A Model Instrument for an Emergency Evacuation Visa

International Bar Association
The author is grateful to Madeline Garlick, Michelle Alfaro, Christof Portman and Ariel Riva, from UNHCR, for their feedback. The views expressed herein are solely those of the author.
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<th>Full Form</th>
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<td>AMIF</td>
<td>Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>CFR</td>
<td>[EU] Charter of Fundamental Rights</td>
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<td>CFSP</td>
<td>Common Foreign and Security Policy</td>
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<td>CPA</td>
<td>Comprehensive Plan of Action</td>
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<td>CRRF</td>
<td>Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework</td>
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<td>DISERO</td>
<td>Disembarkation Resettlement Offers</td>
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<td>DRC</td>
<td>Democratic Republic of Congo</td>
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<td>EASO</td>
<td>European Asylum Support Office</td>
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<td>EEV</td>
<td>emergency evacuation visa</td>
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<td>EMN</td>
<td>European Migration Network</td>
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<td>ERF</td>
<td>European Refugee Fund</td>
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<td>ETC</td>
<td>Emergency Transit Centre</td>
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<td>ETD</td>
<td>emergency travel document</td>
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<td>ETF</td>
<td>Evacuation Transit Facility</td>
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<td>ETM</td>
<td>Emergency Transit Mechanism</td>
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<tr>
<td>EUEXCOM</td>
<td>European Union Executive Committee [of UNHCR Programme]</td>
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<td>FAP</td>
<td>[German] Family Assistance Programme</td>
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<td>GCR</td>
<td>Global Compact on Refugees</td>
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<td>GRSI</td>
<td>Global Refugee Sponsorship Initiative</td>
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<td>HIV</td>
<td>human immunodeficiency viruses</td>
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<td>IBA</td>
<td>International Bar Association</td>
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<td>ICRC</td>
<td>International Committee of the Red Cross</td>
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<td>Irish Humanitarian Admission Programme</td>
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<td>IOM</td>
<td>International Organization for Migration</td>
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<td>LIBE</td>
<td>Committee on Civil Liberties, Justice and Home Affairs [of the European Parliament]</td>
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<tr>
<td>MSF</td>
<td>Médecins Sans Frontières</td>
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<tr>
<td>MENA</td>
<td>Middle East and North Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>non-governmental organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<td>PTA</td>
<td>Protection Transfer Agreement</td>
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<td>Rescue at Sea Resettlement Offers</td>
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<td>RRF</td>
<td>Resettlement Registration Form</td>
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<td>RSD</td>
<td>refugee status determination</td>
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<td>SOPsTB</td>
<td>standardised operating procedures tuberculosis</td>
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<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<td>UN General Assembly</td>
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<td>UN High Commissioner for Refugees</td>
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<td>UN Treaty Series Union Resettlement Framework</td>
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<td>VCRS</td>
<td>Vulnerable Children’s Resettlement Scheme</td>
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<td>VHAS</td>
<td>Voluntary Humanitarian Admission Scheme</td>
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<td>VPRS</td>
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Executive summary

The objective of this study is to offer an overview of available ‘complementary pathways’ to international protection, taking stock of existing initiatives across the world, relying on contemporary and historical examples to distil best practices as a basis for an emergency evacuation visa (EEV) that can be used in situations of urgent need of international protection. The background is provided by programmes emerged particularly after the ‘refugee crisis’ broke out in 2015, complementing resettlement and facilitating access to ‘durable solutions’. The growing need for imaginative, bottom-up, solution-orientated approaches to cater for an increasing global refugee population and the uneven distribution of efforts to host displaced persons provides the baseline to the EEV. State commitments undertaken in the 2016 New York Declaration and the 2018 Global Compact on Refugees, to provide legal pathways for admission on a sizeable and meaningful scale, are also taken into account. The final aim is to contribute to resolving the problem of safe and legal access to asylum, providing for a channel of direct access to international protection, rather than via a first country of refuge, creating an alternative to the reliance on smuggling and trafficking networks for particularly vulnerable groups. The ambition is to overcome the challenges and obstacles faced by existing schemes, to ensure their upscaling, streamlining and sustainability through time on the basis of a multi-stakeholder, collaborative effort that can be replicated and adapted to new situations.

With this in mind, Part I of the study introduces the central issues to confront, offering an overview of the main facts and figures that provide the reference point, noting the need for solidarity and responsibility-sharing in the design and implementation of mechanisms that facilitate access to protection. Key definitions and distinctions are introduced, including: ‘complementary pathways for admission’; ‘direct’ and ‘indirect’ routes to refuge; and ‘refugee specific’ and ‘non-refugee specific’ channels. The methodology employed to carry out the study as well as its structure and the content of the different chapters are presented.

Part II maps out the strategies developed to offer lines of access to asylum, exploring four groups of measures. Chapter 1 is devoted to ‘classic’ resettlement, as designed by UNHCR and as adapted by the main countries that have developed a regular programme. The chapter also includes an overview of regional initiatives, including the Comprehensive Plan of Action for Indochinese refugees and the EU Resettlement Framework Regulation proposal. Sponsorship schemes that reinforce and add to resettlement schemes are explored in chapter 2. These two first types of measures are considered to generally provide what can be called secondary means of access to refuge, in that they are typically aimed at internationally displaced persons who have already been recognised as refugees, who are hosted by a first country of asylum, but are otherwise in need of effective protection. Chapter 3 covers humanitarian visas, as emerged in national and regional practice, while chapter 4 addresses emergency evacuation schemes. This second group of measures, in contrast to the first group explored in chapters 1 and 2, generally offers channels of direct or primary access.
to international protection to displaced individuals in high-risk situations requiring asylum, whether still in their countries of origin or already in transit, and regardless of Refugee Convention status recognition.

Part III takes stock of lessons and conclusions from Part II chapters as the basis of the EEV proposal.

Resettlement, as scrutinised in chapter 1 of Part II, consists of the selection and transfer of already recognised refugees from a country of first asylum to a third state that agrees to admit them as refugees and eventually grants them permanent residence. The main reason for resettlement is the need for effective protection of particularly vulnerable refugees who have reached a country that cannot or will not provide it and where their situation is, therefore, precarious, undignified or unsafe, due to health, security or other reasons. UNHCR has developed a comprehensive set of standards and procedures that the main countries of resettlement, including the US, Canada and Australia, follow for the most part. The key precondition (and limitation) of resettlement is that it normally only covers persons who qualify for refugee status and have undergone a formal procedure to establish it. On top of this, potential beneficiaries must fall within one or more of the submission categories identified by UNHCR (as adapted in the country programme concerned), devised on vulnerability criteria. Then, the priority level of the case, whether ‘normal’, ‘urgent’ or ‘emergency’, will determine the length of processing times, although places and capacity to cater for the latter class are very limited. UNHCR distinguishes six phases in the procedure: (1) identification of candidates; (2) individual assessment; (3) case preparation; (4) internal submission decision and referral; (5) resettlement country decision; and (6) pre-departure arrangements, including cultural orientation, travel logistics and formalities, fit-for-travel screenings, escort and transit protocols. Resettlement countries may introduce an additional interview with candidates, background checks (for example, security, character and medical) and additional matters for consideration, such as integration potential, language proficiency, cultural and other ties with the country in question, which are not protection-related and may impair the fairness and non-arbitrariness of final decisions, slowing down the process. Most countries tend to rely on expansive exclusion grounds and deny access to resettlement, rarely providing a means to appeal or review negative decisions. Resettlement can also be rejected on the basis of health threats, as in the US, undue costs in care or community services, such as in Australia, or on broader migration control considerations, as in the EU programme proposal. It is for these reasons that alternative pathways have developed, relying on and expanding upon resettlement schemes.

As Chapter 2 shows, drawing on the Canadian example, community and private sponsorship initiatives, have proliferated, making available resettlement places to a wider spectrum of potential beneficiaries. These initiatives are characterised by a transfer of responsibility from state authorities to non-state actors for all or part of the resettlement action, including the identification and/or referral of candidates, pre-departure assistance, post-arrival reception and/or the integration process of beneficiaries in the country of destination. Nonetheless, state authorities retain...
final responsibility for the scheme; they determine qualification criteria for sponsors and potential beneficiaries, may co-fund programmes and shall step in if the sponsorship relationship breaks down. Among the benefits of these initiatives, there is the expansion of protection capacity they entail, enabling legal admission to groups that would normally not qualify for resettlement, especially on family grounds; the facilitation of integration of beneficiaries in their host communities, particularly when sponsors are family members of the beneficiary, such as in the German Family Assistance Programme (FAP) or the Irish Humanitarian Admission Programme (IHAP); the increase in societal support and acceptance of refugees they muster; and the private–public partnership element that allows for cost-effectiveness and multi-stakeholder collaboration. Several of the schemes examined in the chapter adhere to the principle of ‘additionality’, thus adding to the government resettlement quotas and creating additional protection space, with some also catering for persons who may still be in their country of origin, thereby opening up a direct route of primary access to asylum. The negative side of the balance counts criticism for the ‘privatisation’, if not ‘commodification’; the effect on protection; the wide variation that exists from scheme to scheme in terms of criteria, processing arrangements and final outcomes; and the accessibility issues that reliance on certain (especially private business and employer) partners (as in the Australian Community Support Programme) entails. ‘Blended schemes’, whereby referrals by resettlement partners (normally UNHCR) are matched with a community sponsor (as in the UK Vulnerable Person Resettlement Programme (VPRS) and the Vulnerable Children Resettlement Scheme (VCRS)), have come some way to address these problems.

Humanitarian visas, especially the ‘humanitarian corridors’ variant – introduced in Italy, France, Belgium and Andorra by the religious Community of Sant’Egidio, in cooperation with other faith-based groups – constitute an example of community sponsorship targeting non-recognised refugees and others in analogous situations in need of international protection. Chapter 3 examines the details of this as well as related initiatives at the regional level. Although the numbers catered for are typically small, and the schemes geographically bound to specific nationalities and limited in time, they provide a concrete example of direct engagement with the problem of primary access to asylum. The main difference from ‘classic’ resettlement and sponsorship initiatives is that humanitarian visas, in lieu of entailing a grant of a protective status directly on arrival, provide a channel of safe and legal access to the territory of the country concerned for the purpose of beneficiaries lodging an asylum application after entry. This allows for a ‘lighter’ procedure to be put in place, when compared to resettlement. Candidates are usually evaluated on a prima facie basis, screened for security risks, and assisted for travel to the country of destination. It is only once they reach the territory of the state issuing the humanitarian visa that they are admitted to the ordinary asylum system and their protection needs are assessed in the same way as those of ‘spontaneous arrivals’. This basic premise has bolstered recent efforts by the European Parliament to put together a harmonised procedure for the issuance of EU humanitarian visas to persons in need of international protection. This is different from the Voluntary Humanitarian Admission Scheme (VHAS) currently used to implement the EU-Turkey Statement of March 2016 and, in particular, the related 1:1 swap arrangement, according to which,
for every irregular migrant returned to Turkey from Greece, a Syrian national in Turkey is to be resettled in a EU country, which has been criticised as a migration control tool. The VHAS, which selects persons on a prima facie basis and issues temporary permits that (do not dis)allow candidates to submit full asylum applications on arrival, has served as a basis for the proposed EU expedited resettlement procedure, examined in chapter 4. By contrast, if ever adopted, EU humanitarian visas would constitute the first streamlined, open-ended, grand-scale attempt to provide for primary access to asylum. Its reliance on self-referral, prima facie determination of protection needs and swift processing times would create a credible substitute for smuggling and trafficking routes.

In situations in which needs are so urgent that they do not allow for detailed consideration of the circumstances and characteristics of potential refugees, several emergency mechanisms for their rapid transfer to safer locations have emerged. However, ‘emergency resettlement’ requires compliance with all resettlement formalities and may take too long to be effective. Country examples, in the US, Canada and Australia, demonstrate that this route is sub-optimal. The proposed EU ‘expedited resettlement’ procedure, if adopted, would overcome some of the problems faced by country-based emergency resettlement, in that it is based on prima facie eligibility and cuts down processing times significantly. However, it would not do away with case-by-case security screening, which can take prolonged periods, as the US (chiefly among the country examples) demonstrates. Due to the ineptness of ‘emergency resettlement’, Evacuation Transit Facilities (ETFs) have materialised to facilitate it. They take either the form of Emergency Transit Centres (ETCs), housing refugees in a central location as in the Romanian and Slovakian example, or Emergency Transit Mechanisms (ETMs), accommodating them in different places as in the cases of the Philippines, Costa Rica and Niger. They are intended as points of transition between countries of displacement and countries of final destination, so resettlement processing can be undertaken or completed in a secure environment. One key drawback of these initiatives is the precondition for ETF transfer, in the case of ETCs, requiring an offer by a potential resettlement country agreeing to pursue resettlement processing in the ETC concerned. In the case of ETMs, the main problem is with the slow ‘turnover’ of refugees; without rapid acceptance by resettlement countries, new arrivals to the ETM are slowed down. This has proven impractical to the point that, in some instances, the risks to life they were supposed to spare have materialised – the bombing of the Tajoura detention centre in Libya in July 2019, without detainees having been relocated to the Nigerien ETM or otherwise having accessed an alternative pathway to reach safety offers a tragic illustration.

Chapter 4 also examines evacuation programmes, focusing on the rapid transfer of persons at risk, typically without full screening, from within the country in which the emergency originates and directly to the country of final destination, on the basis of common arrangements and concerted action by different partners. The Italian programme for humanitarian evacuation from Libya, counting 710 evacuations since December 2017, and the (very small) EU Bethlehem evacuation scheme of 2002, rescuing 13 Palestinians during the Second Intifada, provide concrete examples.
Taking into account conclusions from the chapters in Part II, Part III systematises lessons learnt and produces a detailed proposal for an EEV mechanism. It draws on the UNHCR Three-Year Strategy (2019-2021) on Resettlement and Complementary Pathways and the UNHCR Strategic Directions 2017-2021 with the aim to contribute to the objective of facilitating the admission of two million persons in need of international protection via complementary pathways by the end of 2028. The EEV, accordingly, pursues three main goals: achieving concrete solidarity and responsibility-sharing vis-à-vis displaced populations and countries of first asylum; expanding access to durable solutions in emergency situations; and fostering self-reliance and autonomy on the part of beneficiaries. It takes account of UNHCR minimum standards, including respect and protection of refugee rights, non-discrimination, attention to vulnerability, objectivity of qualification/exclusion criteria, access to a legal status, family unity, due process and the best interests of the child. It constitutes an evidence-based, bottom-up innovation, relying on multi-stakeholder/multi-sectoral collaboration and articulating channels for refugee participation. It suggests that there be an EEV Working Group, chaired and coordinated by UNHCR, composed of state and non-state partners wishing to participate in EEV action, for the identification of EEV priorities. EEV priorities, it is proposed, are to be identified by consensus following UNHCR emergency assessment tools, according to which a humanitarian emergency is a situation wherein lives are threatened unless immediate action is taken – characterised by high levels of violence and insecurity, if not indiscriminate attacks on the civilian population, leading to vast numbers of persons being displaced and in dire need of protection. The criteria for the determination of ‘effective protection’ are also to be taken into account (as applied in the context of ‘safe third country’ removals) so that the presence of individuals in ‘unsafe’ countries or areas, taking account of the degree and plausibility of harm, determines (automatic) inclusion within the EEV scheme. The EEV Working Group is tasked with identifying a way in which EEV candidates can prove their presence within the EEV-designated area, including via registration with UNHCR or other partner organisations present in the field. Only candidates representing an ‘active security threat’, as defined by the EEV Working Group, should be rejected EEVs. To facilitate access to the scheme, arrangements should be made public, self-referrals possible and applications submitted either in person, by proxy or through electronic means. Processing times should be kept as short as possible and there should be an opportunity for unsuccessful applicants to object and resubmit rejected applications, without final rejections impeding access to protection through other channels. The EEV is, thus, proposed as a context-sensitive tool, targeting a particular, finite group, solely intended to facilitate travel of beneficiaries to the EEV issuing country for the purpose of submitting an asylum application. An EEV fund, with contributions from EEV partners, should be adopted to cover related expenses and create incentives, for example, in the form of ‘compensation’ for EEV-issuing countries. The Annex to Part III contains the Model Convention for EEVs, providing the main details in 12 provisions, proposed as a starting point to a discussion on EEVs.
Part I: Introducing the problem: ‘mass’ forced movements and access to asylum

1. Facts and figures

According to the latest statistics from the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), there are 70.8 million forcibly displaced persons worldwide, including 25.9 million refugees and 3.5 million asylum seekers.¹ The number of refugees has almost doubled since 2012.² And nearly 60 per cent are coming from just three countries: 6.7 million from Syria, 2.7 million from Afghanistan and 2.3 million from South Sudan, with 80 per cent of these populations remaining in countries within their region of origin. In fact, beside Germany, hosting 1.1 million refugees, no other Global North country features among the top ten countries of asylum. Eighty-five per cent are hosted by developing countries, with the least developed countries providing asylum to one-third of the global total of refugees, according to UNHCR.³ In the last five consecutive years, the main hosting country has been Turkey, with 3.7 million (mostly Syrian) refugees,⁴ followed by Pakistan, Uganda and Sudan, each with 1.4 million, 1.2 million and 1.1 million, respectively.⁵ Lebanon has continued to host the largest number of refugees per capita (ie, relative to its national population), on a one to six ratio, with every one in six people being a refugee. Jordan (one to 14) and Turkey (one to 22) rank second and third, respectively.⁶

Regarding solutions, it is worth noting that 78 per cent of all refugees are in a protracted refugee situation, defined as ‘one in which 25,000 or more refugees from the same nationality have been in exile for five consecutive years or more in a given host country’.⁷ More than half of this number are Syrians in the Middle East (in Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon and Turkey). In 2018, nine situations were newly classed as protracted, including South Sudanese refugees in Kenya, Sudan and Uganda; Pakistani refugees in Afghanistan; Nigerians in Cameroon and Niger; refugees from Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Somalia in South Africa; and Ukrainian refugees in the Russian Federation.⁸

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³ Ibid.
⁴ Ibid.
⁵ See n 1 above.
⁶ See n 2 above.
⁷ Ibid.
⁸ Ibid.
Also in 2018, more than three million Venezuelans left the country, travelling mainly within Latin America and towards the Caribbean. This is one of the biggest displacement crises in the world and the biggest exodus in the region’s recent history. The exodus from South Sudan and of Rohingyas out of Myanmar continues too. Solutions, however, have not been forthcoming. More asylum seekers have been rejected than accepted in potential host countries, and many remain stranded in precarious, dangerous and typically irregular situations, with a continued need for effective protection.

In recent years, by UNHCR’s own admission, it has become more difficult to rely on the traditional ‘durable solutions’ of voluntary repatriation, local integration or resettlement to address existing needs. There is a growing number of refugee situations in which repatriation is simply not an option due to persisting risks to life and fundamental rights. Local integration opportunities are also in decline and/or have become inaccessible due to policies of non-entrée and obstacles to reach asylum imposed by countries of destination and, increasingly, by transit countries. Regarding resettlement, divisive national debates and heightened attention to security concerns have rendered the establishment or expansion of resettlement programmes difficult in many countries – Belgium, for example, has even decided to suspend resettlement activities for the time being. The global landscape has, in fact, experienced a very significant shift since 2017. While state resettlement quotas grew significantly in the period 2012–2016 to respond to growing needs, with a 20-year record peak in 2016 of 163,200 submissions worldwide, there has been a 54 per cent fall thereafter. Based on current efforts, at today’s rates, it would take another 20 years for current resettlement needs to be fulfilled.

In response, the new Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (CRRF), which is part of the Global Compact on Refugees (GCR), includes additional measures, such as expanding access to resettlement, humanitarian programmes and other complementary pathways, which this study delves into. This is in line with state commitments, expressed in the New York Declaration, to ‘provide resettlement places and other legal pathways for admission on a scale that would enable the annual resettlement needs identified by UNHCR to be met’.

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9 Ibid.
10 Ibid, para 7.
12 Ibid, para 7.
The urgency of resolving the problem of procuring (safe and legal) access to asylum,\textsuperscript{16} particularly in situations of mass forced movement beyond the immediate neighbourhood of a refugee crisis, constitutes the focus of the next sections. Because there are no ‘refugee visas’ or similar mechanisms that individuals can autonomously activate to reach safe haven in third countries, it has been estimated that 90 per cent of all asylum seekers, subsequently granted a protective status in the European Union, had to arrive irregularly in the territories of the Member States.\textsuperscript{17} This number can easily be extrapolated to other situations in the Global North, considering that there are no general pathways for primary access to protection for those in need to arrive at the external borders of potential host countries from their countries of origin. As the next sections show in detail, resettlement provides an indirect route to asylum to those who have already been recognised as refugees according to the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (the ‘Refugee Convention’),\textsuperscript{18} so they can move from a country of first (unsuitable) refuge to a country of effective and durable protection – the transfer directly out of the country of origin to the country of destination not being, in principle, possible under UNHCR’s resettlement programme.\textsuperscript{19} However, direct channels to such effective and durable protection are usually ad hoc, if not one off, exercises, adopted by countries of destination in exceptional circumstances.

This is why border deaths are on the rise,\textsuperscript{20} with an estimated 36,000 fatalities in Europe alone since the records began in 1993.\textsuperscript{21} The lack of safe and legal pathways to protection makes recourse to smuggling and trafficking ‘services’ a structural necessity. Despite the recognition of the ‘right to asylum’ in the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights (CFR),\textsuperscript{22} the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights\textsuperscript{23} and the American Convention on Human Rights,\textsuperscript{24} translating the substance of Article 14 of the Universal Declaration on Human Rights and giving it legally binding form,\textsuperscript{25} there are no systematic, well-established means for exiles to reach protection through legal and safe lines, leaving no option but for them to risk their lives in perilous journeys.


\textsuperscript{19} See n 11 above, para 11.

\textsuperscript{20} For a comprehensive overview of worldwide border deaths through time, starting in 2014 with 1,658 fatalities registered across regions and up to 4,490 in 2016, the deadliest year on record so far, see IOM, Missing Migrants Project https://missingmigrants.iom.int accessed 26 July 2019.


\textsuperscript{22} Art 18, EU CFR (2010) OJ C 83/2.


\textsuperscript{24} Art 22(7), American Convention on Human Rights (1969) 1144 UNTS 123.

\textsuperscript{25} Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) UNGA res. 217A (III), UN Doc A/810/71.
2. In search of solutions

With this in mind, the present study for the International Bar Association (IBA) aims to identify the main features of complementary pathways against the background of the continuously growing number of forcibly displaced persons – which has trebled since the beginning of the decade, going from 10.5 million refugees and 0.8 million asylum seekers worldwide in 2010, up to 25.9 million refugees and 3.5 million asylum seekers in the first half of 2019.\(^{26}\) The objective is to streamline rapid-reaction schemes for countries of destination to be better equipped to respond to urgent protection needs in an effective way.

The research, accordingly, draws on instances of best practice, at the global and regional level, of reactions to emergency situations producing a massive exodus of persons fleeing in search of international protection. Both recent and historic examples are taken into account to distil the key elements that an adequate evacuation mechanism (different from, but complementary to, existing resettlement schemes) should comprise to be effective and attractive to states and other potential partners. The core of the paper, hence, focuses on an in-depth investigation of the characteristics that an ‘emergency evacuation visa’ (EEV) should have, to guarantee feasibility and political purchase, on the understanding that the mechanism must respect state sovereignty and human rights (especially the principle of non-refoulement). Key definitions, processes and arrangements are discussed in detail, including in the accompanying annex that presents an article-by-article ‘Model Convention’ for universal adoption, in line with the UNHCR Three-Year Strategy (2019–2021) on Resettlement and Complementary Pathways\(^{27}\) – adopted to give effect to the Global Compact provisions.\(^{28}\)

Countries in the Global North have all, at some point, opened procedures of humanitarian admission for different reasons, typically asylum-related, but also on medical, family-based, and, sometimes, purely compassionate grounds.\(^{29}\) The term ‘humanitarian admission’ is used loosely in this context and can have different meanings.\(^{30}\) According to one definition, it signifies ‘an ad hoc initiative operated in response to a particular humanitarian need or displacement situation and limited to a specific group of beneficiaries… admitting persons for humanitarian reasons’.\(^{31}\) In this guise, it supplies ‘complementary pathways for admission’,


\(^{28}\) See n 14 above, para 91.


which in UNHCR language are defined as ‘safe and regulated avenues for refugees that complement resettlement by providing lawful stay in a third country where their international protection needs are met’.\textsuperscript{32} It does not substitute resettlement or replace the protection owed to ‘spontaneous arrivals’ but rather complements existing ‘solutions’ and creates means of access to durable protection in third countries (distinct from the country of origin and the country of the refugee’s first asylum, if there is one). The table below illustrates this relationship.

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<th>Third country solutions</th>
<th>Complementary pathways of humanitarian admission</th>
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<td>RESETTLEMENT</td>
<td>Sponsorship</td>
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<td>Emergency evacuation</td>
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<td>Humanitarian visas</td>
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Table 1. Complementary pathways.\textsuperscript{33}

The typology of these mechanisms has been diverse, ranging from ‘classic’ resettlement programmes, private sponsorship mechanisms and ‘humanitarian corridors’ to emergency transit and evacuation schemes.\textsuperscript{34} There are generally two types of complementary pathways: refugee specific, specifically intended for persons in need of international protection, and non-refugee specific, such as education or labour-related, as well as family reunification-based programmes, expanding access to legal migration routes by adapting the relevant criteria and processes to the needs of refugees.\textsuperscript{35}

The next sections focus particularly on the former, that is, the refugee specific ‘branch’ of complementary pathways, showing how, apart from established (yearly or otherwise regular) resettlement plans, these initiatives tend to be small scale, ad hoc and based on state discretion. Most of the programmes assign a key role to UNHCR for the identification and/or referral of potential beneficiaries, while the final decision on

\textsuperscript{32} See n 11 above, para 16.
\textsuperscript{33} The table takes inspiration from the one included in UNHCR, Complementary pathways for admission of refugees to third countries: Key considerations (April 2019), p 5 www.refworld.org/pdfid/5cebf3fc4.pdf accessed 26 July 2019.
admission remains solely in the hands of the state concerned. At the end of the process, recipients may be granted the same, or a similar, status to candidates processed through the ‘normal’ asylum procedure, typically carried out inland, used for ‘spontaneous arrivals’. However, qualification criteria, processing rules, pre-departure and post-arrival arrangements vary considerably from scheme to scheme, creating an obstacle to the accessibility, sustainability and scalability of these programmes.

3. Methodology and structure of the study

There is no systematic data collection or global reporting mechanism that enables the presentation of a clear and comprehensive picture of the humanitarian admission programmes that exist. To start overcoming this scarcity of global baseline data, UNHCR jointly with the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) has undertaken a study focusing on non-refugee-specific pathways. The study tracks and records 566,900 ‘first entry permits’ granted for study, work or family purposes by OECD destination countries, from 2010 to 2017, to nationals of the five main refugee-producing states in the reporting period: (in alphabetical order) Afghanistan, Eritrea, Iraq, Somalia and Syria. The study also notes that there are gaps, data quality issues and general difficulties in accessing the relevant documentation.

States have been slow in relaying information on their humanitarian admission programmes. This is in spite of obligations to cooperate with UNHCR in the fulfilment of its mandate, which includes a supervisory function; according to Article 35 of the Refugee Convention, the agency has the obligation to discharge ‘its duty of supervising the application of the provisions of [the] Convention’, which is reaffirmed and expanded in its statute to cover also the duty of ‘promoting the conclusion and ratification of international conventions for the protection of refugees, supervising their application and proposing amendments thereto’ [emphasis author’s own]. However, states consider their humanitarian admission programmes to fall squarely within the remit of their sovereign prerogatives and, therefore, beyond the scope of their existing international legal commitments.

The same problems have been faced regarding the compilation of information on refugee-specific pathways, which are the focus of the following sections. Therefore, considering accessibility restrictions, lack of good quality data and the absence of comprehensive statistical information, the present study deploys a ‘sampling method’ technique, selecting examples of good and bad practice from different countries and regions of the world for illustrative purposes.

36 Offshore processing schemes as developed in Australia and the US, in so far as they do not concern the facilitation of access to protection, whether through primary or secondary routes, are excluded from this exploration.
37 See n 11 above, para 20.
39 See also Art II of the Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees (1967) 606 UNTS 267.
With the above considerations in mind, the next chapters within Part II of this study explore four groups of measures. The first is ‘classic’ resettlement, scrutinised in chapter 1, as designed by UNHCR and as adapted by the main countries of resettlement, including an overview of past and current regional initiatives. The Comprehensive Plan of Action (CPA) for Indochinese refugees and the EU Joint Resettlement Programme are discussed in some detail. Then, ‘private’ resettlement initiatives, in the form of community and private sponsorship schemes are explored in chapter 2. These two first types of measures are considered to generally provide what can be called ‘secondary’ means of access to protection, offered typically to already-recognised refugees hosted in a first country of asylum, for them to reach ‘effective’ protection in a third country of (re-)settlement. Chapters 3 and 4 focus, in turn, on measures offering a channel of direct or ‘primary’ access to international protection to displaced individuals in need of asylum, in high-risk situations, including yet-to-be-recognised refugees and persons in analogous circumstances. Humanitarian visas, as recently experimented with in several countries, in response to the international protection needs of Syrian, Eritrean and other vulnerable nationality groups, are addressed in chapter 3. Proposals at regional (EU) level are also included. Finally, chapter 4 deals with emergency evacuation programmes. The recent UNHCR Emergency Transit Mechanism (ETM) for evacuations out of Libya are covered in some depth. Lessons and conclusions from the previous chapters are taken into account as the basis for the ‘EEV’ initiative proposed in Part III. A series of recommendations closes the study in the form of an EEV Model Convention contained in the annex, with the objective of setting the ground for a conversation on an effective evacuation mechanism that bridges existing gaps and overcomes the obstacles encountered by existing ‘complementary pathways’.
Part II: Mapping out the solutions

Chapter 1. Resettlement

1. Introduction

Together with repatriation and local integration, resettlement is one of the ‘durable solutions’ for refugees promoted by UNHCR. It consists of the selection and transfer of already-recognized refugees from a country of first asylum to a third state that agrees to admit them as refugees and eventually grants them permanent residence. The main reason for resettlement is the need for ‘effective’ protection of particularly vulnerable refugees who have reached a country of asylum where their situation is precarious, undignified or unsafe, due to health, security, refoulement risks or other reasons. UNHCR has developed a set of standards and procedures for resettlement that are explored in section 2. These provide the basis for the different iterations of resettlement procedures at national level, as well as of other complementary pathways analysed in the next chapters, thus deserving close attention. Section 3, then, discusses the three major national resettlement programmes, as developed in the United States, Canada and Australia. Section 4 looks at regional experiences, examining the CPA for Indochinese Refugees (1989–1996) and considering the reasons for its success. Initiatives at EU level are included as well. Conclusions are summarised in section 5.

2. UNHCR resettlement programme

To be submitted for resettlement, individuals must meet the preconditions for resettlement consideration, defined by UNHCR, and fall under one or more of the UNHCR resettlement submission categories, as elaborated on in section 2.1. Then, the priority level of the case has an impact on the timing of the submission to a potential country of resettlement, which can be classified as ‘emergency’, ‘urgent’ or ‘normal’, as explained in section 2.2. Finally, accepted submissions, as section 2.3 elucidates, go through a number of pre-departure arrangements before travelling to the final resettlement destination.

2.1 Qualification: preconditions and criteria

There are two preconditions for resettlement. First, the applicant must be determined to be a refugee by UNHCR – although exceptions can be made for non-refugee dependent family members, to retain family unity, and with regard to non-refugee stateless persons for whom resettlement is deemed to be the most appropriate durable solution. Second, the prospects for all durable solutions were assessed and resettlement identified as the most appropriate in the particular case.

42 Information in this section follows the Resettlement Handbook (ibid), and is based on UNHCR, Resettlement Submission Categories (undated) www.unhcr.org/558bff849.pdf accessed 26 July 2019.
If the preconditions are met, UNHCR looks for vulnerability indicators that translate the resettlement submission categories. Applicants must fall within one or more of these categories, having legal and/or physical protection needs; being torture or violence survivors; having particular medical needs; being minors or women or girls at risk; requiring family reunification; and/or lacking any other alternative durable solutions in the foreseeable future. These categories should be broadly understood, taking account of possible overlaps and complementarity between them. They should be interpreted inclusively, in favour of the applicant, rather than narrowly construed.

Refugees facing legal and/or physical protection needs are those considered at risk of an immediate or long-term threat of (direct or indirect) refoulement (whether directly to the country of origin or via expulsion to an intermediary state, from where the refugee may be expelled). In addition, refugees at risk of arbitrary arrest, detention or imprisonment, or at risk of a violation of their physical integrity or human rights in the country of refuge also qualify. These risks/threats must be real and direct rather than accidental or collateral. They may target either the individual refugee or an entire group and the risk/threat must continue to exist at the time the decision to resettle is being taken.\(^{43}\)

Regarding torture and violence, UNHCR encourages a broad interpretation of both terms. Accordingly, torture and/or violence survivors, for the purposes of refugee resettlement, are those who may have been subjected to, experienced or witnessed physical harm or severe mistreatment, including sexual and gender-based violence; severe humiliation, debasement or intimidation; substantial non-criminal detention, including abduction and kidnapping; the violent killing or severe ill-treatment, including rape, of close family members; and similarly grave violations. A resettlement candidate submitted under this category will have experienced torture and/or violence either in the country of origin or the country of asylum; may be suffering from post-traumatic physical or psychological effects (that may or may not be visible or immediately apparent through physical signs or psychological symptoms); could face further traumatisation and/or a heightened risk of re-victimisation due to the unsuitable conditions in the country of asylum; and may require medical or psychological care, including specific support, therapy or counselling, which is not available in the country of asylum, requiring resettlement to meet their needs. In these circumstances, the ideal submission will include an expert assessment by a psychologist/psychiatrist and a medical report, certifying any physical injuries or bodily symptoms.\(^{44}\)

Resettlement spaces for those with special medical needs are very limited. The resettlement decision, in these situations, is to be taken as soon as possible upon the identification of medical conditions warranting resettlement and be based on an independent medical assessment undertaken by a qualified medical doctor completing a medical assessment form, specifying the diagnosis and prognosis of the patient. Supporting evidence, in the form of X-rays, ultrasounds or specialised medical reports, must also be included in the file. Four cumulative conditions must be met to proceed with

\(^{43}\) See n 41 above, 247 ff.

\(^{44}\) See n 41 above, 250 ff.
resettlement. First, in terms of diagnosis, there needs to be a life-threatening condition, irreversible loss of vital functions or some other obstacle to normal life. Second, the treatment necessary must not be available or otherwise accessible in the country of asylum, with a medical evacuation not being feasible or sufficient. Third, there must be a favourable prognosis for cure or substantial improvement in the resettlement country, with a stay in the country of first asylum being deemed a liability, as either aggravating the condition of the resettlement candidate and/or worsening their quality of life and/or life expectancy. Finally, the informed consent of the individual is required, with resettlement being executed only if it is the expressed wish of the candidate.\textsuperscript{45}

The rationale for the special resettlement category of women and girls at risk is found in the Executive Committee of the UNHCR Programme (EXCOM) Conclusion 105/2006.\textsuperscript{46} The objective here is to provide international protection and assistance through resettlement to refugee women and girls facing particular protection issues due to their gender; to establish priority processing and expedited departure for women and girl refugees considered ‘at risk’; to ensure that refugee women and girls at risk receive the specialised care and appropriate support they require upon arrival in the country of resettlement, so as to facilitate their integration and achieve self-sufficiency; and to highlight the need for other (short-term) protection interventions pending resettlement. Women and girls at risk are defined by UNHCR as those who encounter protection deficits due to their gender. They may be single mothers, heads of families, and/or unaccompanied or separated women or girls. Resettlement should be considered as the most appropriate solution when the woman or girl in question finds herself in a precarious security situation or is the target of a physical protection threat resulting from her gender; when she has specific protection needs arising from past trauma and/or persecution; when she faces severe hardship potentially leading to exploitation and abuse; or when she lacks access to other traditional protection and support mechanisms. Concrete examples of women and girls ‘at risk’ in countries of first asylum are women and girls exposed to the risk of being trafficked, raped, abused or forced into prostitution; who may be subjected to domestic or sexual violence, sexual harassment or exploitation; or who may be stigmatised by their families or the wider community and face threats of violence as a result.\textsuperscript{47}

Resettlement can, and does, provide a means for family reunification to refugees. UNHCR fosters an inclusive and culturally sensitive interpretation of ‘family’, including, at a minimum, spouses and children, and focuses on the concept of (economic/social/emotional) dependency. The principle of family unity is the justification for this resettlement category,\textsuperscript{48} which, according to UNHCR, should be supported and promoted at all times when dealing with refugees and other persons of concern. As a result, the main objective is to keep all family members together when being resettled, or to use resettlement to achieve family

\textsuperscript{45} Ibid 256 ff.

\textsuperscript{46} Conclusion on Women and Girls at Risk, Conclusion No 105 (LVII) – 2006, UNHCR Executive Committee (EXCOM) 56th session, UN Doc A/AC.96/1035 (2006).

\textsuperscript{47} See n 41 above, 261 ff.

\textsuperscript{48} Conclusion on Family Reunification, Conclusion No 24 (XXXII) – 1981, UNHCR EXCOM 32nd session, UN Doc 12A (A/36/12/Add.1) (1981).
unity in the resettlement country, when the separation was involuntary and related to the refugee situation. There are four conditions to be met for resettlement under this category: at least one person within the family unit to be reunited must be a refugee or otherwise a person of concern to UNHCR (including asylum seekers, internally displaced persons, stateless persons and others in need of international protection); the individuals to be reunited are family members under UNHCR’s (dependency-based) definition; the individuals are reuniting with a member of the family already present in the resettlement country concerned; and the availability and accessibility of other family reunification or migration options are inadequate and/or not available in the circumstances, given the resettlement needs and protection implications for the family member.\(^\text{49}\)

The resettlement category of children and adolescents at risk comprises minors (under the age of 18) with compelling protection needs, who are not (and cannot be) addressed in the country of first asylum, and who may or may not be unaccompanied or separated from their families. In regard to them, a Best Interests Determination, based on the ‘best interests of the child’ principle,\(^\text{50}\) must be carried out to identify whether resettlement is the most appropriate solution in their individual circumstances. The assessment must also seek to establish any family relations and evaluate the services and support offered in both the country of first asylum and the potential resettlement country. To facilitate family tracing and potential reunification at a later stage, in cases of unaccompanied and separated children, detailed records must be kept. If candidates are also victims of violence, torture survivors or otherwise fit another of the resettlement categories, they should also be considered under them. The rationale is to maximise the protection of minors who are refugees, attending to their particular protection needs.\(^\text{51}\)

The final resettlement category is composed of those refugees who lack any foreseeable alternative durable solution. These are refugees who have an ongoing (and otherwise non-urgent) need for resettlement to bring their refugee situation to an end. These are refugees who are unable to return to their countries of origin due to a persisting need for international protection, but who can also not integrate locally within the country of first asylum for different motives. Resettlement in these cases is used to tackle long-term, protracted refugee situations. It is, for this reason, most commonly used as a group measure – although it may also apply to specific individuals – and implemented upon consultation and in coordination with national or regional strategies, to address the needs of specific populations. When considering submission under this category, the priorities of resettlement countries and any possible adverse effects are to be assessed on account of a number of indicators, including: the quality of protection and conditions of asylum in the country of refuge; the general socio-economic and psycho-social situation of the targeted group and wider population; and any (real) prospects of voluntary repatriation or local integration in the foreseeable future.\(^\text{52}\)

\(^{49}\) See n 41 above, 269 ff.

\(^{50}\) Art 3(1), Convention on the Rights of the Child, (1989) 1577 UNTS 3: ‘In all actions concerning children, whether undertaken by public or private social welfare institutions, courts of law, administrative authorities or legislative bodies, the best interests of the child shall be a primary consideration.’ In this regard, see UNHCR, Guidelines on Determining the Best Interests of the Child (May 2008) www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/48480c342.html accessed 26 July 2019.

\(^{51}\) Conclusion on Children at Risk, Conclusion No 107 (LVIII) – 2007, UNHCR EXCOM 56th session, UN Doc A/AC.96/1048 (2007). See also n 41 above, 283 ff.

\(^{52}\) See n 41 above, 287 ff.
2.2 Priority levels and procedures

Once it has been established by UNHCR that the preconditions for resettlement and the resettlement submission categories have been satisfied, priority levels are decided according to both protection and operational considerations on the ground. The vast majority of cases are processed as ‘normal’, where there are no immediate medical, social or security concerns, which would otherwise justify expedited processing. In these situations there are no specific timelines but a general target of minimisation of waiting times between identification, submission and departure, so cases do not transform into urgent or emergency situations. ‘Urgent’ cases are those classified as such when serious medical risks or other vulnerabilities require expedited resettlement within six weeks from the date of submission, which, ideally, should take place within two weeks from the date of identification – so that the total waiting time does not exceed two months. Finally, ‘emergency’ cases are those warranting immediate removal due to exceptional security and/or medical concerns. In these situations, the target is for a one-week interval between the submission and departure of the refugee to their country of resettlement.

Although there are three possible categorisations, ‘urgent’ and ‘emergency’ places are very limited, and submissions are deemed to require very careful assessment to determine refugee qualification criteria, establish credibility, and assess the asylum and resettlement conditions in the countries of first refuge and potential destination. The table below exemplifies how priority levels are decided for medical cases:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Priority level</th>
<th>Severity of condition</th>
<th>Time frame for medical intervention</th>
<th>Time frame for resettlement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emergency</td>
<td>Immediately life threatening (ie, life-saving surgery)</td>
<td>Less than one month</td>
<td>Within one week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urgent</td>
<td>Requires life-saving interventions, but condition is not immediately life threatening</td>
<td>One to six months</td>
<td>Within six weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>At risk of major progression or complication without further intervention (eg, many cancers)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>Not life threatening or at risk of major progression/complication, but requires intervention in order to ensure reduction of risk of progression/complications and to improve the person’s quality of life and overall functioning</td>
<td>Up to six months</td>
<td>Within 52 weeks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Resettlement priority levels for medical cases.

Procedural standards regarding resettlement generally include the ‘correct and consistent’ application of the resettlement submission categories and the processing of each individual file, on the understanding that ‘a coherent and transparent approach will strengthen the credibility of UNHCR and widen the confidence of refugees, resettlement

53 See n 42 above.
54 Ibid.
countries and other partners’. Documentation of every step taken and of every piece of information relevant to the case inserted in the proGres database supports this endeavour, as do several other checks and quality assurance filters introduced at different stages of the process. Yet, the process, at the end of the day, runs on a non-legal basis, without binding safeguards, and with no subject to judicial review or any other form of external oversight that can deliver an effective remedy in cases of rejection of an application on the part of UNHCR or a resettlement partner.

Nonetheless, the UNHCR Resettlement Handbook (the ‘Handbook’) details the best practice standards to be followed in the six stages of the resettlement procedure: (1) identification of refugees in need of resettlement; (2) assessment of individual resettlement needs; (3) preparation of a resettlement submission; (4) UNHCR submission decision; (5) resettlement country decision; and (6) pre-departure arrangements, counselling and monitoring.

The identification of cases can happen through different routes. It can be at the point of registration by UNHCR, through mapping exercises or via data analysis that resettlement needs become apparent on consideration of particular individual or family situations or other details of the refugees’ specific profile. Otherwise, it can happen through consultation with internal staff or external partners. Alternatively, a referral system is the most effective way. Referrals may be made internally by UNHCR staff (eg, by field officers in direct contact with refugees), by external resettlement partners (eg, non-governmental organisation (NGO) partners assisting UNHCR with implementation) or directly by the concerned refugee themselves, a family member or a friend, as a ‘self-referral’. The latter type of referral is approached with caution, however, on account of potential bias, credibility issues, lack of control on the information supplied and the possibility of fraud. In these cases, the Handbook requires that there be clear and standardised procedures, including a process to verify the details provided, whether through an interview, home-visit or file study, exercising extra care to maintain confidentiality and properly managing any expectations raised. All unsolicited submissions are to be responded to and possibly redirected to partner organisations, if appropriate. In addition it is considered that ‘[a] resettlement programme’s heavy reliance on self-referrals as a means to identify resettlement needs may indicate systemic problems or gaps in the protection framework of the operation’ – thereby making clear that resettlement should...

55 Ibid. See also n 41 above, 120–121 and 125–127; and UNHCR, Baseline Standard Operating Procedures on Resettlement, revised version 2011 (Internal) http://swigea56.hcrnet.ch/refworld/docid/48b6997d2.html accessed 26 July 2019.

56 See n 41 above, 120, 222, and 151–159, generally on records management and file security.

57 For example, on the designation of an ‘accountable officer’, see n 42 above, pp 122–123.

58 See n 41 above, pp 299 ff.

59 Ibid 220 ff.

60 Ibid 226–228.

61 Ibid 228–233.

not be considered a channel for direct and individual access to (effective) protection. On the contrary, in the design of resettlement intervention plans, strategic priorities, as identified in the Global Resettlement Needs (by country of origin and by country of asylum), should normally be taken into account alongside the resettlement submission categories (by vulnerability) and time-urgency levels identified above.

With regard to the verification (upon identification) and assessment of an individual case, the Handbook specifies that when cases are referred internally, as a safeguard, ‘the staff member who conducts [the] verification and assessment should be different from the person who referred the case’. The objective with this is ‘to strengthen objectivity, bridge gaps in quality assurance, reduce perceptions of individual bias and safeguard against fraud’. Then, each refugee being considered for resettlement should be interviewed independently from any family members or other contacts to ensure that information is ‘accurate and not biased by resettlement considerations’ and that ‘it does not raise premature resettlement expectations on the part of the refugee’.  

The refugee status determination (RSD) procedure, underpinning any resettlement decision, will have been taken by RSD-trained staff and ‘fully documented, including the decision, the grounds on which the individual has been recognized, a credibility assessment and any exclusion considerations as applicable’. In fact, the role of the resettlement interview is not to rehearse RSD or examine the underpinning claims in detail. The interviewer should rather focus on clarifying any missing information and address inconsistencies that may give rise to questions by resettlement states, filling chronology gaps and/or verifying the accuracy of UNHCR records. In cases where the resettlement submission is based on prima facie recognition, it suffices for the interviewer to corroborate that there are no evident exclusion elements precluding such recognition.

Decision-making in the subsequent stage is assisted by a standard Resettlement Needs Assessment Form, which may be adapted to the specific local context. This form can be used for the ‘preliminary resettlement needs assessment’, whereby the responsible staff shall verify that there is sufficient information available to make a proper assessment of the need for resettlement (such as medical assessments or Best Interests Determination in cases involving children); identify any problems with the file (including fraud indicators); review the protection environment and appropriateness of resettlement as the preferred solution; assess resettlement need and identify

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63 See n 41 above, 233.
65 Fraud can be internal, if committed by UNHCR staff or those under a contractual relationship with them, or external, if committed by others, including the resettlement candidate. Fraud can relate to identity, family composition, documentation, bribery, etc. See further n 41 above, p 304 and pp 127–141; and UNHCR, Policy and Procedural Guidelines: Addressing Resettlement Fraud Perpetrated by Refugees, March 2008 www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/47d7d7372.html accessed 26 July 2019. An internal complaint mechanism is foreseen in n 41 above, 133–134.
66 See n 41 above, 305.
67 Ibid 309.
68 Ibid 321.
69 Ibid, Annex of the Baseline SOPs.
resettlement submission categories; check for family links; and evaluate the priority of the case. On the basis of this, a written summary is to be produced, including a recommendation for: (1) additional information; (2) a recommendation to consider the case founded; or (3) a recommendation to consider it unfounded. If the latter, the referral source (whether internal to UNHCR, external or unsolicited, including self-referrals) must be notified that the refugee will not be considered for resettlement referral to a potential resettlement country.\textsuperscript{70}

At that point, the refugee file, including the assessment and recommendation, must be reviewed by a (different) ‘supervising officer’, who will request further information from the referral source and/or interview the refugee, if this is necessary to complete the assessment; schedule a ‘resettlement interview’ with the candidate\textsuperscript{71} in an age-appropriate, gender and diversity-sensitive manner, assisted by an interpreter when necessary,\textsuperscript{72} and with sufficient background knowledge of the conditions in both the country of origin and country of first asylum of the candidate,\textsuperscript{73} if the recommendation was to deem the case founded; or, if the resettlement intervention appears, conversely, to be unfounded, notify the referral source ‘preferably… in writing’ and ‘outlining the basis of this assessment’.\textsuperscript{74} No further review is to be undertaken and no appeal or other way to challenge a negative decision is available at that point. Nonetheless, ‘[t]he referral source may request UNHCR [in writing] to reconsider this assessment [in future] if circumstances change or new elements arise’.\textsuperscript{75}

In founded cases, a \textit{Resettlement Registration Form} (RRF) will be generated and attached to all available documentation.\textsuperscript{76} The RRF is essential.\textsuperscript{77} It is the primary tool to represent the need for resettlement of individual refugees to potential resettlement countries. Actually, states may base their decisions to accept resettlement solely on ‘dossier submissions’ submitted via RRFs.\textsuperscript{78} This is why the \textit{Handbook} contains section-by-section guidance on how to complete the RRF, including case-related information; individual bio-data; details on relatives; details on the refugee claim of the principal applicant, spouse and any dependents included in the case (drawing from the relevant sections of the RSD Assessment Form, including a summary of the facts and their legal assessment substantiating qualification as a refugee, as well as details on the exclusion evaluation); considerations on the need for resettlement, especially the lack of prospects for voluntary repatriation or local integration, an indication of the specific resettlement

\begin{flushright}
\textsuperscript{70} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{71} On the preparation and conduct of the interview, see n 41 above, 316–319. There are also family-specific (319–320, 323–325 on polygamous families, 330–335 on case composition), age-specific (325–327) and gender-specific (328–329 on home visits) guidelines.
\textsuperscript{72} On the tasks, profile and selection of interpreters, see n 41 above, 314–316. See further, UNHCR, Guidelines for the recruitment, training, supervision and conditions of service for interpreters in a refugee context, IOM/005-FOM/005/2009 (Internal) http://swigea57.hcrnet.ch/refworld/pdfid/497f147c2.pdf accessed 26 July 2019.
\textsuperscript{73} See n 41 above, 313.
\textsuperscript{74} Ibid. 310.
\textsuperscript{75} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{76} On the attachments, see n 41 above, 348–349.
\textsuperscript{77} There are country-specific guides to correctly complete RRFs, see n 41 above, 349.
\textsuperscript{78} Ibid 335.
\end{flushright}
submission category and prioritisation level, and, if the priority level is ‘emergency’ or ‘urgent’, a statement of reasons for prioritisation; a specific needs assessment, considering individual requirements to ensure effective post-resettlement, on-arrival services; any other relevant information (such as extended explanations on family links, reasons for inconsistencies and discrepancies in the information provided); and a final declaration by the candidate, countersigned by UNHCR and any interpreter that may have intervened, to affirm and guarantee that the information is correct and complete. The declaration is important because it authorises UNHCR to share the information contained in the RRF with resettlement countries and allows for an appropriate resettlement destination to be found. However, case files are not shared with the refugees themselves. They are only entitled to copies of the sections of their RRFs containing information that they provided, but not information obtained or generated by UNHCR, including ‘interview transcripts, case assessments, instructions or legal opinions from UNHCR offices, correspondence with UNHCR offices and external parties, medical and social counselling records’. ‘Staff safety considerations’ underpin this decision to maintain confidentiality, which, on the other hand, impedes early detection of repairable mistakes by referral sources and resettlement candidates, and undermines the perception of fairness, impartiality and transparency of the process.

As an assurance of quality control, once the RRF has been completed, a different staff member from the one who produced the RRF file, acting as an ‘accountable officer’, should conduct a review before referring the case to a regional office or to UNHCR headquarters, and prior to submission to a resettlement country. On completion of the review, resettlement submissions must be routed through the regional resettlement office to guarantee the integrity and uniformity of the resettlement process. At that point, an additional review is to be conducted by a ‘reviewing officer’ of the RRF and all attachments to check refugee status; resettlement need; completeness of the file and adequacy of the evidentiary base; clarity, readability and consistency (both internally and with other cases); and any indication of fraud, malfeasance, corruption or disregard of the applicable procedures. If things go well, the regional office or UNHCR headquarters will proceed with the decision to resettle. But the result of this exercise can also be that, on review of the RRF and the case file, it is concluded that the refugee is ineligible for resettlement. In such case, the Handbook foresees that ‘all members of the case should be scheduled for counselling as soon as possible’, but it does not specify further outcomes or possibilities for the candidate or the referral

80 See n 41 above, 346–348.
81 Ibid 352.
83 See n 41 above, 350.
84 Ibid 351.
85 Ibid 352.
partner to request a review and reconsideration of the case, which, again, undermines the perception of fairness, impartiality and transparency of the process.

In the case of a final positive decision to resettle, the next step is the determination of a country of submission. Such determination must take account of several protection-related and non-protection-related considerations. Among the protection-related factors, the Handbook specifies ‘resettlement submission priority, vulnerability, and the resettlement country’s average processing time and capacity for urgent processing’ alongside ‘family configuration’ and ‘health requirements and the availability of treatment’. But there are also post-arrival integration factors, such as family links and support networks in the potential resettlement country, language proficiency of the candidate and other (unspecified) ‘cultural aspects’ to be taken into account. Finally, a third group of elements has only to do with resettlement states’ discretion, as articulated in their selection criteria and admission priorities, annual quotas and nationality preferences. By contrast, because resettlement is based on voluntary, sovereignty-based, goodwill decisions by states, the ‘refugee’s expressed preference for a resettlement country’ is to be taken into account only ‘if possible’.

Normally, cases are submitted to one resettlement country only and, if resettlement decisions deadlines pass without a final decision on the submission, consideration may be given to a possible withdrawal of the case and resubmission to another state with capacity to take an expedited decision. Whatever the situation, UNHCR retains the responsibility to communicate any supervening changes that come to its attention to the resettlement country in question. Multiple, simultaneous submissions to two or more potential hosts are reserved for ‘emergency’ cases only, upon consultation with the countries concerned and in agreement with the Resettlement Service at UNHCR headquarters.

In reality, UNHCR cannot guarantee resettlement. It may submit cases for the consideration of resettlement countries, but cannot ensure that they will be accepted. Some resettlement countries may reserve places to ‘dossier submissions’, relying on UNHCR’s selection, rather than conducting (additional) interviews with candidates themselves, specifying the populations they wish to resettle, whether from specific nationalities or from groups with particular vulnerabilities. In other cases, resettlement countries may require an individual interview with potential beneficiaries, undertaken during ‘selection missions’ to the country of first asylum. These interviews are conducted outside of UNHCR’s control, according to criteria under national law/policy, which may or may not follow Handbook guidelines. In both scenarios, final decisions lie with the resettlement country concerned.

The end result may be acceptance, in which case the next step is preparation for pre-departure processing in close collaboration with governments, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and relevant NGO staff. In case of a rejection, UNHCR

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86 Ibid 361 ff.
87 Ibid 354.
88 On withdrawals and responses to delays in processing, see n 41 above, 369–370.
89 See n 41 above, 365.
90 Ibid 358.
is to review the decision and re-evaluate the case to establish whether resubmission to a different resettlement country may be appropriate.\textsuperscript{91} One difficulty is that rejections can be tacit and manifested in a state’s lack of action, its refusal to even consider the case, its invitation to UNHCR to withdraw the submission or its return of the submission without having taken any decision. States can also provide a formal rejection, in writing, on any grounds they see fit – with some of them potentially amounting to discrimination, for example, based on human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) status.\textsuperscript{92} In such cases, UNHCR may request a reconsideration of the case by the same country, especially where ‘the factors that led to the state’s decision to reject… are subsequently addressed or no longer exist’.\textsuperscript{93} In addition, it can also be that refugees are entitled under domestic regulations of the resettlement country concerned to request a formal reconsideration of their case through judicial appeal or a similar channel. Alternatively, the case may be resubmitted to a different state, especially if no reasons for the rejection by the first country of submission were given or where the reasons provided are not relevant to UNHCR’s resettlement considerations (eg, related to ‘integration potential’, family size or indeed, HIV status). On the other hand, security concerns, concerns regarding credibility and similar issues will be considered to call for ‘prejudicial decisions’ and plead against resubmission.\textsuperscript{94}

\section*{2.3 Pre-departure arrangements\textsuperscript{95}}

Upon acceptance by a resettlement country, a number of pre-departure arrangements are organised by UNHCR in cooperation with states, the IOM and NGO staff. These include cultural and pre-departure counselling and orientation; travel logistics and formalities, including visas; medical screening and follow-up; and escort and transit arrangements, especially in medical cases. Each resettlement country may fix its own pre-departure and post-arrival requirements, which can take varying amounts of time from the acceptance of a resettlement case. Each country is responsible for covering related costs and deciding whether they also offer related services directly or via a partner organisation. UNHCR oversees procedures, coordinating the different actors involved and making sure that any protection-related matters are taken into account during the pre-departure phase.

Some countries require mandatory medical screening of every candidate considered for resettlement – and use the screening, precisely, to exclude refugees with significant medical needs, who may pose a financial burden, strain national health services or introduce communicable diseases. The IOM is given responsibility, in many situations, to ensure the processing and treatment of refugees prior to departure and determine fitness to travel, and the need for escorts during transit, according to the applicable rules and protocols defined by the individual resettlement country.\textsuperscript{96}

\begin{footnotesize}
\textsuperscript{91} Ibid 366.
\textsuperscript{92} Ibid 367.
\textsuperscript{93} Ibid 368.
\textsuperscript{96} See n 41 above, 377–378.
\end{footnotesize}
Cultural orientation sessions are used to provide refugees with basic information on the country of resettlement, manage expectations and maximise rapid integration upon arrival. Other related benefits of these sessions are preventive. Early interventions are believed to relieve pressure from social services in the host communities and, thereby, increase public support for resettlement in receiving countries. In many situations, it is the IOM and partner organisations that deliver multi-day courses tailored specifically to the individual refugee population and resettlement country concerned, covering the resettlement process; available settlement programmes upon arrival; basic facts about the climate, history and geography of the resettlement country; and information on employment, housing, education and other public and social services. Attention is also paid to cultural mores and practices regarding rights and treatment of children; women; lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, intersex and queer (LGBTIQ) people; and other minorities, and any traditional customs of the accepted refugees that could be misunderstood or be at odds with the receiving community.

As far as visas and travel documents are concerned, countries of destination are requested to be flexible. Particularly where the refugee concerned has no passport, resettlement countries are encouraged to issue travel documents themselves, according to 1951 Refugee Convention provisions, or accept the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) emergency travel document (ETD), pursuant to the 1949 Geneva Conventions and 1977 Additional Protocol I. But, it is only on very rare occasions that, as the Handbook reports, ‘a letter in lieu of visa from the authorities of the destination country may suffice’. On conclusion of travel formalities and related pre-arrival preparations, transportation is then arranged, normally via the IOM on behalf of UNHCR or the resettlement country of destination on a suitable date, and agreed with the relevant national authorities.

3. National programmes: the US, Canada and Australia

Despite the benefits of resettlement as a ‘life-changing experience’, less than one per cent of the total 19.9 million refugees of concern to UNHCR worldwide were resettled by the end of 2017. In addition, only a small number of states participate in UNHCR’s resettlement programme, with the US championing global efforts, followed by Australia, Canada and the Nordic countries (particularly Sweden) in recent times.
In 2018, UNHCR submitted over 81,300 refugees’ files for consideration by resettlement countries. By nationality, the main beneficiaries were Syrian refugees (28,200), followed by refugees from the DRC (21,800), Eritrea (4,300) and Afghanistan (4,000). The largest number of refugees left from Lebanon (9,800), followed by Turkey (9,000), Jordan (5,100) and Uganda (4,065). The main nationalities of refugees were, again, Syrian (14,631), Congolese from DRC (6,869), Afghani (2,498), Somali (2,008) and South Sudanese (1,341). These coincide with the top nationalities of refugees in protracted situations, which should make planning by resettlement countries more predictable. Among the main countries of resettlement, the US has received 9,789 out of the 9,817 persons submitted for resettlement by UNHCR. In turn, Canada and Sweden have received more than half the 5,279 and 2,768 cases referred by UNHCR, respectively, with 3,207 refugees having departed for Canada and 1,949 for Sweden. Australia, however, is lagging behind, with 2,467 resettlement requests unmet thus far.

The unevenness of the distribution of refugees across countries of resettlement, and the disparate rhythm of resettlement processing and acceptance is due to the different national regulations and policy idiosyncrasies applicable in each case. The next subsections summarise arrangements in the US, Canada and Australia as the major resettlement providers.

3.1 The US

The US first established its resettlement programme in 1975. It does not accept ‘dossier submissions’ and, instead, undertakes ‘selection missions’ itself. The annual quota has steadily increased over the years, reaching 85,000 in the period 2017–2018, without making any specific sub-quota reservations for particular case profiles.

Eligibility criteria include compliance with the US definition of a refugee found in section 101(a)(42) of the Immigration and Nationality Act (INA), which closely follows the Refugee Convention definition, but also defines as refugees other categories of persons in need of protection who may still be within their country of origin, nationality or habitual residence if they are stateless. For resettlement qualification, applicants need to show they meet that definition and be among the priority groups designated by the President as being of ‘special humanitarian concern’ to the US in the ‘processing priorities’ of the current fiscal year. They must not be resettled in any

103 Ibid.
105 See n 2 above.
106 See n 104 above.
107 This section is based on the information contained in UNHCR, Resettlement Country Chapter: US, October 2014 (revised May 2018) www.unhcr.org/3c5e5a764.html accessed 26 July 2019.
other country and must be otherwise admissible to the US under domestic law. The priorities for the year 2018 included: **Priority 1: UNHCR resettlement categories** from any nationality; **Priority 2: specific groups from certain nationalities**, distinguishing between those still in their countries of origin (including former Soviet Union Jews, Evangelical Christians, and Ukrainian Catholic and Orthodox religious activists; Cubans who are human rights activists, members of persecuted religious minorities, former political prisoners, persons deprived of their professional credentials, forced-labour conscripts (1965–1968), or subjected to other disproportionately harsh or discriminatory treatment, or the relatives of any of the above; and Iraqis associated with the US) and those outside (including persons belonging to ethnic minorities from Burma in camps in Thailand or Malaysia; Bhutanese in Nepal; Iranian members of religious minorities; Congolese in Rwanda and Tanzania; Sudanese Darfuris in Eastern Chad; and Iraqis associated with the US); and **Priority 3: family members of persons admitted to the US as refugees or granted asylum of selected nationalities** (including the top refugee-producing countries).

There are, however, **exclusion grounds** to be taken into account. These can be health-related (including some communicable diseases, grave medical conditions, and substance abuse or addiction), due to past **criminal activity** (including drug trafficking, crimes of moral turpitude, prostitution, aggravated felonies, acts involving persecution or torture, or lesser crimes but leading to multiple criminal convictions), or **security-based** (regarding terrorism, spying, communist activity, links to Nazi persecution or otherwise presenting an undetermined ‘serious security threat’). In all cases, applicants must clear several biometric and biographic checks before final approval and **waivers** may be available only in special cases, for humanitarian purposes, to ensure family unity or when it is otherwise considered to be in the public interest. The government has sole authority to decide on such waivers, and its **decisions cannot be appealed**.

‘Resettlement Support Centres’ prepare cases and schedule interviews with applicants within their regions of competence. To substantiate their claims, applicants may submit all relevant **documentation** specified in the UNHCR Resettlement Handbook, plus any affidavits of, or letters from, government officials, friends or family members, and union, political party or organisation membership cards. Where available, documents will be reviewed for content and authenticity by the interviewing officer. When not available, **assessments** will be based solely on the credibility of the testimony of the applicant. Interviews are to be conducted on a non-adversarial, face-to-face basis. There is **no formal procedure for appealing** a rejection decision, although a ‘Request for Review’ form may be filed at any time on the basis of additional evidence or information that was not available at the time of the first interview. In total, **processing times** can take between two and four years. Emergency cases may be expedited, but the capacity for such actions is very limited due to the stringent security clearance procedures all applicants must undergo, the non-derogable regulatory requirement for a face-to-face interview, and enhanced medical protocols for detecting and treating tuberculosis (TB). Therefore, it is only in very exceptional cases that processing times can be shortened to a minimum of six months.
Successful applicants may still have to wait two to four years to enter the US upon approval. In the meantime, they are delivered a five-day cultural orientation programme prior to departure and distributed Welcome to the United States guidebooks at their Refugee Support Centre of reference. The centre also provides travel documentation and prepares candidates for resettlement. Travel is then coordinated by the IOM, which generally furnishes interest-free loans for the cost of transportation to the US. Resettled refugees are expected to begin the incremental repayment of this loan six months after arriving in the US. In very exceptional cases of heightened humanitarian concern, the government may cover the cost on behalf of the resettled refugee. This is different from other national programmes, as seen below.

3.2 Canada

The Canadian resettlement programme dates from 1978. Among its objectives, it is understood that the programme was set up, explicitly, ‘to meet Canada’s international legal obligations with respect to refugees’. Unlike the US, it does accept ‘dossier submissions’, if appropriate, on a case-by-case consideration, although it is generally based on ‘selection missions’ conducted abroad. The yearly quota has been revised through time and stood at 27,000 for 2018 (between government supported, privately sponsored and blended visa refugees\(^\text{111}\)), following a regional allocation, reserving specific sub-quotas for Africa, Asia/Oceania, the Middle East, the Americas, and other, with the Middle East getting more than half the total annual target. Since 2002, the emphasis has shifted from ‘ability to successfully establish’ in the country to a squarely protection-based focus.\(^\text{112}\)

Regarding qualification criteria, priority groups generally match UNHCR resettlement categories, except for unaccompanied minors, which Canada does not accept, unless they have certified extended family links in the country. Beyond UNHCR preconditions, Canada uses resettlement to protect not only Refugee Convention refugees, but also others in refugee-like situations and in need of protection, whether they are in a third country or still within their own country of nationality. On the other hand, resettlement candidates, on top of demonstrating protection need, must show ‘potential to become self-sufficient’ and to ‘successfully establish’ in Canada within a short period of time, from three to five years upon arrival. The requirement can be waived or relaxed on a case-by-case basis, on consideration of ‘urgent’ or particularly vulnerable profiles, including with regard to ‘women at risk’, elderly refugees, traumatised applicants and applicants with disabilities. Applicants must also demonstrate that they have no reasonable prospect of finding a durable solution in a country other than Canada within a reasonable period of time. These two criteria do not apply to inland asylum seekers – which raises doubts of compatibility with Article 3 of the Refugee Convention, forbidding

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109 This section is based on the information contained in UNHCR, Resettlement Country Chapter: Canada, 2017 (revised February 2018) www.unhcr.org/5c5e655594.html accessed 26 July 2019.

110 ibid, 3.

111 The private sponsorship and blended visa routes are discussed in Ch 2.

discrimination among refugees regardless of mode of arrival. Finally, applicants must undergo medical, criminal and security screening for clearance.

**Ineligibility** conditions are tailored around Articles 1F and 1E of the Refugee Convention, but are more expansive. Candidates can be excluded on grounds of criminal activity or human rights violations, if they come from the US (which has been designated a ‘safe third country’ in the Immigration and Refugee Protection Act), if they have been recognised as refugees in another country to which they can safely return or if they have already submitted an application to the Canadian authorities, which was deemed unfounded, rejected, withdrawn or declared abandoned. There are also medical conditions: successful applicants must be clear of any disease likely to constitute a danger to public health or public safety (eg, active TB or untreated syphilis), but unlike the US and Australian systems (explored below), they cannot be excluded on the basis of them representing an ‘excessive demand’ on the healthcare system. A local physician, designated by the Canadian government as an ‘immigration medical examiner’, carries out the screening. Candidates can receive treatment and be approved when further testing indicates they no longer pose a danger. Applicants must also undergo security screening. Canada does not accept persons linked to terrorism, espionage, subversion or organised criminal rings involved in trafficking, smuggling or money laundering. Ineligibility grounds can be waived at discretion in exceptional situations if justified by humanitarian and compassionate considerations.

On top of their UNHCR RRF, resettlement candidates must also include with their applications any other relevant documentation that may be available (eg, birth, marriage, divorce and death certificates, identity (ID) cards, education and employment records, and medical reports) and a cover letter, explaining why they require resettlement and whether they are at risk or fall within an ‘urgent’ category in UNHCR terminology.

While the determination of inland asylum seekers is undertaken in a quasi-judicial process, for resettlement claims, the process is purely administrative in nature, and carried out by migration officers overseas. Interviews are conducted in most cases to verify identity and eligibility, elicit information regarding family composition, as well as biographic and biometric data. But in urgent cases the requirement for an interview can be waived. Processing times vary depending on location and other factors, and there are no specific target deadlines for decisions, although an effort is made to expedite the processing of urgent cases. Rejected applicants are informed of the negative decision in writing and, different from the US and Australian systems, they have a right to seek leave for judicial review before the Federal Court of Canada. Otherwise, there is no formal appeal system. When UNHCR requests the reconsideration of a case, the migration programme manager at the responsible migration office is contacted for consultation, and further advice may be requested from the UNHCR office in Ottawa, and, if there are compelling reasons to believe that Canadian resettlement policy objectives have not been properly implemented, the case may be reconsidered.

Successful applicants are prepared for travel to Canada. They receive three to five days of Canadian Orientation Abroad sessions to introduce them to the country, covering the settling-in period, study and employment opportunities, rights and
responsibilities, geography and climate, housing, multicultural values, and so on. Participation is voluntary and free of charge. There is also a specific Youth Refugee Curriculum targeting young refugees and their needs. Travel arrangements are usually coordinated by the IOM. Those without means can be granted an ‘immigration loan’ to cover the costs. The candidate will be asked to demonstrate the need for, and the potential to eventually repay, it within the first year following their arrival in Canada, at no interest and in monthly instalments. However, the government may cover the fees in cases of particular vulnerability, where refugees with special needs are unlikely to ever be able to repay the sum. All candidates are then issued a permanent resident visa. Those who are stateless or can otherwise not obtain passports from their own countries on which to affix the visa, receive a Single Journey Document for Resettlement to Canada (SJTD).¹¹³ This is for travel identification purposes and can only be used for the transfer to Canada.

3.3 Australia¹¹⁴

Australia has been running a resettlement programme since 1977. Like the US, the Australian government does not accept ‘dossier submissions’ by UNHCR and, instead, carries out resettlement interviews directly with individual candidates. The annual quota changes year on year. For 2018, the government pledged 14,800 places, reserving 1,550 places for vulnerable women and children, targeting three priority regions: Middle East, Asia (including Southwest Asia) and Africa, giving preference to refugees from protracted situations.

**Beneficiaries** include refugees, identified by UNHCR and referred by UNHCR to Australia, who, in addition, establish ‘compelling reasons for giving special consideration to granting them a visa’. Those ‘compelling reasons’ are to be determined according to the ‘degree of persecution’ the applicant faces in their home country; the extent of the applicant’s ‘connection to Australia’; whether there is any other suitable country, different from Australia, willing and able to resettle the claimant; and Australia’s resettlement capacity.¹¹⁵

**Applications** are to be submitted using a prescribed form,¹¹⁶ including a detailed written statement by the applicant, explaining the reasons why they left and cannot return to their country of origin. This must be accompanied by a series of certified copies of documents, if available/applicable, including photographs; proof of identity; evidence of registration with UNHCR; travel documents; visas and/or residence permits; child custody and/or adoption papers; certificates of previous marriage, divorce or death; and any discharge papers and/or medical reports. The entire application must be sent to the relevant Australian authorities in the relevant overseas mission, acting as


¹¹⁴ This section is based on the information contained in UNHCR, Resettlement Country Chapter: Australia, July 2011 (revised April 2016 and 2018) www.unhcr.org/3c5e542d4.html accessed 26 July 2019.

¹¹⁵ Ibid, 4.

a ‘humanitarian post’, either directly by the applicant or via UNHCR or an NGO. That same ‘humanitarian post’ then undertakes the processing of the application.

Processing follows the criteria set down in the Migration Regulations 1994,\textsuperscript{117} according to which applications are to be considered on a case-by-case basis and in line with due process standards. The UNHCR resettlement submission categories are normally followed. If applicants appear to fulfil the requirements, they are then invited to an interview to determine their claims and verify their family composition. Unsuccessful claimants are sent a letter indicating the criterion that was deemed not to be satisfied. There is no provision for merits review, but applicants may reapply at any time. Processing times and visa grant times differ from region to region, but waiting periods can be long – they are 47.6 weeks on average. Successful applicants must undergo mandatory health, character and national security checks, and, if they meet them, be issued a visa for travel to Australia.

On top of qualification criteria and unless express provision is made to waive them, every applicant must satisfy pre-determined medical requirements, tested by Australian approved doctors overseas, at the government’s cost. Applicants need to show they are free from TB and HIV, as well as any other communicable disease that may pose a threat to public health and public safety. Applicants can also be excluded on the basis of ‘undue costs’ in healthcare or community services and/or if they are deemed to excessively impair Australians’ access to healthcare or community services that are in short supply. Health criteria may be waived only if and after applicants have been certified to satisfy all other criteria. These other ‘public interest’ criteria – in addition to RSD and resettlement submission categories – include safety and national security verifications and character checks. Applications may, indeed, be refused where there is evidence of prior criminal conduct or if the applicant is considered to otherwise represent a security threat or danger to the Australian community – according to undefined criteria beyond, and in addition to, the exclusion grounds in Article 1F of the Refugee Convention.

Prior to departure, beneficiaries can take the Australian Cultural Orientation, five-day course on a voluntary basis. In preparation for travel, the government issues International Civil Aviation Organization-compliant, machine-readable Australian Migration Status ImmiCards to enable their transfer to Australia, prove their visa status and help them to enrol for government services upon arrival. Those without passports are issued a Refugee Convention travel document and a certificate of identity from the government to facilitate further travel.

4. Regional initiatives: the Vietnamese CPA and the Union Resettlement Framework

Several regional initiatives, both past and future, have incorporated resettlement as their key component to facilitate access to international protection, address protracted refugee situations, and/or tackle complex mixed migration flows. On the one hand, the CPA for Indochinese Refugees provides a historical example with pointers and indicators of what may and may not be worth replicating in future schemes.\(^\text{118}\) On the other hand, the European Commission has incorporated similar elements in its proposal for a Union Resettlement Framework (URF) Regulation.\(^\text{119}\) These two regional mechanisms provide useful insights to be taken into account when designing entry channels for refugees. Each of them is examined in turn in the following subsections.

4.1 The CPA for Indochinese refugees

A massive exodus followed from the end of the Vietnam War and the reunification of the two ideologically opposed halves of Vietnam in 1975. Insecurity, poverty and persecution drew one million Vietnamese into exile. The first countries of asylum in the region, overwhelmed by the sheer number of boat arrivals, started implementing policies of non-entrée, disregarding the principle of non-refoulement, and many lost their lives at sea – by some estimates, as many as six out of ten ‘boat people’ undertaking the voyage did not survive.\(^\text{120}\) Against this background, UNHCR, with decisive US backing, pursued two sets of policies in search of a solution. Two policy periods can, therefore, be distinguished: before the newly founded Socialist Republic of Vietnam’s agreement to accept and facilitate the peaceful return of non-refugees and after it did.

The first period begins with the 1979 International Conference held in Geneva, with the participation of 65 states, where Vietnam agreed, by means of a memorandum of understanding signed with UNHCR, to cooperate in the orderly management of departures from the country of persons with close family links abroad. Under the Orderly Departure Programme (ODP), third countries prepared lists of kin, and those identified were transferred directly from Vietnam on to the resettlement state concerned to reunite with them.\(^\text{121}\) In parallel, countries in the region and further afar agreed to the Disembarkation Resettlement Offers (DISERO) and Rescue at Sea Resettlement Offers (RASRO) programmes.\(^\text{122}\) Under the DISERO programme, ‘boat people’ from

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Vietnam were allowed to disembark in a coastal country of first asylum and considered to immediately qualify, on a prima facie basis, for extra-regional resettlement in one of the participating third countries, including Australia, Canada, France, Germany, Sweden and the US. This was deemed necessary to end push-backs and non-disembarkation practices in the region. The second programme, RASRO, was introduced later, in 1985, to encourage seafarers to undertake rescue, and bring abandonment at sea and left-to-die practices to an end. Under the scheme, whenever possible, the flag state of the vessel performing the rescue would resettle the survivors, again on a prima facie basis. Otherwise, survivors would be disembarked in the closest coastal state and put on the DISERO list.  

After ten years, the prima facie recognition system, however, ended up being perceived as a ‘blank cheque’ by resettlement countries. As a result, both the DISERO and RASRO initiatives were brought to an end in 1989 and replaced with the CPA, which, instead, foresaw that ‘boat people’ be screened in countries of first asylum prior to being resettled, with those ‘screened out’ as not meeting the refugee definition being expected to return to Vietnam. While countries of first asylum were required to continue to provide temporary refuge and introduce status determination procedures, with UNHCR support, Vietnam was asked to repatriate persons not deemed in need of international protection without reprisals. The government proceeded accordingly and signed Orderly Return Programme agreements with countries in the region to that effect, issuing travel documents to returnees and committing not to persecute, arbitrarily prosecute or otherwise maltreat them on arrival. UNHCR engaged to monitor the process to ensure compatibility with dignified standards.  

The CPA was terminated on 30 June 1996, having met its objective of ‘emptying the camps’ and finding a solution to the plight of the Vietnamese ‘boat people’. It has been celebrated as a success from many perspectives, in spite of the legal pitfalls it suffered from. Indeed, determination procedures were hugely substandard, reception and detention conditions in camps appalling and the whole process ripe with fraud and corruption. But, looking at the ‘responsibility-sharing’ and international cooperation aspects, several key lessons can be learnt because the CPA process did manage to broker a ‘new solutions-oriented consensus involving the co-operation of countries of origin, first asylum, and resettlement’.  

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124 See n 118 above.


Several elements have been underlined as contributing to the success of the CPA. First, the sense of ownership it managed to generate in relation to participants, with each bringing to the table their own views and contribution. UNHCR led the way, as initiator, facilitator and coordinator, identifying key principles (eg, temporary asylum, repatriation without punishment and peaceful post-return coexistence). But it did not prefix the agenda, and instead purposefully conducted exploratory, open-ended meetings to identify state interests as the basis for the relevant commitments. The drafting of the Declaration and Action Plan was also a cooperative exercise, involving all key stakeholders from the very beginning.

Second, the resettlement component was the cornerstone of the entire programme and the main key to its success. Without an opportunity for first countries of asylum to share the responsibility of protecting refugees with other (wealthier) countries outside the region, they would probably have persisted in their unilateral strategies of rejection of disembarkation, deterrence and refoulement. The priority sequence for resettlement and the three principles pivoting the programme were also important. Countries of destination agreed to first resettle refugees to whom they had close ties (family-based, cultural or otherwise), then ‘long-stayers’ languishing in camps (to address the backlog) and finally the rest, who would be distributed on an equitable basis. Most countries did not contribute to resettlement efforts out of altruistic reasons, but on account of broader strategic, economic, political and security interests, past colonial ties and their direct or indirect participation in the Vietnam War. The US leadership-by-example strategy, translating in the country alone taking 40 per cent of the total share, played a determinant role in enticing other resettlement states to participate in the scheme.

Third, the fact that the ‘caseload’ was more or less defined and circumscribed to one specific national group also helped to leverage support for the initiative, generating a sense of finiteness and achievability of the main objective. UNHCR, alongside partner countries, considered that this would focalise attention, attract financial aid and incentivise participants to comply with their respective commitments.

Finally, the overall perception that a (safe and legal) channel to protection, better than smuggling routes, was available for those engaging in the process, convinced many Vietnamese refugees to use the CPA rather than alternative (unsafe and illegal) options. The existence of direct evacuation pathways out of Vietnam, combined with clear transit and relocation prospects through countries of first asylum to countries of final destination was the main element accounting for their trust in the CPA. Without long-term protection prospects, the practice of clandestine departures and unauthorised arrivals in neighbouring countries would have continued.

One controversial component of the CPA was the involvement of the country of origin in the programme. Many have considered this aspect to be peculiar to the specific context of post-war Vietnam and the dynamics of Cold War-era politics. In situations

129 Ibid 41 ff; see also n 120 above, Meltem Ineli-Ciger, 431 ff.
130 For analysis and further references, see Judith Kumin, ‘Orderly Departure from Vietnam: Cold War Anomaly or Humanitarian Innovation?’ (2008) 27 Refugee Survey Quarterly 104.
in which return is not (yet) an option, due to continued instability, insecurity, violence or persecution, this part of the scheme will not be immediately transposable to similar initiatives. It is of note that Vietnam’s commitment to repatriation without punishment came only after ten years of the DISERO and RASRO schemes, during which time very significant results had been achieved – in terms of addressing the protection needs of exiles, stabilising the region, and attaining a sufficient (and sustainable) degree of peace and development of post-war Vietnam allowing for returns. It is also noteworthy that during this period (1979–1989) the system worked on the basis of *prima facie determination*, substantiated by a presumption of need of international protection for all those leaving Vietnam. This was considered the only viable option to maintaining compliance with the principle of *non-refoulement*. In addition, it may well form the basis for similar action in relation to indisputably unsafe situations (eg, Libya), with regard to countries to which return is not (yet) possible (eg, Syria or Yemen), or with a view to resolving long-protracted refugee situations (eg, Somalis in Kenya).

4.2 Towards a European URF

The EU offers another context in which multilateral resettlement efforts have been tested with varying degrees of success. In fact, the EU’s contribution to global resettlement needs has been modest until now.\(^\text{131}\) So far, only ad hoc initiatives have been implemented. But, these are understood to be paving the way for a more permanent scheme that, if adopted, would harmonise national efforts within an EU-wide framework. The two types of initiatives are explored below, paying particular attention to the *objectives* pursued, *priorities* established, *criteria* for inclusion and exclusion in the scheme, and *processes* implemented in practice.

4.2.1 Ad hoc initiatives

The first attempt at harmonising resettlement practices between Member States was with the *Joint Resettlement Programme* in 2009.\(^\text{132}\) At the time, only ten EU countries had established annual schemes with very limited capacity and no common planning or coordination mechanism between them.\(^\text{133}\) The programme was intended to provide a framework for the development of a common approach, seeking to involve as many Member States as possible. On the one hand, it was expected that the global humanitarian profile of the EU would rise, and access to asylum would be organised in an orderly way. On the other hand, the idea was to match the programme with the Global Approach to Migration and Mobility\(^\text{134}\) through the identification of common priorities not only on protection grounds, but also on the basis of broader migration

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\(^{131}\) See n 11 above, para 19.


policy considerations, using resettlement in a ‘strategic’ way to curtail unauthorised entry into the EU, ‘reducing irregular migration’, ‘disrupt[ing] migrant smuggling networks’ and ‘better[ing] [the] overall management of the migratory situation’.\textsuperscript{135}

The \textbf{European Refugee Fund (ERF)} was amended in 2012 to support resettlement efforts.\textsuperscript{136} However, the results achieved were minimal. During the Arab Spring, only 700 resettlement places were offered EU-wide, while the need estimated by UNHCR was for at least 11,000.\textsuperscript{137} The replacement of the ERF with the current Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund (AMIF) 2014–2020,\textsuperscript{138} with increased monetary provisions per resettled refugee, was expected to significantly attract additional pledges. Nonetheless, despite individual efforts at domestic level having improved in some countries,\textsuperscript{139} this has yet to fully materialise.

In \textbf{June 2015}, the \textbf{European Commission} proposed an ad hoc plan for a 20,000-place scheme to respond to the Syrian crisis, submitted as part of the European Agenda on Migration.\textsuperscript{140} The European Council endorsed it and raised the target number to 22,504.\textsuperscript{141} Within the two-year period envisaged for completion, 19,432 people were brought to safety in the EU (which amounts to 86 per cent of the initial pledges).\textsuperscript{142} In parallel, in \textbf{September 2016}, a \textbf{reform of the Relocation Decisions} – adopted to alleviate pressure from Italy and Greece, which together had received over one million arrivals in the summer of 2015 – was introduced.\textsuperscript{143} This made it possible for Member States to fulfil their relocation obligations by resettling Syrians from Turkey rather than by taking in applicants already present in Europe. A total of 54,000 places, of those initially foreseen for (intra-EU) relocation, were earmarked for this purpose. Since the conclusion of the EU-Turkey Statement in March 2016,\textsuperscript{144} over 20,292 Syrian refugees have in fact been resettled from Turkey.\textsuperscript{145}

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{135} European Commission, \textit{Recommendation of 27 September 2017 on enhancing legal pathways for persons in need of international protection}, C(2017) 6504, 27 September 2017, Recitals 1, 4 and 13.
\item \textsuperscript{138} AMIF Regulation 516/2014, (2014) OJ L 150/175.
\item \textsuperscript{141} European Council Conclusions, Council Doc 11097/15, 20 July 2015.
\end{itemize}
\end{footnotesize}
In September 2017, a further commitment to resettle 50,000 refugees ‘over the next two years’ was tabled ‘as part of the European Commission’s efforts to provide viable safe and legal alternatives for those who risk their lives at the hands of criminal smuggling networks’ across the Mediterranean.\(^{146}\) To facilitate the transition into a permanent framework, the European Commission adopted a new recommendation at the same time, inviting Member States to take a ‘stronger engagement’, focusing primarily on the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region and, especially, on ‘key African countries along and leading to the Central Mediterranean migration route, including Libya, Niger, Chad, Egypt, Ethiopia, and Sudan’.\(^{147}\) Therein, it also called for a commitment with UNHCR’s new ‘temporary mechanism for emergency evacuation of the most vulnerable migrants from Libya’,\(^ {148}\) explored in chapter 4. By March 2019, there were over 50,000 pledges made by 20 Member States,\(^ {149}\) and over 24,000 persons have already been resettled under this new scheme, making it ‘the largest EU collective engagement on resettlement to date’.\(^ {150}\)

If the July 2016 proposal for a permanent EU Resettlement Framework,\(^ {151}\) discussed below, calling for a unified procedure and common selection criteria, is finally adopted, it will replace the current ad hoc initiatives and facilitate the attainment of the European Commission targets with a harmonised approach.\(^ {152}\)

### 4.2.2 Proposal for a URF Regulation

The URF, proposed by the European Commission, is part of the package-reform of the Common European Asylum System tabled in response to the ‘refugee crisis’ and currently (still) under negotiation.\(^ {153}\) Its main objective is to overcome one-off, ad hoc schemes and initiatives resulting from the rough compilation of national or multilateral programmes, providing for a collective and harmonised approach to resettlement at EU level, with common standards, unified criteria and a common procedure.\(^ {154}\)

This is expected to reduce divergences in approach among the Member States and to put the EU in a stronger position, speaking as one voice in the international scene. Making a single pledge on behalf of all the Member States together, it is believed, will give more visibility to the organisation and increase its credibility as a contributor to

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148 Ibid, Recital 18 and para 3(c).

149 Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom.


151 See n 119 above.


153 For an update, see n 139 above, EASO Annual Report 2018, 21–23.

154 See n 119 above, Explanatory Memorandum, 1–2 and Recital 11 of the Draft Regulation.
world resettlement efforts. It is also hoped that this will increase EU leverage vis-à-vis third countries, helping the EU to achieve its foreign policy objectives and better manage migration, making it easier to convince international partners to assume their share of responsibility – which, as things stand, is an odd proposition, considering that, of the total 74.79 million persons of concern to UNHCR, only 3.8 million are hosted in the EU28 (with Germany, on its own, hosting 1.5 million of that number), representing roughly five per cent of the global displaced (or three per cent, excluding Germany). A more plausible objective is, therefore, for the programme to become ‘a direct demonstration of the Union’s commitment to helping countries under the heaviest migratory pressure’, ‘sharing the responsibility with third countries’ to which or within which a large number of persons in need of international protection has been displaced’. Additional benefits pursued by the scheme are the reduction of irregular, unsafe journeys, especially across the Mediterranean, and the reduction of the risk of large-scale movements of spontaneous arrivals to the EU through the provision of alternative legal pathways.

The programme is based on voluntary commitments by the Member States and is intended to produce no individual right to resettlement – in spite of, or ‘without prejudice to’, as the European Commission notes, ‘the right to asylum and the protection from refoulement in accordance with Articles 18 and 19 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights’. On the other hand, resettlement is widely defined as consisting of ‘the admission of third-country nationals… in need of international protection from a third country to which or within which they have been displaced to the Member States with a view to granting them international protection’ – which becomes effective ‘the moment when resettled persons arrive on the territory of the Member States’ concerned.

Strategic resettlement priorities are to be discussed regularly at a High-Level Resettlement Committee, composed of representatives from the European Council, European Commission, European Parliament, High Representative of the EU and Member States, with the European Asylum Support Office (EASO), UNHCR and IOM possibly

155 Ibid and Recitals 9 and 10 of the Draft Regulation.
156 The precise figures are: Austria (167,195); Belgium (69,413); Bulgaria (21,586); Croatia (8,278); Cyprus (27,321); Czech Republic (5,623); Denmark (47,586); Estonia (78,236); Finland (28,344); France (458,919); Germany (1,447,900); Greece (137,757); Hungary (6,308); Ireland (13,336); Italy (295,599); Latvia (225,572); Lithuania (5,050); Luxembourg (3,614); Malta (0); the Netherlands (116,091); Poland (26,396); Portugal (2,235); Romania (5,871); Slovakia (2,489); Slovenia (1,016); Spain (101,597); Sweden (317,987); and the UK (172,089), making a total of 2,345,508 persons excluding Germany and 3,793,408 including Germany. See UNHCR, UNHCR Statistics: The World in Numbers (end of 2018) http://popstats.unhcr.org/en/overview#ga=2.247348420.1732592435.1562525215-1084420301.1538336069 accessed 26 July 2019.
157 See n 119 above, Explanatory Memorandum, 4 and 5.
159 Ibid, p 7 and Recitals 19 and 33 of the Draft Regulation. It is also not intended to affect the capacity of EU Member States to adopt or continue to pursue their own national resettlement schemes, provided that they ‘do not jeopardize the attainment of the Union’s objectives under this Regulation’. Therefore, ‘[r]esettlements under national resettlement schemes outside of this framework will not be supported financially by the Union’s budget’, as per the Explanatory Memorandum, 15.
160 See n 119 above, Art 2 of the Draft Regulation.
161 Ibid, Recital 25 and Art 10(7)(a) of the Draft Regulation.
invited as observers.\textsuperscript{162} Those strategic priorities are then to be taken into account in the design of the operational Annual Union Resettlement Plan to be decided by the European Council, on a proposal by the European Commission, on a yearly basis. The plan should, at a minimum, indicate the maximum number of resettlement places, the overall geographical priorities and the contribution of each Member State to the plan.\textsuperscript{163} The criteria for the definition of the \textit{geographical priorities}, however, are very much \textbf{deterrence-orientated} and have been criticised as a \textit{vehicle for migration control}.\textsuperscript{164}

Article 4 of the proposed regulation establishes that in the selection of beneficiary countries from where resettlement should take place, the risk of onward movement of displaced persons to the territory of the Member States must be taken into account alongside the EU’s overall relations with the country concerned, the complementarity of resettlement with other financial and technical assistance provided to that country, and, most importantly, the cooperation record of that country, via return and readmission or through increased capacity for reception and protection, in reducing the number of displaced persons irregularly crossing to the EU.

\textbf{Eligibility criteria}, by contrast, are more generous than those typically applying under the UNHCR \textit{Handbook}. Not only persons qualifying as refugees, but also \textbf{persons running a real risk of serious harm} are eligible for resettlement. Apart from meeting the criteria for refugee status or subsidiary protection under the EU Qualification Directive,\textsuperscript{165} candidates must fall within at least one of the vulnerability categories identified in Article 5(b) of the Draft Regulation. This includes all UNHCR resettlement categories plus ‘persons with socio-economic vulnerability’ as an extra group of targeted persons. The Draft Regulation also defines family members of EU citizens or foreign nationals legally residing in a Member State as potential recipients of resettlement. These are also broadly defined and encompass spouses/unmarried partners, minor children, adult dependents, siblings and ascendants of unmarried minors. The idea is that ‘family unity can be maintained’. Nonetheless, within these groups, Member States ‘may give preference’, as they see fit, to candidates with family links in the resettlement country, with social or cultural ties that ‘can facilitate integration’ (provided they do not unduly discriminate), or with particular vulnerabilities or protection needs.\textsuperscript{166}

Yet, when it comes to \textbf{exclusion}, the Draft Regulation introduces comparatively the most \textit{restrictive regime} of those explored herein. It contemplates an \textbf{obligatory exclusion} clause, according to which persons falling, in substance, within Articles 1D, 1E or 1F of the Refugee Convention, or having committed a serious crime or otherwise posing a danger to the community, security, ‘public policy’, public health or international relations of any of the Member States must be banned from resettlement. In addition, persons in respect to whom an alert has been issued in the Schengen Information System or equivalent

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{162} Ibid, Art 13 of the Draft Regulation.
  \item \textsuperscript{163} Ibid, Art 7 and Recital 21 of the Draft Regulation.
  \item \textsuperscript{165} Qualification Directive 2011/95/EU (recast), (2011) OJ L 337/9, Arts 13 and 18.
  \item \textsuperscript{166} See n 119 above, Art 10(1) of the Draft Regulation.
\end{itemize}
domestic database for the purposes of refusing entry; and persons who have irregularly entered or stayed, or merely ‘attempted to irregularly enter’ a Member State ‘during the five years prior to resettlement’ must also be excluded. Finally, persons who have already been resettled by another Member State; and persons whom Member States have previously refused to resettle in the last five years or in relation to whom a Member State ‘has objected to their resettlement’ must be disqualified as well.167 On top of this, Member States have the option to refuse resettlement through a discretionary exclusion clause, according to which candidates to whom the obligatory exclusion clause applies on a prima facie basis may, too, be rejected. How the prima facie analysis is to be carried out, according to which proof or to which standards and whether there is an option for individuals to object or appeal decisions taken on this basis is not specified anywhere in the Draft Regulation. It is also not clear whether UNHCR would have the possibility to resubmit the case for reconsideration within the five-year resettlement ban period.

The resettlement procedure, then, has been divided into four stages: identification, registration, assessment and decision.168 The ‘ordinary procedure’ regulates these four stages, outside cases of special urgency – where an ‘expedited procedure’ may apply, in circumstances to be explored in chapter 4.169 According to Article 10 of the Draft Regulation, upon the identification of a suitable candidate, the person concerned must be registered, and, upon registration, the ‘full [eligibility] assessment’ begins.170 The identification phase can be assumed by the Member State itself or with the support of UNHCR, EASO, or other ‘relevant international bodies’ – which seems to exclude NGOs – referring appropriate candidates, falling within the scope of the EU resettlement priorities and vulnerability categories. Once identified and registered, the assessment of personal circumstances must be carried out on the basis of documentary evidence, including information from UNHCR, personal interview or a combination of both. Member States can, at that point, also ask UNHCR for a full RSD assessment and/or for an evaluation of family or cultural links and/or particular vulnerabilities/specific needs. Whatever the case, whether with or without UNHCR assistance, a decision must normally be reached within eight months, extendable for another four. If the decision is negative, no resettlement shall take place. There are no details in the Draft Regulation as to whether candidates are to be informed in writing of negative decisions, given reasons for them, and/or whether any legal avenues for appeal or judicial review, in line with EU law norms, should be made available by the Member States.171

In the case of a positive decision, the Draft Regulation details what is to happen next. Refugee status or subsidiary protection status must be granted and notified to the person concerned. The Member State concerned shall then organise travel arrangements, including fit-to-travel medical tests, travel documents, the facilitation of

167 Ibid, Art 6(1) of the Draft Regulation.
170 Ibid, Recital 14 of the Draft Regulation.
171 The principle of effective judicial protection is considered a general principle of EU law, thus with general application within the entire EU legal system, as codified in Art 47 CFR and implicit in Art 19 TEU. See, eg, Case C-64/16 Associação Sindical dos Juízes Portugueses, ECLI:EU:C:2018:117.
any exit procedures and transportation. It must also provide a pre-departure orientation programme, with information on rights and obligations, language tuition and the basics of the Member State’s social, political and cultural setup. EASO, as well as other partners, can provide assistance in this regard, coordinating practical or technical aspects and facilitating the sharing of infrastructure between the Member States. A lump sum of €10,000 per resettled person will be allocated from the EU budget under the scheme to help cover the costs.

5. Conclusions

Resettlement is the key ‘durable solution’ providing the basis for the development of ‘complementary pathways’ to international protection, which, as explored in the next chapters, borrow elements from resettlement. The previous sections have, therefore, examined in detail the main arrangements and characteristics of this solution, as designed by UNHCR and in its national and regional variations.

Regarding qualification conditions, all programmes coincide in providing a channel to effective asylum to refugees who have already undergone RSD, but opening up opportunities for others in refugee-like situations, who may or may not have already crossed an international border, to equally benefit from resettlement in particular situations. The determination of geographical and group priorities tends to be dictated by humanitarian concerns, except in the EU’s case, where ‘strategic’ migration control objectives focus efforts and determine the allocation of resources. In turn, formal exclusion criteria, in all cases, expand substantially on Refugee Convention clauses, including on character, medical and security reasons. In nearly all cases, the length of procedures and formalities required pre- and post-identification of potential candidates creates an obstacle to expedited relocation. This makes programmes exceedingly slow and unresponsive to growing needs.

Among the different iterations of the resettlement solution, the CPA stands out as a particularly successful example. Several lessons can be learnt from its design and the manner of its implementation. Ownership, partnership and principled cooperation between all the relevant stakeholders are key elements accounting for its accomplishments. The introduction of an element of prima facie determination, based on a presumption of the need for international protection of a circumscribed, well-defined nationality group is also a very important factor to bear in mind, facilitating engagement and swift processing times. This, together with the above elements, shall be taken into account in the design of the proposal for an EEV in Part III of this study.

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172 See n 119 above, Art 12 of the Draft Regulation.
174 This is why UNHCR urges partners to improve the resourcing, planning and predictability of programmes so these can be expanded in a sustainable way. See n 27 above, 18.
Chapter 2. Sponsorship schemes

1. Introduction

In parallel to resettlement, community and private sponsorship initiatives have proliferated, making available resettlement places to a wider spectrum of potential beneficiaries. These initiatives are characterised by a transfer of responsibility from state authorities to non-state actors for all or part of the resettlement action, including the identification, referral, pre-departure, post-arrival reception and/or integration process of beneficiaries in the country of destination. However, state authorities retain final responsibility for the scheme. They determine the qualification criteria for sponsors and potential beneficiaries, may co-finance programmes through direct or indirect provision of funding and services, and shall step in in situations of sponsorship relation breakdown. Normally, the objectives these initiatives pursue are several: they tend to expand protection capacity of the receiving state; enable legal admission to groups that would normally not qualify for resettlement; facilitate integration and societal acceptance in host communities and the resettlement country at large; and foster public–private partnerships that deliver resettlement in a cost-effective way.

Canada has pioneered efforts in this respect, and the model has been replicated elsewhere. The US, Australia and some EU countries have adopted similar schemes – although there is no EU-wide equivalent yet. The European Migration Network (EMN) has identified six EU Member States, that is, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Poland, Slovakia and the UK, that follow different approaches. When these schemes follow the ‘principle of additionality’ they ‘add to’ the government resettlement quota, creating ‘additional’ opportunities for persons in need of international protection to find a durable solution at the sponsoring community or private entity/individual’s initiative. Moreover, some of these schemes, as explored below, unlike ‘classic’ resettlement programmes, do allow for resettlement directly from the country of origin of the displaced, thereby opening up a direct route of primary access to asylum, which provides relevant pointers for the design of an EEV, as proposed in Part III.

2. Community sponsorship and ‘blended’ schemes

Typically, community sponsorship initiatives, as emerged in Canada, allow organisations – including NGOs, faith-based communities and similar actors registered with, and authorised by, the relevant government as resettlement partners – to submit

175 See n 31 above, 4–5.
176 Ibid, 5.
178 The European Commission is considering its feasibility at EU level. See n 31 above.
179 See n 29 above, EMN 7. A latter study by the European Commission (see n 31 above) also surveys countries that have developed a ‘humanitarian corridor’, examined in Ch 3.
180 See n 109 above, 3.
referrals of refugees and other persons in need of international protection that they wish to assist for consideration for resettlement. If approved, the sponsor becomes responsible for providing material and financial assistance to the beneficiary for a limited period, while they integrate to the host community. Accommodation, clothing, food and general settlement orientation and services are to be provided during this time, which can last from one to several years, depending on the country. Normally, the sponsor must also help the resettled person to find employment and become self-sufficient within the period of the sponsorship agreement.181

In terms of eligibility criteria, most countries select on vulnerability grounds – Germany, for instance, launched the Neustart im Team (NesT) initiative in May 2019, targeting vulnerable persons.182 Poland and Slovakia target victims of persecution for religious reasons – especially with a Christian background. The content of protection statuses also varies. While in Canada persons obtain permanent settlement, in Germany, sponsored individuals receive a two-year extendable permit with an immediate right to work. By contrast, Ireland accords them a specific humanitarian status, allowing beneficiaries to work, invest or establish a business. In Poland, they are granted refugee status, while in Slovakia, they receive asylum on national terms. In all cases, most of the costs are born by the sponsor, including those of pre-departure travel and other arrangements, and of post-arrival medical and maintenance for several months/years.183

This is part of the main challenge this kind of programme gives rise to, as it constitutes a form of ‘privatisation of protection’, shifting away certain responsibilities from public authorities, which may also lead to excessive selectivity of candidates for reasons unrelated to protection needs. Other obstacles relate to the complexity and length of procedures, to logistical and coordination difficulties between multiple actors, including regarding pre-departure arrangements, such as obstacles in obtaining travel documents or in completing security checks prior to arrival in the resettlement country.184

A variant of community sponsorship are the so-called ‘blended’ schemes, whereby referrals by resettlement partners (normally UNHCR) are matched with a community sponsor, thereby addressing some of the problems pointed out above.185 The beneficiary, then, is supported partly by the sponsor and partly by the relevant government. The target population in these cases are resettlement candidates with enhanced assistance needs, over and above those normally provided for through government support alone.

182 See n 139 above EASO Annual Report 2018, 36.
183 See n 29 above, EMN, 7–8.
184 Ibid 8.
185 See n 109 above, at 3.
and/or for longer periods than ordinary.\textsuperscript{186} In Canada, this formula was first launched in 2013, as a three-way partnership between the government, UNHCR and approved sponsors. The programme allows ‘both new and experienced sponsors to cost-share with the Government and become involved in protecting refugees with whom they have had no previous contact’,\textsuperscript{187} thus expanding the pool of potential beneficiaries. Under this programme, the government covers up to six months of income support, while the sponsoring partner assumes another six months and commits to provide social and emotional care to the resettled person for a year to facilitate integration.

The UK Vulnerable Person Resettlement Scheme (VPRS) and Vulnerable Children’s Resettlement Scheme (VCRS),\textsuperscript{188} targeting 20,000 refugees fleeing conflict in Syria and 3,000 minors from the MENA region, respectively, can be considered as a mixed system, borrowing elements from ‘classic’ and ‘blended’ community sponsorship schemes.\textsuperscript{189} The programme, running over three years (2016–2019), allows registered charities, community interest groups or religious organisations to act as sponsors accredited by the Home Office.\textsuperscript{190} They need to sign a 12-month declaration, be approved by the relevant local authority, deposit a £9,000 guarantee and commit themselves to a range of obligations. They need to actively participate in every step of the process and, on arrival, provide accommodation for two years, initial orientation assistance, and help with access to welfare services. This requires significant resources and expertise, which has resulted in some limitations regarding participation in the scheme. The rhythm of actual transfers to the UK has, nonetheless, been steady,\textsuperscript{191} reaching a total of 16,000 relocations by June 2019, representing 69.5 per cent of the original target.\textsuperscript{192} An additional 5,000 places have been pledged for a new scheme, starting from 2020, consolidating the VPRS and VCRS lines in to one single programme, simplifying procedures and expanding the geographical scope beyond the MENA region. There are plans to continue the community sponsorship methodology, but running parallel and ‘in addition to’ the government’s commitment.\textsuperscript{193}

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{enumerate}
\item \textsuperscript{186} Ibid 11.
\item \textsuperscript{187} Ibid 12.
\item \textsuperscript{193} Ibid.
\end{enumerate}
\end{footnotesize}
In terms of **qualification**, relevant documentation states that ‘[t]he UK sets the criteria and then UNHCR identifies and submits potential cases for consideration’, so sponsors cannot name preferred candidates themselves – thus reducing risks of fraud, discrimination and potential corruption. Then there is a security screening and an **exclusion** process upon which certain cases may be rejected on ‘war crimes or other grounds’ without further elaboration. It is unclear how these are assessed and whether they expand on the Refugee Convention exclusion clauses, with the potential of rendering the process arbitrary. And there is no provision for **appeals or legal remedies** in cases of rejection. On completion of the screening phase, a full medical assessment is undertaken by the IOM, which also provides pre-departure and travel support. On **confirmation** of eligibility, an initial three-month entry visa is issued for travel, followed by a five-year Refugee Leave permit granted on arrival. The whole process takes up substantial time, which has translated into long waits and the programme initially stalling for several months after launching.

### 3. Private sponsorship mechanisms

Private sponsorship is a slightly different mechanism from community sponsorship schemes. It enables **private citizens** – such as ‘groups of five’ in Canada – to support individual arrivals by family members and extended kin, who – at least in the case of Canada – have already been recognised as refugees by UNHCR or a foreign state. The first programme **emerged in Canada** in 1979 and has resettled nearly 300,000 refugees since. The sub-quota for 2018 was 16,000 of the total resettlement target, which represents 64 per cent of the entire number of refugees resettled to Canada that year. The costs, in addition, are considerable. They have been estimated to be around CA$16,500 for one individual and CA$32,300 for a family of five for the first year of resettlement, raising criticism for the privatisation/commodification effects on protection that the programme produces.

On the other hand, the government provides for healthcare, education and integration services, and applicants are exempted from visa fees. Access to social security benefits is

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194 See n 189 above, 6.
195 *Ibid*.
allowed from the second year after arrival. So, in all, the scheme represents a public–private partnership that seems to work well.

In 2016, the Canadian model inspired the UNHCR-led Global Refugee Sponsorship Initiative (GRSI) designed to support other countries to adopt similar schemes. Australia, for instance, followed suit and launched its Community Support Programme on 1 July 2017 after a four-year pilot, permitting individuals, businesses and community groups to sponsor eligible cases. The numbers, however, are small, with a yearly quota of 1,000. Qualification conditions include protection-related criteria, such as being outside the country of origin and subjected to ‘substantial discrimination’, but also require applicants to fall within Australia’s settlement priorities, and meet specific health and character standards. Those with a job offer or likely to become financially independent in the short term are given priority. Actually, individuals need to show that they are ‘employable and capable of supporting themselves by the end of their first year in Australia’. Prospective beneficiaries also need to be fluent in English and aged between 18 and 50. Applications must be submitted by an approved proposing organisation, under agreement with the government, with the skills and experience to administer the settlement process. Entrants under this scheme are non-eligible for government support, neither pre-departure nor post-arrival. It is the APO, either independently or in conjunction with Australian family members or other community organisations, that has to cover the costs of the application (which carries a fee) alongside the costs of pre-arrival arrangements (including medical tests and transportation), as well as post-arrival settlement, providing support and services ‘commensurate with those received by other humanitarian entrants’. This includes social security payments, for the first year, which virtually shifts responsibility for material subsistence and community integration to the private sector. The government has, in fact, projected savings of AU$26.9m over four years, showing no intention of reinvesting gains into other publicly funded resettlement opportunities. So, one key drawback of the Australian scheme is that it is not based on the principle of additionality. Indeed,


208 See n 114 above, 3.

209 Ibid 12.


sponsored places are integrated within the general government resettlement quotas, instead of creating additional protection capacity. The scheme, thus, reduces the overall spaces available under the general Humanitarian Programme.\textsuperscript{212} On the other hand, processing times seem to be faster than under alternative routes, prompting criticism that it is serving wealthy applicants to purchase ‘priority access’ to asylum.\textsuperscript{213} Finally, the focus on business or individual employers being sponsors, rather than (real) communities of extended kin, diasporas or other support networks, runs the risk of economic exploitation, ultra-dependency and relationship breakdown.\textsuperscript{214}

In the EU, some countries have followed the Canadian example more closely. The German Family Assistance Programme (FAP), for instance, facilitates family reunion with Syrian relatives affected by the conflict. Since 2013, more than 20,000 visas have been issued for the purpose and the programme is open-ended.\textsuperscript{215} The criteria require relatives (either German citizens or legal residents) to sign a binding declaration assuming personal liability for all travel and accommodation expenses up to five years after arrival in Germany – excluding medical care costs, integration programmes, and education and vocational training expenses. The referral is done directly by the sponsoring kin and the beneficiary is then issued with a two-year renewable permit on humanitarian grounds. However, a subsequent successful asylum application will not release the sponsor of their obligations. Visa applications are processed and issued by German representations abroad, which has proved challenging given the high number of applications received, translating into strained capacity and long waiting periods of up to 1.5 years.\textsuperscript{216} This is why, since June 2016, IOM ‘service centres’, located in close proximity, have provided individual assistance in purpose-built facilities to alleviate pressure on German consular offices, accelerating processing times and releasing German authorities of application-preparation and pre-departure orientation tasks, allowing the programme to run smoothly. Several FAP centres have opened in Turkey, Iraq and Lebanon.\textsuperscript{217}

A similar initiative has been adopted in Ireland. The Irish Humanitarian Admission Programme (IHAP) started operating in 2018 through a three-way collaboration between UNHCR, the government and civil society organisations. Under the IHAP, up to 530 eligible family members of citizens or persons with a protection status, of good character and living in Ireland, acting as ‘proposer’, can be admitted to the country


\textsuperscript{214} See n 204 above.


\textsuperscript{216} Ibid 28 and 29.

for over two years. The scheme targets nationals of the ten main refugee-producing countries, as per the UNHCR *Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2018* report, and who belong to the (also ‘extended’) family of the ‘proposer’. Beneficiaries must either be in the country of origin, a neighbouring state or be registered with UNHCR, and those who can show a compelling humanitarian need to be reunited in Ireland are given priority, but there is no obligation to strictly qualify as refugees or beneficiaries of subsidiary protection. A full exclusion, security and good character screening is undertaken for the ‘proposer’, but not for the proposed family member. Instead, the ‘proposer’ must sign a statutory declaration confirming that the beneficiary does not fall within the Refugee Convention exclusion clauses, that they have never committed a crime, and that they, otherwise, pose no danger to the community or to the security of any EU country. If approved, the beneficiaries are expected to be accommodated and catered for by the ‘proposers’, and ‘nominations from proposers who are evidently in a clear position to accommodate their eligible family members in Ireland will be prioritised’. Since the programme was launched, 166 family members have been granted permissions, of whom 99 have already arrived in Ireland, as of July 2019.

### 4. Conclusions

Sponsorship schemes, particularly those that are community-based, hold promising potential to create/consolidate an alternative pathway to international protection to vulnerable persons. Yet, arrangements vary significantly across countries, which impedes rapid upscaling and systematisation.

On the negative side, the numbers catered for are small. Programmes tend not to be open-ended, but geographically bounded and limited in time. Processing times tend to be long. Selection criteria are complex and not always protection-related. Few initiatives allow for self-referrals and instead rely on referrals by UNHCR or the sponsors themselves. The involvement of private actors may produce accessibility issues, considering the amount of resources and expertise required, leading to risks of ‘privatisation’ or ‘commodification’ of protection.

On the positive side, schemes tend to create additional protection space, adhering to the principles of additionality and complementarity, offering safe and regular alternatives to ‘spontaneous arrivals’. All programmes, indeed, constitute a display of solidarity with the beneficiaries and the international protection community at large. Subject as they are to states conducting character and related checks prior to departure, they allow for very high levels of security – the Irish example offers an interesting adaptation in this respect, in that it allows for the sponsor (or ‘proposer’, in the language of the IHAP)

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to sign a declaration on behalf of the ‘proposed’ resettlement candidate warranting their good character with any controls being undergone by the ‘proposed’ upon arrival in Ireland. The involvement of private (especially family) and community sponsors facilitates integration and social acceptance, thereby diminishing risks of disengagement with the system. The support of UNHCR and other specialised agencies and organisations boosts confidence and compliance with best standards. Most importantly, for current purposes, several of the schemes allow for resettlement from within the country of origin/nationality of potential beneficiaries, thereby offering a direct means of access to protection, rather than via a first country of asylum.
Chapter 3. Humanitarian visas

1. Introduction

Like sponsorship mechanisms, humanitarian visas, especially as recently practised, in response to the Syrian crisis, provide for a cooperative endeavour between states and NGOs, sometimes with UNHCR support. The key difference is the type of protective arrangement they give rise to. Different from ‘classic’ resettlement and private or community-based sponsorship schemes, humanitarian visas may or may not entail the grant of a protective status directly on arrival. In certain cases, such as the Argentinian and Brazilian experiences, in a way very similar to ‘normal’ resettlement, they facilitate admission, after completion of RSD, and provide refugee status immediately upon entry. But in other cases, which this chapter further looks into, they only furnish a channel of safe and legal access to the territory of the country concerned. Beneficiaries are selected in the country of origin or transit following a ‘lighter’ procedure, without determining whether they qualify as refugees, for subsidiary protection status, or for other types of immigration permits under domestic law. They are rather evaluated on a prima facie basis, screened out for security risks and assisted in preparations for travel to the country of destination. It is only once they enter that they are admitted to the ordinary asylum procedure and their needs assessed in the same way as those of ‘spontaneous arrivals’. There are several examples of past and current schemes that embrace this basic premise. The sections below discuss ‘humanitarian corridors’ and regional initiatives at EU level as illustrations.

2. Country programmes: ‘humanitarian corridors’

A recent study for the European Parliament revealed that up to 16 EU countries have had humanitarian visa schemes in the past. These have progressively been dismantled for different reasons, but have slowly started to re-emerge in the aftermath of the Syrian crisis. As of today, Italy, France, Belgium and Andorra have humanitarian visa schemes in the form of ‘humanitarian corridors’. These schemes are quota-based, time-bound and, typically, limited to specific nationalities or profiles of displaced persons. They use either short-term or long-term visa provisions, under either Schengen or domestic regulations, and involve a referral mechanism on the part of participating organisations, who also fund the scheme.

2.1 Italy

In Italy, a coalition of several religious groups, including the Community of Sant’Egidio, the Federation of Evangelical Churches and the Waldensian Board, signed a memorandum of understanding with the Italian Ministries of Interior and Foreign Affairs in December 2015

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221 See n 33 above, 9.
223 See n 215 above, 17–23. See also n 139 above, EASO Annual Report 2018, 36.
for a two-year pilot programme, ensuring safe access to protection for 1,000 persons, in addition to the parallel resettlement scheme of the Italian government. The rhythm of implementation, unlike other community sponsorship schemes, has been swift from the beginning, with almost 90 per cent of the quota already filled by August 2017.224

The beneficiaries of the pilot were Syrian refugees displaced to either Lebanon or Morocco, from where the ‘humanitarian corridor’ was run by the faith-based groups. They were identified on a prima facie basis and referred by the sponsors’ local networks on consideration of vulnerability, in consultation with UNHCR, targeting, especially, ‘victims of persecution, torture and violence, as well as families with children, elderly people, sick people, and persons with disabilities’.225 But the project did not distinguish between refugees and others. It rather focused on ‘individual cases determined by personal situation, age and health status, which are not a priority in the Geneva Convention’.226 Once identified, candidates were interviewed and after a security screening process by the Consular authorities, a three-month visa was issued on ‘humanitarian grounds’ for entry into Italy, for the sole purpose of lodging an asylum application immediately upon arrival.

One hundred per cent of cases submitted through this channel subsequently qualified for international protection following expedited procedures. However, after qualification, instead of the beneficiaries being treated like any other refugee or person with subsidiary protection status, their material and other needs have been attended to by the sponsors rather than the Italian state. Indeed, costs relating to accommodation, subsistence and access to services have all been covered by the sponsoring groups for an initial period of up to two years after recognition – thus deviating from the normal Qualification Directive provisions. The programme is, in fact, entirely self-funded by the participating organisations.

Another obligation of participating organisations is to provide legal assistance for the beneficiaries to be able to submit their asylum applications on arrival. Prior to that, travel arrangements for entry into Italy, including transportation, are also to be provided for by the sponsor. The sponsor is also in charge of furnishing psychological and emotional support, and cultural and social guidance, throughout the settlement process following from a successful asylum application.227 Each organisation has, therefore, developed its own approach, according to individual capacities and expertise, which has led to an amount of uncertainty as to the quality and duration of settlement assistance in individual cases.228

224 See n 215 above, 17.
228 See n 215 above, 20.
Nevertheless, the overall assessment by participating organisations has been very positive. The key objectives of the programme have been fulfilled: It provides a safe and legal entry channel, alternative to smuggling and trafficking rings, thus avoiding dangerous journeys across the Mediterranean, which benefits vulnerable persons. As a result, a new memorandum was signed in February 2017 for an extra 500 places that were to be filled until the end of 2018. This time, the target group were Eritrean, Somali and Sudanese refugees displaced to Ethiopia, hence expanding the initial focus on Syrian exiles. On expiry of the pilot on Syrian refugees, a further memorandum was agreed in November 2017 to renew the programme for another 1,000 persons. Finally, the smaller programme, targeting the Horn of Africa, has equally been renewed, on 3 May 2019, for another 600 places, for Ethiopian and Nigerien refugees. In all, this means that the initiative counts nearly 2,500 beneficiaries who have already been transferred to Italy.

The scheme has been so well received that it has been replicated in three other European states. The ‘humanitarian corridors’ programme also runs in Belgium and Andorra. As in Italy, it is sponsored by Saint’Egidio, but on a much smaller scale. In Belgium, the quota is for 150 Syrian nationals from Turkey and Lebanon, while in Andorra it is 20, also for Syrians from Lebanon. The procedure is tailored to the Italian model and uses the mechanism of short-term visas, allowing beneficiaries to travel safely and lodge an asylum claim on arrival. The French ‘humanitarian corridor’ is slightly different and is, therefore, explored separately in the next section.

2.2 France

In March 2017, France followed Italy’s example and opened a corridor from Lebanon for 500 Syrian and Iraqi nationals in a vulnerable situation, to last until the end of 2018. The memorandum was signed by five promoting organisations, that is, the Saint’Egidio Community, Protestant Federation of France, French Bishops’ Conference, Entraide Protestante and Secours Catholique. The scheme is not based on the Schengen short-term visa provisions, but on domestic long-stay visa regulations, whereby the candidate is delivered a ‘visa pour asile’ and granted permission to travel to France to apply for asylum on arrival.

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229 See n 227 above, 4.
235 See n 215 above, 21.
In the French ‘humanitarian corridor’ – similarly to the Italian scheme – the sponsor assumes a number of responsibilities for travel, accommodation, settlement and integration support for one year. But, in terms of beneficiaries, unlike the Italian experience, the programme can also accommodate applications from persons with family or other links to France rather than just vulnerable cases.236

The procedure is very similar to the Italian one: the sponsor carries out scoping interviews, submits a list of candidates and a completed visa application for each of them to the French Consular authorities in Beirut. Embassy personnel, in consultation with the Ministry of Interior, undertake a security check and then issue a Visa D within two months. Candidates have 15 days to apply for asylum after arrival, and the asylum services have three months to reach a decision. In the meantime, applicants do not have the right to work. Care, throughout this period, as in the Italian model, is provided by the sponsor.237

A previous humanitarian visa programme, administered directly by the government, running from 2012 until 2016, allowed for the self-referral, mostly via relatives, of 8,900 Syrians and Iraqis.238 It seems that the scheme was resumed in 2018, with 998 ‘visas pour asile’ issued to Syrian nationals, and another 1,013 to Iraqis.239 A similar, though very targeted initiative was launched in December 2018, under the French Humanitarian Strategy (2018–2022),240 regarding 100 Yazidi women stranded in Iraq, who were victims of sexual crimes by Islamic State (IS) fighters.241 Unlike the ‘humanitarian corridors’, this smaller scheme is entirely funded by the French state, including costs regarding protection, security, education, medical and social support upon arrival. The government signed an agreement with the IOM for the management of the logistics of the scheme, which is ongoing.242 As of May 2019, 28 Yazidi families (130 persons in total) had arrived in France under the programme.243

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236 Ibid 22.
237 Ibid 23.
238 Ibid 21.
239 See n 139 above, EASO Annual Report 2018, 36.
3. Regional initiatives: EU humanitarian visas

The EU has grappled with so-called protected-entry procedures for some time. The first detailed study on the matter, collecting national experiences and reflecting on ways in which these could be harmonised and upscaled, dates from 2002. Since then, the idea of an EU humanitarian visa has returned to the table at several points. One of the most concrete shapes the initiative has taken has been in the form of the Voluntary Humanitarian Admission Scheme (VHAS) (the ‘VHAS Recommendation’), adopted as part of the implementation of the EU-Turkey Statement, which has also served as inspiration to the EU Resettlement Framework proposal. As expounded below in Section 3.1, the scheme represents a mixture between a ‘classic’ resettlement programme and a humanitarian visa scheme, in that it involves a process similar to the one followed in resettlement, targeting persons hosted in a first country of asylum, while, at the same time, it does not entail full RSD, but rather the issuance of a temporary permit that allows the individual to subsequently lodge an asylum application upon arrival. An alternative scheme, which would operate directly from countries of origin, has been put forward in a recent study for the European Parliament. This subsequently formed the basis of the Humanitarian Visa Resolution adopted in December 2018 by the Plenary, inviting the European Commission to submit a legislative instrument to give it effect, and is discussed in section 3.2.

3.1 The EU-Turkey VHAS

The VHAS has developed under the EU-Turkey Statement regime, providing for a one-to-one ‘exchange’, according to which for every Syrian national irregularly crossing into the Greek islands and readmitted to Turkey from the EU, one Syrian refugee is to be resettled in the EU from Turkey. The VHAS aims to provide Syrian refugees in Turkey with ‘orderly, managed, safe and dignified’ access to international protection in an EU Member State and to demonstrate international solidarity. But it also aims to reduce the number of irregular arrivals. In fact, ‘the number of persons to be admitted… is to be determined regularly taking into account… the sustainable reduction of numbers of persons irregularly crossing… into the European Union’. Admission under the scheme is, thus,

246 See n 119 above, Recitals 4, 5 and 12 of the Draft Regulation.
249 See n 144 above, para 2.
250 See n 245 above, Recitals 4 and 6.
251 Ibid, Recital 10 and para 3.
strictly subordinated to Turkey’s success in halting unwanted immigration rather than premised (solely or, at least, principally) on the candidates’ protection needs – actually, the document includes a section on the ‘prevention of secondary movements’ that corroborates this approach, making pre-departure orientation and support targeted to informing candidates ‘in particular’ of ‘the consequences of onward movement’.\textsuperscript{252} The underpinning rationale is, therefore, not to expand asylum space per se, but to stem the flow of asylum seekers coming via Turkey into the EU and to prevent irregular intra-EU movement upon arrival, which detracts credibility from the EU’s commitment ‘to create a system of solidarity and burden sharing with Turkey for the protection of persons forcefully displaced by the conflict in Syria’.\textsuperscript{253}

Once the Member States reach the ‘common conclusion’ that such is the case,\textsuperscript{254} the system is deployed based on a double-referral process, whereby UNHCR makes ‘a recommendation… following [a] referral by Turkey’, but only with regard to displaced persons ‘who have been registered by the Turkish authorities prior to 29 November 2015’ – thereby substantially reducing the pool of potential beneficiaries.\textsuperscript{255} Participation in the scheme is strictly voluntary. So, it is unclear why participating countries ‘should take into account… absorption, reception and integration capacities, the size of the population, total GDP, past asylum efforts, and the unemployment rate’ when accepting applicants\textsuperscript{256} – a distribution key only makes sense in cases where pre-defined, compulsory quotas or some other allocation mechanism is in place.

Decisions under the VHAS are to be taken according to a ‘standardised’ admission procedure with several elements – modelled on ‘classic’ resettlement programmes, including identity and registration checks, security and medical screenings, a vulnerability evaluation ‘according to UNHCR standards’ and an assessment of possible family links (although limited to ‘the participating states’) – alongside a ‘preliminary assessment of the reasons for fleeing from Syria’, rather than a full status determination process. In fact, persons are to be selected on a prima facie basis, ‘as [being] in need of international protection, [and] without having a profile that could bring them under the scope of the exclusion clauses’.\textsuperscript{257} They must fall within at least one of the UNHCR resettlement submission categories. The assessment is undertaken on the basis of documentary evidence and/or an interview with the selected candidate,\textsuperscript{258} who can be excluded due to ‘reasons for exclusion from international protection’ under the Qualification Directive or because of security concerns.\textsuperscript{259}

\textsuperscript{252} Ibid, paras 12–13.
\textsuperscript{253} Ibid, Recital 3.
\textsuperscript{254} Ibid, para 6.
\textsuperscript{255} Ibid, para 2.
\textsuperscript{256} Ibid, para 4.
\textsuperscript{258} Ibid, 10.
\textsuperscript{259} See n 245 above, para 7.
The process should be run through a ‘collaborative effort of the participating Member States, Turkey, UNHCR and EASO’, according to standardised operating procedures (SOPs), prepared by EASO and designed in consultation with ‘the Commission, participating states, the Turkish authorities, UNHCR and IOM’. Nevertheless, all final decisions, to be adopted within six months, rest solely (and without appeal) with the Member State concerned.

Rather than refugee status, once admitted in the territory of the country of resettlement, successful candidates are to be granted subsidiary protection or an ‘equivalent temporary status under national law’, with a minimum duration of one year. But, according to the SOPs adopted to give effect to the scheme, ‘[t]his is without prejudice to the right of the admitted candidate to [subsequently] apply for and be granted international protection in the framework of an asylum procedure’. To foster operational cooperation between the authorities of participating EU countries, the VHAS Recommendation also suggests that ‘common processing centres and/or mobile teams’ be developed, ‘where staff of one participating State is authorised to represent another participating State for the purpose of conducting whole or part of the selection process on behalf of that other State’, including for ‘the assessment of documentation and the conducting of interviews’. The idea is that this takes place ‘either at the representation or in the province where the admission candidate is registered’. But the procedures to follow, the regulatory framework applicable in such cases, and any due process guarantees and effective remedies have not been specified – and the SOPs are also silent in this respect.

Up until March 2019, although the VHAS is yet to be officially activated, 20,292 individuals have been resettled from Turkey following similar arrangements. Irregular arrivals through the Aegean Sea are at a historical low; 97 per cent lower than in the period preceding the EU-Turkey Statement. Nonetheless, Turkey continues, for the fifth year in a row, to be the top country of asylum in the world, hosting 3.7 million (mostly Syrian) refugees. Syrians, from their part, remain the top refugee nationality, with 6.7 million displaced since the outbreak of the conflict in 2011. This is not to diminish the importance of the 20,292 resettled in the EU (and Schengen Associate Countries), but to put it in perspective. The number represents 0.5 per cent of the total refugees hosted by Turkey alone. So, insisting – as the European Commission does – that

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260 See n 257 above.
261 See n 245 above, para 8.
262 Ibid, para 10.
263 Ibid, para 9.
264 Ibid, para 11.
265 See n 257 above. See also n 119 above, Recital 5 of the Draft Regulation.
266 See n 257 above, 12.
268 See n 145 above, 1–2.
269 See n 2 above.
270 Ibid.
‘more progress on returns to Turkey [is] needed’,\textsuperscript{271} appears to be unjustified – at least, from a pure ‘responsibility sharing’ perspective. It is also necessary to take into account in this context that Turkey has been disqualified as a ‘safe third country’ for Syrians by several observers – including, not least, the Greek courts, with 390 out of 393 decisions of the Greek Asylum Appeals Committees ruling that safe third country criteria were not met with regard to Turkey.\textsuperscript{272}

3.2 Towards a streamlined EU humanitarian visa?

The European Parliament has been recurrently calling for humanitarian visas, especially since the outbreak of the ‘refugee crisis’ in the summer of 2015 and against the background of the massive death toll in the Mediterranean.\textsuperscript{273} It has tried to introduce provisions in this respect within the Common Visa Code, but failed due to opposition by both the European Commission and the Council. As an alternative, the Committee on Civil Liberties, Justice and Home Affairs (LIBE) drew up a legislative own-initiative report, requesting the European Commission to table a proposal for a legal instrument establishing a European Humanitarian Visa by the end of March 2019.\textsuperscript{274} The request, however, has gone unheeded. The European Commission has instead proposed to focus efforts on the adoption of the URF Regulation, citing political unfeasibility as a reason not to pursue the humanitarian visa route.\textsuperscript{275} Nonetheless, the recommendations in the LIBE report contain elements for an innovative solution worth considering at length.

The starting point is the ‘current paradoxical situation’,\textsuperscript{276} whereby persons in need of international protection are subjected, under EU law, to visa requirements for travel to a potential country of asylum in the EU, but, at the same time, are unable to obtain them precisely because, as protection seekers, they are in no position to show willingness and ability to return to the country of provenance upon expiry of the visa when submitting their applications. Otherwise, ‘there is in EU law no provision as to how [else] a refugee should actually [legally] arrive, leading to a situation that almost all arrivals take place in

\textsuperscript{271} See n 145 above, 3.


\textsuperscript{273} See, eg, European Parliament, Resolution of 12 April 2016 on the situation in the Mediterranean and the need for a holistic EU approach to migration (2015/2095(INI)).


\textsuperscript{276} See n 274 above, 12 within ‘Explanatory Statement’.
an irregular manner’. The end result is that protection seekers ‘need to engage in life-threatening trips’.

The consequence for Member States is also negative; they are then faced with ‘uncontrolled arrivals (with unknown numbers and no information on who is arriving)’. There are attached costs as well: human, financial and operational, translating in ‘increased efforts necessary to manage such arrivals in terms of enhanced border control and surveillance, search and rescue activities, cooperation with third countries, etc’.

Finally, there are also crime-related effects, such as ‘ever-stronger organised crime, which benefits from financial gain made by human smuggling’.

Against this background, the LIBE Committee proposes addressing the situation of foreign nationals ‘who are subject to the visa requirement, who are in need of protection against a real risk of being exposed to persecution or serious harm, and who are not covered by any other instrument, such as resettlement’. The idea is to provide a legal pathway that is ‘complementary to and not [a] substitute [for] the already existing national entry procedures for humanitarian protection, resettlement procedures and spontaneous applications’. The solution they suggest is to put together a harmonised legal framework at EU level for humanitarian visas, that is, visas generally available to ‘persons seeking international protection to allow those persons to enter the territory of the Member State issuing the visa for the sole purpose of making an application for international protection in that Member State’.

The beneficiaries under this initiative would be foreign nationals who are subject to a visa requirement under EU law and who face a risk of persecution or serious harm – coinciding with the categories of persons protected under the Qualification Directive and the principle of non-refoulement. By contrast, family members ‘who would otherwise have a right to join [them] in a timely manner in accordance with other legal acts’ would be excluded. The idea is that each qualifying applicant submits their own individual application.

It should be possible to lodge applications directly by the person concerned (by way of self-referrals), both in person and remotely, through electronic means or by post,


278 See n 274 above, 12 within ‘Explanatory Statement’.


280 See n 274 above, 13 within ‘Explanatory Statement’.

281 Ibid, 5 within ‘Motion for a European Parliament Resolution’; and EU Humanitarian Visas Resolution (n 273), Consideration 3.

282 See n 274 above, 3 and 5 within ‘Motion for a European Parliament Resolution’; and EU Humanitarian Visas Resolution (n 273), preamble Recital A and Consideration 2. To make accessibility to this kind of visa easier to potential applicants, the LIBE Committee suggests that relevant information be widely posted on the websites of the European External Action Service and the EU Member States’ representations abroad. See n 274 above, p 9 under ‘Administrative Management and Organisation’.

283 See n 274 above, 7 under ‘General Provisions’; and see n 273 above, 5 under ‘General Provisions’.
at any diplomatic representation of the Member States. Applications should use a standard form, including the applicant’s identity information, biometric identifiers and, if available, documentation substantiating the reasons for the fear of persecution or serious harm underlying the application. There should always be an interview with the applicant, undertaken either in person or remotely, through the use of videoconferencing, for instance, but always in a way that guarantees the security, safety and confidentiality of communications.  

The assessment of applications is to be entrusted to an independent and impartial authority, competent in matters of international protection, with adequate knowledge and expertise. Such authority is to reach a decision on a prima facie basis, considering the documents submitted, including the applicant’s declaration, but ‘without conducting a full status determination process’, and on account of a security screening, through consultation of the relevant EU and national databases. But the LIBE report makes clear that ‘the assessment [to be carried out] is an assessment of the visa application and not an external processing of an asylum application’, due to the many legal and practical questions the latter would give rise to.

The decision is to be taken in an individualised, written and motivated form, within 15 days, and communicated to the applicant. Positive determinations lead to the issuance of a visa, allowing its holder to travel to and enter the territory of the issuing Member State ‘for the sole purpose of making an application for international protection’, upon arrival, in that same Member State. On the other hand, a refusal to obtain a humanitarian visa should ‘not… affect in any way the right to apply for asylum within the Union nor does it prevent the applicant to enter other available protection schemes’. There should be the possibility for the rejected applicant to mount an appeal, ‘as is currently foreseen in the case of a refusal of a short-stay visa or a refusal of entry at the border’ under EU rules. The idea is that humanitarian visas follow as closely as possible the issuing rules applicable to Schengen visas under EU law.

To facilitate the administrative management of the process, the LIBE report and Parliament Resolution foresee that it should be possible for state authorities to either be posted in consulates or embassies abroad or remain within the issuing country. The issuing procedure, then, could combine elements of direct and remote handling of

284 See n 274 above, 8 under ‘Procedures for Issuing Humanitarian Visas’; and see n 273 above, 6 under ‘Procedures for Issuing Humanitarian Visas’.
285 See n 274 above, 13 within ‘Explanatory Statement’.
286 Ibid, 8 under ‘Procedures for Issuing Humanitarian Visas’; and see n 273 above, 6 under ‘Procedures for Issuing Humanitarian Visas’.
287 See n 274 above, 13 within ‘Explanatory Statement’.
288 Ibid, 9 under ‘Procedures for Issuing Humanitarian Visas’; and see n 273 above, 6 under ‘Procedures for Issuing Humanitarian Visas’.
289 See n 274 above, 9 under ‘Issuing a Humanitarian Visa’; and see n 273 above, 7 under ‘Issuing a Humanitarian Visa’.
290 See n 274 above, 7 under ‘General Provisions’; and see n 273 above, 5 under ‘General Provisions’.
291 See n 274 above, 9 under ‘Procedures for Issuing Humanitarian Visas’; and see n 273 above, 6 under ‘Procedures for Issuing Humanitarian Visas’.
292 See n 274 above, 13 within ‘Explanatory Statement’.
applications. Cooperation with EU agencies, international organisations and NGOs, is also presented as an option to ease operations.\footnote{293 See n 274 above, 9 under ‘Administrative Management and Organisation’; and see n 273 above, 7 under ‘Administrative Management and Organisation’.

\footnote{294 See n 274 above, 10 under ‘Final Provisions’; and see n 273 above, 7 under ‘Final Provisions’.

\footnote{295 See n 273 above, 3, Consideration 3.

\footnote{296 See n 275 above, 1.} 294 In the same spirit and to ensure participation by Member States, the proposal suggests that EU funding, equivalent to that available under the European Resettlement Framework, should be provided in compensation to issuing countries per humanitarian visa delivered to a beneficiary under this scheme.\footnote{294}

### 4. Conclusions

If ever adopted, the \textbf{EU humanitarian visa} would constitute the first streamlined, \textbf{grand-scale attempt to provide for a lifeline of primary access to asylum} to persons in need of international protection. Even if ‘the decision to issue European Humanitarian Visas should remain the sole competence of the Member States’,\footnote{295} as the Plenary of the European Parliament has noted – and would, thus, ‘[not] create a subjective right to request admission and to be admitted or an obligation on the Member States to admit a person in need of international protection’,\footnote{296} contrary to the fears of the European Commission – the proposal holds the potential to make a very significant difference. The reliance on \textbf{self-referrals}, \textbf{prima facie determination} and \textbf{swift processing times} creates a \textbf{credible substitute for smuggling and trafficking routes}.

The \textbf{EU-Turkey VHAS}, by contrast, is \textbf{closer to a resettlement mechanism} than a route of primary access to asylum. Its very heavy reliance on deterrence converts it into a system of \textbf{migration control}. Nonetheless, the fact that it provides for an option for beneficiaries to lodge a ‘fresh’ international protection application upon arrival at the country of destination entails a component of the humanitarian visa experiments worth noting.

Finally, ‘\textbf{humanitarian corridors}’ are absolutely commendable in that they procure a means of access to high-quality asylum to persons displaced in a third country whose status is yet to be formally established. But they differ from the humanitarian visa formula in that they \textbf{do not focus}, at least exclusively, on \textbf{persons still within their countries of origin}. This, added to the fact that the corridors are entirely funded by community sponsors, makes expansion and replicability harder, and in part explains why the numbers remain small.
Chapter 4. Emergency Evacuation

1. Introduction

In situations in which needs are so urgent that they do not allow for detailed consideration of the characteristics and circumstances of potential refugees, several emergency mechanisms for their rapid transfer to safer locations have been made available. The slowest (for its complexity) is ‘emergency resettlement’, which requires compliance with all resettlement formalities and works on the premise that beneficiaries have undergone full RSD before travel. The country schemes examined in section 2.1 demonstrate that this route is suboptimal. Only Canada reserves part of its yearly resettlement quota for these cases, which can, nonetheless, take substantial time for processing. The EU version of ‘expedited resettlement’, as proposed by the European Commission in the draft URF Regulation is also considered in section 2.2.

Due to the inadequacy of ‘emergency resettlement’ responses, ‘Evacuation Transit Facilities’ have emerged to facilitate it. As expounded in section 3, they take the form of either ‘Emergency Transit Centres (ETCs)’ or ‘ETMs’ and are intended as points of transition in between countries of displacement and countries of final destination, so resettlement processing can be undertaken or completed in a secure environment. Section 4, then, explores evacuation programmes proper, focusing on the rapid transfer of persons at risk, and typically without full screening, from within the country in which the emergency originates and directly to the country of final destination, without intermediary stops. The Italian programme for humanitarian evacuation from Libya and the (past and very small) EU Bethlehem evacuation scheme launched in 2002 are considered in detail as experiences providing key insights for replication on a broader scale.

2. Emergency resettlement

In addition to ‘normal’ resettlement procedures, as pointed out in chapter 2, UNHCR may promote ‘emergency’ resettlement action in situations requiring an urgent response. Several countries have, accordingly, reserved a number of places from their annual resettlement quotas to cater for such eventualities, or agreed to receive such referrals and to cut down processing times to better respond to need. Nonetheless, in emergency resettlement cases, the full resettlement processing protocols and criteria still apply, with UNHCR producing a dossier per identified candidate, including an RRF, and undertaking refugee status screening prior to referral. The key difference in relation to the ordinary priority level is that deadlines are shorter and processing times faster: ‘Ideally, there [should be] a seven-day maximum time period between the submission of an emergency case for acceptance by the resettlement country, and the
refugee’s departure’. The main resettlement countries, including Canada, the US and Australia, offer examples of this practice.

2.1 Country schemes

To begin with, Canada reserves 100 places for relocation under its Urgent Protection Programme (UPP) to respond to emergency requests from UNHCR, in order to provide urgent protection to persons who qualify for resettlement and, thus, need expedited processing. Qualifying cases include ‘persons in need of urgent protection through resettlement due to immediate threats to their life, liberty or physical safety’, excluding medical cases. In such situations, while it remains important to record and document protection claims as much as possible, the usual requirements for biometrics and an interview may be waived. The reasons behind the urgent need for resettlement and justifying the abridgment of procedures should, in that case, be ‘clearly stated’. The request should be submitted directly by UNHCR to the migration office that covers the country/area where the refugee resides, which should provide an answer within 24 hours on whether they have the capacity to respond. The guideline is for the entire process to last one week, including medical examinations and background checks. If this is not possible (since checks take, at a minimum, between one to four months to complete), UNHCR should be kept informed of progress. When complete processing for a Permanent Resident Visa cannot be carried out, the competent authority may instead issue a Temporary Resident Permit. The Temporary Resident Permit document – similarly to what happens in ‘humanitarian corridor’ schemes – allows the beneficiary to travel to Canada before all the statutory checks have been concluded. Any remaining medical, security and criminality checks are then undergone on arrival, where the beneficiary can subsequently apply for permanent residency.

The US also contemplates the possibility of receiving requests from UNHCR to accept emergency resettlement cases. Although there is no specific yearly quota reserved to this effect, authorities signal that there is ‘very limited capacity to process applicants from referral to arrival in approximately 16 weeks’. This is due to limited stringent security clearance procedures, statutory protocols for detecting and treating TB overseas, and the

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297 UNHCR, See n 41 above, 246.
298 Some European countries, including Finland, France, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden also provide a small number of emergency resettlement quotas. Other countries, including the UK, are developing capacity. See, eg, UK Government, New global resettlement scheme for the most vulnerable refugees announced, 17 June 2019: ‘A new process for emergency resettlement will also be developed, allowing the UK to respond quickly to instances when there is a heightened need for protection, providing a faster route to resettlement where lives are at risk’ www.gov.uk/government/news/new-global-resettlement-scheme-for-the-most-vulnerable-refugees-announced accessed 26 July 2019.
300 Ibid 9.
301 Ibid 7.
302 Ibid 9.
303 See n 107 above, 3.
regulatory requirement for a face-to-face interview with all applicants. Other than this potential for expedited processing, there is no other exception applied in these cases, with the ‘normal’ resettlement requirements remaining in place.

Australia has developed an Emergency Rescue Visa, granting permanent settlement, for application in emergency cases, which are prioritised for processing within the resettlement stream. There is no specific quota reserved for this category, but a very small number is granted every year. The targeted beneficiaries are persons facing persecution, whether they are still within their country of origin or not, with ‘urgent and compelling reasons to travel to Australia’, and under ‘an immediate threat to their life or personal security’. Requests are centralised and referred to the Australian authorities via the UNHCR’s Regional Office in Canberra. These referrals are given the ‘highest processing priority’ of all applications for resettlement. The aim is to decide them within two days on receipt of the RRF from UNHCR. Once accepted, the objective is to evacuate the person concerned within three days, pending health, character and security clearance procedures. A flexible approach may be applied in the arrangement of these checks, depending on the specific circumstances and as determined by the Australian government in consultation with UNHCR.

2.2 EU ‘expedited’ resettlement

The URF includes an ‘expedited’ resettlement procedure, separate from the ‘ordinary’ procedure, to attend to ‘specific humanitarian grounds or urgent legal or physical protection needs’. Rather than on the basis of full RSD, the focus is on determining prima facie eligibility for international protection of the potential beneficiary, who should, nonetheless, undergo ‘the same level of security checks’ as any other candidate for resettlement under the framework.

The expedited procedure is considered a ‘derogation’ from the ordinary steps to be taken under the ordinary procedure. So, when in application, Member States are to refrain from assessing whether candidates qualify as refugees, and they can also not request UNHCR to undertake full RSD for them. They must take a decision ‘as soon as possible’ and by a maximum of four months since the registration of the candidate concerned, which can only be extended once by another two months. In case of a positive decision, the beneficiary must be granted subsidiary protection status, resettled as soon as possible, and be given the option to submit a full application for asylum under the Qualification Directive upon entry in the resettling EU Member State, so their qualification for refugee status can be properly assessed.

304 Ibid 9.
307 Ibid 7.
308 See n 119 above, Explanatory Memorandum, 12.
309 Ibid. As the European Commission notes, this approach follows closely the SOPs (see n 257 above) underpinning the EU-Turkey VHAS (see n 245 above). On prima facie recognition of international protection needs, see n 257 above, 4.
310 See n 119 above, Art 11 of the Draft Regulation.
However, rather than on a case-by-case basis, the framework foresees that it be for each targeted resettlement scheme to determine which procedure to apply, on consideration of the specific needs and circumstances of the emergency to be catered for. Under the proposal, it is for the European Commission to issue such ‘Targeted Union Resettlement Scheme’, in line with the ‘Annual Union Resettlement Plan’ adopted by the European Council, taking account of the High-Level Resettlement Committee perspectives. Each targeted resettlement scheme needs to set out the number of potential beneficiaries, details about the participation of EU Member States, the target group, specific geographical coverage, date of deployment and intended total duration, and a detailed justification for the choices made, including with regard to the type of procedure to be applied.

3. Evacuation Transit Facilities

Considering the limitations of emergency resettlement, UNHCR has developed the concept of ‘Evacuation Transit Facility’ (ETF) to facilitate urgent protection to refugees in need of resettlement at a short notice. The concept builds on ad hoc experiences gathered in different locations worldwide. For example, in 1999–2000, 1,500 Tutsi refugees at risk in DRC were evacuated to Cameroon and Benin temporarily, while resettlement countries completed their processing. The war in former Yugoslavia offers a similar example. In 1999–2002, more than 4,500 refugees from Croatia and Bosnia were taken to Romania in transit until interviews by resettlement countries were completed. Again, in 2005 and 2006, Romania hosted 450 Uzbek refugees from Kyrgyzstan for a limited time until they were resettled by other countries. Two models of emergency transit facilities have been developed through time: the ETC model and the ETM.

3.1 ETCs and ETMs

The ETC model applies in Romania and Slovakia, where a central, physical facility hosts all the evacuated refugees in one location. By contrast, the ETM and Protection Transfer Arrangement (PTA) models, as developed in Costa Rica, Niger and the Philippines, are characterised by the reception of evacuees being diffused, with the refugees concerned being housed in different locations.
The first ETC emerged in Romania via a tripartite agreement between the government, UNHCR and the IOM, for the establishment of a centre in Timișoara in 2008.\textsuperscript{316} The second country to agree to host an ETM was the Philippines in 2009.\textsuperscript{317} Slovakia was the third, also in 2009, but for a specific group of Palestinian refugees, agreeing to extend the agreement on a general basis in 2010.\textsuperscript{318} Costa Rica was the fourth, entering into a PTA, first for a pilot with El Salvador in 2016, and for a fully fledged scheme, also including Honduras and Guatemala as countries of origin, in 2017.\textsuperscript{319} The PTA is a variant of the ETM scheme that emerged in Central America to cater for the displacement of persons due to gang violence in the so-called Northern Triangle, offering individuals facing extreme risks in those three countries with safe and legal access to resettlement via Costa Rica, acting as a transit country.\textsuperscript{320} Finally, the latest to agree to host an ETM was Niger, in November 2017, in response to the emergency in Libya.\textsuperscript{321}

Although a detailed exploration of the ETM in Niger follows in section 3.2, it is worth summarising the key characteristics of ETFs. While the different formulas have their similarities and shared roots, there are also stark differences between them, especially with regard to processing arrangements. Whereas refugees transferred to Romania (ETC) will have undergone full RSD processing and been pre-approved by a resettlement country pending in-person interviews, persons evacuated to Niger (ETM) will regularly only undergo RSD and be submitted for resettlement to a potential host country upon arrival in Niger. By contrast, the PTA in Costa Rica contains elements of in-country processing that are not found in other ETFs. Below follows the general features, as formulated in the UNHCR \textit{Guidance Notes on Emergency Transit Facilities}, and as they apply in particular to ETCs.

In terms of \textbf{beneficiaries}, ETFs, in both formats, target refugees and persons in refugee-like situations in particularly delicate circumstances, including: those facing an imminent or extreme risk of harm in the form of \textit{refoulement} or some other life-threatening event; those in detention and for whom release requires a transfer out of the country of first asylum; those with a particularly high or sensitive profile, who face serious protection problems; and those in regard to whom processing for resettlement cannot be completed in the country of first asylum due to inaccessibility to the person concerned because of security or similar reasons. Normally, all UNHCR resettlement categories could potentially be considered for ETF transfer, \textit{except} medical cases suffering from serious illness requiring major medical interventions. This is due to the lack of appropriate facilities within ETCs and ETMs.


\textsuperscript{317} Memorandum of Agreement Among the Government of the Republic of the Philippines, the Office of the UNHCR, and IOM Concerning the Emergency Transit of Refugees, 27 August 2009.

\textsuperscript{318} Agreement between the Government of the Slovak Republic, the Office of the UNHCR and IOM Concerning Humanitarian Transfer of Refugees in Need of International Protection Through the Slovak Republic, 22 December 2010.


\textsuperscript{320} The PTA forms part of the \textit{Comprehensive Regional Protection and Solutions Framework} within the San Pedro Sula Declaration of 26 October 2017 www.acnur.org/5b58d75a4.pdf accessed 26 July 2019.

\textsuperscript{321} See n 315 above, Niger: Country Operation Update.
A precondition for transfer to an ETC – though not to an ETM – is that there be an offer by a resettlement country agreeing to pursue resettlement processing in the facility, even if there is no guarantee of acceptance at the time of transfer. What UNHCR tries to avoid – and countries hosting an ETF make clear in the terms of the agreements concluded – is refugees becoming stranded in the transit location without onward resettlement and with no other durable solution in sight. Therefore, the maximum stay at ETCs and ETMs tends to be six months – prolonged only in exceptional circumstances.322

The process is based on identification and referral by UNHCR – or partner organisations, as in the case of the PTA – deciding on the suitability of the case for a transfer to an ETF. In this part of the process, the relevant bodies and offices within UNHCR decide on the basis of the background of the case, the protection risks of the person concerned, the circumstances that warrant transfer, whether the ETF host country agrees to the transfer and whether a potential resettlement country has accepted to run resettlement processing in regard of the person concerned at the ETF facilities. The case history is to be taken into account, including biodata, the UNHCR RRF, any documentation available and any notes on RSD regarding the candidate. This material, upon identification of a suitable case, should be assessed within 24 hours. In case of internal approval, the Resettlement Service within UNHCR shall locate a suitable ETF, considering places available, geographic proximity and processing expediency. On those grounds, once the best ETF for the case has been selected, contact must be made with the authorities of the country hosting it for their approval and the arrangement of an entry visa within seven working days. On receipt of a positive decision, pre-departure arrangements are organised, including for transportation, exit permits, transit visas and travel escorts, as appropriate. Counselling of the selected candidate is mandatory at that point, so they are informed of the conditions of the ETF arrangements. On arrival at the ETF, the potential resettlement country can undertake the interview and other processing formalities necessary. If needed, interviews can be organised remotely, using videoconferencing technology – as the case has been at the ETC in Timișoara. Successful cases will be put through the pre-departure protocols, including cultural orientation, medical checks and so on, for the quickest transfer possible to the final resettlement destination.323

Since the launch of the different ETCs and ETMs, these initiatives have been evaluated positively, on the whole.324 Even though the numbers remain small,325 qualitatively, the life-saving aspect of ETFs is vital. ETFs bring about immediate safety, security and access to basic services, while awaiting transfer to a resettlement country, to refugees who would otherwise never have been resettled.326 There are benefits for resettlement countries, too. Considering their limited capacity to respond to urgent cases, due to complex internal procedures, including security and health clearance prior to resettlement, ETFs offer stable and secure locations where to undertake resettlement

323 See n 314 above, 4–8, para 17.
325 In the case of ETCs, this is due, in part, to the limited capacity of the centres: 200 places in Romania and 150 in Slovakia. See n 324 above, 1, para 2 and 4, para 27. See also n 319 above, 1 and 3.
326 See n 324 above, 4–5, para 27.
checks in optimal conditions and in cooperation with experienced partners, such as UNHCR and the IOM. Finally, countries hosting ETFs raise their profiles as resettlement facilitators, demonstrating solidarity, while neither assuming all of the operational costs (shared with the partner organisations) nor providing a durable solution themselves.

But, there is also room for improvement. The conditions at ETCs have been externally evaluated as being suboptimal, even though the facilities remain underutilised – due, in part, to relevant UNHCR personnel not being aware of the existence of ETFs or of the procedure applicable to use them. In the Timișoara Centre, for instance, refugees are not allowed to leave the premises unless escorted, which amounts to a serious restriction of their freedom of movement, if not de facto detention for the entire duration of their stay at the centre. There is also a scarcity of leisure and occupational activities that refugees can undertake while at the centre, which brings a sense of boredom and ‘their lives [being put] on hold’. Sharing rooms with other families and individuals leads to tensions and stress, and the lack of adequate maintenance of the premises, and of basic household and personal items, contributes to that as well. UNHCR external evaluators have, therefore, proposed that a set of minimum standards for ETCs be developed, so as to guarantee adequate treatment and the wellbeing of refugees.

The ‘turnover’ of refugees has also been slower than expected, with some refugees overstaying the six-month period. This is due to different factors: the imposition of emergency priority quotas by resettlement countries; the lengthy procedures applicable to transfers from countries of first asylum; and the pre-condition that there be a resettlement country already identified as willing to process the potential beneficiary to set the whole system in motion. This has led to the conclusion that ETCs have, in the end, moved away from their original objective, serving more as facilitators of ‘normal’ resettlement than as urgent evacuation transit facilities, with UNHCR external evaluators even proposing that their name be changed to ‘Resettlement Transit Centres’, ‘to give a clearer indication of the main purpose of these centres’.

Nonetheless, these flaws can be addressed, and there are signs of very positive practices developing as well. Although few, there have been urgent cases received at the Romanian ETC, thanks to the flexible approach adopted by the Romanian government, facilitating entry clearance to referred cases. Romania has waived visa requirements altogether for evacuees to reach the ETC from the country of asylum, thereby considerably shortening waiting periods and accelerating processing. And there are also very valuable lessons that can be learnt from the Nigerien ETM explored hereunder.

328 See n 324 above, 2, para 7.
329 Ibid 3, para 18. Note, however, that this is the assessment of the external evaluator of the Romanian ETC, rather than UNHCR’s view of the situation.
330 Ibid 3, para 19.
331 Ibid 4, para 20.
332 Ibid 3, para 14.
334 Ibid 3–4, paras 16, 17 and 23.
335 Ibid 5, para 28.
336 Ibid 2, para 7.
3.2 ETM for Libya

The Nigerien ETM started in November 2017 as one key part of the evacuation plan for Libya. The other key element is the ‘transit and departure’ facility, launched in the same period, run by UNHCR in Tripoli, with Italian support, to organise resettlement and evacuation operations, including to the Nigerien ETM, also providing registration and assistance to the 50,000+ vulnerable refugees and asylum seekers present in the country.

The ETM in Niger has capacity for 1,000 evacuees and priority is given to ‘refugees trapped in detention in Libya’. The most common nationalities are Eritrean and Somali, and their profiles predominantly include torture survivors, who are also unaccompanied minors and/or women and girls at risk. Newly arrived evacuees are registered and accommodated in guesthouses in Niamey, while awaiting resettlement processing and/or departure to a resettlement country. Although nearly 2,000 evacuees, since the beginning of the ETM, have been resettled from Niger to a third country (mostly to EU Member States, Canada and the US), the key challenge remains the slow processing of candidates. Without improving the fluidity of the process, places in the Nigerien ETM remain occupied, so that no new refugees can be freed from Libyan detention centres for evacuation.

UNHCR estimates that there are 5,600 persons arbitrarily detained in Libya, for whom the agency is advocating immediate release or evacuation to other places, such as the Nigerien ETM. However, for this to happen, third countries must step up efforts and offer more evacuation and resettlement places. The Nigerien government has agreed to host a new ETM centre, which is being prepared in Hamdallaye, 40 km away from Niamey, with funding from the EU Africa Trust Fund. But pledges from and actual departures to resettlement countries remain insufficient.

At 12 July 2019, there were 53,279 refugees and asylum seekers registered with UNHCR in Libya. Since the beginning of the evacuation operation in late 2017, only 4,000 persons have been transferred out of Libya: 2,911 to the Nigerien ETM; 710 directly to Italy (to which we return in the next section); and 269 to the Romanian ETC. There are three different groups of evacuees, depending on the level of processing for resettlement that can be completed in Libya prior to departure. The first group is fully processed in Libya by both UNHCR and the resettlement country concerned, and taken out of Libya directly. The second group is fully processed for resettlement by UNHCR.

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337 See n 315 above, 1.
340 Ibid 3.
341 Ibid 5.
342 Ibid 7.
344 See n 315 above, Niger: Country Operation Update, 2 and 6.
345 See n 343 above.
in Libya, then evacuated to the Nigerien ETM for further processing by the resettlement country. Finally, the third group is composed of those who are only pre-screened by UNHCR and evacuated to Niger for subsequent full processing by UNHCR and the resettlement country once in the ETM. Of the total 1,480 submissions for resettlement of persons in the first group, only 434 have left Libya. Regarding the other two groups taken together, of the total 2,234 evacuees submitted for resettlement, only 1,496 have departed from Niger. 346

The unavailability of pathways to a durable solution, whether through evacuation, direct transfer (eg, via humanitarian visas), or resettlement, has combined with the worsening of conditions for protection seekers in Libya, who remain trapped in detention, unable to flee as the crossfire intensifies. This has contributed to the constellation of factors that has made it possible for Khalifa Haftar, commanding the rebel army opposing Al-Jarrai’s UN-backed government, to bomb the Tajoura Centre in early July 2019, killing 44 detainees and wounding another 130. 347 The situation in Tajoura was dangerous for a long time – UNHCR alerted to the need for urgent evacuation at least two months before the attack. 348 In response to this, UNHCR and the IOM have jointly urged the EU and African Union to change their approach to refugees and migrants in Libya, making human rights the ‘core element’ of their engagement in the country. 349 To this effect, systematic detention must stop, pull-backs and forcible disembarkation in Libya must stop, and assistance to Libyan authorities without human rights guarantees must stop, too. On the other hand, systematic and widespread engagement with durable solutions is essential, both through classic and more imaginative initiatives.

4. Evacuation programmes

The evacuation programme started by Italy in December 2017, and explored in section 4.1, has provided one such imaginative solution to vulnerable persons trapped in the midst of the Libyan crisis. Another example of a regionalised (EU) evacuation scheme is offered in section 4.2, providing a solution to a reduced number of Palestinians, trapped in the Church of the Nativity of Bethlehem during the Second Intifada, which constitutes nonetheless an example of a regional effort of coordinated evacuation.

4.1 Italy’s humanitarian evacuation programme from Libya

According to the latest figures, Italy has undertaken 710 evacuations directly from Libya since the start of the evacuation plan for the country in late 2017. Although the numbers are small when compared to the scale of need, the initiative is significant and worth replicating on a bigger level – especially now that violence is on the rise and UNHCR is ‘urging the international community to evacuate all refugees who remain inside detention centres in Tripoli and to bring them to safety’.

The Italian humanitarian evacuation programme from Libya started with the evacuation of 162 highly vulnerable refugees from Eritrea, Ethiopia, Somalia and Yemen, including unaccompanied minors, disabled persons and women at risk, who had been held captive for extended periods in Libya and undergone grave maltreatment and abuse. The unprecedented intervention, entailing the transfer to Italy directly out of Libya, was the result of a tripartite arrangement between the Italian authorities, the Libyan UN-recognised government and UNHCR. The mechanism has been repeated several times, throughout 2018 and 2019, bringing to safety several hundreds of very vulnerable persons.

It is not clear from the information publicly available how exactly the selection process was undertaken. What we know is that upon referral and acceptance by the Italian authorities, the beneficiaries were accompanied, first to Tripoli by UNHCR personnel and then to Italy. They were evacuated on visas issued by the Italian Ministry of Foreign Affairs by two military planes, which landed at a military base near Rome, from which they were transferred to reception facilities by the Italian authorities. The Episcopal Conference of Italy, through Caritas, provided care, support and accommodation. It is only upon arrival that they were counselled and informed about the asylum procedure, which leads to the conclusion that no full RSD had been carried out prior to departure. The same procedure was used, for example, in February 2018, bringing 150 persons to safety in Italy, and in April 2019, after a new bout of violence broke out near Tripoli and a group of 146 persons in need of protection was transferred out of the country.

4.2 The EU Bethlehem evacuation scheme

A variant of the Italian evacuation programme, resembling the EU expedited resettlement scheme – which, if the EU Resettlement Framework Regulation is adopted

350 See n 346 above.
351 See n 348 above.
will be streamlined and systematised – is the one-off, very small-scale, EU Bethlehem evacuation operation undertaken in 2002. The scheme targeted the 13 Palestinian nationals taking refuge in the Church of the Nativity in Bethlehem after the siege by the Israeli Defence Forces during the Second Intifada.\footnote{Timeline: Bethlehem siege (BBC News, 10 May 2002) http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/middle_east/1950331.stm accessed 26 July 2019.}

Initially, the 13 Palestinians were transferred to Cyprus, and from there to other EU Member States. A Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP) Common Position was adopted concerning the transfer and temporary reception of the 13 Palestinian nationals, following an agreement with the Government of Israel, the Palestinian Authority and other parties.\footnote{Council Common Position of 21 May 2002 concerning the temporary reception by Member States of the European Union of certain Palestinians, 2002/400/CFSP (2002) OJ L 138/33 (as amended by Council Common Position 2003/366/CFSP (2003) OJ L 124/51, and Council Common Position 2004/493/CFSP (2004) OJ L 181/24).} The initiative was taken ‘on a temporary basis and exclusively for humanitarian reasons’.\footnote{Common Position 2002/400/CFSP, Recital 3, preamble, and Art 1.} Entry decisions fell within the sole competence of each of the receiving Member States – comprising Belgium, Greece, Ireland, Portugal and Spain – deciding on a sovereign basis.\footnote{Ibid, Recital 4, preamble, and Art 2.} The purpose of the Common Position was to ensure ‘a common approach at the level of the European Union’, to ensure ‘comparable treatment’ and cater for common ‘security concerns’ by participating Member States.\footnote{Ibid, Recitals 4–6, preamble.}

With that in mind, participating Member States were under an obligation to deliver (‘shall’ issue) a national permit allowing entry into their territory and stay for up to 30 months – a period that has been renewed several times; the latest in April 2016 for a further 24 months starting from 31 January 2016.\footnote{Ibid, Art 3, first indent, and Council Decision (CFSP) 2016/608 of 18 April 2016 concerning the temporary reception by Member States of the European Union of certain Palestinians, (2016) OJ L 104/18, preamble and Art 1.} That does not mean that the issuance of these permits was not to be ‘submitted to specific conditions to be accepted by the Palestinians concerned before their arrival’, as each Member State saw fit.\footnote{Ibid, Art 3, second indent.} Member States also had to ‘take account of the public order and security concerns of other Member States’, despite the permit’s validity being ‘limited to the territory of the Member State concerned’ – which is reminiscent of the ‘humanitarian corridors’ practice, as developed in France, using long-term visas. Upon arrival, receiving countries had to ensure ‘the personal security of the Palestinians received’, while, regarding accommodation and integration matters, each could apply their respective national provisions – instead of the Qualification Directive regime.\footnote{Ibid, Arts 4 and 6.}

Although the number of beneficiaries is minuscule and the amount of discretion allowed to participating states very broad in how to decide practicalities on the ground, the fact that EU countries found a way to coordinate efforts and agree a series of common arrangements for concerted action is meaningful and may pave the way for future initiatives along the same lines.
5. Conclusions

While all the above initiatives attempt to provide a solution to an urgent humanitarian need requiring emergency evacuation, only schemes that do not entail full processing prior to departure have proven effective in responding to the concrete necessity of a rapid transfer. The focus on ‘urgent’, ‘imminent’ and ‘extreme’ protection needs, assessed on a prima facie basis rather than on complete RSD, is what allows for the possibility of accelerated arrangements. It is also very positive that some initiatives permit the transfer of beneficiaries directly out of the country of peril, without having to undergo intermediary transit through an ETC or ETM first. The Italian evacuation programme for Libya stands out as an example of particularly good practice in this respect, allowing for the speedy evacuation of relatively large numbers of persons within short timeframes under flexible, streamlined processing modalities and in partnership with key stakeholders. The relaxation of visa requirements, and of exit and travel documentation formalities alongside speedy transportation to safety, are key operational components worth noting as well. By contrast, most other examples fail to live up to their purported objectives.

Emergency resettlement processing can take several months. The number of accepted cases is very small. Background checks are rarely waived or rendered flexible to a sufficient extent so as to allow for a rapid enough transfer. The requirement of face-to-face interviews, as in the US example, even though candidates have gone through UNHCR processing prior to referral, seems excessive in the circumstances. ‘Dossier’ applications should be allowed instead, or at least the use of technology should be more widespread, relying on videoconferencing to conduct interviews more efficiently.

While ETFs are a very commendable initiative, they cannot work for the intended purpose of emergency transfer and evacuation, unless their physical, material and processing capacities are expanded, which requires a more serious commitment by countries of destination to engage in the provision of a durable solution. Increased funding of ETCs and ETMs by a plurality of partners may improve the conditions, but it is not enough if transfers out of these facilities do not materialise in a short timeframe. Optimisation of this resource requires genuine responsibility sharing with hosting countries.

What all these mechanisms also show is that workability depends on multi-actor collaboration and mutual trust. In the examples explored, this has translated in the identification and referral of beneficiaries by UNHCR (rather than through autonomous self-referral by the candidates themselves), and security screening emerges as a precondition in all cases. A partnership with other relevant organisations for pre-departure and post-arrival assistance appears as an important element too, to maximise the response capacity at the different points of deployment of each strategy. All these elements will be taken into account in Part III below for the development of the EEV proposal.
Part III: A proposal for an ‘emergency evacuation visa’

1. Introduction

As much as existing complementary pathways, as explored in previous chapters, have a positive impact and do provide for alternative avenues to international protection, there are gaps that need to be addressed. Their expansion is hindered by the lack of common standards, limited coordination across sectors and between partners, the absence of mechanisms of support that promote and build capacity, and the lack of sufficient data, information and publicity characterising some of these schemes.

Responding to these challenges is particularly urgent in light of state commitments, as mentioned above, ensuing from the New York Declaration and related documents. According to the GCR, in particular, states have agreed to develop alternative pathways ‘as a complement to resettlement’, in order to ‘facilitate access to protection and/or solutions’. It is specifically noted that ‘[t]here is a need to ensure that such pathways are made available on a more systematic, organized and sustainable and gender-responsive basis’, being crucial to this effect ‘that they contain appropriate protection safeguards, and that the number of countries offering these opportunities is expanded overall’, so strategies can be scaled up.  

The main vehicle to achieve the predictability and availability of complementary pathways is UNHCR Three-Year Strategy (2019–2021) on Resettlement and Complementary Pathways (the ‘Three-Year Strategy’). The strategy promotes the adoption of solutions-orientated approaches based on multi-partner ventures that realise the overall vision of expanding the base of actors engaged in these initiatives, the size and scope of related schemes, and the protection impact and ‘quality asylum’ they should lead to – in the resettlement terrain, the GRSI, referred to in chapter 2, has proven an effective mechanism to build capacity and promote community/private sponsorship schemes following this model; something similar could be established for the enhancement of other complementary pathways with IBA and IBA members’ input.

It is against this background, and on account of the conclusions from the previous chapters, that the proposal for an EEV is submitted herein – drawing in particular on the Italian evacuation programme for Libya, as well as elements of the ‘emergency resettlement’ plans adopted by several countries in combination with sponsorship schemes, using the EEV proposal as a way to scale and streamline them. The main goal is to contribute to the realisation of the Three-Year Strategy objective of facilitating the admission of two million persons in need of international protection via complementary

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364 See n 14 above, para 94. See also n 13 above, para 14; and see n 33 above, 4.
365 See n 27 above, 5.
366 Ibid 10 and 23.
pathways by the end of 2028. With this in mind, the idea is for a process of consultation with key stakeholders to be open by IBA and IBA members on the basis of this proposal. The 2019 Global Refugee Forum, to be held in December in Geneva at UNHCR headquarters, will provide an ideal venue to present the proposal and galvanise support by potential partners.

2. EEVs: systematising lessons learnt

In line with UNHCR’s Strategic Directions 2017–2021, complementary pathways, like the EEV proposed hereunder, should pursue three main goals, and be designed and implemented according to a number of minimum standards. Measures should aim to ease protection pressure on host countries of first asylum, constituting a mechanism of genuine solidarity and responsibility sharing. According to the principle of additionality, they should expand access to durable solutions and effective protection in countries of destination, rather than replace resettlement or curtail ‘spontaneous arrivals’. In addition, they should foster refugee autonomy and self-reliance, inter alia, by ensuring accessibility through self-referral, independently from any prior institutional submission, by guaranteeing the publicity of relevant information on the criteria, processes and arrangements that may be applicable, and by removing the practical, legal and administrative barriers that may impede access thereto. Existing strategies, however, do not take this systematically into account, which constitutes both a challenge and an opportunity for the EEV proposal. Table 3 below serves to visualise these objectives that complementary pathways, including the EEV proposal, should pursue, according to UNHCR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Complementary Pathways</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
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<td>Solidarity and responsibility sharing</td>
<td>Access to effective protection</td>
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Table 3. Complementary pathways objectives.

In terms of the minimum standards that complementary pathways should consider at the design and development phase, UNHCR notes the respect and protection of refugee rights as being paramount. Therefore, the right to seek asylum and to protection from persecution and refoulement should be at the heart of any complementary pathway strategy, including the EEV. Non-discrimination must also be taken into account, alongside the specific circumstances of particularly vulnerable cases, which should be prioritised. Eligibility and determination procedures should, then, be based on objective criteria on consideration of the specific context of the country of first asylum and the specific needs of the targeted population. In the end, the...
complementary pathway at hand should **provide access to a legal status**, accompanied by **appropriate documentation** that allows the beneficiary to prove their identity, immigration situation and access **relevant public and support services**, including health, education, housing, psychosocial support, language and vocational training, and legal aid and assistance. The latter is the area in which IBA and IBA members can make a decisive contribution, whether providing information, counselling and representation services on a pro bono basis to refugees at the pre-departure and post-arrival phases at countries of departure and destination, or through training and knowledge-exchange with state authorities and other implementing partners; at the pre-departure stage, IBA and IBA members could specifically seek to cooperate with consulates and embassies for the issuance of visas and travel permits to facilitate transfers. **Family unity**, **due process** and the **best interest of the child** are also principles that should guide the development and implementation of complementary pathways, such as the EEV.\(^{373}\)

To optimise the implementation of complementary pathways, the Three-Year Strategy has put together a number of **workability guidelines** that should also be taken into account. First, it is suggested that **multi-stakeholder and multi-sectoral approaches** be developed in cooperation with the relevant authorities. UNHCR can play a leading role in facilitating synergies and collaboration in this respect, identifying specific contexts or populations in need of alternative solutions, or offering capacity-building to maximise individual, organisation and community capabilities. The Three-Year Strategy also recommends that there be channels of **refugee participation** through co-design, consultation, and/or evaluation and feedback opportunities – organisations like the Refugee Congress in the US, reuniting refugees across the country that advocate and advise on resettlement, durable solutions, and inclusive and welcoming communities, could serve as a blueprint in this regard.\(^{374}\) The Three-Year Strategy also promotes an **evidence-based approach** – like the one underpinning this study – to the development of measures that are responsive to needs and address gaps, encouraging **bottom-up innovations** that foster engagement and co-ownership of all partners concerned.

It favours the **use of technology** to facilitate communication, and guarantee the confidentiality and reliability of data exchanges between the actors concerned, including the data protection rights of refugees.\(^{375}\) Regarding **funding**, the Three-Year Strategy favours imaginative approaches as well. Mechanisms of co-financing in partnership with the IOM, UNHCR and/or civil society organisations alongside the states concerned can prove successful, as in the case of the community and private sponsorship programmes explored in chapter 2.

\(^{373}\) See n 11 above, para 18. See also n 27 above, 15; and n 33 above, 13.


3. EEVs in practice: detailed considerations

On account of the vision, goals, minimum standards and workability guidelines for the development of ‘complementary pathways’ provided by UNHCR, as well as the conclusions from the chapters in Part II, the next sections develop the detail of the EEV proposal. Consideration of the limitations of the schemes explored in previous sections, the challenges they encounter, and the gaps they leave will be paramount. The objective is to propose a tool that **bridges these gaps** and **offers maximum complementarity to resettlement**, as the main ‘third country solution’ promoted by UNHCR. The elements below are conceived as a starting point for EEV partners to engage in a dialogue on how best to adopt and adapt the basic components proposed hereunder to specific scenarios in need of EEV action. The choice for a skeletal structure of the Model Convention following in the Annex is thus deliberate.

One of the main objectives pursued by the EEV proposal is to open up opportunities for co-ownership of the EEV initiative, describing only the essential parameters and allowing space for potential participants to have their say and tailor the scheme in a way that reflects their input and responds to the realities on the ground.

3.1 Defining the situations covered by the EEV: the EEV Working Group

To be sure to maximise the protection impact of EEVs and to guarantee the objectivity of the **designation of geographical priorities** as qualifying for emergency evacuation, it would be best to follow **UNHCR emergency assessment tools**. This will also help to reduce risks of politicisation in decision-making. According to its New Emergency Policy, UNHCR defines a humanitarian emergency as ‘any situation in which the **lives**, rights or well-being of refugees, internally displaced people, asylum-seekers or stateless people **are threatened unless immediate action is taken** and which demands extraordinary measures’ [emphasis author’s own].

On the basis of this, there are **currently ten declared humanitarian emergencies**, regarding Burundi, Central African Republic, DRC, Iraq, Nigeria, the Rohingya, South Sudan and Yemen. They are all characterised by very high levels of violence and insecurity, if not indiscriminate attacks on civilian populations, leading to vast numbers of persons being displaced, both internally and across borders, and in dire need of protection.

Within these situations, there are **specific groups and circumstances** that require heightened attention and an urgent response, where the EEV can add value and provide a particularly well-suited solution. In **Syria**, typically a country of origin, there are at present **2.98 million persons trapped in ‘hard-to-reach and besieged areas’, ‘fleeing the bombs and bullets that have devastated their homes’**. This particularly vulnerable population subgroup would especially benefit from EEVs; without a measure specifically providing for evacuation their protection will otherwise not be guaranteed. The same applies to **refugees and asylum seekers in Libya**, typically a transit country. After the attack on the Tajoura camp in early July 2019, where nearly 50 people lost their lives, UNHCR is ‘urging the international community to **evacuate** all refugees who remain***

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inside detention centres in Tripoli and to bring them to safety’ [emphasis author’s own].

Jointly with the IOM, UNHCR has also designated it ‘[a]s a priority’ for the 5,600 persons detained in centres elsewhere across the country to be released and taken to safety in other countries. This smaller population subgroup is at particular risk, but generally Libya is not safe for persons in need of international protection. The approximately 50,000 refugees and asylum seekers registered with UNHCR also require evacuation. The EEV would be a particularly fitting solution to the ‘managed process’ that is required to bring this to fruition.

An EEV Working Group should be established similar to the existing Working Group on Resettlement, to stir efforts and dialogue around emergency evacuation, bringing together participating governments and partner organisations, with IBA presence and coordinated by UNHCR (as part of its mandate) for the yearly (or more frequent) identification of priorities and target groups in light of evolving events and developing necessities. Decisions within the EEV Working Group should be taken by consensus. The possibility to abstain and/or leave the group (rather than veto and block decisions) and/or not participate in a specific EEV action should exist, allowing remaining partners to continue ahead, pursue and implement an EEV action agreed among them. Different modalities of contribution – for example, by providing funding, expertise and/or evacuation places in specific scenarios – should thus be possible, so as to allow the widest range of participation options to potential partners.

The process of determination of geographical and population sub-groups’ emergencies should follow a ‘systematic assessment of risk’. For the purposes of the EEV, as a first step, members should seek to establish whether, on the basis of the information available ex nunc from different reliable sources, the country concerned should be considered unsafe. Threats to life and physical integrity will play an important role, but should not be the only factors to be taken into account. According to UNHCR, for a country to be deemed ‘safe’ – at least in the context of the ‘safe third country’ debate – it must be capable of providing ‘effective protection’ from persecution and/or serious harm, including, at a minimum, compliance with basic human rights; protection from refoulement; the provision of means of adequate subsistence; and access to status determination procedures with sufficient procedural guarantees open to those who may qualify as refugees.

379 See n 348 above.
380 See n 349 above, ‘UNHCR and IOM joint statement: International approach to refugees and migrants in Libya must change’.
383 UNHCR, Position on a Harmonised Approach to Questions concerning Host Third Countries, reprinted in the 3rd International Symposium on the Protection of Refugees in Central Europe, 1 December 1992 www.refworld.org/docid/3ae6b31d47.html accessed 26 July 2019. See also EXCOM Conclusion No 85 (XLIX) of 1998 on International Protection, para (aa), stating that the country to which the asylum seeker is sent must treat them ‘in accordance with accepted international standards… ensure effective protection against refoulement, and… provide the asylum seeker… with the opportunity to seek and enjoy asylum’ www.refworld.org/docid/3ae68c6e30.html accessed 26 July 2019.
If these conditions are not met, **persons found in these countries should be presumed to be in urgent need of international protection.** That presumption should be reinforced the higher the degree of violence and plausibility of harm, justifying a **prima facie determination approach.** In situations ‘where the degree of… violence… reaches such a high level that substantial grounds are shown [per se] for believing that a civilian, [if] returned [or left there]… would, solely on account of his presence… face a real risk of being subjected to… serious [harm]’, individuals should automatically fall within the scope of application of the EEV scheme (emphasis author’s own).^{384}

The practicability of the EEV action will also have to be taken into account in the designation of an area as EEV-relevant. In cases where implementation is not possible by any means, due to insurmountable physical impediments – for example, natural barriers, catastrophic events or high-intensity fighting, making accessibility of the area concerned impossible – the EEV Working Group will have to explore alternative arrangements or select an alternative location for the rollout of the scheme. One possibility may be to negotiate a temporary ceasefire and the opening of an escape route with the country concerned – like the ODP in use during the Vietnamese CPA – making accessibility possible.

A cut-off date, by which potential beneficiaries need to have been present in the relevant area, and/or registered with UNHCR – or another partner organisation, if UNHCR is not present in the specific location, such as the ICRC or Médecins Sans Frontières (MSF – Doctors Without Borders), provided they consent to do so – can serve to manage expectations and avoid any pull factor or ‘call’ effect that may overstrain the scheme. Flexibility should be exercised in particularly compelling cases, though. Ideally, the key to minimise discrimination, fraud and arbitrariness in this context would be for EEV Working Group members to agree on a list of documents they will accept as proof of identity and presence within the specific EEV-designated area for EEV qualification by an applicant. And there may be situations in which such precautions may become less necessary, where the area and group of beneficiaries intended can be circumscribed by other means – for example, when specifically targeting those in detention, as in the Libyan example indicated above, designating as EEV beneficiaries persons found in a particular enclosure at the EEV-relevant time to establish the scope of the coverage through non-arbitrary and non-discriminatory means. Another way of further circumscribing (or prioritising) the scope of application of a particular EEV action, again without incurring in discrimination and arbitrariness, would be to focus on particularly vulnerable profiles, such as unaccompanied minors, wounded persons or pregnant women, replicating the UNHCR vulnerability categories currently used for resettlement.

### 3.2 Beneficiaries: qualification criteria

In line with the previous section, the beneficiaries of EEVs should be **persons at risk of persecution or serious harm, whether they are still within their countries of origin or already outside, present within the emergency area** as declared by the EEV Working Group. **Race, religion, nationality** and other potentially discriminatory considerations should be **irrelevant** in this context. What counts is for the person

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concerned to be in the EEV-designated area at the time covered by the scheme and thus **fall within the scope of application of the EEV**, pursuant to the priorities identified by the EEV Working Group through the process specified above.

Countries participating in the EEV initiative should only **verify the presence** of the individuals concerned **within the country/region designated as an EEV priority** and collaborate with UNHCR, IBA and IBA members, as well as other participating partners to organise the evacuation. To guarantee accessibility, **candidates should be able to put themselves forward** for EEV consideration, without a formal referral by UNHCR or any other intermediary organisation. **No full or preliminary RSD** should be conducted at this point, **only essential identity and security screening checks**.

### 3.3 Processing arrangements

Individuals should be able to launch an **EEV application on their own behalf**, and possibly on behalf of their children and other dependants, provided they are present with them in the EEV-designated country/region and the family relationship can be established – otherwise they should each submit their own EEV applications separately. **UNHCR registration** cards (or the alternative arrangements agreed upon by the EEV Working Group in situations where UNHCR is not present) should serve as **proof of such presence**, and as preliminary evidence of their **identity**, pending detailed checks to be performed during the ‘normal’ asylum procedure that EEV beneficiaries will enter post-evacuation in the EEV country of destination.

To facilitate **access** to the **consular authorities of participating EEV countries**, applications should possibly be lodged not only in person but also through **electronic means**. There will be situations, like the two pointed out above regarding Syria and Libya, where no embassies remain open, precisely due to the high level of violence and insecurity plaguing the country/region concerned, and giving rise to the need for evacuation. It should also be possible to lodge an application **by proxy**, either via UNHCR or through another cooperating partner participating in the EEV scheme – that being an NGO with local presence on the ground (eg, MSF), another international organisation (eg, the ICRC) or the legal representative of the individual applicant (arranged through the IBA or an IBA member). The application should come in a commonly **agreed format** and serve to collect **basic bio-data** and preliminary information about the applicant, to be completed during the full RSD process to be conducted on arrival.

The applications received by the competent authorities of the countries participating in the EEV scheme should be **assessed as swiftly as possible and within a maximum of four weeks**. During that period, security checks shall be carried out, including via consultation of the relevant databases – just as they are normally performed within emergency resettlement and other evacuation mechanisms developed at national level, as explored in Part II. No further RSD or similar substantive processing should be undertaken.
to avoid the many pitfalls of offshore/extraterritorial status determination procedures. Only persons objectively constituting an active threat to the security of the state concerned should be excluded and denied an EEV. To avoid discrimination and guarantee uniform application of the EEV scheme, a common definition of ‘active security threat’ should be jointly agreed for streamlined decision-making, through consultation within the EEV Working Group, which is compatible with the exclusion clauses of the Refugee Convention.

Decisions should be communicated in writing, explaining the reasons for rejection, and including an indication of a period of four weeks available for the applicant to submit a plea for the reconsideration of their application, to be assessed by a different authority than the one assessing the original submission, to avoid the risk of bias and corruption. Both authorities, examining the application at the first level and on appeal, should be competent, that is, with sufficient knowledge of the humanitarian emergency at hand and expertise regarding international protection matters.

The reconsideration application should add reasons, and possibly also documentation, to rebut the grounds for the rejection and substantiate the case for acceptance of the person concerned – in situations in which there may have been a mistake with the identity of the applicant or their circumstances, this mechanism can prove very valuable to achieve fair results. The authorities of the country concerned should be given two weeks to assess the new information and issue a final decision. But in no way should an EEV rejection impede access to protection through other channels.

The EEV Working Group should reach an agreement as to whether it should be possible for rejected cases to be (re)submitted to a different EEV country, and whether multiple simultaneous applications to different EEV issuing states would be appropriate in certain situations of aggravated danger. This seems to already be the case for ‘emergency resettlement’, so an analogous reasoning may be applied and lead to a similar solution in EEV cases. Whatever the case, to adequately manage the expectations of potential beneficiaries, thorough counselling should take place pre and post-application, so that applicants understand eligibility criteria and the full implications of the EEV scheme. The IBA and its members can play a key role in this respect.

In the event of a positive decision, this should be immediately notified to the person and their proxy, as the case may be. The country concerned should then start undertaking evacuation arrangements in cooperation with collaborating partners.

3.4 Pre-departure and post-arrival assistance

The EEV issuing country should coordinate efforts, possibly with the IOM, if they agree to participate in the EEV initiative, to conduct fit-to-travel tests and organise

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transportation. Beneficiaries without passports should be issued Refugee Convention travel documents or ICRC travel documents to enable the transfer. Another option would be for the country of destination to issue a national one-trip substitute – as Canada does in some situations via its Single Journey Travel Document – to facilitate resettlement. Alternatively, the EEV Working Group could agree to produce a dedicated EEV Travel Document valid for partner countries, for the sole purpose of facilitating evacuation. For the facilitation of exit procedures, the intervention of the IBA and IBA members in cooperation with local actors can prove valuable to the EEV partner state.

Beneficiaries should be accompanied on the flight, whenever possible, by UNHCR or IOM staff, or by NGO partners personnel, who also support them throughout the post-arrival phase. This continuity of support will help candidates on the journey and through the adaptation period after disembarkation.

On arrival, following the community and private sponsorship schemes analysed in chapter 2, as well as the ‘humanitarian corridors’ mechanisms examined in chapter 3, EEV beneficiaries could be matched with NGO partners. These would take care of counselling and psychosocial needs and help them to prepare their full applications for international protection, with the IBA or IBA members’ assistance.

3.5 Outcomes and relationship to ‘spontaneous arrivals’

The EEV is designed as a context-sensitive tool, targeting a particular, finite group, solely intended to facilitate the travel of beneficiaries to a participating EEV issuing country for the purpose of submitting an asylum application. The beneficiaries, on arrival to the country concerned, should enter the reception structures existing for ‘spontaneous arrivals’ and lodge an application for refugee or subsidiary/complementary protection status following applicable rules.

On consideration of their special vulnerability, alternative arrangements can be made for those with heightened needs to receive the support they require. A sponsorship mechanism can be put in place, but with public authorities nonetheless retaining responsibility to provide access to healthcare, education and employment on an equal basis to other asylum seekers in a similar situation.

Whether EEV beneficiaries are granted asylum or some other form of protection will depend on national (or regional) legal provisions – independently from the mode of entry, whether via an EEV or some other route. To ensure uniformity of outcomes and avoid discrimination among refugees, the EEV Working Group could, nonetheless, discuss whether to harmonise the permit to be granted post-arrival – taking into account that, in line with Article 3 of the Refugee Convention, those claiming to be refugees should be given the option to access refugee status determination and not be discriminated against ‘spontaneous arrivals’. These matters should be made the object of thorough counselling, so EEV beneficiaries understand the options and their implications.
3.6 Participating countries, funding and sustainability arrangements

Countries under the EEV scheme, as with other ‘complementary pathways’, should participate on a voluntary basis and out of goodwill. Otherwise the initiative may not be feasible. These countries should express their wish to participate in the EEV scheme to UNHCR and should be invited to contribute their views to, or join as members, the EEV Working Group. The main benefit for them, apart from contributing to resolve life-threatening humanitarian emergencies and bringing very vulnerable persons to safety, is that they can avoid the disadvantages associated with unknown, uncontrolled arrivals through irregular routes – as is the case, for example, in Libya and the exodus of persons escaping the country across the Mediterranean in desperate ways with the help of smugglers. Having conducted security-screening procedures in relation to each incoming EEV beneficiary, participating countries also benefit from the certainty of catering for persons who do not constitute an active risk to public safety, reducing related costs in deterrence and containment measures.

To cover the expenses of the EEV scheme, mixed-funding solutions would be ideal. The International Rescue Committee has developed different financial models combining public and private funds to cover resettlement-based initiatives through social impact investments that could be adapted for the purposes of the EEV scheme. A dedicated EEV Fund could be created with contributions from different sources – much in the guise of the emergency appeals issued by UNHCR. Alternatively, the European AMIF, with standing contributions by participating countries, could serve as a (possibly more stable) model to replicate. Whatever the formula, the key is to maximise solidarity and responsibility sharing. In this perspective, incentives could also be created through funding solutions. Countries offering EEVs could then be ‘compensated’ through the EEV Fund with an allocation of €10,000 per evacuee, or whatever other amount seems appropriate to the EEV Working Group. This should cover transfer and assessment costs and contribute to first-reception upon arrival. A similar formula has been tested in the context of the Emerging Resettlement Countries Joint Support Mechanism (ERCM), sharing financial and technical support with very successful results.

To guarantee the continuity and sustained efficacy of the EEV, its effectiveness should be evaluated at periodic intervals. A wide spectrum of voices, including those of EEV beneficiaries, should be collected to reflect on what works and what does not. The EEV Working Group should designate an external assessor to examine past schemes, test their efficiency and recommend any necessary changes. Periodic monitoring should be carried out by the EEV Working Group, designating a task force per EEV designated area.

which should undertake the individual examination of each EEV operation upon completion, so results and lessons learnt can be taken into consideration for the planning and rollout of subsequent schemes. All EEVs issued and rejected, as well as the grounds motivating rejection, should be recorded and reported to UNHCR, as coordinator of the EEV Working Group, so circumstances in which EEVs are granted or denied, both for transparency purposes and quality control can be tracked.

Finally, to guarantee appropriate uptake by donors, partner organisations, and EEV beneficiaries themselves, to achieve the goal of evacuating the targeted group within the intended period, EEV schemes should be made public. The relevant information regarding the scope of each particular EEV action, the criteria, processes and arrangements that may apply, as well as sufficient details on outcomes, pre-departure and post-arrival support should be accessible on the EEV Working Group website. Alongside partner organisations, UNHCR, as Chair of the EEV Working Group, as well as participating countries through their consular posts and immigration/asylum services, should also make the information available. This will serve to boost confidence in the scheme through enhanced transparency, to manage expectations and to support the independence and autonomy of refugees in accessing ‘complementary pathways’ on their own to reach protection.
Annex

Model Convention for EEVs

TITLE I: GENERAL PROVISIONS

Article 1

Purpose
This convention establishes the procedures and conditions for issuing EEVs by countries participating in the EEV scheme for the purposes of emergency transfer of persons in urgent need of international protection and their entry into the EEV issuing country to lodge an asylum application upon arrival.

Article 2

Scope of application
The EEV scheme covers persons present in an EEV area, as designated by the EEV Working Group, by the cut-off date agreed upon by the EEV Working Group, if applicable.

Article 3

The EEV Working Group
1. The EEV Working Group shall be composed of the countries voluntarily participating in the EEV scheme and the partner international and NGOs that wish to contribute to its implementation.

2. The EEV Working Group is to be coordinated and chaired by UNHCR and should meet on a yearly basis for a general assessment of emergency situations and also on demand, if called upon by the Chair, to respond to new emergencies as they arise.

3. Decisions shall be adopted by consensus, leaving room for flexibility so as to accommodate as much as possible the requirements and requests of members, and maximise the potential for EEV action.

4. The main function of the EEV Working Group is to identify emergency areas where EEV intervention is necessary, using UNHCR declared ‘humanitarian emergencies’ as a starting point, taking into account the following criteria:
(i) risks of persecution and/or serious harm, taking account of threats to life and physical integrity;

(ii) degree and spread of violence and insecurity;

(iii) availability of protection from refoulement;

(iv) coverage of human rights and basic needs of subsistence; and

(v) accessibility of resettlement in useful time.

5. The EEV Working Group, on the identification of particular EEV-relevant areas, may decide to indicate a specific cut-off date for registration with UNHCR or other partner organisations, unless the area and group of beneficiaries intended can be circumscribed by other means (eg, when specifically targeting those in detention and/or with particular vulnerabilities justifying the prioritisation of their cases).

6. The EEV Working Group will also decide on the possible means that applicants can use to prove presence in the area and on the format of the application to ensure consistency and uniformity of decision-making.

7. The EEV Working Group will coordinate the logistic response concerning the pre-departure and post-arrival assistance necessary to carry out the evacuation of EEV beneficiaries.

**TITLE II: PROCEDURES AND CONDITIONS FOR ISSUING EEVs**

Article 4

**Eligibility**

1. Persons present in the EEV-designated area, by the cut-off date agreed by the EEV Working Group if applicable, can submit an application for an EEV on their own behalf and on behalf of their children and other dependants if they are together and cannot submit their own application. Every effort should be made to maintain family unity.

2. Once it is determined that they are indeed present within the relevant area, candidates should automatically qualify for EEV consideration, without discrimination on nationality, race, religion or other grounds.

3. Only applicants that pose an active threat to the national security of the issuing country shall be rejected EEVs.
Article 5

Authorities responsible

1. EEV participating countries shall designate the authorities competent to receive and process EEV applications.

2. EEV authorities must be trained in international protection matters and have sufficient knowledge of the humanitarian emergency covered by the specific EEV scheme.

Article 6

Application

1. EEV candidates shall submit their EEV request by completing an EEV application form, indicating their bio-data and any reasons why they do not pose an active threat to security and therefore should not be excluded from EEVs.

2. EEV candidates should append to the application a copy of their UNHCR registration card or other proof of identity and presence in the EEV designated area for verification.

Article 7

Processing and decisions

1. It should be possible for EEV competent authorities to receive EEV applications in person, by proxy or through electronic means, particularly in circumstances in which they do not have a local representation in the EEV area.

2. Competent authorities, on receipt of EEV applications, shall verify the presence of the applicant in the EEV area and, if applicable, registration with UNHCR or alternative partner organisations by the cut-off date concerned.

3. They must also undertake any security checks that may be necessary under national law and exclude only applicants that pose an active threat to the national security of the issuing state.

4. Decisions must be reached as soon as possible and within four weeks of submission of the application.

5. Decisions must be notified to the applicant in writing and, in the case of a rejection, provide reasons, and a period of four weeks for candidates to rebut and resubmit their cases for reconsideration.

6. In no way should a final negative decision impede access to effective protection through other means.
**TITLE III: LOGISTICS AND SUPPORT**

**Article 8**

**Application and pre-departure assistance**

1. In case of a positive decision, the competent authorities shall make arrangements for the evacuation of the EEV holder as soon as possible.

2. They may cooperate with EEV Working Group partners and other organisations in the preparations required, including fit-for-travel tests, exit formalities and counselling.

3. In case EEV beneficiaries do not have a passport, the competent authorities of the EEV issuing country should provide Refugee Convention travel documents, ICRC travel documents or equivalent documentation.

**Article 9**

**Post-arrival conditions and support**

1. On arrival to the EEV issuing country, the EEV beneficiary will be allocated to a reception facility on the same basis as other applicants for international protection.

2. The EEV beneficiary will be given sufficient time and facilities to prepare his/her asylum application also with the assistance of EEV partner organisations.

3. Throughout this period, they may be matched with a local sponsor or one of the partner organisations participating in the EEV scheme to receive counselling and other services, as required.

**TITLE IV: FINAL PROVISIONS**

**Article 10**

**Funding and compensation**

1. An EEV Fund will be created through donations and contributions by the EEV Working Group members to finance EEV actions and activities.

2. In particular, a compensation mechanism will be established, so that a lump sum of €XXX per EEV beneficiary is allocated to the EEV issuing country to cover the costs associated with the evacuation.
Article 11

Monitoring and reporting

1. The EEV Working Group will designate a monitoring Task Force from among its members in charge of monitoring the rollout of EEV interventions and preparing a report assessing individual EEV schemes.

2. EEV participating countries shall communicate to the EEV Working Group the data regarding EEV issuing activity, including granted and rejected applications, and reasons for refusal.

3. Information from the individual monitoring missions, the country reports on EEVs, and feedback collected from applicants shall form the basis of EEV evaluations as per Article 12 of this Convention.

Article 12

Evaluation

At periodic intervals, to be agreed upon by the EEV Working Group, a comprehensive, external evaluation of the EEV scheme shall be undertaken to establish fitness for purpose and locate gaps and areas of possible improvement.