risks and costs, resulting in a less circular migration pattern (Massey et al., 2014). Similarly, European countries had negotiated labor agreements with various nations to address temporary labor shortages, but when these programs ended, they also experienced increasing undocumented migration, with new flows emerging despite stricter immigration policies and border enforcement. With EU expansion and the Schengen Agreement allowing free cross-border mobility, Europe saw a continent-wide rise in illegal migration (Donato & Massey, 2016). Recent years have seen stricter legislation against illegal immigration and employment, including U.S. laws in 1986, 1990, and 2007, and similar laws in Europe. However, there has also been a trend of regularization programs or amnesties for migrants already in the host countries. Between 1980 and 2010, over 25 amnesties legalized more than 7 million migrants. Although

controversial, regularization can help address the issue of existing illegal immigrants (Aleshkovski, 2013).

The United Nations established the Global Commission on International Migration to provide a comprehensive response to international migration and governance. Their recommendations include combining border control with long-term measures addressing socio-economic drivers of migration, cracking down on human trafficking and smuggling, protecting migrants' human rights, and improving cooperation between destination, origin, and transit countries (Aleshkovski, 2013).

Policies against illegal migration are shaped by various stakeholders, resulting from a balance between demand and supply. Governments enforce stricter border controls, punish employers, and occasionally grant amnesties to regulate existing undocumented migrants. Casarico et al. (2016) argue that the number of illegal immigrants reflects the effectiveness of ex-ante controls and ex-post measures used by countries to manage these flows.

In February 2017, a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) was signed by the Italian Prime Minister Paolo Gentiloni and Fayeza Sarraj, the leader of Libya's Government of National Accord (GNA), representing a crucial milestone (Micallef & Reitano, 2017; Orsini et al., 2022; Pacciardi & Berndtsson, 2022). The primary aim was to train Libyan personnel and authorities to actively engage in addressing illegal maritime immigration. However, the Libyan judiciary initially deemed this agreement ultra vires, as the Government of National Accord (GNA) lacked the constitutional mandate to formalize such an agreement. This ruling was subsequently overturned. Despite this, agreements have been made with the Libyan coast guard, a designation that is frequently considered misleading (Enes Beşer & Elfeitori, 2018). Comparable to the 2008 Treaty of Friendship, Partnership, and Cooperation, which was signed between Muammar Gaddafi and the then Italian Prime Minister, Silvio Berlusconi (Micallef & Reitano, 2017; Orsini et al., 2022; Pacciardi & Berndtsson, 2022).

## **2. CHAPTER : MIGRATION AND ILLEGAL MIGRATION IN LIBYA**

### **2.1. Migration and Illegal Migration in Libya**

Libya's geographic borders span extensive areas contiguous with multiple neighboring countries, with land borders connecting Libya to several adjacent states. However, these borders are often inadequately monitored by the relevant authorities, necessitating substantial resources and collaborative regional and international efforts to strengthen border control and prevent their exploitation in illicit trade and irregular migration. Criminal networks have exploited the challenges of monitoring these expansive borders to engage in smuggling cigarettes, alcohol, drugs, subsidized goods, fuel, and irregular migrants seeking to reach Europe by sea (Friebel et al., 2018; Mancini, 2017).

Libya has long grappled with "economic crime," a phenomenon that has hindered genuine economic progress while fostering numerous societal issues. This problem was exacerbated under Gaddafi's regime and sharply increased after its collapse due to the absence of robust institutions such as regulatory bodies and security agencies capable of effectively curbing this issue (Battal Saleh, 2020; Uknowledge & Zhu, 2021).

Libya, with a population of 7,122,772 (2011), sees 90% of its population concentrated in coastal areas, primarily in cities like Tripoli, Benghazi, Misrata, and Bayda (BSCL, 2022). Despite declining growth rates, the high population growth of past decades has resulted in significant demographic pressures due to the high proportion of young people, influencing public investment in essential sectors. With a landmass of 1,750,000 km<sup>2</sup> and 1,700 km of coastline, Libya has become a key transit point for migrants from Africa heading toward Europe, particularly due to its oil wealth and strategic location (Ajaali, 2014).

As a transit and destination country for migrants and refugees, Libya shares borders with six nations and is often seen as the final stepping stone for those seeking better opportunities in Europe. Libya's 1990s oil-driven economy led to a labor shortage that attracted migrants under an open-door policy, primarily from neighboring Arab states and sub-Saharan Africa (IOM, 2020).

The Central Mediterranean Route from Libya to Italy remains the busiest pathway for irregular migrants and refugees traveling to Europe. Libya's unstable environment has weakened border controls, allowing smuggling networks to thrive. Conflicts and instability have further compelled refugees and migrants to leave Libya for Europe, often via irregular routes from neighboring countries (Darne et al., 2017).

Libya has become a primary destination for many sub-Saharan migrants, with 81% of those interviewed in 2019 identifying Libya as their intended destination upon departure from their home countries, without plans to migrate further to Europe. There has been a significant decline in migrants arriving in Europe via the Central Mediterranean Route, from 119,369 in 2017 to 23,370 in 2018 and just 11,471 in 2019 (Of et al., 2020). Since September 2023, the number of migrants in Libya has been on the rise, reaching the highest level recorded since the Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) began its operations in the country. In the 51st round of data collection conducted by DTM Libya between January and February 2024, a total of 719,064 migrants were identified. Of these migrants, approximately 78% were adult males, 11% were adult females, and 11% were children, with 4% of the children being unaccompanied (DTM, 2024). Coming from neighboring nations like Chad, Egypt, Niger, and Sudan. These individuals are part of significant intra-regional labor migration flows, making Libya a key destination for foreign workers from sub-Saharan Africa and Asia (Of et al., 2020).

The profile of migrants arriving in Libya has changed over the years, with fewer East Africans and more West Africans making the journey. Different motivations drive different groups, including economic opportunities, political persecution, and conflict. However, not all who arrive in Libya plan to travel further, with many intending to remain due to economic prospects, despite instability and exploitation. The routes used within Libya have also evolved. While the northeastern region is avoided due to conflict, migrants from East Africa often enter via Sudan, while those from West and Central Africa frequently travel through Niger. Cities such as Tripoli, Bani Walid, and Sebha serve as key hubs for those seeking opportunities or transit to Europe. Main departure points along the coast include Sabratha, Surman, Garabuli, and Zawiyah (Darne et al., 2017).

The Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) program of the International Organization for Migration (IOM) in Libya has reported a total of 719,064 migrants from 44 distinct nationalities residing in 100 Libyan municipalities, based on data collected during its 51st round between January and February 2024. This number signifies an increase from the previous round's count of 706,369 migrants, marking the highest figure recorded since DTM Libya commenced its data collection. Nevertheless, the current migrant population remains significantly lower than the estimated 2.5 million migrants present before the 2011 conflict. Several factors have contributed to the recent uptick in migrant numbers, including an influx of Sudanese nationals, particularly in Alkufra and other eastern Libyan locations, due to the ongoing conflict in Sudan. Additionally, improved livelihood opportunities in sectors such as construction and agriculture have attracted more Egyptian and Sudanese nationals to certain eastern and southwestern municipalities. From early 2021 to February 2023, the migrant population in Libya was on a steady rise. However, this trend slightly reversed due to a series of factors, including a wave of arrests and collective expulsions beginning in May 2023, increased security at Libya's borders, and the temporary partial closure of Niger's borders following a coup d'état in July. Moreover, the migrant population had decreased in 2020 as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic and its socioeconomic repercussions (IOM, 2024).

Emphasizing the impact of geographical proximity and diasporic connections, nearly 78% of migrants in Libya are nationals from neighboring countries. The largest groups are from Niger (25%), Egypt (22%), Sudan (19%), and Chad (11%), with a smaller proportion from Tunisia (1%).

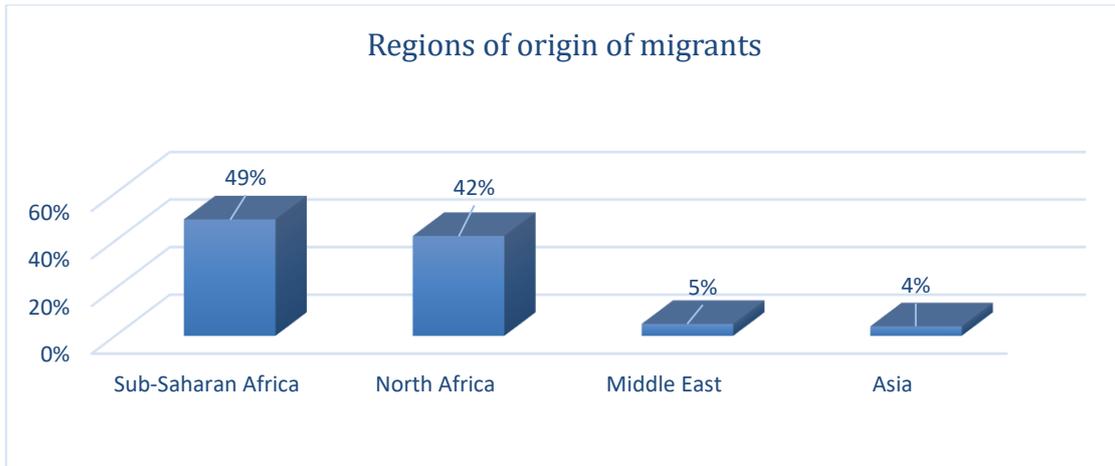
**Table 3:** Proportion of migrants by nationality

<b>Nationality</b>	<b>Number of migrants</b>	<b>% migrants</b>
<b>Niger</b>	183,334	25%
<b>Egypt</b>	160,281	22%
<b>Sudan</b>	136,455	19%
<b>Chad</b>	80,461	11%
<b>Nigeria</b>	30,964	4%

<b>Syrian Arab Republic</b>	26,176	4%
<b>Bangladesh</b>	21,481	3%
<b>Mali</b>	14,081	2%
<b>Ghana</b>	13,280	2%
<b>Pakistan</b>	7,067	1%
<b>Palestine</b>	6,616	1%
<b>Other</b>	5,931	1%
<b>Tunisia</b>	5,639	1%
<b>Burkina Faso</b>	4,138	1%
<b>South Sudan</b>	3,695	1%
<b>Senegal</b>	3,209	0.4%
<b>Eritrea</b>	2,990	0.4%
<b>Mauritania</b>	2,444	0.3%
<b>Côte d'Ivoire</b>	2,232	2,232
<b>Morocco</b>	1,957	0.3%
<b>Morocco</b>	1,957	0.3%
<b>Unknown</b>	1,480	0.2%
<b>Guinea</b>	1,312	0.2%
<b>Cameroon</b>	1,041	1,041
<b>Algeria</b>	1,036	0.1%
<b>Total</b>	719,064	100%

Source: Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) 2024.

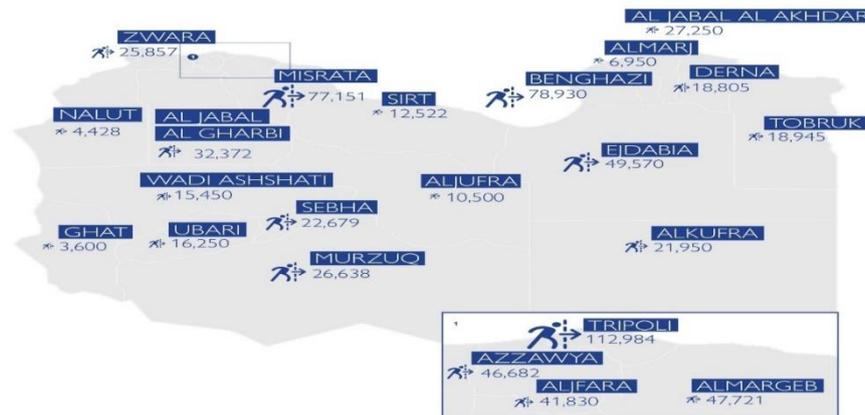
During round 51 of data collection (January-February 2024) by DTM Libya, the majority of migrants identified originated from sub-Saharan Africa (49%) and North Africa (42%), while a smaller proportion were from the Middle East (5%) or Asia (4%).



**Figure 1:** Regions of origin of migrants by displacement tracking matrix (dtm) 2024

According to the Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM), the largest migrant populations were identified in the coastal regions, specifically in Tripoli (16%), Benghazi (11%), Misrata (11%), Ejdabia (7%), Almageb (7%), and Azzawya (6%). The Libyan coastal area hosts the majority of urban settlements and agricultural land, whereas the remainder of the country, exceeding 95% of the total area, is predominantly desert or arid regions (DTM, 2024).

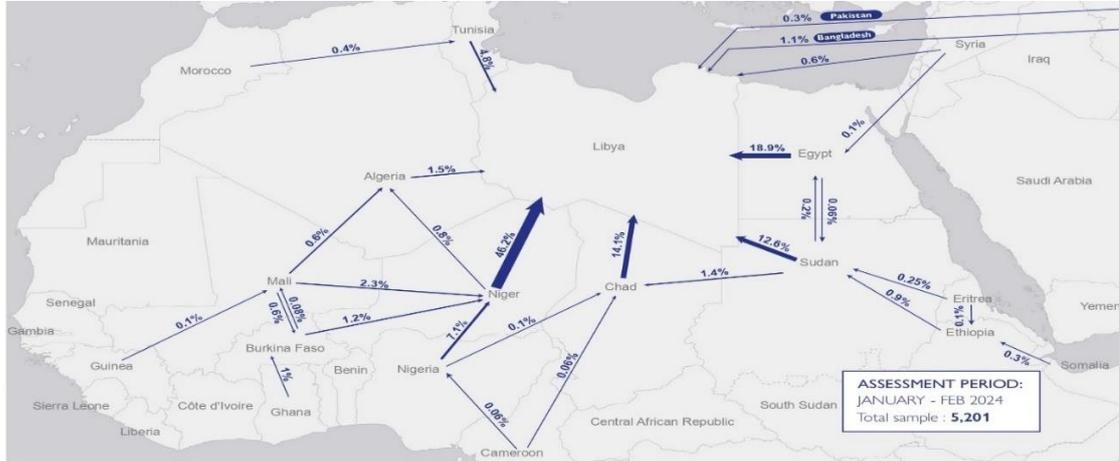
“



**Figure 2:** Number of migrants per region (mantika) during dtm round 51 of data collection by displacement tracking matrix (dtm) 2024

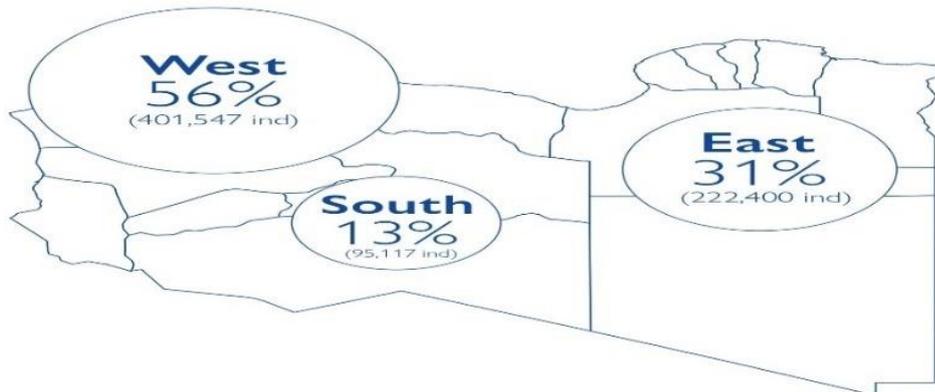
The principal migration routes employed by migrants from diverse countries of origin to reach Libya were as follows: In January and February 2024, 46% of these migrants transited through or originated from Niger, 19% from Egypt, 13% from

Sudan, and 14% from Chad. A smaller proportion of migrants transited through or came from Tunisia (5%), Algeria (1%), or a combination of other countries (2%).



**Figure 3:** Major migration routes by displacement tracking matrix (dtm) 2024

According to key informant interviews conducted by the Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) Libya in January and February 2024, a majority of migrants (56%) were located in the western region of the country. In contrast, smaller proportions were found in the eastern (31%) and southern (13%) regions (DTM, 2024).

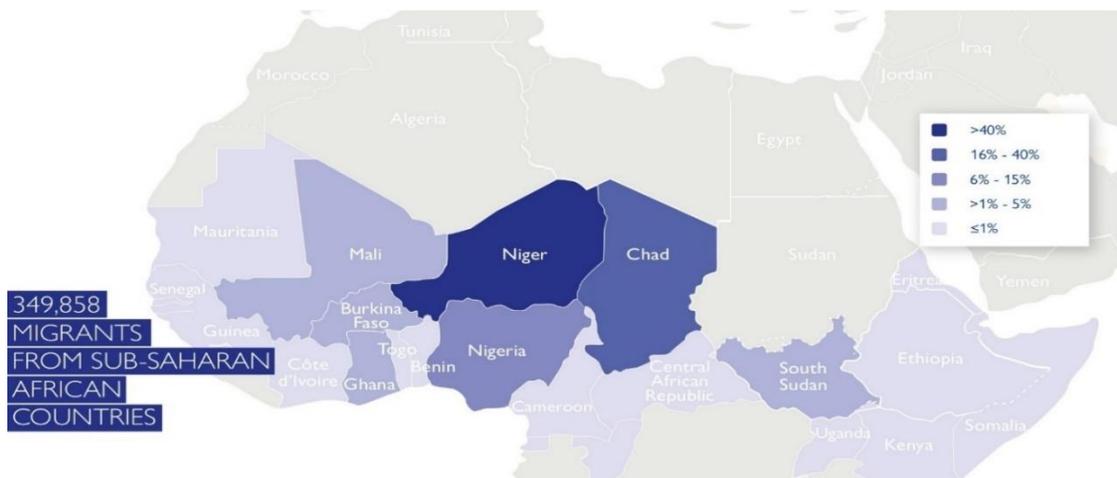


**Figure 4:** Migrants in Libya by region by displacement tracking matrix (dtm) 2024

### 2.1.1. Sub-Saharan Africa

The population of migrants from sub-Saharan Africa, totaling 349,858 individuals, has shown relative stability in comparison to the preceding data collection round, which reported 350,394 individuals (round 50). This figure is marginally higher than the number of sub-Saharan African migrants recorded by the Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) Libya during the same reporting period in 2023, which identified 343,538 individuals (round 46, January - February 2023).

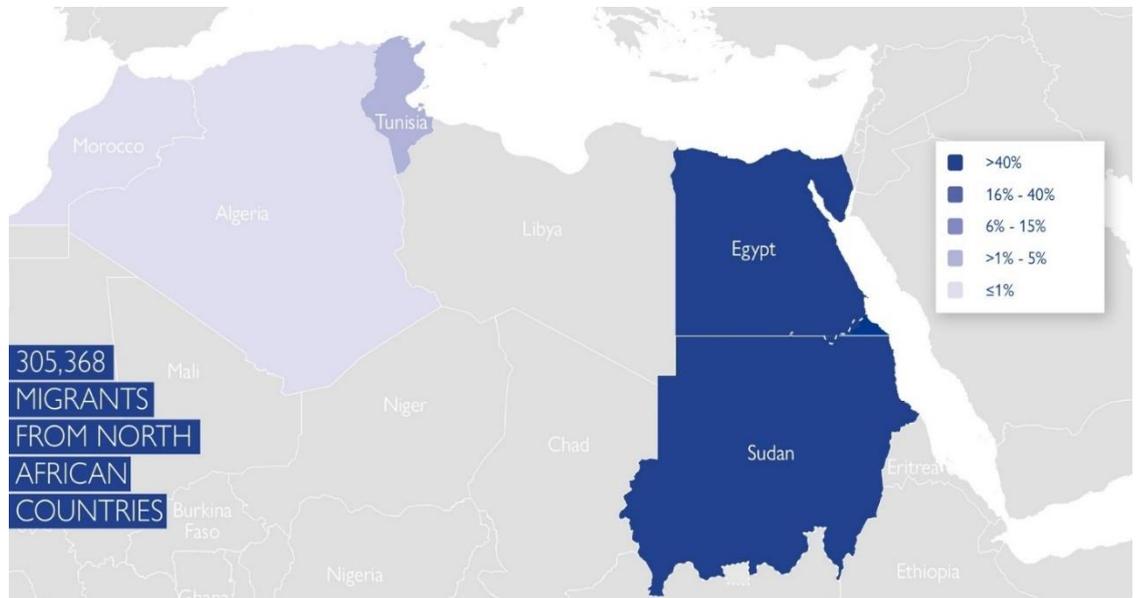
In January 2024, DTM Niger observed an increase in the incoming flows of migrants traveling from Niger to Libya, primarily in search of better economic opportunities. This slight increase in incoming flows may also be linked to the general improvement in road security within Niger. DTM Niger noted that since the repeal of law 2015-3614, which previously criminalized migrant smuggling in Niger, migrants are traveling by organized convoys through new routes. The 2015 law, coupled with an increase in controls in western Libya, had previously led to a decrease in the number of migrants reaching Libya via Niger and an increase in the number of migrants reaching Libya via Chad. Additionally, the weather conditions during the winter months are generally more conducive to migrants being able to travel through the desert.



**Figure 5:** Percentages of migrants by country of origin for the sub-saharan africa region by displacement tracking matrix (dtm) 2024

### 2.1.2. North Africa

The number of migrants from North African countries has shown an increase when compared to the previous data collection period, rising from 292,657 individuals in December 2023 to 305,368 individuals in February 2024. In April 2023, conflicts broke out in multiple cities across Sudan, leading to the internal displacement of over six million individuals and prompting over one million more to seek refuge in neighboring countries, including a minority who fled to Libya. According to the most recent Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) data, Sudanese migrants now constitute 18 percent of the total migrant population in Libya, making them the third most represented nationality in the country. These migrants arrive directly from Sudan to Alkufra, an oasis town in southeastern Libya, as well as indirectly through Egypt and, to a lesser extent, through Chad. Migrants originating from Egypt and Sudan remain the predominant nationalities among those hailing from North Africa, representing 52% and 45%, respectively. Collectively, migrants from Tunisia, Morocco, and Algeria comprise 3% of the total migrant population from North Africa. Overall, approximately 42 percent of migrants in Libya originate from North Africa.



**Figure 6:** Percentages of migrants by country of origin for the north african region by displacement tracking matrix (dtm) 2024.

### 2.1.1. Middle East and South Asia

Approximately one in ten migrants was identified as being from the Middle East (5% or 33,332 individuals) or Asia (4% or 29,026 individuals). The majority of migrants from these regions were from the Syrian Arab Republic (26,176 individuals) and Bangladesh (21,481 individuals), representing 42 percent and 34 percent of migrants (including refugees) from Asia and the Middle East, respectively. Migrants from the Syrian Arab Republic and Bangladesh constituted four percent and three percent of the overall migrant population in Libya, ranking as the sixth and seventh most-represented nationalities, respectively.

Furthermore, the migrant population included 6,616 individuals who self-identified as Palestinians, constituting 11% of the total migrants from the Middle East and Asia in Libya. Similarly, there were 7,067 migrants from Pakistan, also representing 11%. In addition, 1,018 individuals of various other nationalities comprised two percent of the migrant population from the Middle East and Asia.



**Figure 7:** Percentages of migrants by country of origin for the middle east and south asia by displacement tracking matrix (dtm)2024

Libya's strategic location, extensive borders, and reliance on foreign labor have historically made it a transit and destination country for those fleeing conflict and persecution or seeking relief from poverty and human rights abuses. The 2011 uprising and subsequent armed conflict, which ended Muammar Gaddafi's 40-year rule, created fertile ground for illicit activities such as human trafficking. Armed groups have since

controlled vast territories and key infrastructure, complicating the work of the justice system, which is unable to address human rights abuses effectively. This, coupled with economic decline and currency devaluation, has driven many long-term migrants and refugees in Libya to seek better lives in Europe. Estimates suggest that 700,000 to one million foreign nationals live in Libya, predominantly from sub-Saharan and North African countries, with the largest groups originating from Niger, Chad, Egypt, Sudan, Ghana, and Nigeria (Pascale, 2019).

In 2017, 119,310 migrants and refugees used the Central Mediterranean Sea route from Libya to Italy, resulting in at least 2,832 deaths. In 2018, the numbers decreased to 20,859 arriving in Italy and 234 in Malta, with more than 1,200 dying at sea by August 2018. Despite the decline in arrivals, the journey has become increasingly perilous, with one in 18 travelers dying at sea in 2018, up from one in 43 in 2017. Throughout 2017, the Libyan Coast Guard (LCG) intercepted or rescued 15,810 migrants and refugees, while between January and September 2018, it intercepted or rescued 13,575. These consecutive annual decreases in arrivals reflect efforts by the European Union and member states to shift search and rescue operations to the LCG, limiting humanitarian rescue vessels' work and reducing the number of departures attempts from Libya (Hoffmann Pham & Komiyama, 2024; Nation, 2018; Santer, 2019).

During the period spanning January to February 2024, Italy and Malta recorded the arrival of 4,626 migrants originating from Libya and Tunisia via the Central Mediterranean Sea. This figure represents a significant reduction compared to the same timeframe in 2023, during which 14,429 migrants made the same journey, reflecting a 68% decline. Of those arriving in Italy via the Central Mediterranean route in 2024, a substantial proportion (72%) had embarked from Libya, whereas a smaller segment (28%) had departed from Tunisia. According to DTM Europe, in 2023, the majority of migrants who arrived in Italy reported having departed from Tunisia (62%), with fewer having departed from Libya (33%), Türkiye (5%), or Algeria, Lebanon, or Cyprus (less than 1%). Tunisia surpassed Libya as the primary country of departure for migrants traveling on the Central Mediterranean route to Italy in the third quarter of 2023. Fewer migrants arrived in Italy and Malta via the Central Mediterranean Sea during the reporting period (January-February 2024) than during the corresponding period in all previous years since DTM Europe began collecting data (2016), except in

2020 (3,542 individuals) and in 2019 (311 individuals), when record-low arrivals were observed (DTM, 2024).



**Figure 8:** Arrivals by sea via the central mediterranean route in january and february 2024 (dtm) 2024

## 2.2. Impact of Illegal Migration in Southern Libya

The sovereign state of Libya is composed of three historical regions: Tripolitania, Fezzan, and Cyrenaica. Spanning an area of approximately 1.65 million square kilometers, Libya ranks as the fourth largest country in Africa and the 16th largest worldwide. It possesses the 10th largest proven oil reserves globally. The capital and largest city, Tripoli, is situated in western Libya (Tripolitania) and has a population exceeding (1,293,016) representing (18.66%) of the population of Libya. The second-largest city, Benghazi, located in eastern Libya (Cyrenaica), has a population of around 800,000 (BSCL, 2022; Jarad et al., 2022). While southern Libya (Fezzan) characterized by vast deserts with few cultivated valleys and small oases. The region is abundant in natural resources, producing around 400,000 barrels of oil daily, accounting for a quarter of Libya's total production. Artisanal gold mining, largely unregulated since 2014, has also emerged. The population of Fezzan, approximately 500,000, is ethnically diverse and politically fragmented, comprising Arab tribes, non-Arab minorities (Tebu and Tuareg), and local communities. Competition over smuggling routes, historical grievances regarding citizenship rights, and access to arms

have exacerbated tensions. The administrative capital of Fezzan is Sebha, with a population of 200,000 (Malakooti, 2019; Sanchez, 2020).

The southern Libyan cities have played significant political, economic, and social roles in Libya's relations with neighboring countries. These cities have been crucial in building and developing these relations, particularly in the context of life patterns in the Saharan regions during various historical phases. The Saharan cities flourished after the Islamic conquests of Africa, following the ancient caravan routes and enhancing their economic importance. These cities facilitated the establishment of economic relations, especially the exchange of goods between North and South Africa, via Mediterranean ports to Europe.

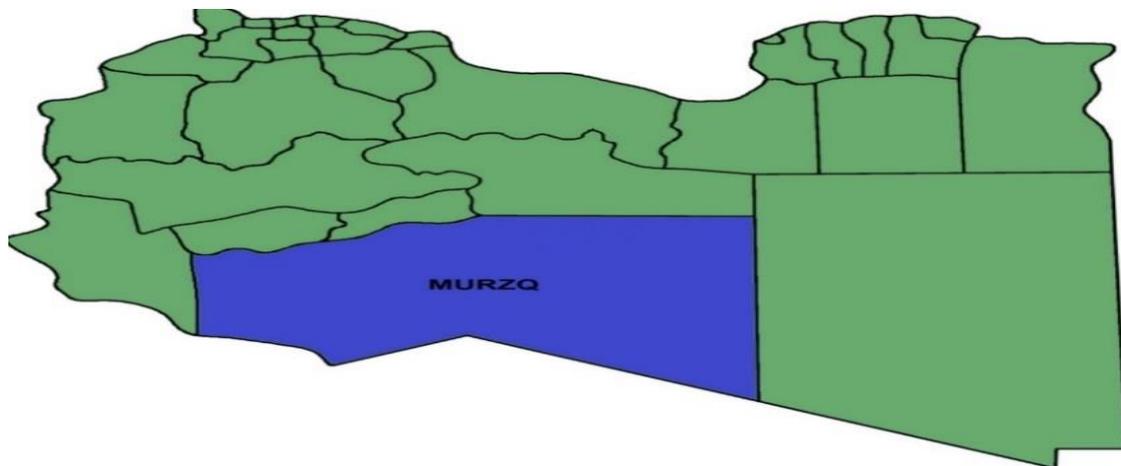
Libya has been historically, politically, and demographically tied to Africa, often described metaphorically as "the gateway to Africa." It is thus important to elucidate the geographic role of southern Libyan cities in the context of illegal migration. These cities serve as key transit and settlement areas for migrants, and they play a pivotal role in the movement of migrants northward to Europe.

### **2.2.1. Murzuq**

The city of Murzuq, one of the oldest cities in southern Libya, had approximately 79,000 inhabitants in 2010, including Murzuq and neighboring towns such as Al-Qatrun, Umm al-Rabnab, Zuweila, Wadi Ataba, and Tarragan. The historic Murzuq Castle, built in 1310, stands as a testament to the city's long history. From its establishment, Murzuq served as the capital of the ancient state of Fezzan and functioned as an administrative, commercial, economic, and political center. The city's significance is rooted in its strategic location as an oasis in the middle of desert caravan routes. Fezzan acted as a transit hub, facilitating trade between Tripolitania, Egypt, Bornu, other southern countries, and Central Africa.

During the Ottoman era, Murzuq was the principal city in its region and the capital of Fezzan, serving as a central point for caravan trade across the Sahara Desert and as the main gateway to Bornu and Central Africa. It played a crucial role in connecting the northern region to Kano, Nigeria. However, in the late nineteenth century, Murzuq's importance declined due to the collapse of the caravan trade. Under

Italian occupation, Murzuq's economy became dependent on traditional and small handicraft industries. Following the discovery of oil, many residents abandoned agriculture and migrated to northern urban centers. According to the 1954 population census, about 25% of Fezzan's population was engaged in agriculture, a figure that dropped to only 1.5% by the 1984 census. Consequently, the central trade role shifted to the city of Sabha, which then became the capital of southern Libya. Murzuq, located on the southern Libyan borders adjacent to Algeria, Niger, and Chad, encompasses an area of approximately 349,790 square kilometers, making it the second-largest region in Libya (Jarad et al., 2022).



**Figure 9:** Murzuq municipality (source : jarad et al., 2022)

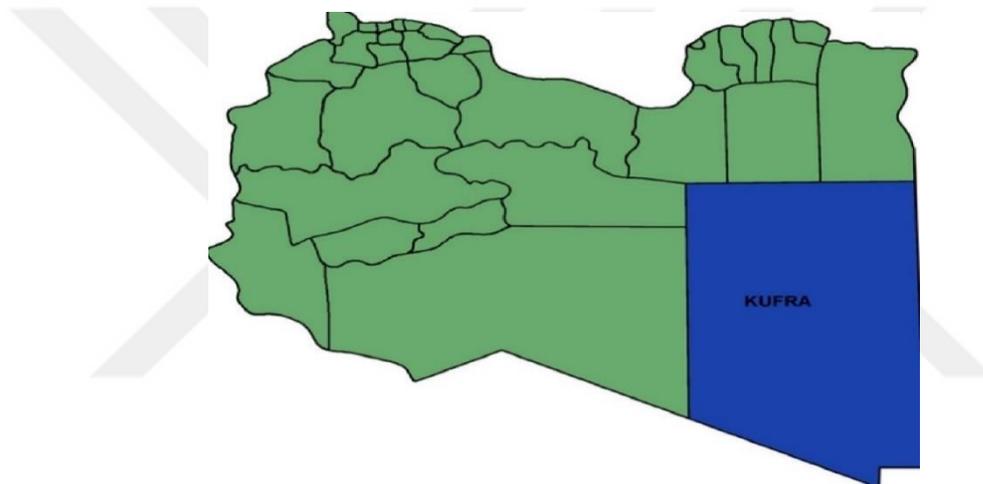
### **2.2.2. Al-Kufra**

Al-Kufra is strategically located on the Libyan borders with three countries: Chad to the south, Sudan to the southeast, and Egypt to the east. Historically, this region served as a crucial crossroads for caravan trade routes between the north and south, facilitating commerce from Libyan cities and oases to neighboring countries.

The current population of the city of Al-Kufra is approximately 62,000 inhabitants. The economic activities of its residents are predominantly concentrated in the agricultural sector. Key agricultural products include palm and mango cultivation, supported by fertile land suitable for a wide variety of vegetables. Significant agricultural projects in the area include the Kufra Productive Project and two projects focused on the cultivation of palm and olive—one situated west of Al-Kufra and the

other in the northern Hawari region. Additionally, there are projects dedicated to growing mangoes and desert apples, as well as livestock projects involving sheep and cows. Al-Kufra also plays an important role in trade with Sudan and Chad.

The Kufra basin comprises a cluster of oases—Al-Kufra, Al-Jowf, Al-Hawari, Al-Huwairi, Talab, Tulaibil, Bawma, and Buimah—located in the southeast of the Libyan desert, approximately 1,000 km south of Benghazi. Geographically, it spans from 18.7 to 24.7 degrees east in longitude and 19.8 to 28 degrees north in latitude. Covering an area of 483,510 square kilometers, the Kufra basin accounts for about 27% of Libya's total area (Jarad et al., 2022).



**Figure 10:** Al-Kufra municipality (source : jarad et al., 2022)

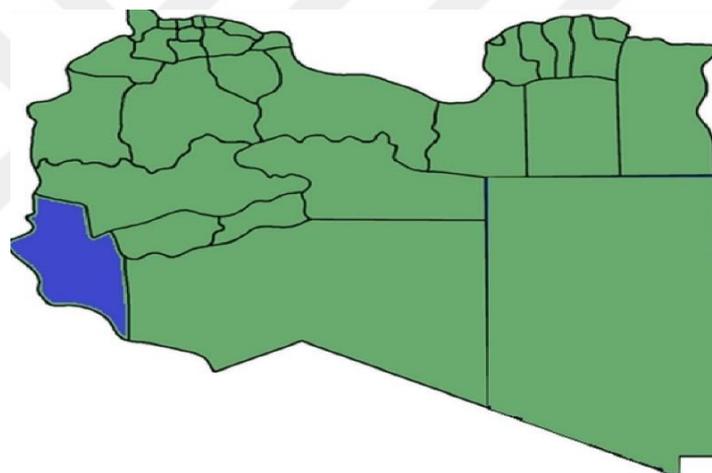
### 2.2.3. Ghat

Ghat, a city located in the southern part of Libya within the Western Libyan Desert, lies along the Algerian-Libyan border to the southwest. It is situated approximately 585 km from Murzuq, 600 km from Sabha, 1,360 km from Tripoli, 580 km from Ghadames, and 80 km from the Algerian oasis of Gantt. Ghat spans an area of 72,700 square kilometers.

Historically, Ghat has held significant economic importance as a hub for commercial caravan routes due to its strategic geographical position. It has served as a crucial link and major trading center for desert economic relations. Ghat's winter and summer markets have been key destinations for caravan trade across North Africa,

particularly from Sudan, making it a well-known collection and distribution market throughout the year. The most notable market in the region is Darfur Al Fasher.

In addition to its economic role, Ghat is gaining prominence as a major tourist destination, especially for the discovery of rock inscriptions in the Akakus and Tassili mountains. The Akakus region features diverse landscapes and unique geological phenomena, including colorful sandy winds, rock arches, massive stones, and valleys. Significant sites in the area include the arches "Avazajar" and "Ten Khaljah." In recognition of the importance of the paintings and sculptures found in these locations, some dating back 21,000 years, UNESCO designated these sites as World Heritage Sites in 1985. This heritage reflects the region's cultural and natural evolution (Jarad et al., 2022).



**Figure 11:** Location of Ghat (source: jarad et al., 2022)

The cities in the southern region of Libya have played a significant role throughout the country's history. These cities have served as the main gateways connecting the northern and southern regions and have been crucial trade centers linking the continent with Europe via Mediterranean ports. Historically, these cities facilitated relations between different regions of the continent, which continued to influence interactions among the current states post-independence, shaped by colonial divisions.

The southern Libyan cities of Ghat, Al-Kufra, and Murzuq gained importance through the rise and fall of various kingdoms and empires, maintaining political dominance over surrounding regions. For decades, these cities have also been centers of migration and smuggling. The movement of migrants increased notably due to weak border control, leading to the formation of numerous smuggling militias with diverse origins and interests. These militias have significantly contributed to the rise of illegal immigration flows to Libya and onward to Europe.

Migration has been a critical factor in contemporary Libya for decades, particularly when the former regime allowed unrestricted entry for Africans. This influx of migrants has profoundly impacted the country economically, politically, and in terms of security. According to the IOM, 2011, migrants from Sub-Saharan Africa constitute 56% of the total migrant population in Libya. In the main southern cities, the number of migrants increased to approximately 92,146 in 2020 (IOM, 2020).

The region bordered by Chad, Sudan, and Libya is a key route for migrants from the African Horn, passing through Darfur. Similarly, migrants from the Sahel region enter Libya via Qartoon, Um-Alaranib, and Ubari in the far southwest, where they often work for months to save money for the journey to Europe. Residents of southern Libya assert that they have been marginalized by the central government in Tripoli. This perceived marginalization has contributed to substantial trafficking and smuggling activities along the southern borders (Jarad et al., 2022).

The stabilization of Fezzan is crucial, not just to control irregular migration, but to address deeper governance, economic, and security issues that require sustained investments. In the interim, Libyan authorities and European governments could take immediate steps to foster positive tribal relations and improve living conditions in southern Libya, which could gradually reduce incentives for human smuggling. For instance, international donors could collaborate with Libya's recognized government to rehabilitate the region's neglected agricultural projects. Oil companies operating in the Fezzan, in coordination with Libya's National Oil Corporation (NOC), should also assume their responsibilities by increasing local employment opportunities and investing more in social development projects (Al-Arabi, 2018).

The Fezzan has become a critical focus for policymakers seeking to limit migrant flows to Europe. In 2016, over 160,000 migrants and refugees, predominantly

from sub-Saharan Africa, left Libya for Italy. Most cross the southern border, using local smuggling networks to reach the Mediterranean coast before setting sail on makeshift boats to Europe. European authorities, unable to effectively stop these boats on the Mediterranean Sea, are now shifting to direct engagement in the Fezzan through economic investments and security partnerships with local forces (Gasto, 2022).

Despite being rich in natural resources like oil, gas, gold, and water, Fezzan's economy is now heavily reliant on smuggling. This dramatic shift happened after 2011, with a local university lecturer even stating, "Here, smuggling is a way of life, not a crime." Libya's economic struggles, marked by cash shortages, high inflation, and a black market for currency, have pushed many, including public sector employees who make up a large part of the workforce, towards illicit activities. The smuggling of people, fuel, and gold is prevalent and openly visible, while other goods like drugs and weapons are also trafficked through the region, albeit more discreetly (Gallien, 2020; Rema, 2019). Trafficking networks yield annual revenues between \$1 billion and \$1.5 billion. Young men, drawn by high profits and low entry barriers, often abandon education to join the trade as drivers or independent operators. Given the lack of alternative economic opportunities, smuggling is unlikely to wane without major interventions (Idemudia & Boehnke, 2020).

Restoring agricultural production is vital, as high import prices for produce could make farming profitable. However, opinions vary regarding the best model: state-owned farms or privatization. Privately owned farms have thrived, less affected by pillaging due to active local protection. Others favor large-scale, industrial agriculture to reduce inefficiencies. In any case, Libyan authorities and development agencies must prioritize investments, feasibility studies, and enhanced security to revive this sector.

The Fezzan's oil fields hold the potential to produce over 400,000 barrels per day, alongside vast reserves of natural gas primarily exported to Italy via the Green Stream pipeline. However, intermittent armed group blockades and armed guards seeking local development projects have disrupted production. Despite restarting, oil companies have struggled to engage local communities or employ local workers, flying in their workforce from northern Libya. To address local resentment and bolster

stability, oil companies and the NOC must invest more in local employment and social development projects (Crisis Group, 2017).

### **2.3. Smugglers of Migrants**

The illicit smuggling of migrants across international borders through land, sea, and air routes continues to challenge migration governance, undermining efforts for safe and orderly migration. Migrant smugglers have entrenched themselves as pivotal actors in irregular migration journeys, generating substantial profits for criminal networks while limiting states' ability to manage their borders. Due to the clandestine nature of smuggling, the activity is often only noticed during tragic incidents or emergency humanitarian interventions, as recently intensified in Libya (IOM, 2014).

While there is no universally accepted definition of migrant smuggling, the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea, and Air, part of the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, offers an internationally recognized legal definition. According to this protocol, migrant smuggling is defined as "the procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State Party of which the person is not a national or permanent resident." The English Oxford Dictionary further elaborates on the concept of smuggling by defining it as "the act of conveying someone or something somewhere secretly and illicitly." A better understanding of how migrant smuggling interacts with local socioeconomic dynamics has emerged, highlighting issues like demographic growth, unemployment among poorly educated young men, and cross-border ethnic connections. For instance, in Southern Africa, Latin America, and Eurasia, economic and cultural ties play a crucial role in facilitating smuggling (IOM, 2014).

In Libya, the southern region is pivotal for migrant smuggling, serving as the primary entry point for sub-Saharan African migrants heading toward the Mediterranean. However, controlling smuggling in this region remains challenging due to ongoing political struggles involving local tribes and non-Arab minorities, alongside unresolved citizenship and nationality issues. Thus, policies to curb smuggling in southern Libya must engage all competing groups to maintain the local balance of

power. Although security measures will be necessary, relying on armed groups to manage migration flows could exacerbate instability.

Furthermore, smugglers reinvest their profits locally, providing an alternative to the failing banking system and scarce public services. An effective policy should disconnect smugglers from local communities by incentivizing legitimate trade and fostering economic development, thereby reducing reliance on illicit networks (Al-Arabi, 2018).

Almost all migrants and refugees traveling irregularly to Libya rely on smugglers or criminal networks, except some seasonal workers from Sudan, Niger, and Chad. Smuggling networks range from hierarchical, transnational organizations to loosely connected, horizontal networks. These networks continue to evolve and professionalize, with different groups organizing land and sea crossings. Armed groups, whose profiles vary regionally, dominate the trade.

Smuggling costs fluctuate based on nationality, economic status, services required, and specific smuggling networks. Recently, prices have risen due to Libya's security deterioration, the growing number of intermediaries, and the country's inflation and currency crises (Darne et al., 2017).

The trafficking of migrants became increasingly profitable, particularly in southern Libya, where smugglers viewed migrants and refugees as commodities for detention, exploitation, and extortion. A 2017 Chatham House report estimated the trafficking industry's revenue at approximately \$978 million in 2016, about 3.4% of Libya's 2015 GDP. The rapid growth of the industry from 2012 to 2016 was facilitated by the expanded use of the hawala system, which became more prevalent after the formal banking system weakened following the Gaddafi regime's fall. This untraceable money transfer system made it extremely difficult to track financial transactions, enabling smugglers to operate with impunity (ECCR, 2021).

## **2.4. Investment and Job Opportunities**

### **2.4.1. Investment**

Investing is characterized as a deliberate endeavor where capital is strategically allocated into enterprises and funds that yield social and/or environmental advantages,

while also providing a spectrum of financial returns for the investor, ranging from the preservation of principal to returns exceeding market rates (Ngoasong, 2015).

The United Nations was founded to mitigate conflicts and avert a global war, while the World Bank was established to support economic development. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) ensures international liquidity, and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) was designed to reduce barriers to international commerce. Successive rounds of GATT negotiations progressively dismantled trade and investment barriers, culminating in the formation of the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 1995. The contemporary wave of globalization advanced at a slow pace initially, as the economies of Europe and Japan were reconstructed post-war. However, the acceleration began post-1970 with the onset of the digital revolution, which fostered a new knowledge-based economy. China's transition towards a market economy in 1979 and the dissolution of the Soviet Union in 1991 contributed to the development of a genuinely global economy by the dawn of the new century. Contrary to the first phase of globalization, the current era is distinguished by an intrinsic contradiction (Donato & Massey, 2016).

Prominent sectors that appeal to investment encompass sustainable energy, water resources, sanitation, waste management, agriculture, nutrition, pharmaceutical and healthcare services, education, and affordable housing. Investors frame social impacts through lenses such as access to finance and capital, the availability of affordable and high-quality essential goods and services, enhancements in rural livelihoods, job creation, and environmental conservation. Numerous inclusive enterprises receive funding from various impact funds, some of which are explicitly identified as impact investors, while others are not (Ngoasong, 2015).

Investing seeks to generate sustainable social and environmental benefits for investee enterprises and their communities while also achieving sufficient financial returns. This approach, recognized as an emerging market investment strategy, entails collaborations between development finance institutions, philanthropic foundations, and mainstream private venture capital. Together, they establish impact funds designed to foster inclusive market-driven enterprise development in low-income countries (Ngoasong, 2015; Park, 2018).

Mobilizing private investment, both foreign and domestic, is essential for development to ensure that no countries are left behind. However, the benefits of investment are not realized automatically; policies play a critical role. The main challenge lies in designing investment policies that support and enhance economic development. The OECD Investment Committee collaborates with non-member economies to create policy environments that fully leverage the benefits of investment for economic growth, poverty reduction, and sustainable development. The OECD Initiative on Investment for Development, launched in Johannesburg in 2003, encompasses three interconnected projects: developing and implementing a Policy Framework for Investment, enhancing policy capacity through OECD peer learning methods, and using official development assistance more effectively to support partner countries' efforts to attract private investment. This Annual Report documents how the Initiative strengthens implementation capacities and best practices among governments, structured around three dimensions: global events, regional initiatives, and dialogues with individual countries (Clegg & Mudambi, 2015).

Businesses and governments worldwide, spanning the US, Europe, China, and Brazil, increasingly perceive Africa as a promising investment hub and a vital source of natural resources. African leaders and development institutions, such as the World Bank, underscore the potential advantages of heightened investment, particularly from the private sector, for regional development. Nevertheless, an uptick in investment alone does not necessarily ensure positive developmental outcomes. In many instances, it has worsened poverty and inequality and led to human rights violations, including forced evictions. Without robust mechanisms to guarantee that African citizens have a voice in shaping and implementing development initiatives, historical failures are likely to repeat. As global attention turns towards Africa, there is a distinct opportunity for African civil society to advocate for a new development model that is just, equitable, sustainable, and rooted in human rights. Development finance institutions (DFIs) and export credit agencies (ECAs) are increasingly facilitating greater investment in Africa, creating leverage points for African civil society organizations to influence this new wave of development. Investment initiatives in Africa primarily highlight the private sector's involvement as a critical component of development. The private sector is progressively acknowledged not only as a significant source of financial resources but also as a primary driver of development. Consequently,

development finance institutions and bilateral aid agencies are adjusting their strategies to support private-sector transactions and implement pro-business regulatory reforms. Since 2008, the 'Doing Business' initiative has prompted over 600 regulatory reforms in Africa, coinciding with a surge in large-scale infrastructure projects in mining, energy, transport, water, and communications (CHRD, 2017).

However, the necessity for infrastructure investments does not inherently lead to positive development outcomes unless these investments prioritize poverty reduction and sustainability. For example, much of the energy infrastructure boom in Africa supports the mining and extractive industries rather than addressing consumer demand. When development is predominantly led by the private sector, critical priorities such as equity and the provision of services to rural or impoverished areas frequently face neglect. The Health in Africa initiative by the International Finance Corporation highlights this concern, as its investments were mainly directed towards high-end urban hospitals and clinics, which are less likely to cater to low-income populations. Research indicates a lack of substantial evidence that investments by Development Finance Institutions (DFIs) in the private sector effectively alleviate poverty (Institutions & Agencies, 2017).

Libya possesses a substantial wealth of natural resources, including oil, gas, iron, and cement, as well as diverse animal and marine resources. The nation's mineral assets comprise iron, gypsum, limestone, cement rock, salt, building stone, sulfur, clay, dolomite, nitrogen, marble, and soda ash. These resources not only satisfy domestic needs but also bolster export activities. The abundance of these resources significantly contributes to Libya's economic development, fostering a conducive business environment that stands to gain from increased Foreign Direct Investment (FDI). Beyond its natural endowments, Libya's rich cultural heritage—featuring ancient relics, historic cities, deserts, beaches, seas, and mountains—enhances its appeal as a tourism destination, offering lucrative investment prospects in the tourism sector. The Libyan government actively encourages foreign enterprises to tap into these resources for the local economy's benefit, supported by legal provisions such as Article No. 3 in Law Nos. 5 and 9, which are designed to promote FDI (Abushhewa & Zarook, 2016; Badi et al., 2023).

To encourage foreign investment, numerous laws have been enacted. Specifically, Law No. 5 of 1997, along with its executive regulation amended by Law No. 7 of 2003, and Law No. 9 of 2010, govern the non-oil sectors. Conversely, the oil sector is primarily regulated by Law No. 25 of 1955. These laws offer various incentives and protections to foreign investors, including exemptions from taxes and tariffs for all investment projects, though certain taxes, such as income tax, remain applicable. Moreover, these laws safeguard investor rights, provide guarantees against nationalization, and promise immediate and fair compensation for investors. To enhance administrative efficiency, the Libyan government has established specific bodies to oversee foreign direct investment (FDI) projects. For example, Article No. 5 of FDI Law No. 5 of 1997 requires the creation of a dedicated body to manage FDI in non-oil sectors (Abushhewa & Zarook, 2016; Badi et al., 2023). Foreign trade significantly contributes to economic growth by enhancing the production capacity of national economies and facilitating access to international markets for their products. This, in turn, increases income levels and enhances welfare, particularly for Libya, a developing country heavily reliant on the production and export of a single commodity—oil. Oil serves as Libya's sole source of income. The social role of exports and foreign trade in the Libyan economy is evident and undoubtedly exerts substantial effects on various sectors and economic activities (Balqis Romulia, 2023).

#### **2.4.2. Job Opportunities**

Libya's economic infrastructure has undergone substantial degradation as a result of the civil war, leading to heightened economic uncertainty. Prior to the onset of the conflict, the country was already grappling with significant difficulties in ensuring the provision of adequate employment opportunities (Dakhil, 2013; Mostafa Elakouri, 2018; Yahia & Saleh, 2008). The transition from a planned economy to a free market has intensified these issues, resulting in elevated unemployment rates, especially among youth and university graduates (ESCWA, 2020). Although the country possesses substantial oil reserves—the largest in Africa and among the most extensive in the world—the economy's heavy dependence on oil production provides limited opportunities for employment growth due to the industry's capital-intensive nature (Dakhil, 2013; Mostafa Elakouri, 2018; Yahia & Saleh, 2008).

The construction industry, endowed with substantial growth potential, is positioned to attract investments in public infrastructure initiatives as well as in mechanical and electrical equipment. This sector presents numerous employment opportunities for skilled labor (Dakhil, 2013; Mostafa Elakouri, 2018; Yahia & Saleh, 2008).

The petrochemical industry, which includes the extraction, processing, and production of oil by-products, is projected to encounter the depletion of oil reserves around Benghazi by 2040-2050. In contrast, other regions in the southwest possess oil and gas reserves anticipated to endure for at least a century. Moreover, Libya's extensive land resources and abundant sunlight render renewable energy, particularly solar energy, a promising sector, with the potential to generate sufficient energy to satisfy European demands. The extensive coastline further bolsters the maritime sector and its associated industries, such as shipbuilding, ship storage, and transportation services, thus positioning Libya as a strategic trade hub between Europe and Africa.

The country's vast expanses of vacant land, minimal air traffic, abundant oil resources, and favorable weather conditions for over 85% of the year establish it as an ideal location for aircraft maintenance bases and an air traffic hub for flights between Europe and Africa. While the agriculture and food processing sector holds promise, it is constrained by limited water resources. Nevertheless, there is potential for the development of animal husbandry and dairy products, and the southern regions, with access to water and agricultural irrigation, produce high-quality products such as watermelon, fig, and peach at relatively low costs. Additionally, tourism offers significant potential due to Libya's rich historical heritage and opportunities for desert tourism, including numerous springs and lakes with unique environmental characteristics (ETF, 2014).

The imbalance between public and private sector employment, corruption, and low productivity exacerbates Libya's employment issues (ETF, 2014). Opportunities exist in sectors such as construction, agriculture, and renewable energy for job creation and economic growth. A significant challenge is the mismatch between the skills offered by the labor force and those required by the private sector (Efhialelbum, 2014). Addressing these issues requires government initiatives supporting job creation and reforms to bridge the skills gap. By implementing targeted policies tailored to specific

sectors' needs, such as construction or renewable energy, Libya can overcome these obstacles and ensure inclusive workforce development (UNDP, 2021).

Unemployment has steadily increased over the last twenty years, with the rate for the 15-24 age group reaching 47.8%, one of the highest globally (REACH Initiative, 2022). Foreign nationals significantly participate in low-skilled fields in Libya's labor force. To address these challenges, support for the private sector is essential, focusing on key sectors like agriculture, construction, automobile, and care services (ILO, 2023). Comprehensive policy interventions are necessary to promote inclusive economic growth, sustainable enterprises, and ensure quality employment opportunities for all demographic groups, including migrants and refugees who contribute significantly to various sectors in Libya (UNDP, 2021).

To address the issue of irregular migration, a global approach has been embraced, which integrates combating irregular immigration with security measures and initiating comprehensive dialogues with third countries to tackle the root causes of migration. This long-term solution stems from development aid policy, premised on the belief that providing assistance to sending countries will encourage potential migrants to remain in their home nations. By fostering livelihood opportunities, the EU's development policy, focused on eradicating poverty and achieving the Millennium Development Goals, including promoting economic growth, job creation, good governance, and human rights, aims to address the fundamental causes of migration. The implementation of these development policies is viewed as a logical step: if the European Union supports the development of these countries—economically, socially, politically, and environmentally—their populations will no longer be motivated to migrate. Consequently, the incentive for irregular migration to Europe will be eliminated (Bacon & Robin, 2018).

### **3. CHAPTER : FINDINGS ILLEGAL IMMIGRATION IN LIBYA**

To gather data and derive findings on illegal immigration in Libya, semi-structured interviews were conducted with a cohort of notable individuals from both the country and southern Libya. This diverse group included ministers, government officials, university professors, civil activists, and representatives from various regional sectors to obtain varied perspectives on the issue. The research employs a qualitative methodology, relying on in-depth interviews conducted with the consent of the participants. These interviews were audio-recorded, with some also documented through written notes. After transcribing the interview audio recordings, description and content analysis techniques were employed, involving 17 different questions posed to 16 participants.

A descriptive analysis of the collected data was carried out to identify patterns and trends within the proposed model. The goal of this analysis is to organize and interpret the data in a way that aligns with the specified research questions, using content analysis to deepen the understanding of the explored topics. Each participant's responses were recorded under a designated code (P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, P8, P9, P10, P11, P12, P13, P14, P15, P16). According to the order of their participation in the interview:

P1: A Minister in the Government

P2: A Minister in the Government

P3: A Minister in the Government

P4: A Minister in the Government

P5: A Representative in the Counter Illegal Immigration Agency

P6: A Representative in the Police Directorate and the Crime Prevention

P7: A Representative of the Sultan Niger, Chad, and Libya

P8: A Representative of the High National Elections Commission

P9: A Representative in the Municipality

P10: A Representative of the Youth Sector in the Municipality

P11: A Representative of the Berjuj Agricultural Project

P12: A Representative of the Local Council for Youth in Municipality

P13: A Representative of the Non-Governmental Organization

P14: A Representative of the Faculty Member at the University

P15: A Representative of the Civil Society Commission

P16: An Activist in the Non-Governmental Organization

### **3.1. Findings Related to the Question: "What are the Economic and Social Effects of Illegal Immigration on Southern Libya?"**

Consensus views on the economic and social impacts of illegal immigration on southern Libya suggest a dual perspective. Economically, participants 1, 4, 7, 8, 13, and 16 highlight the potential contributions of immigrants to the local economy through their engagement in the labor market and commercial activities. On the other hand, the majority of participants 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 14, and 15 indicate that it has negative effects on the local economy, such as reduced productivity, increased unemployment rates, rising prices, and exploitation by human traffickers. Socially, most participants, except 4, 8, and 16 believe that the increase in the number of illegal immigrants in the area leads to increased social tensions due to competition for resources and jobs. Participants 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, and 15 express concerns about the association of immigration with criminal activities like drug trafficking and prostitution, as well as the infiltration of terrorists and security threats. Participants 10 and 14 also mention that immigration places pressure on local resources and infrastructure, affecting the quality of public services such as health and education. These impacts underscore that illegal immigration poses significant challenges requiring effective management to balance potential benefits against the complex issues that may arise, particularly in regions like southern Libya where the turbulent political and economic situation can exacerbate these challenges (see the Table 4).

**Table 4:** Economic and social effects of illegal immigration on Southern Libya

Participants	Effects of illegal immigration			
	Economic Effects (Positive)	Economic Effects (Negative)	Social Effects (Negative)	Additional concerns highlight the strain on
P1	✓			
P2		✓	✓	
P3		✓	✓	
P4	✓			
P5		✓	✓	
P6		✓	✓	
P7	✓	✓	✓	
P8	✓		✓	
P9		✓	✓	
P10		✓	✓	✓
P11		✓		
P12		✓	✓	
P13	✓		✓	
P14		✓	✓	✓
P15		✓	✓	
P16	✓			

### 3.2. Findings Related to the Question: "What are the Current Policies and Strategies in Place to Address Illegal Immigration in Southern Libya? How Effective are They?"

Analyses derived from participant views reveal a significant variance in assessing the policies and strategies addressing illegal immigration in southern Libya. A majority of participants, including individuals 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 15, emphasized that current strategies primarily focus on security aspects such as border surveillance, patrols, the establishment of border checkpoints to prevent unauthorized crossings, combating smuggling networks, and security cooperation with neighboring countries. However, some participants noted that these measures have not

achieved the desired success in curbing the phenomenon of illegal immigration. On the other hand, participants 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, and 14 criticized the current approach for lacking comprehensive and multi-dimensional strategies that address the root causes of migration such as poverty, unemployment, and persecution. They stressed that most efforts concentrate on narrow security measures without addressing the fundamental factors driving people to migrate. Participants 4, 7, 15, and 16 also highlighted that the lack of political stability, the presence of two conflicting governments, and armed militias pose obstacles to implementing any effective strategies. Southern Libya also faces a shortage of governmental support and security infrastructure. Participants 10 and 12 added that there is an urgent need for a comprehensive approach that includes enhancing economic and social development and providing legal migration pathways, alongside enhancing community participation and support programs for the most vulnerable populations. Participant 13 pointed out that the measures taken are limited to imposing fines or specific prison terms. From these views, it is clear that current strategies, which tend to focus on security aspects, are insufficient and require reassessment and reformulation to become more comprehensive and effective (see the Table 5).

**Table 5:** Current immigration policies and strategies in place to address illegal immigration in Southern Libya

Participants	Current Immigration Policies			
	Focus on Security	Criticism of Security-Centric Approach	Comprehensive Approach Needed	Obstacles to Implementation
P1	✓			
P2	✓	✓		
P3	✓			
P4		✓		✓
P5	✓			
P6	✓	✓		
P7		✓		✓
P8	✓	✓		

P9	✓		
P10	✓		✓
P11	✓		
P12	✓		✓
P13	✓	✓	
P14		✓	
P15	✓		✓
P16			✓

### **3.3. Findings Related to the Question: "What are Potential Solutions that Could be Implemented to Address Illegal Immigration in Southern Libya?"**

Responses collected from participants about strategies to address irregular immigration in southern Libya showcase a wide spectrum of suggestions and recommendations, reflecting a diversity of opinions and overlaps. The majority of participants 2, 3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16 emphasize the need to focus on local development in border areas to reduce the need for migration, and providing job opportunities and support for youth, who constitute a significant proportion of smugglers, by providing alternative job opportunities. Conversely, participants 3, 10, 11, 12, 15, and 16 view the fortification of borders as a fundamental element in controlling irregular migration. Participants 3, 4, 7, and 8 point to the significant challenges arising from Libya's unstable security and political situation, noting that the absence of a central government complicates the process of dealing with irregular migration. Participants 1, 2, 3, 5, 10 and 12 highlight the importance of regional and international partnerships in effectively combating this phenomenon and the necessity of cooperating with countries of origin to understand the root causes and facilitate the documentation process for migrants. Finally, participants 2, 6, and 12 suggest establishing vocational training centers, healthcare and providing scholarships to improve the educational and professional situations of youth, in addition to systematically opening and inspecting border crossings in collaboration with relevant authorities. These analyses reflect the intellectual diversity and interplay of ideas on

how to address the issue of irregular migration comprehensively and sustainably in southern Libya (see the Table 6).

**Table 6:** Potential solutions could be implemented to address illegal immigration in Southern Libya

Participants	Potential Solutions				
	Focus on Development	Regional and International Cooperation	Strengthening Border Management	Investing in People	Improving Governance and Security
P1		✓			✓
P2	✓	✓		✓	
P3	✓	✓	✓		✓
P4					✓
P5	✓	✓			
P6	✓			✓	
P7					✓
P8					✓
P9	✓				
P10	✓	✓	✓		
P11			✓		
P12	✓	✓	✓	✓	
P13	✓				
P14	✓				
P15	✓		✓		
P16	✓		✓		

### **3.4. Findings Related to the Question: "How Can Regional and International Cooperation be Enhanced to Address the Root Causes of Illegal Immigration and Improve the Overall Situation in Southern Libya?"**

Participants 2, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, and 15 emphasize the utmost need for cooperation with countries of origin and transit to understand and address the root causes of the migration phenomenon. Their focus revolves around the necessity of enhancing economic development and providing job opportunities as fundamental mechanisms to reduce migration. Participants 1, 3, 6, 7, 10, and 14 see the importance of cooperating with destination countries, such as European Union states, to support local development projects and stimulate job opportunities and economic development, especially in southern Libya. Conversely, participants 6, 9, 11, 12, 13, and 15 stress the importance of enhancing security and combating human smuggling networks, considering that regional and international security cooperation contributes to enhancing Libya's ability to control its borders and reduce smuggling. Participants 4, 6, 8, and 15 draw attention to political divisions and institutional weaknesses as obstacles to effective cooperation, affirming that political stability and unifying governmental efforts are essential pillars for improving conditions. Participant 16 specifically highlights the importance of improving infrastructure and establishing free trade zones to reduce reliance on human smuggling and boost economic growth. Finally, all participants believe that regional organizations such as the African Union and international organizations like the United Nations can play a vital role in facilitating cooperation and providing the necessary support to overcome the challenges of migration. These shared ideas reflect the convergence of views on the importance of regional and international cooperation and providing integrated solutions that encompass economic, security, and political aspects to tackle the issue of illegal immigration in southern Libya (see the Table 7).

**Table 7:** Regional and international cooperation be enhanced to address the root causes of illegal immigration

Regional and International Cooperation					
Participants	Addressing Root Causes	Strengthening Cooperation with Destination Countries	Enhancing security and combating human smuggling networks	Political Stability	Improve infrastructure and establish free trade
P1		✓			
P2	✓				
P3		✓			
P4				✓	
P5	✓				
P6	✓	✓	✓	✓	
P7		✓			
P8				✓	
P9	✓		✓		
P10	✓	✓			
P11			✓		
P12	✓		✓		
P13	✓		✓		
P14	✓	✓			
P15	✓		✓	✓	
P16					✓

### 3.5. Findings Related to the Question: "How Do Organized Crime Networks Benefit from Involvement in Migrant Smuggling?"

Participants in the analysis unanimously affirm that organized crime networks derive extensive benefits from their involvement in migrant smuggling. Responses indicate several mechanisms through which these networks accrue substantial profits. Participants 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 15, and 16 note that these networks particularly thrive in areas with weak state presence and security apparatus, exploiting

difficult economic conditions and unemployment among youth to recruit them into these criminal activities. On the other hand, according to participants 1, 3, 6, 9, 10, and 12, these networks generate enormous profits by imposing high fees on migrants wishing to cross borders illegally, exploiting their desperation and urgent need to migrate, where migrants are sometimes forced to pay exorbitant amounts of work under harsh conditions. Participants 3, 5, 7, and 12 add that these networks engage not only in human smuggling but also extend their activities to include drug and weapons trafficking and other illegal goods, facilitating the enhancement of their criminal trajectory and increasing their profits. Participants 6, 7, and 8 point out that bribery and corruption play a crucial role in facilitating human smuggling, as networks bribe various officials to ensure the continuity of their operations. Participants 1, 10, 12, 13, and 14 note that the use of threats and intimidation against migrants or their families sometimes serves as a means to ensure their compliance with payments, highlighting the extreme exploitation of migrants' vulnerabilities. Combating these criminal activities requires joint and coordinated efforts at local, regional, and international levels, including enhancing border security, combating corruption, and improving economic conditions in affected areas to reduce reliance on organized crime networks (see the Table 8).

**Table 8:** Organized crime networks benefit from involvement in migrant smuggling

Participants	Organized Crime Networks Benefit				
	Imposing high fees	Exploiting difficult economic and security conditions and unemployment	Drug and weapons trafficking	Bribes to officials	Exploitation of migrants' vulnerabilities
P1	✓				✓
P2		✓			
P3	✓		✓		
P4		✓			
P5		✓	✓		
P6	✓	✓		✓	
P7		✓	✓	✓	

P8		✓		✓
P9	✓	✓		
P10	✓	✓		✓
P11		✓		
P12	✓		✓	✓
P13		✓		✓
P14				✓
P15		✓		
P16		✓		

### 3.6. Findings Related to the Question: "What Factors Do You Think Increase Migrant Smuggling?"

The majority of participants 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 13, 14, 15, and 16 agree that unemployment and lack of job opportunities are key factors that exacerbate the phenomenon of migrant smuggling, as individuals seek any possible means to secure income, including engaging in activities such as migrant smuggling. Conversely, participants 3, 5, 7, 10, 11, 12, and 14 view political instability and conflicts in source and transit countries as significantly contributing to increased illegal migration and migrant smuggling, as these disturbances destabilize lives and push individuals to seek new opportunities elsewhere. Additionally, participants 1, 5, 8, 9, 10, 13, and 15 note that lack of coordination among concerned countries and inefficiency in combating human smuggling create a favorable environment for smugglers to exploit porous borders and unprotected passages. Finally, participants 3, 9, and 10 believe that criminal networks exploit economic, social, and security gaps to expand their activities in human smuggling, benefiting from the increasing demand for cheap labor and penetrable borders. These multifaceted factors highlight the complexities associated with migrant smuggling and necessitate comprehensive and multi-level responses including economic development, improved governance, enhanced security, and provision of legal migration opportunities (see the Table 9).

**Table 9:** Factors increasing migrant smuggling

Participants	Factors Increasing Migrant Smuggling		
	Economic Factors	Political Factors	Security Factors
P1			✓
P2	✓		
P3	✓	✓	
P4	✓		
P5	✓	✓	✓
P6	✓		
P7	✓	✓	
P8			✓
P9	✓		✓
P10	✓	✓	✓
P11		✓	
P12		✓	
P13	✓		✓
P14	✓	✓	
P15	✓		✓
P16	✓		

**3.7. Findings Related to the Question: "Do You Think Stricter Border Control Measures are an Effective Way to Combat Smuggling? Why or Why Not?"**

Analysis of participants' opinions reveals significant differences regarding the effectiveness of tightening border control measures in reducing smuggling. Participants 3 through 16 (excluding 1, 11, and 15) believe that increasing security measures may exacerbate other problems, such as migrants using more dangerous routes and increased incidents of bribery and corruption at checkpoints. These participants emphasize that solutions should address the root causes of illegal

migration and smuggling, such as poverty, unemployment, and conflicts. Conversely, participants 1, 11, and 15 consider enhancing border surveillance to be an effective tool for deterring smugglers and reducing illegal migration. On the other hand, participants 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 12 and 16 advocate for strategies that include enhancing cooperation with local communities and tribes in border areas and improving infrastructure and economic conditions in transit areas to ensure long-term stability. The collected opinions show that enhancing border surveillance can be beneficial as part of a comprehensive solution, but it is insufficient on its own without addressing the underlying causes and improving regional and local cooperation (see the Table 10).

**Table 10: Stricter border control measures**

Participants	Border Control		
	Increased Border Security Exacerbates Problems	Enhanced Border Surveillance is Effective	Comprehensive Approach with Local Cooperation
P1		✓	
P2	✓		✓
P3	✓		✓
P4	✓		✓
P5	✓		✓
P6	✓		✓
P7	✓		✓
P8	✓		
P9	✓		
P10	✓		
P11		✓	
P12	✓		✓
P13	✓		
P14	✓		
P15		✓	
P16	✓		✓

### 3.8. Findings Related to the Question: "What Role Do You Think Government Policies Play in Addressing the Issue of Migrant Smuggling?"

Participants presented diverse views on the role of government policies in addressing the issue of migrant smuggling. A group consisting of participants 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16 highlighted the vital importance of improving economic and social conditions in areas prone to migration as a crucial part of the proposed solutions. They emphasized the need to provide job opportunities and promote sustainable development to reduce reliance on migration or involvement in smuggling activities. On the other hand, participants 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 9, 10, 12, and 15 emphasized the need to enhance coordination among various ministries and government agencies at both local and international levels, suggesting that strengthening regional and international cooperation could contribute to establishing effective systems for combating smuggling. Participants 2, 3, 6, 10, 12, 13, and 14 considered criminalizing smuggling activities and establishing clear policies with strict enforcement measures as fundamental steps to reduce this phenomenon. They pointed out the crucial importance of effectively enforcing the law as a tool to ensure a reduction in the numbers of smuggled migrants. All participants agreed that the impact of government policies is complex and multidimensional, encompassing regulation, deterrence, and development, affirming that successfully addressing the smuggling issue requires a comprehensive approach that combines these elements (see the Table 11).

**Table 11:** Government policies on migrant smuggling

Participants	Government Policies on Migrant Smuggling		
	Improving economic and social conditions	Focus on Inter-governmental Cooperation	Focus on Law Enforcement
P1		✓	
P2		✓	✓
P3		✓	✓

P4	✓		
P5	✓		
P6		✓	✓
P7	✓		
P8	✓	✓	
P9	✓	✓	
P10		✓	✓
P11	✓		
P12	✓	✓	✓
P13	✓		✓
P14	✓		✓
P15	✓	✓	
P16	✓		

### **3.9. Findings Related to the Question "Can you provide examples of initiatives or approaches that have been effective in combating migrant smuggling?"**

Many participants demonstrated a lack of familiarity with successful anti-smuggling initiatives, or they perceived an absence of comprehensive and effective efforts in this field. For example, the agreement between Libya and Italy was highlighted as an attempt to address this issue, although its implementation was not comprehensive, according to participants 5 and 8. On the other hand, participants 9 and 11 referred to initiatives involving increased salaries for border guards and the employment of former smugglers in border forces, which contributed to enhanced control over smuggling activities. The use of drones for border surveillance was also noted. Participant 10 emphasized that some initiatives focus on economic growth and providing opportunities for employment and education as a strategy to address the root causes of migration and smuggling. Participant 15 added that the security collaboration between Libya and Tunisia is an example of effective cooperation. Despite these examples, the general context reflects that combating migrant smuggling remains a

challenging endeavor and that current efforts may need to be strengthened and improved to enhance their effectiveness (see the Table 12).

**Table 12:** Initiatives or approaches effective in combating migrant smuggling

Participants	Initiatives Or Approaches Effective in Combating Migrant Smuggling		
	Absence of Initiatives and Approaches	Agreements Or Securities Or Collaboration	Strengthening Border Control
P1	✓		
P2	✓		
P3	✓		
P4	✓		
P5		✓	
P6	✓		
P7	✓		
P8		✓	
P9			✓
P10	✓		
P11	✓		✓
P12	✓		
P13	✓		
P14	✓		
P15		✓	
P16	✓		

### **3.10. Findings Related to the Question "How can international cooperation assist in addressing the challenges posed by smugglers in migration?"**

Participants presented diverse views regarding the role of international cooperation in tackling the challenges imposed by human smugglers in the context of

migration. Participants 1, 3, 9, 10, 12, and 13 emphasized the necessity of exchanging information and intelligence among countries to understand and track the networks involved in human smuggling, noting that such cooperation could enhance the implementation of legal measures and the efficiency of border control. Conversely, participants 2, 6, 8, and 16 highlighted the significant importance of financial support and directing resources towards areas experiencing high migration flows to reduce illegal migration, calling for a reassessment of how aid is distributed to ensure it benefits the most needy areas. Participants 3, 11, and 14 considered that international cooperation could contribute to building the capacities of countries affected by human smuggling by providing training and the necessary resources to improve border management and enhance security. Participants 4, 6, 9, and 16 emphasized the importance of improving the economic and social conditions in the countries of origin as part of a long-term strategy to confront illegal migration, providing job opportunities and supporting sustainable development in the source countries could reduce the need for migration in search of a better life. International cooperation emerges as a crucial element in combating migrant smuggling, as it enhances the joint efforts of countries through improved coordination, information exchange, and investment in development to address the root causes of migration (see the Table 13).

**Table 13:** International cooperation and migrant smuggling challenges

Participants	International Cooperation and Migrant Smuggling Challenges			
	Information Sharing and Network Disruption	Financial Support and Resource Allocation	Capacity Building	Sustainable Development and Job Opportunities
P1	✓			
P2		✓		
P3	✓		✓	
P4				✓
P5				
P6		✓		✓
P7				

P8		✓	
P9	✓		✓
P10	✓		
P11			✓
P12	✓		
P13	✓		
P14			✓
P15			
P16		✓	✓

### **3.11. Findings Related to the Question "Are there any specific legislative or legal measures that you believe should be implemented to deter and punish those involved in migrant smuggling?"**

Evaluating the responses provided, there are several key recommendations and concerns related to the activation of legislative and legal measures to curb migrant smuggling. Participants 2, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, and 16 focused on the need to address the root causes of illegal migration, such as poverty, unemployment, and instability in the countries of origin, pointing out that penalties alone are not sufficient to solve the problem but must also include improvements in the economic and social conditions of those countries. Participants 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 10, and 15 emphasized the importance of imposing stringent penalties against smugglers as a means to deter this phenomenon, stressing the need for the effective application of severe penalties such as long-term imprisonment and high fines to ensure they are deterrent. Participants 3, 4, 5, and 14 discussed the need to improve security infrastructure at borders and combat corruption as part of the legal efforts to prevent migrant smuggling, emphasizing the importance of transparency and accountability in ensuring effective law enforcement. Participants 1 and 3 stressed the importance of international cooperation in information sharing and conducting joint operations to track and pursue smugglers across international borders. Meanwhile, participants 4 and 14 alerted to the problem of the ineffectiveness of current laws and the weakness of government bodies and institutions in monitoring and implementing existing policies. Most participants agreed on the necessity of

implementing strict legislative and legal measures to combat migrant smuggling, emphasizing the need for these measures to be effectively implemented and to address the underlying motives for migration comprehensively (see the Table 14).

**Table 14:** Legislative or legal measures to deter and punish those involved in migrant smuggling

Participants	Legislative or Legal Measures			
	Addressing Root Causes	Stringent Penalties for Smugglers	Law Enforcement and Border Security	International Cooperation
P1		✓		
P2	✓	✓		
P3		✓	✓	
P4			✓	✓
P5			✓	
P6		✓		
P7				
P8	✓			
P9	✓			
P10		✓		
P11	✓			
P12	✓			
P13	✓			
P14			✓	✓
P15		✓		
P16	✓			

### 3.12. Findings Related to the Question "Does unemployment play a role in the increase in illegal migration?"

Nearly all participants in the study confirmed that unemployment is a major factor exacerbating the phenomenon of illegal migration and migrant smuggling. The

general consensus indicates that unemployment motivates individuals, especially the youth, to explore employment opportunities by any means possible, including engaging in smuggling networks as a way to secure income. Participants (1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16) noted that unemployment, particularly in border and impoverished areas, increases the likelihood of individuals engaging in migrant smuggling activities. Additionally, participants (10 and 12) suggested that addressing unemployment should include providing job opportunities and improving the economic and social conditions of local communities, thereby reducing the incentive to participate in illegal activities such as migrant smuggling. Participant 10 proposed that social support and enhancing social networks could also contribute to reducing reliance on migrant smuggling. On the other hand, Participant 5 emphasized the importance of penalties and improving the enforcement of deterrent laws as part of comprehensive solutions to reduce this phenomenon. This analysis reveals that unemployment is a significant factor in the increase in illegal migrant smuggling, and providing decent job opportunities and improving economic and social conditions could effectively mitigate this issue (see the Table 15).

**Table 15: Unemployment and increase illegal migration**

Participants	The role of unemployment and advance to decrease illegal migration		
	Unemployment is a Major Factor	Job Creation and Economic Improvement	Importance Of Stricter Penalties and Enforcement of Existing Laws
P1	✓		
P2	✓		
P3	✓		
P4	✓		
P5	✓		✓
P6	✓		
P7	✓		
P8	✓		
P9	✓		
P10	✓	✓	

P11	✓	
P12	✓	✓
P13	✓	
P14	✓	
P15	✓	
P16	✓	

### **3.13. Findings Related to the Question: "Do you believe that investment and development can help reduce illegal migration?"**

All participants strongly support the view that investment and development can effectively contribute to reducing illegal migration. Participants 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, and 16 believe that investment and development can create job opportunities, thereby decreasing the need for migration in search of employment. Additionally, investments can help reduce unemployment rates and improve economic conditions, especially in border areas and poorer regions that are often centers for smuggling activities. Participants 2 and 3 note that investing in infrastructure and services such as healthcare and education can improve the quality of life for the population, thus reducing the incentives for migration. Participants 5 and 12 emphasize that targeting investments towards improving economic and social conditions can address the root causes of migration such as poverty, lack of opportunities, and insecurity. Participants 4, 11, 12, and 15 mentions that providing support and resources for small and medium enterprises can help youth build a future in their countries instead of risking migration. Likewise, participant 16 views government support in sectors like health and education as fundamental to improving general conditions and encouraging individuals to stay in their original countries rather than migrating in search of better conditions. Overall, participants agree that investment and development not only provide job opportunities and improve services but also enhance stability and growth in communities, making illegal migration a less attractive option (see the Table 16).

**Table 16:** Investment and development's impact on illegal migration

Participants	Investment and Development's Impact on Illegal Migration		
	Investment Reducing Migration	Support Investment Development	Support For and Small and Medium Enterprise
P1	✓	✓	
P2	✓	✓	
P3	✓	✓	
P4	✓	✓	
P5	✓		✓
P6	✓	✓	
P7	✓	✓	
P8	✓	✓	
P9	✓	✓	
P10	✓	✓	
P11	✓		✓
P12	✓		✓
P13	✓	✓	
P14	✓	✓	
P15	✓		✓
P16	✓	✓	

### 3.14. Findings Related to the Question: "How can investment and development be targeted to specifically reduce illegal migration in southern Libya?"

To define targeted investment and development strategies to reduce illegal migration in southern Libya, the participants' proposals can be organized as follows: Participants 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 14, and 16 see the importance of focusing on creating job opportunities for youth in southern Libya, particularly through developing small and medium enterprises and local industries, along with encouraging major

companies to invest in the area. On the other hand, participants 3, 7, 8, 9, 13, 14, and 16 emphasize the necessity of improving infrastructure such as roads, electricity, and transport networks, in addition to ensuring the provision of basic health and education services to enhance the quality of life and reduce motives for migration. Participants 4, 5, 6, 8, 12, and 15 recommend adopting developmental policies that address poverty and unemployment through investments directed towards key sectors like agriculture, industry, and commerce, to achieve sustainable economic growth. Participants 4 and 16 stress the importance of cooperation with neighboring countries and international organizations to ensure effective implementation of development programs and enhance regional stability. Finally, participants 3, 8, and 14 suggest strengthening local projects and community initiatives that directly address the needs of the southern regions, enhancing local participation in decision-making and project implementation. Adopting these proposals will allow the government, investors, and local communities to work together to develop southern Libya in a way that mitigates illegal migration and improves the economic and social conditions in the region (see the Table 17).

**Table 17:** Investment and development and reduce illegal migration in southern Libya

Participants	Investment Strategies			
	Job Creation and Economic Opportunities	Infrastructure and Basic Services	Sustainable Economic Growth	Empowering Local Communities
P1	✓			
P2	✓			
P3	✓	✓		✓
P4			✓	
P5	✓		✓	
P6	✓		✓	
P7	✓	✓		
P8	✓	✓	✓	✓
P9		✓		
P10	✓			

P11	✓			
P12	✓			✓
P13			✓	
P14	✓		✓	✓
P15				✓
P16	✓		✓	

### **3.15. Findings Related to the Question: "What types of investment would be most beneficial to reducing illegal migration?"**

To address the issue of illegal migration through development and investment, participants suggest implementing several investments that would be particularly beneficial in southern Libya. Participants 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 10 highlight the significant importance of investing in sectors such as agriculture and food security, where these projects can provide direct job opportunities, achieve self-sufficiency in food, reduce dependence on imports, and open up export opportunities. On the other hand, investing in renewable energy and improving infrastructure such as roads and transportation are considered key factors in driving economic development and creating jobs, as indicated by participants 3, 5, and 12. Additionally, participants 1, 4, 6, 7, 9, 15, and 16 emphasize the role of industry and the establishment of free trade zones in stimulating economic growth and creating attractive environments for both foreign and local investments. Participants 3, 8, 11, 12, 13, and 14 stress the necessity of developing education and vocational training programs to qualify youth for employment in both local and global industries, thereby reducing the need to migrate in search of better opportunities. Participant 12 highlights the importance of improving social services such as health, education, and social support in achieving community stability and reducing motives for migration. Finally, participants 7, 9, and 12 believe that encouraging trade and regional cooperation can boost local economies and provide job opportunities, thus alleviating migration pressures. These proposals reflect the diversity of possible investments to address the root causes of illegal migration, such as unemployment and lack of opportunities (see the Table 18).

**Table 18:** Types of investment to reduce illegal migration

Participants	Types of Investment				
	Agriculture & Food Security	Renewable Energy & Infrastructure	Industry & Free Trade Zones	Education & Vocational Training	Trade & Regional Cooperation
P1			✓		
P2	✓				
P3		✓		✓	
P4			✓		
P5	✓	✓			
P6	✓		✓		
P7	✓		✓		✓
P8	✓			✓	
P9			✓		✓
P10	✓		✓		
P11				✓	
P12		✓		✓	✓
P13				✓	
P14				✓	
P15			✓		
P16			✓		

### **3.16. Findings Related to the Question: "What Role Should the Government Play in Encouraging Investment and Development to Reduce Illegal Immigration?"**

The government has a significant role to play in encouraging investment and development to curb illegal immigration. Insights from participants 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, and 10 emphasize the importance of developing and implementing comprehensive national strategies. Participants 1, 6, 12, and 15 highlighted the necessity of providing financial and technical support for investment projects and offering training courses to prepare young people for the job market. Participants 1, 2, 5, 11, and 12 underscored the

importance of organizing training programs to qualify young people for the labor market and promoting education and vocational training. Participants 2, 3, 5, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, 15, and 16 believe the government should facilitate investment procedures and support both foreign and local companies to promote investment in areas heavily impacted by migration. By fulfilling these responsibilities, the government can establish conditions conducive to investment and development, fostering a stable economic and social environment that mitigates the need for illegal immigration (see the Table 19).

**Table 19:** Government role in encouraging investment and development

<b>Government Role in Encouraging Investment and Development</b>				
<b>Participants</b>	<b>Develop and Implement Comprehensive National Strategies</b>	<b>Provide Financial and Technical Support for Investment Projects</b>	<b>Organize Training Courses to Prepare Youth for The Job Market</b>	<b>Facilitate Investment Procedures and Support Companies in Migration-Affected Regions</b>
P1		✓	✓	
P2	✓		✓	✓
P3	✓			✓
P4	✓			
P5	✓		✓	✓
P6		✓		
P7	✓			
P8				✓
P9				✓
P10	✓			✓
P11			✓	
P12		✓	✓	
P13				✓
P14				✓
P15		✓		✓
P16				✓

### 3.17. Findings Related to the Question: "What are Some of the Biggest Challenges in Implementing Effective Development and Investment Strategies that Reduce Illegal Immigration?"

National strategies aimed at reducing illegal immigration are confronted by multiple complex challenges, including corruption and a lack of government commitment to project implementation, as noted by participants 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, and 14. Participants 1, 3, 5, 9, 10, 15, and 16 identified weak funding and poor management as significant obstacles. Additionally, political division, which hampers development and investment due to the absence of unified national policies and goals, was highlighted by participants 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 12, 15, and 16. Participants 7, 8, 10, and 14 emphasized that racism and regionalism towards the southern region pose a significant barrier to development projects in the area. Participants 4 and 8 argued that focusing too heavily on security without addressing root causes like poverty and unemployment reduces the effectiveness of implemented strategies. These challenges emphasize the need for effective coordination, strategic planning, and prudent management, alongside international cooperation, to achieve the objectives of national strategies (see the Table 20).

**Table 20:** Challenges in reducing illegal immigration

Participants	Challenges in Reducing Illegal Immigration			
	Corruption and Lack of Serious Implementation	Weak Funding and Poor Management	Political Division	racism and regionalism
P1	✓	✓		
P2			✓	
P3	✓	✓	✓	
P4	✓		✓	
P5	✓	✓	✓	
P6	✓		✓	
P7			✓	✓
P8	✓			✓

<b>P9</b>	✓	✓	✓	
<b>P10</b>	✓	✓		✓
<b>P11</b>			✓	
<b>P12</b>			✓	
<b>P13</b>				
<b>P14</b>	✓			✓
<b>P15</b>		✓	✓	
<b>P16</b>		✓	✓	



## CONCLUSION

The consensus among participants reveals a complex impact of illegal immigration on the economy and society of southern Libya. Economically, immigrants can contribute positively through participation in the labor market and commerce. However, most participants highlight negative effects, such as higher unemployment rates, reduced productivity, price inflation, and exploitation by traffickers. Socially, tensions rise due to competition for resources and jobs, with concerns about criminal activities and pressure on public services like health and education.

Participants emphasize that the current policies focus on security measures like border surveillance, patrols, and international security cooperation. However, this approach is criticized for its lack of comprehensive strategies addressing migration's root causes, such as poverty and persecution. Participants further note that the turbulent political climate, divided governments, and militia activity undermine the effectiveness of these policies. A broader, more comprehensive strategy involving socio-economic development and community participation is urgently needed.

Proposed solutions reflect a wide spectrum of opinions. Many participants stress the importance of local development in border areas, while others see fortifying borders as essential. Addressing Libya's unstable security and political situation is crucial, as is fostering regional partnerships to combat trafficking networks. Comprehensive solutions must include vocational training, improved health and education, and legal migration pathways. These proposals underscore the need for integrated solutions to effectively address irregular migration in southern Libya.

Participants underscore the importance of international cooperation to address migration's root causes. This includes enhancing economic development in source countries, supporting local development in Libya, and strengthening security measures to combat smuggling networks. However, political instability and weak governance hinder progress. Regional and international organizations like the African Union and UN are viewed as vital in providing support and fostering cooperation.

Participants unanimously recognize that organized crime networks profit extensively from migrant smuggling. These networks exploit economic hardship and

weak security, recruiting desperate youth into trafficking. They also generate significant profits through exorbitant fees and threats against migrants or their families. The involvement of these networks in other illegal activities like drug and weapons trafficking exacerbates the problem. Joint efforts are necessary to improve border security, fight corruption, and reduce economic reliance on these networks.

Key factors identified include unemployment, political instability, porous borders, and inefficient law enforcement. These conditions create an environment ripe for criminal networks to expand their activities. Tackling these multifaceted issues requires comprehensive responses that include economic development, enhanced security, and improved governance.

Opinions are divided on border control measures. Most participants believe stricter controls may increase corruption and drive migrants toward more dangerous routes, suggesting that solutions should address migration's root causes. Others advocate enhanced border surveillance but acknowledge it should be part of a broader strategy involving cooperation with local communities.

Participants emphasize improving economic conditions in areas prone to migration while enhancing coordination among government agencies and international partners. Strengthening penalties against smugglers and improving security infrastructure are crucial but insufficient without addressing root causes.

Most participants lack familiarity with successful initiatives. The Libyan-Italian agreement and increased salaries for border guards are noted, though broader economic initiatives are needed. Security cooperation between Libya and Tunisia is seen as promising, but a more coordinated and comprehensive approach is required.

Participants highlight intelligence sharing, financial support, and capacity building as crucial aspects of international cooperation. Enhancing economic and social conditions in source countries will reduce the need for migration, making joint efforts vital.

Participants emphasize strict penalties, improved security infrastructure, and regional cooperation. Addressing poverty and unemployment in source countries is also crucial, as penalties alone are insufficient. Current laws and institutions are often ineffective, requiring a comprehensive legal framework to address smuggling.

Nearly all participants agree that unemployment is a significant driver of illegal migration. Providing job opportunities and improving economic and social conditions are essential to reduce reliance on smuggling.

All participants agree that investment and development can significantly reduce illegal migration. These measures should focus on job creation, economic growth, infrastructure improvements, and vocational training to offer viable alternatives to migration.

Participants recommend job creation for youth, infrastructure improvements, poverty reduction policies, and regional cooperation. Local initiatives should be strengthened, encouraging community involvement in decision-making.

Participants emphasize investing in agriculture, renewable energy, infrastructure, and industry. Vocational training, education programs, and social services are essential to build skills and reduce the appeal of migration.

The government plays a crucial role in incentivizing investment through policy reforms, infrastructure development, and fostering a stable political climate. Encouraging private investment and aligning initiatives with community needs will ensure sustainable development and help reduce illegal immigration.

### **Model Proposal for Addressing Illegal Immigration in Southern Libya**

This proposal outlines a comprehensive strategy to address the economic, social, and policy-related impacts of illegal immigration in southern Libya. The model is based on consensus views from various participants, emphasizing a balanced approach that incorporates economic development, social integration, security measures, and international cooperation. The analysis reveals that organized crime networks derive extensive benefits from migrant smuggling through multiple mechanisms, including exploitation of economic vulnerabilities, bribery, corruption, and additional illicit activities. Effective combat of these activities necessitates a comprehensive, multi-level approach addressing root causes, enhancing security, and fostering regional and international cooperation.

This proposal aims to address the multifaceted issue of migrant smuggling by leveraging findings from a recent study. The study highlights the lack of familiarity

with successful anti-smuggling initiatives, the necessity for robust international cooperation, the need for legislative and legal measures, and the critical role of addressing unemployment and economic conditions in mitigating smuggling activities.

This proposal outlines a comprehensive model to address illegal migration in southern Libya by leveraging targeted investments and development initiatives. The findings from participant feedback emphasize the necessity of creating job opportunities, enhancing infrastructure, and improving social services to mitigate the root causes of migration such as unemployment, poverty, and insecurity. The model integrates strategic investments in key sectors, government roles, and overcoming challenges to create a sustainable and stable environment that discourages illegal migration.

- **Economic Impacts and Strategies**

Implement job creation programs, particularly in border areas, to provide alternatives to smuggling. Focus on industries such as agriculture, construction, and small-scale manufacturing.

Facilitate access to microfinance and business development services for local entrepreneurs and establish vocational training centers and offer scholarships to improve the skills of youth, making them less likely to engage in illegal activities.

Improve infrastructure, including roads, healthcare, and education facilities, to enhance overall economic conditions. Develop free trade zones to boost economic activity and reduce reliance on human smuggling.

- **Social Impacts and Strategies**

Implement programs that promote social cohesion and integration between locals and immigrants and ensure fair distribution of resources to mitigate competition and reduce tensions.

Provide specialized training for local law enforcement to combat human trafficking and other criminal activities associated with illegal immigration and encourage community policing initiatives to build trust and cooperation between law enforcement and local communities.

- **Policy and Security Measures**

Develop policies that address the root causes of migration, such as poverty, unemployment, and persecution, rather than focusing solely on security measures and creating legal pathways for migration to reduce the dependence on illegal routes and smugglers, although enhancing border fortification and surveillance through increased patrols and strengthen security cooperation with neighboring countries to prevent unauthorized crossings and combat smuggling networks.

- **International and Regional Cooperation**

Cooperate with countries of origin and transit to enhance economic development and provide job opportunities, reducing the push factors for migration and facilitate the documentation process for migrants through bilateral agreements and international support.

Engage with destination countries, such as EU states, to support local development projects in southern Libya and collaborate on programs that stimulate job opportunities and economic growth.

Leverage the support of regional organizations like the African Union and international organizations like the United Nations to provide necessary resources and facilitate cooperation and promote political stability and unify governmental efforts to create a conducive environment for effective policy implementation.

- **Local Participation and Implementation and Monitoring**

Involve local communities in decision-making processes to address the specific needs of the southern region, to ensure policies and programs respond to their needs and ensure coordination among various levels of government, including local, regional, and national authorities.

Conduct regular assessments and evaluations of implemented strategies to measure their effectiveness and make necessary adjustments and promote transparency and accountability in all processes to build trust and ensure the success of the initiatives.

Involve local communities in decision-making processes to ensure policies and programs respond to their needs and ensure coordination among various levels of government, including local, regional, and national authorities.

Conduct regular assessments and evaluations of implemented strategies to measure their effectiveness and make necessary adjustments and promote transparency and accountability in all processes to build trust and ensure the success of the initiatives.

- **Stricter Borders to Combat Migrant Smuggling**

While beneficial, increasing border security must be complemented by addressing root causes to avoid driving migrants to more dangerous routes and increasing corruption and cooperation with local communities and tribes in border areas to monitor and report smuggling activities.

Improve economic conditions in areas prone to migration by creating job opportunities promoting sustainable development and addressing political instability and conflicts that drive migration.

Establish clear policies to criminalize smuggling activities with strict enforcement measures and improve coordination among various ministries and government agencies at both local and international levels to streamline efforts against smuggling.

Foster regional and international cooperation to enhance border security, share intelligence, coordinate anti-smuggling operations and support capacity-building initiatives for law enforcement and border security personnel.

Implement robust anti-corruption measures to prevent bribery and ensure the integrity of officials involved in migration and border security.

- **Economic and Social Development Initiatives**

Participants underscored the pivotal role of improving economic and social conditions in migrant-prone areas as a fundamental solution through implement targeted economic development initiatives in source regions to create job opportunities and promote sustainable growth such as focusing on improving economic conditions and providing job opportunities in high migration areas to reduce reliance on

smuggling as an income source and partner with local governments and international organizations to invest in sustainable development projects aimed at creating livelihood alternatives.

- **Strengthening Legislative Frameworks and Law Enforcement**

Advocate for comprehensive laws that criminalize smuggling activities with severe penalties to deter smugglers effectively. Enhance border security infrastructure, combat corruption, and ensure transparent and accountable enforcement of laws and foster collaboration through information sharing, joint operations, and capacity building to track and apprehend smugglers across borders.

- **Addressing Unemployment and Social Support**

Provide comprehensive social support systems and vocational training programs to reduce unemployment and mitigate migration incentives and collaborate with NGOs, private sector, and local communities to develop tailored solutions addressing specific regional needs.

- **Targeted Investment and Development Strategies**

Attract both local and foreign investors to southern Libya through incentives and streamlined investment procedures and provide financial and technical support to small and medium enterprises, facilitating their growth and sustainability. Develop programs focused on creating job opportunities for youth, reducing their incentive to migrate and direct investments in building and improving roads, electricity, and transportation networks to facilitate economic activities and ensure the provision of quality healthcare and education to improve living standards and reduce migration motivations to alleviate poverty and highlight successful initiatives such as increased salaries for border guards and employment programs for former smugglers to enhance security and deterrence.

- **Sectoral Investments for Economic Growth**

Develop agricultural projects to create jobs, achieve food self-sufficiency, and open export opportunities. Invest in renewable energy sources to drive economic development and create employment and establish industrial zones and free trade areas to stimulate economic activity and attract investments.

- **Government Role in Encouraging Investment and Development**

Develop and implement national strategies focused on investment and development in migration-prone areas and provide financial and technical support for investment projects, including training programs for young people.

Simplify investment procedures and offer incentives to attract both foreign and local investors. Promote education and vocational training to build a skilled workforce.

- **Addressing Challenges**

Implement transparent and accountable governance practices to reduce corruption and ensure government commitment to development projects and establish independent monitoring bodies to oversee project implementation and management.

Ensure sufficient funding for development projects through public-private partnerships and international aid. Adopt best practices in project management to maximize efficiency and effectiveness.

Promote political unity and develop unified national policies that support development and investment and address regional disparities by ensuring equitable distribution of resources and development efforts.

Promote social cohesion and inclusion by implementing policies that address racism and regionalism and engage local communities in development planning and execution to ensure their needs and perspectives are considered.

Integrate security measures with development initiatives to address both the symptoms and root causes of migration and focus on long-term development goals alongside immediate security needs.

## REFERENCES

- Abdoulaye, I. B. (2018). Migration Measurement. Institut National de La Statistique, January. <http://www.ins.nat.tn/indexfr.php>
- Abushhewa, A. A., & Zarook, T. (2016). The Impacts of Investment Climate on FDI in the Libyan Economy: Firm-Level Evidence. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 7(4), 120–132. [http://ijbssnet.com/journals/Vol\\_7\\_No\\_4\\_April\\_2016/14.pdf](http://ijbssnet.com/journals/Vol_7_No_4_April_2016/14.pdf)
- Agwu, A. E., Anugwa, I. Q., & Ifeonu, C. F. (2021). Stemming Rural-urban Migration through Agricultural Development: Can Nigeria Apply the Lessons from the COVID-19 Pandemic? *Agro-Science*, 20(4), 36–45. <https://doi.org/10.4314/as.v20i4.5>
- Ajaali, D. D. S. A. and D. T. T. (2014). Labour Market and Employment Policy in Libya Prepared for the ETF by Dr Dia Sadek Abuhadra and Dr Tawfik Taher Ajaali.
- Al-Arabi, A. (2018). Brief Policy Local Specificities of Migration in Libya: Challenges and Solutions. <https://issafrica.org/research/north-africa-report/the-anti->
- Aleshkovski, I. A. (2013). Illegal Immigration as A Structural Factor of Global Development. *Globalistics and Globalization Studies*, 243–256.
- Alla-Mensah, V. W. H. F. J., & Published. (2019). Human Migration and TVET Discussion Paper.
- Amadeus. (2017). UNHCR Global Report 2017. 127. <https://www.unhcr.org/publications/fundraising/5b4c89bf17/unhcr-global-report-2017.html>
- Anderson, B. (2010). Migration, Immigration Controls and The Fashioning of Precarious Workers. *Work, Employment and Society*, 24(2), 300–317. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0950017010362141>
- Angenendt, S., & Koch, A. (2017). SWP Comments Introduction International Cooperation on Migration Policy: Dare to Do More! The Global Forum on Migration and Development in Berlin Opens Up Opportunities.
- Archbishop, B., Wester, J. C., & God, P. (2017). Root Causes of Migration. August, 2014–2015. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ssqu.12172/abstract>

- Bacon, L., & Robin, N. (2018). State of the Art The Root Causes of Irregular Migration in the Region of the Rabat Process Study conducted by Lucie Bacon ( Migrinter ) and Nelly Robin ( Institut de recherche pour le développement-CEPED ) for the ICMPD , May 2018 Table of Contents (Issue May, pp. 1–22).
- Badi, I., Stević, Ž., & Bouraima, M. B. (2023). Decision Making Advances Overcoming Obstacles to Renewable Energy Development in Libya: An MCDM Approach towards Effective Strategy Formulation. *Decision Making Advances*, 1(1), 17–24. <https://doi.org/10.31181/v120234>
- Balinchenko, S. (2021). A Dynamic Approach to Localness in the Context of Conflict-affected Internal Displacement and Return in Ukraine. *SN Social Sciences*, 1(2). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s43545-021-00057-1>
- Balqis Romulia, A. P. (2023). Securitization Of Illegal Immigrants on The South Border Of The United States By President Donald Trump: Foreign Policy Changes. *Jurnal Dinamika Global*, 8(01), 133–159. <https://doi.org/10.36859/jdg.v8i01.1557>
- Battal Saleh, Y. A. (2020). Economic Crimes in Libya: The Phenomenon of Illegal Earning and Money Laundering Before and After the February 17, 2011 Revolution. *Economic Consultant*, 31(3), 53–80. <https://doi.org/10.46224/ecoc.2020.3.4>
- Beine, M., Khoudour, D., & Tarvainen, J. (2021). United Nations Development Programme Can Targeted Interventions Mitigate The Adverse Drivers of Irregular Migration and Forced Displacement? UNDP Global Policy Network.
- Bell, S., Alves, S., de Oliveira, E. S., & Zuin, A. (2010). Migration and Land Use Change in Europe: A Review. *Living Reviews in Landscape Research*, 4(1), 1–49. <https://doi.org/10.12942/lrlr-2010-2>
- Betts, A., & Collier, P. (2017). *Refuge : Transforming A Broken Refugee System*.
- Bureau of Statistics and Census in Libya. (2022). *Results of The Labor Force Survey*.
- Casarico, A., Facchini, G., & Testa, C. (2016). Asylum Policy And Illegal Immigration: Perspectives and Challenges. *CESifo DICE Report*, 14(4), 14–20.
- Chappell, L., Glennie, A., Latorre, M., & Mulley, S. (2011). *The Impacts of Irregular Migration*.
- Chidiogo Uzoamaka Akpuokwe, Nkechi Emmanuella Eneh, Adekunle Oyeyemi Adeniyi, & Seun Solomon Bakare. (2024). Migration Trends and Policies: A Review Of African and Usa Perspectives. *International Journal of Applied Research in Social Sciences*, 6(3), 212–224. <https://doi.org/10.51594/ijarss.v6i3.851>

- Chiswick, B. R.; M. P. W. (2015). International Migration and the Economics of Language. <https://hdl.handle.net/10419/90104>
- Choudhury, S. R., & Agarwal, B. (2018). Contribution of Education on Standard of Living. *International Journal of Advanced Multidisciplinary Scientific Research*, 1(4), 11–24. <https://doi.org/10.31426/ijamsr.2018.1.4.212>
- Clark, W. A. V, & Maas, R. (2012). Interpreting Migration Through The Prism of Reasons for Moves: What Can We Learn About The Economic Returns to Migration From Survey Data?
- Clegg, J., & Mudambi, R. (2015). Investment for Development. *AIB Insights*, 15(1). <https://doi.org/10.46697/001c.16915>
- Crisis Group. (2017). How Libya's Fezzan Became Europe's New Border. July. <https://d2071andvip0wj.cloudfront.net/179-how-libyas-fezzan-became-europes-new-border.pdf>
- Czaika, M., & Parsons, C. R. (2017). The Gravity of High-Skilled Migration Policies. *Demography*, 54(2), 603–630. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13524-017-0559-1>
- D. Saracoğlu, T. R. (2015). Internal Migration, Structural Change, and Economic Growth. <http://ageconsearch.umn.edu>
- Dakhil, A. (2013). The Contribution Of The Construction Industry to Economic Development in Libya.
- Darme, M.-C., Tahar, B., & Kinani, H. (2017). Mixed Migration Trends in Libya: Changing Dynamics and Protection Challenges. in *Unhcr* (pp. 1–11).
- De Jesus, M., Warnock, B., Moumni, Z., Sougui, Z. H., & Pourtau, L. (2023). The Impact of Social Capital and Social Environmental Factors on Mental Health and Flourishing: The Experiences of Asylum-Seekers in France. *Conflict and Health*, 17(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13031-023-00517-w>
- Dimitris, G. (2023). Racism and Migration: A Philosophical Approach Interdisciplinary Research in Counseling. *Ethics and Philosophy*, 3, 2023.
- Docquier, F., & Rapoport, H. (2012). Globalization, Brain Drain, and Development. in *Journal of Economic Literature* (Vol. 50, Issue 3, pp. 681–730). American Economic Association. <https://doi.org/10.1257/jel.50.3.681>
- Donato, K. M., & Massey, D. S. (2016). Twenty-First-Century Globalization and Illegal Migration. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 666(1), 7–26. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002716216653563>
- Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA). (2020). An Introductory Study on the Status, Challenges and Prospects of the Libyan

Economy Part I of a Baseline Study for the Libya Socioeconomic Dialogue Project.

- Efhialelbum, A. (2014). Evaluation of the Impact of Institutions and Labour Market Labour Programs on the Libyan Labour Market Outcomes in the Transition Period. In *International Journal of Humanities Social Sciences and Education (IJHSSE)* (Vol. 1, Issue 8). [www.arcjournals.org](http://www.arcjournals.org)
- Enes Beşer, M., & Elfeitori, F. (2018). “Libya Detention Centres: A State of Impunity” Migration Policy Center Ankara-2018 MPC Report Series.
- European Center for Constitutional, & Rights, and H. (2021). No Way Out: Migrants and Refugees Trapped in Libya Face Crimes Against Humanity. Report.
- European Training Foundation (ETF). (2014). Labour Market and Employment Policy in Libya. [www.etf.europa.eu](http://www.etf.europa.eu)
- Ezeabasili, I. E. (2023). Cross Border Migration and Life Expectancy in Nigeria and Benin Republic, 1999-2020. *International Journal of Social Science and Human Research*, 6(10). <https://doi.org/10.47191/ijsshr/v6-i10-16>
- Faist, T. (2014). The Public Role of Social Scientists in Constituting the Migration-Development Nexus 1. *New Diversities*, 16(2).
- Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO). (2016). Agriculture and Rural Addressing the root causes. *AGRICULTURE AND RURAL Addressing the Root Causes*.
- Ferrie, J. P., & Hatton, T. J. (2013). Two Centuries of International Migration.
- Ferrie, J. P., & Hatton, T. J. (2015). Two Centuries of International Migration. *Handbook of the Economics of International Migration*, 1(7866), 53–88. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-444-53764-5.00002-5>
- Friebel, G., Manchin, M., Mendola, M., Prarolo, G., Amodio, F., Bauer, T., Beine, M., Borjas, G., Clemens, M., Conconi, P., Elsner, B., Fasani, F., Hanson, G., Hausmann, R., Hunt, J., Llull, J., Mayda, A. M., Minale, L., Mueller, H., ... Yang, D. (2018). CefES-Dems Working Paper Series International Migration Intentions and Illegal Costs: Evidence from Africa-to-Europe Smuggling Routes International Migration Intentions and Illegal Costs: Evidence from Africa-to-Europe Smuggling Routes \*. <https://ssrn.com/abstract=3287323>
- Gallien, M. (2020). The London School of Economics and Political Science Smugglers and States: Illegal Trade in the Political Settlements of North Africa.
- Gasto, D. I. (2022). Irregular Migration Governance in The East African Community: Assessing The Legal And Institutional Response. <https://www.eac.int/overview-of-eac>

- Gerbeau, Y. M. (2017). Mass Migrations across the World System's History "We Want You for Capitalist Production." 1–8. [www.e-ir.info/2017/08/01/mass-migrations-across-the-world-systems-history/](http://www.e-ir.info/2017/08/01/mass-migrations-across-the-world-systems-history/)
- Hamoudi, M. El., & Aimer, N. (2017). The Impact of Foreign Direct Investment on Economic Growth in Libya. *International Journal of English Literature and Social Sciences*, 2(6), 144–154. <https://doi.org/10.22161/ijels.2.6.22>
- Hoffmann Pham, K., & Komiyama, J. (2024). Strategic Choices of Migrants and Smugglers in The Central Mediterranean Sea. *Plos One*, 19(4), e0300553. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0300553>
- Holobinko, A. (2012). Theoretical and Methodological Approaches to Understanding Human Migration Patterns and Their Utility in Forensic Human Identification Cases. *Societies*, 2(2), 42–62. <https://doi.org/10.3390/soc2020042>
- Idemudia, E., & Boehnke, K. (2020). Social Experiences of Migrants (pp. 119–135). [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-48347-0\\_6](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-48347-0_6)
- Illés, S. , R. M. , & K. Á. (2014). Long-term International Circular Migration: Empirical Evidence from Hungary.
- Institutions, D. F., & Agencies, E. C. (2017). Development and Investment in Africa. 1–14.
- Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC). (2021). Global Report on Internal Displacement 2021.
- International Labour Organization (ILO). (2023). World Employment and Social Outlook. <https://doi.org/10.54394/SNCP1637>
- International Organization for Migration (IOM). (2020). Study on the Perceptions of Migrants Among Host Communities in Tripoli and Benghazi.
- International Organization for Migration (IOM). (2024). Libya — Migrant Report 51 (January- February 2024).
- International Organization for Migration (IOM), I. O. for M. (2014). Emerging Evidence Base Migrant Smuggling Data and Research: (Vol. 2). [https://publications.iom.int/system/files/smuggling\\_report.pdf](https://publications.iom.int/system/files/smuggling_report.pdf)
- International Organization for Migration (IOM). (2011). Handbook on Migration Terminology. 166. [www.iomrussia.ru](http://www.iomrussia.ru)
- Jarad, A., Attwairi, A., Elawed, T., & Elmghirbi, E. (2022). The Role of The Southern Libyan Saharan Cities in Building Their Relations with Neighbouring Countres. *Bulletin of the Serbian Geographical Society*, 102(1), 141–156. <https://doi.org/10.2298/GSGD2201141J>

- Kamal Adhikari. (2023). Trends and Causes of Internal Migration: A Case Study of Ilam Municipality, Nepal.
- Kerr, W., & School, H. B. (2018). *The Gift of Global Talent: How Migration Shapes Business, Economy & Society*. Stanford University Press. <https://www.hbs.edu/managing-the-future-of-work>
- Khamzin, A. S., Khamzina, Z. A., Aldabergenova, N. A., Koshpenbetov, B. M., & Buribayev, Y. A. (2023). Labor Migration: A View from Kazakhstan. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, 13(4), 84–93. <https://doi.org/10.36941/jesr-2023-0092>
- Krishna J, P. (2022). Push and Pull Factors Influencing Migration among Tribal Agricultural Labourers : A Critical Gender Analysis. *Indian Research Journal of Extension Education*, 22(5), 13–17. [https://doi.org/10.54986/irjee/2022/dec\\_spl/13-17](https://doi.org/10.54986/irjee/2022/dec_spl/13-17)
- Lanza, E., & Pasculli, M. A. (2012). The Condition of Foreigner as a Contact between Illegal Immigration and Trafficking in Human Beings/Smuggling of Migrants: a Report about Italian Legislation. In *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science* (Vol. 2, Issue 19). [www.ijhssnet.com](http://www.ijhssnet.com)
- Lomborg, B. (2023). Save 4.2 Million Lives and Generate \$1.1 Trillion in Economic Benefits for only \$41 Billion: Introduction to the Special Issue on the Most Efficient Policies for the Sustainable Development Goals. *Journal of Benefit-Cost Analysis*, 14, 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1017/bca.2023.32>
- London Government Office for Science & Foresight. (2011). *Migration and Global Environmental Change: Future Challenges and Opportunities*.
- Malakooti, A. (2019). The Political Economy of Migrant Detention in Libya: Understanding the players and the business models. April. <https://globalinitiative.net/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/Final-Report-Detention-Libya.pdf>
- Mancini, M. (2017). Italy's New Migration Control Policy: Stemming the Flow of Migrants from Libya without Regard for the Human Rights.
- Manning, P. (2012). *Migration in World History*. *Migration in World History*. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203100707>
- Martin, P. (2013). *The Global Challenge of Managing Migration* Population Reference Bureau. [www.prb.org](http://www.prb.org)
- Massey, D. S., Durand, J., & Pren, K. A. (2014). Explaining undocumented migration to the U.S. *International Migration Review*, 48(4), 1028–1061. <https://doi.org/10.1111/imre.12151>

- Micallef, M., & Reitano, T. (2017). The Anti-Human Smuggling Business and Libya's Political End Game. December.
- Micinski, N. R. (2021). History of Global Migration Governance. *UN Global Compacts*, 122, 28–50. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429266669-2>
- Mlambo, V. H. (2017). Cross-border Migration in the Southern African Development Community (SADC): Benefits, Problems and Future prospects. in *Journal of Social and Development Sciences* (Vol. 8, Issue 4).
- Mohammad Esmil Saddiqi, F. E. H. R. (2020). Review of Migration and Its Impact (Study Area Afghanistan) Mohammad Esmil Saddiqi 1st, 2nd Feraidoon Ekhlas, 3rd Halima Rahmani. [www.jetir.org445](http://www.jetir.org445)
- Moreno, E. L. (2017). United Nations Expert Group Meeting On Sustainable Cities, Human Mobility Concepts , definitions and data sources for the study of urbanization : the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. September.
- Morrice, L., Shan, H., & Sprung, A. (2017). Migration, Adult Education and Learning. In *Studies in the Education of Adults* (Vol. 49, Issue 2, pp. 129–135). Taylor and Francis Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02660830.2018.1470280>
- Mostafa Elakouri, K. (2018). The Establishment of A Training and Development Framework System for The Libya's Oil Industry.
- Nagesha B. (2018). Impact of Mgnrega on Rural Labour Migration-A Study. *International Journal of Science and Research*, 8, 2319–7064. <https://doi.org/10.21275/ART20195106>
- Nation, U. (2018). Desperate and Dangerous: Report on The Human Rights Situation of Migrants and Refugees in Libya. December, 61. <https://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Countries/LY/LibyaMigrationReport.pdf>
- Ngoasong, M. (2015). Impact Investing and Inclusive Business Development in Africa: A research agenda. *The Open University, Milton Keynes*, 76, 24. <https://www.open.ac.uk/ikd/documents/working-papers/ikd-working-paper-76.pdf>
- Obikaeze, V. C., & Iloh, E. C. (2023). Post-Colonial Nigerian State and Complexities of Irregular Cross-Border Migration. *Journal of Contemporary International Relations and Diplomacy*, 4(2), 787–804. <https://doi.org/10.53982/jcird.2023.0402.03-j>
- Of, A. C., For, D., Of, A., Migrants, I., & Europe, T. O. (2020). Libya is A Country of Destination oor Many Sub-Saharan. April, 2019–2021.

- Ojakorotu, V. (2023). Oil, Conflicts, and Political Economy of Migration in Africa: The Nigeria's Niger Delta Experience. *E-Journal of Humanities, Arts and Social Sciences*, 109–120. <https://doi.org/10.38159/ehass.202341410>
- Okic Yor, A. (2021). The impact of Rural-Urban Population Migration in South Sudan: A Case Study of Juba City, Jubek State.
- Orsini, G., Rota, M., Uzureau, O., Behrendt, M., Adeyinka, S., Lietaert, I., & Derluyn, I. (2022). Loops of Violence(s) Within Europe's Governance of Migration in Libya, Italy, Greece, and Belgium. *Politics and Governance*, 10(2), 256–266. <https://doi.org/10.17645/pag.v10i2.5183>
- Pacciardi, A., & Berndtsson, J. (2022). EU border externalisation and security outsourcing: exploring the migration industry in Libya. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 48(17), 4010–4028. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1369183X.2022.2061930>
- Park, S. K. (2018). Social Bonds for Sustainable Development: A Human Rights Perspective on Impact Investing. In *Business and Human Rights Journal* (Vol. 3, Issue 2, pp. 233–255). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/bhj.2018.6>
- Pascale, G. (2019). Is Italy Internationally Responsible for The Gross Human Rights Violations Against Migrants in Libya? (Vol. 56). [www.ssrn.com](http://www.ssrn.com)
- Peri, G. (2016). Immigrants, productivity, and labor markets. In *Journal of Economic Perspectives* (Vol. 30, Issue 4, pp. 3–30). American Economic Association. <https://doi.org/10.1257/jep.30.4.3>
- Podra, O., Levkiv, H., Koval, G., Petryshyn, N., & Bobko, U. (2020). The Impact of Migration Processes on The Economy of Ukraine: Trends, Reasons, Consequences. *Journal of the Geographical Institute Jovan Cvijic SASA*, 70(2), 171–179. <https://doi.org/10.2298/IJGI2002171P>
- Privara, A., & Rievajova, E. (2021). Migration Challenges of the Current Stage of Globalization. *SHS Web of Conferences*, 92, 07054. <https://doi.org/10.1051/shsconf/20219207054>
- REACH Initiative. (2022). Libya Labour Demand, Supply and Institutional Environment in Sebha Labour Market Assessment Key Findings Summary.
- Rema Ibrahim Hamad Abushahma, M. A. M. A. N. A. A. R. O. I. A.-S. (2019). Proceedings, 2019 IEEE 15th International Colloquium on Signal Processing & its Application (CSPA 2019): 8th-9th March 2019, PARKROYAL Penang Resort, Batu Ferringhi Beach, 11100 Penang, Malaysia.

- Reznikova, I., & Danilina, N. (2021). Environmental Migration and Sustainable Development of Regions and Countries. *E3S Web of Conferences*, 250. <https://doi.org/10.1051/e3sconf/202125005003>
- Rosni, N. A., & Zainol, R. (2020). Involuntary Migration Impacts on The Local Community in Underdeveloped and Developing Countries: A Review. *Journal of Southeast Asian Studies*, 25(2), 20–39. <https://doi.org/10.22452/jati.vol25no2.2>
- Rostetska, S., Shvets, S., & Ilkiv, O. (2023). Formation of A New Paradigm of Global Political and Migration Processes Under The Influence Of Military Activities in Ukraine. *Baltic Journal of Economic Studies*, 9(5), 241–251. <https://doi.org/10.30525/2256-0742/2023-9-5-241-251>
- Rystad, G. (2014). *Immigration History and the Future of International Migration*.
- Sanchez, G. (2020). RSCAS 2020\_09 Beyond Militias and Tribes: The Facilitation of Migration in Libya.
- Santer, K. (2019). Governing the Central Mediterranean through Indirect Rule: Tracing the Effects of the Recognition of Joint Rescue Coordination Centre Tripoli. In *European Journal of Migration and Law* (Vol. 21, Issue 2, pp. 141–165). Brill Nijhoff. <https://doi.org/10.1163/15718166-12340045>
- Shah, N. M., & Alkazi, L. (2023). COVID-19 and Threats to Irregular Migrants in Kuwait and the Gulf. *International Migration*, 61(2), 138–153. <https://doi.org/10.1111/imig.12992>
- Sira, E., & Dubravská, M. (2015). Current Trends of Migration in the Slovak Republic (Case Study). *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 23(October 2014), 461–466. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s2212-5671\(15\)00558-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/s2212-5671(15)00558-4)
- Studies, M., York, N., & Review, I. M. (2014). *International Migration in Southern Africa* Author ( s ): Francis Wilson Published by : The Center for Migration Studies of New York , Inc . extend access to *International Migration Review* . 10(4), 451–488.
- Sugawara, E., & Nikaido, H. (2014). Properties of AdeABC and AdeIJK Efflux Systems of *Acinetobacter Baumannii* Compared with those of the AcrAB-TolC System of *Escherichia Coli*. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, 58(12), 7250–7257. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.03728-14>
- The Coalition for Human Rights in Development (CHRD). (2017). *Development Finance Institutions and Export Credit Agencies* [www.RightsinDevelopment.org](http://www.RightsinDevelopment.org) *Development and Investment in Africa*. [www.RightsinDevelopment.org](http://www.RightsinDevelopment.org)

- The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). (2021). Labor Market Assessment. [www.ly.undp.org](http://www.ly.undp.org)
- Thet, K. K. (2014). Pull and Push Factors of Migration: A Case Study in the Urban Area of Monywa Township, Myanmar. *World of Statistics*, 1(4), 1–14. <https://www.worldofstatistics.org/files/2014/03/Pull-and-Push-Factors-of-Migration-Thet.pdf>
- Uknowledge, U., & Zhu, Y. (2021). The Global Issue of Immigration: A Focus on Illegal Immigrants for U.S. Agriculture, Refugee Immigrants for Germany's Trade and The Climate-Induced Diaspora from Least Developed Countries. <https://doi.org/10.13023/etd.2021.270>
- UN DESA. (2018). World Urbanization Prospects 2018 Highlights.
- United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). (2020). Global Trends Forced Displacement in 2020.
- Van Praag, L., & Timmerman, C. (2019). Environmental Migration and Displacement: A New Theoretical Framework for The Study of Migration Aspirations in Response to Environmental Changes. *Environmental Sociology*, 5(4), 352–361. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23251042.2019.1613030>
- Van Riemsdijk, M., & Basford, S. (2022). Integration of Highly Skilled Migrants in the Workplace: a Multi-level Framework. *Journal of International Migration and Integration*, 23(2), 633–654. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12134-021-00845-x>
- Vincent, E. A. (2022). Migration and Its Impacts on both the Sending and Receiving Countries. *Global Academic Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 4(6), 227–235. <https://doi.org/10.36348/gajhss.2022.v04i06.005>
- World Bank. (2016). Migration and Remittances Factbook 2016.
- Wright, R., & Ellis, M. (2016). Perspectives on Migration Theory: Geography (pp. 11–30). [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-7282-2\\_2](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-7282-2_2)
- Yahia, A., & Saleh, A. (2008). Economic Sanctions, Oil Price Fluctuations and Employment: New Empirical Evidence from Libya. <https://ro.uow.edu.au/commpapers/2994>

## LIST OF TABLES

<b>Table 1:</b> Push and pull factors.....	21
<b>Table 2:</b> International migrants since 1970.....	29
<b>Table 3:</b> Proportion of migrants by nationality.....	41
<b>Table 4:</b> Economic and social effects of illegal immigration on Southern Libya .....	66
<b>Table 5:</b> Current immigration policies and strategies in place to address illegal immigration in Southern Libya.....	67
<b>Table 6:</b> Potential solutions could be implemented to address illegal immigration in Southern Libya.....	69
<b>Table 7:</b> Regional and international cooperation be enhanced to address the root causes of illegal immigration.....	71
<b>Table 8:</b> Organized crime networks benefit from involvement in migrant smuggling	72
<b>Table 9:</b> Factors increasing migrant smuggling.....	74
<b>Table 10:</b> Stricter border control measures .....	75
<b>Table 11:</b> Government policies on migrant smuggling.....	76
<b>Table 12:</b> Initiatives or approaches effective in combating migrant smuggling.....	78
<b>Table 13:</b> International cooperation and migrant smuggling challenges .....	79
<b>Table 14:</b> Legislative or legal measures to deter and punish those involved in migrant smuggling.....	81
<b>Table 15:</b> Unemployment and increase illegal migration .....	82
<b>Table 16:</b> Investment and development's impact on illegal migration .....	84
<b>Table 17:</b> Investment and development and reduce illegal migration in southern Libya .....	85
<b>Table 18:</b> Types of investment to reduce illegal migration .....	87
<b>Table 19:</b> Government role in encouraging investment and development .....	88
<b>Table 20:</b> Challenges in reducing illegal immigration.....	89

## LIST OF FIGURES

<b>Figure 1:</b> Regions of origin of migrants by displacement tracking matrix (dtm) 2024	43
<b>Figure 2:</b> Number of migrants per region (mantika) during dtm round 51 of data collection by displacement tracking matrix (dtm) 2024 .....	43
<b>Figure 3:</b> Major migration routes by displacement tracking matrix (dtm) 2024 .....	44
<b>Figure 4:</b> Migrants in libya by region by displacement tracking matrix (dtm) 2024 ..	44
<b>Figure 5:</b> Percentages of migrants by country of origin for the sub-saharan africa region by displacement tracking matrix (dtm) 2024.....	45
<b>Figure 6:</b> Percentages of migrants by country of origin for the north african region by displacement tracking matrix (dtm) 2024.....	46
<b>Figure 7:</b> Percentages of migrants by country of origin for the middle east and south asia by displacement tracking matrix (dtm)2024 .....	47
<b>Figure 8:</b> Arrivals by sea via the central mediterranean route in january and february 2024 (dtm) 2024.....	49
<b>Figure 9:</b> Murzuq municipality (source : jarad et al., 2022).....	51
<b>Figure 10:</b> Al-Kufra municipality (source : jarad et al., 2022).....	52
<b>Figure 11:</b> Location of Ghat (source: jarad et al., 2022) .....	53

## **CURRICULUM VITAE**

Salih Barkah Toukah ANY, obtained a high school diploma in economics in 2010, then earned a bachelor's degree in business administration from the University of Sebha, Faculty of Economics and Accounting in Murzuq in 2014. After that, he traveled to Ghana and obtained a certificate in English proficiency. Subsequently, he continued his further education in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, where he completed a master's degree in business administration at Cyprus International University in 2019.

In addition to his academic achievements, he currently works as a lecturer at the University of Fezzan in Libya and holds a government position in his country. He also obtained a Turkish language certificate (TÖMER) from Karabük University. Since 2011, he has been a distinguished member and one of the founding figures of the Sons of the Desert Cultural and Social Association since its establishment in 2011. Additionally, he has a background as a football player and athlete with the Tamouh Club in Murzuq. Furthermore, he has previous experience in the social affairs sector in the Murzuq branch.