

DATA BULLETIN SERIES

Informing the Implementation of the Global Compact for Migration

2018

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IOM is committed to the principle that humane and orderly migration benefits migrants and society. As an intergovernmental organization, IOM acts with its partners in the international community to: assist in meeting the operational challenges of migration; advance understanding of migration issues; encourage social and economic development through migration; and uphold the human dignity and well-being of migrants.

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Introduction: Time to invest in migration data

Frank Laczko, Emma Borgnäs and Marzia Rango

The need for better data on migration

The first objective of the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration is about improving migration data. It is striking that the Global Compact for Migration places such emphasis on the need for more and better data to ensure the implementation of Global Compact for Migration objectives and commitments. Decision makers around the world need timely, reliable, accessible and comparable data on international migration to devise appropriate policies. Sound data and analysis can enable policymakers to identify an issue, design a policy response, and implement and evaluate relevant interventions.¹ Lack of migration data, lack of other sectoral data relevant to making migration policy decisions, or poor presentation of data, can lead to misperceptions about the scale of migration and its effects. Effective use of data can help transform the migration discourse – which is often driven by emotion and political sensitivities – into one based on evidence. Even when data are available, they are often not used to their full potential. This includes the vast amount of “Big Data” that is being produced every day through the use of digital devices and services around the world.

The United Nations currently counts 258 million people as international migrants but, surprisingly, we know relatively little about global migration trends. Peter Sutherland, the former Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Migration, summed up the challenge in 2017: “The global community is still struggling to establish basic facts, such as who migrants are, where they are, where they come from, and where they have moved to.”² Despite widespread agreement on the importance of data to manage migration effectively, the current availability of reliable and comparable data on migration is still very limited.

More recently, Liu Zhenmin, the United Nations Under-Secretary General for Economic and Social Affairs, commented on this situation: “Three years after the adoption of the 2030 Agenda [for Sustainable Development], the picture for accurate and disaggregated migration data is not optimistic. There is a paucity of basic data on international migration, and existing data are not fully utilized or shared.” For example, he noted, “17 per cent of countries in Africa and 12 per cent in Asia have not produced official statistics on the number of international migrants since 2005.”³

There has been no lack of recommendations to improve data on migration, but progress in delivering on them has been slow. Twenty years ago, for example, the United Nations produced a set of “Recommendations on International Migration”, noting that “despite the importance of international migration, the statistics needed to characterize migration flows, monitor changes over time and provide governments with a solid basis for the formulation and implementation of policy are often lacking”.⁴ In 2008, a special international commission was set up to assess how to improve data on migration and development. The commission made five key recommendations, such as encouraging all countries to add basic questions about migration to their censuses, and promoting the wider use of administrative data on migration.⁵ However, there has been relatively little monitoring of the extent to which such recommendations have been implemented.

There are many reasons why data on migration are often limited, not fully analysed, shared or used by policymakers. One of the problems has been that decision makers have not always been convinced of the value of investing in migration data, despite evidence to the contrary.⁶ If migration is regarded as a sensitive national issue, little priority may be given to data collection. Even if data are collected, they may not be fully shared within or between countries, if policymakers fear that data may be misinterpreted. Migration data collection can be highly politicized, and countries may fear publishing or sharing certain sorts of data.

International migration is a dynamic and often fast-changing phenomenon, and therefore hard to measure. Migrants in irregular situations may be difficult to identify and may not want to be counted by national authorities, for fear of being apprehended. Conducting representative surveys of migrants may be challenging when migrants account for only a small percentage of the national population and are concentrated in particular localities. Comparing statistics on migration across countries is difficult when countries use different definitions of an international migrant.⁷ From a statistical perspective, the

¹ International Organization for Migration and McKinsey and Company, *More than numbers: How migration data can deliver real-life benefits for migrants and governments* (2018).

² United Nations General Assembly, “Report of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Migration”, A/71/728, 3 February 2017.

³ Welcome Message at the Second World Data Forum High-Level Panel on Migration Statistics – The Way Forward, 22 October 2018.

⁴ United Nations Recommendations on International Migration (New York, 1998).

⁵ Centre for Global Development, “Migrants Count: Five Steps Toward Better Migration Data” (Washington, D.C., 2009).

⁶ See, for example, International Organization for Migration and McKinsey and Company, *More than numbers: How migration data can deliver real-life benefits for migrants and governments* (2018).

⁷ See International Organization for Migration, “International Migration Statistics”, thematic paper for the Global Compact for Migration, 2017. Available from www.iom.int (accessed 24 November 2018). See also United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, International Organization for Migration and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, *Improving Data for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration* (New York, 2017), background paper prepared for the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Migration, 2018.

United Nations defines a long-term international migrant as a person who moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least a year (12 months). However, not all countries apply this definition consistently.

While the best migration data often come from censuses, these can be several years old. Censuses usually only include a limited number of questions on migration, and thus cannot provide the detailed information needed for a comprehensive analysis of either the causes or the consequences of international migration. In order to conduct such analysis, more specialized surveys of migrant populations are needed, but there is currently no global migration survey programme to help countries gather such data. Surveys can help us better understand the drivers and impacts of migration and provide vital information concerning which migrants are most vulnerable and in need of assistance. Administrative sources of data, such as visa applications or residence permits, can potentially provide useful information about migration flows; however, these records are usually collected for administrative purposes and hardly used for statistical purposes, or systematically disseminated by countries.

Why the Global Compact is a historic opportunity to improve data on migration

On 13 July 2018, countries around the world agreed upon the text of a first-ever Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. The Global Compact for Migration, expected to be adopted in December 2018, is the most comprehensive attempt to date to develop a shared vision of how countries across the globe can work together to enhance the benefits and reduce the risks associated with migration. The first of the 23 objectives of the Global Compact for Migration is to “Collect and utilize accurate and disaggregated data as a basis for evidence-based policies.” The Global Compact for Migration then proposes 11 actions that should be taken to strengthen the global evidence base on migration, to better inform the public discourse, and to allow for the effective monitoring of the implementation of the Global Compact for Migration commitments over time. The recommended actions include measures to provide increased capacity-building assistance, add migration questions to censuses, make better use of administrative data, conduct specialized migration surveys and produce national migration profiles. While many of these recommendations are not new, they have not been given such prominence before in such a high-level global migration framework.

The Global Compact for Migration also contains some new data recommendations. For example, reference is made to the need to develop further the Global Migration Data Portal, which was launched in December 2017. The Portal is a recent project developed by IOM in collaboration with other United Nations agencies to help policymakers, researchers, the media and anyone interested in migration find and understand key sources of data on international migration. It includes a user-friendly interactive world map, sections explaining the strengths and weaknesses of

migration data by theme, and a guide to capacity-building tools on migration.

The Global Compact for Migration migration data recommendations also include an important reference to new data sources, including “Big Data”. Innovations in technology and reductions in the cost of digital devices worldwide mean that digital data are being produced in real time, at an unprecedented rate. There are concrete examples of where Big Data have been used to improve migration policy and responses. For example, analysing mobile phone call detail records in Nepal helped to understand large movements of population following the earthquake that struck the country in 2015, contributing to more timely and effective responses by authorities and relief organizations, in the absence of official statistics. Other types of data, such as social media and search query data, have been used to understand aspects of migrant integration in cities across eight European Union Member States – from residential segregation to migrant well-being – through the Data Challenge on Integration of Migrants in Cities issued by the European Commission.⁸

Finally, while Objective 1 entirely focuses on data and evidence on migration, data are also referenced throughout the remaining objectives. Robust national-level data are required for developing a national migration policy across all thematic areas covered by the Global Compact for Migration, as highlighted in this Data Bulletin series. Examples include strengthening mechanisms for biometric data-sharing (Objective 4); collecting, centralizing and systematizing data regarding the bodies of deceased migrants (Objective 8); and international cooperation agreements to share data to dismantle smuggling networks (Objective 9). Objective 17 also reiterates the commitment to an evidence-based public discourse on migration and migrants to shape a more accurate understanding of the phenomenon.

Data alone do not guarantee good policies, but a solid evidence base will be needed to help countries make informed key decisions regarding the implementation of the Global Compact for Migration. Data will be needed to identify challenges, design responses, monitor implementation and evaluate the effects of migration programmes and policies in the next decades. This volume highlights the current strengths and weaknesses of migration-related data and the many initiatives that have been taken to inform evidence-based policymaking on many different aspects of migration relevant to the Global Compact for Migration.

Aims and scope of this volume

This volume contains 17 Data Bulletins produced by IOM as well as external experts and partner agencies during 2018. The Data Bulletin series was initially conceived to summarize in an accurate and accessible fashion existing evidence on migration to support discussions and follow-up activities related to the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. As Data Bulletins were produced over the course of 2018, it became clear that a compilation of the various issues into one edited volume

⁸ Available from <https://bluehub.jrc.ec.europa.eu/datachallenge> (accessed 24 November 2018).

would be helpful to provide a comprehensive – albeit non-exhaustive – overview of key data issues of relevance to the Global Compact for Migration, as governments move towards its adoption and implementation.

Together, Data Bulletins in this volume span a broad range of topics covered by the Global Compact for Migration, highlighting currently available data sources as well as data gaps and challenges relevant to each of them. Each Data Bulletin contains a few illustrative examples of initiatives and recommendations of investments needed to strengthen the evidence base underpinning the respective thematic area. As such, this collection is meant to provide a useful resource for decision makers as they begin to think about implementation of the Global Compact for Migration and the related data needs.

The volume is structured into two sections. The first is dedicated to objective 1 of the Global Compact for Migration and broadly looks at practices, tools and new initiatives for data collection, analysis and sharing. The second section explores in more detail data related to various global migration topics covered by the Global Compact for Migration objectives, ranging from recruitment costs and ethical recruitment to return and reintegration. Each of the issues includes a brief outline of what is known about current trends and highlights new initiatives or case studies as examples of good data practice. Rather than providing a comprehensive guide to the topics covered, this volume offers the reader a summary of the current state-of-play in terms of migration data in a curated selection of thematic areas, to help spur thinking around how to improve the global evidence base, including data at the local, national, regional and global levels for better migration outcomes in the coming years.

Part I: Objective 1 of the Global Compact for Migration in focus

RELEVANT GLOBAL COMPACT FOR MIGRATION OBJECTIVE:

Objective 1
(see Annex)

Improving data for safe, orderly and regular migration⁹

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It is widely acknowledged that there is a paucity of basic data on international migration and that existing data is not fully utilized or shared. On many occasions, the United Nations General Assembly has called for reliable, disaggregated data and indicators that are nationally relevant and internationally comparable, including data on the contributions of migrants to sustainable development, to support evidence-based policymaking.¹⁰ The New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants (A/RES/71/1) stresses the need for international cooperation to improve migration data through capacity-building, financial support and technical assistance.

The Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration provides a unique opportunity for the international community to agree on a set of priorities to improve data related to migration. The Global Compact reflects a common vision and understanding of how reliable, timely and disaggregated data can help to document the benefits of migration to countries of origin and destination and assist Member States in developing planned and well-managed migration policies. In line with the New York Declaration, data should be disaggregated by sex and age and include information on regular and irregular flows, the economic impacts of migratory movements, human trafficking and the needs of refugees, migrants and host communities. The Global Compact also addresses the urgent needs for national capacity-building, financial support and technical assistance to enable countries to collect and produce international migration data necessary for the monitoring of commitments made in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the Global Compact for Migration.

In his report (A/71/728), former Special Representative of the Secretary-General (SRSG) for International Migration and Development Mr Peter Sutherland calls for improving data for fact-based migration policies and accountability by offering various avenues to get to better data, monitoring and reporting on migration (recommendation 12). He also calls for the establishment of a financing facility for migration to ensure that all States are equipped to fulfil the migration-related commitments emanating from the 2030 Agenda and the Global Compact for Migration, a proposal that was endorsed by the Special Rapporteur on the human rights of migrants in his latest report (A/72/173).

Migration: Key concepts and definitions

From a statistical perspective, the United Nations defines a long-term international migrant as a person who moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least a year (12 months).¹¹

A proper understanding of migration is often hampered by a confusion between flows and stocks, which are fundamental concepts underlying the measurement of international migration. Migration flows refer to movements of persons from one country to another during a specific interval of time, whereas the stock of international migrants refers to all persons who, having made such a journey, are residing in a destination country at a specific moment in time.

⁹ Prepared by the United States Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA), the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) in response to a request from the Special Representative of the Secretary-General for International Migration and Development.

¹⁰ See, for instance, A/RES/71/237.

¹¹ United Nations, *Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration*, Revision 1, Statistical Papers, Series M, No. 58. (New York, 1998).

While some basic migration concepts have been well defined for purposes of statistical measurement, some terms used in today's migration policy discussions, such as "return migration", "circular migration" or "diaspora", remain poorly defined. Defining and understanding basic concepts employed in measuring migration is essential for an informed, fact-based discussion of the realities of international migration.

Sources of migration statistics

Population censuses

Although conducted infrequently, population censuses are the lynchpin in the production of informative, comparable, and reliable data on international migration and the characteristics and well-being of migrants and their families. Most censuses include a question on country of birth and/or a question on country of citizenship, which can be used to measure the stock of migrants residing in the country and to disaggregate other relevant data by migratory status. Some censuses also include a question regarding the date or year of arrival, which can be used to derive a rough estimate of recent flows. Few censuses include questions on a person's motivation to migrate. Such information is required to understand the reasons or drivers of migration (work, family, settlement, education, asylum, etc.). In many countries, censuses are essential as a sampling framework for household surveys, including on migration.

Preparations for the 2020 round of decennial population and housing censuses (2016–2025) have started with most countries planning to hold their next census in or around the year 2020.

Recommendation: Countries are strongly encouraged to include migration-relevant questions in their census of the 2020 round and to ensure timely analysis and dissemination of results with recommended disaggregation and cross-tabulation in accordance with international recommendations.

Administrative sources

Most countries have administrative procedures to register foreign citizens. Examples include systems to record the application, issuances and renewal of visas, residence permits, work permits and exit permits, as well as applications and decisions on requests for asylum, regularization and naturalization.¹² These data sources provide valuable information on the number of foreign citizens authorized to enter and stay, providing an estimate of migratory flows, information on the reason for migration as well as on integration. However, few countries systematically disseminate data from relevant administrative records or have automated registers that allow for speedy tabulation of relevant information. The quality of the administrative data on remittance flows, as reported by national banks, is uneven.

Recommendation: Countries are strongly encouraged to leverage the use of administrative records to produce migration-related statistics, and systematically

disseminate such data in accordance with international recommendations.

Household surveys

Surveys are critical for understanding the drivers and impacts of migration and for identifying which migrants are in the most vulnerable situations. Surveys are also often the only source to assess the economic and social integration of migrants in host countries. At the same time, few international survey programmes (demographic and health surveys, multi-indicator cluster surveys, labour force surveys or living standards measurement surveys) include questions on migratory status or a migration module.

Recommendation: Existing household survey programmes should, as a minimum, include a question on the country of birth and country of citizenship. Where relevant, a migration module should be added. Once collected, survey data should be disseminated through public-use microdata files to facilitate disaggregation by migratory status.

Big data

Large amounts of data are continuously generated by mobile devices, electronic financial transactions or web-based platforms, which are often owned and maintained by the private sector. Several studies have shown that big data can be used to capture the movements of displaced people, temporary migration, remittance flows, regular and irregular flows and efforts to combat trafficking. While it is recognized that the use of big data comes with significant challenges, the potential for using such data to better understand migration dynamics has yet to be fully explored. To leverage big data as a meaningful source of information for migration analysis, national statistical offices need to work with all relevant stakeholders, including telecom company, IT providers, academia and relevant government agencies, to manage the process of data production.

Recommendation: National statistical agencies should create partnerships with the private sector and other relevant stakeholders to leverage big data for measuring migration, understanding the drivers and consequences of migration, and informing migration policy.

Migration-related indicators

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) include several migration-related targets. Most notably, SDG Target 10.7 calls on countries to facilitate safe, orderly, regular and responsible migration by implementing planned and well-managed migration policies. This presents a major data challenge as there is no global survey of international migration policies and national migration governance frameworks.¹³

¹³ UN DESA and IOM, in collaboration with OECD, are developing a tool for the periodic assessment of international migration policies based on the United Nations Inquiry among Governments on Population and Development. The tool is expected to provide data for key indicators on migration governance on a regular basis. IOM is also conducting a pilot project in 27 countries to develop a broader set of indicators on national migration governance.

¹² Population registers, implemented in many industrialized countries, constitute a comprehensive source of information on the stocks, flows and characteristics of international migrants.

Key sources of migration data

TYPE OF SOURCE	EXAMPLES OF SOURCE
 <p>Statistical Collects data for the creation of official statistics</p>	 Censuses  Household surveys
 <p>Administrative Collects data for purposes other than gathering information on migration</p>	 Visa, residence permit, work permit  Border data collection system
 <p>Innovative Emerging sources of migration data</p>	 Big data (e.g. social media)  IOM Displacement Tracking Matrix

Source: <http://migrationdataportal.org>

Relevant SDG targets on poverty, health, education, and so on require disaggregation by migratory status to ensure that the different experiences of migrants and non-migrants can be analysed. As few countries have the know-how, the tools or the resources to collect and analyse the required information, national statistical and administrative systems that produce data for compiling migration-related indicators should be strengthened.

Recommendation: Countries should develop a comprehensive strategy to enhance national capacities for the collection and use of migration-related data and indicators to support evidence-based policymaking. The international community should support such strategies through capacity-building, financial support and technical assistance.

Way forward

To address current data gaps, to assess key migration trends and to meet the demand for data to monitor the implementation of migration-related commitments, a global programme for building national capacities to collect, disseminate and analyse migration-related data is urgently needed.

The global programme should:

- Provide dedicated training for government officials;
- Address existing and explore new sources of migration-related data;
- Promote disaggregation of data by migratory status;
- Encourage international actors to collaborate in building national capacities;
- Be aligned with broader efforts to promote a “development data revolution”;
- Be consistent with the Global Compact on Refugees;
- Strengthen the role of actors at the regional level; and
- Be reviewed by the United Nations Statistical Commission on a regular basis.

Funding for the global programme is critically important. To this end, it is recommended that the global financing facility, proposed by SRSF Sutherland, includes dedicated funding to improve international migration data.

The first International Forum on Migration Statistics, organized by UN DESA, IOM and OECD in Paris on 15–16 January 2018, served as a space for producers and consumers of migration-related data to share data, discuss data needs, identify data gaps, and highlight needs for training and capacity-building. The second IFMS is expected to occur in 2019-2020.

RELEVANT GLOBAL COMPACT FOR MIGRATION OBJECTIVES:

Cross-cutting
(see Annex)

Measuring migration governance

IOM's Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (GMDAC)

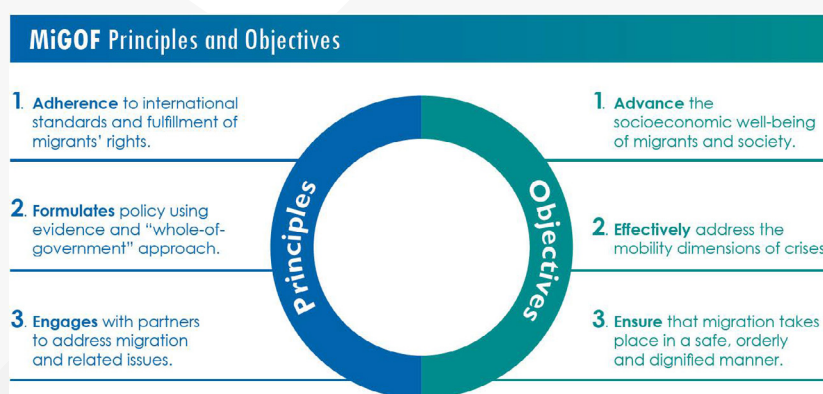
The growing interest in comparative analyses of migration has led to a variety of attempts to assess and compare countries' migration governance.

Having a clear understanding of policies and governance structures, and how these might be enhanced, is particularly important in the context of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). SDG Target 10.7 commits United Nations (UN) Member States to facilitate the "orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies" by 2030.¹⁴

IOM's Migration Governance Framework¹⁵

In an attempt to define the concept of "well-managed migration policies", IOM devised the Migration Governance Framework (MiGOF), which was welcomed by the IOM Council in November 2015. The IOM MiGOF defines governance as "the traditions and institutions by which authority on migration, mobility and nationality in a country is exercised, including the capacity of the government to effectively formulate and implement sound policies in these areas".¹⁶ The Framework sets out the essential elements of "good migration governance" – three principles and three objectives which, if respected and fulfilled, would ensure that migration is humane, safe and orderly, and that it provides benefits for migrants and societies.¹⁷

MiGOF six dimensions of good migration governance:



Source: <https://migrationdataportal.org>

¹⁴ United Nations General Assembly, Transforming our world: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, A/RES/70/1, 25 September 2015.) Available from www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/generalassembly/docs/globalcompact/A_RES_70_1_E.pdf

¹⁵ IOM Council, Resolution No. 1310, Migration Governance Framework, C/106/RES/1310, 24 November 2015. Available from <https://governingbodies.iom.int/system/files/en/council/106/C-106-40-Migration-Governance-Framework.pdf>

¹⁶ For more information, see <https://governingbodies.iom.int/system/files/en/council/106/C-106-RES-1310%20MIGOF.pdf>

¹⁷ For more information, see www.iom.int/sites/default/files/about-iom/migof_brochure_a4_en.pdf

Migration policy indices

In recent years, several tools have been developed to identify trends in migration policy over time, and serve as instruments for States to track their progress towards the SDGs and the Global Compact for Migration. More generally, such instruments can help States identify gaps and areas of governance that could be strengthened, set priorities for institutional capacity-building and assess the impact of policies on migration processes in the country.

The infographic below lists a number of available international comparative indices of migration policies.

Key migration policy assessment tools

Spotlight: *The Migration Governance Indicators*:¹⁸

Developed by IOM and the Economist Intelligence Unit, the Migration Governance Indicators (MGI) are composed of 90 questions within the six dimensions of good migration governance in IOM's MiGOF (see Figure 1).

In May 2016, a report was published which featured a summary of the MGI findings for 15 pilot countries. The framework is currently being applied in a growing number of countries, in consultation with governments.

The MGI exercise is carried out on a voluntary basis and does not aim to compare or rank countries based on

their migration governance structures. The main aim of the exercise is to help countries assess the extent to which their migration policy is comprehensive, thereby identifying good practices and areas in need of further development. By including interministerial consultations to discuss the findings of the policy assessment, the MGI exercise promotes a whole-of-government approach to migration policymaking and contributes to furthering policy coherence.

The MGI can also help countries develop baseline assessments and conduct future reviews of their work to assess progress in the context of the SDGs and the Global Compact for Migration.

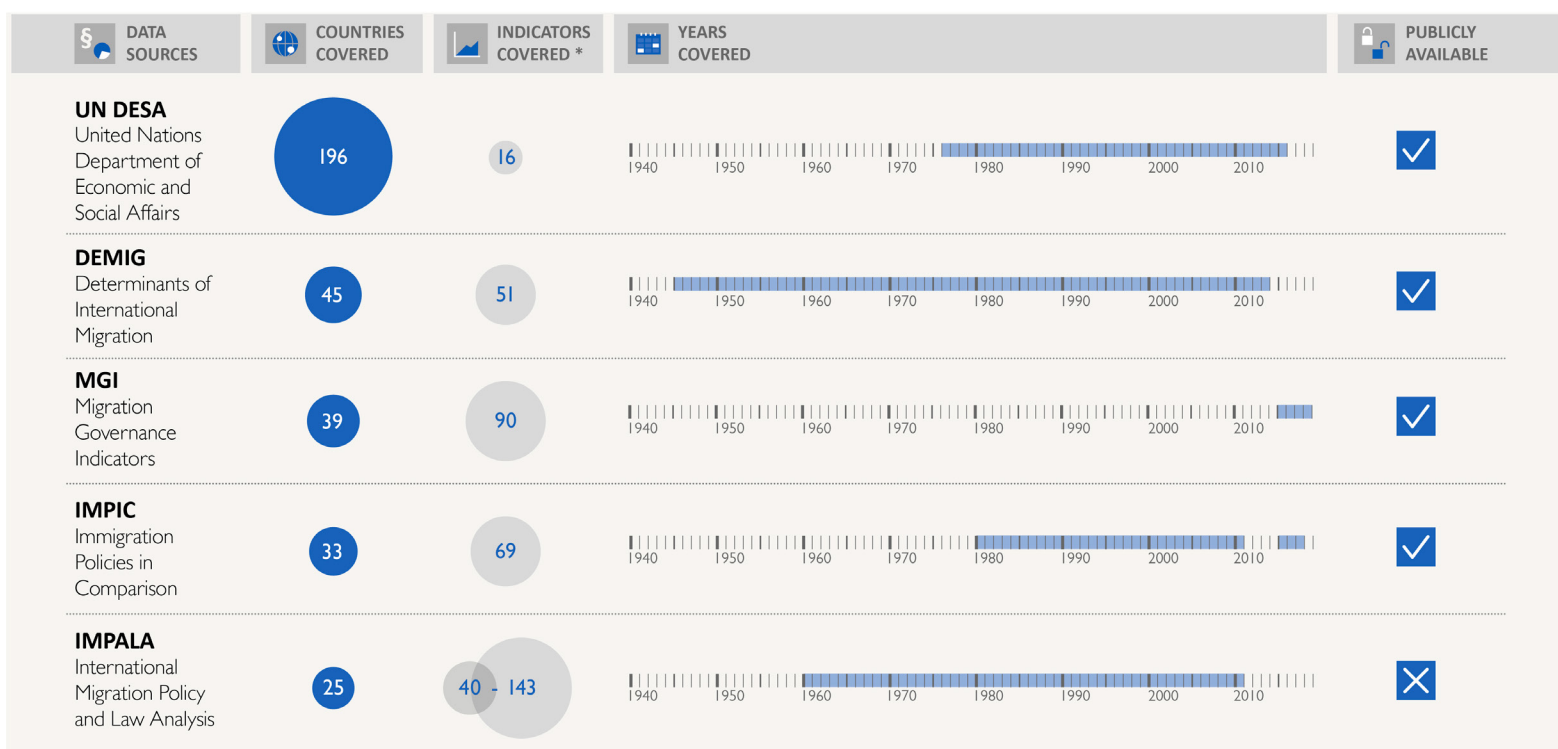
The infographic on page 19 outlines the objective, definition, process and outcome of the MGI exercise.

Other migration policy assessment tools are discussed in some detail on page 20.¹⁹

¹⁸ Migration Governance Indicators web page. Available from <https://gmdac.iom.int/migration-governance-indicators>

¹⁹ Not mentioned in this discussion due to space restrictions is the forthcoming *Dashboard of Indicators for Measuring Policy and Institutional Coherence for Migration and Development*, which aims to help policymakers assess how migration policies interact with other sectoral policies and is currently being applied in 10 pilot countries. See www.oecd.org/dev/migration-development/knomad-dashboard.htm#Operationalisation

Figure 1: Migration policies: Available data on how countries regulate migration



Note: A related index, the Migration Integration Policy Index (MIPEX), also measures migration governance but focuses on integration policies instead of migration policies. For further information please refer to the thematic page on Integration.

* Number of indicators can vary by country or year.

© IOM's GMDAC 2017 www.migrationdataportal.org

Figure 2: Migration Governance Indicators**Objective**

The main aim of the MGI is to help countries assess the extent to which their migration policy is comprehensive, and thereby identifying good practices and areas that could be strengthened. The exercise can also provide insight for developing policies in line with Target 10.7 of the SDGs.



Orderly



Safe



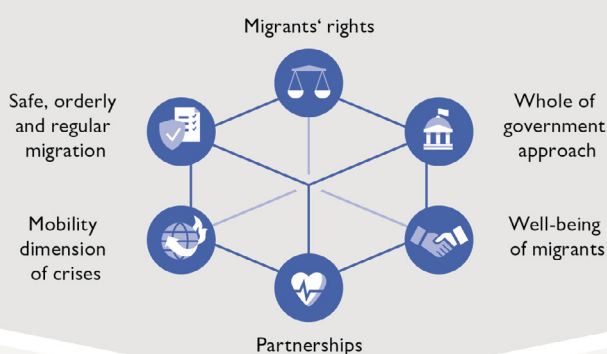
Regular



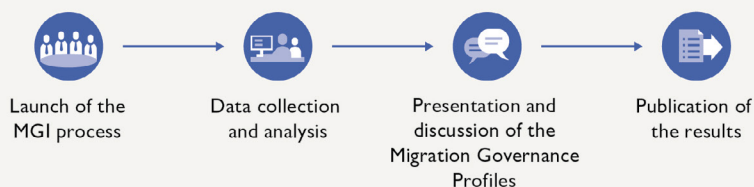
Responsible

Migration
and mobility
of people**Definition**

The MGI are based on the IOM Migration Governance Framework (MiGOF), which lays out the essential elements for facilitating orderly, safe, regular, and responsible migration and the mobility of people through planned and well-managed migration policies.

**Process**

The MGI uses data to spark an inclusive dialogue on migration governance, and to support governments' efforts towards comprehensive and coherent migration policy.

**Outcome**

Migration Governance Profiles reflect key findings from the MGI assessment, including policy recommendations that could enhance migration governance at the country level. The profiles can be used to assess progress towards international commitments such as the SDGs and the Global Compact for Migration.

Identifying
challenges and
solutionsImplementing
comprehensive
policiesTracking progress
on well-managed
migration

International Organization for Migration (IOM)
The UN Migration Agency

Source: International Organization for Migration (IOM), 2017.

Spotlight: Other initiatives

The **World Population Policies Database**,²⁰ updated biennially, shows the views and policy priorities of 196 countries on immigration and emigration, among other population policy topics such as age structure, fertility, health and mortality, and internal migration.

The **Determinants of International Migration Policy Project (DEMIG POLICY)**²¹ project has tracked more than 6,500 migration policy changes enacted by 45 geographically, economically and socially diverse countries from 1945 to 2013. The policy measures are coded by policy area and migrant group targeted, as well as whether they represent a change towards more or less restrictiveness.

The **Immigration Policies in Comparison Project (IMPIC)**²² project has developed a set of quantitative indices to measure immigration policies in all 35 member countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development for the period 1980–2010. Policy areas include labour migration, asylum claims and refugees, family reunification, and the migration of those with a shared colonial history, language, religion and/or ancestry.

The **Migration Integration Policy Index (MIPEX)**²³ has 167 indicators that help assess and compare integration policies across 38 countries. The public database has annual data for 2007–2014.

The **International Migration Policy and Law Analysis Project (IMPALA)**²⁴ project compiles comparable data on immigration law and policy in over 25 countries of immigration for 1960–2010. Data covers major categories of immigration law and policy, such as the acquisition of citizenship, economic migration, family reunification, and asylum and refugee protection.

Data limitations

- Data on migration governance mostly focuses on certain regions or time periods.
- Most migration policy indices do not cover all policy aspects where migration is implicated.
- Different indices also use varying definitions of migration policies and apply different methods, such as different scales, aggregations and coding.
- Many indices cannot be replicated easily and are not publicly available.
- The MGI project implemented by IOM aims to address these gaps by taking a **comprehensive approach** to covering six main policy domains and gathering data from **all regions of the world**, working in **full consultation with national authorities**.

²⁰ United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. See https://esa.un.org/poppolicy/about_database.aspx and www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/publications/policy/international-migration-policies-report-2013.shtml

²¹ University of Oxford. See www.imi.ox.ac.uk/data/demig-data/demig-policy-1

²² Berlin Social Science Centre. See <https://bibliothek.wzb.eu/pdf/2016/vi16-201.pdf>

²³ Barcelona Centre for International Affairs/Migration Policy Group. See www.mipex.eu

²⁴ Collaboration of several Universities. See www.impaladatabase.org

RELEVANT GLOBAL COMPACT FOR MIGRATION OBJECTIVE:
Objective 1
(see Annex)

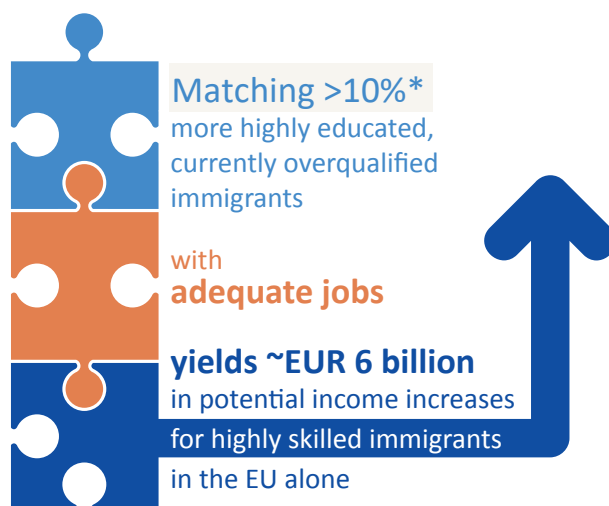
More than numbers: The value of migration data

IOM's Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (GMDAC)

Migration data is gaining traction on the international development agenda, as both migration experts and States increasingly recognize the critical role that data play in improving migration governance. However, there is limited clarity on how to prioritize strategic investments in data. The corresponding value (e.g., economic, social, humanitarian and political) for migration outcomes is often unknown. Unless decision makers are presented with a clear value case, current efforts to improve migration data will not be translated into action.

What is the value at stake?

One selected example:



Source: www.publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/more_than_numbers.pdf

Making the value case is essential for targeted investment

While there is general consensus on the importance of migration data, the value at stake is often unknown



Source: www.publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/more_than_numbers.pdf

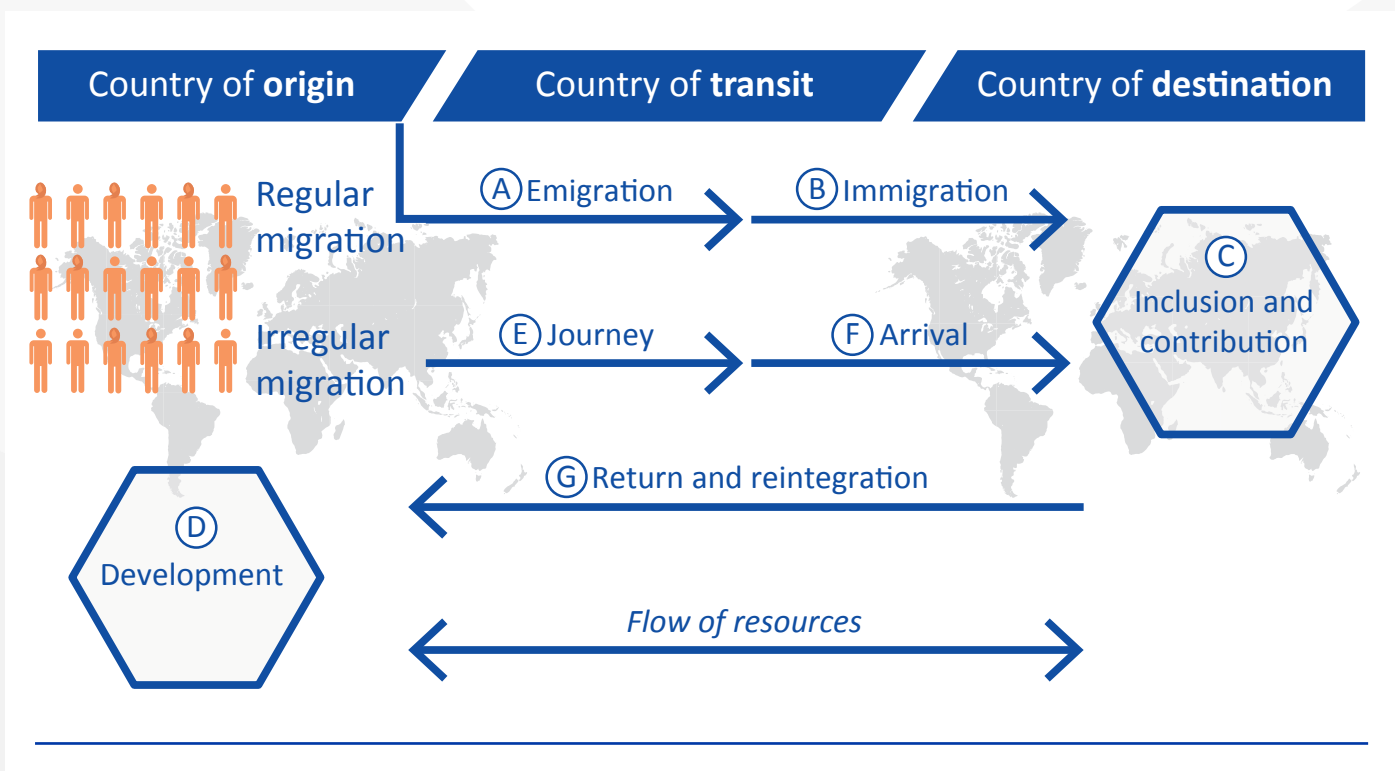
Capturing value requires relevant, high-quality data

Relevant, accurate, timely and complete data enable policymakers to achieve desired outcomes

Reliable data provide policymakers with a picture of the status quo and future developments, thereby supporting prioritization and decision-making. They enable the development of policies and implementation of actions tailored to specific circumstances and needs. Measurement of results allows for adjustment of policies over time to achieve better outcomes.

There is value throughout the migration cycle

Data have the potential to unlock value for migrants and countries (of origin, transit and destination) along at least seven core dimensions of migration



Source: www.publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/more_than_numbers.pdf

Investing in data pays off for migrants and countries alike.

There is a lot of value at stake (e.g., economic, social, humanitarian and political), along seven core dimensions of migration

Selected examples		
	What is the potential value at stake?	How can data help capture this value?
A Emigration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Around USD 3 to 6 billion reduction in recruitment costs for labour migrants in Arab Gulf States (for each reduction in recruitment cost equivalent to one month of migrants' average wage). 	<p>Uncover the extent of recruitment costs directly shouldered by migrants, and how they can be minimized:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Create transparency on the magnitude of recruitment costs by country of origin and destination country. Identify most vulnerable migrant groups.
B Immigration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Filling labour market gaps by identifying and incentivizing target groups abroad (e.g. Australia increased the number of jobs filled by employer-sponsored migrants by approximately 14 per cent each year from 2005 to 2015). 	<p>Support targeted immigration initiatives to mitigate domestic labour market shortages:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify target immigrant profiles based on domestic labour market needs. Identify the location of target groups, as well as effective incentives.
C Inclusion and contribution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Around 15–20 percentage point increase in immigrants' employment rates by identifying language gaps early on and providing targeted access to language classes locally. Around 10 per cent higher incomes (for every additional year of schooling) by identifying education gaps and targeting education efforts accordingly. Around EUR 6 billion in income increases for highly educated migrants in the European Union alone through data-driven matching of qualifications and jobs. 	<p>Support better language, education and employment outcomes for migrants:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Map supply and demand for language-learning resources, target offering and measure the effectiveness of interventions. Identify and match demand and supply for specific qualifications.
D Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Around USD 15–20bn in remittance increases to developing countries (equivalent to 15–20% of 2016 official development assistance from OECD countries) by providing diaspora with transparency concerning cheaper money transfer options. 	<p>Enable increased remittance volumes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Map remittance flows from various migrant groups in different destination countries. Identify barriers to remittances (e.g. fees and access to financial services). Create transparency for migrants on the most cost-effective means of transferring remittances.
E Journey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Three times more cases of human trafficking identified (enabling support to ~250,000 victims) through better detection based on data analysis and corresponding interventions Around 3,000 additional missing migrants identified each year (and their families assisted to come to closure) 	<p>Prevent human trafficking and facilitate the identification of missing migrants:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Uncover the incidence of human trafficking by route, trafficking practice and victim type to facilitate detection and prevention. Increase the identification rates of missing migrants (e.g. through real-time tracking of migrant flows, analyses of rescue efforts).
F Arrival	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identification of duplicate registrations using biometric data. 	<p>Enable definite identification and registration:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify duplicates by matching multiple data sets based on biometric data.
G Return and reintegration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased success of return (voluntary and forced) and reintegration efforts through better data on origin of migrants, migrant needs and conditions in origin countries. 	<p>Inform return and reintegration policies:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Create transparency on the efficacy of voluntary versus forced return, and the reasons for success/failure. Measure the efficacy of reintegration support on inclusion outcomes and sustainability of returns.

The next steps

Targeted initiatives at all levels can enable countries to take a value perspective on migration and to prioritize data needs and investments accordingly.

Global level: An important goal is to establish a **global data-to-value hub** that will (a) consolidate and improve know-how on sizing and capturing the value that data can contribute, as well as (b) support countries in prioritizing the data that are most relevant to them. A user-friendly platform will allow countries to self-assess where the biggest value lies for them, identify which data priorities are most critical and draw on best practice examples from others.

Key benefits include

- Acceleration of migration data agenda through effective global support to countries
- Better development and dissemination of the capabilities to develop and implement effective migration data strategies.

Regional level: The establishment of more and better **regional migration data hubs** could facilitate data exchange (including annual reports) and create transparency regarding potential value of data and developments.

Key benefits include

- Improved intraregional cooperation and data-sharing, enabling better understanding of value potential and mutual benefits originating from migration.
- Stronger evidence base and analysis to support policy decisions for achieving better migration outcomes at the regional and national levels.

Country level: Countries are encouraged to develop **value-driven migration data strategies** that start from where the most potential lies. This enables effective decisions on which data to collect, analyse and use.

Key benefits include

- Identification of high-priority data gaps (i.e., with significant potential to improve outcomes).
- Buy-in from government and donors through the articulation of a clear investment case for data.
- Better capture and articulation of the economic, social, humanitarian and political potential of migration.

RELEVANT GLOBAL COMPACT FOR MIGRATION OBJECTIVE:

Objective 1
(see Annex)

Big data and migration: How data innovation can serve migration policymaking²⁵

Marzia Rango

*IOM's Global Migration
Data Analysis Centre (GMDAC)*

Michele Vespe

*European Commission,
Joint Research Centre*

Migration has become one of the most challenging issues confronting policymakers around the world. The growing complexity of internal and cross-border human mobility has highlighted the need for reliable and timely data to inform migration policy development and humanitarian assistance – a need that traditional statistical systems are often not well-equipped to meet.

Migration data from traditional sources – e.g. national population censuses, sample surveys and administrative sources – are characterized by significant gaps in quantity and quality, despite increasing efforts from national governments and the international community to address these.²⁶ National population censuses are conducted infrequently and cannot provide timely information on migration; household surveys are costly and may not always include migrants, particularly if they are undocumented. Administrative records (e.g. issuance of residence and work permits) are not analysed and disseminated systematically in many countries.²⁷

Such limitations create important gaps in the information needed to inform sensible and effective migration policies, as well as monitor progress towards the achievement of migration-relevant targets in the Sustainable Development Goals; when migrants are absent from the data, it becomes difficult, if not impossible, to assess the extent to which they are “left behind”. The adoption of the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration in December 2018 will also imply greater demands for data to help make migration safer and more orderly.

Meanwhile, most data today are not collected by national statistical offices but by private companies or international agencies. Estimates suggest that about 90 per cent of the world's data were generated in the last two years.²⁸ Technological innovations and the reduction in the cost of digital devices mean that vast amounts of data generated through the use of mobile phones, Internet-based platforms and other digital devices are now collected in real time, at very little cost. Sensible and responsible analyses of these “digital crumbs” have the potential to offer important insights into societal phenomena, including migration. However, a series of issues, ranging from access and analytical difficulties to privacy and security risks, mean that such vast potential remains largely untapped.

The potential

A growing number of studies and experiments combining traditional and new data sources and methods are bringing the potential of data innovation to the attention of the international migration community. Existing evidence shows that some types of big data sources are particularly promising for the study of migration-related phenomena. These include the following: (a) mobile phone call detail records (CDR); (b) Internet activity – such as Google searches, repeated logins to the same website and emails sent; (c) online media content; and (d) geo-referenced social media activity, which can be obtained via advertising platforms offered by social media companies to help advertisers target specific audiences.

²⁵ This bulletin is largely based on the outcome document from the workshop Big Data and alternative data sources on migration: From case-studies to policy support, jointly organized by the European Commission's Knowledge Centre on Migration and Demography (KCMD) and IOM's Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (GMDAC) in Ispra, Italy, on 30 November 2017. For more details about the event, see <https://bluehub.jrc.ec.europa.eu/bigdata4migration>

²⁶ See, for instance, International Forum on Migration Statistics website, www.oecd.org/migration/forum-migration-statistics, and the Migration Data Portal page on data gaps and availability, <https://migrationdataportal.org/themes/migration-data-sources>

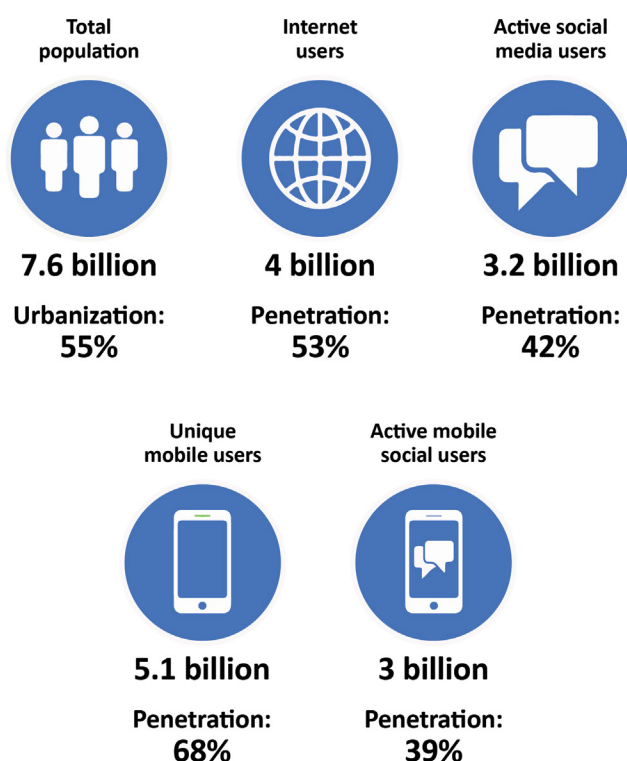
²⁷ GMDAC, “Improving data for safe, orderly and regular migration”, *Data Bulletin*, Issue no. 4, January 2018, available from <http://gmdac.iom.int/data-bulletin-improving-data-for-safe-orderly-and-regular-migration>

²⁸ UN Data Revolution Group, *A World that Counts: Mobilising the Data Revolution for Sustainable Development* (Independent Advisory Group, 2014).

Data obtained from the Facebook advertising platform,²⁹ at little or no cost, can provide information on the number of users that Facebook refers to as “expats” – those stating to be living in a country other than their self-reported “home country” – in a specific country or globally at a certain point in time.³⁰ This means that Facebook can potentially be used as a “real-time census” to estimate the stock of expats in a country. According to Facebook data, there would be approximately 273 million “expats” globally (monthly active users), which is not too far from the estimate of 258 million international migrants worldwide by mid-2017 by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA).³¹

Figure 1: Digital around the world in 2018

Key statistical indicators for the world's internet, mobile and social media users



Note: Infographic is based on Hootsuite and We Are Social (2018). For sources and further information, please see original at <https://wearesocial.com/blog/2018/01/global-digital-report-2018>

Geolocated social media activity can also be used to infer patterns of international migration flows, disaggregated by sex, age and other – usually self-reported – characteristics, such as skill levels or sector of occupation.

²⁹ See <https://developers.facebook.com/docs/marketing-api/targeting-specs>

³⁰ E. Zagheni, I. Weber and K. Gummadi, “Leveraging Facebook’s advertising platform to monitor stocks of migrants”, *Population and Development Review*, 43(4):721–734 (2017), <https://doi.org/10.1111/padr.12102>

³¹ UN DESA, *International Migration Report 2017: Highlights*, ST/ESA/SER.A/404 (United Nations, New York, 2017). Available from www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/publications/migrationreport/docs/MigrationReport2017_Highlights.pdf

Facebook counts about 2 billion users, representing around 30 per cent of the world’s population. Penetration rates are much lower in Asia and Africa compared to the rest of the world (only 4% in China, for instance), though such rates may be higher among migrants relative to non-migrants (www.statista.com/statistics/553712/facebook-penetration-in-china). The number of fake or double accounts could also be a possible source of error. Also, while UN DESA estimates mostly refer to the foreign-born population globally, Facebook counts as “expats” those who state to be living in a country other than their self-reported “home country”.

For instance, data from LinkedIn – which counts more than 530 million users globally – allow for a digital mapping of the workforce in certain regions or countries, including migrants and their occupational profiles. LinkedIn data on self-reported changes in job positions can be analysed to estimate movements of highly skilled migrants, particularly in locations and sectors where penetration rates of this social media platform are relatively high.³² Twitter data has also been used to compare internal and international migration patterns.³³ Social media content, for instance from Twitter, may also be used to study public sentiment on migration, and analyse how views on social media can become polarized and self-referential.³⁴

The combination of independent data sources with different levels of precision with respect to time and location seems particularly promising. For instance, call records from mobile phones combined with satellite data can be used to map movements between cross-communities.³⁵ While CDR data are generally more helpful to track internal migration patterns – including post-disaster displacement³⁶ – they could potentially be used to study international migration across neighbouring countries, complementing traditional data, such as administrative records. Also, details of international calls, coupled with traditional statistics from national censuses can contribute to determining patterns of migrant integration and residential segregation.³⁷ CDR can also be used to identify “transnationals” – people living and working in more than one country – who are usually hard to track through traditional data sources.³⁸

In sum, the main strengths of new data sources, or the combination of new and traditional sources, lie especially in the following: (a) their wide coverage, as these data refer to all users of mobile devices or Internet services, and therefore vast segments of the population (even those who may be hard to reach);³⁹ (b) their timeliness, as

³² B. State et al., *Migration of professionals to the U.S.: Evidence from LinkedIn Data* (2014). Available from https://zagheni.net/uploads/3/1/7/9/3179747/migration_professionals_linkedin.pdf

³³ E. Zagheni et al., *Inferring international and internal migration patterns from Twitter data* (2014). Available from <https://ingmarweber.de/wp-content/uploads/2014/02/Inferring-International-and-Internal-Migration-Patterns-from-Twitter-Data.pdf>

³⁴ Presentation by F. Natale at KCMD-GMDAC workshop, “Big data and alternative data sources on migration: from case-studies to policy support”; see fn. 1.

³⁵ Presentation by A. Sorichetta at KCMD-GMDAC workshop “Big Data and alternative data sources on migration: from case-studies to policy support”; see fn. 1.

³⁶ See, for instance, Flowminder, “Mobile phone data to understand climate change and migration patterns in Bangladesh,” (2016). Available from www.flowminder.org/case-studies/mobile-phone-data-to-understand-climate-change-and-migration-patterns-in-bangladesh

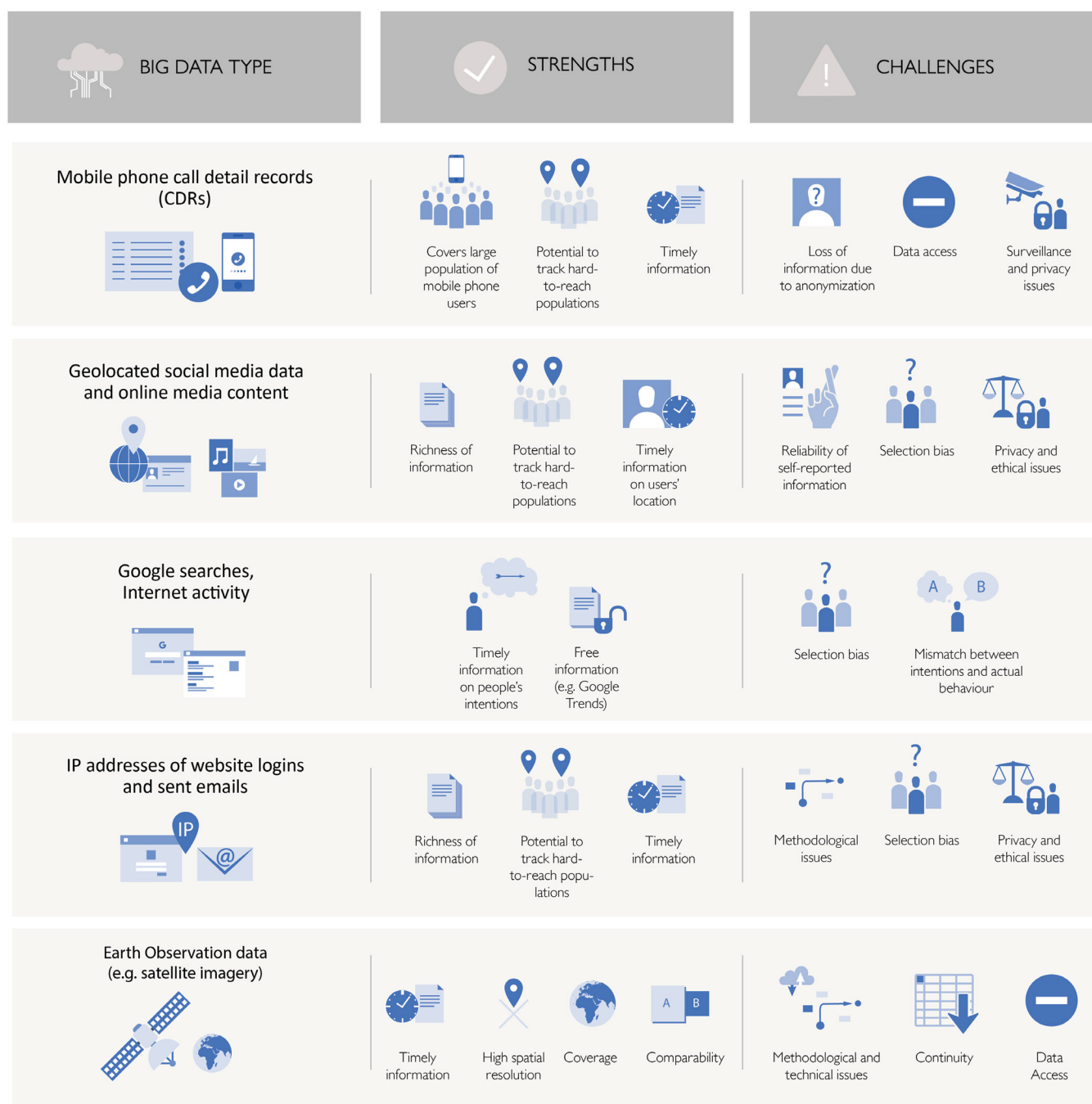
³⁷ Presentation by F. Natale at KCMD-GMDAC workshop, “Big data and alternative data sources on migration: from case-studies to policy support”, see fn. 1.

³⁸ R. Ahas, S. Silm and M. Tiru, “Tracking trans-nationalism with mobile telephone data” (Foundation Estonian Cooperation Assembly, 2017). Available from <https://inimareng.ee/en/open-to-the-world/tracking-trans-nationalism-with-mobile-telephone-data>

³⁹ Coverage varies depending on Internet, mobile and social media penetration rates, which differ by region and individuals’ characteristics. For instance, the share of Internet users in the total population in Africa is 34 per cent, compared to 48 per cent in the Asia-Pacific region, 73 per cent in the Americas and 80 per cent in Europe. Only 15 per cent of the total African population are active social media users, compared to 42 per cent in Asia-Pacific, 53 per cent in Europe and 64 per cent in the Americas. (For all sources, see <https://wearesocial.com/blog/2018/01/global-digital-report-2018>).

Figure 2: The potential of big data and innovative data sources

Filling the gaps of traditional data sources on migration (censuse, surveys, and administrative sources) and contributing to improved understanding of various aspects of migration. A number of studies have shown such potential – but there are significant challenges too.



Note: Infographic available from <https://migrationdataportal.org/infographic/potential-big-data-and-innovative-data-sources>

data are collected in virtually realtime; (c) the frequency at which information can be updated; (d) the high spatial resolution of big data; (e) the relatively low cost of obtaining such data – depending on the willingness of data providers to share them – as they are automatically collected and stored in real-time; and (f) their potential to generate insights on temporary, circular and seasonal patterns of migration, which are difficult to capture through traditional sources.

The challenges

The opportunities offered by new data sources to improve understanding of migration-related aspects are mirrored

by numerous challenges: (a) there are privacy, data protection and ethical issues in using data automatically generated by individuals of mobile phones and internet-based services, and human rights concerns due to the risks of using such data for surveillance or other incompatible purposes compared to the purposes for which they were collected; (b) the volume, complexity and “noisiness” of the data imply analytical and methodological difficulties in extracting meaningful insights; (c) big data sources reflect behavioural patterns of users of mobile phones and internet platforms, who may not be representative of the population at large (selection bias are), so methodological adjustments are needed to address this bias; (d) self-reported information on social media may

not always be reliable and the potential presence of fake or double social media accounts also need to be considered; (e) access will need to be clearly regulated so that data continuity is ensured and any privacy concerns addressed; (f) there are difficulties in applying statistical definitions of migration, such as the UN-recommended definition of an international migrant, given information on length of residence in the host country is mostly hard to obtain from big data sources.

These challenges generate some scepticism and uncertainty among statisticians and policymakers on the feasibility of using big data sources to address gaps in migration statistics and inform migration-related policies.

Realizing the potential

To overcome the challenges and systematize use of big data sources for migration research and policymaking, investments are needed in the following areas:

- (a) The establishment of an **adequate regulatory and legislative framework** for the collection, analysis, and sharing of big data; an **international dialogue** between regulators, big data users and providers should be the starting point.
- (b) The **upgrading of infrastructure and security systems** at the **national level**.
- (c) The creation of incentives towards the **development of new private-public partnerships** for data exchange and collaborations, or “data collaboratives”.⁴⁰
- (d) More **research** on ways to capitalize on innovative data sources in the field of migration, and systematic ways to take stock of existing applications and share existing knowledge.

As a way to facilitate these investments, the European Commission’s KCMD and IOM’s GMDAC launched a Big Data for Migration (BD4M) Alliance in June 2018 to advance discussions on how to harness the potential of big data sources for the analysis of migration and its relevance for policymaking, while ensuring the ethical use of data and the protection of individuals’ privacy.

As conveners of BD4M, the KCMD and IOM’s GMDAC welcome the participation of representatives from international organizations and non-governmental organizations, members of national statistical offices, private sector representatives, researchers and data scientists interested in contributing, in various capacities, to realizing the potential of big data to complement traditional data sources on migration.

The BD4M is global in scope, and aims to make progress in the area of big data and migration through three main areas of work:

- (a) **Awareness-raising and knowledge-sharing:** Promoting sharing of knowledge on data innovation in the field of migration

(b) **Capacity-building:** Providing technical support to countries interested in using new data sources to complement migration statistics.

(c) **Policy-oriented research:** Developing research projects to test new big data applications to study migration-related patterns.

The BD4M and aims to make progress of a network of “data stewards” across private and public institutions, to facilitate exchanges of information and good practices on leveraging big data for migration analysis, with due consideration of privacy and ethical concerns.

⁴⁰ See <https://datacollaboratives.org> and presentation by S. Verhulst at KCMD-GMDAC workshop, “Big data and alternative data sources on migration: from case-studies to policy support”; see fn. 1.

Quantifying displacement and mobility: IOM's Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM)

IOM's Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM)

The Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM)⁴¹ is a system to track and monitor displacement and population mobility, provide critical information to decision makers and responders during crises, and contribute to a better understanding of population flows and needs.⁴² Timely data and analysis are key for humanitarian actors to deliver prompt and targeted assistance. DTM was first conceptualized in 2004 to monitor internal displacement in Iraq and has since been adapted for implementation in over 70 countries. In 2017 alone, DTM tracked over 30 million individuals, including internally displaced persons (IDPs), returnees and migrants in a broad range of contexts, including conflicts, natural disasters, complex emergencies and protracted crises (see Figure 1).

Displacement tracking and monitoring

DTM regularly collects and disseminates multisectoral information on populations on the move to support the coordination of humanitarian assistance through its four standard components: (a) mobility tracking; (b) flow monitoring; (c) registration and (d) surveys. Given the complex settings in which DTM operates, it is possible – and often necessary – to combine and contextualize various components, tools and methods into an integrated approach. DTM thus takes on a flexible approach, and focuses on collecting operational and actionable data, often under inter-agency coordination mechanisms and in collaboration with various partners.⁴³ DTM data also feed directly into global-level analysis, such as the Global Reports on Internal Displacement published by the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC).

Since 2014, DTM has supported the Government of Nigeria in establishing a comprehensive system to collect and disseminate data on IDPs, in collaboration with national agencies. Bimonthly reports present key IDP and returnee figures, analysis of basic multisectoral needs – such as shelter and non-food items, water and sanitation for health (WASH) and food and nutrition – to inform the ongoing humanitarian operations.⁴⁴ Similar DTM operations have been rolled out in other countries, such as Afghanistan and Ethiopia. Also, as the Global Cluster Lead for Camp Coordination and Camp Management in natural disaster emergencies, IOM has been implementing DTM in different natural disaster settings, such as in the following: (a) Nepal, following the 2015 earthquake; (b) the Caribbean, following the impact of hurricane Maria; and (c) Haiti after a 2010 earthquake displaced 1.5 million people. DTM has also proven to be highly effective in supporting countries to prepare for displacement crises through capacity-building activities, mapping of potential evacuation and displacement sites, and setting up mechanisms before a disaster occurs – for instance in Vanuatu, the Federated States of Micronesia and the Marshall Islands.

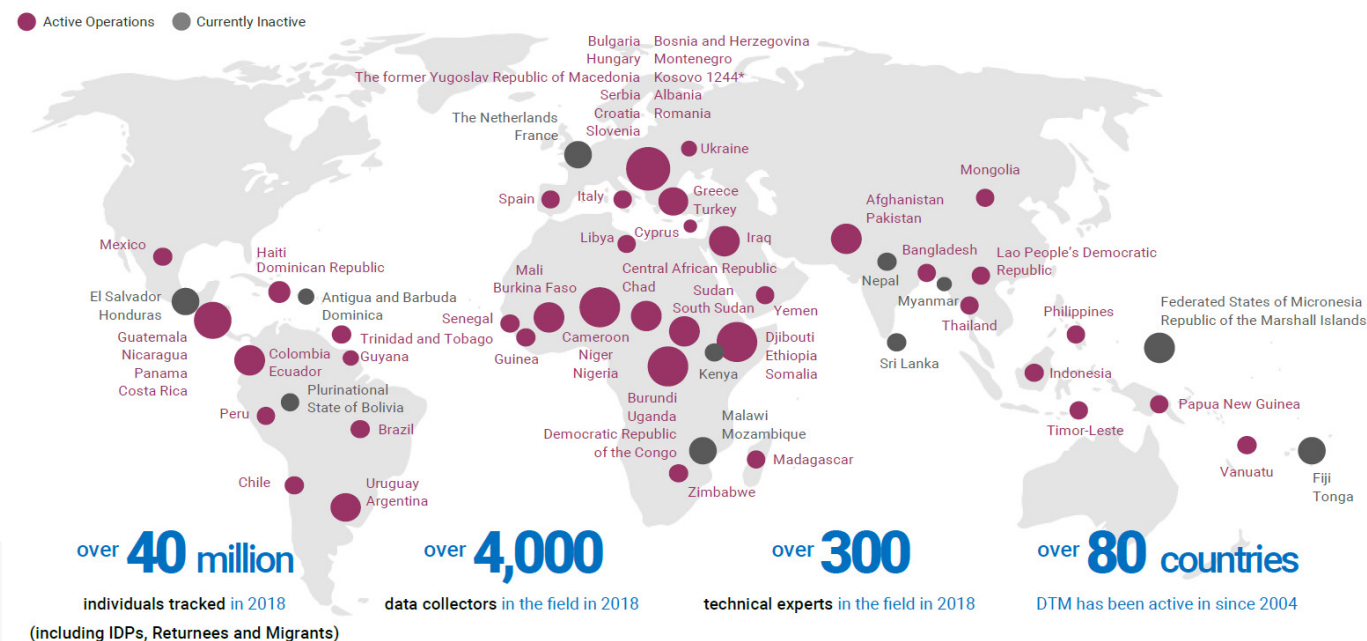
⁴¹ See <https://displacement.iom.int/nigeria>

⁴² Displacement Tracking Matrix, Methodological framework used in Displacement Tracking Matrix operations for quantifying displacement and mobility, 5 December 2017. Available from <https://displacement.iom.int/content/methodological-framework-used-displacement-tracking-matrix-operations-quantifying>

⁴³ For more on DTM partnerships, please see page 31 of this publication.

⁴⁴ See <https://displacement.iom.int/nigeria>

Figure 1: Global DTM implementation map 2017



Source: IOM's Displacement Tracking Matrix website: <https://displacement.iom.int>

Flow-monitoring initiatives

DTM's flow-monitoring activities involve the collection of data on population movements at entry, transit and exit points, with the aim of improving the understanding of trends that are difficult to discern using traditional data sources. Information is collected on the direction of net flows, the size and paths of movements, the origin and destination of migrants, their reasons for moving, as well as migrants' needs and profiles.

Flow monitoring was originally developed to track flows within countries experiencing internal displacement and later expanded to capture information on flows between countries. Flow monitoring exercises have been set up as part of the DTM programme in different areas, including in the Arab Peninsula, East Africa, Europe, the Horn of Africa, Libya and West and Central Africa, and have included partnerships at regional and country levels.

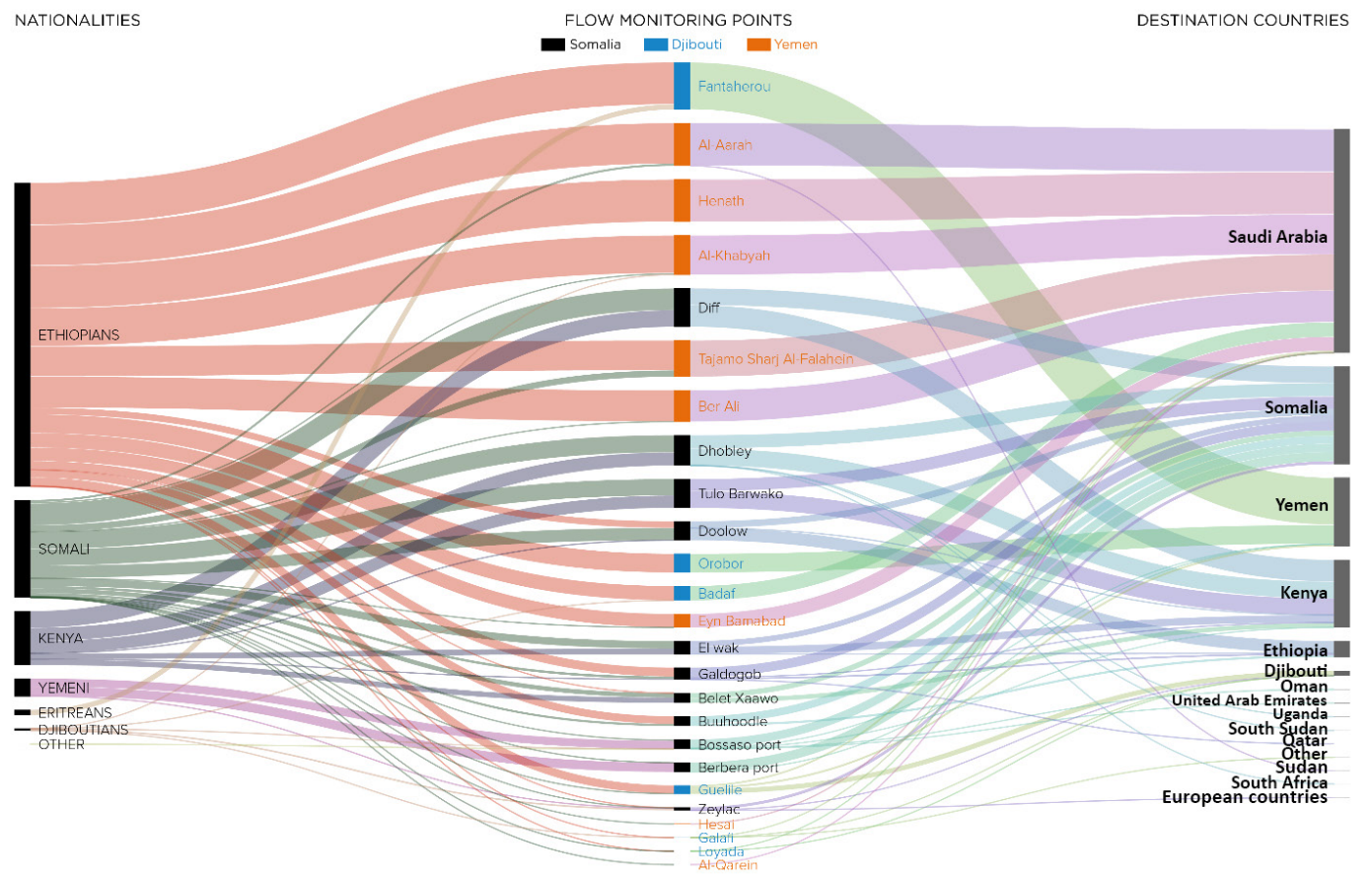
In Europe, flow monitoring was established in October 2015 as part of the response to a significant increase in migration flows and the need for reliable information for decision-making. Between January and November 2016, over 19,500 interviews were conducted by IOM field staff in various locations of entry, transit and exit, as well as at migrant accommodation and reception centres in Bulgaria, Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Serbia and Slovenia. Emphasis was placed on questions to identify human trafficking and associated forms of exploitation and abuse. In 2017, the DTM Mediterranean team gathered 9,483 flow monitoring surveys, covering more than 120 flow monitoring points in 17 different countries in the Mediterranean and Western Balkans, and produced analytical and statistical reports on a regular basis.

In the West and Central Africa region, flow monitoring activities started in 2012, following the displacement

of populations from the north of Mali to Bamako. In 2015, flow monitoring activities were used to track movements in and out of Ebola-affected areas. Since 2016, flow-monitoring points (FMPs) have been set up in Mali and Niger to better understand migration movements to Algeria and Libya on the Central Mediterranean Route.

As of 2018, there are more than 20 FMPs in the region collecting data on migration flows. They are located in high-transit areas of the following seven countries: Burkina Faso, Chad, Guinea, Mali, Niger, Nigeria and Senegal. Data collected through these points help to identify the main routes and means of transport in the region and inform information campaigns targeted at migrants. The data collected also help to identify migrants in vulnerable situations along these routes and inform protection and assistance interventions. Additional FMPs will be set up in West and Central Africa in 2018 to enhance tracking of migratory movements within the region and understanding of migrants' profiles and experiences through dedicated sample surveys.

The three main axes of movement from the Horn of Africa are as follows: (a) the western–northern route towards Libya or Egypt and (for some) onwards to Italy and other European countries; (b) eastern route towards Yemen and onwards to Saudi Arabia and the Gulf States; and (c) southern route to Kenya and onwards to southern Africa. Between June and December 2017, in close collaboration with national and local authorities, IOM monitored migration flows from the Horn of Africa towards the Arab Peninsula, which has been suffering from a severe humanitarian crisis since 2015, through a network of 25 FMPs, strategically positioned on the shores of Yemen, in Djibouti and in Somalia.

Figure 2: Intended destination of migrants passing through flow-monitoring points in Somalia, Djibouti and Yemen, by nationality

Comprehensive migration flows survey

Given the success of DTM's flow-monitoring activities along the Eastern and Central Mediterranean routes and the need for even more detailed information, DTM developed an expanded Flow Monitoring Survey model, known as the Comprehensive Migration Flows Survey (CMFS). It consists of eight different thematic areas, covering six target populations, including potential migrants, migrants in transit, migrants in final destination, and migrants upon return.

Figure 3: Thematic areas covered in the Comprehensive Migration Flows Survey (CMFS)

1. Migrant profiles	2. Migration routes and trajectories	3. Resourcing the journey	4. Role of intermediaries
5. Vulnerability factors in origin/transit/destination countries	6. Migration drivers and decision-making	7. Role of diaspora	8. Migrants' perceptions towards Europe

The data collected from each population group allows for the construction of clearly defined demographic and socioeconomic migrant profiles, which include characteristics such as sex, marital status, age and education level, as well as mobility patterns and needs. The CMFS collects information on the decision-making process in the country of origin or habitual residence, background information on how the journey was funded, and the role of intermediaries and diaspora networks.

With an initial focus on migrants from Afghanistan and Pakistan, a total of 7,248 in-depth interviews were completed in 2016, followed by an in-depth analysis under each thematic area. In February 2017, the exercise shifted its focus to migrants from Ethiopia, Iraq, Nigeria and Somalia, collecting data and information in countries of origin/return, transit and destination. The data and analysis aim to inform relevant decision-making processes and policy formulation for the benefit of migrants.

Partnerships

Collaboration with partners from various sectors plays a vital role in building and expanding DTM as an effective information management system in humanitarian crisis settings. Private sector partnerships, including with ESRI,⁴⁵ SAS⁴⁶ and Deloitte⁴⁷ among others, have proven to be of significant value, bringing more knowledge,

⁴⁵ See <https://blogs.esri.com/esri/esri-insider/2016/12/18/mapping-migration-trends-to-europe>

⁴⁶ See www.sas.com/en_us/customers/iom.html

⁴⁷ See www.deloitte.com/global/en/pages/about-deloitte/articles/iom-deloitte-humanitarian-innovation-program.html

different perspectives and advanced technology to support the DTM's development. Partnerships with universities and experts from academia, including the Brookings Institution,⁴⁸ Harvard Humanitarian Initiative,⁴⁹ and Georgetown University⁵⁰ support improved use and analysis of DTM data. Other important partnerships include joint work on displacement data analysis and the continued development of the global platform with the Centre of Humanitarian Data,⁵¹ IDMC, and Flowminder.⁵²

DTM data also feed directly into global-level analysis. In its 2017 Global Report on Internal Displacement,⁵³ IDMC recognized DTM as an increasingly important source of displacement data at the global level.

Innovation

DTM is continuously exploring and developing innovative practices to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of its data and analysis systems and tools, as well as collect and share more accurate and timely information. Field data collection activities have leveraged mobile technologies and shifted to electronic forms. This has resulted not only in more cost- and time-efficient processes, but also in better data quality. Biometric registration systems, implemented in accordance with IOM's Data Protection Principles, has improved the accuracy of DTM data and reduced duplication.

DTM deploys unmanned aerial vehicles to quickly and efficiently map and model IDP sites for better site planning and management. On the analysis side, DTM actively explores the use of predictive analytics and theoretical models to predict patterns of displacement during crisis.

Expanding partnerships and collaborations, consolidating and applying best practices and innovative solutions to refine the approaches and methods, and further exploring the use of advanced and predictive analytics models for better response, are also priority workstreams for global DTM development.

In the current era of human mobility, a regional perspective is required; crises often have direct implications beyond the borders of a country or region, presenting complex issues that require a solid understanding of regional and cross-regional dynamics. DTM is expanding its regional capacities to respond to these challenges. To this end, the Regional Data Hub in Nairobi, Kenya, has been established to support the monitoring and analysis of regional migration trends across the Horn of Africa, including Yemen and Sudan. The Hub aims to contribute to national and regional migration policy dialogues by harmonizing and integrating the multiple sources⁵⁴ of IOM's mixed migration data, providing up-to-date analysis of relevant trends and investigating the vulnerabilities of populations

on the move. Similar expansions are also ongoing in other regions. Convergence and interoperability of data and analysis are key factors in generating an actionable evidence base and understanding mobility dynamics to inform decision-making and policy discussions.

⁴⁸ See www.brookings.edu/events/lessons-from-haiti-innovations-in-tracking-and-housing-internally-displaced-persons

⁴⁹ See <https://hhi.harvard.edu>

⁵⁰ See <https://isim.georgetown.edu/iom-idp>

⁵¹ See <https://data.humdata.org>

⁵² See www.flowminder.org

⁵³ IDMC, Global Report on Internal Displacement (GRID 2017) (IDMC, Geneva, 2017). Available from www.internal-displacement.org/publications/2017-global-report-on-internal-displacement

⁵⁴ Such as through direct reintegration initiatives, assistance to vulnerable migrants or at monitoring points along the migration routes.

Migration Profiles: A useful tool for understanding and improving governance of migration

Emma Borgnäs
IOM's Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (GMDAC)

What are Migration Profiles?

An analysis of available accurate and disaggregated data on some or all migration-relevant aspects of a country's national context, prepared in consultation with a broad range of stakeholders, which can be used to enhance policy coherence, evidence-based policymaking on migration and the mainstreaming of migration into development plans.⁵⁵

A Migration Profile is an output of an elaborate process involving consultation with many different actors in an effort to help identify data gaps and identify strategies to address those gaps and produce the evidence required to inform policy on all economic, developmental, demographic, social and other aspects that impact migration and vice versa.

To date, more than 100 profiles⁵⁶ have been developed with funding from the European Commission, International Organization for Migration (IOM), and its Member States. These have been implemented by international stakeholders including the European Commission, IOM, the International Centre for Migration Policy Development (ICMPD), among others, or by national governments, and have therefore taken different forms. For instance, some countries have opted for a "Migration Profile Light," a shorter version of a Migration Profile indicating key areas of interest and priority for a country, as well as data on a set of indicators. However, Migration Profiles are more likely to contribute to capacity-building and use of evidence for policy where the exercise is not limited to the production of a report, but where the Migration Profile process involves capacity-building and coordination activities. These elements also ensure greater sustainability and country ownership of the Migration Profile.

Migration Profiles differ from other migration trend reports⁵⁷ in that they:

- Take a structured and comprehensive approach not only to the **analysis of migration patterns and migrant characteristics**, but also to the impact of migration on the receiving or sending country;
- Present an overview of the migration **policy and governance framework**;
- Review action taken as part of **international cooperation** on migration;
- Suggest possible actions that could assist in harnessing the maximum benefit **of migration for sustainable development**.

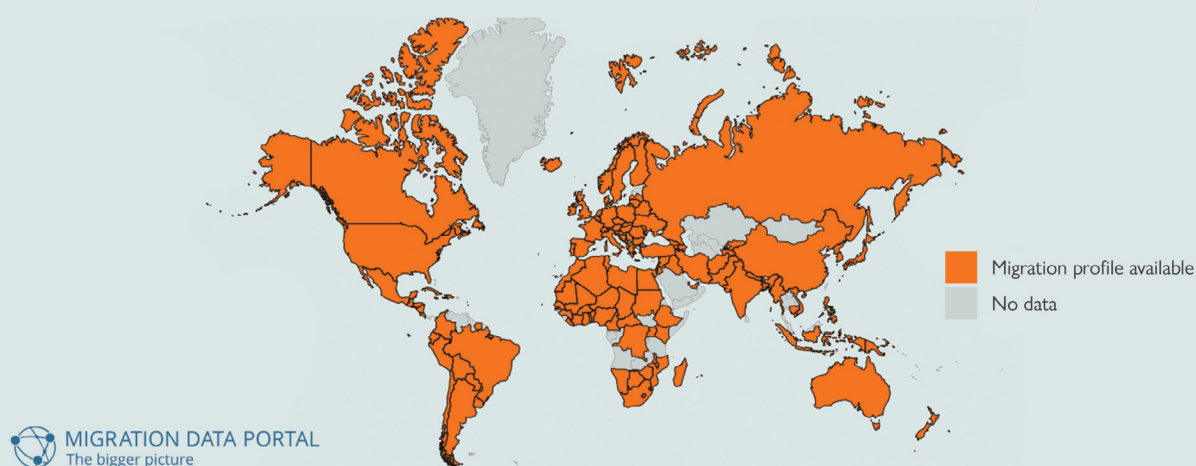
A Migration Profile also helps identify and develop strategies to address **data gaps** and produce the evidence required to manage migration effectively.

Although conceived as flexible and country-specific tools, Migration Profiles strive for **international compatibility**. Learning from the experiences of past Migration Profile exercises, IOM developed a standardized template and pre-designed report structure. The template offers a "menu" of thematic modules that might be included in a Migration Profile report, depending on the country's priorities and specific migration context, and lists possible relevant

⁵⁵ IOM, *Glossary on Migration*, IML Series No. 34, (forthcoming).

⁵⁶ Global Forum on Migration and Development (GFMD), Migration Profiles Repository (n.d.). Available from <https://gfmd.org/pfp/policy-tools/migration-profiles/repository>

⁵⁷ Including ICMPD, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, European Migration Network and, ICMPD, United Nations Development Programme.

Figure 1: Migration Profiles in the world

Source: Migration Data Portal, available from: <https://migrationdataportal.org/data?i=migprofile&t=2017>

indicators and data sources. The template is contained in Making the Most of the Process,⁵⁸ a guide prepared by IOM that offers concise practical guidance on how to initiate, implement and follow up on a Migration Profile process in a particular country.

Migration Profiles as a process

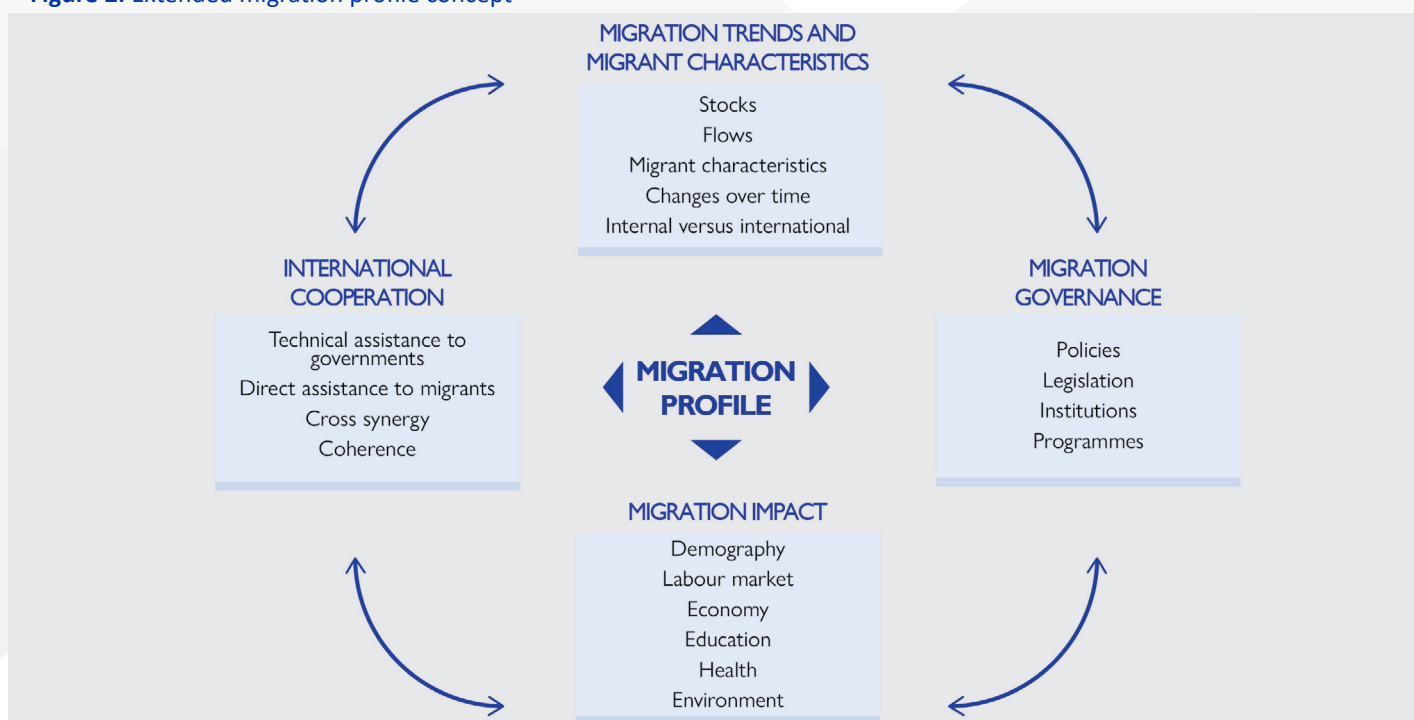
Rather than an end to itself, a Migration Profile is the beginning of a sustained process of interministerial cooperation and capacity-building for systematic data gathering, analysis, reporting and use for policy. By bringing relevant national and international stakeholders around the same table, the Migration Profile exercise can promote important discussions about migration policy, as well as coherence between migration and other sectoral policies, and improve coordination between ministries and other stakeholders. Migration Profiles have a maximum impact when developed gradually over

time, when they are accompanied by capacity-building activities and supported by policy formulation and partnership development. They can be used in tandem with the Migration Governance Indicators, a tool that aims to advance conversations on migration governance by clarifying what “well-governed migration” might look like in the context of United-Nations’ Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) Target 10.7.⁵⁹

Ideally, the Migration Profile is developed with a wide range of stakeholders – governmental agencies, international partners, civil society and the research community – to ensure sustainability, policy relevance and linkages with a country’s overall development framework.

⁵⁸ See <https://publications.iom.int/books/migration-profiles-making-most-process>

⁵⁹ See <https://migrationdataportal.org/snapshots/mgi#0> and IOM “Measuring migration governance”. *Data Bulletin: Informing a Global Compact for Migration*, no. 3 (IOM, Geneva, 2017), available from <https://gmdac.iom.int/data-bulletin-measuring-migration-governance>. FAQ Portal explains the difference between Migration Profiles and the Migration Governance Indicators (MGI) project and the new “Migration Governance Profiles”.

Figure 2: Extended migration profile concept

Migration Profiles in Practice

In 2017–2018, the development of national MPs for all the 15 Member States of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and Mauritania was managed by IOM as part of the “Support to Free Movement of Persons and Migration in West Africa project” (FMM West Africa), funded by the European Union and ECOWAS. The Migration Profiles aim to provide a comprehensive overview of national migration trends and dynamics using all available data in the 16 countries involved.⁶⁰ These processes help promoting a coherent and proactive policy approach to migration by governments in the region.

Although Migration Profiles are primarily intended to describe migration within the national context, these can also take a regional lens. Following the production of the National Migration Profiles in the 15 ECOWAS countries, a **regional migration profile** was developed in 2018 (to be published in 2019) for the area to further capture and analyse mobility trends within the region and their impact on individual countries as well as the region as a whole. The profile also takes stock of institutional and policy frameworks on migration governance and migration data practices across the 15 countries and based on this offers tailored recommendations. In this way, the regional profile helps work towards increased harmonization of migration data in the region and stronger regional migration governance. There have also been other regional-level Migration Profiles developed by IOM, such as for Latin America.⁶¹

How can Migration Profiles support the implementation of the Global Compact for Migration?

The final text of the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration⁶² includes 23 objectives, the first of which is to “collect and utilize accurate and disaggregated data as a basis for evidence-based policies”. The Global Compact for Migration specifically mentions the development and use of country-specific Migration Profiles to that end.

⁶⁰ Benin, Burkina Faso, Cabo Verde, Côte d’Ivoire, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, and Togo.

⁶¹ For an overview of existing Migration Profiles, see GMDAC’s Data Portal at: <https://migrationdataportal.org/data?i=migprofile&t=2017>. The portal includes Migration Profiles by IOM, Migration Policy Institute, Migration Policy Centre, Knowledge Centre on Migration and Demography and, International Migration Institute).

⁶² Negotiated and agreed by 193 Member States in July 2018.

Case study: Ghana

Ghana developed its first Migration Profile in 2009. Some of the main issues identified throughout the process included (a) a lack of accurate and timely statistics on migratory movements to/from the country, including on irregular migration; (b) a lack of information on migrant characteristics; and (c) limited coordination and data-sharing across national institutions.

In response to these findings, several recommendations were developed:

- Promote effective capacity-building to improve migration data collection and analysis;
- Design a web portal for data on the diaspora;
- Create a migration database, including research;
- Develop an integrated and holistic approach to migration management; and
- Regularly update the migration profile.

Some outcomes of this process included the following:

- A **National Migration Policy (NMP)** adopted in 2016, the first in Ghana’s history. It lists key migration policy concerns and strategies to address them as well as opportunities for development;
- **Training** of 48 government officials from 11 institutions in 2015, with the support from IOM Ghana and the IOM Development Fund;
- The creation of an **Interministerial Steering Committee on Migration (IMSCM)**; and
- The establishment of the Ghana Integrated Migration Management Approach (GIMMA) funded by the European Union and jointly implemented by IOM and Ghana Immigration Service (GIS). It established a national migration data management framework that enhances data capacity and sharing for policymaking and assesses organizational capacity of stakeholders in migration data management. It also produced a guide on the use of migration data (**Ghana Handbook Initiative**).

The 2009 Migration Profile is currently being updated to map new trends for 2010–2017.⁶³ The 2017 Ghana Migration Profile, funded under GIMMA aims to:

- Improve monitoring and evaluation of migration with respect to the many ongoing processes and policies, such as the NMP and the SDGs, by providing baseline on the current situation regarding migration to, from and within Ghana and recommendations for progress that can be measured with each update of the 2009 Migration Profile;
- Provide recommendations regarding mainstreaming migration into development policies.

As part of the 2017 Migration profile exercise, a persistent limited coordination and data sharing across national institutions was identified, resulting in the recommendation that under the Ghana Integrated Migration Management Approach (GIMMA) a memorandum of understanding (MoU) is signed between collaborating actors on migration data to ensure communication and cooperation among agencies working with data. Such an MoU was signed in March 2018.

⁶³ It should be noted that not all Migration Profiles in the region, including Ghana’s, were updated through support by IOM’s FMM project.

Migration Profiles are a useful tool to build capacities on migration data collection, analysis and use for policy

- Migration Profiles recommend sources – both statistical and administrative – that may be used to generate data on a number of migration indicators of relevance for a particular country, while highlighting the potential drawbacks and limitations of such sources.
- They also identify data gaps and potential strategies to improve data collection and analysis for policy planning purposes.
- In addition, the Migration Profile process applies a whole-of-society and whole-of-government approach, such as through the establishment of a Migration Profile Technical Working Group, which often serves as a mechanism around which different government agencies and other stakeholders – sometimes for the first time – gather to discuss migration. Ideally, the technical working group outlives the Migration Profiles process and can be used more broadly for migration governance purposes, such as developing a national migration policy.

Migration Profiles contribute to effective migration mainstreaming

The Global Compact for Migration also highlights the need to collect disaggregated data on all migration-relevant aspects in a national context, including those on labour market needs, demand and availability of skills, the economic, environmental and social impacts of migration, health, education, among others.⁶⁴ The consideration of interlinkages between development and migration processes in the definition of a national development strategy or the design of sectoral policies is also known as “migration mainstreaming”.

Migration mainstreaming is a process for integrating migration issues in a balanced manner in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in any development and poverty reduction-related spheres. The goal of this process is to provide support for a more development-friendly migration phenomenon.⁶⁵

Migration Profiles offer a multi-disciplinary analysis of how migration affects a wide range of areas related to development, such as demographics, economy, human capital, the labour market, employment and social cohesion.

Findings and recommendations developed as parts of a Migration Profile exercise are incorporated into a broader policymaking context. This occurs not only in migration governance, but also in the context of countries’ broader developmental agendas, addressing issues, such as poverty reduction, the environment and labour market regulation and employment policies.

In several countries, the information compiled in the Migration Profile report has served to feed poverty reduction strategies and labour market and employment strategies.⁶⁶

Ways forward: Migration Profiles and implementation of the Global Compact for Migration

The Global Compact for Migration recognizes the need for the international community to address migration collectively and places a key focus on using diverse partnerships to make progress the objectives. To make Migration Profiles a more useful tool in supporting the implementation of the Global Compact for Migration, IOM has identified some key actions based on its experience of working with governments worldwide. These include the following:

Facilitating more systematic sharing between countries of Migration Profile exercises

Organizing a series of regional workshops on Migration Profiles to encourage countries to exchange and share experiences.

Establishing partnerships among agencies to promote a common approach to Migration Profiles

Systematically consolidating relevant data in a transparent and user-friendly manner, while encouraging inter-agency collaboration to avoid duplication.

Creating a common global database to help promote the sharing of information

The Global Compact for Migration asks States to support further development of and collaboration between existing global and regional databases and depositories, including the IOM Global Migration Data Portal and the World Bank’s Global Knowledge Partnership on Migration and Development.

⁶⁴ Global Compact for Migration Objective 1.j.

⁶⁵ IOM, 2010:16, cited in GFMD, 2009:3.

⁶⁶ See https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/migrationprofileguide2012_1oct2012.pdf

Disaggregating census data by migratory status

Kristen Jeffers
IPUMS Center for Data Integration

The important role of census data in measuring migrant stocks and flows is widely acknowledged in the international statistical community. Censuses provide an ideal opportunity for the enumeration of international migrants in a society, and most countries already include in their census a question on nativity and/or citizenship status. The value of census data for migration studies extends far beyond published tabulations describing the size of the migrant population. Individual-level census microdata allow researchers and policy-makers to investigate the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of migrants, compare migrants to non-migrants, on a range of metrics, and to disaggregate population-level statistics and indicators by migratory status. For countries without comprehensive administrative data infrastructure, censuses are the only sources of such information.

Data access and international comparability

In contrast to aggregate census tables that provide summary information about a geographic area or population group, census microdata report individual responses to census questionnaires. Census microdata enable the creation of customized tables, support flexible statistical analyses, and can be aggregated across various dimensions. Access to complete, original census microdata files is highly restricted in most countries. Fortunately, many countries make anonymized scientific-use samples of census microdata available to the research community. Scientific-use samples are systematically drawn from the total enumerated population. These large and nationally representative datasets make it possible to study small subpopulations and subnational regions of countries.

Using individual-level census microdata in international comparisons presents its own challenges, however, because the data are collected and managed by individual national statistical offices all with unique census operations and outputs.

To help data users overcome these challenges, Integrated Public Use Microdata Series (IPUMS)-International partners with national statistical offices to compile, integrate and harmonize census microdata from around the world.⁶⁷ IPUMS harmonizes variables across census samples so that the microdata can be pooled into a single database from which data users can download customized datasets for academic and policy research. Currently, 365 censuses from 94 countries are available free of charge through an online data dissemination system, making IPUMS the world's largest collection of publicly available census microdata.

Identifying migrants in census data

While efforts have been made to standardize international census-taking practices, national governments retain the autonomy to include in their censuses the topics they consider essential to their planning and monitoring needs.

⁶⁷ See <https://international.ipums.org/international> (accessed 17 November 2018).

United Nations Statistics Division

Since 1995, the United Nations Statistics Division has collected several population censuses' data sets from national statistical offices around the world. The data are collected via the Demographic Yearbook census questionnaires. The Division recommends including three core variables in population censuses to identify international migrants: (a) country of birth, (b) country of citizenship, and (c) year or period of arrival in the country for foreign-born persons.

As a result, topical coverage and variable availability varies across census samples (see table below). Still, most censuses include questions that can be used to identify lifetime and/or period migrants:⁶⁸

- **Lifetime migrants (stock):** Three quarters of the census samples disseminated by IPUMS-International include information on place of birth. Information on place of birth identifies lifetime migrants – individuals who have ever migrated. Place of birth information can be used to identify migrants according to the approach used by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, whose international migrant stock estimates mostly refer to individuals who are foreign born.
- **Period migrants (flow):** Half of the census samples disseminated by IPUMS-International ask about place of residence at some point before the census. Most commonly, censuses ask about place of usual residence five years before the census. Some

countries ask about usual residence 1 or 10 years before the census. Used with place of birth, previous residence information can identify migrants arriving during specific periods, and can also identify return migrants.

Place of birth and place of previous residence questions typically record internal migration as well as international migration.⁶⁹ Additional variables available in some censuses – such as country of birth, citizenship status, country of citizenship and year of immigration – allow for the study of specific origin groups, arrival cohorts and other migrant subgroups.

Applications: Beyond stocks and flows

Censuses cover a broad range of topics, including fertility, mortality, household structure, access to basic services, housing characteristics, educational attainment, and labour force participation and composition.

Migration-related variables available in census microdata can be used together with other information collected in censuses to investigate several themes related to the objectives of the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development:

- Living conditions and arrangements
- Access to basic services
- Education opportunities and attainment
- Labour market integration and skills matching
- Skilled worker migration and brain drain
- Gender and migration

⁶⁸ Sobek, M., "Data Prospects: IPUMS-International", in International Handbook of Migration and Population Distribution: 157–174, Springer, Dordrecht, 2016.

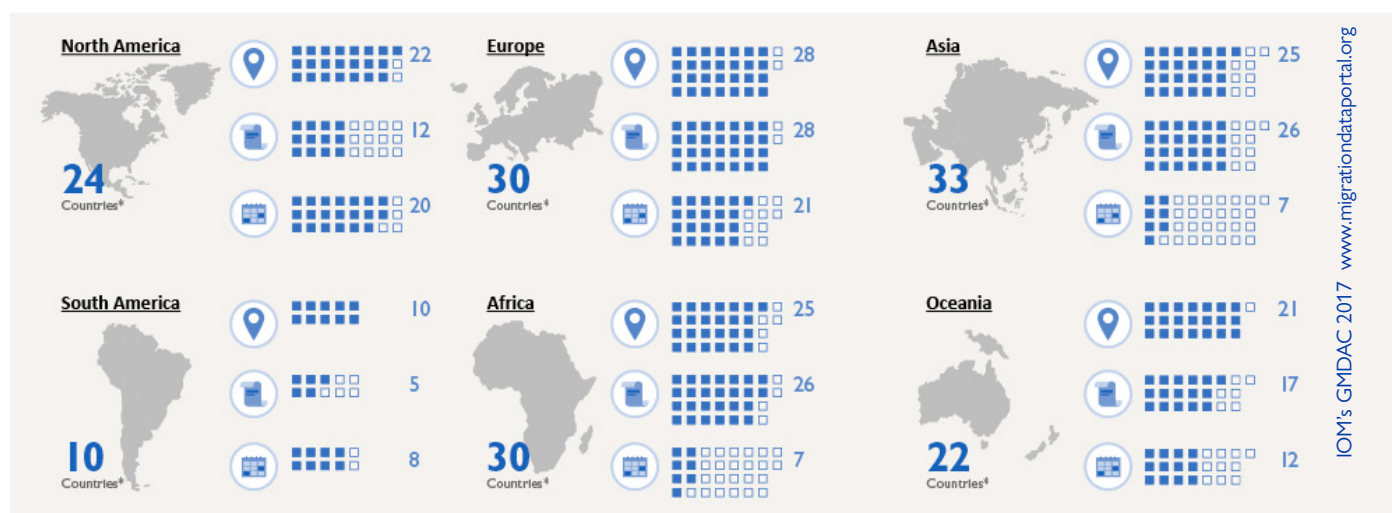
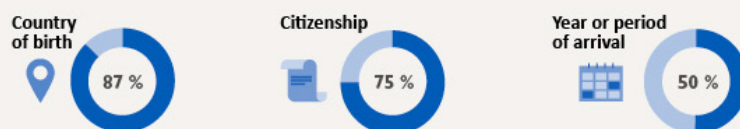
⁶⁹ Ibid.

Figure 1: Census data

Many countries do not include important migration questions into their census questionnaires.

National population censuses are important sources of data on migration in a country. However, many national censuses lack some of the key migration questions such as on the country of birth and citizenship of the household member(s) as well as the year or period of arrival in the country.

Share of countries globally that have included these questions in their last round of censuses:



* This represents the number of countries with a census in the United Nations Statistics database.

Source: Migration Data Portal, based on United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA).

- Migration of children
- Forced migration
- Return migration
- Diaspora studies

Census microdata support comparative analyses of these topics. Migrant groups can be compared with one another or to non-migrant peers in places of destination or origin, or across subnational geographic units. IPUMS variable harmonization and data integration facilitate analyses across time and space (see Figure 2). The large sample sizes in IPUMS typically support multidimensional disaggregation by sex, age and other relevant characteristics, in addition to migratory status. Census samples are highly representative of national populations, including individuals living in group quarters or precarious housing arrangements, thus providing information on groups that may be missing from administrative data sources. Microdata allow for targeted analyses related to migrants in vulnerable situations or specific subgroups, such as domestic workers, highly skilled migrants, female migrants or children of migrants.

Table 1: Availability of international migration variables in IPUMS-International

VARIABLE	NUMBER OF SAMPLES
Nativity status	261
Country of birth	205
Citizenship status	167
Country of citizenship	122
Migration status 1 year ago	51
Migration status 5 years ago	110
Migration status previous residence	88
Country of residence 1 year ago	37
Country of residence 5 years ago	62
Country of previous residence	59
Urban status 1 or 5 years ago	15
Urban status, previous residence	24
Years residing in current locality	102
Year of immigration	54
Reason for migration	27
International migrant from household	22

Census data can also be used to calibrate estimates and statistics derived from “big data” and other non-traditional data sources that are not nationally representative. While targeted household surveys often provide more detail than population censuses, they rarely produce sample sizes large enough to support multidimensional disaggregation. When empirical disaggregation is not available, census data can be used to model indicator estimates for population subgroups and subnational geographic units.⁷⁰

Limitations and the way forward

Census-taking remains a primary function of national statistical offices in most countries. To make good use of this important resource, while upholding the right to privacy and ensuring the protection of personal data, in line with national and supranational legislation, the international statistical community should consider the following actions to address certain limitations that restrict the usefulness of census microdata in a migration context:

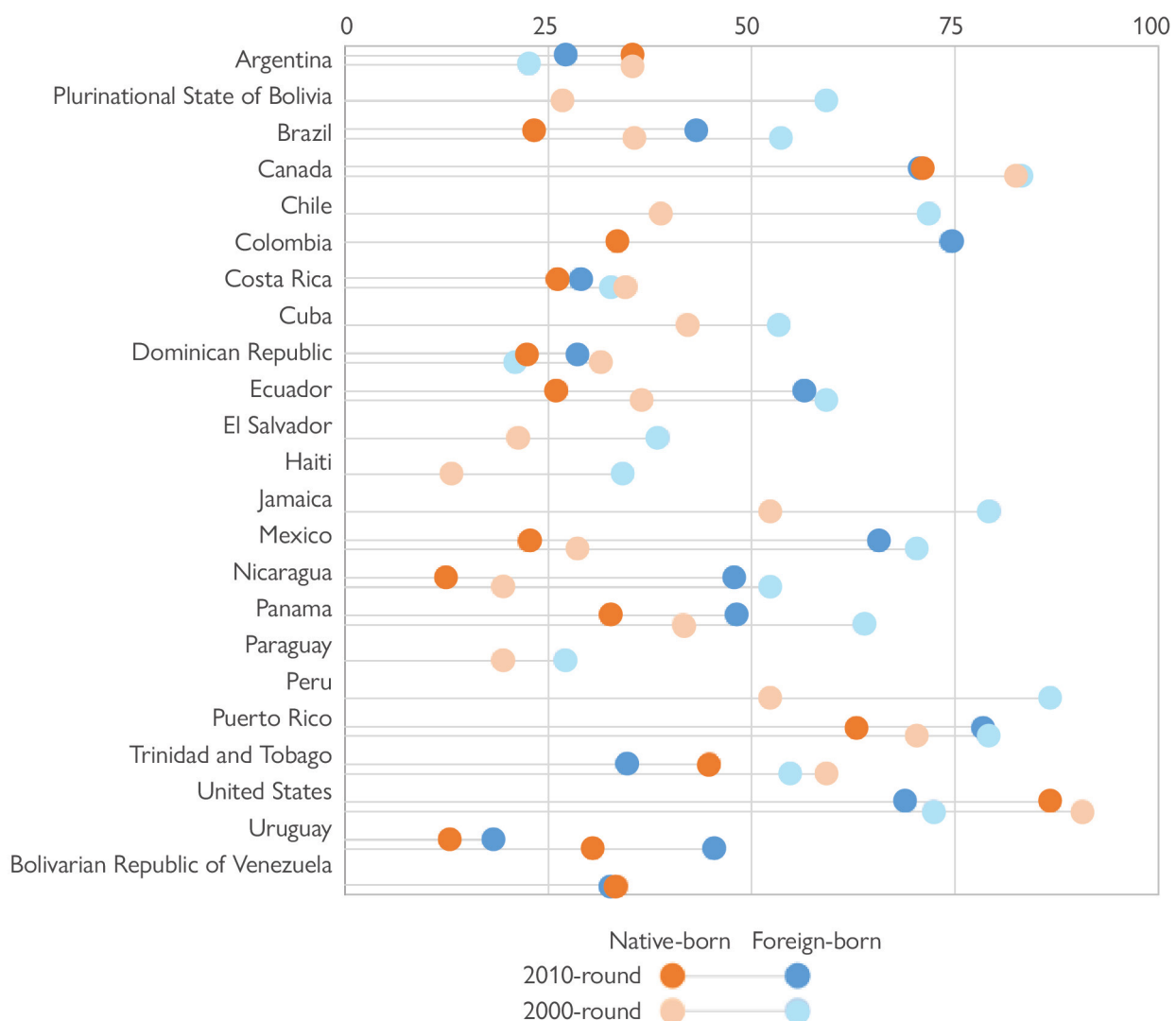
Improve data access: For countries that do not participate in IPUMS-International, accessing anonymized census microdata is challenging. Large sample sizes are required to study migrants. More countries should share high-precision census microdata samples that support disaggregation and comparison across population groups. Countries should disseminate public-use microdata samples that represent 10 per cent of the enumerated population, where possible. For small countries or countries with small migrant populations, restricted access to full-count microdata should be made available for policy and academic researchers. Likewise, census microdata should be made available in a timelier manner. Censuses are conducted every 5 to 10 years, and several years can pass before individual-level microdata files are produced and made publicly available. The international statistical community should support census-taking activities, including timely data processing, particularly in countries where resources are limited.

Include migration-related questions in censuses: In addition to country of birth, censuses should collect information on place of previous residence and nationality. Information on both country of birth and nationality is necessary to distinguish migrants from other foreign-born persons and to understand how access to citizenship relates to migrant outcomes. Year of immigration, reason for migration and parental country of birth are important for many analytical purposes as well. Countries implementing register-based censuses should use methods that promote inclusion of non-citizens and persons with irregular statuses in databases and/or make supplemental data about non-citizens available for research.

⁷⁰ See Zhang, S., “Small Area Estimates: an Illustration for Family Planning using Nepal as a Case Study”, paper presented at World Data Forum, Cape Town, 15–18 January 2017.

Use census data with other data sources: Censuses are a key source of data on international migration, but they do not cover all migration-relevant topics. Furthermore, censuses may not fully reach certain migrant populations. Census data should be complemented with other sources, such as surveys and administrative data, to capture information on specific sub groups of migrants. Using household surveys in combination with census data improves the applicability and accuracy of both sources.

Figure 2: Persons age 25+ completing secondary education or higher (%), by nativity status and census round



Source: Jeffers, K., J. Tjaden and F. Laczko, "A pilot study of measuring SDG indicators by migratory status" (Geneva, International Organization for Migration, 2018).

Part II: Data availability, gaps and challenges on selected topics

RELEVANT GLOBAL COMPACT FOR MIGRATION OBJECTIVES:

Cross-cutting
(see Annex)

Global migration trends

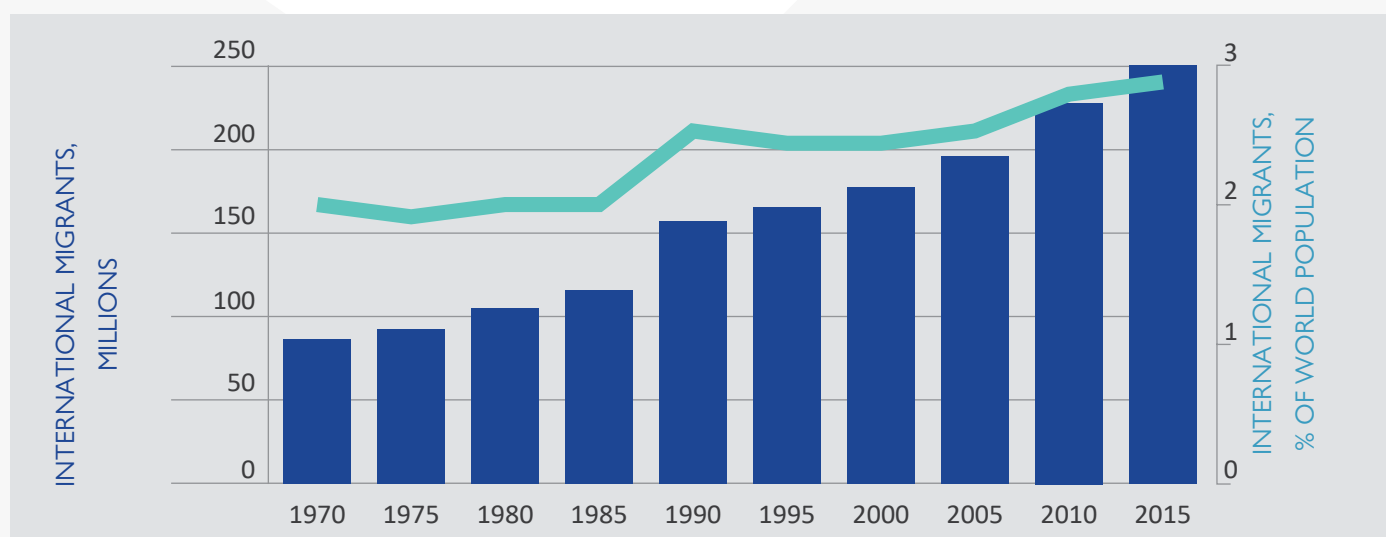
IOM's Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (GMDAC)

This Data Bulletin provides a brief overview of key global migration trends, based on available statistics and estimates from a variety of sources, to support informed decision-making throughout the global compact for migration process. The document summarizes key facts and figures on a range of migration-related topics, covering the period January 2015–December 2017, and citing more recent figures where available. Although this Data Bulletin is by no means exhaustive, it presents a broad picture of the state of migration around the world. For a more detailed report on global migration trends, please see IOM's Global Migration Indicators 2018.⁷¹

International migrant stock⁷²

In 2017, there were an estimated 258 million international migrants – people residing in a country other than their country of birth – compared to about 173 million in 2000, and 102 million in 1980.⁷³ However, the proportion of international migrants in the world population has only slightly increased over the past few decades, equalling 3.4 per cent in 2017, 2.8 per cent in 2000 and 2.3 per cent in 1980.

Figure 1: International migrant stock, 1970–2015



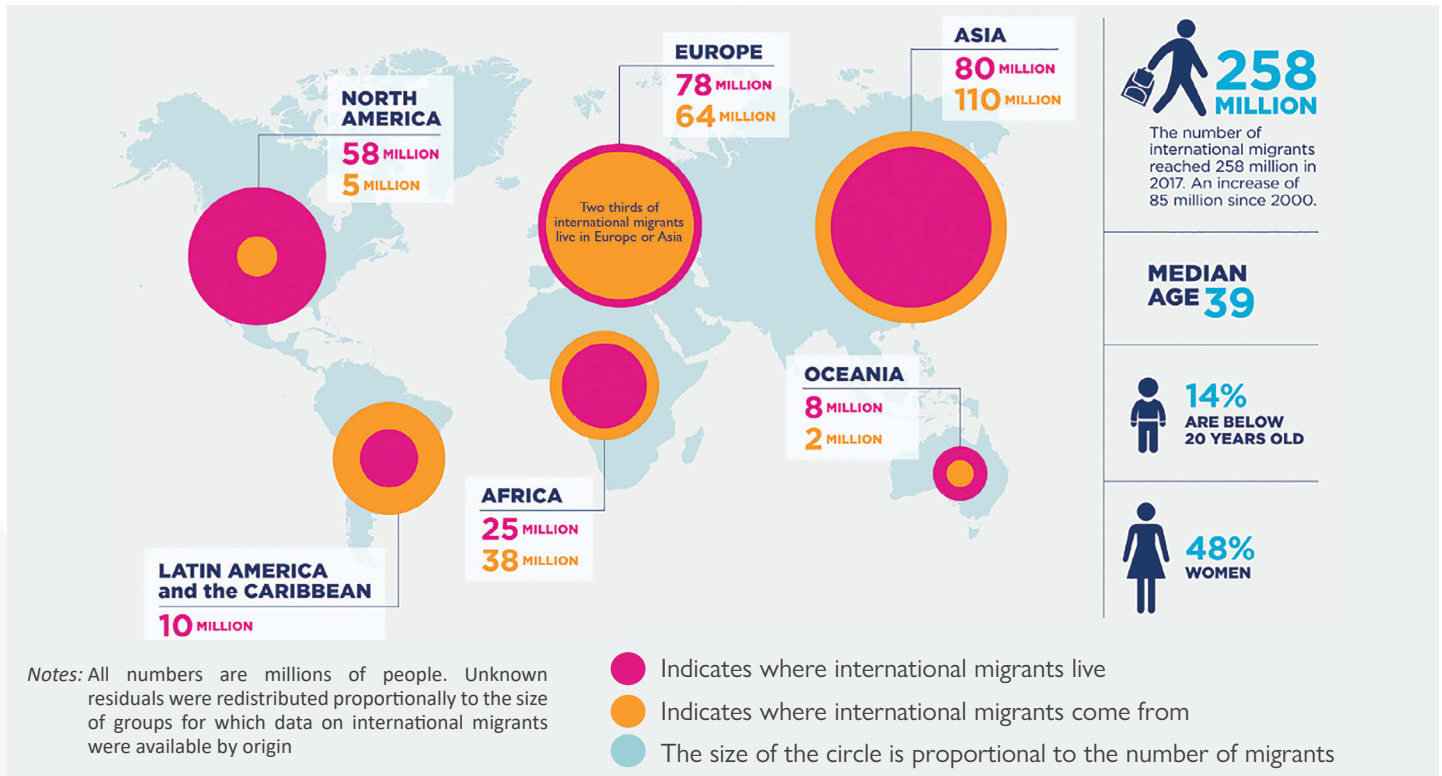
Source: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA), 2009 and 2015.

⁷¹ See https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/global_migration_indicators_2018.pdf

⁷² Unless otherwise stated, this section quotes statistical data from: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA), "International Migration Report 2017". Available from www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/publications/migrationreport/docs/MigrationReport2017_Highlights.pdf

⁷³ The United Nations defines an international migrant as a person who changes his or her country of usual residence for a period of at least three months. However, these estimates refer, for the most part, to people who reside in countries other than their country of birth. (UN DESA, *Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration (Revision 1)* (UN DESA, New York, 1998). Available from https://unstats.un.org/unsd/publication/seriesm/seriesm_58rev1e.pdf)

Figure 2: Number of International Migrants in 2017, by region



Source: https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/global_migration_indicators_2018.pdf

Women accounted for 48 per cent of the global international migrant stock in 2017, although the share varied widely across major regions (e.g. Asia, 45%, Europe, 52.3% and Northern America, 47.3%).

With median ages of 43 and 34, respectively, migrants in the global North were, on average, older than migrants in the global South,⁷⁴ respectively. 74 per cent of international migrants are of working age. The median age an international migrant is 39, and 14 per cent of all international migrants are below the age of 20.

Forced migration⁷⁵

By the end of 2017, 68.5 million individuals were forcibly displaced worldwide due to persecution, conflict, generalized violence and human rights violations. This is almost double the number of forcibly displaced people recorded in 1997. The increase was particularly marked between 2012 and 2015, mostly due to the Syrian conflict.⁷⁶

Refugees

By the end of 2017, the world was hosting 25.4 million refugees – 19.9 under UNHCR's mandate.⁷⁷ During 2017 alone, some 2.7 million people became newly displaced to another country, double the amount in 2016.

Turkey and Pakistan are the main refugee-hosting countries globally in absolute terms, with 3.5 million and 1.4 million refugees, respectively, registered in these countries by the end of 2017. They are followed by: Uganda (1.4 million), Lebanon (998,900), the Islamic Republic of Iran (979,400) and Germany (970,400).

Asylum seekers

The number of pending asylum claims reached 3.1 million globally at the end of 2017. According to UNHCR, the United States were the largest single recipient in 2017, with 331,700 new requests, nearly double the 172,700 claims from 2015.

Conflict-induced internal displacement

Syria saw the highest numbers of conflict- and violence-induced new internal displacement in 2017, with 2.9 million due to a number of ongoing military operations in the country, followed by the Democratic Republic of the Congo (1.9 million), South Sudan (595,800), Somalia (569,300), Iraq (558,300) and Philippines (543,000).

Colombia was the country with the largest population of internally displaced persons (IDPs) worldwide by the end of 2017, with 7.7 million people displaced within the country. It was followed by the Syrian Arab Republic, which counted about 6.2 million IDPs at the end of 2017.

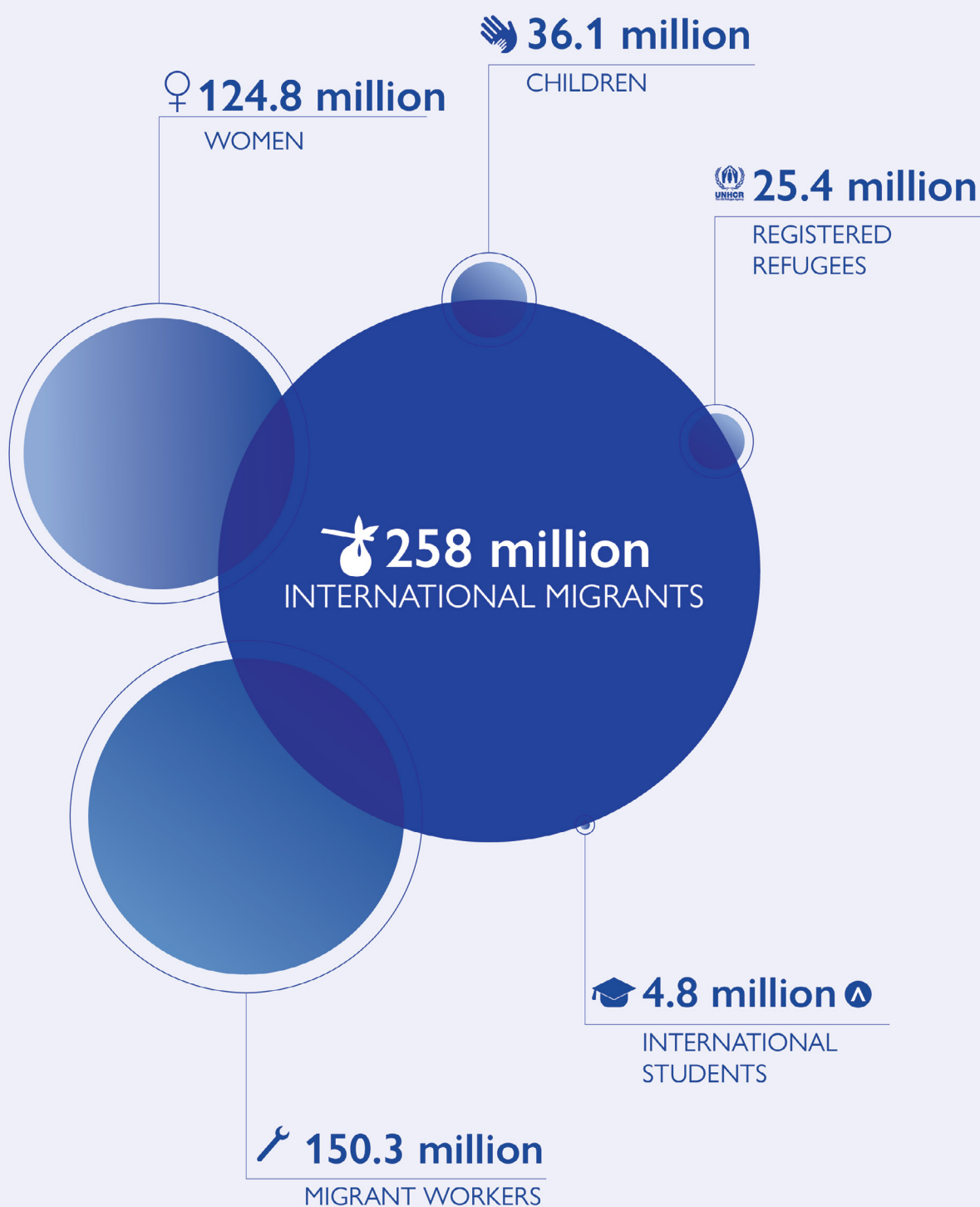
⁷⁴ The term "global South" broadly refers to low- and middle-income countries (World Bank classification), while "global North" refers to high-income countries.

⁷⁵ Unless otherwise stated, this section quotes statistical data from: UNHCR, Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2017. Available from www.unhcr.org/5b27be547.pdf

⁷⁶ UNHCR, 2017 and IDMC, 2017.

⁷⁷ The total figure includes about 5.4 million refugees under the mandate of the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East.

Figure 3: Overview of the international migrant population



Source: UN DESA, UNHCR, ILO, UNESCO.

See more at https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/global_migration_indicators_2018.pdf

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Disaster-induced internal displacement

More than 18.8 million people were newly internally displaced by natural disasters across 135 countries throughout 2017. Between 2008 and 2017, an average of 24.6 million people per year were displaced by disasters. East Asia and the Pacific, South Asia and the Americas were the most affected regions: 4.5 million individuals were newly displaced within China, 2.5 million in the Philippines, 1.7 million in Cuba and 1.7 million in United States.⁷⁸

Resettlement

In 2017, refugees were submitted for resettlement to 35 third countries (a figure on par with 2016) from 83 countries or territories of first asylum, according to UNHCR figures. A total of 102,800 refugees were admitted for resettlement, a 46 per cent reduction from 2016 (189,300). A total of 137,839 refugees and other individuals in vulnerable situations were resettled to 42 countries under IOM auspices in 2017.

Irregular migration

The most recent estimate suggests that there were at least 50 million irregular migrants worldwide in 2010, a large number of whom rely on smuggling services.⁷⁹ Relative to the overall increase in international migration since then, the number of irregular migrants is likely to have increased to 58 million in 2017.

An estimated 11.3 million undocumented migrants lived in the United States in 2016. About 66 per cent of this irregular migrant population had lived in the United States for over ten years.

An IOM report details the extent of irregular migration in other world regions: In Asia, for instance, estimates suggested that there were some 4 million undocumented migrants in Pakistan in 2013.⁸⁰

Forced and voluntary return

A total of 72,176 received return and reintegration assistance in from IOM in 2017, a 27 per cent decrease compared to 2016. Yet, these figures represent a considerable increase in comparison with the average number of migrants assisted by IOM every year between 2005 and 2014 (34,000 per year on average). Recent trends moreover indicate that South–South returns, including from transit countries, are also increasing.⁸¹

Migrant deaths

In 2017, at least 6,163 migrants lost their lives or went missing during migration – the fourth consecutive year that more than 5,000 fatalities were recorded. Of these fatalities, an estimated 3,139 occurred in the Mediterranean. More than 90 per cent of these occurred

along the central Mediterranean route.⁸² Since 2000, more than 60,000 deaths and disappearances during migration have been recorded worldwide.⁸³

Modern slavery

Estimates from the International Labour Organization and the Walk Free Foundation, in collaboration with IOM, suggested that 40 million people were victims of modern slavery globally in 2016.⁸⁴

Remittances

The sum of financial remittances sent by international migrants to their families back in their origin countries amounted to USD 573.6 billion in 2016, of which 73.5 per cent (USD 421.9 billion) was sent to low- and middle-income economies. This represents a decrease from the total amount estimated in 2015 (USD 581.9 billion), and the second consecutive year of contraction from the (close to) USD 600 billion estimated in 2014.⁸⁵

⁷⁸ IDMC, 2017.

⁷⁹ This figure should be taken with caution, given the difficulty of estimating the number of irregular migrants in one country, let alone around the world.

⁸⁰ IOM, Migrant Smuggling Data and Research: A global review of the emerging evidence base (IOM, Geneva, 2016). Available from https://publications.iom.int/system/files/smuggling_report.pdf

⁸¹ See www.iom.int/sites/default/files/our_work/ODG/GCM/IOM-Thematic-Paper-Assisted-Voluntary-Return-and-Reintegration.pdf

⁸² IOM, Missing Migrants Project main page. Available from <https://missingmigrants.iom.int>

⁸³ See https://publications.iom.int/system/files/fataljourneys_vol2.pdf

⁸⁴ ILO, *Global Estimates of Modern Slavery: forced labour and forced marriage* (ILO, Geneva, 2017). Available from www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/documents/publication/wcms_575479.pdf

⁸⁵ Estimate from World Bank, Migration and Remittances, webpage (KNOMAD, Washington, D.C., 2017). See www.knomad.org/sites/default/files/2017-10/Migration%20and%20Development%20Brief%2028.pdf

RELEVANT GLOBAL COMPACT FOR MIGRATION OBJECTIVES:
Objective 6, 14, 16 and 18
(see Annex)

Recruitment costs

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There are many reports of migrant workers paying high fees and taking on debt at high interest rates to obtain contracts to work in other countries, prompting global efforts to develop a database of worker-paid migration costs and policies to reduce them. Recruitment or migration costs are worker-paid fees and expenses incurred to obtain jobs in other countries. The International Labour Organization (ILO) conventions and the laws of many European Union (EU) countries require employers to pay all of the costs associated with recruiting foreign workers. As recruitment costs are often high and lack transparency, the international community is striving to reduce them by introducing increased regulation and monitoring practices, educating migrants about their rights, and increasing cooperation between origin and destination countries. Reducing recruitment costs has the potential to benefit employers, migrants and migrants' families alike, while also encouraging more regular migration.

Employers seeking workers and workers seeking jobs incur costs

Recruitment costs can be divided into three main types (World Bank):

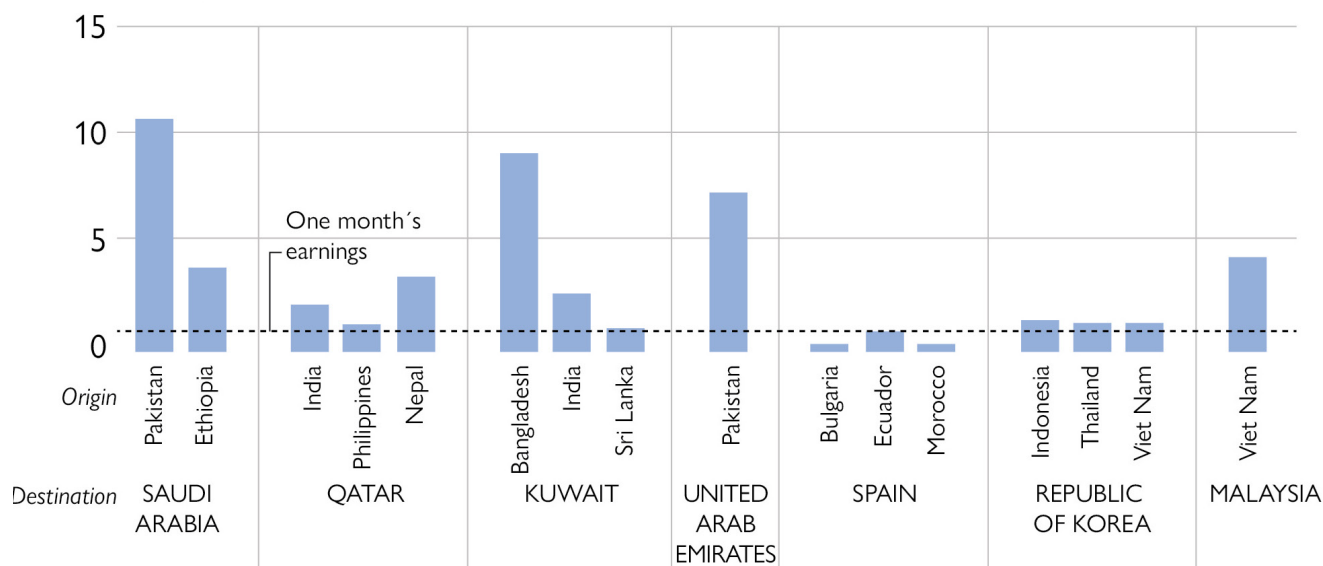
- Costs to comply with laws and regulations of origin and destination countries (such as obtaining work permits or medical check-ups);
- Fees paid to recruitment agents; and
- Internal and international transportation costs.

An additional important concept to better understand recruitment costs is the recruitment cost indicator (RCI), which measures how much workers pay in relation to their monthly foreign earnings. For example, a worker could pay USD 2,000 to get a job paying USD 400 a month abroad, a ratio of five. Ideally, RCIs would be zero, meaning that employers pay all worker recruitment costs.

The major **employment-search costs** incurred by employers are the cost of leaving the job vacant, the cost of advertising and screening applicants, and the cost of training newly hired workers.

The major **job-search costs** for workers include lost earnings while seeking a job, spending money on training or other assistance to increase the chances of being hired, and paying a recruiter to get a contract for a particular job.

Matching workers with jobs has costs that must be paid by someone, employers, workers, or governments. Workers who invest in education and training and obtain licenses and certificates generally find that employers seek them out and often pay their costs to move to the job. Low-skilled workers, on the other hand, may find that there are 5 or 10 workers seeking each available job, allowing recruiters and other intermediaries to profit from workers' willingness to pay.

Figure 1: Recruitment costs (months of earnings at destination)

Note: All surveyed Sri Lankan workers in Kuwait were females engaged in domestic help services.

Source: World Bank, 2017.

Recruitment costs are high, regressive and non-transparent

Many migrant workers pay several months foreign earnings to get jobs, taking on debt at high interest rates to obtain contracts to work in other countries. High worker-paid costs are regressive in the sense that lower-wage workers pay more for foreign jobs than higher-wage workers. Furthermore, many workers do not know upfront how much they will have to pay for foreign jobs, so they can be induced to pay more than they expected once they are abroad.

High-skilled versus low-skilled workers

Employers usually pay recruitment costs for highly skilled workers, since the demand for mobile professionals, such as accountants and nurses, typically exceeds the supply of workers willing to move. But the supply of workers earning less than USD 500 a month often exceeds the number of jobs, allowing employers, recruiters and others to charge workers some of the wage gap between poorer and richer countries that motivates workers to seek foreign jobs. Data from the European context shows that workers earning USD 2,000 or more a month are much more likely to have employers pay their recruitment costs than workers earning less than USD 1,000 a month.

In addition, according to the analysis of the Migration Cost Surveys⁸⁶ (2016–2017), carried out by the Global Knowledge Partnership on Migration Development (KNOMAD) and the ILO, low-skill migrant workers may incur high recruitment costs and receive lower wages than promised. Thus, the migrant workers who are already in vulnerable situations are likely to also have higher costs.

Recruitment costs vary considerably across different migration corridors

Migrant workers often have recruitment costs that exceed one month's foreign earnings.⁸⁷ For example, migrant workers from various countries of origin migrating to Spain and the Republic of Korea pay recruitment costs amounting to about one month's earnings (or about 4 per cent of earnings for a typical two-year contract). However, migrants from Pakistan working in low-skilled jobs in Saudi Arabia pay recruitment costs of approximately 11 months' earnings (or about USD 4,400 at 2014 rates).⁸⁸

Case study: Italy and Spain

The KNOMAD and the ILO surveyed migrant workers to determine what they paid for foreign jobs. Data was collected from workers employed in Italy and Spain, all of whom were young and low-skilled, typically between 20 and 35 years old. Most had not completed secondary school.

- A 2016 survey in Italy of non-EU workers who arrived by boat and in other irregular ways from Egypt, Ghana, Nigeria and Senegal found median Italian earnings of USD 850 a month.⁸⁹ There was much more variance in worker-paid migration costs: Egyptians paid a median of USD 3,200 or almost four months median monthly earnings; Ghanaians paid a median of USD 1,800, the equivalent of over two months earnings; Nigerians paid USD 4,500, or over five months earnings; and Senegalese, USD 1,400, almost two months earnings. Many of the migrants reached Italy by boat from Libya, and transportation was an average 60 per cent of migrant-paid costs.

⁸⁶ KNOMAD (2014). Migration Costs of Low-skilled labor migrants: Key Findings from Pilot Surveys in Republic of Korea, Kuwait and Spain.

⁸⁷ Martin, Philip (2016). What do Migrant Workers Pay for Foreign Jobs? Available from <https://gmdac.iom.int/sites/default/files/papers/WhatdoMigrantWorkersPayforForeignJobsPMartin.pdf>

⁸⁹ Ibid.

⁸⁶ The World Bank (2016–2017). KNOMAD-ILO Migration Costs Surveys 2016. Available from <https://microdata.worldbank.org/index.php/catalog/2944>

- A 2014 survey of migrant workers from Bulgaria, Ecuador, Morocco, Poland and Romania employed in Spanish agriculture found average earnings of USD 1,000 a month.⁹⁰ Median migration costs were USD 500 or half a month's wages.

The surveys in Italy and Spain have three major findings:

1. Migrating legally and to a pre-arranged job reduces migration costs.

2. Network recruitment is very important to employers and workers, so that once a core group of reliable workers is in place, the employer asks current workers to refer friends and relatives who are qualified to do the job. Newly hired workers often train the new hires they bring into the workplace, reducing costs and burdens on employers.

3. Migration is economically worthwhile for low-skilled migrants despite the migration costs they incur. Migrants in Spain repaid their migration costs with less than a month's earnings. Since many were not employed at home, working six months in Spain generated at least USD 5,000 that the worker would not have had at home. Migrants in Italy expected to stay indefinitely, and despite traveling irregularly via Libya, most could repay their migration costs with less than five months of earnings in Italy.

Comparison of recruitment costs in the European Union and Gulf Cooperation Council countries

In GCC countries, migrant workers are over half of private sector workers. Low-skilled migrants interviewed as they returned from GCC countries in 2015 reported earnings of USD 265–500 a month, and recruitment costs that ranged from USD 400 for Filipinos to USD 4,000 for Pakistanis. Guest workers in GCC countries stayed an average of two years, and Filipinos and Indians repaid their migration costs much faster than Pakistanis.

1. Earnings are far less variable than costs. In Europe, the earnings of low-skilled workers were USD 850–1,000 a month, while recruitment costs ranged from a few hundred dollars to USD 4,500, a 20-to-1 gap between the highest- and lowest-cost jobs. In the GCC countries, the range in earnings was 2 to 1, while the range in recruitment costs was 10 to 1.

2. The major variable affecting worker-paid migration costs is corridor. Policies such as worker education and recruiter transparency can reduce migration costs in all corridors, but corridor-specific policies are likely required to reduce costs in many corridors.

3. Migration is economically worthwhile for most migrants despite paying one or more months of foreign earnings to obtain jobs. Migrants normally repay migration costs and begin to save after one to nine months abroad, which gives them more money than if they had remained jobless or in a low-earning job at home. Migration that delivers a payoff after a few months' work provides an enormous incentive for young people to move.

⁹⁰ Ibid.

4. Legal workers who move within and to European Union (EU) countries pay much less than irregular workers, some of whom apply for asylum after arriving in the EU and work legally. Surveys suggest migrants to the EU pay from one to four months earnings for their jobs, which is less than what most migrant workers pay for jobs in Gulf oil exporting countries.

Data on recruitment costs

Data on recruitment costs have been collected in recent years. The available data on recruitment costs show low-skilled workers almost always pay something for foreign jobs. Such data can help policymakers to design evidence-based policies to reduce worker-paid costs.

As recruitment fees are often imposed illegally, measuring such costs in surveys has limitations:

- **Hidden costs are not counted.** Most available data on recruitment costs focus on the costs paid to recruitment agents to obtain a job abroad and on the travel-related costs to reach the recruitment office at home and the job abroad (visa, documents and transportation). However, there are also i) the opportunity costs of wages not earned while training and preparing to go abroad and ii) the social costs associated with separation from family and friends, and restrictions on rights while employed abroad. If these two dimensions were included, recruitment costs would be even higher.⁹¹
- **Data are provided by workers, not employers.** Most data on recruitment costs are obtained by interviewing migrant workers. Collecting data on recruitment costs by interviewing recruiters and employers could contribute to improved recruitment costs estimates and to a better understanding of how recruitment dynamics work.⁹²

The focus going forward should be to:

- Build a global database on recruitment costs tracking what workers are paying and trends in worker-paid costs over time, to enable informed policymaking.
- Develop a standard questionnaire to collect similar data on recruitment costs across different migration corridors.

⁹¹ IOM (2017). Migration Policy Practice (Vol. VII, Number 1, January–March 2017). Available from <https://publications.iom.int/fr/books/migration-policy-practice-vol-vii-number-1-january-march-2017>

⁹² Martin, Philip (2016). What do Migrant Workers Pay for Foreign Jobs?

Migrant and displaced children

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Millions of children have migrated, within or across borders, following migrating parents and relatives, in pursuit of better opportunities, or to reunite with family or loved ones. Millions of other children have been displaced due to conflict, generalized violence and natural disasters. In 2017, children made up about half the number of refugees and asylum seekers, estimated at around 12 million globally.⁹³ In total, some 30 million children were living in displacement within and outside their countries of origin by the end of 2017, while an additional 6 million children had been newly displaced by natural disasters in that year alone.⁹⁴ All the figures cited here are based on estimates, as observed numbers are often not available.

Children constitute a particularly vulnerable group, which States have committed to protect under the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child.⁹⁵ Plentiful research shows that children on the move face greater risks of falling victim to trafficking, exploitation, violence or abuse.⁹⁶ The lack of data is therefore particularly concerning precisely because data are essential in providing evidence to inform decision-making and programming to protect children.

For many children, their families, and the communities they leave and join, migration brings significant benefits. However, it also entails serious risks, where gaps in laws, policies and services leave many children and adolescents bereft of the protection and services they need – whether in origin, transit or destination countries. Often, children on the move, especially those travelling in an undocumented fashion, find themselves in limbo, with only limited or no access to child protection, education or other essential services.⁹⁷

To devise an adequate protection response and to better identify child migrants' vulnerabilities, needs, and how migration and asylum policies may affect them, we should ideally know children's basic demographic characteristics, such as their age and sex, where they come from, where they are going, why they are moving, and whether they are with their families or alone on their journeys. This would make it possible to determine how many children are in need of protection and support, and help improve support systems in States, including in contexts of humanitarian emergency.

Data limitations and new possibilities

The notorious and persistent gaps in the availability and quality of global migration statistics have made it difficult to adequately measure migration and its impact on migrant lives as well as origin and host societies. In particular, the frequent lack of disaggregation of migration data by basic characteristics, such as age and sex, prevents an appropriate understanding of the specific protection and development challenges that children on the move may face.

In 2017, only 56 per cent of the data the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) collected on refugees under its mandate included information on age. The same is the case for only about three quarters of the migrant stock data worldwide, while data on internally displaced persons are even weaker, with just

⁹³ United Nations Children's Fund, "Data Gaps and Mixed Migration between West and North Africa and Europe" (New York, 2018). Available from <https://data.unicef.org/resources/data-gaps-and-mixed-migration> (accessed 23 November 2018).

⁹⁴ Ibid.

⁹⁵ United Nations Children's Fund, Convention on the Rights of the Child. Available from www.unicef.org/crc (accessed 23 November 2018).

⁹⁶ International Organization for Migration and United Nations Children's Fund, *Harrowing Journeys: Children and youth on the move across the Mediterranean Sea, at risk of trafficking and exploitation* (New York, 2017). Available from www.unicef.org/publications/index_100621.html (accessed 23 November 2018).

⁹⁷ Byrne, K. and C. Bech Hansen, "Protected on Paper? An Analysis of Nordic Country Responses to Asylum-Seeking Children" (Florence, Italy: UNICEF Office of Research Innocenti, 2018). Available from www.unicef-irc.org/publications/pdf/NORDIC%2028%20LOWRES.pdf (accessed 23 November 2018).

20 per cent of the countries and territories reporting on internally displaced persons including age in their data.⁹⁸

While there is a general paucity of data on children on the move, even less data exist on their vulnerabilities. This is particularly worrying given the results found by various research projects; from the few quantitative published accounts, the picture clearly emerges that children (0–17 years of age) are more vulnerable than adults, as a 2017 UNICEF–IOM report on migrant and displaced children traveling toward Europe on the Central Mediterranean route found. The report also found that factors such as education, travel route and country of origin influence the degree of risk that children face on their journeys.⁹⁹ Despite such evidence, most information on children's vulnerabilities are based on qualitative accounts and there is a clear lack of quantitative data to better support the development of an evidence-based policy agenda.

Call to action for children on the move

To address this issue of poor data quality, UNICEF, UNHCR, IOM, Eurostat and OECD recently released a joint call to action.¹⁰⁰ Building on existing and proposed recommendations regarding migration and asylum data by expert groups and agencies,¹⁰¹ the call to action asks States and key stakeholders to invest in better data to help provide the protection that children need to live up to their full potential and contribute to the societies they live in.

Specifically, it calls on Member States to address the data and evidence gaps pertaining to children affected by migration or displacement. Member States are to support the actions and commitments put forth in the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration and the Global Compact on Refugees, and specifically include child-specific considerations in the implementation of the compacts.

⁹⁸ United Nations Children's Fund, International Organization for Migration, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Eurostat and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, "A Call to Action: Protecting Children on the Move Starts with Better Data" (New York, 2018), p. 3.

⁹⁹ International Organization for Migration and United Nations Children's Fund, *Harrowing Journeys: Children and youth on the move across the Mediterranean Sea, at risk of trafficking and exploitation* (New York, 2017), p. 8. Available from www.unicef.org/publications/index_100621.html (accessed 23 November 2018).

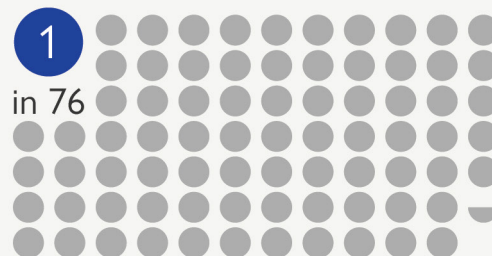
¹⁰⁰ United Nations Children's Fund, International Organization for Migration, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Eurostat and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, "A Call to Action: Protecting Children on the Move Starts with Better Data" (New York, 2018).

¹⁰¹ Global Migration Group, *Handbook for Improving the Production and Use of Migration Data for Development* (New York, 2017); Expert Group on Refugee and Internally Displaced Persons Statistics, *International Recommendations on Refugee Statistics and Technical Report on Statistics of Internally Displaced Persons*, forthcoming, under global consultation; United Nations Expert Group Meeting, "Improving Migration Data in the Context of the 2030 Agenda: Recommendations" (New York, 2017); United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, International Organization for Migration and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, *Improving Data for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration* (New York, 2017); International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, *Strengthening Migration Data, Research and Training, in the Context of the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration*, 2017; United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, *Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses, Revision 3* (New York, 2016); International Organization for Migration, "International Migration Statistics", Global Thematic Paper.

Figure 1: Children living in migration or displacement

WORLDWIDE MILLIONS OF CHILDREN LIVE IN MIGRATION OR DISPLACEMENT

As of 2017, around



were living in displacement
– an estimated 30 million

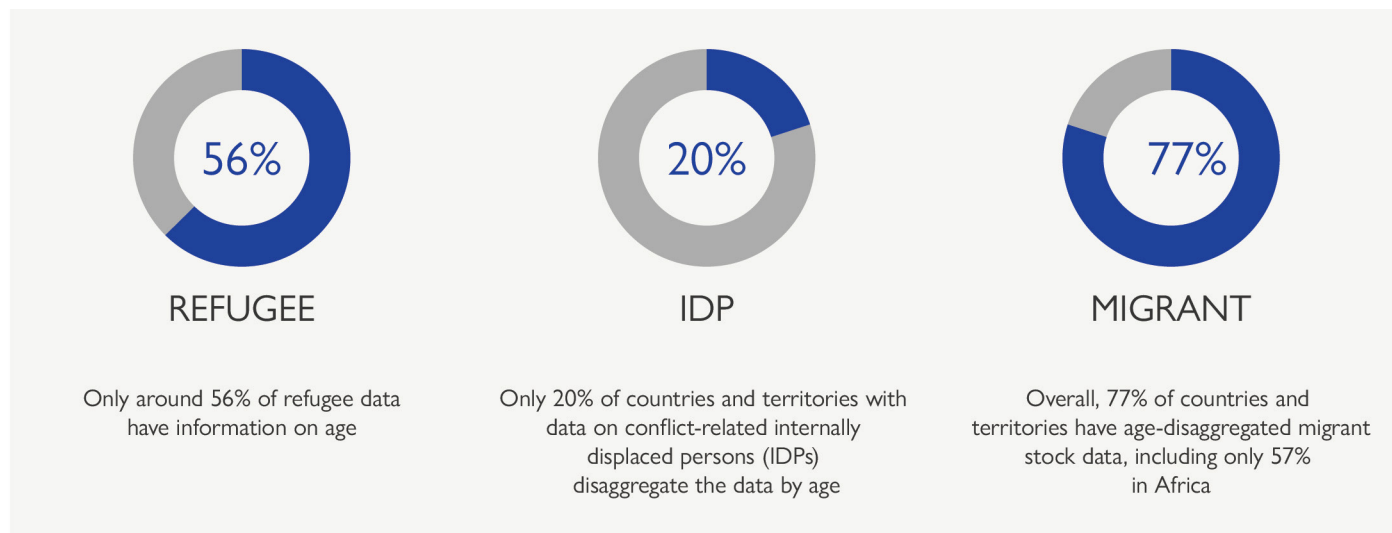
The number does not include 6 million children, who were internally displaced by disasters in 2017 alone.

As of 2017, around

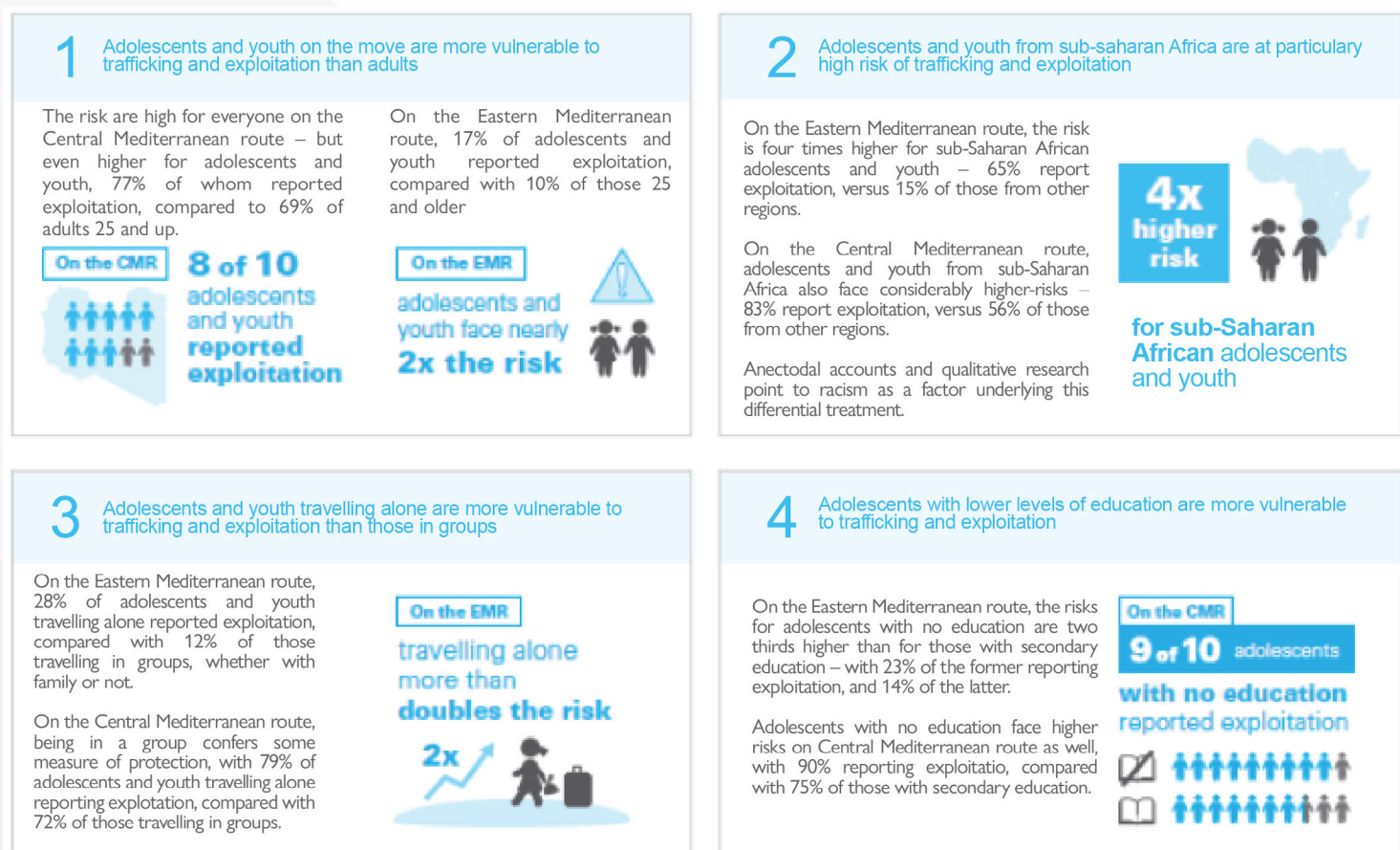


were living outside their country
of birth

They had moved for a range of reasons, including joining family members, pursuing educational opportunities – or fleeing conflict, violence or persecution

Figure 2: Age-disaggregated data on migrants and displaced persons are incomplete

Source: United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), IOM, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), Eurostat and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), "A Call to Action: Protecting Children on the Move Starts with Better Data" (New York, 2018).

Figure 3: Key findings of the UNICEF–IOM report Harrowing Journeys, based on the large-scale flow monitoring survey conducted by IOM through its Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM)

Source: IOM and UNICEF, *Harrowing Journeys: Children and youth on the move across the Mediterranean Sea, at risk of trafficking and exploitation* (New York, 2017), p. 8.

10 key facts about migrant and displaced children

1. As of 2017, there were an estimated 30 million international child migrants globally. This equals 1 in 8 of the world's 258 million international migrants.¹⁰²
2. As of 2017, about 30 million were living in forced displacement – 1 in 76 of the world's children. This includes some 12 million child refugees and child asylum seekers, and 17 million children living in internal displacement due to conflict and violence.¹⁰³
3. Around 9 out of 10 refugees remain in their region of origin as of 2017.¹⁰⁴
4. In 2014, 28 per cent of all detected trafficking victims were children (20 % girls and 8 % boys).¹⁰⁵
5. At least 300,000 unaccompanied and separated children who moved across borders were registered in 80 countries in 2015 and 2016.¹⁰⁶
6. Since 2014, over 1,300 migrants identified as children have lost their lives. The true number is likely much higher since the age is only known of around 25 per cent of dead or missing (and presumable dead) migrants. Worldwide, there have been more than 29,000 migrant deaths since 2014.¹⁰⁷
7. Around the world, almost 1 in 10 children live in countries and areas affected by armed conflicts, and more than 400 million live in extreme poverty.¹⁰⁸
8. Over 100 countries are known to detain children in immigration detention.¹⁰⁹
9. Refugee children are five times more likely to be out of school than other children. Only 50 per cent of refugee children are enrolled in primary school, and less than 25 per cent of refugee adolescents are enrolled in secondary school.¹¹⁰
10. An adolescent boy from sub-Saharan Africa with secondary education and travelling in a group along the Central Mediterranean route, faces a 73 per cent risk of being exploited, while the risk for a boy from another region drops to 38 per cent.

At a minimum, the child-specific considerations should:

- Disaggregate data by age and sex;
- Cover key issues relating to children affected by migration and displacement;
- Make better use of existing data, and share it;
- Coordinate data efforts within countries and across borders;
- Collect data in compliance with child protection standards and use them for the purpose of protection only.

Given the acute protection concerns and the meagre data availability on children on the move worldwide, it is paramount that States redouble their efforts and invest in data and research on migrant and displaced children. This will allow us to better live up to our commitment to ensure children their rights as they are enshrined in the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

¹⁰² United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. "International Migrant Stock: The 2017 Revision." New York, 2017. Available from www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/data/estimates2/estimates17.shtml; UNICEF analysis based on: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. "World Population Prospects The 2017 Revision." New York, 2017. Available from <https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/Download/Standard/Interpolated>

¹⁰³ UNICEF analysis based on: UNHCR. "UNHCR Global Trends 2017," 2018. Available from www.unhcr.org/statistics/unhcrstats/5b27be547/unhcr-global-trends-2017.html, Internal Displacement Monitoring Center, Global Report on Internal Displacement, Geneva, 2018, and United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, and Population Division. "World Population Prospects The 2017 Revision." New York, 2017. Available from <https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/Download/Standard/Interpolated>

¹⁰⁴ UNICEF analysis based on UNHCR. "UNHCR Global Trends 2017," 2018. Available from www.unhcr.org/statistics/unhcrstats/5b27be547/unhcr-global-trends-2017.html

¹⁰⁵ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, Global Report on Trafficking in Persons, Vienna, December 2016, p. 6.

¹⁰⁶ United Nations Children's Fund, A Child is a Child, New York, May 2017, p. 6

¹⁰⁷ IOM 2018, available from <https://missingmigrants.iom.int>, accessed 28 November 2018. Number of children on Central Mediterranean route is estimated by UNICEF based on demography of migrants at arrival for specific months.

¹⁰⁸ United Nations Children's Fund, Danger every step of the way – A harrowing journey to Europe for refugee and migrant children. Child Alert, June 2016, p. 5.

¹⁰⁹ United Nations Children's Fund, A Child is a Child, New York, May 2017, p. 30; citing European Commission, The Protection of Children in Migration, Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council, (2017), Brussels, April 2017, p. 15.

¹¹⁰ United Nations Children's Fund, Education Uprooted, New York, September 2017, p. 5; citing Nicolai, Susan, et al., Education Cannot Wait: Proposing a fund for education in emergencies, Overseas Development Institute, London, May 2016, p. 10.

Gender dimensions of migration

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The Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration includes gender as one of its 10 “cross-cutting and interdependent guiding principles”, acknowledging the importance of “gender-responsive” approaches, gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls. The Global Compact for Migration goes on to cite gender within 15 of its objectives, including promoting gender-responsive remittance transfers and access to basic services, as well as expressly acknowledging gender-specific risks and issues, such as sexual and gender-based violence, and women migrant domestic workers.

Based on the limited data available, we know that gender affects migratory decisions, migratory experiences such as work opportunities and exposure to risks, and effects of migration, for example remittance flows. Further data are essential for fully understanding the role of gender in shaping international migration and the specific needs of migrants of all genders, and in particular migrant women and girls. Without such data the design and implementation of effective policies to implement the Global Compact for Migration risks being undermined.¹¹¹

What do we know?

Global trends

In general, women migrate as much as men, with women migrants making up between 48 and 50 per cent of the international migrant stock between 1990 and 2017.¹¹² There is a geographical dimension to this pattern: Since 1990, more women than men migrated to higher-income countries, while a decreasing proportion of women migrated to lower-income regions. In addition, more women than men migrate to Oceania, Europe, and Northern America and Latin America and the Caribbean, while fewer women than men migrated to Africa and Asia (see the graph that follows).¹¹³

Estimates show that the rate of female migration was growing faster than male migration in many important receiving countries between 2010 and 2017.¹¹⁴ More women are migrating on their own or as heads of households, in pursuit of better economic opportunities.¹¹⁵ Higher education levels have been found to be positively associated with increased migration for women.¹¹⁶ In many instances, women are more likely to choose to migrate to countries that have less discriminatory social institutions than their country of origin, which also tend to have better economic opportunities.¹¹⁷

¹¹¹ This data bulletin draws from the Overseas Development Institute’s (ODI) briefing paper series on migration and the 2030 Agenda: T. O’Neil, A. Fleury and M. Foresti, “Women on the move: Migration, gender equality and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development” (ODI, London, 2016) “Women on the move: Migration, gender equality and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development”. (ODI, London, 2016).

¹¹² United Nations Department of Economic and Social (UN DESA), *Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2017 Revision*. United Nations database, POP/DB/MIG/Stock/Rev.2017 (UN DESA, New York, 2017).

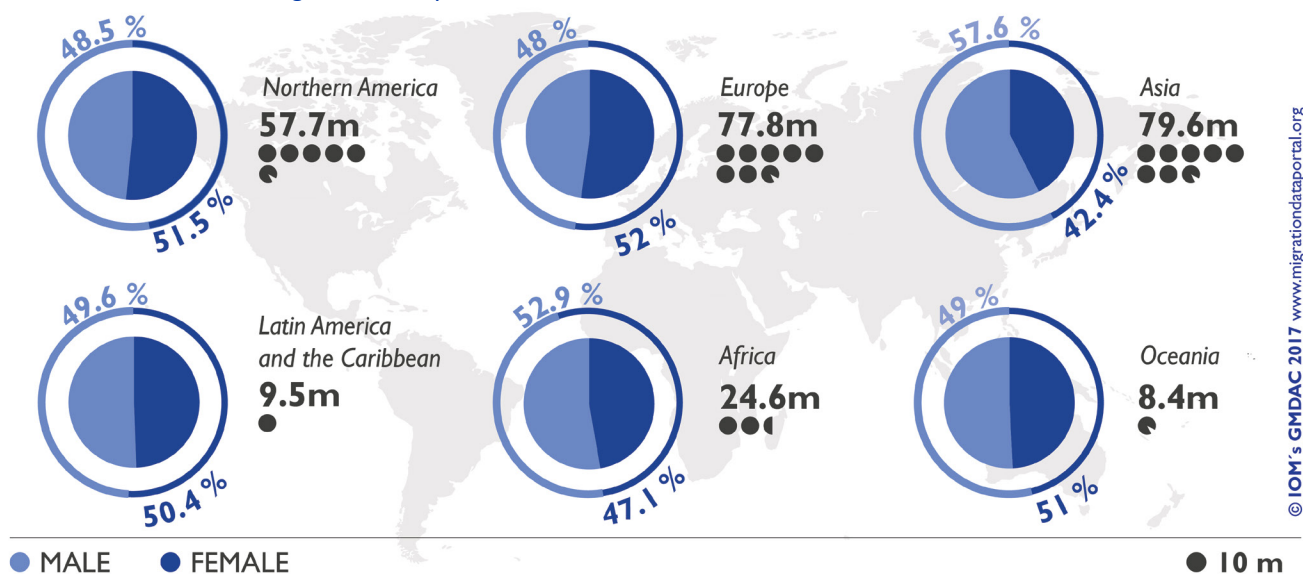
¹¹³ Ibid. There are similar regional differences for refugee women: women represented 50 per cent of the world’s refugee population in 2017, yet this varied regionally with 51 per cent in the Middle East and North Africa, compared to 39 per cent of refugees in Europe. See United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), *Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2017* (UNHCR, Geneva, 2018).

¹¹⁴ Authors’ calculation based on UN DESA (2017) data. Between 2010 and 2017, there was a higher female growth rate in 18 out of the 25 key destinations: Angola, Argentina, Australia, Ethiopia, France, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, the Russian Federation, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, South Africa, South Sudan, Thailand, Turkey, Uganda, United Kingdom and United States of America.

¹¹⁵ IOM, *World Migration 2008: Managing Labour Mobility in the Evolving Global Economy* (IOM, Geneva, 2008). Available from <https://publications.iom.int/books/world-migration-report-2008-managing-labour-mobility-evolving-global-economy>

¹¹⁶ S.M. Kanaiaupuni, “Reframing the migration question: An analysis of men, women and gender in Mexico”, *Social Forces*, 78(4):1311–1347 (2000).

¹¹⁷ G. Ferrant, E. Loiseau and K. Nowacka, “The role of discriminatory social institutions in female South–South migration”, Issue paper (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Development Centre, Paris, 2014).

Figure 1: Total International Migrant Stock by sex, 2017

Source: UN DESA, 2017.

The majority of women migrants are workers. Indeed, labour force participation rates of migrants were higher for migrant women (67%) than their native-born equivalents (around 50%) in 2013, and in all world regions except sub-Saharan Africa.¹¹⁸ This contrasts to migrant men who were only slightly more likely (78%) to participate in the labour market than non-migrant men (77%) in 2013.¹¹⁹

Migration is a gendered phenomenon

Migration decisions

Gender norms in countries of origin affect migratory decision-making. Women usually have less control over the decision to migrate than men – a decision more likely to be taken by their family, perhaps based upon gendered beliefs, including that women are more likely to send home regular remittances.¹²⁰ Societal expectations of gender roles might limit the extent to which women migrate, prescribing that women should remain at home to look after the children while men ought to be the ones migrating for work.¹²¹ However, women and girls may also make the decision to migrate to escape traditional gender norms and practices, for example, forced marriage or female genital mutilation.¹²²

In response to risks of exploitation faced by women migrant workers, several governments have legislated gender-based migration bans and restrictions on female emigration. However, as well as infringing women's human rights, banning women's mobility often increases risks for women as they instead turn to irregular migration channels.¹²³ This is despite the fact that women generally

tend to be more risk-averse than men, preferring to migrate through regular channels, and when social networks are in place.¹²⁴

Migration experiences

Gender shapes migration experiences, including the work opportunities available to the migrant. Labour markets remain highly segmented, with men concentrated in more “masculine” sectors, and women concentrated in more “feminine” sectors; in particular, low-skilled women tend to be concentrated in sectors such as domestic and care work, and more highly skilled women in health and social care work.¹²⁵ Countries with a higher demand for domestic workers attract more female migrants. In Indonesia, for example, women made up 83 per cent of migrant workers in 2009, 90 per cent of whom were domestic workers.¹²⁶ Of the estimated 11.5 million migrant domestic workers in 2013, 73 per cent were women.¹²⁷ Domestic work is less attractive to national workers and less socially valued than other types of work, reflected in lower pay and fewer labour regulations – 40 per cent of countries do not offer protection for domestic workers in national labour laws.¹²⁸ Enforcing what rights there may be available is difficult, as domestic workers often work isolated in private homes, where risk of exploitative working conditions, abuse and maltreatment by employers is high.¹²⁹

While data on irregular migration are very limited, estimates suggest that women migrants often engage in informal and irregular employment; 65 per cent of women workers are engaged in vulnerable employment in the Association of South-East Asian (ASEAN) countries.¹³⁰ Also,

¹¹⁸ International Labour Organization (ILO), ILO global estimates on migrant workers: *Results and methodology – Special focus on migrant domestic workers* (ILO, Geneva, 2015).

¹¹⁹ Ibid.

¹²⁰ B.S.A. Yeoh, E. Graham and P.J. Boyle, “Migrations and family relations in the Asia Pacific region”, *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, 11(1):1–11 (2002); Kanaiaupuni, 2000.

¹²¹ J. Hagen-Zanker and R. Mallett, *Journeys to Europe: The role of policy in migrant decision-making* (ODI, London, 2016).

¹²² M. Temin, M. Montgomery, S. Engebretsen and K. Barker, *Girls on the Move: Adolescent Girls and Migration in the Developing World. A Girls Count report on adolescent girls* (Population Council, Washington, D.C., 2013).

¹²³ R. Napier-Moore, *Protected or put in harm's way? Bans and restrictions on women's labour migration in ASEAN countries* (ILO and UN Women, Bangkok, 2017).

¹²⁴ A. Fleury, *Understanding Women and Migration: A Literature Review*, Global Knowledge Partnership on Migration and Development (KNOMAD) Working Paper 8 (KNOMAD, World Bank, Washington, D.C., 2016)).

¹²⁵ T. O'Neil, A. Fleury and M. Foresti, 2016.

¹²⁶ UN Women, *Managing Labour migration in ASEAN: Concerns for women migrant workers*. (UN Women Asia Pacific Regional Office, Bangkok, 2013).

¹²⁷ ILO, 2015.

¹²⁸ UN Women, *Domestic work and migration in Asia*, Factsheet (2012). Available from www.unwomen.org/-/media/field%20office%20eseasia/docs/publications/2012/domestic%20work%20and%20migration%20in%20asia.pdf?la=en

¹²⁹ A. Fleury, 2016.

¹³⁰ ILO and Asian Development Bank (ADB), ‘ASEAN Community 2015: Managing integration for better jobs and shared prosperity’. (ILO and ADB, Bangkok, 2014).

although it is very difficult to quantify human trafficking, women are more vulnerable to trafficking and exploitation, with estimates suggesting that 80 per cent of trafficking victims globally are female.¹³¹

Many skilled women migrate, with women migrants in the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries more likely to be highly educated than their male equivalents and native-born population in 2010.¹³²

Economic and non-economic gains of migrating can be empowering for women. Becoming a main breadwinner for the family can change family power dynamics and lead to women having greater authority in family and personal decisions.¹³³ Migrant women may acquire increased self-esteem, agency and social standing, as well as influence their home communities to adopt more equitable norms and gender roles, and transferring skills earned while working abroad.¹³⁴

However, as family members in home countries often rely on remittances of families abroad, this can increase vulnerability to exploitation of migrant women as they feel pressure to maintain employment under any condition.¹³⁵

Moreover, migrant women often accept low-skilled positions they are overqualified for due to professional credentials not being recognized or other barriers such as racial discrimination, language, lack of social networks or knowledge about their rights.¹³⁶ Meanwhile, female relatives of migrant women are often relied upon to take over the unpaid care work of their left-behind families, referred to as the “global care chain”.¹³⁷ This can have negative impacts on the abilities of female relatives of migrant women to take up economic or education opportunities.

Remittances

Remittances have important benefits not only for households, but also for national economies, often surpassing the amount of foreign aid and investment in developing countries.

Women as remittance senders. Gender-segregated labour markets and wage gaps mean women migrants often earn significantly less than men, yet some evidence suggests they remit similar amounts to men, representing a larger proportion and sacrifice of their earnings.¹³⁸ Women face

gender-specific barriers in transferring remittances, as women tend to remit smaller amounts of money more frequently, and for longer periods of time than male migrants, they are likely to spend more in transfer fees. This is particularly the case for women working in the informal sector who tend to rely on informal transfer methods, which can be costly and without assurance the money will arrive.¹³⁹

Women as remittance recipients. A large majority of remittance recipients are women. Evidence shows that when women have control of the money, as caretakers of the household, they tend to more heavily invest in the well-being of family members, such as children’s education, as opposed to personal expenses or private assets.¹⁴⁰

Data challenges and priorities

Data gaps

There is a general lack of accurate and comparable sex-disaggregated data on international migrants (see Table 1).¹⁴¹ UN DESA global estimates of the international migrant stock are available disaggregated by sex and age and computed by compiling data from 214 countries. Yet countries and organizations use different data collection methods, with some omitting groups of migrants (e.g. irregular migrants) altogether, or defining migration categories differently, for example conflating some categories.¹⁴² This is reflected in household surveys, which often report different estimates of migrant women than census registers.¹⁴³ Such inconsistencies and incoherencies in recording practices are problematic for the reliability of migration estimates, and make it difficult to accurately understand migration flows from a gender perspective or the impact of migration on migrant women.

ILO produces sex disaggregated global estimates of labour migration, yet such estimates are based on data collected from national censuses and surveys, only 35 per cent of which include a breakdown by migratory status, sex and sector of occupation.¹⁴⁴

Little is known about less visible migrant women, including domestic workers, irregular migrant women, victims of trafficking and refugees. In particular, numbers of migrant domestic workers are thought to be underestimated, given the difficulties of reaching this group for data collection.¹⁴⁵

The little data available on irregular migrant women are limited to some case studies.¹⁴⁶

¹³¹ F. Farah, “An expert group meeting on female migrants: What is so special about it?” In: United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and IOM, *Female migrants: Bridging the Gaps Throughout the Life Cycle*, Selected papers of the UNFPA-IOM Expert Group Meeting. (UNFPA and IOM, New York and Geneva, 2006), pp. 23–26.

¹³² Working age migrants, 51.4 per cent women; 30.2 per cent, migrant women with tertiary education; men, 29.4 per cent, native-born population, 23.6 per cent (OECD, Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries 2010/11 (2013). Available from <https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=MIG>

¹³³ J. Hennebry, W. Grass and J. McLaughlin, *Women Migrant Workers’ Journey through the Margins: Labour, Migration and Trafficking* (UN Women, New York, 2016).

¹³⁴ T. O’Neil, A. Fleury and M. Foresti, 2016.

¹³⁵ J. Hennebry, W. Grass and J. McLaughlin, 2016.

¹³⁶ S. Wojczewski, S. Pentz, C. Blacklock, K. Hoffmann, W. Peersman, O. Nkomazana and R. Kutalek, “African female physicians and nurses in the global care chain: Qualitative explorations from five destination countries”, *PLoS ONE*, 10(6) (2015).

¹³⁷ Ibid.

¹³⁸ A. Petrozziello, *Gender on the Move: Working on the Migration-Development Nexus from a Gender Perspective* (UN Women, Santo Domingo, 2013); Western Union, “Western Union pays tribute to global women work-force as world economic change agents and calls for greater

recognition and integration”, Press release, 8 March 2016, available from <https://ir.westernunion.com/news/archived-press-releases/press-release-details/2016/Western-Union-Pays-Tribute-to-Global-Women-Work-Force-as-World-Economic-Change-Agents-and-Calls-for-Greater-Recognition-and-Integration/default.aspx>

¹³⁹ J. Hennebry, J. Holliday and M. Moniruzzaman, At What Cost? Women, Migrant Workers, Remittances and Development, Research paper (UN Women, New York, 2017).

¹⁴⁰ A. Petrozziello, 2013.

¹⁴¹ J. Hennebry, K. Williams and M. Walton-Roberts, *Women Working Worldwide: A Situational Analysis of Women Migrant Workers*, Research paper (UN Women, New York, 2016).

¹⁴² Ibid.

¹⁴³ Ibid.

¹⁴⁴ ILO, 2015.

¹⁴⁵ Ibid.

¹⁴⁶ J. Hennebry, K. Williams and M. Walton-Roberts, 2016.

Table 1: Data sources for women migrants, adapted from Hennebry et al. (2016)

Data Subject	Primary data sources	Data coverage	Description of coverage
Total migration	UN DESA	TOTAL	Global coverage
Labour migration	OECD ILO	PARTIAL	OECD – Complete for 92 countries in 2000 ILO – Partially available for 140 countries
Migrant domestic workers	ILO	PARTIAL	73 countries in 2013
Refugees	UNHCR	TOTAL	Global coverage in 2017
Irregular migration	UNDP IOM	LITTLE	Not sex-disaggregated in 2009 Case studies only
Trafficking and smuggling	UNODC	LITTLE	Not sex-disaggregated Only reported victims of trafficking in 134 countries in 2012–2015
Remittances	World Bank	LITTLE	Not sex-disaggregated

Similarly, large gaps in knowledge of human trafficking and migrant smuggling, and inconsistencies in data collection, mean that numbers of trafficking victims are often underestimated, particularly as trafficking prevails in informal sectors.¹⁴⁷ While the US Department of State collects data on identified victims of human trafficking around the world, these are not disaggregated by sex. The UNODC disaggregates by sex, yet as their estimates include only *reported* victims of trafficking, thus are likely to omit many hidden victims.¹⁴⁸

Data on the numbers of refugee women are also limited, with disaggregated estimates only available for 60 per cent of the countries.¹⁴⁹

There is similarly a lack of data on remittances sent (and received) by women, as World Bank estimates are not disaggregated by sex.¹⁵⁰ Furthermore, World Bank estimates do not capture remittances sent through informal channels, and as women often remit through such channels, the knowledge gap in women's remittances may be particularly significant.

Migration is known as a gendered phenomenon, yet these large data gaps mean that the gender-specific needs, behaviours and capacities of migrant women are unknown. For example, women's remittances are vital to the development of many national economies and households, yet there is a lack of understanding of women's remittance behaviours in receiving and sending patterns and the ways in which funds are used.¹⁵¹ Lack of

data has real-world consequences for migrant women and policymakers who need data and evidence to unlock the potential benefits of women's migration:

- **Limited ability to design and execute “gender-responsive” policies.** Lack of an accurate and comparable database on migration impacts the quality of evidence-based migration governance, limiting policymakers' ability to design effective “gender-responsive” policies, which address the lived realities of migrants of all genders.
- **Lack of accountability.** Without disaggregated data on female migrants, governments, service providers and other institutions cannot be held accountable for implementing programmes that address the gender-sensitive needs of migrants.

Data priorities going forward

The Global Compact for Migration sets out several actions with the potential to overcome data challenges that impede effective evidence-based, gender-responsive policies for migrant women. Based on these and other recommendations,¹⁵² priorities for improving gender-sensitive data should include the following:

- **Improve national data collection.** Censuses, labour force and other household surveys, and administrative sources should always disaggregate data by sex and other migration-related variables. To this end, States should invest in capacities of national agencies to collect sex-disaggregated data on international migrants, for example by working with the Global Partnership for Sustainable Data Development. Data should be analysed accordingly to inform policies and programming, so that no one, including women and girls, are left behind, and can benefit from migration.
- **Standardize international migration definitions and data collection methods to improve international comparability of data across and within countries.** A global strategy for improving migration data at local, national, regional and international levels with all relevant stakeholders could harmonize data collection, analysis and dissemination to that end, as well as offer training and technical assistance. Such platforms for international cooperation could include the government-led Global Forum for Migration and Development, and the 2018 International Forum on Migration Statistics, jointly organized by IOM, OECD and UN DESA.¹⁵³
- **Use creative and purposive sampling methodologies.** To improve understanding of migrant women that are typically invisible in data records, hard-to-reach migrant women groups (especially domestic workers and undocumented migrant women) should be targeted for data collection, using creative and purposive sampling methodologies.

¹⁴⁷ J. Hennebry, W. Grass and J. McLaughlin, 2016.

¹⁴⁸ UNODC, *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons 2016* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.16.IV.6) (UNODC, Vienna, (2016).

¹⁴⁹ UNHCR, 2018.

¹⁵⁰ J. Hennebry, J. Holliday and M. Moniruzzaman, 2017.

¹⁵¹ Ibid.

¹⁵² T. O'Neil, A. Fleury and M. Foresti, 2016; J. Hennebry, J. Holliday and M. Moniruzzaman, 2017; *Global Migration Group, Handbook for Improving the Production and Use of Migration Data for Development* (KNOMAD, World Bank, Washington, D.C., 2017).

¹⁵³ OECD, *What were the key messages of the International Forum on Migration Statistics?*, Migration Data Brief no. 3 (May 2018) Available from www.oecd.org/migration/forum-migration-statistics/migration-data-brief-3-EN.pdf

Migrant deaths and disappearances

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Since 2000, more than 60,000 deaths and disappearances during migration have been recorded worldwide.¹⁵⁴ These numbers not only highlight the issue of migrant fatalities and the consequences for families searching for lost loved ones but can also be used to illustrate the risks associated with irregular migration and to encourage the design of policies and programmes to ensure safe migration. However, data on migrant fatalities are highly scattered and incomplete, and figures on missing migrants are therefore best understood as a minimum estimate of the true number of people who die or go missing along migratory routes worldwide. The importance of the problem of deaths during migration has been acknowledged in the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration, which includes as one of its objectives to “[s]ave lives and establish coordinated efforts on missing migrants.”

IOM's Missing Migrants Project¹⁵⁵ has documented the deaths and disappearances of at least 28,579 migrants worldwide since 2014. Nearly 60 per cent of these fatalities were recorded in the **Mediterranean**, where several thousand lives have been lost each year between 2014 and 2018. The vast majority of deaths are recorded in the Central Mediterranean route, where a longer overseas journey compared to the Eastern and Western routes and dangerous smuggling patterns have led to at least 14,744 deaths since 2014. Because deaths in the Central Mediterranean often occur during large shipwrecks, more than 10,000 migrant lives have been lost at sea over the last five years, meaning that countless families do not know the fate of their loved ones.

Several other regions of the world have seen thousands of deaths during migration since 2014. Nearly 3,500 deaths have been recorded across **North Africa**, based on a relatively small number of surveys, though anecdotal reports indicate that many more fatalities occur than are recorded, particularly in the Sahara Desert, due to the harsh conditions of the journey. At least 2,000 people have died or have gone missing during migration across **sub-Saharan Africa and the Horn of Africa** since 2014, though, again, the scarcity of data means that this is likely a gross undercount of the true number of fatalities. In addition, more than 2,100 deaths and disappearances have been recorded in **Southeast Asia** in the last five years, many of which are linked to the exodus of the Rohingya from Myanmar from 2014 to 2015 and again in late 2017. In the **Americas**, where data are quite poor, more than 1,750 deaths have been recorded on the United States–Mexico border since 2014, and more than 1,000 have been documented in the rest of Latin America and the Caribbean over the same period. Here, too, anecdotal evidence and quantitative studies of missing persons indicate that far more deaths occur during migration than are currently reported.

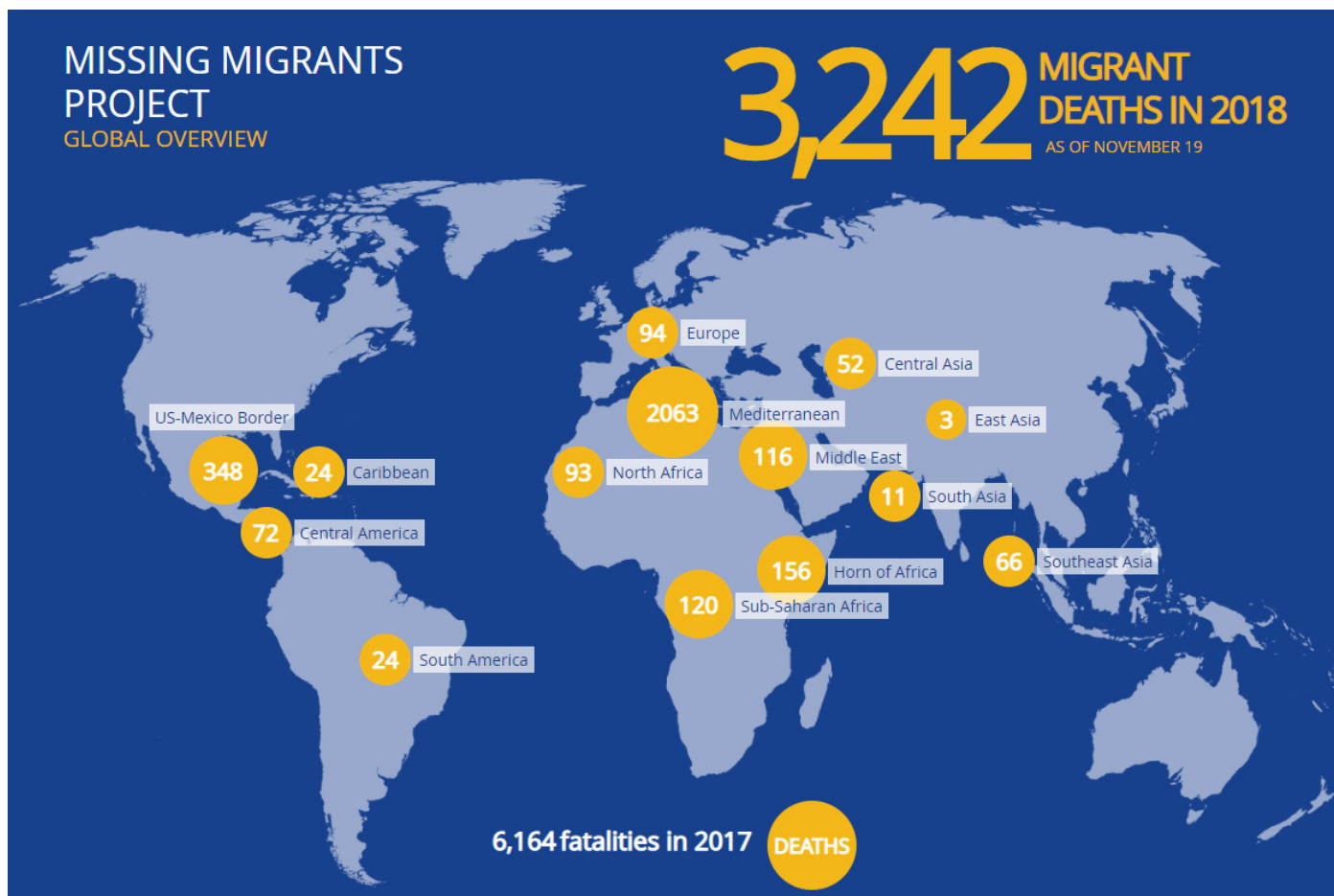
Overview of available data sources

Data on fatalities during migration are scattered and few data sources exist. IOM's Missing Migrants Project currently provides the only open-access global database on migrant deaths and disappearances, but it relies on reports from a wide variety of sources (discussed in the Data gaps and challenges section). Several other regional, national and local databases exist that are accessible to the public. The UNITED List of Deaths¹⁵⁶ has documented more than 34,000 deaths along migration routes to Europe since 1993. In the Mediterranean, the Deaths at the Borders

¹⁵⁴ See, for instance: T. Brian and F. Laczo (eds.), *Fatal Journeys, Volume 2: Identification and Tracing of Dead and Missing Migrants* (International Organization for Migration, Geneva,). Available from https://publications.iom.int/system/files/fataljourneys_vol2.pdf

¹⁵⁵ Project website: <https://missingmigrants.iom.int>

¹⁵⁶ UNITED for Intercultural Action. See <https://unitedagainstrefugeedeaths.eu/about-the-campaign/about-the-united-list-of-deaths>

Figure 1: Missing Migrant Project: Global Overview

Note: The above map is adapted from the Missing Migrants Project website: <https://missingmigrants.iom.int/region/mediterranean/pdf>

Database¹⁵⁷ has documented bodies recovered on Europe's southern shores between 1990 and 2013. On the United States–Mexico border, the Arizona OpenGIS Initiative for Deceased Migrants¹⁵⁸ publishes data on migrant bodies processed by the Pima County Office of the Medical Examiner, which covers most of the state of Arizona. The Australian Border Deaths Database¹⁵⁹ covers deaths “associated with Australia’s borders” from 2000 onwards. For much of the rest of the world, either no data on migrant deaths and disappearances exist, or existing data is not openly available. This lack of data means it is difficult to identify trends of unsafe migration over time outside of the regions identified.

Data gaps and challenges

Data on migrant deaths and disappearances are challenging to collect for various reasons, including the following:

- **Having different definitions of “migrant deaths” mean that comparison and cross-checking across datasets are difficult.** What constitutes a “migrant death” is highly contested and definitions may vary significantly. IOM’s Missing Migrants Project includes data on confirmed fatalities which occur

during migration, as well as disappearances of people migrating via sea or river crossings. However, it excludes deaths in refugee camps and migrant detention centres, as well as those which occur after migrants reach their destinations. Other datasets on migrant deaths use more-or-less restrictive definitions: The Deaths at the Border Database includes only bodies recovered from trans-Mediterranean migration, for example, whereas the Australia Border Deaths Database includes deaths and disappearances during migration, as well as, inter alia, those which occur in offshore detention centres, during border enforcement operations and after return to countries of origin and transit.

- **As the vast majority of deaths and disappearances during migration occur when migrants travel irregularly, migrants who die en route often do so while attempting to escape detection.** Another challenge inherent to collecting data on migrant fatalities is linked to the nature of irregular migration. Irregular migration routes often traverse remote regions which pose both risks to migrants themselves and challenges to those seeking to uncover the fate of the missing. In the Sonoran Desert, which spans the southwestern border between the United States and Mexico, many bodies are recovered only after weeks or months: 58 per cent of migrant remains processed by the Pima County Office of the Medical Examiner were already skeletal due to extended exposure to the elements. Similarly, there are strong indications that many more bodies are lost in the vastness of the

¹⁵⁷ University of Amsterdam’s Death at the Borders Database. Project website: www.borderdeaths.org/?page_id=5

¹⁵⁸ Arizona OpenGIS Initiative for Deceased Migrants. Project website: www.humaneborders.info

¹⁵⁹ Monash University’s Border Crossing Observatory. Project website: <https://arts.monash.edu/social-sciences/border-crossing-observatory/australian-border-deaths-database>

Mediterranean Sea than are currently counted: At least 822 bodies washed up to North African shores between 2014 and 2018 that were not associated with any known shipwreck.

Despite these challenges, many of the gaps in data on migrant deaths and disappearances are linked simply to a lack of reliable sources of data. There is a dearth of information on migrant deaths from official sources: No country currently publishes data on fatalities disaggregated by migratory status, and even at local levels, the vast majority of coroners, medical examiners and other authorities dealing with post-mortem processing and identification do not distinguish between migrants and non-migrants. No national or local authority currently produces estimates of migrant disappearances.

The lack of official data on deaths and disappearances during migration necessitates the use of a variety of sources. This includes in-depth investigation of local post-mortem records – as in the case of the Deaths at the Borders Database’s investigation of records from Southern European States – or, more commonly, reliance on unofficial sources. IOM’s Missing Migrants Project, for example, relies on official data and other sources, such as press releases from border authorities where possible; however, 78 per cent of its records come from reports by international agencies, non-governmental organizations and the media, and survey data. This is reflected in the dataset’s “source quality” variable, which ranks each incident involving a migrant death from 1 (a single media report) to 5 (an official national or local source). The UNITED List of Deaths and the Australia Border Deaths Database rely almost exclusively on media reports.

The necessity of using a variety of sources means that **data on fatalities during migration are highly incomplete not only in terms of coverage, but also in terms of disaggregation by basic demographic characteristics.**

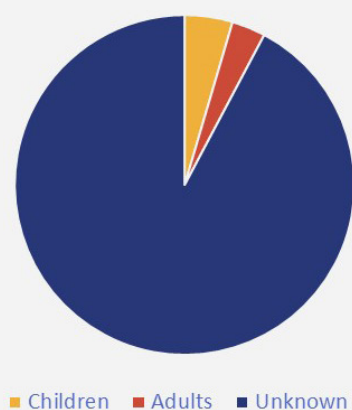
Data on the specific age of migrant decedents are available for less than 8 per cent of recorded fatalities in the Missing Migrants Project database, while the sex of migrants is known in only 9 per cent of cases. Similarly, information on the country of origin of missing migrants is available in less than a third of cases.

The lack of disaggregation of data on fatalities during migration means that is difficult to identify groups which are most at risk of death. This gap can be linked to the scarcity of official records and the many migrant bodies which are never recovered, as discussed above, but also to the challenges of identifying missing migrants. One example of this is the initiative dedicated to recovering and identifying bodies from the Lampedusa shipwrecks in October 2013: Of the 366 migrants who died, just 31 (8.5%) have been identified.¹⁶⁰

While there are significant gaps in available data on deaths and disappearances during migration, even less is known about several interrelated issues. The tracing and identification of missing migrants are extremely challenging. As discussed above, migrants who die or go missing during migration are likely to travel without documents, and the condition in which migrant bodies are recovered (or not) may often prevent identification. Most concerning, no coherent data exist on the number of migrants reported missing, nor information on the families who are still searching for loved ones lost during migration. IOM estimates that between 75,000 and 250,000 individuals may have lost family members during migration since 2014, based on the number of unidentified persons in the Missing Migrants Project database.

¹⁶⁰ L. Olivieri et al., Challenges in the identification of dead migrants in the Mediterranean: The case study of the Lampedusa shipwreck of October 3rd 2013, Forensic Science International, 285:121–128. Available from www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29482110

Figure 2: Data on child deaths and disappearances during migration



- Children make up **4.5 per cent** of migrant fatalities recorded by IOM January 2014 to September 2018
- At least 241 under the age of 10
 - 165 under the age of 5
- 48% of child migrant deaths were recorded in the **Mediterranean**
 - 14.6% in Central Mediterranean
 - 31.6% in Eastern Mediterranean
 - 1.8% in Western Mediterranean

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Source: IOM's Missing Migrants Project, 2018.

Note: Data from 1 Jan 2014 – 4 Oct 2018. Includes estimated 250 child deaths during Rohingya crisis of 2014.

Recommendations

The inclusion of a commitment to “[s]ave lives and establish coordinated international efforts on missing migrants” under Objective 8 of the Global Compact for Migration encourages governments and relevant stakeholders to improve data on migrant deaths and disappearances, as well as the related issues of the tracing and identification of migrants and assistance to the families left behind. Similarly, the call to “strengthen the global evidence base on international migration” under Objective 1 of the Global Compact for Migration can serve as an impetus to improve data on migrant fatalities worldwide. These data are necessary to preserve the lives and human dignity of migrants, prevent migrant deaths and injuries through search and rescue operations, and support families with missing relatives through the identification of those who have died or gone missing, as also stated in Objective 8 of the Global Compact for Migration.

IOM’s most recent volume in the Fatal Journeys series¹⁶¹ makes five recommendations aimed at improving data on deaths and disappearances during migration that emerge from the comparison of regions and innovative methodologies discussed at length in the report:

1. Make better use of administrative data

Local, national and regional authorities that collect data on missing migrants should publish these data wherever and whenever possible, in accordance with data protection standards. These authorities should also cooperate to standardize data collection to improve the possibilities for data comparison and cross-checking.

2. Promote survey-based data collection

In areas where few institutions collect data on missing migrants, or where access may be an issue, surveys can provide new data on deaths and the risks people face during migration.

3. Explore new technologies

The use of modern technologies and data sources, such as “big data,” piloted in some regions, could be expanded to improve the availability and completeness of data on migrant fatalities.

4. Work with families and civil society

The needs of families of missing migrants should be a central concern in all stages of data collection and identification processes. Data collection efforts led by family and civil society groups should be encouraged through collaboration with other actors.

5. Improve data sharing

Around the world, data on missing migrants are fragmented and not shared effectively. Data-sharing and cooperation between actors working on the issue of missing migrants should be promoted to enhance the evidence base on the issue and inform appropriate responses.

Example of best practice: Arizona OpenGIS Initiative for Deceased Migrants¹⁶²

The Arizona OpenGIS Initiative for Deceased Migrants is one of the few examples of collaboration between official and civil society actors which enables families searching for missing loved ones to search existing medical records. The open-access database presents forensic records of migrant bodies found in Arizona near the United States–Mexico border, and is an ongoing partnership between the Pima County Office of the Medical Examiner, which processes most migrant bodies found in Arizona, and Humane Borders, Inc., an NGO that provides humanitarian assistance to migrants in the Sonoran Desert. The frequently updated database is available in both English and Spanish and allows users to search thousands of administrative records from 2000 to the present.

¹⁶¹ Publications available for download from https://publications.iom.int/search-books?keyword=fatal+journeys&category=All&subject=All&book_lang=All&country=All&year=All

¹⁶² Project website: www.humaneborders.info

RELEVANT GLOBAL COMPACT FOR MIGRATION OBJECTIVES:
Objective 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11
(see Annex)

Irregular migration and migrant smuggling

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With the rate of global mobility on the rise, but pathways for legal migration being limited, estimates suggest that a growing number of people are moving irregularly.¹⁶³ More often than not, migrant smugglers facilitate some part of their migration journey.

However, effective data gathering and analysis of irregular migration, and those who facilitate it, remain a fragmented and politicized area of study. Key definitional issues, objectives and responsibilities remain undefined, and competing estimates using vastly different methodologies, each with its own flaws, undermine the discipline as a whole.

If the dynamics of contemporary migration are to be understood, and more importantly, are to be properly managed, advancing coherently – in a collaborative manner to expand the evidence base on irregular migration and migrant smuggling – will be critical for the successful implementation of the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration.

What is irregular migration?

While there is no clear or universally accepted definition of irregular migration, the concept is broadly understood to cover those who enter, stay or work in a country without the necessary authorization or documents required under the relevant immigration regime.¹⁶⁴

To have a full and complete picture of global demographics, States are keen to be able to accurately estimate all migration stocks and flows. For this reason, there is a growing number of global efforts to try to create viable estimates of irregular migration.

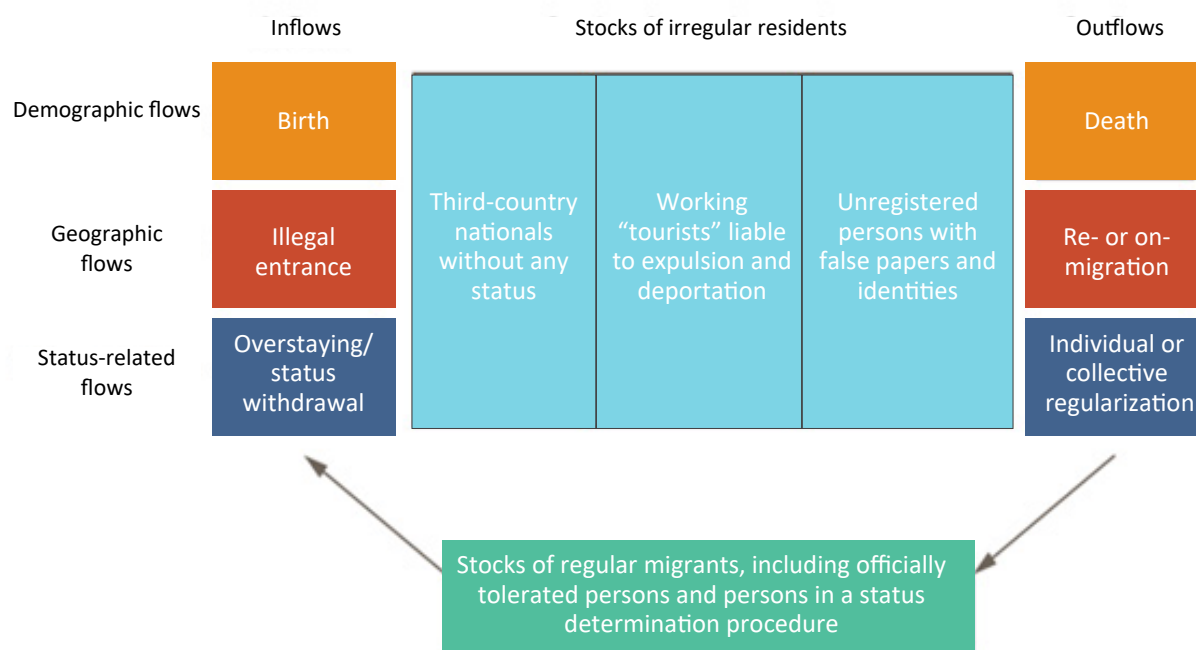
As with regular migration, any accurate estimate of irregular migration would need to include both stocks (the number of migrants already in a country without legal status) and flows (the number of people crossing borders irregularly, or who move from regular to irregular situations for administrative reasons).¹⁶⁵

However, since irregular migration is, by its very nature, clandestine, it is inherently hard to measure. Those moving irregularly often actively evade identification at border crossings, and those who exit the formal system, for instance by overstaying their visas or working in the informal sector, are difficult to count in official statistics. Therefore, estimates of irregular migration are driven largely by proxy indicators and extrapolations, and there is no accepted methodology in place for such estimations.

¹⁶³ International Organization for Migration, *World Migration Report 2018* (Geneva, 2018). Available from http://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/wmr_2018_en.pdf (accessed 20 November 2018).

¹⁶⁴ International Organization for Migration, *Key Migration Terms*. Available from www.iom.int/key-migration-terms (accessed 20 November 2018).

¹⁶⁵ International Organization for Migration, *World Migration Report 2018* (Geneva, 2018). Available from http://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/wmr_2018_en.pdf

Figure 1: Migration – flow and stocks

Source: Modified from Kraler, A. and D. Vogel (eds.), *Report on methodological issues* (European Commission, November 2008). Available from https://irregular-migration.net/typo3_upload/groups/31/4.Background_Information/4.1.Methodology/Methodological_Issues_Clandestino_Report_Nov09_2.pdf

Asylum applications: Their acceptance and refusal are often used to serve as an indicator of irregular migration. However, there are two weaknesses to methodologies predicated on this data source: Firstly, the outcome of an asylum application may take time and the legal (or irregular) status can only be established ex post. Moreover, asylum seekers may decide to leave during the asylum procedure and migrate towards other countries. Secondly, asylum seekers with denied claims who may be returned to their countries of origin could end up remaining irregularly in their countries of destination.

Census data, registers of foreign populations and direct household surveys: These are often also used as a basis on which to derive an estimate of irregular migrants. However, these methods are prone to inaccuracies and underreporting, due to the strong motivation of the irregular migrant to remain hidden from those who might be perceived as official or enforcement authorities.

In addition to these methodologies, a number of new initiatives have been piloted to estimate "mixed" migration flows without making the (potentially premature) distinction between asylum seekers and other migrants. Such efforts include the IOM Displacement Tracking Matrix¹⁶⁶ and the 4Mi methodology used by the Mixed Migration Centre run by the Danish Refugee Council.¹⁶⁷ There are also a number of innovative pilot projects under way to enhance the understanding of migration flows, including those of irregular nature, which use big data sources such as the Global Positioning System or telecommunication data.¹⁶⁸

Mixed migration

"The principal characteristics of mixed migration flows include the irregular nature of and the multiplicity of factors driving such movements, and the differentiated needs and profiles of the persons involved. Mixed flows have been defined as 'complex population movements including refugees, asylum seekers, economic migrants and other migrants'. Unaccompanied minors, environmental migrants, smuggled persons, victims of trafficking and stranded migrants, among others, may also form part of a mixed flow."¹⁶⁹

Despite the availability of these various estimates, the potential traction that any of these fragmented and experimental efforts can have is limited. There is an urgent need for an agreed-upon definition and methodology for understanding and estimating irregular migration, and for a neutral body mandated to collect such data. The risk, in fact, is that without a reliable and neutral source of data on irregular migration, competing sets of estimates are used politically, or undermine each other.

Centre, Data Bulletin: Big Data and Migration (Geneva, February 2018). Available from <https://gmdac.iom.int/data-bulletin-big-data-and-migration> (accessed 20 November 2018).

¹⁶⁹ International Organization for Migration, Ninety-Sixth Session, International Dialogue on Migration 2008, Discussion Note: *Challenges of Irregular Migration: Addressing Mixed Migration Flows*. (Geneva, 2008). Available from www.iom.int/jahia/webdav/shared/shared/mainsite/microsites/IDM/workshops/return_migration_challenges_120208/mixed_migration_flows.pdf

¹⁶⁶ International Organization for Migration, Global Migration Data Analysis Centre, Data Bulletin: Quantifying Displacement and Mobility (Geneva, June 2018). Available from <https://gmdac.iom.int/data-bulletin-quantifying-displacement-and-mobility> (accessed 20 November 2018).

¹⁶⁷ 4Mi. Available from <https://4mi.regionalmms.org> (accessed 20 November 2018).

¹⁶⁸ International Organization for Migration, Global Migration Data Analysis

Irregular or illegal?

A crucial dynamic underlying and undermining efforts to quantify irregular migration and estimate the size of irregular migrant populations is the politically pejorative cast that often surrounds the debate. In an era where anti-migrant rhetoric is growing, terms such as “illegal” and “illicit” are often used synonymously to describe irregular migration. However, describing irregular migrants as illegal often exaggerates an administrative crime of a lapsed visa, creating an unnecessary perception of criminality associated with migration or, more concerning, may in fact compromise the human and asylum rights of the migrants involved.¹⁷⁰

Meanwhile, the concept of criminalization can be appropriately used in the context of irregular migration with regards to migrant smuggling. As per the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, it is the smuggler who is criminalized through this definition, not the smuggled person. As highlighted in article 5, migrants are not liable to criminal prosecution for the fact of having been smuggled.

Human smuggling and facilitation of irregular migration

Migrant smuggling is defined in the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, which contains a dedicated protocol for the offense.¹⁷¹ Smugglers facilitate the irregular journey of people and support them to cross borders where they may not be entitled to do so. Smuggling “plays a crucial role in facilitating irregular migration, as the smuggler may provide a wide range of services, from physical transportation and illegal crossing of a border to the procurement of false documents”.¹⁷² Migrant smugglers are a vector of irregular migration: They often play a determining role in deciding who moves, where they move to, and how safely they complete their journeys.

Recent estimates by the European Union Agency for Law Enforcement Cooperation (EUROPOL) and other enforcement agencies, as well as the Global Initiative’s own work, suggest that more than 90 per cent of irregular migrants use a smuggler to facilitate some part of their migration journey.¹⁷³ The abusive behaviour by some smugglers and the popular discourse in the media and policy circles – which tend to use the terms

“smuggling” and “trafficking” interchangeably – have led to an emphasis on the criminalized aspect of smuggling.¹⁷⁴ Some smugglers have indeed been responsible for egregious human rights abuses against their clients, including human trafficking, physical and sexual abuse, forced detention, kidnapping for ransom and extortion. Journeys facilitated by smugglers can also lead to migrant death.¹⁷⁵ However, most migrants who use smugglers to facilitate their journeys do so safely and within the terms of the contract that they agreed upon.¹⁷⁶ In conflict zones, human smugglers may be the only available means for those displaced by violence to move to other countries to seek asylum.

Human smuggling has become a big business. The first global review of human smuggling by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) analysed 30 of the world’s most heavily used irregular migration routes, and on that basis estimated that 2.5 million migrants were smuggled for an economic return of between USD 5.5 billion and USD 7 billion in 2016.¹⁷⁷ In many regions, the human smuggling trade has significant local legitimacy, and is an important source of income where economic opportunities are limited. Movement is integral to many cultures, and smugglers are perceived as facilitators of this cultural phenomenon. Migrant smuggling has become an economic lynchpin in societies across many regions, where legitimate livelihoods were scarce to begin with or have been eroded by insecurity, environmental degradation, bad governance or bad policy. For some nomadic communities, smuggling remains one of the few credible alternative livelihoods, and not one that is perceived as illegal or immoral.¹⁷⁸

Building the evidence base on migrant smuggling

Despite the importance of migrant smuggling as a vector of irregular migration, there is no systematic data collection relating to the smuggling industry. IOM has published two editions of *Migrant Smuggling Data and Research: A global review of the emerging evidence base*,¹⁷⁹ and while this furthers qualitative understanding of the phenomenon and its different regional manifestations, there is arguably still a need for a quantitative approach.

¹⁷⁰ Koser, K., “Irregular migration, state security and human security”, Policy Analysis and Research Programme of the Global Commission on International Migration (September 2005).

¹⁷¹ United Nations Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime. Available from www.unodc.org/documents/southeastasiaandpacific/2011/04/som-indonesia/convention_smug_eng.pdf (accessed 20 November 2018).

¹⁷² UNODC, *Smuggling of Migrants: A Global Review and Annotated Bibliography of Recent Publications* (New York, 2011), p. 15. Available from www.unodc.org/documents/human-trafficking/Migrant-Smuggling/Smuggling_of_Migrants_A_Global_Review.pdf (accessed 20 November 2018).

¹⁷³ EUROPOL, *Migrant Smuggling to the EU* (2016). Available from www.europol.europa.eu/about-europol/european-migrant-smuggling-centre-emsc#fndtn-tabs-0-bottom-1 (accessed 20 November 2018).

¹⁷⁴ Carling, J., C. Horwood and A. Gallagher, “Beyond Definitions: Global migration and the smuggling–trafficking nexus”, RMMS Discussion Paper, 2. Nairobi: Regional Mixed Migration Secretariat (2015). Available from www.prio.org/Publications/Publication/?x=8868 (accessed 20 November 2018).

¹⁷⁵ International Organization for Migration, Missing Migrants Project. Available from <https://missingmigrants.iom.int/about> (accessed 20 November 2018).

¹⁷⁶ Coyne, J. and M. Nyst (eds.), *People smugglers globally 2017*, Australian Strategic Policy Institute (October 2017). Available from <http://s3-ap-southeast-2.amazonaws.com/ad-aspi/2017-10/People%20Smuggling.pdf?stdeEDpA9px6dD8zZQZjb9hIBZqPXzs8> (accessed 20 November 2018).

¹⁷⁷ UNODC, *Global Study on Smuggling of Migrants* (New York, 2018). Available from www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/glosom/GLOSOM_2018_web_small.pdf (accessed 20 November 2018).

¹⁷⁸ Tinti, P. and T. Reitano, *Migrant, Refugee, Smuggler, Saviour*, Hurst Publishers (London, 2016).

¹⁷⁹ International Organization for Migration, *Migrant Smuggling Data and Research: A global review of the emerging evidence base* (Geneva, 2018). Available from <http://publications.iom.int/books/migrant-smuggling-data-and-research-global-review-emerging-evidence-base> (accessed 20 November 2018). The report contains further suggestions to improve the evidence base on migrant smuggling.

Depending on the objectives of policymakers, there are several different ways to measure the migrant smuggling market, which could look at:

- (a) **Number of migrants using smugglers:** The number of men, women, girls and boys who use smuggling services in their journeys from their home countries to a destination country, an estimate that currently remains largely unknown;
- (b) **Size and value of the criminal market:** Estimating the profits generated by groups or individuals involved in human smuggling, estimating the number of people (disaggregated by sex and age) involved in the human smuggling industry in any jurisdiction, analysing to whom the profits of the industry accrue;
- (c) **Level of criminal consolidation of the smuggling market:** Estimating the level of establishment of the industry (either as a factor of how long they have been in operation, or how sophisticated their methodologies are), their transnational reach (the distance they can move people), their capacity to move numbers of people, or the speed at which they can move people;
- (d) **Human smuggling as a protection risk:** Estimating the risks of human smuggling, accident, injury or death involved in irregularly facilitated movement, based on sex, age and origin, for the purpose of mitigating those risks.

There are certain baseline requirements that would need to be met in order to collect the data needed for creating estimates on human smuggling. They include the **mapping of key routes, mapping of hubs of migrant smuggling, estimating the most used routes and regularly documenting the modus operandi of smugglers**. What is needed is information on both movement and destination, and pricing and control of key routes.¹⁸⁰ To expand such understanding, data would need to be much richer, and would need to include surveys with migrants and communities, and a range of institutional data that would need to be shared nationally, regionally and internationally.¹⁸¹

There are also **experimental or innovative data collection methodologies** that could be used which would greatly contribute to monitoring migrant smuggling-related dimensions and risks of migration.

Going forward, to respond effectively to the commitments of the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration, in particular Objectives 1, 9 and 10, there will need to be an agreed-upon approach, and a central **and neutral authority** to collate, analyse and share data that integrate the disaggregated study of irregular migration, and – as the fourth pillar of IOM’s approach to counter migrant smuggling states – has appropriate monitors for smugglers and irregular migration facilitators, and which provides early warning on potential threats to migrants.¹⁸²

¹⁸⁰ Global Initiative Against Transnational Organized Crime, “Understanding human smuggling as a vector in migration” (May 2018). Available from http://globalinitiative.net/understanding_human_smuggling (accessed 20 November 2018).

¹⁸¹ UNODC, Global Study on Smuggling of Migrants (New York, 2018). Available from www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/glosom/GLOSOM_2018_web_small.pdf (accessed 20 November 2018).

¹⁸² International Organization for Migration, Migrant Smuggling Data and

Research: A global review of the emerging evidence base (Geneva, 2018). Available from <http://publications.iom.int/books/migrant-smuggling-data-and-research-global-review-emerging-evidence-base> (accessed 20 November 2018).

RELEVANT GLOBAL COMPACT FOR MIGRATION OBJECTIVES:
Objective 6, 7, 9, 10 and 11
(see Annex)

Human trafficking

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The crime of human trafficking is complex and dynamic, taking place in a wide variety of contexts and frequently difficult to detect. One of the greatest challenges in developing targeted counter-trafficking responses and measuring their impact is the lack of reliable, high-quality data. Historically, available data on human trafficking have been extremely limited and the data that do exist are too often isolated in silos, leading to fragmented knowledge.

The Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration emphasizes the need for detailed, disaggregated data to contribute to evidence-based policy responses to today's migration challenges. It also calls for measures to prevent and combat trafficking in persons in the context of international migration, and specifically outlines the need for information-sharing as a necessary step towards this goal. This Data Bulletin examines some of the main global sources of human trafficking data, their strengths and limitations, and the work IOM and other organizations are carrying out to build the evidence base on human trafficking in the context of the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration, specifically Objectives 1 and 10.

The three areas explored are (a) data on identified and reported cases of human trafficking, (b) estimating trafficking prevalence, and (c) collecting data on trafficking in humanitarian settings. Each data source is crucial in building the global picture of human trafficking, but each source has its own limitations that need to be considered when using the data.

Data on identified and reported cases of human trafficking

The main sources of data on human trafficking globally come from identified victims. These are usually collected by a range of different actors, including law enforcement, the judiciary and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) providing protection and assistance services to victims. Such operational data tend to be held in the various databases of different organizations and are not readily available – particularly in disaggregate form – due to data protection and civil liberties concerns. Such data may be compiled and reported in aggregate form by a central body, as part of a national reporting process. This responsibility commonly falls on the agency that manages the national referral mechanism, as those data tend to provide the most comprehensive data set in terms of coverage. National aggregate statistics are reported by some governments to the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC).

As described above, data on identified victims of trafficking are generated by counter-trafficking organizations. This means that data are only available where such organizations are operational and able to share such data. In practice, data are therefore not available for all countries/locations and, where data do exist, they are not always comprehensive in terms of coverage of a given country/location. Large quantities of data on identified victims of trafficking do not necessarily indicate higher prevalence of human trafficking. Indeed, they may equally indicate an effective counter-trafficking response. Identified cases are better understood as a sample of the unidentified population of victims, yielding insight into trafficking trends and patterns. This sample may be biased if some types of trafficking cases are more likely to be identified (or referred) than others. The extent of the bias is not always known or able to be corrected for, since the unidentified population is, by definition, unknown. Nevertheless, where available, these data are indispensable, as they provide detailed insight into the profiles and experiences of the victims, the forms of human trafficking, and information on perpetrators.

Operational case data

In the course of protecting and providing services to victims, counter-trafficking actors frequently collect individual-level, operational case data. IOM has been providing direct assistance to victims of human trafficking since the mid-1990s and assists approximately 8,000 victims each year. Through its case management activities, the Organization has developed the largest database of victims of trafficking case data in the world, with information on more than 55,000 individual cases.

Operational data from counter-trafficking organizations are often highly sensitive and pertain to individuals, which raises a range of privacy and civil liberty concerns, where the risk of identifying data subjects can be high and the consequences severe. While many organizations and governments around the world collect data on cases of human trafficking, disaggregated data have not been easily accessible to external stakeholders or have not been frequently shared between relevant actors in the past,

due to the sensitivity of its content, and data protection and confidentiality considerations.

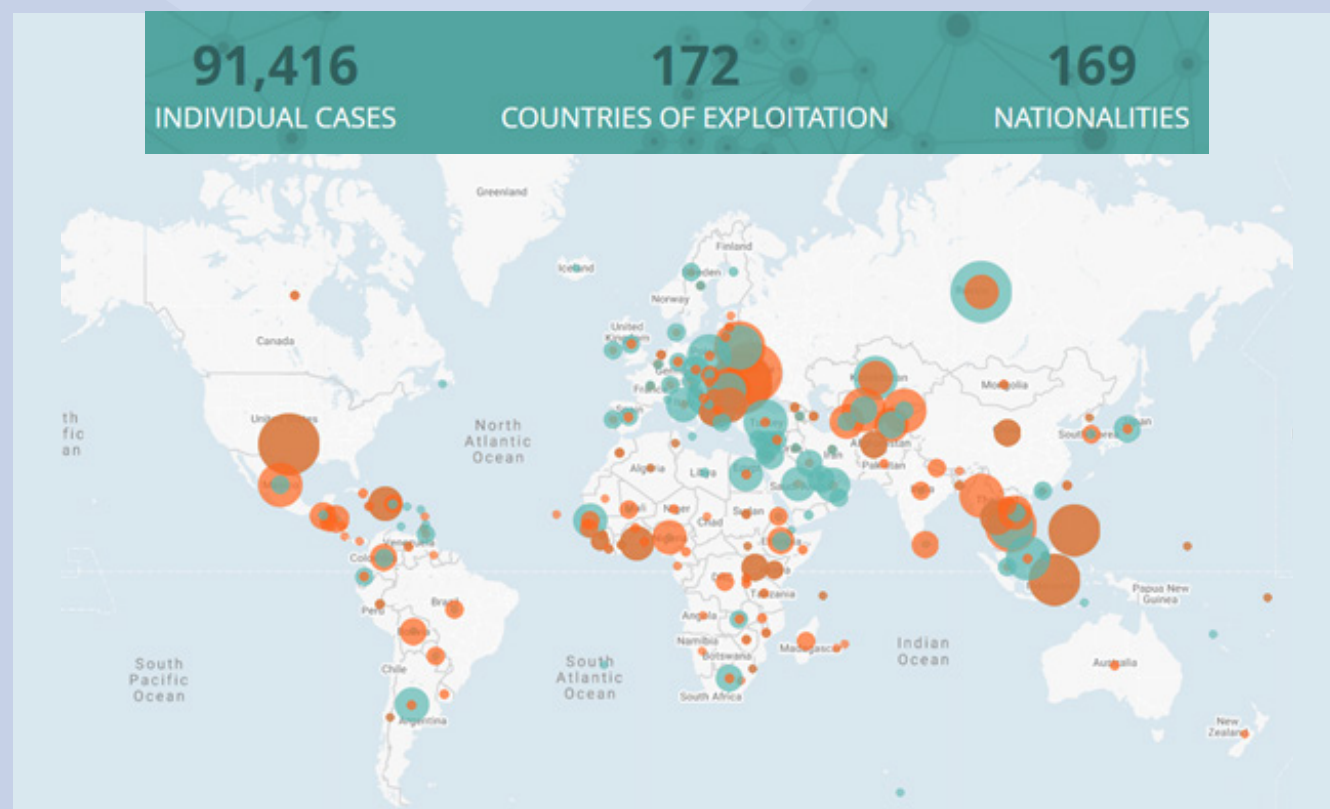
To overcome these challenges, in 2017, IOM made its own data publicly available online through IOM's Counter Trafficking Data Collaborative (CTDC),¹⁸³ along with combined data from other leading counter-trafficking organizations with significant case-level datasets. CTDC has made great progress in overcoming these obstacles, but more work is needed throughout the counter-trafficking community to agree on common standards and methods of data-sharing and applicability. Disaggregated case-level data are the most detailed source of information on human trafficking and should thus play a vital part of any meaningful analysis on the phenomenon, with due attention to privacy and security concerns.

¹⁸³ Available from www.ctdatacollaborative.org (accessed 20 November 2018).

The Counter Trafficking Data Collaborative

CTDC is the first global data hub on human trafficking, with data contributed by organizations from around the world. The resulting data set is the largest of its kind globally, with information on more than 90,000 individual cases of human trafficking visualized throughout the site, including through an interactive global map. An anonymized version of this data set is publicly available to download. By putting such data in the public domain, the goal of CTDC is to break down information-sharing barriers and equip the counter-trafficking community with up-to-date, reliable data on human trafficking. As new data from contributing partners are added, CTDC will continue to expand in scope, featuring new data sets from diverse counter-trafficking actors and disseminating standards on sharing trafficking-case data.

Figure 1: CTDC Global Dataset: Counter Trafficking Data Collaborative, 2018



Note: This map is for illustration purposes only. The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the International Organization for Migration.

National reporting mechanisms

Official reports on administrative data compiled by governments (or other central reporting bodies) on human trafficking cases within their national jurisdictions are another key source of trafficking information. UNODC surveys governments on trafficking victims identified in their respective countries for the *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons 2016*,¹⁸⁴ using a common questionnaire with a standard set of indicators, and then aggregates the results. The most recent Global Report was produced in 2016, and featured data on approximately 63,251 identified victims of trafficking from 106 national governments over a two-year period.¹⁸⁵ Data are largely published in the form of total numbers, disaggregated by variables such as sex, age and type of exploitation, wherever possible. In addition to government surveys, UNODC collects official information, such as police reports, that are available in the public domain, and some information from intergovernmental organizations and NGOs. While these data are not detailed, limiting their use, they have the widest geographical coverage and therefore provide useful baseline information on human trafficking at the global level. Furthermore, in the absence of publicly available disaggregated data, official reports may be the only source of data on identified victims available in a given country or region.

Estimating prevalence of human trafficking

There are currently no global or regional estimates of the prevalence of human trafficking. National estimates have been produced in several countries, but they are also based on modelling of existing administrative data from identified cases and should therefore only be considered as basic baseline estimates. Historically, producing estimates of the prevalence of trafficking based on the collection of new primary data – for example, through surveys – has been difficult. This is due to trafficking's complicated legal definition and the ethical challenges of addressing sensitive questions to household survey respondents. Relatively few examples of estimates related to human trafficking exist:

(a) **2017 Global Estimate of Modern Slavery:** This is a global estimate of the prevalence of the human trafficking-related crimes of forced labour and forced marriage, produced by the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the Walk Free Foundation, in collaboration with IOM. The 2017 report estimates that 40 million people were victims of modern slavery on any given day in 2016.¹⁸⁶ Of these, approximately 25 million were in forced labour and another 15 million

were in forced marriages. Data from IOM's human trafficking database on sexual exploitation and child exploitation were used for the estimates.

Figure 2: Global Estimates of Modern Slavery: Forced labour and forced marriage



(b) **Estimating human trafficking in displacement contexts:** IOM is developing a series of comparable prevalence estimates in displacement contexts, in partnership with ILO and the Walk Free Foundation. These new, nationally representative prevalence estimates are being developed in three pilot countries, leveraging existing IOM Displacement Tracking Matrix operations.

(c) **Multiple Systems Estimation:** This is the methodology used to estimate the total (unidentified and identified) victims of trafficking at the country level. This is based on the analysis of multiple lists of human trafficking cases provided by different actors in the counter-trafficking field, such as NGOs, law enforcement, other authorities and international organizations. The Multiple Systems Estimation depends upon the existence of various databases on identified victims of human trafficking in the country of implementation. Currently, it cannot be applied globally – researchers developing the method estimate that it could potentially be used in approximately 50 countries around the world.

Trafficking in humanitarian settings

There are thousands of trafficked persons in most countries at any given moment. Humanitarian crises such as those associated with conflicts or natural disasters may exacerbate pre-existing trafficking trends and give rise to new ones. While some forms of trafficking could be a direct result of crises, such as exploitative sexual services demanded by armed groups or the forced recruitment of child soldiers, others are less evident, with traffickers thriving on the widespread human, material, social and economic losses caused by crises and the inability of

¹⁸⁴ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons 2016* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.16.IV.6) (New York, 2016). Available from www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/glotip/2016_Global_Report_on_Trafficking_in_Persons.pdf

¹⁸⁵ Ibid., p. 23.

¹⁸⁶ International Labour Organization, *Global Estimates of Modern Slavery: Forced labour and forced marriage* (Geneva, 2017).

families and communities to protect themselves and their children.

IOM advocates for activities that prevent trafficking and protect trafficked persons in humanitarian settings. To address the acute need for data in such settings, IOM has been using the Displacement Tracking Matrix to collect reliable data on human trafficking and migrant exploitation, abuse and vulnerability in situations of crisis, displacement and large-scale migration. Locations of recent data collection include Cox's Bazar in Bangladesh, North-East Nigeria, Ukraine, South American countries and countries on the main migration routes to Europe.

In 2017, IOM produced a report with the United Nations Children's Fund on the specific experiences of children and youth migrating via the Mediterranean migration routes to Europe.¹⁸⁷ In a separate report, IOM identified predictors of vulnerability to human trafficking and exploitation for migrants taking these routes.¹⁸⁸ There are limited reliable data on human trafficking and exploitation in displacement contexts. Humanitarian settings are often highly pressurized and fast-changing environments, where conducting rigorous and ethical data collection can be challenging. For example, access to affected populations for data collectors can rapidly change, and services relevant for assistance of victims of human trafficking might not initially exist in crisis-affected locations. Therefore, the methods of data collection need to avoid causing harm, and they need to be time-sensitive and adaptable.

Data recently collected by IOM illustrate the prevalence of forced labour, forced marriage and abductions in certain displacement contexts, and show risks of and vulnerabilities to human trafficking. These types of data can inform counter-trafficking activities during the humanitarian response.

Figure 3: Harrowing Journeys: Children and youth on the move across the Mediterranean Sea, at risk of trafficking and exploitation



¹⁸⁷ International Organization for Migration and United Nations Children's Fund, *Harrowing Journeys: Children and youth on the move across the Mediterranean Sea, at risk of trafficking and exploitation* (New York, 2017).

¹⁸⁸ Galos, E., L. Bartolini, H. Cook and N. Grant, *Migrant Vulnerability to Human Trafficking and Exploitation: Evidence from the Central and Eastern Mediterranean Migration Routes* (Geneva, International Organization for Migration, 2017).

Migrants' access to basic services

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The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development highlights the role basic services – health; education; water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH); and social protection – play in achieving sustainable development. Likewise, migrants' access to basic services is instrumental to ensure they can maximize the benefits from migration, are able to support families in origin countries and can contribute to host countries as healthy and productive workers.¹⁸⁹

However, while we know access to basic services is critical, we do not know to what extent migrants are able to access such services, due to major data gaps. Data on access to services are often not disaggregated by migratory status or are not comparable across different groups and countries. As a result, we do not know the share of migrants actually able to participate in social protection programmes, access WASH and health services, or attend school.

The collection of these disaggregated data – accompanied by migrant-specific indicators – and monitoring of trends over time are crucial to understanding the vulnerabilities and needs of migrants. Lack of data on migrants and poor visibility of migrants in existing data limit understanding of migrants' needs and well-being, effective implementation of access to basic services, and accountability of governments and service providers. Furthermore, inability to access basic services is often associated with increased protection risks and vulnerabilities, including human trafficking and other forms of exploitation, or domestic violence.

What do we know about migrants' access to services?

Education¹⁹⁰

In 2015, 31 million school-aged children were international migrants (see Figure 1), with Asia and Africa hosting the largest numbers of migrant children. Europe, North America and Oceania, on the other hand, host a disproportionate number of migrant children compared with their share of all children globally.

There are no internationally comparable data on migrant children's school enrolment, particularly in low- and middle-income countries, partly due to the diversity of migration flows. Where data are available, they suggest that immigrant students face greater difficulties than their native-born peers in accessing education and achieving good learning outcomes.¹⁹¹ Migrant children are also likely to face linguistic barriers that have an impact on their achievement. Many first- and second-generation migrants do not speak the testing language at home, and this has an impact on their school achievements and test results.

¹⁸⁹ Hagen-Zanker, J., K. Long and M. Foresti, "Migration and its links to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development", 2018, *Migration Policy and Practice* (forthcoming).

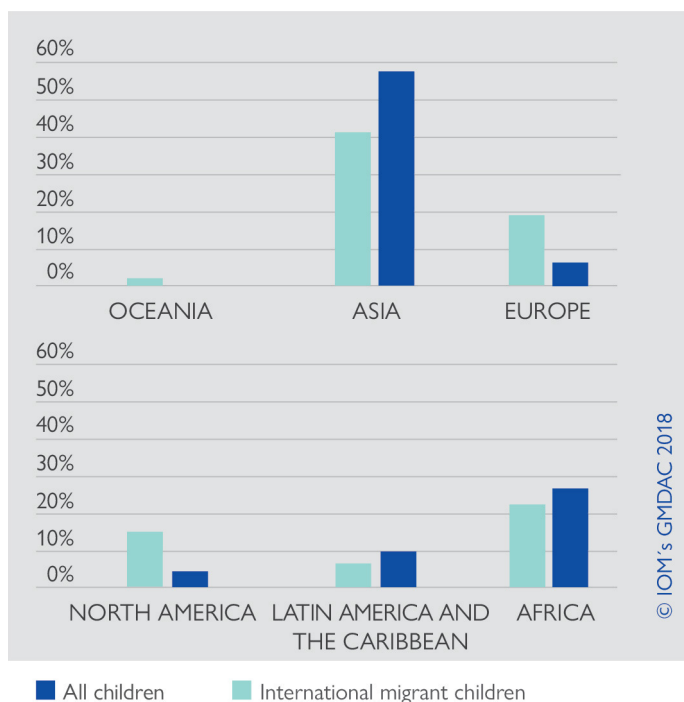
¹⁹⁰ Data and analysis are drawn from Nicolai, S., J. Wales and E. Aizzi, "Education, migration and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development", ODI Briefing Note, London: ODI, 2017.

¹⁹¹ Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, "Immigrant students at school: easing the journey towards integration", Paris: OECD Publishing, 2015.

Health services¹⁹²

There are many reasons why migrants may underutilize services, and existing data are rarely disaggregated by migratory status.¹⁹³

Figure 1: Distribution of international migrant children and all children by region, 2015 (%)



Source: Uprooted. Retrieved from: www.unicef.org/videoaudio/PDFs/Uprooted.pdf

Migrants' access to health services depends on countries' health systems and migrants' eligibility, which differ by the groups covered – for example, only regular migrants; and by services covered – for example, only emergency care. Thailand is viewed as a pioneer, offering universal access to its health insurance scheme to all migrants, including irregular and undocumented migrants.¹⁹⁴ However, eligibility to access health services does not necessarily translate into *effective* coverage for migrants. In the case of Thailand, uptake of services by migrants remains quite low. Data on effective access of migrants to health services are scant, limited to a few case studies.

There are many reasons why migrants may underutilize services. Migrants often face several barriers when accessing health services, despite eligibility, including language and cultural barriers, fear of discrimination, fear of losing employment due to absence, and poor employer compliance.¹⁹⁵ Further barriers include cost, discrimination

and bias from health providers; lack of knowledge about accessing entitlements or health insurance; unavailability or unsuitability of interpreters; and fear of deportation for those with uncertain legal status.¹⁹⁶ Similarly, social norms that have travelled from countries of origin may restrict access to health services: For example, women may need permission from men before accessing services.¹⁹⁷

The “healthy migrant effect” – that migrants who travel for work are usually of young age and healthier than the native-born population – may also mean that migrants' use of services is lower. However, migrants are also well-documented to face numerous health-related vulnerabilities across the whole migration journey: Pre-migration, in transit, in the country of destination and when returning.¹⁹⁸

WASH¹⁹⁹

Little comparable data are available on migrants' access to WASH services, with most being limited to case studies or of an anecdotal nature. Put together, the studies show a range of challenges migrants experience in accessing basic and safely managed WASH services.

For instance, while on the move, even accessing a basic source of water can be a challenge, and migrants can face exclusion and disincentives in accessing WASH services (for example undocumented migrants wishing to avoid detection in official camps). Even for displaced or undocumented migrants in formal camps and detention centres, standards of WASH provision are often low, with unsanitary standards leading to outbreaks of waterborne diseases.

In host countries, migrants' access to quality WASH services often remains poor for many years after arrival, linked to their often living in decaying or informal settlements, and to their reduced political and social capital to demand better services, information gaps and insecurity, as a result of legal status or financial barriers. For instance, one study shows that 46 per cent of mostly undocumented Latino migrants living in colonias – informal shanty towns in Texas – faced deficiencies in WASH provision.²⁰⁰ However, available evidence also shows that, over time, migrants' access to WASH services improves – for example, because of higher incomes or migrants relocating to better neighbourhoods.

Action:8, 2015; Tangcharoensathien, V., A.A. Thwin and W. Patcharanarumol, “Implementing health insurance for migrants, Thailand”, *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 95: 146–151, 2016.

¹⁹⁶ Biswas, D., M. Kristiansen, A. Krasnik and M. Norredam, “Access to healthcare and alternative health-seeking strategies among undocumented migrants in Denmark”, 11, 2011; Dias, S.F., M. Severo and H. Barros, “Determinants of health care utilization by immigrants in Portugal”, *BMC Health Services Research*, 8, 2008; Hall, W.J., M.V. Chapman and K.M. Lee, “Implicit Racial/Ethnic Bias Among Health Care Professionals and Its Influence on Health Care Outcomes: A Systematic Review”, *American Journal of Public Health*, 105:60–76, 2015.

¹⁹⁷ Samuels, F. “The social in ‘psychosocial’. How gender norms drive psychosocial stress. Align, 2018.

¹⁹⁸ Ibid.

¹⁹⁹ Data and analysis are drawn from Jobbins, G., I. Langdown and G. Bernard, “Water, migration and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development”, ODI Briefing Note, London: ODI, 2018.

²⁰⁰ Jepson, W. and H.L. Brown, “If no gasoline, no water’: privatising drinking water quality in South Texas colonias”, *Environment and Planning*, 46:1032–1048, 2014.

¹⁹² Data and analysis are drawn from Tulloch, O., F. Machingura and C. Melamed, “Health, migration and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development”, ODI Briefing Note, London: ODI, 2016; and Samuels, F., “Migration, health and the 2030 Agenda”, *Migration Policy and Practice* (upcoming), 2018.

¹⁹³ Guinto, R.L.L.R., U.Z. Curran, R. Suphanchaimat and N.S. Pocock, “Universal health coverage in ‘One ASEAN’: are migrants included?” *Global Health Action*:8, 2015; Tangcharoensathien, V., A.A. Thwin and W. Patcharanarumol, “Implementing health insurance for migrants, Thailand”, *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 95: 146–151, 2016.

¹⁹⁴ Tulloch, Olivia, F. Machingura and C. Melamed. “Health, migration and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development”. ODI Briefing Note, London: ODI, 2016.

¹⁹⁵ Guinto, R.L.L.R., U.Z. Curran, R. Suphanchaimat and N.S. Pocock, “Universal health coverage in ‘One ASEAN’: are migrants included?” *Global Health*

Social protection²⁰¹

Detailed data breaking down migrants' legal coverage or take-up of social protection at a national level are often not available, or not comparable between countries. However, attempts have been made to estimate legal coverage at the global level. Based on data from 2013, it is estimated that 23 per cent of regular migrants had legal coverage through a bilateral social protection agreement or similar arrangement between origin and destination countries, granting access to programmes and making social security benefits portable across borders.²⁰²

However, as Figure 2 shows, while 90 per cent of migrants moving between high-income countries were covered, less than 1 per cent of those moving between low-income countries were legally covered.²⁰³ Overall, around 17 per cent of those migrating from low- or middle-income countries to high-income countries were covered by a bilateral or multilateral social protection agreement. Some countries have secured bilateral agreements that resulted in higher coverage of their emigrants, notably 89 per cent of Moroccan emigrants, compared with a coverage rate of 0.5 per cent for Mexican emigrants.

Fifty-three per cent of regular migrants moved between countries without an agreement but still had access to some social protection in their host countries. The majority of these migrated between low- and lower-middle-income countries, where national social protection systems were generally weak. This means that, while these migrants are legally covered, in practice the type of support they received is likely to be limited in scope and value.

Nine per cent of regular migrants did not have any access to social protection as they were neither covered by an agreement nor entitled by host-country law.

Finally, it was estimated that 14 per cent of migrants were undocumented and had no access to social protection. This means that almost a quarter of all migrants in 2013, most of whom were in the global South, had no or limited social protection access.

Data gaps on migrants' access to basic services

There is a general lack of data disaggregated by migratory status, with national bodies and service providers often not including migratory status as a variable when recording data. This is evident in school enrolment data, where migrant children are invisible in records, and also in health service data, where providers rarely record migratory status. With poor visibility of migrants in the data, there is consequently a lack of understanding of migrants' needs and access to services.

Even less is known about certain migrant groups, in particular hard-to-reach groups that are usually missing from official population statistics. For instance, for

WASH service coverage, data are usually collected from censuses and household surveys, thus often excluding migrants living in informal settings, and do not capture intense, localized surges in demand for services arising from temporary arrivals of large numbers of migrants.²⁰⁴ Likewise, little is known about migrant domestic workers who may be particularly isolated from access to services, or refugees residing outside of camps in urban areas.²⁰⁵ Excluded from datasets, marginalised groups of migrants that are more likely to be excluded or underserved by service providers or governments.

A lack of data on irregular migrants may come from fear of officials. For example, schools may face difficulty collecting information on students, as they are not able to persuade parents with legally vulnerable status that the data will support their children, and that they will not report it to authorities.²⁰⁶ Indeed, "firewalls" – separating access to services from immigration enforcement activities – are not always a reality, and so while more disaggregated data could be used to improve services for migrants, *not* collecting these data can protect migrants' security. There may be a trade-off between collecting such data and ensuring migrants the right to basic services and their security.

A key gap in knowledge is that, while it is possible to ascertain migrants' eligibility for health and education services, social protection coverage, or availability of WASH services – for instance by reviewing national legislation – there is a lack of information on actual take-up of services, or effective coverage. Thus, more readily available data on legal coverage may not be indicative of migrants' effective access to basic services.

Data priorities going forward

While the information gaps in migrants' access to services are significant, the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration could be used as an opportunity to help close these gaps.

Without evidence to inform policymaking, the ability of policymakers to design evidence-driven effective programmes to support migrants is undermined. There are also implications for service providers and users – without evidence, service providers cannot be held to account for failing to provide adequate services to migrants. Going forward, host countries need to collect data to help estimate effective coverage or access to services of migrants. This is needed to improve coverage, service delivery and accountability of service providers. To do this, national bodies and service providers should collect data on access to services disaggregated by migratory status, as well as sex and age, while keeping in mind that data collection activities should be decoupled from immigration enforcement for data to be comprehensive and accurate, and that such data should be used to support vulnerable groups, not to report

²⁰¹ Data and analysis are drawn from Hagen-Zanker, J., E. Mosler Vidal and G. Sturge, "Social protection, migration and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development", ODI Briefing Note, London: ODI, 2017.

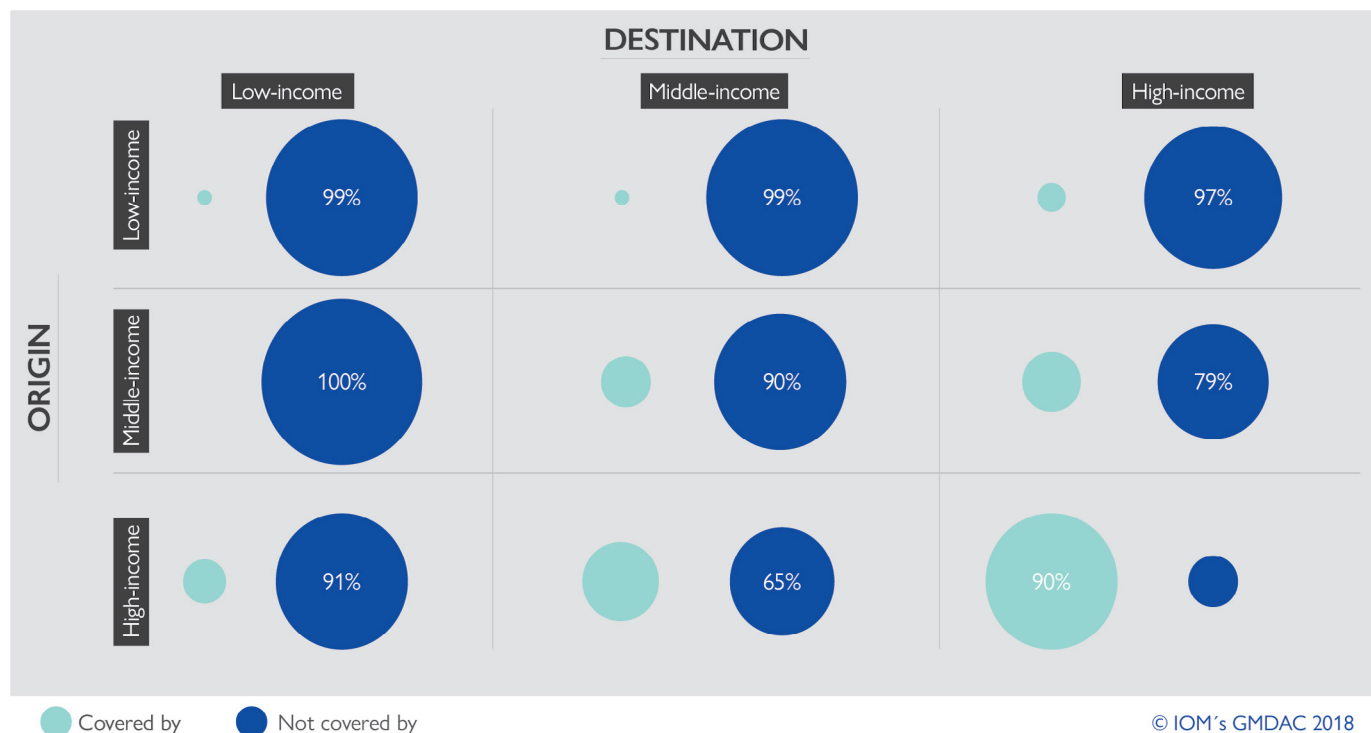
²⁰² This refers mainly to all benefits that stem from contributory payments or residency criteria in a country. Holzmann, R., J. Koettl J. and T. Chernetsky, "Portability Regimes of Pension and Healthcare Benefits for International Migrants: An Analysis of Issues and Good Practices", Social Protection Discussion Paper Series No. 0519, Washington D.C.: World Bank, 2005.

²⁰³ Ibid.

²⁰⁴ Jobbins, G., I. Langdown and G. Bernard. "Water and sanitation, migration and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development", ODI Briefing Note, ODI: London., 2018.

²⁰⁵ Nicolai, S., J. Wales and E. Aiazzi. "Education, migration and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development", ODI Briefing, ODI: London, 2017; Hagen-Zanker, J., H. Postel and E. Mosler Vidal. "Poverty, migration and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development", ODI Briefing, ODI: London, 2017.

²⁰⁶ Bartlett, L., D. Rodriguez and G. Oliveira, "Migration and education: socio-cultural perspectives", 2015. Available from www.scielo.br/pdf/ep/v41nspe/en_1517-9702-ep-41-spe-1153.pdf

Figure 2: Social protection coverage of migrants by country of origin and country of destination

Source: Authors' own calculation based on data compiled by Avato et al. (2009) and hosted by the World Bank <http://go.worldbank.org/NC09EJABP0>. The figure shows the percentage of migrants (size of "bubble") who are legally covered by a bilateral or multilateral social protection portability agreement, split by the income classification of their origin and destination country.

Avato, J., Koettl, J. and Sabates-Wheeler, R. (2009) *Definitions, Good Practices, And Global Estimates On The Status Of Social Protection For International Migrants*. Social Protection discussion paper; no. SP 0909. Washington D.C.: World Bank.

to security institutions.²⁰⁷ "Firewalls" should be implemented by service providers, removing barriers for migrants including irregular migrants to access services.²⁰⁸

Coordination is needed among institutions on a local, national, regional and international level to collect disaggregated data on migrants' access to services. International organizations should revise current monitoring frameworks to include standards of disaggregating by migratory status.

Finally, to inform programming and supplement national census data, surveys should be conducted with purposeful and opportunistic sampling strategies that focus on the needs of hard-to-reach migrant groups, usually invisible in datasets, and situations where there are concentrated movements of people.²⁰⁹

²⁰⁷ Nicolai, S., J. Wales and E. Aiazzi. "Education, migration and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development", ODI Briefing, ODI: London, 2017.

²⁰⁸ ODI and British Red Cross, "Ensuring effective access to essential basic services for all migrants through the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration", Conference Report, London: ODI, 9 May 2018.

²⁰⁹ See, for example, the work of Refugee Rights Europe, collecting data on refugees in informal settings and camps across Europe, including access to basic services. Available from <http://refugeerights.org.uk/reports> (accessed 17 November 2018).

Public opinion on migration

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Public attitudes on migration are relevant to the implementation of the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration, insofar as they are likely to influence policymakers, as they aim to create optimal and sustainable migration governance systems – locally, regionally and globally – in the coming years. A correct understanding of what public attitudes towards migration look like and how they influence decision makers is essential in helping States deliver on Objective 17 of the Global Compact, which is to “Eliminate all forms of discrimination and promote evidence-based public discourse to shape perceptions of migration”. In addition to shaping and influencing migration policy, public opinion on migration may influence the degree to which migrants integrate into their receiving communities, with important implications for the ability of States to deliver on other objectives of the Global Compact, including Objective 16, which is to “Empower migrants and societies to realize full inclusion and social cohesion.”

Mapping and understanding what shapes public attitudes is particularly critical at a time when immigration is often perceived as one of the most important political issues facing countries around the world, with significant implications for election outcomes and migration policies. Data on public opinion on migration can be a useful indicator of how open receiving societies are towards immigration and ethnic diversity. Meanwhile, the availability and accuracy of data related to migration, and how migration data are presented in the media can affect public opinion: A lack of comprehensive and nuanced information on migration can inflate stereotypical public perceptions of immigration and its effects in host communities. For example, people tend to significantly overestimate the size of the immigrant population in their countries.²¹⁰

What we know about public opinion on migration globally

The data available on public attitudes on migration are more plentiful than ever. Surveys of public opinion on migration are common in many countries and there is a large variation in polls or survey questions that measure public opinion on migration (see some examples below).²¹¹ Typically, these polls tend to ask citizens about their perceptions of immigrants and of the effects of immigration in their countries, as well as about their preferences regarding to migration policies.

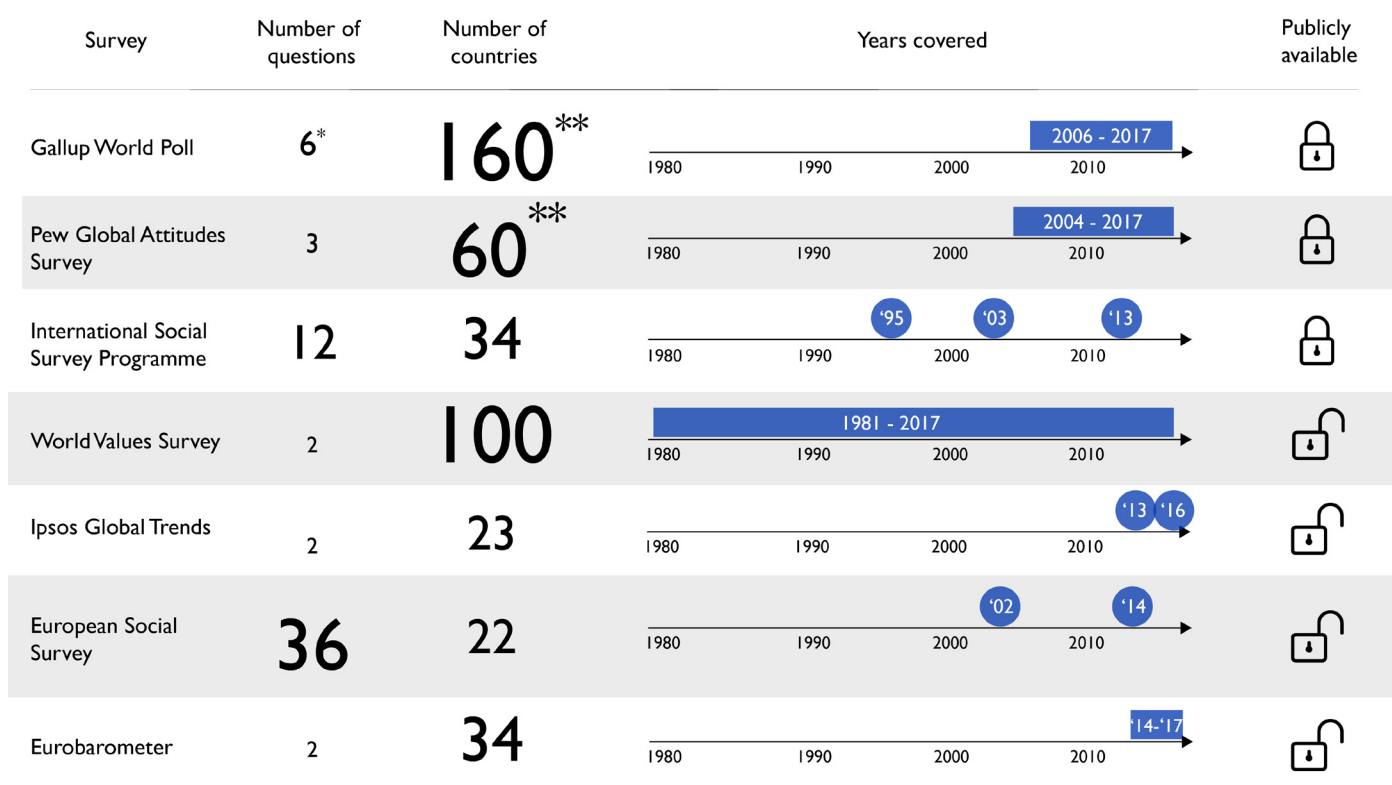
Globally, public opinion is divided on the question of whether to increase, decrease or keep present immigration levels

Findings of IOM’s “*How the World Views Migration*” report,²¹² based on data from the Gallup World Poll collected in 2012–2014, show that on average in countries around the world, 34 per cent of the population would like to see immigration decreased, 21 per cent increased, and 22 per cent kept at its present level. Moreover, in every major region of the world – with the important exception of Europe – people are more likely to want immigration levels

²¹⁰ World Economic Forum (2016). Why you’re probably wrong about immigration. Available from www.weforum.org/agenda/2016/03/why-you-re-probably-wrong-about-immigration

²¹¹ These are in addition to a number of national election studies.

²¹² International Organization for Migration, *How the World Views Migration* (Geneva, 2015). Available from https://publications.iom.int/system/files/how_the_world_gallup.pdf (accessed 19 November 2018). This report provides an overview of public attitudes towards immigration globally. Drawing on data from the Gallup World Poll, the report details results from surveys conducted in more than 140 countries from 2012 to 2014 and based on interviews with over 183,000 adults.

Figure 1: Surveys measuring public opinion on migration

Source: GMDAC research based on publicly available information, 2017.

Notes: * 3 out of 6 questions have only been introduced in 2016.

** The number of countries covered varies by year.

© IOM 2017 www.migrationdataportal.org

in their countries to either stay at the present level or to increase, rather than to decrease. This contrasts with the negative perceptions of migration often portrayed in the media in certain regions of the world, although this is heavily influenced by national contexts, with countries in East Asia showing particular opposition to immigration.

Indeed, there are large differences in public opinion between regions. People in Europe tend to hold more negative views towards immigration, with the majority (52%) saying immigration levels should be decreased. On the contrary, attitudes towards immigration levels are more positive in the United States (US), with the majority (63%) saying immigration levels should be increased.

More positive attitudes to immigration and ethnic diversity in the US relative to Europe were confirmed in a 2016 poll from the Pew Research Center, with 58 per cent of the people in the US believing that having more people of different races, ethnic groups and nationalities makes the US a better place to live, compared with 22.8 per cent (median percentage) of the European population. However, when disaggregating the European median percentage (22.8%) by country, the figures for Sweden (36%), the United Kingdom (33%) and Spain (31%) were higher than the median percentage for the entire region.²¹³

Public opinion differs depending on migrant and respondent characteristics and contextual factors

A host of factors drive public opinion on immigration, though these are often difficult to isolate. Such factors may include the history and size of the immigrant population, its level of ethnic diversity, the origin, religion, and skill level of immigrants, socioeconomic factors in the receiving country, as well as individual characteristics of the survey respondents, such as age, education and employment status.

The *How the World Views Migration* report found that certain sociodemographic characteristics are more consistently associated with favourable or opposing attitudes to immigration. For instance, adults with a university degree are typically more likely than those with lower levels of education to want to see immigration kept at its present level or increased in their countries.²¹⁴

The report also found that people's views about their personal and their countries' economic situations correlate with their views of immigration: Those who perceive economic situations as poor or worsening are more likely to favour lower immigration levels into their countries, and vice versa.²¹⁵

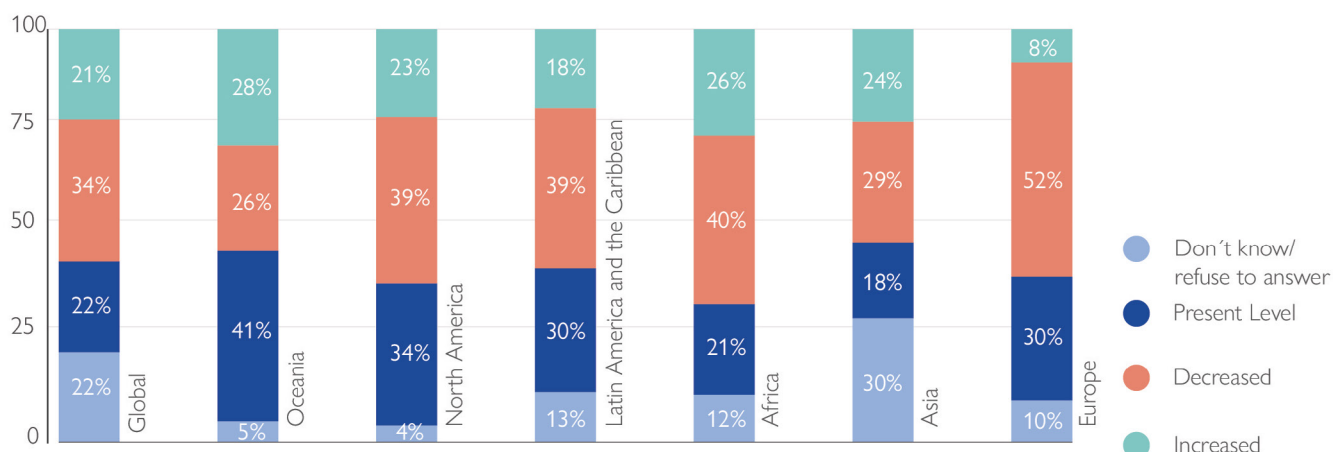
²¹³Pew Research Center, "Europeans not convinced growing diversity is a good thing, divided on what determines national identity", 11 July 2016. Available from www.pewglobal.org/2016/07/11/europeans-not-convinced-growing-diversity-is-a-good-thing-divided-on-what-determines-national-identity (accessed 19 November 2018).

²¹⁴International Organization for Migration, *How the World Views Migration* (Geneva, 2015). Available from https://publications.iom.int/system/files/how_the_world_gallup.pdf (accessed 19 November 2018).

²¹⁵Ibid.

Figure 2: Attitudes towards immigration by region (%)

In your view, should immigration in this country be kept at its present level, increased or decreased?



Notes: *Total group results are weighted by population size. Figures might not add up to 100% due to rounding.

Source: International Organization for Migration, *How the World Views Migration* (Geneva, 2015). Available from https://publications.iom.int/system/files/how_the_world_gallup.pdf

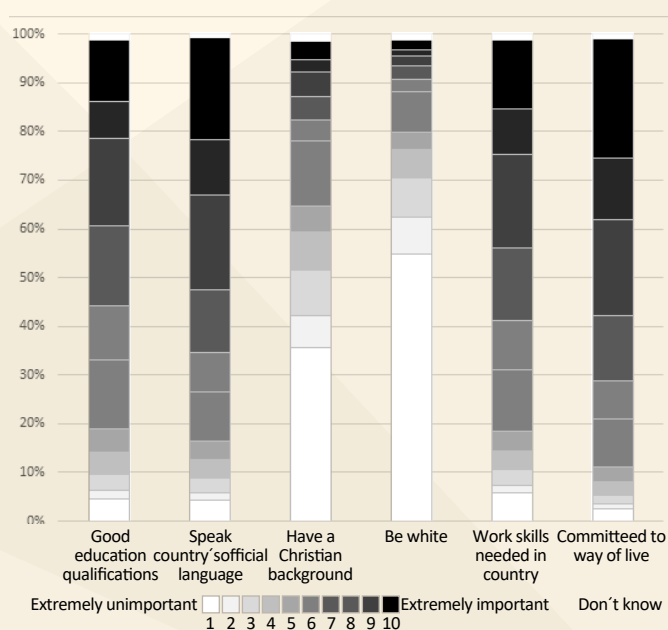
Case study: European attitudes on immigration are multidimensional

Public opinion on immigration is nuanced along a number of dimensions. This is evident, for instance, in results of surveys asking whether Europeans are positive about immigrants from outside the European Union, compared with immigrants from other European Union member States. Although European attitudes on both groups of immigrants have become markedly more positive in recent years, there is a consistent 40–50 per cent gap between the two approval rates. Another example of nuanced attitudes on migration includes the overwhelming support among Western countries for accepting refugees,²¹⁶ compared to the relative low acceptance of low-skilled labour migrants, as shown by the European Social Survey (2014).

Evidence that citizens' attitudes towards immigration are nuanced can be found not only in surveys revealing differing opinions depending on migrants' reason for moving — asylum, family reunification, study, work, etc.—but also in the opinions expressed regarding the qualifications people find necessary for immigrants to be allowed entry. As shown in Figure 3, Europeans overwhelmingly regard immigrants' commitment to adopt the country's way of life and development of linguistic skills as vital conditions for entry; their employability and education levels are seen as slightly less important, and having a Christian background or being of a certain ethnicity are considered far less important in determining whether to accept or exclude them, as shown below. These results are in line with other findings from the political science literature.²¹⁷

Nuances in public opinion about migration are also evident in responses to the European Social Survey's question "Do you believe that immigrants have a good or bad effect on the following issues?". The issues included crime, government budgets, jobs, quality of life, the economy and culture. There are important differences in the perceived impact of immigration across these areas among Europeans — immigration is seen as having a particularly negative impact on crime, jobs and the economy, as opposed to culture and quality of life. However, these results ignore the fact that Europeans have vastly different views of the effects of different groups of immigrants on each of these issues.

Figure 3: Answers to the question "To what extent are the following important qualifications for accepting or excluding immigrants?"



Source: European Social Survey, 2014.

²¹⁶ Pew Research Center, "A majority of Europeans favor taking in refugees, but most disapprove of EU's handling of the issue", 19 September 2018. Available from www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2018/09/19/a-majority-of-europeans-favor-taking-in-refugees-but-most-disapprove-of-eus-handling-of-the-issue (accessed 19 November 2018).

²¹⁷ See, for example, Taylor and Francis Online, "Acceptable and Unacceptable Immigrants: How Opposition to Immigration in Britain is Affected by Migrants' Region of Origin", 26 April 2011. Available from www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/1369183X.2011.572423 (accessed 19 November 2018).

Data challenges

Understanding public opinion about migration and what factors influence perceptions of the phenomenon is important for countries and the international community to foster a constructive and balanced public discourse, including through the promotion of independent and accurate media reporting, and of information campaigns on the actual impacts of migration, and to effectively counter xenophobia and stigmatization of migrants, as laid out in Objective 17 of the Global Compact for Migration.

Public opinion surveys should better capture nuance of public opinion on migration

One of the major shortcomings of surveys on attitudes about immigration (with important exceptions) is the tendency to treat “immigration” as a singular issue. By using the vague term “immigration” to describe what is – and what citizens recognize to be – a broad topic, the responses to various questionnaires aimed at understanding public attitudes towards migration may be biased. For example, questionnaires can include questions such as “Do you think immigration is good or bad for the national economy?”. While these questions are of course useful for analysing broad trends over time, and between countries and individuals, focusing on them only ignores increasing evidence that voters have nuanced views of different types of immigration. Moreover, several cognitive biases may lead respondents of surveys to respond with particularly risk-averse – i.e. anti-immigration – answers when confronted with immigration as a singular issue. The tendency to treat migration as a singular issue in attitudinal data is reflected in its singular use by both academic researchers and policymakers. However, survey experiments that randomly vary the characteristics of migrants find that the preferences of respondents are highly responsive to such variation.

In addition to better capturing the nuance of public opinion by specifying type of migration in surveys, **data collection on attitudes about migration needs to address some common challenges in survey methodology:**

- (a) **Data may not be representative:** Data from opinion polls should be collected in a random sample so that everyone in the population being studied has an equal chance of participating. Otherwise, the results could be biased and not fully representative of the population.
- (b) **Respondents may interpret the same questions differently:** Different respondents understand or interpret the same survey questions differently. This is considered a measurement error. For example, the word “migrant” in a survey can mean different things to different people. Some may think the term refers to asylum seekers, while others would associate it with labour migrants or irregular migrants.

(c) **Data do not always show why the public holds certain views on migration:** Public opinion polls on migration provide insights into public views on migration-related issues, but they do not always explain why people hold certain views or what could prompt them to change their minds.

(d) **Questions in polls tend to focus on immigration rather than emigration:** This means surveys that focus on people’s attitudes towards immigration are less relevant to countries with low immigration and high emigration rates. Therefore, in order to gauge a population’s general views on emigration, surveys should include questions about emigration or returning migrants.

Assisted voluntary return and reintegration

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Assisted voluntary return and reintegration (AVRR) is an indispensable part of a comprehensive approach to migration management. It contributes to achieving safe, orderly and dignified migration, as it safeguards the human rights of migrants, upholds international principles and standards, and contributes to preserving the integrity of regular migration structures and asylum systems.²¹⁸

IOM has a long history of AVRR programme implementation, dating back to 1979 and involving more than 1.6 million migrants assisted by 2017. Implemented in cooperation with governmental, non-governmental organizations and diaspora communities, AVRR provides vital assistance to tens of thousands of migrants returning home voluntarily every year under a diverse range of circumstances. AVRR relies on partnerships and institutional dialogue, as well as data collection, monitoring and evaluation for evidence-based policy and programme formulation.

AVRR represents a humane and dignified manner for a migrant to return to his/her country of origin (subject to safeguards such as risk and needs assessments), whatever the reason may be, including a rejected or withdrawn application for asylum, having fallen victim to human trafficking, exploitation or extortion, being in an irregular situation, or lacking the means to return.

AVRR legal foundations are anchored in international and rest on two main pillars

(a) The protection of the rights of migrants during the return and reintegration process. The rights of migrants within a State's territory, or otherwise under that State's jurisdiction, must be respected and protected, regardless of their nationality or migration status, and without discrimination, in order to preserve their safety, physical integrity, well-being and dignity.

(b) State sovereignty. States have the sovereign right to determine who may enter and remain on their territory, subject to their respective obligations under international law.

AVRR contributes to ensuring safe, orderly, and dignified migration by observing the following principles²¹⁹

PRINCIPLE 1. *Voluntariness*: This principle has two components, i.e. (a) freedom of choice, i.e. the absence of physical or psychological pressure to enrol in an AVRR programme; and (b) an informed decision which requires the availability of timely, unbiased and reliable information upon which to base the decision.

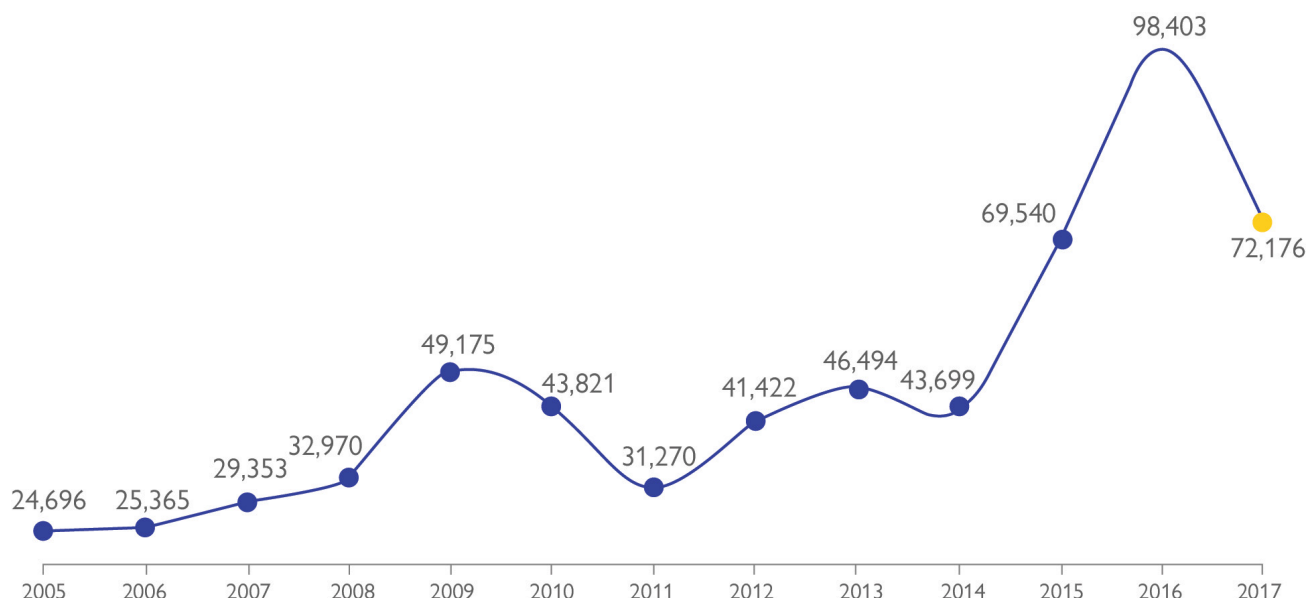
PRINCIPLE 2. *Migrant-centred response*: Put the rights and the needs of the migrant at the forefront. Individual assessments should be undertaken to provide tailored, gender and age-sensitive support to each migrant throughout the process.

PRINCIPLE 3. *Safety*: Account for safety considerations, e.g. the general level of security, and operational challenges that may affect the provision of return and reintegration assistance.

²¹⁸ For more info on AVRR, see IOM AVRR Key Highlights 2017: www.iom.int/sites/default/files/our_work/DMM/AVRR/avrr-2017-key-highlights.pdf, IOM AVRR Bulletin January-June 2018: www.iom.int/sites/default/files/our_work/DMM/AVRR/avrr_bulletin_2018_q2.pdf, and IOM Thematic Papers www.iom.int/sites/default/files/our_work/ODG/GCM/IOM-Thematic-Paper-Integrated-Approach-to-Reintegration.pdf and www.iom.int/sites/default/files/our_work/ODG/GCM/IOM-Thematic-Paper-Assisted-Voluntary-Return-and-Reintegration.pdf

²¹⁹ For more details, please see: IOM, A Framework for Assisted Voluntary Return and Reintegration (2018, forthcoming)

Figure 1: Number of AVRR beneficiaries per year from 2005 to 2017



Source: International Organization for Migration, Number of AVRR beneficiaries per year from 2005-2017 in: AVRR Key Highlights 2017, available from <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/avrr-2017-key-highlights.pdf>

The sex distribution (68% male, 32% female) remained the same as in 2017. 25 per cent of AVRR beneficiaries in 2017 were children, which is comparable to the share of children assisted with AVRR in 2016 (27%). More than half of returnees (52%) were aged between 18 and 40.

Figure 2: Sex breakdown of AVRR beneficiaries

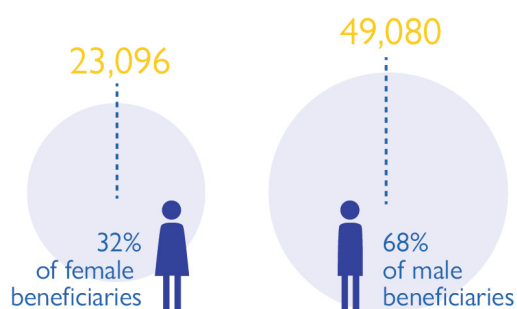
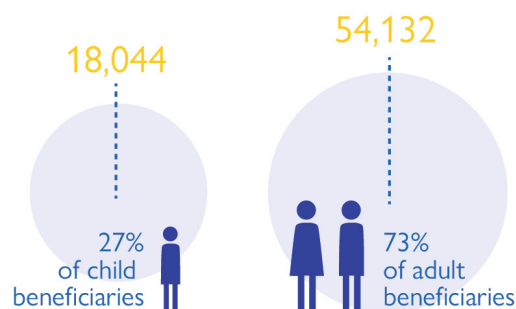


Figure 3: Age breakdown of AVRR beneficiaries



Source: International Organization for Migration, Number of AVRR beneficiaries per year from 2005-2017 in: AVRR Key Highlights 2017, available from <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/avrr-2017-key-highlights.pdf>

PRINCIPLE 4. Sustainability of reintegration: Reintegration can be considered sustainable when returnees have reached levels of economic self-sufficiency, social stability within their communities, and psychosocial well-being that allow them to cope with (re)migration drivers.

PRINCIPLE 5. Confidentiality: Respect migrant privacy by putting in place strict institutional safeguards for handling personal data of AVRR beneficiaries, taking all reasonable and necessary precautions to preserve the confidentiality of personal data and the anonymity of individuals.²²⁰

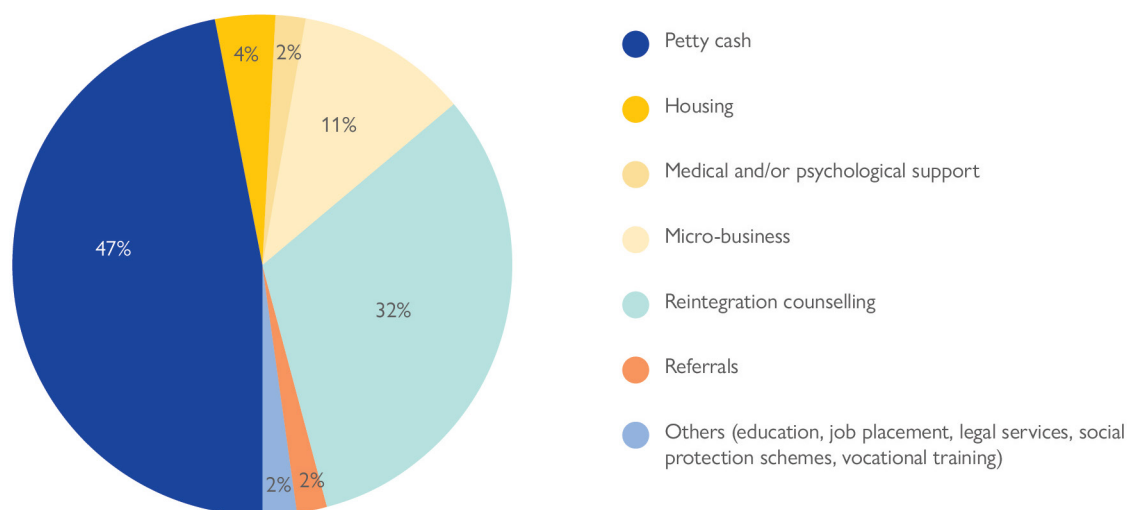
PRINCIPLE 6. Dialogue and partnerships: Fostering constructive and balanced exchanges between stakeholders involved at different stages of the AVRR process, to enhance the range and quality of return assistance available to migrants, avoid duplication of

efforts and strengthen the sustainability of reintegration processes.

PRINCIPLE 7. Evidence-based programming: Establish systematic and continuous data collection, monitoring and evaluation throughout the entire AVRR process to understand the impact of AVRR interventions and inform ongoing and future programme design.

AVRR is critical in the context of **transit migration**, as it provides assistance to stranded migrants who are in distress and are often destitute, or who lack the means to continue their journey, be they in a regular or in an irregular situation. Conversely, the lack of such programmes can exacerbate the vulnerability experienced by specific groups – in particular, unaccompanied and separated migrant children, those with health needs, and victims of trafficking – and can present an additional burden for national assistance care systems in host countries.

²²⁰ This includes, among others, the principle of lawful and fair collection of data, for a specified and legitimate purpose, the principles of consent, confidentiality, access and transparency and data security. See for example IOM Data Protection Principles available from https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/iomdataprotection_web.pdf

Figure 4: Reintegration activities implemented in 2017, in percentage (%)

Source: International Organization for Migration, Number of AVRR beneficiaries per year from 2005-2017 in: AVRR Key Highlights 2017, available from <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/avrr-2017-key-highlights.pdf>

From a **State perspective**, AVRR is a consensual and cost-effective option that helps strengthen the integrity of asylum systems, while avoiding a systematic and generally costly use of law enforcement. For countries of origin, AVRR fosters the economic, social and psychosocial reintegration of returnees in the communities to which they return. AVRR also complements and supports the capacities of host countries, transit countries and countries of origin by assisting migrants through travel document acquisition, counselling, travel arrangements and arrival assistance, among others.

Trends

In recent years, in line with the increase in the number of migrants travelling irregularly, including forcibly displaced people, particularly in certain regions of the world, the number of returns has also significantly increased. In 2015, IOM provided AVRR services to more than 69,000 migrants, and this number reached more than 98,000 in 2016. In 2017, beneficiaries of IOM AVRR programmes decreased by 27 per cent to 72,000. This decrease can be explained by a combination of structural and contextual factors, that vary from country to country. The 2015–2017 figures represent a considerable increase in comparison with the average number of migrants assisted by IOM every year between 2005 and 2014 (34,000 per year on average). Recent trends also indicate that South-South returns, including from transit countries, are also increasing.²²¹

In 2017, the number of beneficiaries returning from the European Economic Area (EEA) decreased by 38 per cent from 50,587 compared to 81,671 in 2016. The EEA nevertheless remained the main region from which migrants returned (70% of the total caseload), mainly to Iraq, Albania and Serbia. On the contrary, the number of migrants returning from the Western and Central African

Regions increased by 42 per cent from 2016 to 7,032 in 2017, accounting for almost 10 per cent of the total number of returns (against 4% in 2016). This trend is expected to continue in 2018.²²²

Despite a 42 per cent decrease relative to 2016, South-eastern Europe, Eastern Europe and Central Asia (SEECA) remained the main region to which migrants returned (39% of the global caseload), followed by Asia and the Pacific (18%). Returns to the West and Central Africa increased by 47 per cent to 10,757, accounting for 15 per cent of the total caseload.²²³

Data and measurement challenges

As the largest global provider of assisted voluntary return (AVR) and assisted voluntary return and reintegration (AVRR) programmes, IOM collects voluntary return data under its various programmes on a regular basis. IOM data include the number of migrants assisted, migrants' host and origin countries, as well as sex, age and reintegration support. IOM data also include information on assisted migrants by specific vulnerability (namely, unaccompanied and separated migrant children, migrants with health-related needs and victims of trafficking). Since 2010, IOM has published key data on IOM's AVRR page.²²⁴

However, challenges and data gaps remain in terms of data on return and reintegration, including:

- Data on forced return and on voluntary return are scattered across different data sources and are often incomplete or only partially publicly available. For example, several countries that implement voluntary return and reintegration programmes (under either IOM or government auspices) are not reported on in the Eurostat database (e.g. Germany, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom).

²²¹ IOM Global Compact Thematic Paper on Assisted Voluntary Return and Reintegration. Available from www.iom.int/sites/default/files/our_work/ODG/GCM/IOM-Thematic-Paper-Assisted-Voluntary-Return-and-Reintegration.pdf

²²² IOM (2018). AVRR Bulletin. Available from www.iom.int/sites/default/files/our_work/DMM/AVRR/avrr_bulletin_2018_q2.pdf

²²³ IOM (2018). AVRR Key Highlights 2017.

²²⁴ IOM, Assisted Voluntary Return and Reintegration section. Available from www.iom.int/assisted-voluntary-return-and-reintegration

- There is a large gap in post-return data, due mainly to the lack of definitions and established indicators for measuring “reintegration”.
- The difficulty of measuring the sustainability of reintegration also results from the long-term and multidimensional nature of the process. Indeed, the monitoring and evaluation exercises undertaken in the field of voluntary return and reintegration have so far primarily examined programmes performance, with a focus on outputs and much less on outcomes.
- Additionally, while focusing on economic interventions supporting the reintegration process, the social and psychosocial dimensions remain understudied.

In order to address these gaps, IOM has developed, on the basis of conclusions from the MEASURE Project, funded by the UK Department for International Development, a new scale of indicators to measure reintegration sustainability at the individual level, together with a scoring system, allowing to measure reintegration outcomes and to facilitate the measurement of returnees’ progress towards sustainability.

Reintegration sustainability

Reintegration can be considered sustainable when returnees have reached levels of economic self-sufficiency, social stability within their communities, and psychosocial well-being that allow them to cope with (re)migration drivers. Having achieved sustainable reintegration, returnees are able to make further migration decisions a matter of choice, rather than necessity.

Promote evidence-based programming by encouraging long-term, systematic and comprehensive data-collection and monitoring and evaluation schemes, to help assess the relevance, effectiveness, and impact of voluntary return and reintegration assistance.

- This includes taking into account gender and the specific needs of migrants in vulnerable situations in the formulation of return-related policies and programmes, and in particular, across AVRR programmes.
- The EU–IOM External Actions in Support of Migrant Protection and Reintegration should also be strengthened, as it contributes to an improvement of data collection on migration flows and profiles. So far, 19 Flow Monitoring Points have been set up in the West and Central Africa region, and are collecting and analysing data, and publishing reports.

Implementing Global Compact for Migration commitments on return and reintegration

In order to enable sustainable return and reintegration, and the effective implementation of the Global Compact for Migration, the following steps should be prioritized in terms of data going forward:

Reinforce return and reintegration data collection and monitoring systems globally, through the adoption of harmonized sets of indicators and monitoring procedures.

- This will allow for the assessment and comparative analyses of the relevance, effectiveness, impact and sustainability of reintegration assistance programming at all three levels of intervention (individual, community and structural).
- Harmonized sets of indicators and monitoring procedures are necessary for comparative research and to analyse the impact of reintegration assistance for beneficiaries returning under different circumstances, in different contexts, and between different countries, as well as in comparison to the local population.

Improving migration data to implement the Global Compact for Migration

IOM's Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (GMDAC)

There is consensus on the importance of data, but limited action and investment

Well-managed migration builds on reliable data and evidence. Too often, data are seen as the realm of technical experts operating in back rooms. Yet data are essential to produce real-life results. They are needed to identify challenges, design responses, monitor implementation and evaluate the effects of migration policies.

While there is consensus among policy experts and academics alike that better migration data are needed, too little has been achieved in the recent decade.²²⁵ Data on migration are still often unavailable or not comparable, or they are fragmented, outdated or poor in quality, particularly in low-income countries. The share of official development assistance focused on data and statistics was 0.33 per cent in 2016,²²⁶ with only a small fraction of this investment dedicated to migration data.

While data do not necessarily translate into effective and sensible policies, lack of data hinders the ability of policymakers to make informed decisions and design targeted policies. Poor communication of data can also feed common misperceptions about migration, which can harm migrants and hamper national development efforts.²²⁷

Data are crucial for countries to deliver on the Global Compact for Migration

The Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration provides renewed momentum to invest in migration data at the local, national, regional and global levels. Quality data are a necessary condition for implementing the Global Compact for Migration and achieving its various benefits, as highlighted throughout this volume.²²⁸ The figure shows examples of data that

will be key in delivering those benefits. There are many ongoing initiatives and practical experiences in using data to inform evidence-based policymaking across five key Global Compact for Migration objective “clusters”: (a) strengthening regular migration pathways; (b) reducing vulnerabilities associated with migration; (c) promoting migrant integration; (d) improving migration management; and (e) enhancing the development effects of migration.

(a) How data inform regular migration pathways

Strengthening regular migration pathways – for example, for workers – requires various data points to identify skill shortages in local labour market segments and to match foreign talent with these. Most Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries use a combination of labour market indicators (e.g. employment, occupation and wages) and private sector information (e.g. vacancies, salary changes and skill profiles).²²⁹ To match the identified labour market shortages with foreign labour supply, countries need data on, for example, the educational credentials, job experience and language skills of migrants.

Data are also crucial for other types of regular migration pathways, including resettlement, family reunification or international student mobility. For example, data can be used to allocate resettled refugees more effectively to improve their integration outcomes.²³⁰

(b) How data can reduce vulnerabilities linked to migration

Data allow users to provide targeted assistance for migrants in vulnerable situations. Innovative, real-time data sources – such as mobile phone call detail records, geo-located social media activity, IP addresses and satellite imagery – have proven effective in estimating the likelihood of displacement and directing assistance to displaced populations after natural disasters.²³¹ For

²²⁵ Willekens, F., D. Massey, J. Raymer and C. Beauchemin, “International migration under the microscope”, *Science*, 352(6288):897–899 (2016). Available from <http://science.sciencemag.org/content/352/6288/897> (accessed 26 November 2018). Fargues, F., “Advancing Knowledge on International Migration: Data and Research Needs”, International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, Policy and Research Papers No. 24 (2018). Available from <https://iussp.org/sites/default/files/prp24.pdf> (accessed 26 November 2018).

²²⁶ Paris 21, “Partner report on support to statistics – Press 2018”. Available from http://paris21.org/sites/default/files/inline-files/PRESS2018_V3_PRINT_sans%20repres_OK_0.pdf (accessed 26 November 2018).

²²⁷ Ipsos, “Perils of perception 2015 – a 33 country study”. Available from www.ipsos.com/sites/default/files/2017-07/ipsos-perils-of-perception-charts-2015.pdf (accessed 26 November 2018). Alesina, A., A. Miano and S. Stantcheva, Immigration and Redistribution, NBER Working Paper No. 24733, 2018. Available from www.nber.org/papers/w24733 (accessed 26 November 2018).

²²⁸ International Organization for Migration, “International Migration Statistics”, IOM Global Compact Thematic Paper (2017). Available from www.iom.int/sites/default/files/our_work/ODG/GCM/IOMThematicPaper-InternationalMigrationStatistics.pdf (accessed 26 November 2018).

International Organization for Migration, Global Migration Data Analysis Centre, “Data Bulletin: Improving data for safe, orderly and regular migration” (Geneva, 2018). Available from <https://gmdac.iom.int/data-bulletin-improving-data-for-safe-orderly-and-regular-migration> (accessed 26 November 2018). These outline key GCM data demands and suggested actions.

²²⁹ Chaloff, J., “Evidence-based regulation of labour migration in OECD countries: setting quotas, selection criteria, and shortage lists” (2014), *Migration Letters*, 11(1). Available from <https://migrationfiles.ucdavis.edu/uploads/rs/files/2013/04/chaloff-structuring-paper.pdf> (accessed 26 November 2018).

²³⁰ Immigration Policy Lab, “Improving refugee integration through data-driven algorithmic assignment” (2018). Available from <https://immigrationlab.org/publication/improving-refugee-integration-data-driven-algorithmic-assignment> (accessed 26 November 2018).

²³¹ Global Pulse, “Social Media and Forced Displacement: Big Data Analytics and Machine-learning” (2017). Available from http://unglobalpulse.org/sites/default/files/White%20Paper%20Social%20Media%203_0.pdf (accessed 26 November 2018). Gething, P., Tatem, A., “Can Mobile Phone Data Improve Emergency Response to Natural Disasters?” *PLOS Medicine* (2011). Available

Figure 1: Data needed to achieve the benefits of GCM implementation

Theme	Data needed
1 Strengthen regular migration pathways	▪ Data on skill shortages and demographic trends, resettlement, family reunification, irregular migration flows, recruitment costs.
2 Reduce vulnerabilities associated with migration	▪ Data on displacement, trafficking, modern slavery, exploitation, migrant fatalities, irregular migrant populations, forced and assisted return, unaccompanied minors.
3 Promote migrant integration	▪ Data on migrants' labour market, education and health outcomes, experience of discrimination, skills mismatch, and public opinion on immigration.
4 Improve migration management	▪ Data on irregular migration flows, migrant smuggling, return and reintegration, administrative data on asylum claims, law enforcement, border control, visa processing times.
5 Enhance the development effects of migration	▪ Data on remittances, remittances cost, diaspora profiles, migration-related development assistance

instance, after the 2015 earthquake in Nepal, Flowminder was able to trace the flow of about 400,000 people within less than two weeks. IOM's Displacement Tracking Matrix is designed to regularly capture and disseminate information to provide a better understanding of the evolving needs of displaced populations. The Counter-Trafficking Data Collaborative publishes harmonized data from anti-human-trafficking organizations around the world, to improve understanding of modern slavery globally and inform appropriate responses. IOM's Missing Migrants Project collates data on migrants who die or go missing along migration routes worldwide to raise awareness of the issue and enable policy action.²³²

(c) How data are needed to monitor integration

Most European Union and OECD countries have set up comprehensive tools to monitor migrant integration – for example, on the dimensions of employment, education and housing – based on data from household surveys, as well as administrative records and censuses.²³³ Such data-driven monitoring allows governments to target investments and track policy effects over time. For example, immigrants' employment rates can be increased by 15 to 20 percentage points by using data to identify language gaps early on and provide targeted local access to language classes.²³⁴

(d) How data are used for migration management

Operational data are crucial for addressing various aspects of migration management – including visa processing, asylum procedures, border management and return – and countering migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons. For example, IOM uses data to assess reintegration outcomes of voluntary returnees.²³⁵ In 2018, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime estimated the extent and revenues of migrant smuggling along 30 routes worldwide.²³⁶ The European Border and Coast Guard Agency collects and compiles data on detections of illegal border crossings, refusals at entry, fraudulent documents and clandestine entries.²³⁷

(e) How data can boost development

The World Bank estimates the volume of remittances globally and the cost of sending remittances home along main migration corridors.²³⁸ Countries may use surveys, censuses and publicly available administrative data to understand relevant aspects of their nationals abroad. A comprehensive overview of diaspora is a starting point for designing outreach programmes and promoting knowledge and skills transfer.²³⁹ Microlevel census data have been used to disaggregate migration-relevant Sustainable Development Goals by migration status.²⁴⁰

from <http://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1001085>. Rango, M., "How big data can help migrants", World Economic Forum (2015). Available from www.weforum.org/agenda/2015/10/how-big-data-can-help-migrants (accessed 26 November 2018).

²³² See Missing Migrants Project. Available from missingmigrants.iom.int (accessed 26 November 2018).

²³³ Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, "Indicators of immigrant integration – Settling in" (2015). Available from www.oecd.org/publications/indicators-of-immigrant-integration-2015-settling-in-9789264234024-en.htm (accessed 26 November 2018). Huddleston, T., J. Niessen and J. Tjaden, "Using EU Indicators of Immigrant Integration", European Commission (2013). Available from <https://ec.europa.eu/migrant-integration/librarydoc/using-eu-indicators-of-immigrant-integration> (accessed 26 November 2018).

²³⁴ International Organization for Migration and McKinsey and Company, *More than Numbers: How migration data can deliver real-life benefits for migrants and governments* (2018). Available from https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/more_than_numbers.pdf (accessed 26 November 2018).

²³⁵ Samuel Hall and International Organization for Migration, "Setting standards for an integrated approach to reintegration" (2017). Available from www.iom.int/sites/default/files/our_work/DMM/AVRR/IOM_SAMUEL_HALL_MEASURE_REPORT%202017.pdf (accessed 26 November 2018).

²³⁶ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, "Global study on smuggling of migrants" (2018). Available from www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/glosom/GLOSOM_2018_web_small.pdf (accessed 26 November 2018).

²³⁷ Frontex, "Risk analysis for 2017" (2017). Available from <https://data.europa.eu/euodp/data/storage/f/2017-02-16T145249/Annual%20Risk%20Analysis%202017.pdf> (accessed 27 November 2018).

²³⁸ World Bank, "Migration and Remittances Data" (2017). Available from www.worldbank.org/en/topic/migrationremittancesdiasporaissues/brief/migration-remittances-data (accessed 27 November 2018).

²³⁹ Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, "Connecting with Emigrants – A Global Profile of Diasporas 2015" (2015). Available from www.oecd.org/migration/connecting-with-emigrants-9789264239845-en.htm (accessed 27 November 2018).

²⁴⁰ Jeffers, K., J. Tjaden and F. Laczko, A pilot study on disaggregating SDG

Such analysis helps countries identify where migrants are disadvantaged and excluded from overall progress in a country.

How data can be used to track overall progress of the Global Compact for Migration

The benefits of the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration will not materialize overnight. While “quick wins” may mobilize more action across the board, structural changes are needed to make migration safer, more orderly and more regular in the long run. Consistent and concerted efforts by various stakeholders are required to put the Global Compact for Migration into practice, and data at all levels are needed to enable tracking toward targeted outcomes. At the national level, countries will need data to systematically and continuously monitor progress toward implementation of the Global Compact for Migration. The Compact encourages countries to “conduct regular and inclusive reviews of progress at the national level”, and thereby enables authorities to adjust in all areas, from overall strategy to resource allocation. National monitoring and benchmarking tools can assist this process. Established approaches – such as IOM Migration Profiles²⁴¹ and IOM Migration Governance Indicators²⁴² – have also proven to be useful baselines for assessing migration policy structures and data needs at the national level.

At the international level, the International Migration Review Forum²⁴³ will assess the extent to which States have fulfilled the goal of improving migration management as part of the Global Compact for Migration. Data aggregated at the global level are needed to monitor these improvements; this requires the international community to work together to further strengthen and harmonize data collection and analysis.

indicators by migratory status (International Organization for Migration, Geneva, 2018). Available from https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/a_pilot_study_on_disaggregating_sdg_indicators.pdf (accessed 27 November 2018).

²⁴¹ International Organization for Migration, “Migration Profiles” (Geneva, 2018). Available from www.iom.int/migration-profiles (accessed 27 November 2018). Migration Profiles – a tool referenced in the Global Compact for Migration – are an elaborate consultation process with many different actors that help identify and develop strategies to address data gaps and produce the evidence required to inform policy.

²⁴² International Organization for Migration, “Migration Governance Indicators” (Geneva, 2018). Available from <https://gmdac.iom.int/migration-governance-indicators> (accessed 27 November 2018).

²⁴³ The International Migration Review Forum serves as “the primary intergovernmental global platform for Member States to discuss and share progress on the implementation of all aspects of the Global Compact”.

Annex

Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration:

List of objectives

1 BETTER DATA	Collect and utilize accurate and disaggregated data as a basis for evidence-based policies
2 DRIVERS	Minimize the adverse drivers and structural factors that compel people to leave their country of origin
3 BETTER INFORMATION	Provide accurate and timely information at all stages of migration
4 LEGAL DOCUMENTS	Ensure that all migrants have proof of legal identity and adequate documentation
5 REGULAR PATHWAYS	Enhance availability and flexibility of pathways for regular migration
6 ETHICAL RECRUITMENT AND DECENT WORK	Facilitate fair and ethical recruitment and safeguard conditions that ensure decent work
7 VULNERABILITIES	Address and reduce vulnerabilities in migration
8 MISSING MIGRANTS	Save lives and establish coordinated international efforts on missing migrants
9 SMUGGLING	Strengthen the transnational response to smuggling of migrants
10 TRAFFICKING	Prevent, combat and eradicate trafficking in persons in the context of international migration
11 BORDER MANAGEMENT	Manage borders in an integrated, secure and coordinated manner
12 ASSESSMENT AND REFERRAL	Strengthen certainty and predictability in migration procedures for appropriate screening, assessment and referral

13 DETENTION	Use migration detention only as a measure of last resort and work towards alternatives
14 CONSULAR PROTECTION	Enhance consular protection, assistance and cooperation throughout the migration cycle
15 BASIC SERVICES	Provide access to basic services for migrants
16 FULL INCLUSION	Empower migrants and societies to realize full inclusion and social cohesion
17 DISCRIMINATION AND PERCEPTIONS	Eliminate all forms of discrimination and promote evidence-based public discourse to shape perceptions of migration
18 SKILLS TRAINING AND RECOGNITION	Invest in skills development and facilitate mutual recognition of skills, qualifications and competences
19 DIASPORA	Create conditions for migrants and diasporas to fully contribute to sustainable development in all countries
20 REMITTANCES	Promote faster, safer and cheaper transfer of remittances and foster financial inclusion of migrants
21 RETURN AND REINTEGRATION	Cooperate in facilitating safe and dignified return and readmission, as well as sustainable reintegration
22 PORTABILITY OF SOCIAL SECURITY	Establish mechanisms for the portability of social security entitlements and earned benefits
23 PARTNERSHIPS	Strengthen international cooperation and global partnerships for safe, orderly and regular migration

DATA BULLETIN SERIES

Informing the Implementation of the Global Compact for Migration

2018