An aerial, high-angle photograph of a large, dense crowd of people, likely at a public event or festival. The individuals are packed closely together, filling the entire frame. They are wearing a variety of colorful clothing, including t-shirts, blouses, and dresses in shades of blue, red, yellow, and purple. Many people have their arms raised, some with hands open, suggesting a celebratory or interactive atmosphere. The ground is paved with light-colored tiles or stones. The lighting is bright, casting distinct shadows on the pavement. The overall scene conveys a sense of a large-scale gathering and community.

WORLD MIGRATION REPORT 2018:
CHAPTER 2

The opinions expressed in the report are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the International Organization for Migration (IOM). The designations employed and the presentation of material throughout the report do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of IOM concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area, or of its authorities, or concerning its frontiers or boundaries.

All reasonable efforts have been made to ensure the accuracy of the data referred to in this report, including through data verification. We regret, however, any data errors that may remain. Unless otherwise stated, this report does not refer to data or events after June 2017.

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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Cover photo: Syrian refugee children get ready for class in Turkey. Many of these children are originally from Aleppo and escaped the ongoing civil war. Today, the children attend class at the Syrian Social Gathering, a multi-service centre supported by IOM. The centre provides services to all Syrian refugees, such as free legal advice for women, adult education in the evenings, and psychosocial care for those who have undergone traumatic experiences in the Syrian Arab Republic. © IOM (Photo: Muse Mohammed)

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2

MIGRATION AND MIGRANTS: A GLOBAL OVERVIEW

Introduction

Human migration is an age-old phenomenon that stretches back to the earliest periods of human history. In the modern era, emigration and immigration continue to provide States, societies and migrants with many opportunities. At the same time, migration has emerged in the last few years as a critical political and policy challenge in matters such as integration, displacement, safe migration and border management. In 2015, there were an estimated 244 million international migrants globally (3.3% of the world's population) — an increase from an estimated 155 million people in 2000 (2.8% of the world's population).¹ Internal migration is even more prevalent, with the most recent global estimate indicating that more than 740 million people had migrated within their own country of birth.²

It is important to understand international migration and its various manifestations in order to effectively address evolving migration dynamics, while at the same time adequately accounting for the diverse and varied needs of migrants. International movement is becoming more feasible, partly thanks to the digital revolution, distance-shrinking technology and reductions in travel costs.³ Factors underpinning migration are numerous, relating to economic prosperity, inequality, demography, violence and conflict, and environmental change. While the overwhelming majority of people migrate internationally for reasons related to work, family and study, many people leave their homes and countries for other compelling reasons, such as conflict, persecution and disaster. Overall, displaced populations such as refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) comprise a relatively small percentage of all migrants; however, they often capture and demand collective attention and action as they frequently find themselves in highly vulnerable situations. These are the people who are often most in need of assistance.

This chapter, with its focus on key global migration data and trends, seeks to assist migration policymakers, practitioners and researchers in making better sense of the bigger picture of migration, by providing an overview of information on migration and migrants. The chapter draws upon sources of data compiled by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA), the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the International Labour Organization (ILO), the World Bank, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC), the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) and the International Organization for Migration (IOM). The chapter provides an overview of global data and trends on international migrants (stocks) and international migration (flows). It also provides a discussion of particular migrant groups – namely, migrant workers, refugees, asylum seekers and IDPs – as well as of remittances. In addition, the chapter highlights the growing body of programmatic IOM data, particularly on missing migrants, assisted voluntary returns and reintegration, migrant health, resettlement,

1 UN DESA, 2015a.

2 UNDP, 2009.

3 See, for example, chapter 6 of this report on transnational connectivity.

displacement tracking, diaspora mapping and human trafficking. While these data are generally not global or representative, they can provide insights into changes that have occurred in relevant programming and operations globally. As the United Nation's new migration agency, with activities relevant to all the themes discussed in this chapter, IOM has the capacity to provide further insights on migration and its various dynamics, including the diverse needs of migrants.

This chapter also highlights the challenges in achieving comparability and uniformity in data collection that make a comprehensive analysis of global migration trends difficult. Recent and ongoing efforts to collect and improve data have led to an expansion in available migration data. However, issues of fragmentation, and lack of uniformity and comparability, remain key challenges in developing a truly global picture of all key aspects of migration.⁴ Similarly, defining migration and migrants is complex, as discussed in the text box below.

Defining migration, migrant and other key terms

Outside of general definitions of *migration* and *migrant*, such as those found in dictionaries, there exist various specific definitions of key migration-related terms, including in legal, administrative, research and statistical spheres.^a There is no universally agreed definition of *migration* or *migrant*, however, several definitions are widely accepted and have been developed in different settings, such as those set out in UN DESA's 1998 *Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration*.^b

Technical definitions, concepts and categories of migrants and migration are necessarily informed by geographic, legal, political, methodological, temporal and other factors. For example, there are numerous ways in which migration events can be defined, including in relation to place of birth, citizenship, place of residence and duration of stay.^c This is important when it comes to quantifying and analysing the effects of migration and migrants (however defined). We encourage readers to refer to primary sources cited in the chapter for information on specific definitions and categorizations underlying the data. A summary of key technical definitions of migration-related terms is provided in appendix A.

Readers may also find the IOM *Glossary on Migration* to be a useful reference. The glossary is available at the IOM online bookstore: www.publications.iom.int/.

a See, for example, Poulain and Perrin, 2001.

b UN DESA, 1998.

c See, for example, de Beer et al., 2010.

4 In general, explanatory notes, caveats, limitations and methodologies on specific sources of data can be extensive and are therefore not included in this chapter. However, sources have been clearly identified so that readers can refer to them.

International migrants: numbers and trends

UN DESA produces estimates of the number of international migrants globally. The following discussion draws on its estimates, which are based on data provided by States.⁵

The *United Nations Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration* defines an *international migrant* as any person who has changed his or her country of usual residence, distinguishing between “short-term migrants” (those who have changed their country of usual residence for at least three months, but less than one year) and “long-term migrants” (those who have done so for at least one year). However, not all countries use this definition in practice.⁶ Some countries use different criteria to identify international migrants by, for example, applying different minimum durations of residence. Differences in concepts and definitions, as well as data collection methodologies between countries, hinder full comparability of national statistics on international migrants.

Overall, the estimated number of international migrants has increased over the past four-and-a-half decades. The total estimated 244 million people living in a country other than their country of birth in 2015 is almost 100 million more than in 1990 (when it was 153 million), and over three times the estimated number in 1970 (84 million; see table 1).⁷ While the proportion of international migrants globally has increased over this period, it is evident that the vast majority of people continue to live in the country in which they were born. Most international migrants in 2015 (around 72%) were of working age (20 to 64 years of age), with a slight decrease in migrants aged less than 20 between 2000 and 2015 (17% to 15%), and a constant share (around 12%) of international migrants aged 65 years or more since 2000.

Table 1. International migrants, 1970–2015

Year	Number of migrants	Migrants as a % of world's population
1970	84,460,125	2.3%
1975	90,368,010	2.2%
1980	101,983,149	2.3%
1985	113,206,691	2.3%
1990	152,563,212	2.9%
1995	160,801,752	2.8%
2000	172,703,309	2.8%
2005	191,269,100	2.9%
2010	221,714,243	3.2%
2015	243,700,236	3.3%

Source: UN DESA, 2008 and 2015a.

Note: The number of entities (such as States, territories and administrative regions) for which data were made available in the 2015 UN DESA *Revision of International Migrant Stock* was 213. In 1970, the number of entities was 135.

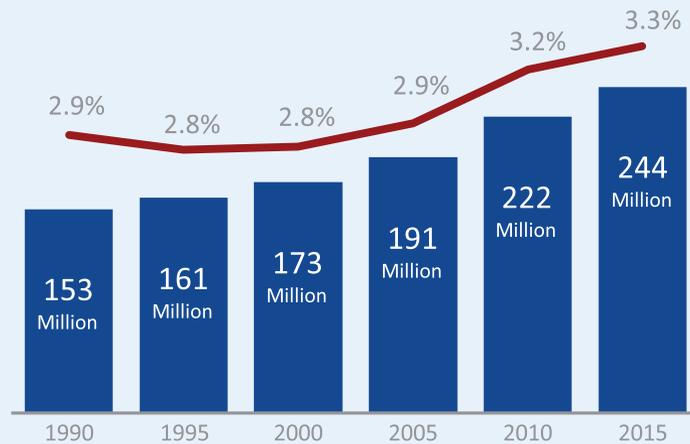
5 Data are also provided to UN DESA by territories and administrative units. For a summary on UN DESA stock data sources, methodology and caveats, please see UN DESA, 2015b.

6 UN DESA, 1998.

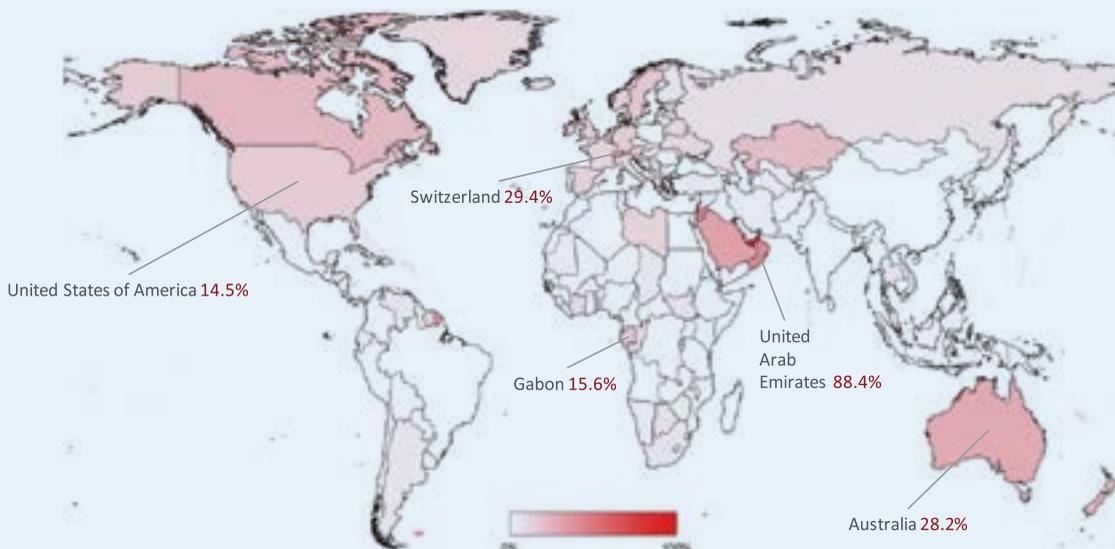
7 UN DESA, 2008.

Snapshot of International Migrants

The international migrant population globally has increased in size but remained relatively stable as a proportion of the world's population

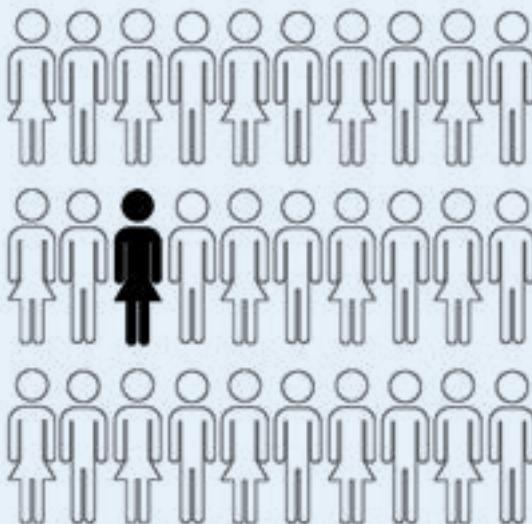


The proportion of international migrants varies significantly around the world

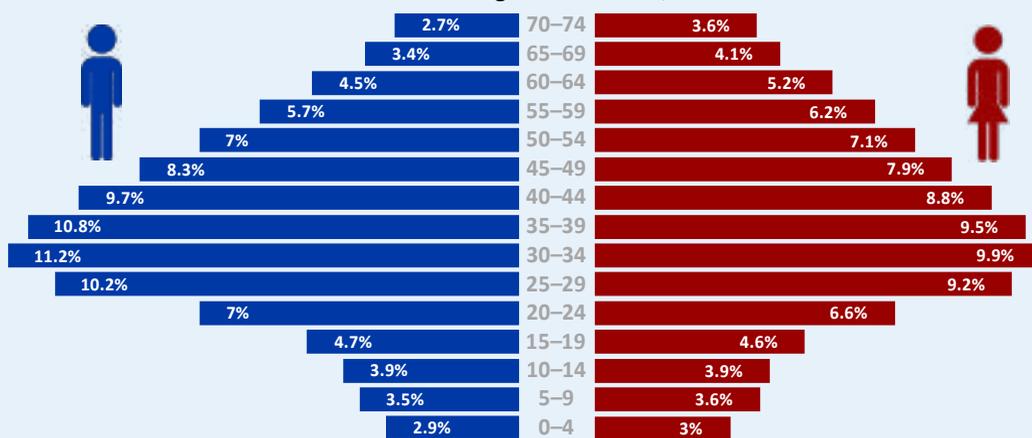


Note: Names and boundaries indicated on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by IOM.

244 million international migrants in 2015 out of a global population of 7.3 billion:
1 in every 30 people



52% of international migrants are male, 48% are female



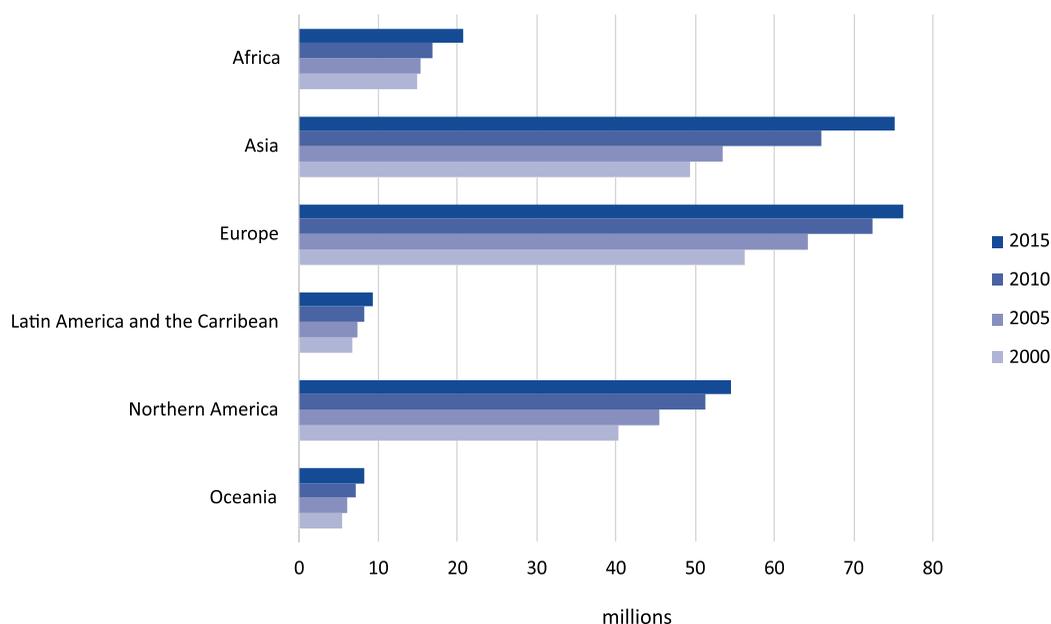
Most international migrants (72%) are of working age (20-64) years

* Age groups above 75 years omitted (male 4.5%, female 6.8%).

Note: Snapshot based on infographics by IOM's Migration Research Division and Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (IOM, 2017d), which draw on UN DESA data (UN DESA, 2015a).

Europe and Asia hosted around 75 million migrants each in 2015 – 62 per cent of the total global international migrant stock combined (see figure 1). These regions were followed by North America, with 54 million international migrants in 2015 or 22 per cent of the global migrant stock, Africa at 9 per cent, Latin America and the Caribbean at 4 per cent, and Oceania at 3 per cent. When compared with the size of the population in each region, shares of international migrants in 2015 were highest in Oceania, North America and Europe, where international migrants represented, respectively, 21 per cent, 15 per cent and 10 per cent of the total population.⁸ In comparison, the share of international migrants is relatively small in Asia and Africa (1.7% each) and Latin America (1.5%). However, Asia is the region where growth in the resident migrant population between 2000 and 2015 was most remarkable, at over 50 per cent (around 25 million people, in absolute terms).⁹

Figure 1. International migrants, by major region of residence, 2000 to 2015 (millions)



Source: UN DESA, 2015a. Datasets available from www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/data/estimates2/estimates15.shtml (accessed 22 June 2017).

The United States of America has been the main country of destination for international migrants since 1970.¹⁰ Since then, the number of foreign-born people residing in the country has almost quadrupled — from less than 12 million in 1970, to 46.6 million in 2015. Germany has been the second top country of destination per UN DESA estimates since as early as 2005, with over 12 million international migrants residing in the country in 2015. Prior to 2005, the Russian Federation had been the second largest host country of international migrants for roughly 15 years, since the fall of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in 1991. A list of the top 20 destination countries of international migrants is provided in the left-hand column of figure 2 below.

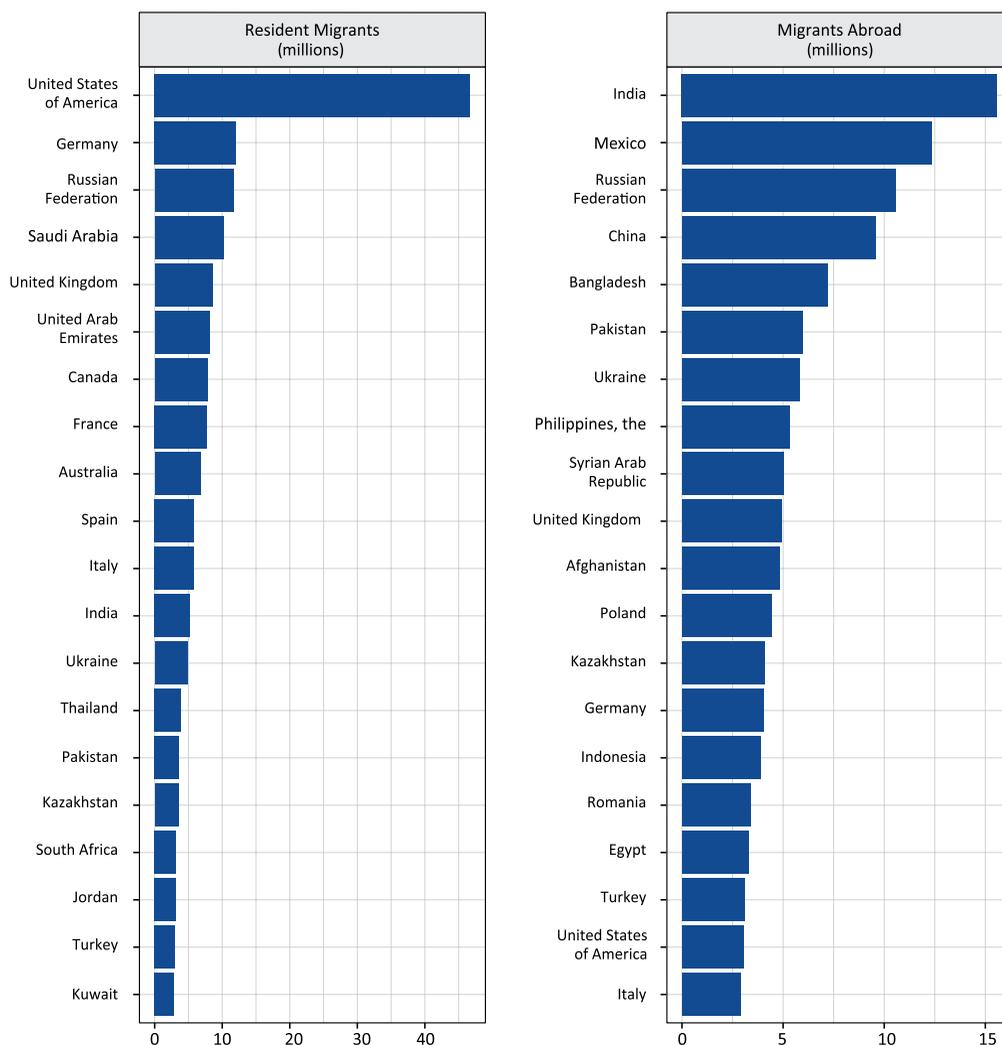
⁸ UN DESA, 2015a.

⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰ UN DESA, 2008; UN DESA, 2015a.

The list of largest migrant source countries is shown in the right-hand panel in figure 2. Nearly half of all international migrants worldwide in 2015 were born in Asia,¹¹ primarily originating from India (the largest country of origin), China, and other South Asian countries such as Afghanistan, Bangladesh and Pakistan. Mexico was the second largest country of origin, followed by a number of European countries that have sizable numbers of emigrants.

Figure 2. Top 20 destinations (left) and origins (right) of international migrants in 2015 (millions)



Source: UN DESA, 2015a. Datasets for the 2015 Revision available at www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/data/estimates2/estimates15.shtml.

11 UN DESA, 2016.

In regard to the distribution of international migrants by countries' income group,¹² about two thirds of international migrants resided in high-income economies in 2015 – around 157 million. This compares with 77 million foreign-born who resided in middle-income countries (about one third of the total migrant stock) and almost 9 million in low-income countries in the same year.

UN DESA estimates of foreign-born populations do not reflect immigration status or policy categories (such as students, highly skilled migrants, or refugees). Capturing such attributes is inherently difficult for several key reasons. First, a person's immigration status can be fluid and change quickly, arising from circumstances and legal-policy settings. For example, many international migrants who may be described as "undocumented" or "irregular" enter countries on valid visas and then stay in contravention of one or more visa conditions. In fact, there are many paths to irregularity, such as crossing borders without authorization, unlawfully overstaying a visa period, working in contravention of visa conditions, being born into irregularity, or remaining after a negative decision on an asylum application has been made.¹³ Second, countries have different immigration policy settings and different ways of collecting data on migrants, which makes it difficult to establish a harmonized approach to capturing irregular migrant stocks globally. The pace of change in the migration policy arena also poses an extra dimension of complexity, as people may slip into and out of "irregularity". Various analysts use different methods to produce intermittent estimates of irregular migrant populations. Table 2 shows a few existing estimates of irregular migrant populations in selected countries and regions. However, these should be treated with caution, as the estimation exercise can often be imprecise (for example, there are variations in the estimates of irregular migrant populations in the European Union and the United States). This is partly a reflection of the problematic nature of quantifying irregular migrant populations, given the often clandestine nature of irregularity, the difficulty in accessing administrative data on immigration status, and the fact that a migrant's status can change.¹⁴ Migration flows are discussed in the following section.

Diaspora populations or transnational communities?

The term *diaspora* is used in academic and policy circles to refer to people (and often their descendants) from a specific country who are living abroad. However, there is no single agreed-upon definition of the term. In fact, it has been suggested that the term *transnational communities* may better describe the reality of contemporary migration experiences, where migrants may establish and maintain connections with people in their home communities or migrants in other countries. Indeed, IOM uses the terms *diaspora* and *transnational communities* interchangeably (IOM, 2017c). See appendix B for a further discussion on the term *diaspora* and the difficulties in quantifying global diaspora populations, as well as IOM's work in this area.

12 Per World Bank Country Income Group Classifications, in *World Bank Country and Lending Groups*. Available from <http://datahelpdesk.worldbank.org/knowledgebase/articles/906519-world-bank-country-and-lending-groups> (World Bank, n.d.a).

13 Gordon et al., 2009.

14 Koser, 2010.

Table 2. Estimates of irregular migrant populations in selected countries and regions

Country/region	Year	Estimated population (stock)	Source
Australia	2011	58,400	(a)
European Union	2008	1.9–3.8 million	(b)
	2008	8 million	(c)
Germany	2014	180,000–520,000	(d)
Greece	2011	390,000	(e)
Israel	2015	150,000	(f)
Italy	2008	279,000–461,000	(b)
Russian Federation*	2011	5–6 million	(g)
South Africa	2010	3–6 million	(h)
Spain	2008	354,000	(i)
United Kingdom	2007	417,000–863,000	(j)
United States	2014	11.1 million	(k)
	2016	11.3 million	(k)

* Estimate refers to irregular migrant workers.

Source: (a) ANAO, 2013; (b) Clandestino Research Project, 2009a; (c) Frontex, 2010; (d) Clandestino Research Project, 2015; (e) Clandestino Research Project, 2012; (f) Fleischman et al., 2015; (g) OECD, 2012a; (h) South African Police Service, 2010; (i) Clandestino Research Project, 2009b; (j) Gordon et al., 2009; (k) Krogstad, Passel and Cohn, 2017.

International migration flows: definitions, numbers and gaps

While data on migrant stocks are widely available, data on global migration movements (flows) are much more limited. Available UN DESA estimates on global migrant stocks are extensive and global in scope; however, the database of migration flows only encompasses 45 countries.¹⁵ Capturing data on migration flows is challenging for several reasons. First, while international migration flows are generally accepted as covering inflows and outflows into and from countries, there has been a greater focus on recording inflows. For example, while countries such as Australia and the United States count cross-border movements, many others only count entries and not departures.¹⁶ Additionally, migration flow data in some countries are derived from administrative events related to immigration status (for example, issuance/renewal/withdrawal of a residence

15 Laczko, 2017.

16 Koser, 2010.

permit) and are thus used as a proxy for migration flows. Furthermore, migratory movements are often hard to separate from non-migratory travel, such as tourism or business. Tracking migratory movements also requires considerable resources, infrastructure and IT/knowledge systems. This poses particular challenges for developing countries, where the ability to collect, administer, analyse and report data on mobility, migration and other areas is often limited. Finally, many countries' physical geographies pose tremendous challenges for collecting data on migration flows. Entry and border management, for example, is particularly challenging in some regions because of archipelagic and isolated borders, and it is further complicated by traditions of informal migration for work.¹⁷

Migration flows

There are currently two main international datasets on international migration flows, both of which are derived from national statistics: UN DESA's International Migration Flows dataset and OECD's International Migration Database.¹⁸ Since 2005, UN DESA has compiled data on the flows of international migrants to and from selected countries, based on nationally available statistics. The latest revision (2015) comprises data from 45 countries that collect this information (only 43 on emigration flows), up from 29 countries in 2008 and 15 countries in 2005.¹⁹ Progress in extending the dataset is encouraging; however, the ability to conduct trend analysis is limited.²⁰

Researchers and analysts have made numerous attempts to better understand global or regional migration flows by using changes in migrant stock data as a proxy for flow data. Guy Abel and Nikola Sander recently undertook a sophisticated approach to this issue by analysing changes in international migrant stocks to estimate migration flows, visualizing data using circular plots.²¹ Figure 3 provides an update to this work by presenting estimated migration flows between 2010 and 2015.²²

17 Gallagher and McAuliffe, 2016.

18 Other projects have made contributions to the monitoring of migration flows at a regional (non-global) level. Of note, the *Migration Modelling for Statistical Analyses (MIMOSA)* project (commissioned by Eurostat) measured migration flows (immigration and emigration) as well as population stocks in Europe (de Beer, van der Erf and Raymer, 2009; Raymer et al., 2011). The *Integrated Modelling of European Migration (IMEM)* project (Raymer et al., 2013) notably presents bilateral migrant flow data disaggregated by age and gender, but is also limited to countries in Europe.

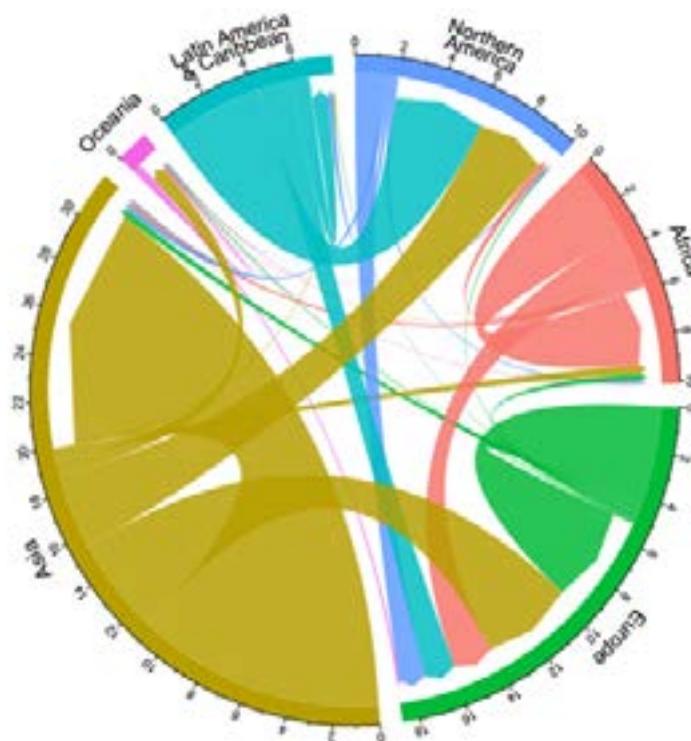
19 For UN DESA migrant flow data, as well as for the specific countries included, please see UN DESA, 2015c.

20 For a summary of UN DESA migrant flow data sources, methodology and caveats, please see UN DESA, 2015d.

21 Abel and Sander, 2014.

22 Prepared by Guy Abel in 2017.

Figure 3. Estimated regional migration flows, 2010–2015



Source: UN DESA, 2015a. Datasets for the 2015 revision of International migration flows to and from selected countries available from www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/data/empirical2/migrationflows.shtml.

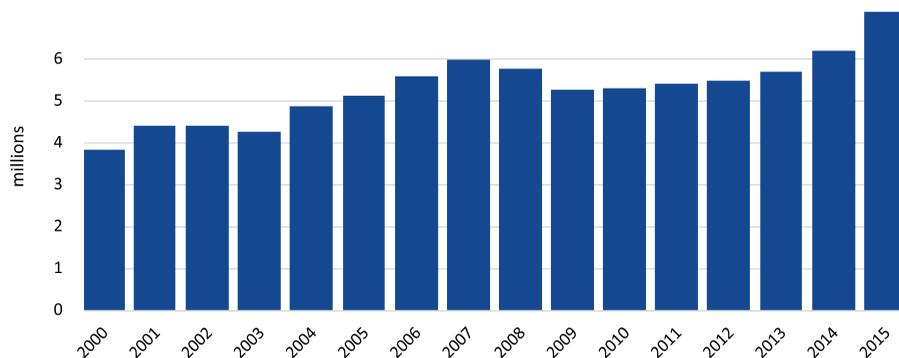
Note: The direction of the flow is indicated by the arrowhead. The size of the flow is determined by the width of the arrow at its base. Numbers on the outer section axis, used to read the size of migration flows, are in millions. So, for example, between 2010 and 2015, there was an increase of around 4 million people in Northern America who were born in Asia.

The OECD data on migration flows have been collected since 2000, which allows for limited trend analysis, as shown in figure 4 (though data are not standardized, as explained in the note under the figure).²³ The data estimates suggest that permanent migration inflows to OECD countries increased from 3.85 million in 2000 to 7.13 million in 2015, with a temporary lull occurring around the time of the global financial crisis (figure 4). Germany was the main OECD destination country in 2015, with over 2 million new international migrants (more than double the levels registered in 2000) arriving that year, followed by the United States (just over 1 million) and the United Kingdom (about 480,000 new migrants).²⁴

²³ This subsection is based on data from the OECD International Migration Database, available from OECD, 2015. For additional data on migrant flows and other migrant data in OECD countries, please see OECD, n.d.a.

²⁴ These are the top OECD countries for permanent inflows of foreign nationals for which data were made available in 2015.

Figure 4. Inflows of foreign nationals into OECD countries, permanent migration, 2000–2015 (millions)



Source: OECD, 2015.

Note 1: Data are not standardized and therefore differ from statistics on permanent migration inflows into selected countries contained in OECD's International Migration Outlook 2016 (OECD, 2016a and 2016b).

Note 2: The 35 countries typically included in OECD statistics are the following: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Chile, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Republic of Korea, Latvia, Luxembourg, Mexico, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom and United States. In some years, data for particular countries are not made available: data were made available for 31 countries in 2000, and 33 countries in 2015. Notably, data for Greece have not been reported since 2012 and data for Turkey have not been reported since 2010.

Disaggregation of migration flow data by sex and age

Data on age and sex profiles of international migration flows are not available from UN DESA or OECD. A methodology for sex disaggregation of bilateral migration flows using UN DESA stock data is presented in Abel, Samir and Sander.^d Raymer et al.^e provide bilateral migration flow estimates by sex and age, but only for European countries. Finally, Nawrotzki and Jiang^f estimated bilateral *net* migration flows disaggregated by age and sex for the year 2000; the information is contained in the publicly available Community Demographic Model International Migration (CDM-IM) dataset. Statistics on bilateral migration flows are also available from the Determinants of International Migration (DEMIG) Country-to-Country database, which contains bilateral migration flow data for up to 34 countries over the period 1946–2011. The database also provides gender breakdowns, where available.

d Abel, Samir and Sander, 2013.

e Raymer et al., 2013.

f Nawrotzki and Jiang, 2015.

Typically, migration flow data of the sort described above encompass people who have migrated (or are residing) regularly on a visa or entry permit. Most such data do not capture irregular migration flows, which involve “movement that takes place outside the regulatory norms of the sending, transit and receiving country”.²⁵

It is important here to distinguish irregular migration (flows) from irregular migrants (stocks), as they are interlinked, but conceptually and practically distinct, although the two terms are often incorrectly used interchangeably.²⁶ As mentioned earlier in this chapter, a person may, for example, enter a country regularly on a valid visa (thereby *not* engaging in irregular entry) and then overstay or contravene a visa condition, for example, and thus *become* irregular. Estimates of irregular migrants (stocks) were discussed in the previous section. For further discussion on irregular migration flows, see appendix C.

Human trafficking and migrant smuggling

Trafficking in persons often involves movements within countries or across international borders. In different contexts, migrants (including workers, refugees, asylum seekers and IDPs) can become victims of human trafficking. Due to the clandestine and underreported nature of this activity, however, systematic data collection is problematic and global estimates of human trafficking are limited. For information on available data, as well as on IOM's work in this area, see appendix D.

Global-level data on migrant smuggling on routes traversing land, air and sea are unavailable. Tragedies involving smuggled migrants are often a key glimpse into the potential scale and vulnerabilities associated with such movements. In recent years, in recognition of the need for a better understanding of migrant smuggling dynamics, efforts have been made to review existing data and research (see, for example, McAuliffe and Laczko, 2016).

See appendix A for definitions of the terms *trafficking in persons* and *smuggling of migrants*.

Migrant fatalities and IOM's Missing Migrants Project

In the wake of the tragic events of October 2013, in which an estimated 368 migrants died in the sinking of two boats near the Italian island of Lampedusa, IOM began collecting and compiling information on migrants who perish or go missing on migratory routes worldwide, within its Missing Migrants Project (MMP). Information on migrant fatalities is collected daily and made available on the Missing Migrants Project's online database, managed by IOM's Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (GMDAC). MMP also provides analysis of issues and data on migrant deaths. Data sources include official records of coast guards and medical examiners, media stories, reports from non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and United Nations agencies, and interviews with migrants. Data collection challenges are significant. For instance, the majority of deaths are among migrants travelling irregularly, which often occurs at sea, or in remote areas (chosen with the aim of evading detection), meaning bodies are not found. Few official sources collect and make data on migrant deaths publicly available. Relying on migrant testimonies and media sources may also be problematic due to inaccuracies and incomplete coverage.

26 McAuliffe, 2017.

According to IOM's MMP, 7,927 migrants worldwide died or went missing in 2016, 26 per cent more than the number of deaths and missing migrants recorded in 2015 (6,281). The number of deaths and missing migrants recorded in the Mediterranean Sea increased by 36 per cent in 2016, from 3,785 in 2015 to 5,143 in 2016. The Mediterranean accounted for more than 60 per cent of migrant deaths and missing migrants recorded by MMP in both years. Nearly 1,400 deaths and missing migrants were recorded in North Africa in 2016, mostly due to the harsh natural environment, violence and abuse, dangerous transportation conditions, and sickness and starvation. Figures for other regions are highlighted below.

Recorded migrant deaths and missing migrants worldwide, 2016



Source: IOM, n.d.i.

Note: Figures correspond to deaths that occurred during the process of migration. All numbers reflect only those incidents about which IOM is aware. An unknown number of deaths remain unreported and therefore, these data comprise minimum estimates. Figures include both bodies found and migrants who are missing and presumed dead. Names and boundaries indicated on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by IOM.

For more on MMP, see <https://missingmigrants.iom.int/about>. New data sources are constantly added and efforts are ongoing to improve data collection globally. For a discussion of the challenges of collecting data on migrant deaths, please see <http://missingmigrants.iom.int/methodology>.

IOM's Assisted Voluntary Return and Reintegration Programmes

IOM has implemented assisted voluntary return and reintegration (AVRR) programmes since 1979. IOM's AVRR support to migrants comprises a range of activities, and typically includes: the provision of pre-departure counselling, the purchase of flight tickets, administrative and travel assistance and, where possible, the provision of reintegration assistance.

On average, between 2005 and 2014, IOM assisted 34,000 migrants per year through AVRR. In line with the rise in the volume of migration in recent years, the number of returns has significantly increased. In 2016, AVRR support was provided to 98,403 migrants returning from 110 host or transit countries to 161 countries or territories of origin. This amounts to a 41 per cent increase compared with 2015 (69,540). Of the 98,403 AVRR beneficiaries in 2016, approximately 32 per cent were women and 27 per cent were children. Over 3 per cent of these returnees were victims of trafficking, unaccompanied migrant children, or migrants with health-related needs. Approximately 39,000 beneficiaries were provided with financial support in cash and/or in kind, before departure or upon arrival in their countries or territories of origin.

Top 10 host/transit countries and countries/territories of origin of AVRR beneficiaries (2016)

Host or transit countries		Countries or territories of origin	
Germany	54,006	Albania	17,976
Greece	6,153	Iraq	12,776
Austria	4,812	Afghanistan	7,102
Niger	4,788	Serbia	6,978
Netherlands, the	4,635	Kosovo/UNSC 1244	5,889
Belgium	4,117	Ethiopia	5,675
Yemen	2,594	The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	4,986
Finland	2,116	Iran (Islamic Republic of)	4,485
Djibouti	1,803	Ukraine	3,438
Norway	1,459	Russian Federation	2,058

As highlighted in the above table, in 2016, the majority of AVRR beneficiaries (83%) returned from the European Economic Area (EEA) and Switzerland, particularly from Germany, Greece, Austria, the Netherlands and Belgium. Returns from the EEA and Switzerland increased from 55,851 in 2015 to 81,671 in 2016. Recent trends also indicate that South–South returns, including from transit countries, are increasing. In 2016, returns from Niger and Morocco to countries such as Cameroon, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau and Senegal, for example, amounted to more than 6 per cent of the global total. The main regions of origin for AVRR beneficiaries in 2016 were South-Eastern Europe, Eastern Europe and Central Asia (49% of total), Asia and the Pacific (16%), and the Middle East and North Africa (16%). Together, the top 10 countries and territories of origin accounted for 72 per cent of the total number of AVRR beneficiaries.

For more information, see www.iom.int/assisted-voluntary-return-and-reintegration and www.iom.int/sites/default/files/our_work/DMM/AVRR/AVRR-2016-Key-Highlights.pdf.

Migrant workers

The latest available estimates for the global stock of migrant workers, which are based on 2013 data, indicate that there were roughly 150.3 million, accounting for a little under two thirds of the global stock of international migrants (232 million) in that year.²⁷ When compared with the global population of international migrants of working age – regarded as 15 years or older (207 million) – migrant workers account for more than 70 per cent. For a range of reasons, however, these global figures are likely to be underestimates.²⁸ While earlier global estimates of migrant workers are available (36–42 million in 1995, 86.2 million in 2000 and 105.5 million in 2010), the ILO notes that these cannot be compared with the 2013 figures, due to definitional differences and changes in methodology and data sources.

In 2013, most migrant workers – an estimated 112.3 million (75%) – were in high-income countries, with another 34.4 million (23%) in middle-income countries. Only about 2 per cent of migrant workers went to low-income destination countries. The share of migrant workers in the total workforce across the clustered income groups was relatively low (around 1.4%) and quite similar across low- and middle-income countries, but much higher (at 16.3%) for the high-income group of countries.

Male migrant workers outnumbered female migrant workers by almost 17 million in 2013, with 83.7 million males (55.7%) and 66.6 million females (44.3%), in a context where males comprised a higher number of international migrants of working age (107.2 million against 99.3 million). See table 3 for further breakdowns.

Table 3. Migrant workers, by sex and income level of destination countries (2013)

	Low income			Lower middle income			Upper middle income			High income			Global Total		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Migrant workers (millions)	1.8	1.8	3.5	9.4	7.5	16.9	10.4	7.2	17.5	62.1	50.1	112.3	83.7	66.6	150.3
As a proportion of all migrant workers (%)	1.2	1.2	2.4	6.3	5.0	11.2	6.9	4.8	11.6	41.3	33.3	74.7	55.7	44.3	100

Source: Based on ILO, 2015.

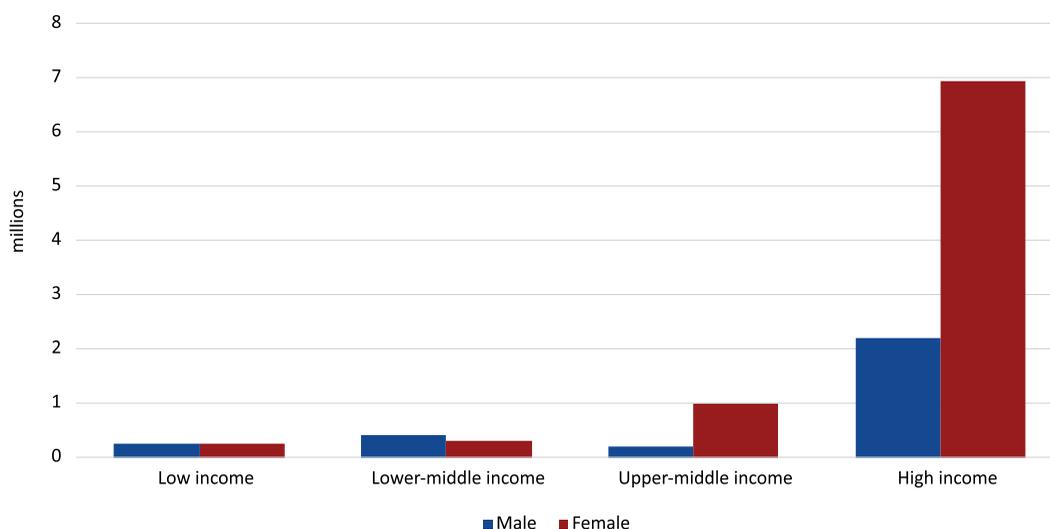
Most migrant workers were engaged in services in 2013 (106.8 million or 71.1%). Manufacturing and construction (26.7 million or 17.8%) and agriculture (16.7 million or 11.1%) accounted for the rest. Of the more than 70 per cent engaged in services, almost 8 per cent were domestic workers.

²⁷ The content in this subsection is based on and drawn from ILO, 2015. Please refer to this document for explanatory notes, deeper analysis, and limitations and caveats associated with the numbers and trends presented. More generally, information on foreign-born employment in OECD countries is available from OECD, n.d.b.

²⁸ See, for example, ILO, 2015.

In 2013, there were an estimated 11.5 million migrant domestic workers, comprising more than 17 per cent of all domestic workers (67.1 million) and over 7 per cent of all migrant workers. Of the 11.5 million, 8.45 million were female and 3.07 million were male. Migrant domestic workers were overwhelmingly located in high-income countries; and this was true of both female and male migrant domestic workers (see figure 5). IOM's work on migrant health, as discussed in the following box, is particularly relevant for migrant workers and refugees (discussed in the next section).

Figure 5. Migrant domestic workers by destination country income level and sex as of 2013 (millions)



Source: ILO, 2015.

IOM's work on migrant health

IOM delivers and promotes preventative and curative health programmes through its Migration Health Division. Upon request from receiving-country governments, IOM provides physical and mental health assessments for migrants prior to their departure, whether for the purposes of resettlement, international employment, or for obtaining temporary or permanent visas. Specific services include tuberculosis testing and control; HIV, syphilis and hepatitis tests; physical exams; laboratory diagnostic services; medical escort services; and pre-departure immunization.

Such health assessments contribute to the epidemiological knowledge base on selected migrant populations, allowing for the development of evidence-based programmes and health interventions. Data collection is standardized and centralized among IOM country offices, which also enables IOM to decrease processing time, conserve resources and integrate all migration health activities at the country level. IOM is also in the process of developing a medical data repository to facilitate analysis of current and historical operational data.

In 2015, IOM conducted more than 346,000 health assessments among migrants in more than 80 countries, covering both immigrants (65%) and refugees (35%). The majority of assessments were conducted in Asia (45%), followed by Africa (29%), the Middle East (14%) and Europe (13%). In 2016, IOM conducted almost 450,000 health assessment (52% immigrants and 48% refugees), representing an overall 27 per cent increase compared with 2015. Again, the majority of assessments were carried out in Asia (35%), followed by Africa (30%), the Middle East (23%) and Europe (12%). These figures are consistent with a steady growth in the number of global health assessment activities conducted by IOM over the preceding five years.

Beginning in 2012, IOM engaged with US agencies to develop and implement a vaccination programme for United States-bound refugees within the context of the US Refugee Admissions Program. The programme sought to introduce vaccinations early in the resettlement process to protect refugees against many of the common vaccine-preventable diseases. By the end of 2015, this programme had been implemented in over 12 countries. Overall, between 2012 and 2016, this programme was implemented in 21 countries with more than 215,000 refugees having received one or more vaccines.

For more on IOM's work on migrant health, see www.health.iom.int/.

Remittances

Remittances are financial or in-kind transfers made by migrants directly to families or communities in their countries of origin. The World Bank compiles global data on remittances, notwithstanding the myriad data gaps, definitional differences and methodological challenges in compiling accurate statistics.²⁹ Its data, however, do not capture unrecorded flows through formal or informal channels, and the actual magnitude of global remittances are therefore likely to be larger than available estimates.³⁰ Despite these limitations, available data reflect an overall increase in recent decades, from USD 126 billion in 2000, to USD 575 billion in 2016, although the past two years have witnessed a decline. Between 2014 and 2015, global (inward) flows of remittances contracted by an estimated 2.7 per cent, from USD 598 billion in 2014 to USD 582 billion in 2015, and by another 1.2 per cent between 2015 and 2016. Consistent with this trend, remittances to developing countries (which account for the majority of the global total) have also declined for two consecutive years – a trend that has not been seen for three decades, according to the World Bank. Nonetheless and, notably, since the

29 The content of much of this subsection, unless otherwise noted, is based on and drawn from the World Bank's data in relation to migration and remittances, available from World Bank, n.d.b; and publications on the topic, available from World Bank, n.d.c. In particular, the World Bank's annual remittances datasets (World Bank, n.d.b), the Migration and Development Brief 25 (World Bank, 2015), Migration and Development Brief 26 (World Bank, 2016b), the Migration and Development Brief 27 (World Bank, 2017a) and its April 21 Press Release (World Bank, 2017b) are key sources of information. Please refer to these sources as well as the World Bank's Factbooks on Migration and Development, including its latest, published in 2016, for explanatory notes, deeper analysis, caveats, limitations and methodologies associated with the numbers and trends presented.

30 World Bank, 2016a.

mid-1990s, remittances have greatly surpassed Official Development Assistance (ODA) levels,³¹ defined as government aid designed to promote the economic development and welfare of developing countries.³²

In 2016, India, China, Philippines, Mexico and Pakistan were (in descending order) the top five remittance-recipient countries, although China and India were well above the rest, with total inward remittances exceeding USD 60 billion for each country (see table 4). Each of the remaining three countries received less than USD 30 billion in the same year. Many of these countries have remained in the top spots in this century. When remittances are viewed as a percentage of GDP, however, the top five countries are Kyrgyzstan (at 35.4%), followed by Nepal (29.7%), Liberia (29.6%), Haiti (27.8%) and Tonga (27.8%) in 2016.

High-income countries are almost always the main source of remittances. For decades, the United States has consistently been the top remittance-sending country, with a total outflow of USD 61.38 billion in 2015, followed by Saudi Arabia (USD 38.79 billion) and Switzerland (USD 24.38 billion). China, which is classified as an upper-middle income country by the World Bank, is also a major source (in addition to its role as a top recipient), with an outflow of USD 20.42 billion in 2015. The fifth-highest remittance-sending country in 2015 was the Russian Federation (USD 19.7 billion). Table 4 provides further details and trends.³³

Table 4. Top countries receiving/sending remittances (2000–2015) (current USD billions)

Top countries receiving remittances							
2000		2005		2010		2015	
India	12.84	China	23.63	India	53.48	India	68.91
France	8.61	Mexico	22.74	China	52.46	China	63.94
Mexico	7.52	India	22.13	Mexico	22.08	Philippines, the	28.48
Philippines	6.96	Nigeria	14.64	Philippines, the	20.56	Mexico	26.23
Republic of Korea	4.86	France	14.21	France	19.90	France	23.35
Spain	4.86	Philippines, the	13.73	Nigeria	19.75	Nigeria	18.96
Turkey	4.56	Belgium	6.89	Germany	12.79	Pakistan	19.85
United States of America	4.40	Germany	6.87	Egypt	12.45	Egypt	16.58
Germany	3.64	Spain	6.66	Bangladesh	10.85	Bangladesh	15.38
United Kingdom	3.61	Poland	6.47	Belgium	10.35	Germany	15.36

31 See *ibid.*, for example.

32 See, for example, OECD, n.d.c, which also contains data on ODA. There is a growing body of work exploring the developmental, economic and social impacts of this trend.

33 Breakdowns for 2016 were unavailable at the time of publication.

Top countries sending remittances							
2000		2005		2010		2015	
United States of America	34.40	United States of America	47.25	United States of America	50.78	United States of America	61.38
Saudi Arabia	15.40	Saudi Arabia	14.32	Saudi Arabia	27.07	Saudi Arabia	38.79
Germany	9.04	Germany	12.71	Russian Federation	21.45	Switzerland	24.38
Switzerland	7.59	Switzerland	9.99	Switzerland	16.88	China	20.42
France	3.77	United Kingdom	9.64	Germany	14.68	Russian Federation	19.70
United Arab Emirates	3.68	France	9.48	Italy	12.89	Germany	18.56
Republic of Korea	3.65	Italy	7.55	France	12.03	Kuwait	15.20
Israel	3.26	Russian Federation	6.83	Kuwait	11.86	France	12.68
Japan	3.17	Luxembourg	6.70	Luxembourg	10.64	Qatar	12.19
Netherlands, the	3.13	Republic of Korea	6.67	United Arab Emirates	10.57	Luxembourg	11.35

Source: World Bank, n.d.b. (accessed May 2017).

Note: All numbers are in current (nominal) USD billion.

Refugees and asylum seekers

By the end of 2016, there were a total of 22.5 million refugees, with 17.2 million under UNHCR's mandate and 5.3 million refugees registered by the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East.³⁴ The total number of refugees is the highest on record, although the annual rate of growth has slowed since 2012. There were also 2.8 million people seeking international protection and awaiting determination of their refugee status, referred to as asylum seekers. Of the roughly 2 million first-instance applications for asylum lodged in 2016, Germany remained the top recipient, with over 720,000 applications, followed by the United States (262,000) and Italy (123,000).

UNHCR estimates that, at the end of 2016, those under 18 years of age constituted roughly 51 per cent of the global refugee population. Indeed, between 2003 and 2016, according to available disaggregated data, the proportion of children among stocks of refugees was very high, fluctuating between 41 and 51 per cent. The proportion of women remained relatively stable, at between 47 and 49 per cent, over the same period. Consistent with broader global dynamics, refugees were increasingly based in urban settings, with 60 per cent of refugees located in urban areas at the end of 2016.³⁵

34 The content in this subsection is based on and drawn from UNHCR, 2017 and UNHCR, 2016. Please refer to these documents for explanatory notes, deeper analysis, caveats, limitations and methodologies associated with the numbers and trends presented. UNHCR's previous Global Trends reports, as well as its Population Statistics database (available from UNHCR, n.d.) are other key sources of information.

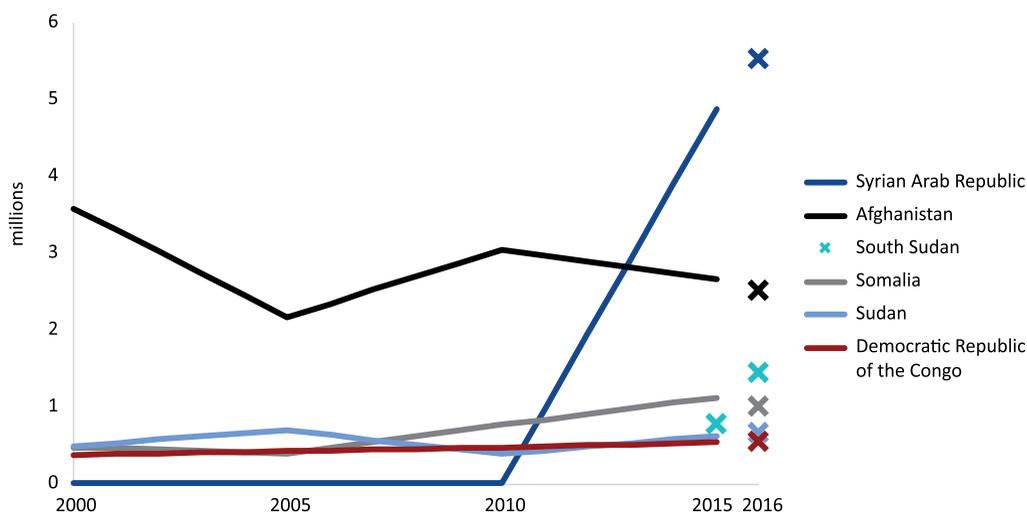
35 See UNHCR's 2016 and 2017 reports for limitations applicable to these assessments related to age, sex and location.

Unaccompanied and separated children lodged an estimated 75,000 individual asylum applications in 70 countries in 2016 – down from the exceptionally high number of applications in 2015 (98,400), yet still more than double the number reported in 2014.³⁶ Consistent with the overall global trends in asylum application submissions, Germany received more than half of all reported claims from unaccompanied and separated children.

As in other years, unresolved or renewed conflict dynamics in key countries contributed most significantly to current figures and trends. Of the refugees under UNHCR's mandate at the end of 2016, the top 10 countries of origin – Syrian Arab Republic, Afghanistan, South Sudan, Somalia, Sudan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Central African Republic, Myanmar, Eritrea and Burundi – accounted for roughly 13.5 million, or 79 per cent. Many of these countries have been among the top sources for refugees for at least five years.

The ongoing conflict in the Syrian Arab Republic saw the number of refugees from that country reach approximately 5.5 million. The instability and violence that have made Afghanistan a major source of refugees for over 30 years has continued, with the country being the second top origin country in the world, with 2.5 million refugees; this is a slight decrease from 2015 figures (2.7 million), largely due to returns from Pakistan. Large-scale violence that erupted in South Sudan in the middle of 2016 saw it become the third largest origin country for refugees, with over 1.4 million at the end of the year. Refugees from Afghanistan, South Sudan and the Syrian Arab Republic comprised 55 per cent of the refugees under UNHCR's mandate. Figure 6 shows the trends in refugee numbers for selected major countries of origin between 2000 and 2015. The impact of the Syrian conflict is clearly illustrated in figure 6; in 2010, the Syrian Arab Republic was a source country for fewer than 30,000 refugees and asylum seekers, whereas it was the third largest host country, with 1,005,500 refugees, primarily originating from Iraq.³⁷

Figure 6. Number of refugees by major countries of origin as of 2016 (millions)



Source: UNHCR, n.d. (accessed on 18 July 2017).

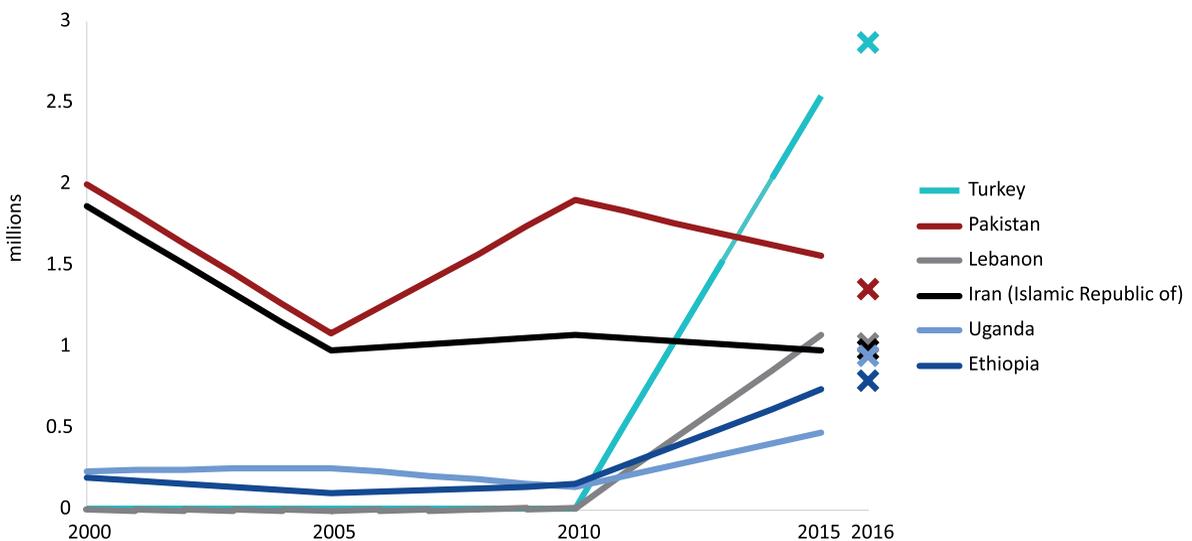
Note: Lines indicate five-year trends and crosses indicate a single year's data. South Sudan became a country in 2011.

³⁶ See UNHCR, 2017, on why these figures are underestimates.

³⁷ UNHCR, 2010.

In 2016, for the third consecutive year, Turkey was the largest host country in the world, with 2.9 million refugees, mainly Syrians (2.8 million). Reflecting the significant share of Syrians in the global refugee population, two other bordering countries – Jordan and Lebanon – also featured among the top 10. Pakistan and the Islamic Republic of Iran were also among the top refugee-hosting countries, as the two principal hosts of refugees from Afghanistan, the second largest origin country. Uganda, Ethiopia, Germany, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Kenya comprised the rest. The vast majority of refugees were hosted in neighbouring countries. According to UNHCR, the least developed countries, such as Cameroon, Chad, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, Kenya, Sudan and Uganda, hosted 28 per cent of the global total (4.9 million refugees). It is only when refugees are measured against national populations that high-income countries such as Sweden (fifth) and Malta (ninth) rank among the top 10. Figure 7 shows trends in refugee numbers for major host countries between 2000 and 2015.

Figure 7. Number of refugees by major host countries as of 2016 (millions)



Source: UNHCR, n.d. (accessed on 18 July 2017).

Note: Lines indicate five-year trends and crosses indicate a single year's data.

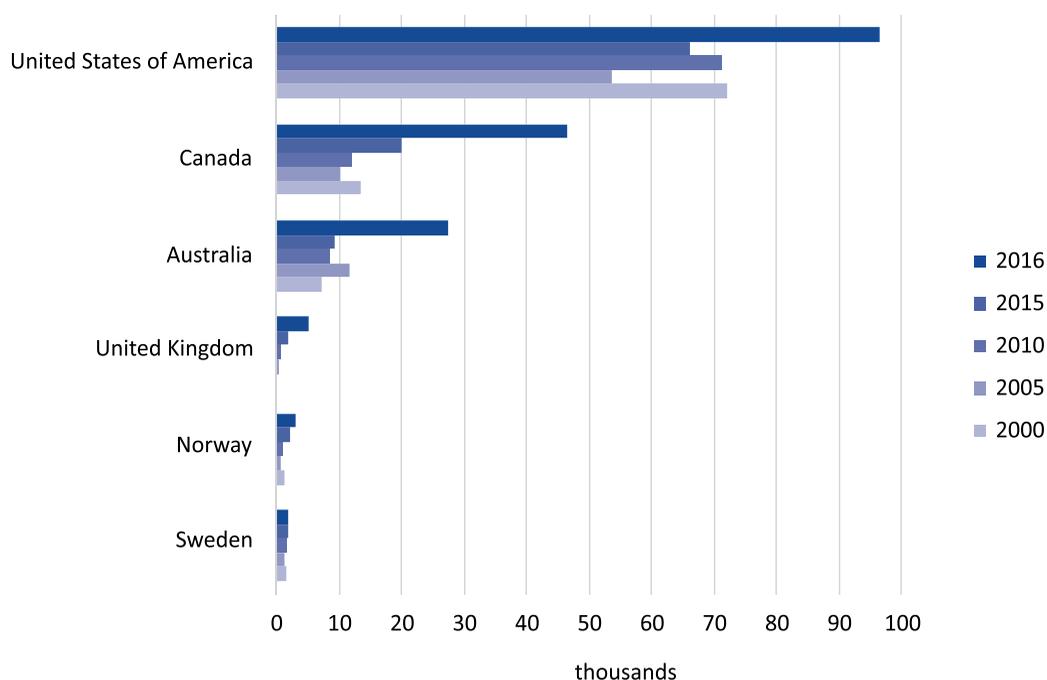
A key component of UNHCR's mandate is to seek permanent solutions for refugees. Within this context, UNHCR also compiles statistics on the three traditional solutions: voluntary repatriation, local integration and resettlement. For many, return home is the preferred solution. However, for various reasons, as evidenced by the numbers discussed below, only a very small proportion of refugees achieve a solution in any given year, contributing to the protracted nature of many refugee predicaments.

During 2016, over 550,000 refugees returned to their countries of origin – more than double the number in 2015 and a notable increase from previous years. The majority of returns (384,000) were to Afghanistan, primarily from Pakistan. Prolonged and renewed conflicts have contributed to low levels of voluntary repatriation, with levels of returns between 2011 and 2015 accounting for only 10 per cent of all returns over the last two decades.

While there are many challenges to measuring those benefiting from local integration, UNHCR estimates that, in 2016, 23 countries reported at least one naturalized refugee (compared with 28 countries in 2015), with a total of 23,000 naturalized refugees for the year (compared with 32,000 in 2015). Canada, which naturalized an estimated 16,300 refugees in 2016 (compared with 25,900 in 2015), represents the greatest proportion, with France, Belgium and Austria contributing the bulk of the rest.

The number of countries that are a part of UNHCR’s resettlement programmes increased from 33 in 2015 to 37 in 2016; States in Europe and Latin America, in particular, established new resettlement programmes, or made new resettlement commitments. Notwithstanding this increase, the traditional resettlement countries of Australia, Canada and the United States continued to conduct the majority of the world’s refugee resettlements. In 2016, almost 190,000 refugees were admitted for resettlement globally, representing a 77 per cent increase from 2015 (107,100). Syrian, Congolese, Iraqi and Somali refugees were the key beneficiaries. Figure 8 provides an overview of resettlement statistics for key countries between 2000 and 2016.

Figure 8. Number of refugees resettled by major resettlement countries in 2000–2016 (thousands)



Source: UNHCR, n.d. (accessed on 23 June 2017).

IOM's role in resettlement

IOM arranges safe and organized travel for refugees through resettlement programmes, as well as for other vulnerable persons of concern moving through other humanitarian pathways. Beyond classical refugee resettlement and humanitarian admission programmes, more States are interested in or are currently carrying out other forms of admission, such as humanitarian visas, private sponsorships, academic scholarships and labour mobility schemes. IOM's movement data for resettlement assistance refer to the overall number of refugees and other persons of concern travelling under IOM auspices from various countries of departure to destinations around the world during a given period.

During calendar years 2015 and 2016, IOM supported some 43 States in carrying out resettlement, humanitarian admission and relocation initiatives in over 140 countries of departure, with significant operations conducted in Afghanistan, Ethiopia, Iraq, Jordan, Kenya, Lebanon, Malaysia, Nepal, Thailand, Turkey and the United Republic of Tanzania. In 2015, a total of 126,867 individuals travelled to 30 States under IOM auspices for resettlement assistance; the top nationalities were Syrians, Burmese, Iraqis, Afghans and Somalis. In 2016, a total of 204,937 individuals travelled to 39 States under IOM auspices for resettlement assistance; the top nationalities were Syrians, Congolese, Iraqis, Afghans and Somalis. Each year, the gender breakdown remains the same, with 51 per cent males and 49 per cent females resettling to third countries. Between 2010 and 2016, annual resettlement by IOM increased by more than 103 per cent, with over 100,000 vulnerable persons of concern in 2010, and close to 205,000 in 2016. This is largely due to the emergency resettlement of Syrians and admission of Iraqi and Afghan translators/interpreters through special immigration visas. An increase in Syrian resettlement began in the latter half of 2015, notably to Canada, the United Kingdom, the United States of America, and a number of European countries such as Germany and Sweden.

Under cooperative agreements, IOM provides stakeholders with necessary information and shares data with key partners such as UNHCR, resettlement countries and settlement agencies. IOM works in close collaboration with UNHCR on a regular basis to verify and better align aggregate data related to resettlement, specifically around departures figures.

For more information on IOM's resettlement activities, see: www.iom.int/resettlement-assistance.

Internally displaced persons

IDMC compiles data on two types of internal displacement: new displacements during a given period, and the total stock of IDPs at a given point in time. At the end of 2016, there were 31.1 million new internal displacements in 125 countries.³⁸ Disasters triggered by rapid-onset hazards were associated with the majority,

³⁸ The content in this subsection is based on and drawn from IDMC, 2017 and IDMC, 2016. Please refer to these documents for explanatory notes, deeper analysis, caveats, limitations and methodologies associated with the numbers and trends presented. The year 2016 was the first year that IDMC produced a single and combined annual report that included figures for conflict and violence as well as disasters. IDMC's previous Global Estimates reports (available from www.internal-displacement.org/global-report/), as well as its Global Internal Displacement Database (available from IDMC, n.d.), are other key sources of information.

at 24.2 million new internal displacements in a total of 118 countries. Conflict and generalized violence accounted for the rest, at 6.9 million in 37 countries. In its latest report, IDMC reiterates the complexities associated with distinguishing between conflict and disasters as the immediate cause of displacement, and it highlights the growing need to identify better ways to report on displacement in the context of multiple drivers.³⁹

The total global stock of people internally displaced by conflict and generalized violence at the end of 2016 was 40.3 million, having fallen from 40.8 million in 2015 – the highest on record since IDMC began monitoring in 1998. As with trends for refugees (discussed in the previous section), intractable and new conflicts have meant that the total number of persons internally displaced by conflicts and generalized violence has almost doubled since 2000, and has risen sharply since 2010. Total global stock figures for persons displaced by disasters are unavailable, although efforts are being made to address this issue. Available data indicate that, over the nine years since 2008, there have been 227.6 million displacements associated with disasters. Sample case data documented in 2015 also suggest that protracted displacement, ranging between 1 and 26 years, is affecting hundreds of thousands of people.

Since 2003, conflicts and violence resulted in an average of 5.3 million new displacements per year. This translates into about 15,000 men, women and children being forced to leave their homes every day.⁴⁰ Between 2000 and 2015, the average was even higher, at 7.6 million per year or more than 20,000 people per day. The 2016 total of 6.9 million new displacements falls between the two averages, reflecting an overall rising trend since 2003. In 2015, Yemen was the worst-affected country in terms of new displacements (2.2 million) followed by the Syrian Arab Republic (1.3 million) and Iraq (1.1 million). In 2016, however, Yemen, the Syrian Arab Republic and Iraq (which had accounted for more than half of the global total of new displacements for 2015 at 8.8 million), recorded significantly lower figures,⁴¹ but still featured among the top 10, as did many other countries that were on the list in 2015. The Democratic Republic of the Congo, noted as an overlooked area of displacement crisis, topped the list in 2016 (with 922,000 people displaced), followed by the Syrian Arab Republic (824,000) and Iraq (659,000). When new displacement by conflict and violence is measured as a proportion of the population, the Syrian Arab Republic re-emerges at the top (with 4,400 displacements per 100,000 inhabitants), followed by El Salvador (3,600 per 100,000 inhabitants) and Libya (2,500 per 100,000 inhabitants). IDMC notes that El Salvador has consistently been one of the most violent countries in the last decade; however, the internal displacement stemming from criminal and gang violence in that country is largely invisible.

The 40.3 million people displaced by violence and conflicts at the end of 2016 are hosted in 56 countries and territories, although there is little variation in the countries that feature at the top. Colombia (with 7,246,000 people displaced) and the Syrian Arab Republic (6,326,000) are well above others and together comprise close to a third of the global stocks. These are followed by Sudan (3,300,000), Iraq (3,035,000), the Democratic Republic of the Congo (2,230,000), then Yemen, Nigeria, South Sudan, Ukraine and Afghanistan. Over 30 million of the global total of 40.3 million people displaced are located in these 10 countries. Indeed, Colombia, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Iraq, Sudan and South Sudan have featured in the top 10 every year since 2003.

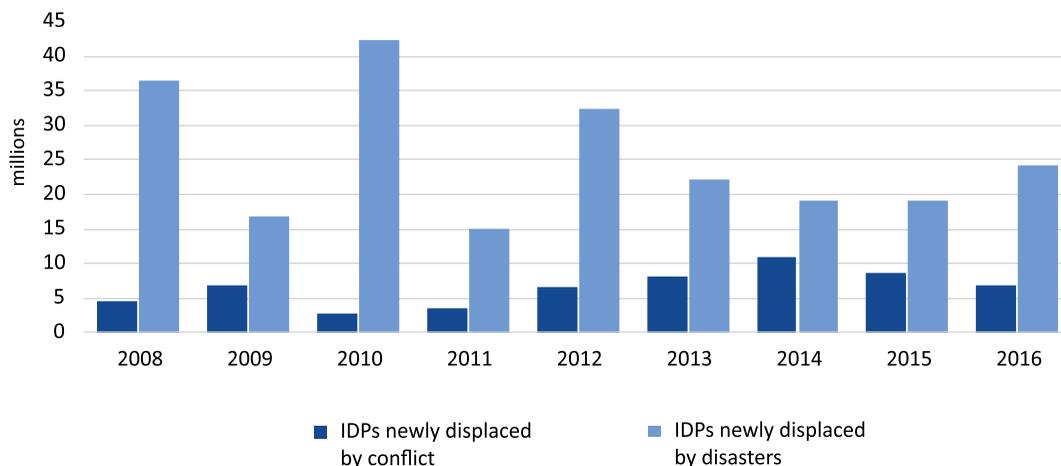
39 Beyond conflict, generalized violence and disasters brought on by rapid-onset natural hazards, global figures on internal displacement do not capture the many other contexts in which people flee their homes, such as criminal violence, development projects and slow-onset crises related to drought and environmental change. In *GRID 2016*, IDMC highlights their efforts to collect data on these forms of displacement and the complexities inherent in this challenge. (See, for example, IDMC, 2016.)

40 IDMC, 2017.

41 IDMC highlights possible reasons for these changes, including stabilization of front lines of conflicts, ceasefires, restrictions on freedom of movement, and changes in methodology for data collection.

Each year since 2008, an average of 25.3 million people have been newly displaced by disasters.⁴² This is far greater than the average for conflict and violence, and reflects the indiscriminate, unpredictable and uncontrollable nature of certain hazards. These dimensions are strikingly apparent when considering the number of countries hosting the newly displaced: 118 for disasters, compared with 37 countries for conflict and violence. In 2016 (as in previous years), disasters triggered by climate and weather-related hazards, such as floods and storms, accounted for the bulk of the 24.2 million total (23.5 million or 97%). Since 2009, disasters triggered by geophysical hazards have caused an average of 2 million displacements per year, and have been the second largest contributor to global figures. However, the figures for 2016 were well below average, with roughly 700,000 new displacements recorded. China (7,434,000), the Philippines (5,930,000) and India (2,400,000) had the highest absolute numbers in 2016. As in previous years, the 24.2 million total, while a little less than the running average, far outnumbers new displacements associated with conflicts and violence, as figure 9 shows. IDMC does note, however, that a significant portion of the global total of those newly displaced by disasters is usually associated with short-term evacuations in a relatively safe and orderly manner.

Figure 9. Newly displaced IDPs (millions)



Source: IDMC, n.d. (accessed on 23 June 2017).

IOM's Displacement Tracking Matrix

IOM's displacement tracking matrix (DTM) system tracks displacement in countries affected by conflicts or natural disasters. The DTM system is designed to capture, process and disseminate information on the movements and evolving needs of displaced populations and migrants. Data are shared in the form of maps, infographics, reports, interactive web-based visualizations and raw or customized data exports.

42 IDMC, 2017.

Based on a given situation, the system can gather information on populations, locations, conditions, needs and vulnerabilities using one or more of the following methodological tools:

- (i) Tracking mobility and cross-sectoral needs in specific locations to target assistance;
- (ii) Tracking movements (“flows”) and the overall situation at origin, transit and destination points;
- (iii) Registering individuals and households for beneficiary selection, vulnerability targeting and programming;
- (iv) Conducting surveys, to gather specific information from populations of interest.

In 2015, the DTM system tracked over 14.5 million people caught in conflict and natural disasters in 23 countries. IOM’s 2015 and 2016 data were the reference for several country estimates on internal displacement compiled by IDMC^{g,h}. In October 2015, the DTM system established an information portal on migration flows to Europe, which is available from <http://migration.iom.int/europe>. The portal publishes information on movement trends, transit routes, and stranded and missing migrants.

For more information on IOM’s DTM, see: www.globaldtm.info.

g IDMC, 2017.

h IDMC, 2016.

Data gaps and challenges

As evident throughout this chapter, there are several key gaps and challenges associated with the collection and analysis of data on migration. The following section provides a brief overview of some of these key gaps and challenges. However, there is an important body of work that explores these issues in greater detail and we encourage readers interested in the topic to refer to this work.⁴³

Our knowledge and understanding of the scale of international migration is primarily derived from estimates of the stock of international migrants, or the number of people living in a country other than their country of birth at a specific point in time. However, the availability and quality of migrant stock data vary considerably between countries and regions due to limitations in data collection, such as failure to disaggregate key characteristics. For example, censuses, which are an important source of data for measuring migrant stock, are generally performed only every decade or so. They often only record immigrants and not emigrants, and do not document age, or year of migration.⁴⁴ For example, some countries do not record country of birth, instead focusing on citizenship. This lack of uniformity in concepts and definitions of international migrants at international and national levels makes it difficult to estimate global migrant stock figures.

Data on migration flows are more limited than migrant stock data. Despite increasing efforts to aggregate data on migration flows from national sources, and to improve their comparability and standardization, data on these

43 See, for example, Poulain, Perrin and Singleton, 2006; Raymer and Willekens, 2008; de Beer et al., 2010; Kraler and Reichel, 2011.

44 Willekens, 2016.

dynamics of international migration are not available for most countries in the world.⁴⁵ The UN DESA has compiled flow data for only 45 countries, while the OECD reports migration flows for some of its members. However, in both datasets, the duration used to define a migration event, and the coverage of population at risk, can vary, thereby hampering analysis. There is even less information on the scale, patterns and dynamics of irregular migration flows, due to the clandestine and fluid nature of this form of migration.⁴⁶ The recent increase in such flows across the Mediterranean has prompted some actors to improve efforts to collect data on movements to Europe, but relatively little is known about numbers, patterns and characteristics in other parts of the world.⁴⁷

Knowledge on the global scale and characteristics of labour migration is primarily based on estimates compiled by the ILO. These figures likely underestimate the true scale, due to a range of factors, such as the frequent undercounting of short-term labour migration movements. As with global migrant stocks, estimates of migrant workers and their respective characteristics suffer from statistical, definitional and methodological complexities. Estimates of global remittances are available annually through the World Bank but, again, there are caveats and considerable limitations associated with the available figures.

Several actors – notably, UNHCR, IDMC, UNODC and IOM – continue to improve the availability and coverage of global data on populations in situations of vulnerability (such as refugees, asylum seekers, IDPs and victims of trafficking), even though data collection in the context of conflicts, violence and disasters is inherently challenging. Methodological, operational and political complexities arise due to the nature of emergencies, as well as the characteristics, vulnerability and “visibility” of the populations being measured. The shortage of quantitative data on movements associated with environmental change, including climate change, however, represents a key gap. The multicausal nature of such movements presents particular challenges. Evidence on long-term trends associated with disasters, such as duration of displacement and subsequent movements and trajectories, is also scarce. These gaps have been recognized and efforts are under way to innovate and overcome these barriers.

Conclusion

In recent years, there has been an undeniable increase in available information and knowledge, as well as interest in migration globally. Spurred in part by large-scale movements of migrants (including refugees) and a growing interest in international cooperation on migration, governments, international organizations and other actors are engaged in ongoing efforts to build a stronger evidence base on the scale and characteristics of migration globally. There are also noteworthy gaps in knowledge at the global level. As this chapter illustrates, the available information is in many ways limited and fragmented, with more known about certain countries and regions than others. There are myriad complexities associated with collecting and comparing data on specific facets of migration. Even so, and despite evolving migration drivers and patterns, there is momentum for improving the availability and quality of global data on international migration through innovation and concerted effort, aided in part by its inclusion in the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda⁴⁸ and technological transformations.

45 UN DESA, 2015c; Vezzoli, Villares-Varela and de Haas, 2014; Lemaitre et al., 2007; Poulain, Perrin and Singleton, 2006.

46 Kraler and Reichel, 2011.

47 McAuliffe and Mence, 2017.

48 UN DESA, 2015e.

In this chapter, we have provided a global overview of migration and migrants, based on the current data available. Notwithstanding the data gaps and challenges in providing a global big picture, several high-level conclusions can be drawn. The available data can provide insights into global migration dynamics and trends, and contribute to informed decision-making. They also tell a story.

While we know that most people in the world continue to live in the country in which they were born, more people are also living in other countries, especially those within their region. At the same time, many are migrating to high-income countries that may be further afield. International migrants constitute a small – albeit growing – portion of the world's total population. Global data on irregular migrant stocks, on the other hand, are unavailable.

Innovations and improvements are required for a better understanding of global trends in regular migration flows, so that coverage can expand beyond the 45 or so countries for which information exists. There is also growing recognition that people around the world are dying while migrating, particularly when using clandestine channels that rely on the services of smugglers and traffickers. This type of information is relatively new, and its quality and coverage require improvement.

Work is the major reason that people migrate internationally, and migrant workers constitute a large majority of the world's international migrants. Most live in high-income countries and are engaged in the service sector. Male migrant workers outnumber females, while male migrants also have a higher labour force participation rate than female migrants. Most of the top remittance-sending countries remained the same between 2000 and 2015, as have the world's top remittance-receiving countries. Overall, total global flows of remittances increased substantially between 2000 and 2016.

Finally, global displacement caused by conflict, generalized violence and other factors is at a record high. Intractable, unresolved and recurring conflicts and violence have led to an upsurge in the number of refugees around the world, with women and children comprising a substantial portion of the total. While a handful of countries continue to provide solutions for refugees, overall, these have been insufficient to address global needs. Similar factors have displaced millions of people within their own countries, while displacement associated with conflict and violence has nearly doubled since 2000. Yet, each year, new displacements associated with rapid-onset hazards far outnumber those due to conflict and violence, and there is a recognized need to gather better cumulative data. Better data on movement associated with environmental change, including the effects of climate change, are also required.

Appendix A

Key migration concepts and definitions

Internally displaced person (IDP)

The 1998 UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement define IDPs as:

[...] persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border.

For more information on IDPs, and applicable definitions and associated caveats, refer to the IDMC documents and sources referenced in that section.

International migrant

The 1998 United Nations Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration, Revision 1, set out the key concepts related to the measurement of international migration. The Recommendations define an international migrant as *any person who changes his or her country of usual residence* (p. 9).⁴⁹

Per the Recommendations, the country of usual residence is *that in which the person has a place to live where he or she normally spends the daily period of rest*.⁵⁰ Also, people travelling abroad temporarily *for purposes of recreation, holiday, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimage*⁵¹ should not be included in the international migrant group, as these cases do not imply a change in the country of usual residence.

The Recommendations also distinguish between *long-term migrants* and *short-term migrants*. A *long-term migrant* is defined 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), so that the country of destination effectively becomes his or her new country of usual residence* (p. 10).⁵² Short-term migrants are defined as *persons who move to a country other than that of their usual residence for a period of at least 3 months but less than a year*⁵³ – except for those travelling for the purposes indicated above, which exclude a change in the country of residence.

Therefore, an immigrant must not have been a usual resident, and will establish usual residence in the country he or she has entered. An emigrant should have been a usual resident of the country from which he or she is departing, and should be establishing usual residence in another country. Use of this definition allows for the collection of internationally comparable data on migration. While the UN recommends that such

49 UN DESA, 1998.

50 Ibid.

51 Ibid.

52 Ibid.

53 Ibid.

a definition be adopted by national data systems, this should not be confused with administrative and legal definitions of an international migrant used in each country.⁵⁴ It should also be noted that core concepts and definitions on international migrant embodied in national practices may often differ from concepts and definitions recommended by the UN; statistics on international migrant stocks presented in this chapter reflect national definitions and not necessarily those recommended by the UN.

Irregular migration

Although there is no universally accepted definition of irregular migration, it can be broadly defined as “movement that takes place outside the regulatory norms of the sending, transit and receiving countries”.⁵⁵ From the perspective of a destination country, irregular migration may imply entry, stay or work in a country without the necessary authorization or documents required under immigration regulations. From the perspective of a sending country, irregularity implies not fulfilling the administrative requirements for leaving the country, or leaving such country without a valid passport or travel document.

Migration stocks and flows

Statistics on the size of the migrant population are normally based on *stocks* (the total number of international migrants present in a given country at a specific point in time) and *flows* (the number of migrants entering or leaving a country during a given period – typically one year). The term *country* used in these definitions may also refer to other units (such as territories and areas).⁵⁶

The main criteria used for categorizing migrant stocks and flows are *country of birth* and *citizenship*, which are defined below. (Actual or intended *duration of stay* is a further element required for collection of statistics on migration flows.)⁵⁷

- Citizenship indicates the particular legal bond between an individual and his or her country (State), acquired by birth or naturalization, whether by declaration, choice, marriage or other means according to national legislation.
- Country of birth refers to the country of residence (in its current borders, if the information is available) of the mother at the time of the birth or, in default, the country (in its current borders, if the information is available) in which the birth took place.

54 IOM, n.d.h.

55 Ibid.; and IOM, 2017a.

56 UN DESA, 2015b.

57 IOM, n.d.h.

Migrant worker

Article 2(1) of the 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families defines the term *migrant worker* as: “a person who is to be engaged, is engaged, or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national”. Article 3 goes on to note that the Convention does not apply to a number of groups, including refugees, stateless persons and trainees, among others.

Other global-level, legal definitions of the term *migrant worker* and related terms can be found in ILO Conventions, including the Migration for Employment Convention (Revised) 1949 (No. 97) and the Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention 1975 (No. 143).

For more information on migrant workers, and applicable definitions and associated caveats, refer to the ILO documents and sources referenced in that section.

Refugee

Article 1 of the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, read together with its 1967 Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees, defines persons who fall within the global legal definition of a *refugee*. Article 1(A) (2), in particular, states that the term shall apply to any person who:

[...] owing to well founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country; or who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence as a result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it.

Other provisions in Article 1 provide further guidance on persons who do not fall within this definition or persons who may cease to be refugees. Additionally, UNHCR’s Statute, UN General Assembly Resolutions and ECOSOC Resolutions also provide further guidance on persons may fall within UNHCR’s competence.⁵⁸

For more information on refugees and asylum seekers, and applicable definitions and associated caveats, refer to the UNHCR documents and sources referenced in that section.

Remittances

The International Monetary Fund (IMF) refers to remittances as “household income from foreign economies arising mainly from the temporary or permanent movement of people to those economies”.⁵⁹ Following the same definition, “remittances include cash and noncash items that flow through formal channels, such as via electronic wire, or through informal channels, such as money or goods carried across borders. They largely consist of funds and noncash items sent or given by individuals who have migrated to a new economy and

⁵⁸ For more, see UNHCR, 2013.

⁵⁹ IMF, 2009.

become residents there, and the net compensation of border, seasonal, or other short-term workers who are employed in an economy in which they are not residents".⁶⁰

Therefore, remittances are normally calculated as the sum of "compensation of employees" and "personal transfers".⁶¹ "Compensation of employees", in relation to remittance calculations, is defined as "the income of border, seasonal, and other short-term workers who are employed in an economy where they are not resident and of residents employed by nonresident entities";⁶² this means that salaries earned by resident employees of international organizations, embassies and consular offices, and other non-resident businesses are included in remittance calculations, although they technically do not (necessarily) imply transfer between resident migrants and non-resident households. Such amounts may also be very significant in certain countries where non-resident entities are numerous or employ high numbers of people. "Personal transfers" consist of all "current transfers in cash or in kind made or received by resident households to or from nonresident households", thus including "all current transfers between resident and nonresident individuals".⁶³ Personal transfers may thus also provide an overestimate of actual transfers between resident migrants and non-resident households, which are what is commonly regarded as remittances. At the same time, the upward bias caused by counting remittances as the sum of personal transfers and compensation of employees may be partly offset by the probable undercounting of migrant remittances sent through informal channels. The extent of these biases is, however, very difficult to assess.

For more information on remittances, and applicable definitions and associated caveats, refer to the World Bank documents and sources referenced in that section.

Smuggling of migrants

Article 3(a) of the Protocol Against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air defines "smuggling of migrants" as:

[...] the procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State Party of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident.

Articles 3(b) and (c) provide further clarification:

- (b) "Illegal entry" shall mean crossing borders without complying with the necessary requirements for legal entry into the receiving State;
- (c) "Fraudulent travel or identity document" shall mean any travel or identity document:
 - (i) That has been falsely made or altered in some material way by anyone other than a person or agency lawfully authorized to make or issue the travel or identity document on behalf of a State; or

60 Ibid.

61 Alvarez et al., 2015.

62 IMF, 2009.

63 Ibid.

- (ii) That has been improperly issued or obtained through misrepresentation, corruption or duress or in any other unlawful manner; or
- (iii) That is being used by a person other than the rightful holder;

Trafficking in persons

Article 3 of the 2000 Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, defines “trafficking in persons” as:

- (a) [...] the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs;
- (b) The consent of a victim of trafficking in persons to the intended exploitation set forth in subparagraph (a) of this article shall be irrelevant where any of the means set forth in subparagraph (a) have been used;
- (c) The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of a child for the purpose of exploitation shall be considered “trafficking in persons” even if this does not involve any of the means set forth in subparagraph (a) of this article;
- (d) “Child” shall mean any person under eighteen years of age.

For more information on human trafficking, and applicable definitions and associated caveats, refer to the UNODC documents and sources referenced in that section.

Appendix B

Diaspora

The term *diaspora* has been extensively discussed and defined in a variety of ways, across several academic disciplines, although there is no single agreed-upon definition. In general, it refers to a country's nationals or citizens abroad and their descendants. The term *diaspora* literally means *dispersion* (from *dia speirein* or "to scatter across" in Greek). Some scholars agree that the distinguishing characteristic of diasporas from other migrant groups is the presence of strong cultural, linguistic, historical, religious and affective ties with the country or community of origin, or a sense of shared identity and belonging.⁶⁴ Defining diasporas on the basis of nationality (for example, the Chinese or Indian diasporas) may often hide differences between groups, such as religion or ethnicity. Others suggest that the term *transnational communities* may better describe the reality of contemporary migration experiences, whereby migrants may establish and maintain connections with people in their home communities or migrants in other countries, thus "belonging to two or more societies at the same time".⁶⁵

Defining diaspora for statistical purposes is extremely challenging. The complexity, sensitivity and lack of a common definition hinder the compilation of internationally comparable statistics on diaspora populations. At the national level, countries may have a statistical definition of diaspora, often reflecting their historical and political trajectories; however, emigrants and their descendants may or may not identify as members of diaspora, independently of the definition and political approach that their country of origin may utilize towards diaspora. Moreover, collection of information on emigrants often relies on data from host countries, which may be available for foreign nationals, but less so for their children or descendants. National population censuses and household surveys in countries of origin may provide some information on nationals living abroad, but issues of frequency (of censuses) and sampling (of surveys) are the main obstacles to a timely and comprehensive picture of diaspora groups. Therefore, even for single countries, quantification and qualification of diaspora groups – *diaspora mappings* – are hard to accomplish. IOM has assisted a number of countries in their efforts to map their diasporas; see the text box below on IOM's work. For these reasons, generating a reliable estimate of the global stock of diasporas is an almost impossible task, unless the definition is narrowed down to groups of emigrants for whom data are available for most countries. This has been attempted by the OECD and the World Bank.⁶⁶

64 Vertovec and Cohen, 1999.

65 Vertovec, 2005.

66 See, for example, OECD, 2012b. In this 2012 OECD report, diasporas were defined as foreign-born persons aged 15 or older by country of birth, and their children born in destination countries. However, as mentioned in the report, information on children of migrants in destination countries is often not disaggregated by a number of characteristics. Therefore, information on sex and age of diasporas is not provided in the report. Also, only groups residing in OECD countries are considered, and statistics refer to the year 2008. The largest diasporas in the entire group of OECD countries were those of Mexico, with about 20 million people (or 16% of the total diaspora in OECD countries in that year), followed by Italy (with 5.2 million – 4% of the total), Germany (4.1 million – 3% of the total), India (3.8 million – 3% of the total), and the United Kingdom (2.9 million – 3% of the total). An update to this OECD report was released in 2015.

IOM's diaspora mapping

Within IOM, the term *diaspora* is used interchangeably with *transnational communities*. Both terms refer to migrants or descendants of migrants, whose identity and sense of belonging have been shaped by their migration experience and background. IOM uses the term *transnational communities* because, in a world of unprecedented global mobility, these communities comprise people who are connected to more than a single country. This allows for a more comprehensive approach and facilitates information and data collection.

To provide relevant information on diaspora populations, while identifying potential individuals who would be interested in investing and contributing their skills in their native countries, IOM maps data and ideas that are ultimately used in formulating policy propositions and recommendations. In many cases, the determining factor for IOM to engage transnational communities in its programming is a request from the government of the diaspora-hosting country or the country of origin. The guiding principle for IOM's participation should be that of serving the interests of all partners: the countries that transnational communities are connected to, the diaspora themselves, and the source country communities. IOM has formulated a comprehensive approach based on the 3Es for action: to Enable, Engage and Empower transnational communities as agents for development, with each stage involving interventions by governments and other stakeholders, supported by IOM through policy advice and programming.

Enabling	Engaging	Empowering
Maximizing the potential of transnational communities	Knowing and understanding transnational communities	Facilitating the mobilization of skills, expertise and resources of transnational communities

From 2000 to 2016, IOM produced more than 100 diaspora mapping reports for up to 61 countries of origin and 75 countries of destination, most of which were European or other OECD countries. More than a third of the mapping reports relate to migrants originating from the Asia and the Pacific, and Central and West Africa regions. Diaspora mapping focuses on different priorities, depending on the context in which the diaspora engagement takes place. Although most of the reports focus on the sociodemographic and economic profiles of diaspora communities, the objectives of such mappings vary from an analysis of the communication channels that particular diaspora communities utilize, to the identification of highly and semi-skilled professionals, among others. IOM is particularly involved in supporting the active participation of diaspora professionals in their countries of origin – for instance, in the health and education sectors, where specific development needs have been identified.

Appendix C

Irregular migration flows

As discussed in chapter 2, analysing data on the movements of people between countries and regions who are using *regular* visa and migration pathways is inherently difficult, as relatively few countries systematically collect and report such information. The difficulties are even more profound when it comes to capturing data on *irregular* migration flows – which, by their very nature tend to be clandestine, given that most (but not all) migrants seek to evade the authorities during such migration journeys. Consequently, there are no available data on irregular migration flows globally or regionally. In addition, relatively few countries globally have the capacity to fully monitor and collect data on irregular migration flows into or out of their territory. (Some notable exceptions include the more remote countries of Australia and New Zealand, where the atypical geographical isolation makes data collection much more straightforward.)⁶⁷ Many countries around the world continue to invest in border management capabilities and technologies allowing for the capture of data related to irregular migration flows. Some commentators question the utility of attempting to quantify irregular migration, citing the practical difficulties as well as the underlying rationale for collecting and citing such statistics, which can amount to alarmism.⁶⁸ There are, however, clear benefits to attempting to quantify irregular movements from the perspectives of national governments, regional and local governments, humanitarian service providers and others. A better understanding of the nature and extent of irregular migration flows would facilitate the development of more effective responses and mitigation strategies, particularly for populations at risk of displacement or irregular migration.⁶⁹

Irregular migration *flows* are commonly considered to mean irregular entry into transit and destination countries, although irregular departure has also been a feature of certain regions and countries historically (for example, East Germany between 1949 and 1990) and contemporaneously (for example, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, or North Korea). Some people who undertake irregular migration – departure and/or entry – have an express need *not* to evade authorities, but rather to engage with authorities or others (such as UNHCR) in order to seek protection. At certain times and in certain locations, refugees and asylum seekers may make up a substantial proportion of people moving irregularly along particular migration corridors. Irregular migration may place migrants in dangerous and life-threatening situations, as tragically demonstrated by the estimated number of migrant fatalities and disappearances globally recorded by IOM's Missing Migrants Project (see text box on IOM's MMP in chapter 2).

The little that is known of global irregular migration flows is deduced from estimates of irregular migrant stocks (as imprecise as they may be), under the assumption that irregular migrants entered via irregular means (that is, without prior permission of authorities). To some extent, this is likely to be true; however, many irregular migrants do not engage in unauthorized entry but, instead, take on irregular immigration status deliberately or unknowingly after arrival. Against this backdrop, irregular *maritime* migration flows, with their heightened visibility in recent years, may appear to be more significant and perhaps larger in scale than they are in practice, compared with other similar flows. This is particularly relevant to irregular maritime migration flows to developed countries such as Australia, Greece, Italy, Spain and the United States. That is

67 McAuliffe and Koser, 2017.

68 Castles, 2002; Clarke, 2000.

69 McAuliffe, 2017.

not to downplay the challenges and difficulties posed by irregular migration flows; however, in the absence of other data and information, it is extremely difficult to place these flows, which are often closely monitored, in a broader context. This is illustrated in the text box on irregular maritime migration flows, below.

Irregular maritime migration flows

Unlike other forms of irregular migration, the numbers of irregular maritime migrants moving from poor, less developed and/or conflict-ridden countries to developed countries, such as the flows heading for Australia, Europe and the United States, are relatively well documented. One of the reasons that this movement is monitored so closely is that it is highly visible. It also tends to be a focus of intense public interest. Consequently, highly regulated border-management processes have recently been developed, thereby increasing certain countries' capacity to count and report on the scope of irregular maritime flows. The U.S. Coast Guard, for example, reports precise figures going back to 1995. The EU's Frontex has increased its capacity, especially since 2008, to report on the number of persons detected while undertaking maritime migration in the Mediterranean and North Atlantic. These flows are typical of the focus on South–North movement and highlight the interest in monitoring irregular maritime migration to the North.

The scale of irregular maritime migration is difficult to quantify outside of the main South–North migration corridors. That said, even as recently as 10 years ago, such movement into Europe was not monitored and reported on in the highly systematized way it is today through Frontex. Data tend to capture interdictions/detections, and so clearly do not capture all attempts (successful or otherwise). It is likely that there are successful undetected maritime ventures in all contexts but, arguably, this is less likely in some circumstances. For example, it is possible that failing to be intercepted off the north-west coast of Australia by authorities may result in irregular migrants perishing in the very harsh and isolated coastal regions; the need to be detected by authorities is a genuine one.

Based on McAuliffe and Mence (2017).

Appendix D

Human trafficking

Trafficking in persons is defined in Article 3 of the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children.⁷⁰ Due to the clandestine, invisible and underreported nature of human trafficking, however, global estimates of victims of trafficking are limited and extremely challenging to collect. The latest available data, which are from 2014, indicate that 17,752 victims of human trafficking were detected in 85 countries.⁷¹ Between 2012 and 2014, 63,251 victims were detected in 106 countries and territories. UNODC notes that the majority of victims detected between 2012 and 2014 (57%) were trafficked transnationally, while the rest were trafficked within national borders.⁷² For the same reasons that there are limited data, actual numbers of victims are likely to be much higher than the detected number of victims.⁷³

Of the total victims detected in 2014, women and girls comprised the majority, at 71 per cent of the total. Since the UNODC began collecting data on trafficking in persons in 2003, females have constituted the majority share of detected victims, although this proportion has decreased from 84 per cent in 2004, in line with the increasing recognition that males are also victims. Between 2012 and 2014, one in five detected victims were men. The share of children among detected victims has also risen from 13 per cent in 2004 (10% girls and 3% boys) to 28 per cent in 2014 (20% girls and 8% boys), down from a peak in 2011 at 34 per cent.

While detected victims were trafficked for a variety of reasons, including sexual exploitation, forced labour, forced marriage, begging and organ removal, sexual exploitation has predominated since 2003. The proportion has changed since 2008, however, from 61 per cent to 54 per cent in 2014. During the same period, the share of detected victims trafficked for forced labour has also changed from 31 per cent to 38 per cent, although 2011 and 2013 saw higher proportions (40% and 39%, respectively). When the total number of detected victims is disaggregated by sex and form of exploitation, it becomes apparent that greater proportions of women are subject to sexual exploitation (for example, 72% of the total detected female victims in 2014), while greater proportions of males are subject to forced labour (for example, 85.7% of the total detected male victims in 2014). UNODC notes that about four out of 10 detected victims were trafficked for forced labour between 2012 and 2014. Of these victims, 63 per cent were men.

There is recognition of the need to obtain better data on victims of trafficking. The adoption of the UN's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) provides fresh impetus to improve the data, with the "number of

70 See appendix A for definition of *trafficking in persons*.

71 The content in this subsection is based on and drawn from UNODC, 2016. Please refer to this document for explanatory notes, deeper analysis, caveats, limitations and methodologies associated with the numbers and trends presented here. UNODC's previous Global Reports on Trafficking in Persons are other key sources of information. Another key global source of information on trafficking is the United States Department of State's Trafficking Persons Reports, available from United States Department of State, 2017.

72 Given the definition, human trafficking may sometimes be inaccurately understood to involve international or internal migration. However, such *movement* is unnecessary for someone to be classified as a victim. In this context, the number of detected victims does not necessarily mean *migrant* victims of human trafficking. That said, many cases of trafficking do involve internal or international migration.

73 For example, the Global Slavery Index estimates that, in 2016, there were 45.8 million people living in modern slavery in 167 countries, with 58 per cent of this population in just five countries: Bangladesh, China, India, Pakistan and Uzbekistan (see Walk Free Foundation, 2016, and www.globalslaveryindex.org/findings/). In 2012, the ILO estimated that, globally, there were 20.9 million victims of forced labour, with 9.1 million (or 44%) having moved internally or internationally (see ILO, 2016). While the legal definitions of *forced labour*, *slavery* and *trafficking in persons* are distinct, there are overlaps between the definitions such that persons estimated as victims of forced labour or slavery can also be victims of trafficking.

victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation” included as an indicator under Goal 16 (Indicator 16.2.2).⁷⁴ IOM’s operational efforts also provide useful insights (see below).

IOM’s data on assistance to victims of human trafficking

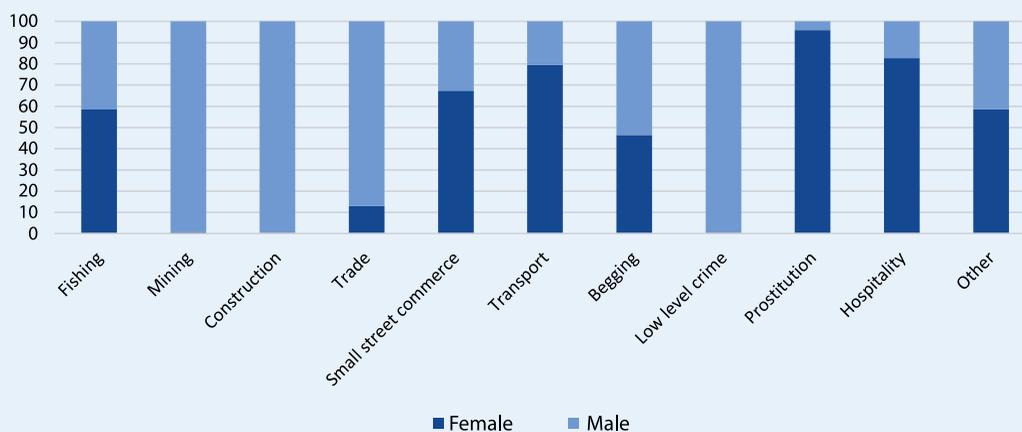
IOM began assisting victims of trafficking in the 1990s. IOM’s global database, the largest of its kind, contains data, including primary data, on 46,000 *identified* victims of trafficking, who have been: (1) identified; (2) assisted; or (3) identified and assisted by IOM. These victims represent 140 nationalities and have been identified in 150 countries. This database continues to increase by approximately 5,000 cases per year. For various reasons, however, not all the victims assisted by IOM are always recorded in the database. Additionally, IOM data are only collected in locations where IOM has counter-trafficking operations.

Among the victims of trafficking recorded in IOM’s database, between 2005 and 2015, the proportion of male human trafficking victims has increased, the proportion of victims subject to sexual exploitation has declined, and the proportion subject to forced labour has grown. During the same period, the average age of victims was 26 years (at the time of assistance), and half of the victims were aged between 18 and 34 years.

During 2015 to 2016, 8,976 victims of human trafficking were identified, assisted, or identified and assisted. The average age was 29 years, although male victims were older, on average, than females. Of the total for the period, approximately 15 per cent were children.

The graph below shows IOM’s data disaggregated by sectors of exploitation. Those found in sectors such as mining, construction, and low-level crime are almost exclusively men, whereas prostitution, hospitality and transport are dominated by women.

Sectors of exploitation of identified, assisted, or identified and assisted victims, 2005–2015 (%)



IOM also collects data on indicators of the presence of human trafficking and other exploitative practices along migration routes. The Human Trafficking and Other Exploitative Practices Prevalence Indication Survey has been conducted as part of IOM's DTM operations since December 2015. These data indicate that over 30 per cent of the 16,000 migrants interviewed along the Central and Eastern Mediterranean migration routes during 2016 experienced human trafficking or other exploitative practices during the journey.

For more information on IOM's data and work with victims of trafficking, see www.iom.int/counter-trafficking. IOM's primary data on identified victims of human trafficking are available for download at www.ctdatacollaborative.org/.

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