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# MIGRATION POLICY PRACTICE

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Migrants and refugees in Horgos, at the Serbian–Hungarian border. © Francesco Malavolta.

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# Introduction: Understanding and Measuring Safe Migration

Solon Ardittis and Frank Laczko<sup>1</sup>

This special issue of Migration Policy Practice focuses on the subject of “safe migration” given that this is a term which is being increasingly used in several high-level global migration policy documents. Most notably, world leaders came together in New York in September 2016 to launch a process leading to an international conference and the adoption of a global compact for **safe**, orderly and regular migration in 2018. “The New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants expresses the political will of world leaders to save lives, protect rights and share responsibility on a global scale” (UN, 2016). As the United Nations underlines, “the agreement to move towards this comprehensive framework is a momentous one. It means that migration, like other areas of international relations, will be guided by a set of common principles and approaches” (ibid.).

In adopting the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in 2015, the international community also recognized the positive contributions that migration can make to development. The new global development framework, which identifies 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), includes many references to migration. In particular, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development includes a call for States to report on the progress that they are making in facilitating “orderly, **safe**, regular and responsible migration”.

The challenge for the international statistical community is to find ways to define and measure “safe” or “unsafe” migration. Although the term “safe migration” has been widely used for many years in migration programmes, it has not really been fully defined in the recent policy documents

mentioned above. References to “unsafe migration” in such documents tend to refer to the dangerous journeys that migrants undertake, which are often associated with exploitation, harm and, in the worst cases, death. There is no doubt that in some parts of the world, migration is becoming increasingly unsafe. For example, nearly 12,000 migrants died in the Mediterranean over the last three years (IOM, 2016). IOM’s global report on migrant fatalities – *Fatal Journeys Volume 2* – shows that worldwide over 60,000 migrant deaths have been recorded over the last 20 years (ibid.).

This interpretation of “unsafe migration” focuses on migrants in transit. It could also be argued, however, that migrants may face risks both at their destination or when returning to their countries of origin. For example, migrants may find that they are forced into trafficking against their will when they reach a destination country. Others may find that even when they return to their countries of origin they are still at risk of exploitation because they have to pay off smuggling debts incurred during their journeys. Another question is how far should irregular migration be equated with unsafe migration? There are different forms of irregular migration and some practices are more unsafe than others. Entering a country on a false passport can be a relatively safe way for someone to enter a country illegally compared to being smuggled into a country on a boat or truck crammed with many others. Nonetheless, a person may travel legally to Europe and find themselves forced into trafficking or severely exploited in the workplace. Conversely, a person seeking protection may use irregular migration channels to seek safety.

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1 Solon Ardittis is Managing Director of Eurasyllum Ltd. Frank Laczko is Director of the Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (GMDAC) at the International Organization for Migration (IOM) in Berlin. They are the co-editors of *Migration Policy Practice*.

Defining and measuring “safe migration”, particularly in the context of increasing rates of irregular migration in many parts of the world, is therefore challenging. Moreover, the lack of reliable, comparable and timely data on many aspects of migration makes this a daunting task. Currently, not a single “migration indicator” is ranked as a “Tier 1” indicator by the UN Statistics Division and the Inter-Agency Expert Group on Sustainable Development Goals Indicators. The United Nations has classified SDG indicators into three tiers:

- Tier 1 – an established methodology exists and data are already widely available;
- Tier 2 – a methodology has been established but for which data are not easily available;
- Tier 3 – an internationally agreed methodology has not yet been developed.

This special issue of *Migration Policy Practice* explores how data on unsafe migration could be collected in a more systematic fashion focusing on the situation in Europe and neighbouring countries. The articles published in this issue were first presented and discussed at an international workshop organized by IOM’s Global Migration Data Analysis Centre in June 2016, in Nuremberg, Germany, with the financial support of the United Kingdom Department for International Development. The articles provide examples of innovative work that is being done by IOM and other agencies to gather data on the risks that migrants face during their journeys and on arrival at their destinations. In addition to the articles presented in this volume, IOM is also expanding its efforts to collect data on missing migrants through its annual global report. Furthermore, this year IOM sponsored a report on measuring well-governed migration, which also collects data on the extent to which countries are gathering data on safe and orderly migration (EIU, 2016). A general conclusion that can be made from these reports is that much of the responsibility for collecting data on indicators of unsafe migration rests with civil society organizations and international agencies rather than national governments. While national authorities often collect law enforcement related data on irregular migration, such as the number of apprehensions, prosecutions and convictions, there is generally much less emphasis on collecting data on the risks of migration for the migrants (McAuliffe and Laczko, 2016).

The editors would also like to encourage readers to spare a couple of minutes to participate in a survey, which aims to help us identify our readers’ profiles, the institutions they represent and their primary interests in our journal. Should you wish to participate in this survey, please [click here](#). ■

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# Defining safe migration: The migrant's perspective and the role of sending countries in research and data collection

## A case study from IOM Iraq

**Benedetta Cordaro<sup>1</sup>**

### Abstract

*The reference to safe migration in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development has posed new challenges and stimulated debates about the need for a clear, recognized and measurable definition of safe migration.*

*This article aims at enriching this discussion by sharing the experience of IOM Iraq Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) research team and its study on the migration outflows from Iraq to Europe in 2015. The paper touches on the challenges of global standardized procedures and definitions, particularly on the role that countries can play at different stages of the migration process (country of origin, transit country and country of destination) in data collection and analysis. The discussion is then extended to the lack of access to highly sensitive data and to the alternative strategies that can be put in place to obtain this information. Finally, focus is given to the often-neglected definition of “safe migration” from the migrants’ perspective, and on how this perspective could inform the definition of safe migration.*

### Introduction

**T**he 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, ratified by all Member States in 2015, officially mentions safe migration in one of its sustainable development goals.<sup>2</sup> However, no agreement has been reached on an unequivocal definition of safe

migration, and indicators for its measurement are still under discussion. The definitions currently considered are oriented towards measuring well-managed migration policies: the measurement of safe migration is privileging policy over monitoring its effects on migrants.

Even though there is still no definition for safe migration, a certain consensus is emerging on the definition of “unsafe migration” as one that exposes migrants to risks, and is often linked to unordered or irregular migration.<sup>3</sup>

Some suggested indicators to measure unsafe migration are the number of trafficking victims, the number of fatalities during the journey and the number of irregular migrants. This approach tackles the definition of safe migration from the perspective of migrants rather than from a sole policy standpoint. However, the availability of reliable statistical data presents a major challenge and compromises the potential adoption of similar indicators to officially measure the achievement of Target 10.7.

In the ongoing debate to define safe migration and determine its indicators, three main challenges can be identified.

Firstly, the need for global standardized definitions and procedures, and for indicators that can be narrowed down and measured, clashes with the vagueness of the “safe migration” definition. Moreover, countries, institutions and organizations have varying capabilities of providing consistent data.

1 Benedetta Cordaro is a Research Officer for the Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) at the International Organization for Migration (IOM), based in Iraq.

2 Under SDG 10 (Reduce inequality within and among countries), Target 10.7 is to facilitate orderly, safe, regular, and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies by 2030.

3 This approach is found in documents such as the “Migration governance framework”, adopted by the IOM Council in 2015, and the report from the UN Secretary-General, “In safety and dignity: Addressing large movements of refugees and migrants”, 2016.



Secondly, the current measurable definitions and suggested indicators of safe migration focus on policy measures. The perspective of the migrant is often neglected and has only recently started being taken into consideration *a contrario* (based on contrast), thanks to the growing consensus on the “unsafe migration” definition.

Finally, the suggested indicators to measure unsafe migration address sensitive topics because they aim at tracking trafficking, fatalities and irregular migration, which by definition are hard to detect, and on which there is no widely available and reliable statistical data.

In this context, the experience of IOM Iraq Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM)<sup>4</sup> research team and its study on migration flows from Iraq to Europe in 2015 can inform the ongoing discussions on the challenges associated to determining a clear-cut definition and measurement of safe migration.

#### Migration flows from Iraq to Europe: IOM Iraq Displacement Tracking Matrix’s phased-approach study

Between November 2015 and May 2016, IOM Iraq DTM conducted a study in the framework of the project “Understanding complex migration flows from Iraq to Europe through movement tracking and awareness campaigns” funded by the United Kingdom Department for International Development. The study relied on mixed research methods and was articulated in two phases.

The first phase consisted of a quantitative study conducted in December 2015.<sup>5</sup> A structured questionnaire was administered to approximately 500 Iraqis living in Europe at the time and who left Iraq in 2015. IOM’s Rapid Assessment and Response Teams, composed of Iraqi nationals, were asked to identify the sample by chain referral (snowball sampling technique) through their network of acquaintances.

The quantitative research was meant to be a preliminary study that would allow reaching a high number of respondents in a limited period, and was aimed at exploring different topics to better understand the overall process of migrating to Europe. The information collected through the questionnaire included a profile of the sample based on demographics, family status and socioeconomic background. The questions then addressed the preparation and organization of the journey, decision-making and planning, the information-gathering process, the choice of country of destination and the expectations. The questionnaire also investigated the journey with regard to itineraries, costs and routes. Finally, the questionnaire inquired about the living conditions in the country of destination and the intentions for the future.

The results allowed identifying specific topics worth further investigation, particularly regarding the decision-making process, the reasons for migrating and the reasons for choosing a specific country of destination. These themes were investigated further during the second phase of the research, which consisted of a qualitative study. Between March and April 2016, IOM Iraq DTM conducted 14 focus group discussions (FGDs) with Iraqi returnees who migrated from Iraq to Europe in 2015 and had subsequently returned.

4 The DTM is IOM’s information management system to track and monitor population displacement during crises. Composed of a variety of tools and processes, the DTM regularly captures and processes multilayered data and disseminates a wide array of information products that facilitate a better understanding of the evolving needs of a displaced population, be that on site or en route. Detailed information about IOM Iraq DTM products and methodology is available at <http://iraqdtm.iom.int/>

5 The results of the first phase of the research are presented in the report titled *Migration Flows from Iraq to Europe* and released in February 2016. The findings of the second phase are analysed in the report *Migration Flows from Iraq to Europe: Reasons behind Migration*, released in July 2016. Both reports are available at these websites: <http://iomiraq.net/allreports>; <http://iomiraq.net/reports/migration-flows-iraq-europe-reasons-behind-migration>; <http://iomiraq.net/reports/migration-flows-iraq-europe>

**Global standardized definitions and procedures:  
The role of a sending country**

As mentioned, the need for globally accepted and standardized definitions and procedures clashes not only with the blurred definitions of safe and unsafe migration but also with the capabilities of the countries' institutions, international organizations, and other stakeholders to gather and share consistent data.

The current crisis in Iraq, which started at the end of 2013, caused mass waves of internal displacement and affected millions of people who now need humanitarian assistance. Migration outflow was not a top priority for local authorities and their institutions, nor for humanitarian actors in the country.<sup>6</sup>

Most importantly, as verified by the DTM research team's field visits, interviews with key informants and the first quantitative research conducted in December 2015, the migration outflow was mainly regular and carried out through formal exit points, as Iraqis used to be granted visas easily from Turkey.<sup>7</sup> Furthermore, local authorities were reluctant to share data or any information about outflows through formal points that were usually managed by Iraqi security forces.

Within the definition of safe migration, where "safe" can be understood from a policy (border management), legal (regular versus irregular), or risk standpoint (danger associated to it), where does the migration outflow from Iraq to Turkey stand? The

migration outflow was mainly regulated, risk factors seemed quite low and border management was enforced.

The IOM Iraq DTM research team was approached and initially requested to quantify the migration outflow towards Europe. However, after preliminary investigations, it became quite clear that this information was not accessible from inside the country, because exit points could not be monitored by IOM staff where local authorities were in charge, and these authorities were unwilling to share data.

However, while information about the numbers of migrants could be more easily and reliably found in registration records of transit and receiving countries, it became clear that the IOM Iraq DTM research team was in a privileged position to investigate other topics that actors in transit or destination countries could not explore: organizations and institutions in transit and destination countries were caught in the emergency, lacked resources and time or faced the unwillingness of the interviewees to share certain information. On the other hand, the IOM DTM team did not have to deal with the migration outflow as an emergency and could leverage its experience, established information management system, access to the country and to key informants, and knowledge of the context to gather information. The objective of the information-gathering was two-fold: advising the emergency response in other countries by providing useful data that those countries did not have the time or the resources to gather, and investigating factors and drivers that would feed into the longer-term goals and humanitarian programmes in the sending country.

**Sensitive topics: Lack of access to reliable statistical data**

As previously discussed, the concept of unsafe migration relies on indicators such as the number of fatalities, human rights violations, trafficking victims and irregular migrants. These indicators are not easy to measure, and even when data is available findings are still difficult to generalize. Therefore, whereas one of the weaknesses of the definition of safe migration is that it focuses on policy – which excludes the victim's perspective – the definition of *unsafe* migration includes the migrant's perspective but is highly difficult to measure or generalize, hence preventing its inclusion in official indicators.

6 As of January 2016, IOM Iraq's DTM estimated the number of internally displaced persons (IDPs) at 3.3 million individuals, while the number of returnees (IDPs who had returned to their habitual residence after being displaced but still need assistance) was estimated at 485,000. In addition to this, the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) reported 245,000 registered Syrian refugees in Iraq as of January 2016. On the other hand, the number of Iraqi migrants who reached the Greek coasts in 2015 was estimated at 85,000. IOM Iraq DTM data is available at <http://iraqdtm.iom.int/> (retrieved on 11 August 2016). UNHCR data on Syrian refugees are available at <https://data.unhcr.org/syrianrefugees/> (retrieved on 11 August 2016). IOM data on migration towards Europe are available at <http://migration.iom.int/europe/> (retrieved on 15 June 2016).

7 According to the DTM report *Migration Flows from Iraq to Europe* (February 2016), 94 per cent of the interviewed sample left Iraq through formal exit points. Of the remaining, 4 per cent stated to have left the country because did not have access to formal exit points. Furthermore, 90 per cent of the interviewed sample reported to have transited through Turkey.

The experience of IOM Iraq DTM research team in this regard is interesting. Snowball sampling is a non-probability sampling technique, which is normally employed to identify subjects that are hard to locate or to reach, rare or in hiding. The added value of this technique is that it reaches subjects who are otherwise non-identifiable, but it does not provide a statistically representative sample, meaning that findings could not be generalized. Respondents were interviewed via phone or Skype in their native languages (Arabic and Kurdish) by acquaintances or friends, when they were already in the country of destination and hence none of the information shared with the interviewer could have affected their situation, whether negatively or positively. The guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality, the trust relationship between the interviewees and the IOM staff who interviewed them, and the geographical distance suggest that interviewees might have felt comfortable enough to answer sensitive questions with honesty. Information about costs, reasons for migration, itineraries, and legal or illegal entries into transit countries were provided without difficulties.

The same can be said in relation to the FGDs conducted with returnees. The sample was identified through the lists of IOM's assisted voluntary return (AVR) and assisted voluntary return and reintegration (AVRR) programmes,<sup>8</sup> so researchers could rely on in-house information and access a pool of potential participants. Of course this sampling presented some limitations, as it was only composed of returnees who came back to Iraq through IOM's AVR and AVRR programmes, while Iraqis who returned using any other means were not included. Participants had already been granted their reintegration packages at the time of the FGD; hence, the benefits they had received from IOM did not depend on the answers they gave. The results of the FGDs provided insight about the motivations behind migration and the reason for choosing Europe at that specific period of time (summer of 2015). Answers were sometimes counterintuitive and most likely different from the answers migrants would have provided in the destination country. Topics about

traffickers, economic and security reasons, and costs came up spontaneously and explicitly.

Eventually, the IOM Iraq DTM research team's experience shows that although generalization could not be achieved, it was still possible to implement alternative rigorous research methods that would fit the purpose and the context to investigate sensitive areas. The results gathered by IOM Iraq DTM do not claim to be comprehensive, but can be a starting point for other research projects conducted in other countries (whether of transit or destination) with suitable and applicable research methodologies.

### The migrant's perspective: Safe and unsafe migration

As mentioned, the victim's perspective is better taken into account in the definition of unsafe migration than in the safe migration, which is more policy oriented. In the definition of unsafe, concepts such as irregular, unordered and risky are considered as well.

The recent DTM experience in Iraq led the researchers to discuss and question the concepts of safety, risk aversion and regular migration, specifically from the point of view of the migrants.

During the FGDs, participants were asked to explain what reasons pushed thousands of Iraqis to leave their home country and pulled them towards Europe in the second half of 2015.<sup>9</sup> With regard to the pull factors, the explanation provided bore no remarkable differences across the whole country: participants explained that the doors to Europe were open at that moment and that the journey was safer, less risky and less costly than before. Respondents turned out to be extremely well informed about the risks of the journey, but from their perspective, the open-door policy of the Balkan and European countries, and the lower costs of the journey represented great pull factors. The journey, from their point of view, was safe simply because it was safer than before (respondents reported not to fear to be arrested or shot by guards at the borders as an example of increased safety), and because it was safer than the context they faced daily in Iraq. The level of risk was considered worth the purpose, namely obtaining a residency permit in Europe.

<sup>8</sup> Assisted voluntary return (AVR) and assisted voluntary return and reintegration (AVRR) programmes are meant to assist migrants who wish to return to their countries of origin but lack the means to do so. In 2015, IOM had AVR and AVRR programmes in 97 host countries and 156 countries of origin. In the case of Iraq, IOM assisted over 2,600 Iraqi nationals who voluntarily returned to their country from Europe between January 2015 and April 2016.

<sup>9</sup> Of the 86,989 Iraqis identified by the Hellenic Coast Guard in 2015, 84,281 arrived between July and December 2015.

Both the quantitative and the qualitative phases showed that there was much misinformation and misconceptions among the migrants, but not as much about the journey itself and its risks than about the living conditions in the country of destination and particularly about the difficulties in obtaining the residency permit. Some FGD participants explicitly said they might have taken different decisions had they been properly informed.

In light of these considerations, it is worth discussing how the migrants' perspective and perception of "safe" can be included in an accepted definition of safe migration. From a migrant's perspective, is it possible to state that misinformed migration, even when regular, is safe at all? Would these findings have emerged if "unsafe" migration had been benchmarked only against indicators such as trafficking and human rights violations?

## Conclusion

In the ongoing discussion about the definition of safe migration and the methods to measure it, IOM Iraq DTM team's experience has been confronted by three major challenges.

Firstly, with regard to the need of agreed-upon definitions and procedures – with which countries are supposed to comply – and the varying capabilities of organizations and institutions across different countries to provide standardized data, the argument is that different countries can access different types of information with methodologies that suit their research questions and the prevailing circumstances. From IOM DTM's experience, it can be concluded that countries – whether sending, transit and destination – can provide information and data for different purposes, be it emergency response or in-country, long-term humanitarian programmes. Data collected by different actors can be complementary without duplicating efforts.

Secondly, another challenge is the definition of unsafe migration: it allows for a subjective definition that does not focus on policy only, but it presents issues with the indicators suggested to measure it. Reliable statistical data about trafficking, fatalities or irregular migration are not widely available. The IOM Iraq DTM team's experience suggests that different actors and different stages of migration can implement rigorous research methods, enabling them to access

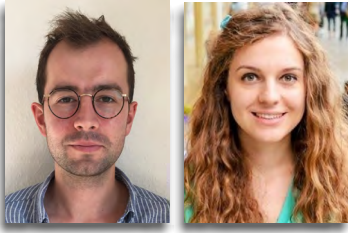
sensitive information. For instance, in the case of a sending country such as Iraq, interviewees did not feel threatened by the researchers' questions, since their answers would not affect their situation. These answers, collected in a comfortable environment, can help inform the course of action in those countries where this kind of information is not easily accessible; they represent a starting point to develop more tailored research.

Finally, the findings of DTM team's research encourage questioning assumptions about the perception of what "safe" and "unsafe" are. From the migrants' point of view, the journey towards Europe was perceived as safe, and this perception played a major role in the decision to emigrate. The element of risk was due to the unawareness and misconceptions about life in Europe rather than to the perils of the journey, which led migrants to perceive that the expected outcome was worth the effort. From a methodological point of view, key information about the perception of "safe" and "unsafe" emerged when respondents were asked about the reasons behind their decisions, rather than when attempting to gather standardized statistics on irregular entries or trafficking. This means that to measure what "unsafe" is, tools other than standardized proxies were employed.

Through its research, the IOM Iraq DTM team relied on its in-country capacity and knowledge of the local context to investigate the broader migration phenomenon and tackle previously unexplored areas of research from the perspective of a sending country. The IOM Iraq DTM research team's study hopes to have contributed to the research on the issue of migration to Europe, particularly by highlighting issues that are not usually prioritized in studies in transit and receiving countries. ■

**The IOM Iraq DTM team's experience suggests that different actors and different stages of migration can implement rigorous research methods, enabling them to access sensitive information.**





## Opportunities and challenges for existing approaches to measuring and monitoring human trafficking

Harry Cook and Eliza Galos<sup>1</sup>

**T**he global interest in migration and human trafficking is reflected in the targets of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. In particular, Target 10.7 calls for “orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration”. In order to achieve the safety of all migrants, it is essential to reduce their vulnerabilities to exploitation and abuse, and the risks and harms associated with the migration process. Therefore, tackling human trafficking plays an important role in achieving safe migration.

Human trafficking is directly mentioned in various SDG targets. For example, SDG Target 16.2 calls for ending of trafficking, abuse and exploitation of children. Target 5.2 asks for the elimination of human trafficking as a form of violence against women and girls. Another target, 8.7, requests the elimination of human trafficking and other forms of modern slavery. A list of 230 indicators for the targets has been adopted, and methodologies to measure them at the global level are being developed.<sup>2</sup> For example, the indicator that measures the “number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation” (16.2.2) still needs international standards to be agreed on and a refined methodology. Countries are also expected to translate the global indicators at national level and regional level.

The global indicator framework for meeting the SDG targets, in particular, will focus national efforts towards particular measurements. Given that human trafficking is a crime and intended to be undetected, how can progress against such important development targets be measured? Within the context of the SDGs and

the development of better evidence-based policy to combat trafficking more broadly, this article discusses the strengths and weaknesses of three different kinds of approach to measuring and monitoring trafficking, and some of the existing data used.

One approach to measuring and monitoring human trafficking relates to analysing data collected from identified victims. Another way to measure human trafficking is to produce prevalence estimates. A third approach which could be useful in the measurement and monitoring of human trafficking is to identify and analyse certain environmental factors that impact prevalence estimates.

### Human trafficking data based on identified victims

Victims are ultimately the tragic fallout of any human trafficking process. Survivors often recount harrowing experiences to assistance actors, the police and/or border agencies with details about the transnational criminal process they have been subjected to. Data collected by response agencies can provide a unique window into an otherwise difficult to observe crime.

Analysis and monitoring of trends within data from identified victims can be used to develop evidence-based and more efficient counter-trafficking responses. Data from identified victims are also one of the only data sources available that can be used to develop indicators that directly measure aspects of the crime itself; the other principal data of this kind being those collected from perpetrators through the prosecution process. While the SDG Target 8.7 mentions the elimination of modern-day slavery in all its forms, Targets 5.2 and 16.2 clearly call for attention to be paid to the pernicious forms of trafficking that women and children are subjected to, and the inherently gendered and age-related aspects of the crime. Victim-of-trafficking case data, disaggregated by age and sex, provide us with opportunities to do just that. Indicators attempting to measure relevant trends in the crime itself might include those that, for example, monitor the proportion of women and children among all identified victims, disaggregated by type of exploitation.

1 Harry Cook is a Data Management and Research Specialist and Eliza Galos is a Data Analyst. Both work on human trafficking at the International Organization for Migration (IOM) Headquarters in Geneva.

2 The Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Sustainable Development Goal Indicators (IAEG-SDGs) has developed a list of 230 indicators that were then adopted by the United Nations Statistical Commission. More information on the indicator framework development can be found on the SDG indicators website: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/>

Through its provision of direct assistance to victims of trafficking, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) has developed the largest database of victim case data in the world. The database contains over 45,000 individual cases of trafficking, with approximately 5,000 new cases added each year. It captures detailed information about the background of victims, the trafficking locations and routes, how people fall into the trafficking process, the associated forms of exploitation and abuse, the sectors of exploitation, the means by which victims are controlled and some information on perpetrators.

To produce the *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons*,<sup>3</sup> the United Nations Office on Crime and Drugs (UNODC) surveys governments for data on victims that have been identified in their respective countries through a common questionnaire and with a standard set of indicators. This exercise produced data on approximately 40,000 identified victims of trafficking from 128 national governments. For the most part, this is not unit record information but absolute numbers disaggregated by variables such as sex, age and type of exploitation wherever possible. In addition, it collected official information such as police reports, available in the public domain, which were verified with national governments.<sup>4</sup> Eight per cent of the information was collected from intergovernmental organizations and non-governmental organizations (NGOs).

There are important considerations and challenges in using identified victim data to measure human trafficking and develop indicators for the SDGs. Even if we assume perfect information globally for identified victim data, it is likely that counter-trafficking actors have a greater propensity to identify certain types of victims of trafficking than others. For example, women are more likely than men to be identified as victims of human trafficking. Historically there has been a gendered approach to human trafficking, from

all actors involved in prevention and victim assistance initiatives in this field. For a long time, national and international legislation tended to focus exclusively on women and children trafficked, as these groups were considered more vulnerable. While undoubtedly there is a feminized dimension of human trafficking, men and boys have not been considered potential victims at all until recently. The gradual legislative and institutional shift from human trafficking for sexual exploitation to “trafficking in persons” or, more recently, to “modern slavery” has however reduced the risk of non-identification of male victims. There remains however an inherent bias in the data. More work is needed to understand which types of trafficking are more likely to be undetected and how such bias might be corrected. Trying to better understand what you cannot detect is a thorny problem.

Data collected on identified victims of trafficking globally have other shortcomings, too. Both UNODC and IOM data are limited in geographic scope. IOM’s data rely on the presence of IOM programming, which varies in extent by country. UNODC’s data are from secondary sources, relying on the collection of official information primarily from participating governments. However, some countries have not participated in this process, and national legal and policy frameworks to counter trafficking and capacities to identify and report on the victims vary. Data provided to UNODC are aggregate figures that are sometimes not broken down by basic variables such as sex and age, never mind details of exploitation and the trafficking process. IOM’s data are primary, unit record case data with more fine-grained detail on each victim of trafficking. However, such data are highly sensitive and, even when data are anonymized, the risk of reidentification remain, with possible severe consequences. Access to external stakeholders and applications of the data has therefore been relatively limited to date. This is a problem shared by other collectors of primary data of this kind.

IOM is currently working to overcome data access challenges by partnering with other leaders in field with large datasets, such as the NGO Polaris, to develop the Human Trafficking Data Portal. The Portal aims to be the world’s largest open-access, multi-stakeholder repository of human trafficking data. It will combine and merge different human trafficking datasets to form enlarged datasets. By making these combined datasets available to external parties on a systematic basis, while ensuring the anonymity of victims, the Portal will rapidly enhance the evidence base for the development of responses to human trafficking and labour exploitation and abuse.

3 The United Nations Office on Crime and Drugs (UNODC) regularly publishes reports on identified human trafficking victim data, and it has been providing data on detected victims of trafficking since 2003. The latest report on which our analysis is based was released in 2014 and can be accessed here: [www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/glotip/GLOTIP\\_2014\\_full\\_report.pdf](http://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/glotip/GLOTIP_2014_full_report.pdf). The next edition of the report is due to be launched in late 2016.

4 An important added value of the report is the information about convicted traffickers. Data about approximately 13,000 offenders were collected.

## Human trafficking prevalence estimates

Other approaches to measurements are those attempting to estimate the prevalence of human trafficking. This is relevant to the SDGs, where one of the target indicators (16.2.2) has been provisionally defined as “the number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation”.

Organizations such as the International Labour Organization (ILO) and Walk Free Foundation (WFF) have attempted to estimate the prevalence of forced labour and modern slavery, respectively,<sup>5</sup> including estimates of the profile of victims in terms of age, sex and exploitation type.

An important limitation of these kinds of global prevalence estimates is that they rely heavily on extrapolation of results from countries where surveys to collect standardized, comparable data are conducted to those where no comparable data exist. The 2016 Global Slavery Index (GSI)<sup>6</sup> prevalence estimates are based on only 25 national surveys with small samples that are typically only around 1,000 respondents. Scores for the rest of the 140 countries in the GSI are developed through extrapolation of survey results to other countries based on perceived similarities in their risk and vulnerability profile. The ILO 2012 exercise to estimate forced labour recorded data from 5,491 reported cases of forced labour from 2,500 secondary sources, but it was not able to record basic details for all cases; information on sex was available for only 1,860 cases, and on age for only 2,184 cases.<sup>7</sup> The estimates of both reported and unreported cases are done through a capture–recapture methodology with a two-stage approach

(double sampling). The statistical unit is a reported case of forced labour. Findings were then extrapolated to many countries for which data were missing.<sup>8</sup> The need to extrapolate is understandable and perhaps unavoidable, since the collection of this kind of primary data is very resource intensive and it would likely not be sustainable to collect in-depth survey data from every country in the world. However, the underlying sample sizes in a given country tend to be small, raising questions about the statistical significance of the results, and the methods for extrapolating results from one country to another are contentious. In addition, the identification techniques in surveys vary between countries, as some are able to conclusively identify victims, which makes the findings difficult to compare and generalize.

ILO and WFF have made progress in testing different methodologies for prevalence estimates, but in terms of measuring and monitoring the SDGs there is therefore no internationally agreed methodology to estimate the prevalence of human trafficking. In addition, as mentioned throughout this article, there is limited available comparable data between countries, and these two limitations would classify human trafficking prevalence indicators as “Tier 2” or “Tier 3”.<sup>9</sup> The development of methodologies for the global SDG framework is still a work in progress for certain indicators, as only some of them have established methodology, agreed international standards and data availability.

In the latest GSI, extrapolation of results is conducted by constructing a vulnerability model, based on a factor analysis of the survey data. The vulnerability model is then applied to countries for which no survey data exist to develop a score based on weighting of the factors identified in each country. Factors include structural economic and social factors that are considered to be predictive factors of modern slavery (see also the third

5 While the concepts of “forced labour” and “modern slavery” do not mean the same thing and do not necessarily include movement of victims, they are often used to refer to human trafficking.

6 The findings and methodology of the 2016 Global Slavery Index (GSI) can be explored on its dedicated website: [www.globalslaveryindex.org/](http://www.globalslaveryindex.org/)

7 International Labour Office, Special Action Programme to Combat Forced Labour (SAP-FL), *ILO Global Estimate of Forced Labour: Results and Methodology* (Geneva, 2012). Available from [www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed\\_norm/---declaration/documents/publication/wcms\\_182004.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---declaration/documents/publication/wcms_182004.pdf)

8 The International Labour Organization (ILO) has also undertaken national surveys that attempt to give national estimates of the number of people in forced labour. Despite the acknowledged potential of such national surveys, they were not included in the methods for the 2012 global estimates, as too few were conducted at that stage.

9 The IAEG-SDGs is responsible for producing the global indicator framework. Tier 3 indicators still require the development of a methodology. Tier 1 indicators are considered conceptually clear with established methodology and available data which is released regularly. Tier 2 indicators are like Tier 1, but the availability of data is scarce because countries do not produce it regularly, or the data are not easily available.

approach to measuring trafficking in the succeeding section). The 24 variables are grouped into civil and political protections, social, health and economic rights, personal security, and refugees and conflict. Although the vulnerability model covers a multitude of potential factors that can be linked to modern slavery, the identification and weighting of factors affecting prevalence in the GSI has so far been dependent upon theoretical considerations and analysis of samples of survey data which are too small to provide a great deal of variation on the dependent variable. The lack of availability of comparable data on potential factors is also a challenge for this methodological approach. For example, the GSI vulnerability model includes a variable on mobile phone subscriptions but it does not include a variable that specifically refers to forced marriage or psychological violence.<sup>10</sup>

Unit record case data on identified victims have the potential to play an important role in improving the methodology of prevalence estimates approaches. For example, they can help with the process of extrapolating data from particular locations/countries to other locations/countries, based on the profile of victims of trafficking. They may also be used to complement work that has already been done on factor analysis, such as that in the GSI, by supporting further identification and weighting of factors, particularly if suitable control groups are identified to complement identified victim data. Identified victim data may also inform the design of new national surveys that are aimed at capturing vulnerabilities and risk factors in certain populations.

### **Ecosystems approaches that attempt to measure environmental factors that may impact the prevalence of human trafficking**

If, when we talk about human trafficking, supply-side factors are those that relate to the presence of vulnerable populations and demand-side factors are those that relate to the presence of predatory groups/individuals who would exploit those vulnerable populations by whatever means they have at their disposal, environmental factors can be understood as those that either enable predatory groups/individuals

or, conversely, those that better protect vulnerable populations. Approaches that focus on measuring environmental factors have the advantage of monitoring progress in combating human trafficking by using proxy indicators, which are relatively easy to measure, rather than attempting to monitor the crime itself, which is problematic.

An example of such an indicator is found within the SDGs in Indicator 10.7.1: “recruitment cost borne by employee as proportion of yearly income earned in country of destination”. The rationale for this indicator is that such fees disproportionately affect low-skilled, low-income workers from low-income countries, and that by reducing recruitment costs the disposable incomes of low-income workers are increased and inequalities are reduced by enabling people who could otherwise not afford to seek employment abroad to do so without ending up in debt bondage. Debt bondage is just one possible outcome of high recruitment fees, which essentially mean that the ex ante investment in the transaction of being recruited is far higher on the part of the migrant worker than it is on the part of the employer. By definition, the migrant becomes much more invested in the transaction being continued than the employer, who may simply replace the worker at limited cost if the worker is low-skilled. This puts the employer in a position of power and the migrant worker in a position of vulnerability from the outset, which is a relationship conducive to exploitation. The relationship is further unbalanced by the existence of information asymmetries between the employer and the prospective worker regarding the nature and conditions of work in the country of destination. The combination of high recruitment fees and information asymmetries means that transaction costs (in the economist’s sense of the term) are far higher for prospective migrant workers than they are for employers. On average, this leads to worse outcomes for migrant workers and a greater chance for malfeasance on the part of employers, including exploitative practices that may amount to trafficking.

Other examples of these kinds of indicators include those relating to the broader counter-trafficking legislative, policy and specialized service provision context in a country, such as whether or not there is a robust national law against trafficking in persons or a national hotline for referral of potential victims. The GSI, the UNODC reports and the United States’ annual

<sup>10</sup> There is however one variable called women’s physical security, which measures issues such as domestic violence not exclusively. Therefore, the GSI does not use indicators relevant to a broader spectrum of violence against women and girls.



Trafficking in Persons Report<sup>11</sup> have undertaken important exercises in classifying, measuring and monitoring government responses to human trafficking. Indeed, WFF's government response index forms one set of factors contained within the vulnerability model used for estimating prevalence discussed in the preceding section.

Analysis of victim population data can help inform us as to which kinds of environmental factors we should be closely monitoring. However, datasets on identified victims of trafficking are samples selected on the dependent variable – that is, whether a person is trafficked or not. Identified victim data provides no variation on the dependent variable. Hence, while we know the profiles of trafficked persons, it is difficult to say to what extent their profiles are different from other persons who are not trafficked. It is therefore sometimes difficult to identify the causes of trafficking using these types of data. Identification of comparable “control” groups would better allow for factor analysis to identify and weight different environmental factors by their level of importance.

## Conclusion

It is very welcome to see the eradication of human trafficking included so prominently within the SDGs and the corresponding work being done to develop standardized, comparable indicators to measure progress against the goals. Nevertheless, by way of conclusion and because of the specific challenges involved in monitoring a clandestine crime, we would caution the international community against exclusively focusing on standardized, comparable indicators on trafficking; otherwise, we may risk missing concerning evidence of human trafficking that is right in front of us. It is important to consider other informative tools that do not fit within a standardized indicator framework but provide indications of prevalence and trends of human trafficking in countries in periods of crisis, for example. In the most recent GSI release, there was no assessment on human trafficking and risk factors in countries in crisis such as Yemen, Libya and Iraq. IOM is working to address these kinds of gaps by

specifically developing programming and coordinating humanitarian response to address human trafficking in times of crisis. This includes gathering information on the vulnerabilities of migrants and refugees to human trafficking and other exploitative practices, in locations along the most important migration routes into Europe, through IOM's flow monitoring surveys. Migrants and refugees interviewed were in transit through countries such as Libya, or they are nationals of countries such as Iraq. A significant proportion of migrant and refugee respondents reported direct experiences of abuse, exploitation or practices that may amount to human trafficking. Such experiences range from not receiving agreed payment for work or services, to being kidnapped and tortured. In the majority of cases, experiences were reported to have happened in Libya.

This article has discussed some of the limitations, challenges, and opportunities for three approaches to measuring and monitoring human trafficking within the context of measuring progress towards the attainment of the SDGs. Developing global, standardized indicators on human trafficking inevitably involves some trade-off with context-specific national or local measurements. In order to measure progress in counter-trafficking policies, not only precision but also a degree of generalization is important. ■

**It is important to consider other informative tools that do not fit within a standardized indicator framework but provide indications of prevalence and trends of human trafficking in countries in periods of crisis.**

11 The GSI used 98 indicators of “good practice” related to legislation, enforcement, protection services and others. The latest edition of the Trafficking in Persons Report was published in 2016 and it can be found here: [www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/2016/index.htm](http://www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/2016/index.htm)

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## Perspectives on safe migration: The case of irregular and unsafe migration from the Horn of Africa

**Bram Frouws<sup>1</sup>**

Within the context of increasingly dangerous, irregular migration to Europe, migration was, for the first time, officially included in the global development framework in 2015. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development includes a target specifically dedicated to migration under Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 10 of “reducing inequalities within and between countries”: Target 10.7 calls for all countries to implement policies that “facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies”.<sup>2</sup>

In the run-up to the UN General Assembly high-level meeting on 19 September 2016, the UN Secretary General report on addressing large movements of refugees and migrants reiterated this, calling for a global compact for safe, regular and orderly migration.<sup>3</sup>

However, no clear definition of “safe migration” has been agreed upon yet. By looking at “unsafe” migration from the Horn of Africa and discussing several “lenses” through which safe migration can

be regarded, this article aims to inform the ongoing discussions on how to define safe migration.<sup>4</sup> The article discusses the following questions:

- What are the risks that migrants and refugees might face during their journey to Europe?
- How do migrants perceive and experience different types of risks? And what does it imply in terms of migration management?

### Unsafe migration from the Horn of Africa

#### *Protection issues facing migrants in mixed migration flows from the Horn of Africa*

Ongoing and renewed conflict, endemic poverty, poor protection, a strong culture of migration and the search for better economic opportunities, among other factors, drive complex mixed population movements, both within and beyond the Horn of Africa and Yemen region.

Ethiopians, Somalis and Eritreans in particular move within and beyond the region, often “assisted” by unscrupulous migrant smugglers, using four main routes out of the region: the western route (via Sudan, into Libya and across the Mediterranean to Europe); the northern route (Egypt and into Israel, but this route has been severely restricted since 2014); the southern route (towards South Africa); and the eastern route (into Yemen to Saudi Arabia or other Gulf States).

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2 United Nations, Sustainable Development Goals. Available from [www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/inequality/](http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/inequality/)

3 UN General Assembly, “In safety and dignity: Addressing large movements of refugees and migrants”, report of the Secretary-General (2016). Available from <http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/N1611262.pdf>

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4 This article is based on the presentation given by Bram Frouws, Migration Specialist of the RMMS during the IOM workshop “Understanding and Measuring Safe Migration” held in Nuremberg on 21–22 June 2016. The views presented in this article are the author’s own views and do not necessarily reflect the views of the RMMS or its donors.

On all these routes, people in mixed migration flows face numerous protection risks and rights violations, at all stages of their journey. This includes migrant deaths while crossing the Red Sea or Gulf of Aden to Yemen or the Mediterranean to Europe, or while transiting through the Sahara desert. Migrants face harsh treatment, extortion, kidnapping, physical violence, sexual abuse, arbitrary detention and deportation while on the move in various countries within and beyond the Horn of Africa region, and in many cases migrant smuggling turns into exploitation and trafficking of vulnerable migrants. Many migrants, especially from Ethiopia, walk for days through harsh terrain, with limited access to food, water, shelter and medicines, to reach the coast of Djibouti or Puntland, before crossing to Yemen.<sup>5</sup>

### *Data collection on protection issues*

Reliable data are being collected since 2006 on the so-called eastern route into Yemen. Coastal monitoring patrol teams from the Danish Refugee Council (DRC) and local non-governmental organizations (NGOs), supported by the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, provide assistance to and collect information among Horn of Africa arrivals (mainly Ethiopians) in Yemen. This ongoing monitoring provides solid data on the protection issues facing these migrants along the route, during the sea crossing and upon arrival in Yemen. On the other routes out of the Horn of Africa, that kind of data and information was lacking, leaving sector agencies with limited information on the actual protection risks of migration out of the Horn of Africa. Supported by the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD), the Regional Mixed Migration Secretariat (RMMS) in Nairobi established in 2014 the Mixed Migration Monitoring Mechanism Initiative (4Mi) to address this knowledge gap. The 4Mi project employs monitors (local individuals, members of existing agencies and others) stationed in migration hotspots along the major migration routes within and out of the Horn of Africa, who are equipped with smartphones with a mobile survey application, interview migrants and refugees on the move, and collect in-depth information about their journeys and protection

issues.<sup>6</sup> This provides a deeper understanding of the protection issues, for example with regard to the number of migrant deaths.

### *Migrant deaths*

From 2014 to the end of May 2016, 9,492 people are estimated to have died or are thought to be missing while crossing the Mediterranean from North Africa to Europe, with most migrant deaths occurring on the Central Mediterranean route to Italy.<sup>7</sup> In 2016 alone (as of mid-November), 4,271 migrants deaths have been reported in the Mediterranean, a number that already surpasses the total death toll in 2015, while the number of people crossing the Mediterranean is much lower.<sup>8</sup> The actual death toll could be even higher, since many bodies are never recovered and many deaths go unreported.<sup>9</sup> Moreover, most reports focus on deaths at sea only, with limited data available on the number of migrant deaths on land routes before reaching the shores of Libya and Egypt. Nevertheless, migrants and refugees from the Horn of Africa arriving in Libya, Egypt or Europe consistently, but anecdotally, indicate that even more people might die while crossing the Sahara desert than while crossing the Mediterranean.<sup>10</sup>

The 4Mi project, however, sheds further light on migrant deaths on land routes. The 4Mi data indicate at least 1,949 migrants died on land routes from the Horn of Africa to Europe in Sudan, Libya and Egypt in 2015 and 2016 (as of mid-November 2016), a much higher number than the official recorded number of migrant deaths. In total, the 4Mi project recorded 2,227 migrant deaths on all routes during this period (including on routes within the Horn of Africa and from the Horn of Africa to South Africa).

6 See <http://4mi.regionalmms.org/>. Monitors are located across the eastern tier of the African continent between South Africa and Egypt, as well as in Northern European destination countries.

7 J. Black, A. Singleton and A. Malakooti, "The Central Mediterranean route: Deadlier than ever", *Migration Policy Practice*, VI(2), April–May 2016.

8 See <https://missingmigrants.iom.int/>

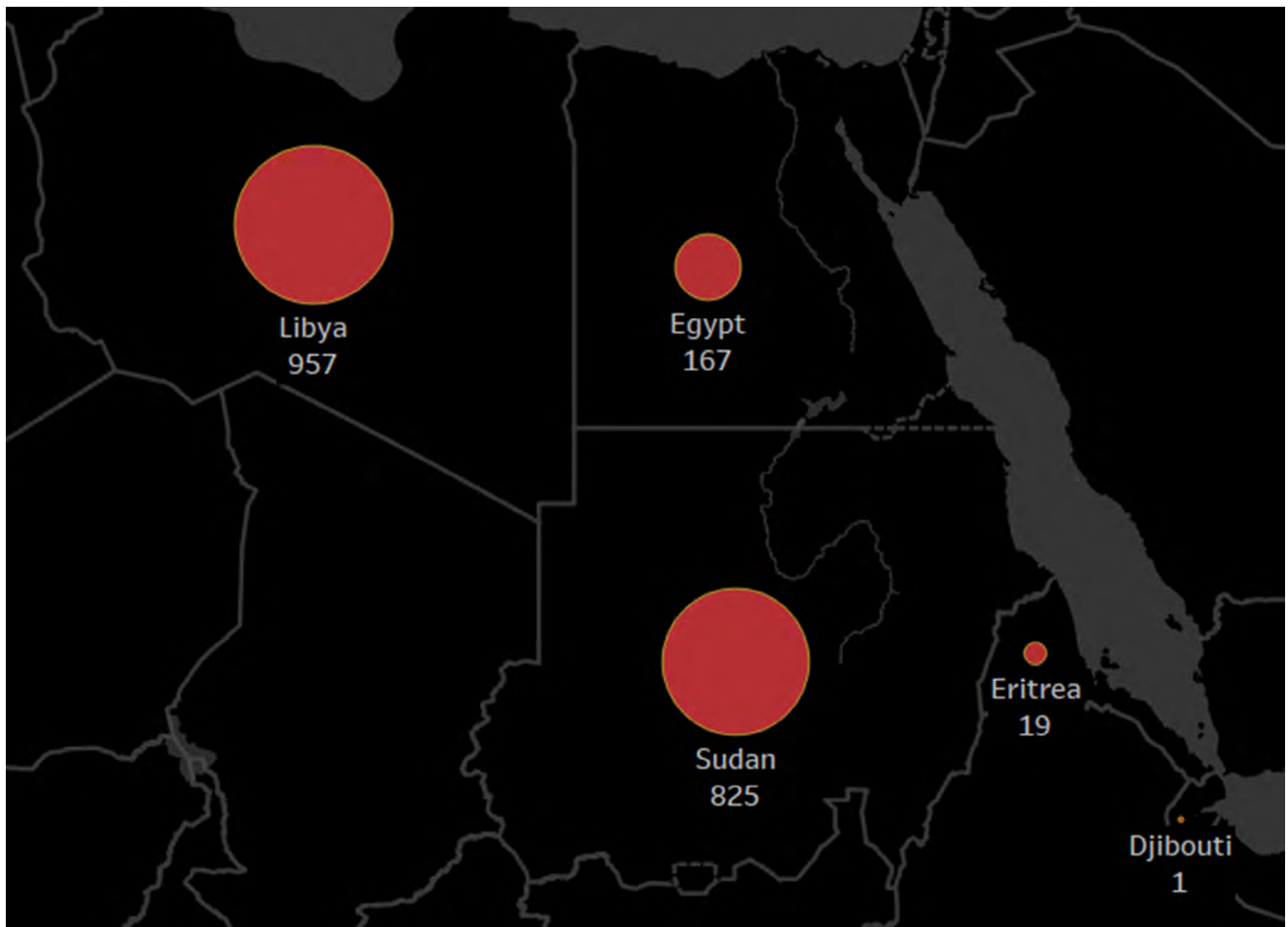
9 J. Black, A. Singleton and A. Malakooti, "The Central Mediterranean route: Deadlier than ever", *Migration Policy Practice*, VI(2), April–May 2016.

10 RMMS, *Going West: Contemporary Mixed Migration Trends from the Horn of Africa to Libya & Europe* (Nairobi, 2014). Available from: [http://regionalmms.org/images/ResearchInitiatives/Going\\_West\\_migration\\_trends\\_Libya\\_Europe\\_final.pdf](http://regionalmms.org/images/ResearchInitiatives/Going_West_migration_trends_Libya_Europe_final.pdf)

5 A range of RMMS research reports, papers and articles discusses these protection issues in more detail.



Map 1: Number of migrant deaths by country

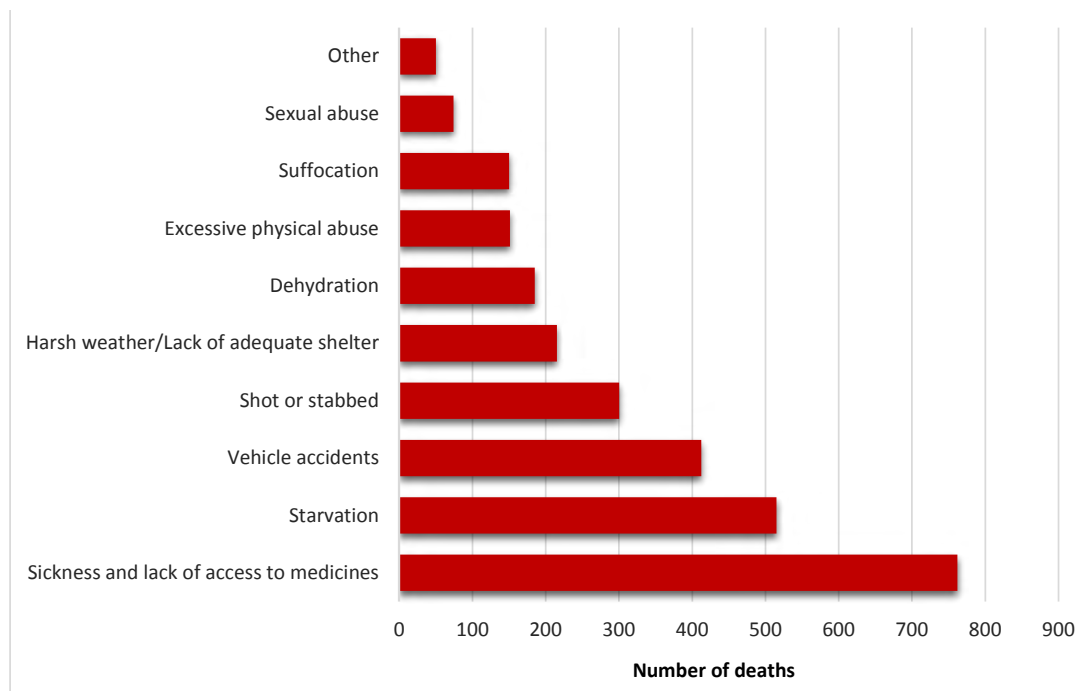


Source: C. Sollitt/RMMS, “Forgotten fatalities: The number of migrant deaths before reaching the Mediterranean”, 27 June 2016.

While there is the possibility of double counting (with interviewed migrants reporting the same incident twice) and inaccurate reporting (there is no system in place to verify reported deaths), the relatively small number of migrants interviewed by 4Mi monitors (around 2,500 on all routes) and the relatively small number of monitors in the field (30) suggests the 1,949 figure is a conservative estimate of those who actually perished.

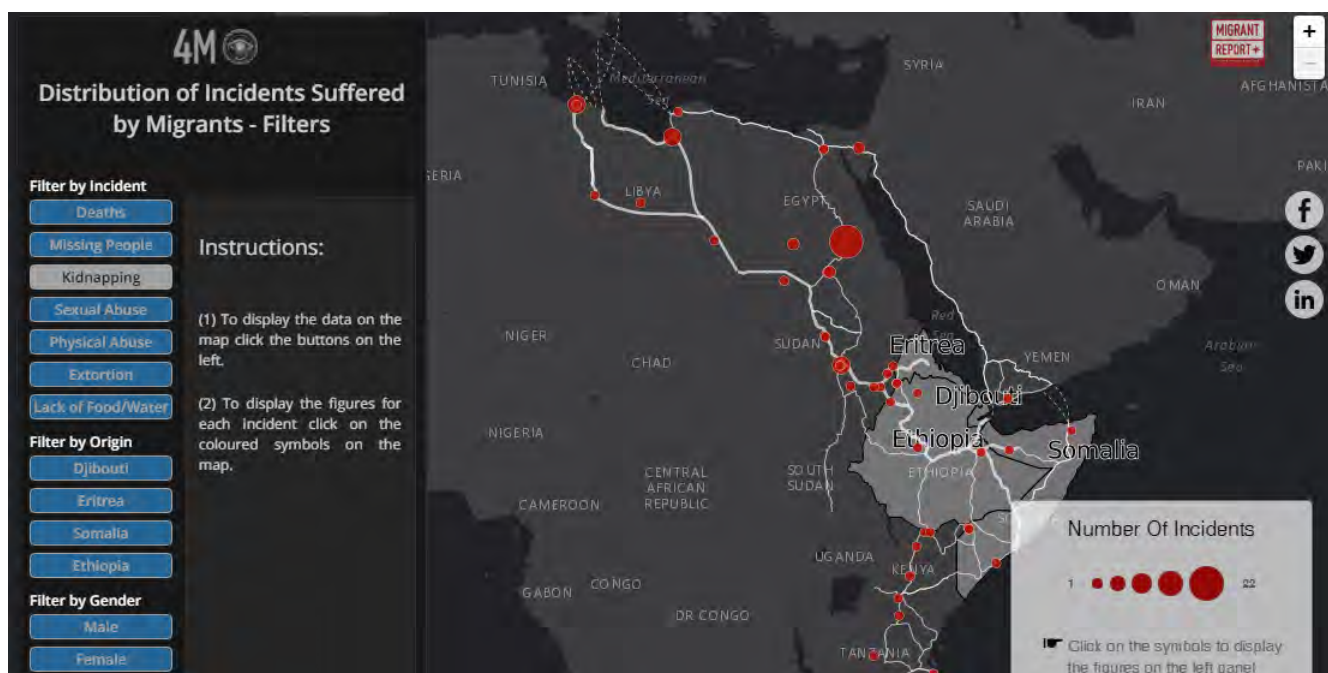
Many deaths go unreported, indicating potentially even more migrants die before reaching the Mediterranean than during the sea crossing.<sup>11</sup> Moreover, the 4Mi data indicate the majority of deaths are happening due to preventable causes, such as lack of access to food, water or medicines. Similar data are being collected for other serious protection issues, such as sexual abuse, physical violence and kidnapping.

11 C. Sollitt/RMMS, “Forgotten fatalities: The number of migrant deaths before reaching the Mediterranean” (27 June 2016). Available from <http://regionalmms.org/index.php/research-publications/feature-articles/item/18-forgotten-fatalities-the-number-of-migrant-deaths-befor>

**Figure 1: Contributing causes of death**

Source: C. Sollitt/RMMS, 2016.

To summarize, migrants and refugees from the Horn of Africa face a range of the most serious protection risks, and these mixed migration flows could be clearly regarded as unsafe migration.

**Map 2: Distribution of incidents suffered by migrants**

Source: RMMS 4Mi project (<http://4mi.regionalmms.org/>).

Note: Example of a mapping from the 4Mi website. The red dots indicate reported incidents of kidnapping; the larger the dot, the larger the number of incidents.

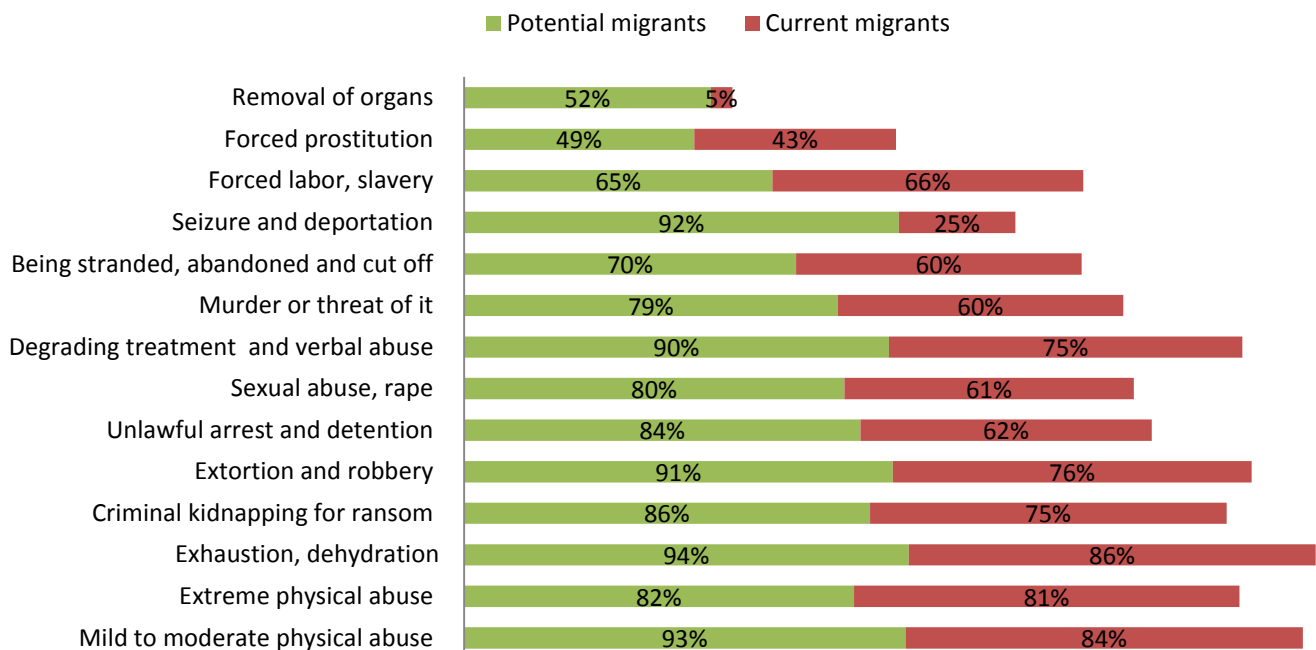
## Defining safe migration and migrant perceptions

### Migration and informed decision-making

When defining safe migration, the migrant perspective should be taken into account. How do migrants perceive the risks, to what extent are they aware of

the risks and how does it factor in to their decision to migrate? Results from a knowledge, attitudes and practices study in Ethiopia and Yemen in 2014 show that both potential migrants (who are still in Ethiopia but are from migration-prone areas) and current migrants (who are already in Yemen) are very much aware of serious protection risks.<sup>12</sup>

**Figure 2: Extent to which potential and current migrants have knowledge about protection risks and obstacles**



Source: RMMS, *Blinded by Hope: Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices of Ethiopian Migrants*, 2014.

Many women in this study indicated that they would take contraception to avoid becoming pregnant as a result of rape. Yet, they are still going to Yemen and even the current war in Yemen does not deter Ethiopians from migrating to Yemen, with record numbers crossing in June 2016.<sup>13</sup>

<sup>12</sup> RMMS, *Blinded by Hope: Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices of Ethiopian Migrants* (Nairobi, 2014). Available from [http://regionalmms.org/images/ResearchInitiatives/Blinded\\_by\\_Hope.pdf](http://regionalmms.org/images/ResearchInitiatives/Blinded_by_Hope.pdf)

<sup>13</sup> B. Frouws and O. Akumu, *Pushed and Pulled in Two Directions: An analysis of the Bi-directional Refugee and Migrant Flow between the Horn of Africa and Yemen* (RMMS, 2016). Available from: [http://regionalmms.org/images/briefing/Pushed\\_and\\_Pulled.pdf](http://regionalmms.org/images/briefing/Pushed_and_Pulled.pdf). On average, around 90,000 Ethiopian migrants cross from the Horn of Africa to Yemen every year. In June 2016, 14,373 migrants arrived in Yemen from the Horn of Africa, the highest recorded number since the start of monitoring in 2016.

In the strict sense of the word, safe migration could be considered as a complete absence of protection risks. Obviously, the protection risks described in this article are unacceptable and should be addressed. However, the perspective of migrants and refugees as rational human beings who make a decision to migrate, and are generally well aware of the risks, should also be considered. Even though many are pushed by the circumstances at home, in refugee camps or in transit locations, the decision to engage in unsafe, irregular migration is often an informed decision.

### *Safe migration versus successful migration*

Related to this is the notion of safe migration versus “successful” migration. Again, even though the current death rate is unacceptably high, and likely to be much higher than assumed as described above, most migrants and refugees make it to Europe alive. While in no way the huge risks and personal traumas should be ever be downplayed, from a migrant perspective there is a relatively high success rate, even though there are so many additional risks apart from deaths, especially for women and girls.

### *The alternative of staying at home*

A recurring phrase in interviews with migrants and refugees is “I better die trying than staying at home”, which points to an additional perspective that could be taken into account when considering safe migration: the alternative of staying at home (i.e. not migrating). Many migrants and refugees leave unsafe situations at home, including active conflict; high crime levels; general insecurity; tribal, ethnic or religious discrimination; oppression and persecution; sexual and gender-based violence; and forced military service; as well as a lack of access to health-care and other basic services.<sup>14</sup> Many of the unaccompanied and separated children in mixed migration flows have left homes characterized by the lack of a carer and

sometimes by violence, abuse or neglect.<sup>15</sup> Despite the extremely difficult circumstances for unaccompanied migrant children in Djibouti, the International Organization for Migration found that the 20 per cent of the interviewed children who wished to remain in Djibouti were generally the children with very difficult home situations.<sup>16</sup>

### **Safe migration and the implications for migration management**

In the current discourse, safe migration is equated, or at least grouped together, with orderly and regular migration, as opposed to unsafe migration which is seen as disorderly and irregular migration. However, it is the absence of orderly and regular pathways for moving to other countries which compels migrants and refugees to undertake perilous journeys. Moreover, contrary to opening up more orderly and regular pathways, in response to the European “migration crisis”, States are increasingly closing their borders and building fences.

Through the New Migration Partnership Framework, presented by the European Commission in June 2016, Europe aims to reinforce cooperation with third countries to better manage migration. With a mix of positive and negative incentives, the European Union will reward (with trade and aid) third countries for curbing the outflow of migrants and refugees from their countries and will sanction the third countries if they fail to do so.<sup>17</sup> However, without regular migration channels, repressive migration policies only entrench smuggling operations, divert routes

14 All these factors are listed as common drivers of migration cited by migrants and refugees interviewed by monitors in the 4Mi project. Available from <http://4mi.regionalmms.org/4mi.html>

15 Save the Children, “Jozi lights: How to protect children engaging in rural to urban migration – a participatory study of migrant children from six cities in Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe” (2015); Altai Consulting, *Mixed Migration: Libya at the Crossroads: Mapping of Migration Routes from Africa to Europe and Drivers of Migration in Post-revolution Libya* (2013), available from [www.refworld.org/pdfid/52b43f594.pdf](http://www.refworld.org/pdfid/52b43f594.pdf); RMMS, *Young and on the Move: Children and Youth in Mixed Migration Flows within and from the Horn of Africa* (Nairobi, 2016), available from <http://regionalmms.org/index.php/research-publications/research-initiatives>

16 These percentages were provided by IOM based on 135 interviews with unaccompanied migrant children in Djibouti (mostly Ethiopian) between December 2015 and February 2016.

17 O. Akumu/RMMS, “At any cost? The outsourcing of Europe’s border management” (28 June 2016). Available from <http://regionalmms.org/index.php/research-publications/feature-articles/item/15-at-any-cost-the-outsourcing-of-europe-s-border-manageme>



and forces migrants to embark on more dangerous, less safe migration journeys, which increases the precariousness of the migrants' situation, resulting in more deaths and more human rights violations.<sup>18</sup> Following the logic of migration theory – in a nutshell, more development will lead to more migration since more people have the resources and aspirations to migrate – it is likely that migration from the Horn of Africa will continue to increase.<sup>19</sup> It is very unlikely that sufficient legal channels will be offered by destination countries to satisfy the demand for migration from origin countries, which means there will always be a demand for smugglers and irregular migration.

## Conclusion

If the definition of safe migration is restricted to legal and orderly migration, as opposed to irregular migration, and taking into account the increasing focus on migration management of curbing migration flows, it means achieving the SDG objective of safe migration for a large number of migrants and refugees in mixed migration flows will be very unlikely, simply because of the lack of legal channels.

Thought it might sound contradictory, when serious about safe migration, this safety should be provided for migrants in irregular migration flows as well.

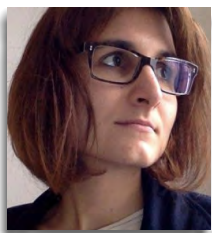
It means more assistance should be provided along major irregular migration routes. While from a migration management perspective, it could be argued that this might act as a pull factor and lead to more migration, there is no compelling evidence to support this notion. The findings discussed above show a high level of risk awareness and risk seeking behaviour among many migrants, and shows that unsafe migration is not discouraging them to go. Despite all the risks, migrants and refugees are still embarking on these dangerous journeys. The only

way to ensure safer migration for a large number of irregular migrants, whose basic human rights should be respected, will be to provide assistance to migrants and refugees in mixed migration flows, irrespective of their legal status, including, for example, mobile outreach services in incident “hotspots” where a large number of the protection incidents are happening. ■

**It is very unlikely that sufficient legal channels will be offered by destination countries to satisfy the demand for migration from origin countries, which means there will always be a demand for smugglers and irregular migration.**

18 Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), “Open letter on EU border management” (29 September 2014), available from [www.ohchr.org/EN/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=15119&sthash.wbbeXxEz.dpuf](http://www.ohchr.org/EN/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=15119&sthash.wbbeXxEz.dpuf); H. de Haas, “Smuggling is a reaction to border controls, not the cause of migration” (2013), available from <http://heindehaas.blogspot.co.ke/2013/10/smuggling-is-reaction-to-border.html>

19 M. Clemens, *Does Development Reduce Migration?* Center for Global Development (CGD), Working Paper 359 (Washington, D.C., CDG, 2014). Available from [www.cgdev.org/sites/default/files/does-development-reduce-migration\\_final\\_0.pdf](http://www.cgdev.org/sites/default/files/does-development-reduce-migration_final_0.pdf)



# IOM's Displacement Tracking Matrix in the context of migration flows to Europe

Debora Gonzalez<sup>1</sup>

Global displacement landscape, migration flows to Europe and the “safe” migration debate

The latest global report on internal displacement, published annually by the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, states that there were over 40 million people internally displaced worldwide as a result of conflict and violence as of the end of 2015 – twice the number of refugees recorded in the same year. Given this global scale of forced mobility, it may not come as a surprise that over 1 million people fleeing situations of violence and economic hardship entered Europe in 2015. Yet policymakers struggled to respond quickly and adequately to what had largely been an unanticipated influx. Despite the grave risks migrants were facing en route, such as being exploited by human trafficking networks or embarking on dangerous sea journeys on ill-equipped boats, the factors compelling people to move proved strong enough to sustain a steady number of new arrivals.

This article presents the scope and core premises of the current primary data collection activities of the International Organization for Migration (IOM) in the context of migration flows to Europe to frame what is already being measured about migration and forced displacement. Understanding the basic parameters of human mobility – such as who moves from where to where, which means of transport are utilized and others – can help to frame an assessment of possible risks and contribute to the larger discussion on measuring safe migration.

In the context of unprecedented human mobility, it is appreciated that the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development includes specific targets linked to the facilitation of “orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration”. While it may be difficult to come to a widely accepted definition of “safe migration”, it is

possible to identify and mitigate as far as possible those elements that make a migratory journey unsafe. By bringing these factors to the fore, data has the potential to shape operational response and policies which contribute to the creation of a more hospitable and safer migration environment.

## The Displacement Tracking Matrix

IOM's Displacement Tracking Matrix<sup>2</sup> (DTM) is an information and operations system to track and monitor population mobility. Designed to regularly capture, process, and disseminate information that provides a better understanding of the movements and evolving needs of displaced populations, whether on site or en route, it has been used in 40 countries since 2004. It has been primarily used to track internal displacement, and more recently also to follow cross-border mobility dynamics in the context of migration flows to Europe. Currently active in over 30 countries, the DTM provides regular data collection and reporting on trends, patterns and needs. The DTM uses different methodologies to capture mobility – some targeted at the group level, others at the individual or household level, as outlined in the following table.

1 This article was written by Debora Gonzalez on behalf of the Global Displacement Tracking Matrix Support team.

2 See [www.globaldtm.info/](http://www.globaldtm.info/)

**Displacement Tracking Matrix components and levels of data collection**

	Mobility tracking	Flow monitoring	Registration	Survey
Purpose	Track forced mobility and cross-sectoral needs	Track movement flows at key points of origin, transit and destination	Beneficiary selection and vulnerability targeting	Gather specific information on a sample basis
Level	Area/Location	Point	Household/Individual	Individual
Method	Key informant interview	Key informant interview, Direct Observation	Interview with heads of household	Interview with individuals
Type of data	Numbers Locations Reasons From where to where Time of displacement Sex and age groups Priority needs Vulnerable groups	Numbers Locations (at a minimum)	Personal identifiable data: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Age/Date of birth</li> <li>• Sex</li> <li>• Origin</li> <li>• Current location</li> <li>• Education</li> <li>• Vulnerabilities</li> </ul>	Age Sex Motives Area of origin Transit points Intentions Cost of journey Dangers on route

Whether information is collected at the group or household/individual level, through key informants, or through direct interviews with the persons concerned impacts what kind of data and at which level of granularity is gathered. Mobility tracking assessments, the most common tool used in DTM operations to track internal mobility, seek to determine numbers and locations of forcibly displaced people, reasons for displacement, from where to where people were displaced, when they were displaced, and basic demographics of the group along with vulnerabilities and priority needs. The information is captured through interviews with key informants at the area or location level. In comparison, surveys target a specific individual who forms part of a group of interest (e.g. migrants en route to Europe) to gather specific but non-identifiable information, such as age, sex, motives, area of origin, transit points on the journey so far, intended destination, cost of the journey and dangers encountered en route.

#### **Data collection, analysis and dissemination: Structures in place**

DTM operations have been ongoing for over 10 years, and while the scale of operations has increased significantly in the past two years, drawing on historical data while linking up ongoing regional DTM implementations offers a tremendous opportunity to commence deeper analysis on the linkages between internal and cross-border forced mobility.

Niger has been at the forefront of building a flow monitoring system with monitoring points in Arlit and Seguidine to capture cross-border mobility to and from

Algeria and Libya. Producing a weekly flow monitoring report, this exercise establishes patterns and regular baseline data that are essential to discover anomalies and new developments in movements in order to inform the humanitarian response. In parallel, IOM Libya has been building up a DTM operation covering both internal displacement and migration patterns, which more recently also features a flow monitoring component.

In the autumn of 2015, IOM furthermore established a flow monitoring system in the Western Balkans and the Mediterranean to gather and disseminate information about migrant populations on the move, producing regular flow compilations and analysis for the affected region. The information is obtained by IOM through consultations with ministries of interior, coast guards, police forces and other relevant national authorities. In parallel, flow monitoring surveys were rolled out in several countries to capture additional and more in-depth data on the people on the move, including age, sex, areas of origin, levels of education, key transit points on their route, motives and intentions. At the time of writing (August 2016), more than 13,000 surveys have been completed.

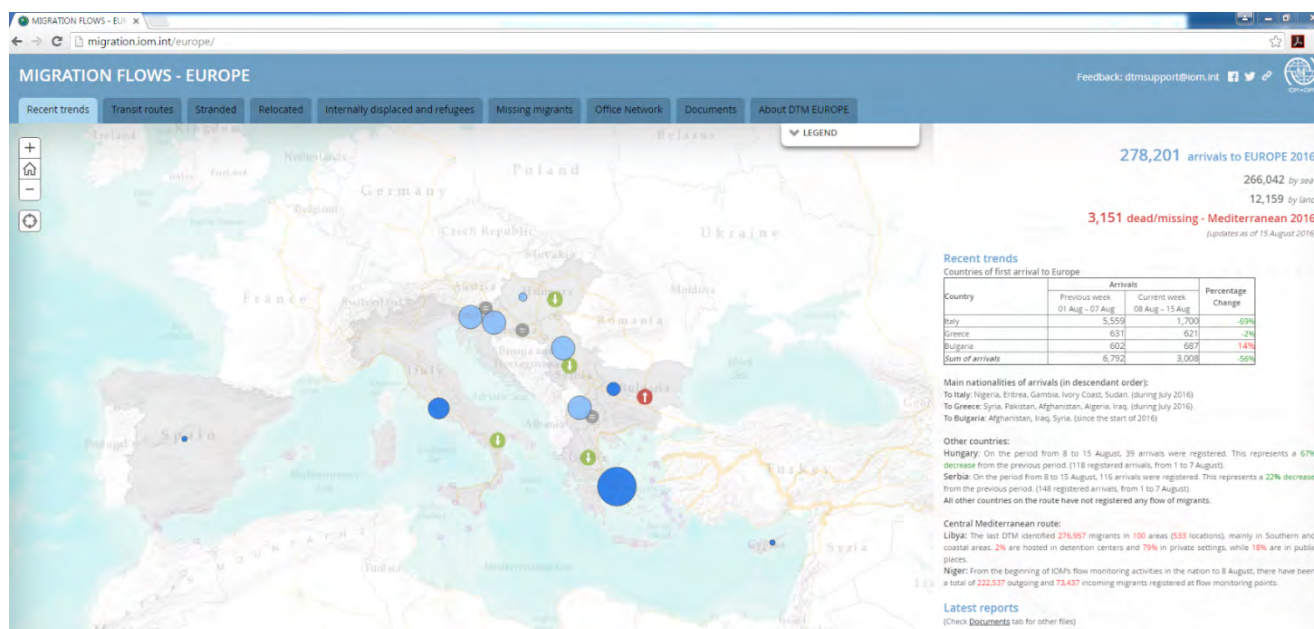
In coordination with the counter-trafficking unit, DTM colleagues also developed a counter-trafficking module to expand the flow monitoring survey and address the acute need for baseline data on the prevalence of trafficking and other forms of exploitation of migrants and refugees, including analysis of groups most at risk and geographical areas with the highest incidence of reported trafficking and exploitation indicators. In the latest round of analysis, significant discrepancies

were identified between migrants interviewed on the Central Mediterranean route (CMR) and the Eastern Mediterranean route (EMR). In total, over 2,000 migrants completed this survey – 44 per cent of surveys were conducted with migrants who took the CMR, while 56 per cent of surveys covered migratory experiences from the EMR. On the CMR, 76 per cent of respondents answered “yes” to at least one of the trafficking and other exploitative practices indicators, based on their own direct experience, and more than half (54%) responded positively to at least two out of five indicators of trafficking and other exploitative practices. This includes individuals being held against their will by armed groups or groups other than any relevant government authorities. More than half (52%) of all interviewed migrants on the CMR route also reported having worked without being paid. Other exploitative practices captured in the survey include being forced to work against their will, being offered a marriage arrangement, and being offered cash in exchange for blood, organs or body parts. On the EMR, 14 per cent of respondents answered

“yes” to at least one of the trafficking and other exploitative practices indicators, based on their own direct experience. The surveys are fully anonymous and provide strong evidence of the kind of enabling environment within which trafficking and associated forms of exploitation and abuse thrive, as well as a picture of the vulnerability of migrant populations and the risks they face.

All the information collected in the context of migration flows to Europe, including findings from flow monitoring surveys and related DTM exercises, has been brought together on the IOM Migration portal,<sup>3</sup> illustrating recent trends, transit routes, numbers and locations of stranded migrants, and relocations, as well as providing visibility to IOM’s Missing Migrants Project. Reports, datasets and analyses that have been produced since the beginning of the project are compiled and can be accessed through the Documents tab of the portal. Sensitive data, which for ethical and security considerations cannot be shared publicly, are made available bilaterally to relevant partners.

## IOM Migration Portal



3 See <http://migration.iom.int/>



## Next steps in measuring “safe migration”

The following indicators are part of the current flow monitoring surveys and are considered particularly relevant to measuring (un)safe migration:

Indicators that seek to inform about prevalence of exploitative practices putting migrants at risk:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Having worked or performed other activities without getting the expected payment;</li> <li>• Having been forced to perform work or other activities against one’s will;</li> <li>• Having been approached by someone offering to arrange a marriage;</li> <li>• Being aware of any instances during the journey where people have been approached by someone offering cash in exchange for giving blood, organs or other body parts.</li> </ul>
Indicators that state demographics or specific about the journey/who somebody is travelling with:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Age;</li> <li>• Having been separated during the journey, where/when;</li> <li>• Having any relatives/family members at the country of destination.</li> </ul>
Indicators that describe the nature of the journey, including any involuntary stays:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Having been kept at a certain location during the journey against one’s will (by persons other than the national authorities);</li> <li>• Transit countries, including the main reason for having stayed in a transit country for more than five days;</li> <li>• Having been returned from another country.</li> </ul>

Such indicators help to frame an understanding of risks and factors that can contribute to making a journey more or less safe.

While significant improvements have been made in building a data collection and dissemination network to inform policymakers in the context of migration flows to Europe, much remains to be done to build a fully comprehensive system of data collection, analysis, and dissemination along with follow-up to identified trends and needs by concerned national authorities and humanitarian actors. Current gaps are visible with regard to which migration routes are being actively observed: the Eastern and Central Mediterranean routes are comparatively well covered with flow monitoring exercises and surveys conducted by the DTM teams in Niger, Libya, Italy, Greece, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Serbia and Hungary. Additional DTM activities have focused on migratory movements from Iraq, the Syrian Arab Republic, Afghanistan, Pakistan and Turkey. More recently, flow monitoring activities also expanded in Mali, where in-country flows have been tracked since 2012, to assess cross-border mobility dynamics as well. However, the remainder of the Western Mediterranean route

remains yet to be covered. Other migration corridors, including in Central America and Asia, have meanwhile received significantly less attention. There is also a gap in knowledge about circular migration patterns and South–South migration.

Another area for improvement is the engagement of various actors with the information that is made available. While partners do confirm the utility of IOM data in informing their operations and programming, and the data collected has enabled IOM to advocate on behalf of migrants, particularly as it relates to dangers and exploitative practices faced en route, more could be done to prepare and respond to identified humanitarian needs. To do so, it is imperative to share information in an accessible manner and to regularly check with partners which information gaps most impede their work.

Furthermore, more in-depth analysis to connect the dots between information available at the level of countries of origin, transit and destination is required. Questions of relevance to policymakers include how trends in outflows from different countries of origin are associated to events in those countries, how policies

such as the European Union–Turkey agreements truly affect and shift movement patterns over time, and how the experiences of migrants differ among different migration routes. As the above example on findings from the counter-trafficking and exploitative practices survey illustrates, which countries a migrant passes can vastly impact their exposure to risks.

The DTM continues to innovate and adapt to new developments and strives to enhance the use of available data for research and analysis. To this end, IOM is working with private sector partners, including the SAS Institute, on predictive analysis for risk mitigation and accountable use of existing data. Crowdsourcing approaches are being piloted to encourage a wider array of actors to work with the available data in order to inform current and future responses.

## Conclusion

The DTM can inform the debate on safe migration by focusing attention on proxy indicators for (un)safe elements of migration, shaping a deeper understanding of mobility patterns over time and highlighting how migration policies impact different migration routes. Significant progress has been made in strengthening the primary data collection capacities in the context of migration flows to Europe, but much work remains to be done to extend this work to other migration routes. IOM's large-scale operational presence and the DTM data collection network provides a solid foundation on which to build efforts for further consolidation of information management systems, shaping a greater understanding of migration patterns over time and of the various elements that impact the safe or unsafe nature of migration. ■

Understanding the basic  
parameters of human mobility  
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## Measuring safe migration for children: The experience from the UNICEF response to the refugee and migrant crisis in Europe

**Tsvetomira Bidart, UNICEF Regional Office for Central and Eastern Europe  
and the Commonwealth of Independent States<sup>1</sup>**

*Inspired by UNICEF's experience from its response to the refugee and migrant crisis in Europe, this article aims to give a snapshot of the challenges in answering critical questions around refugee and migrant children in Europe, to highlight the importance of data in discussions on safe migration, and to provide some recommendations to strengthen data collection and child rights monitoring for more informed decision-making, impactful programming and evidence-based policymaking at both the country and European levels. It does not discuss UNICEF's broader role in the area of policy and advocacy on migration issues in Europe, or other data-oriented initiatives on children on the move at the global level or in other regions where UNICEF is present.*

### Refugee and migrant crisis in Europe: A crisis for children

**T**he refugee and migrant crisis in Europe is complex, multifaceted and fast-evolving, affecting a large number of origin, transit and destination countries. It is first and foremost a crisis for children.

Between January 2015 and July 2016, more than 1,278,000 people made the journey to Europe across the Mediterranean Sea – 342,000 of whom were children.<sup>2</sup> Children represent roughly a quarter of all arrivals in 2015 and almost a third of those in 2016. Most children fled from war, violence and insecurity not only in the Syrian Arab Republic, Afghanistan and Iraq, but also in Eritrea, Somalia, Nigeria and the Gambia. Ninety per cent of all children arrived through Greece, very often with

their families or accompanied by other relatives or close community members. The much more dangerous Central Mediterranean route,<sup>3</sup> between Libya and Italy, has also seen significant numbers of children between January 2015 and July 2016 – 31,630 – of whom 26,065 were unaccompanied.<sup>4</sup>

Following the closure of borders in the Western Balkans and the signing of the EU–Turkey Agreement in March 2016, the pace of arrivals has slowed down. However, backlogs in national asylum systems mean that the number of registered asylum claims continues to increase everywhere in Europe. According to Eurostat, between January 2015 and July 2016 European countries<sup>5</sup> processed more than 1,990,000<sup>6</sup> first-time asylum applications, out of which 30 per cent (or some 587,000 applications) were made by children.

The exact number of unaccompanied and separated children (UASC) who entered Europe is still unknown, as many go undetected. Since 2013, however, there has been a steady increase in the number of unaccompanied children on the move towards Europe. Available data from Italy, for example, shows that UASC made up 8 per cent of all arrivals by sea in 2015, climbing to 14 per cent from the rate in 2016.<sup>7</sup> Information on the Eastern Mediterranean route is scarce and often incomplete as UASC often register as adults, afraid of being delayed or even detained during their journey through Europe due to slow and ineffective individual follow-up and case management by social welfare systems. Eurostat data on asylum claims, however, indicates that one in every four child

1 Tsvetomira Bidart works at the Knowledge Management Office for the Refugee and Migrant Crisis in Europe, in the UNICEF Regional Office for Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States. See [www.unicef.org/ceecis/](http://www.unicef.org/ceecis/)

2 See <http://data.unhcr.org/mediterranean/regional.php>

3 According to the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the Central Mediterranean route is the deadliest in the world.

4 See <http://data.unhcr.org/mediterranean/regional.php>

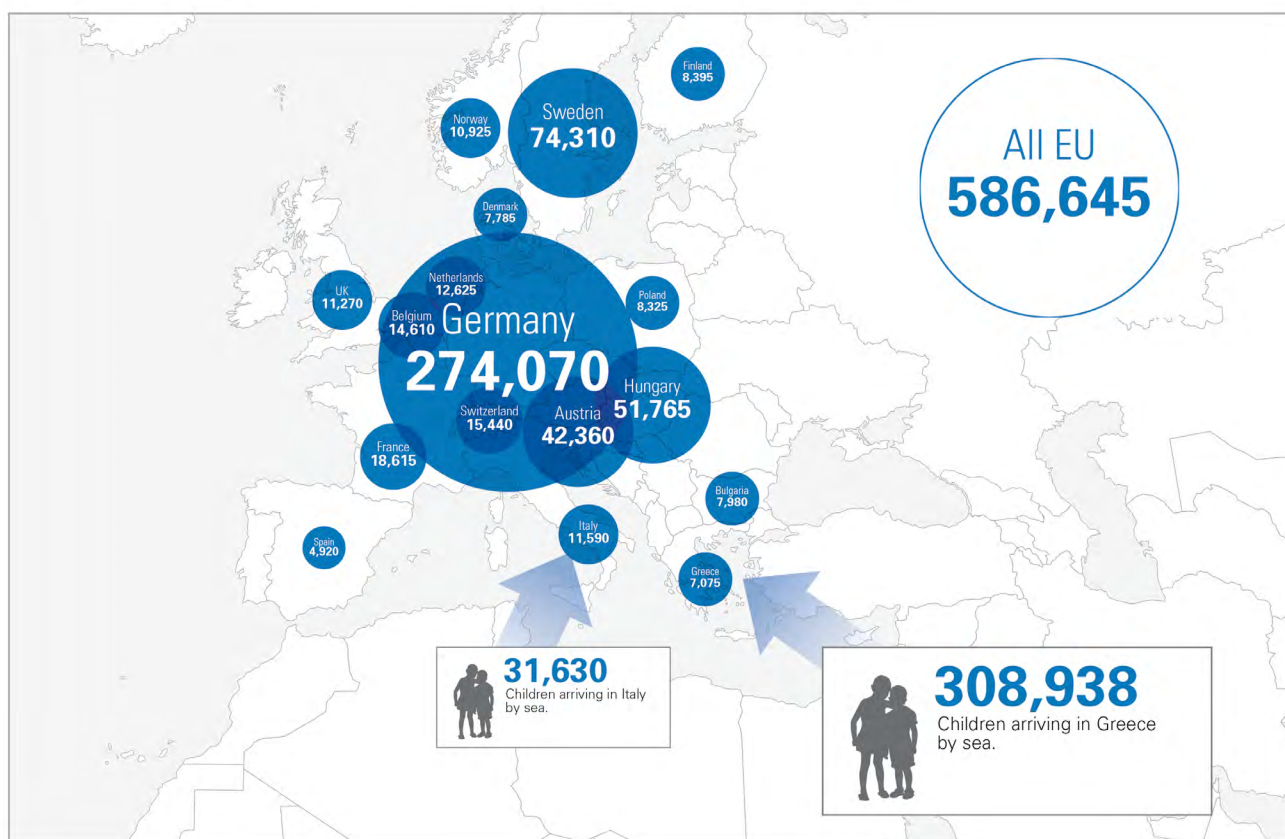
5 EU and European Free Trade Association Member States.

6 Eurostat, data extracted on 5 August 2016.

7 See <http://data.unhcr.org/mediterranean/regional.php>

## Child asylum seekers to the EU by country of destination

January 2016 to July 2016



asylum seekers (or some 96,000) in Europe last year was unaccompanied and separated. While the large majority of them were Afghan boys aged 13 to 17, more than 10 per cent or 11,800 children were below the age of 14, which is a cause for concern. Sweden alone registered 35,400 asylum claims by UASC in 2015 – more than one and a half times the total number of asylum claims made by unaccompanied children in the entire EU in 2014.<sup>8</sup>

### Risks at every step of the journey

Children are particularly at risk during sea crossings, and more than 300 children<sup>9</sup> died in the Eastern Mediterranean alone in 2015. So far, in 2016, at least

550 children<sup>10</sup> have lost their lives in the Eastern and Central Mediterranean.

Children reaching Europe over the past 18 months have often endured perilous sea crossings, experienced hardship, and survived abuse and exploitation in their search for safety. Evidence suggests that children on the move are at risk whether in countries of origin, transit or destination. Some of the factors that contribute to their vulnerability at different stages of the journey include nationality and/or ethnicity, disability status, gender and age, economic status, and other contextual and environment-related factors.

At the onset of the refugee and migrant crisis in Europe, UNICEF identified the following groups of children as particularly at risk: babies and small children; children with disabilities and special needs; lost children, children left behind and unaccompanied

<sup>8</sup> See <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/asylum-and-managed-migration/data/main-tables>

<sup>9</sup> IOM, "Migrant deaths in January top 300; arrivals in Greece top 62,000", 2 February 2016. Available from [www.iom.int/news/migrant-deaths-january-top-360-arrivals-greece-top-62000](http://www.iom.int/news/migrant-deaths-january-top-360-arrivals-greece-top-62000)

<sup>10</sup> Based on IOM data on fatalities in the Central and Eastern Mediterranean in 2016 and overall proportion of children among refugees and migrants arriving in Italy.



adolescents on the move;<sup>11</sup> in addition to stranded children<sup>12</sup> and children in detention.<sup>13</sup>

With the closure of borders in the Western Balkans (March 2016), risks linked to smuggling and trafficking have also significantly increased. Due to the clandestine nature of continuous border crossings, children (and especially UASC) on the move have become “invisible”, less likely to seek support from authorities or specialized agencies, and increasingly vulnerable to abuse and exploitation. No reliable data on the number of smuggled or trafficked children exists.

Much of the hardship refugee and migrant children endure has occurred prior to their arrival in Europe,<sup>14</sup> but limited reception capacity has left children in overcrowded temporary accommodation centres for months, or detained in police custody and other closed facilities as a measure described as intended for “protection”. In such circumstances, they are often exposed to considerable protection risks with limited or no access to education, health care, psychosocial support, legal counselling and social services.<sup>15</sup>

Many of these risks could have been anticipated, averted or addressed more effectively had pertinent data been available.

### Data gaps on refugee and migrant children in Europe

The unprecedented high number of people arriving in Europe since 2015 and the unfolding refugee and migrant crisis have brought to light some of the constraints and limits of the European registration, data collection and asylum systems, particularly when

it comes to children. Administrative data systems were not adequately prepared, nor were policies in place to allow for the collection of appropriately disaggregated data and information on hundreds of thousands of new arrivals.<sup>16</sup> This has led to multiple data gaps and inconsistencies, particularly regarding the profile of children. It has also not been possible to monitor irregular border crossings (particularly in the Balkans), which entailed serious protection risks for children and their families. Additionally, there are concerns that data on asylum claims do not come close to matching the data on total arrivals – there may be cases of children who register for asylum in more than one country, who do not register for asylum at all, or who claim international protection but have not arrived by sea.<sup>17</sup> Without legal documentation, many refugee and migrant children and their families will face important barriers to accessing public services (schools, health care, social protection, etc.). Data on return and repatriation (voluntary and forced) of children is not readily made public by European States, which makes it difficult to monitor best interests determination procedures and to plan for reintegration support.<sup>18</sup>

Despite some breakthrough efforts and research undertaken by governments and operational agencies on the various risks children are exposed to during their journeys, it has been difficult to collect accurate data on the scale and scope of abuse and exploitation happening along the route, particularly where it is endured in order to help finance the journey.<sup>19</sup> Thus, information on gross child rights violations remains anecdotal.

11 UNICEF, “Children at risk – the refugee and migrant children in Europe: Countries where children are on the move”, November 2015. Available from [www.unicef.org/ceecis/Refugee\\_and\\_Migrant\\_Crisis\\_Overview\\_13112015\\_\(2\).pdf](http://www.unicef.org/ceecis/Refugee_and_Migrant_Crisis_Overview_13112015_(2).pdf)

12 Children not registered, without authorization for legal stay or unaccounted for.

13 Children placed, with or without their families, in closed accommodation facilities.

14 UNICEF, “Danger every step of the way: A harrowing journey to Europe for refugee and migrant children”, *UNICEF Child Alert*, June 2016. Available from [www.unicef.org/emergencies/childrenonthemove/files/Child\\_Alert\\_Final\\_PDF.pdf](http://www.unicef.org/emergencies/childrenonthemove/files/Child_Alert_Final_PDF.pdf)

15 UNICEF’s “Neither safe, nor Sound”, for instance, gathered children’s testimonies of life in the camps in northern France, where many of them have been caught in limbo.

16 In Germany, for example, the “Easy” registration system upon arrival did not capture age breakdown of refugees and migrants. This information was collected only when refugees and migrants were allocated to different provinces.

17 An example is the recent information from the Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge, BAMF) of Germany, which suggests that more than 42,000 UASC entered the country in 2015, but barely 14,500 claimed asylum.

18 In 2015, for example, Eurostat reports 1,000 UASC from Albania registered for asylum across the 28 Member States, but there is no available data on how many of these claims have been denied nor children forcibly repatriated.

19 According to operational agencies in the Western Balkans, refugees and migrants rarely report abuse and violence out of fear to be slowed-down or prevented from moving onwards.

There are good examples of government-led needs assessments and service mapping,<sup>20</sup> but information on the situation and needs of refugee and migrant children (e.g. health, education and psychosocial support) varies by country, sector and geographical coverage. Information on supply of, access to, and demand for services by different groups of refugee and migrant children is not collected by national administrative systems in a way that could inform analysis and decision-making. Children with impairments or other special needs have been identified and referred to services in a largely haphazard way.

Finally, complaints/feedback mechanisms are either not in place, or are not easily accessible to refugee and migrant children and their families. Child rights guarantee systems, established to ensure that **all** children can enjoy their rights in accordance with international legal provisions, are therefore not adequate.

### Measuring safe migration to Europe: Analysis and recommendations

Due to the increasing proportion of children among refugees and migrants in Europe and globally, it is crucial to identify relevant indicators that could relate specifically to children in all six policy domains embodied within a “well-managed migration policy” and Sustainable Development Goal Target 10.7 **to facilitate orderly, safe, regular, and responsible migration and mobility of people**.

Experience from the crisis in Europe shows that there are deficiencies in the framework and capacity of States to fulfil their obligations to children in the context of migration and displacement, resulting in increased protection risks for children in both countries of transit and of destination. Data is key in allowing the measurement of such deficiencies. Building strong child rights monitoring systems at the country and European levels are therefore crucial for preventing gross child rights violations and for ensuring appropriate support to refugee and migrant children based on their needs and in line with the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). An important step in that direction would be more

systematic measurement of access to services and entitlements based on migration status.

Migration status (regular or undocumented/irregular migrant, refugee, asylum seeker, etc.) currently has major implications for the treatment of children along migration routes and at the destination. According to an ongoing UNICEF study, for instance, only one third of EU Member States explicitly recognize undocumented migrant children’s entitlement to basic education, while almost one quarter **explicitly exclude** them from schooling.<sup>21</sup> This is a clear violation of the CRC, signed by all 28 EU Member States.

Hence, more effort should be invested into: (a) effecting policy changes to reflect CRC obligations including the right of **all** children to education and other basic services including protection; and (b) adjusting national administrative data collection systems to allow for the routine monitoring of inclusive policies.

Building on other work,<sup>22</sup> it is important to develop and agree upon a set of indicators of child well-being linked to migration at the European level. This means disaggregating **existing** information on children collected through administrative data systems, for instance to understand the age, sex, nationality, guardianship status and disability status of children using community health centre services; and also using **new data** gathering tools and methods, for instance to capture information such as the “number and proportion of newborn refugee and migrant babies whose births are registered – or the number and proportion of UASC who benefitted from legal counselling disaggregated by age, nationality, gender, migration status”.

To better monitor the situation of refugee/migrant children in Europe, and strengthen accountability mechanisms related to commitments towards safe migration for children, UNICEF also recommends to:

- **Registration:** (a) Strengthen migration and refugee statistics within national administrative data collection systems in line with the International

20 For example: ongoing protection needs assessments in Germany, and assessment of education activities in Greece.

21 Belgium, Croatia, Czech Republic, France, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Romania, Spain and Sweden.

22 Through the KNOMAD (Global Knowledge Partnership on Migration and Development) Working Group 7, UNICEF and partners have developed similar human rights indicators for migrant children.

Recommendations on Refugee Statistics;<sup>23</sup> (b) Ensure age, gender, and nationality breakdown of people and status of children (unaccompanied, separated or with parents) in all registration forms upon arrival. This will allow for better analysis of the situation, trends, and needs of refugee and migrant children.

- *EU asylum system and return*: Make disaggregated data (minimum age, sex, nationality), as well as information on the length of procedures on relocation, resettlement, family reunification, and return of children publically available in a timely and transparent manner. This will help governments ensure compliance with national and European legal provisions and allow for monitoring of existing procedures for best interests determination, as well as plan for services in countries of relocation.
- *Migration detention*: Systematically monitor children in migration detention, as per Article 11 of the United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles Deprived of their Liberty (UNGA A/RES/45/113). Such data is crucial for policy efforts to end this practice across Europe.

- *Child rights violations*: Build, strengthen, and/or adapt national monitoring systems to collect data, and investigate and monitor human trafficking and other grave child rights violations, which may also affect refugee and migrant children. A strong Europe-wide evidence base on such issues will inform necessary decision-making and service provision.
- *Service provision*: Monitor the coverage and quality of services available to refugee and migrant children (education, health, social inclusion, shelter, protection and information services, including legal aid on asylum and other relevant procedures). This will help address possible discrimination and service provision gaps.
- *Views of the child*: Put in place formal feedback mechanisms for refugee and migrant children's voices to be heard, and ensure systematic application of ethical standards in collecting information from/about children to safeguard and protect them from harm.<sup>24</sup> ■

#### About UNICEF Regional Office for Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States

UNICEF Regional Office for Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States (RO CEE/CIS) coordinates and guides UNICEF's support to 22 countries and entities' efforts to realize the rights of all children, with a focus on the most disadvantaged. Combining the efforts from UNICEF and our National Committees, we have been responding to the Refugee and Migrant Crisis in Turkey, Greece, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Serbia, Croatia, Slovenia, Bulgaria, Germany and Italy through a combination of advocacy, technical assistance, systems-strengthening, capacity building and service delivery in the sectors of Child Protection, Education, Health, Nutrition, Water, Sanitation and Hygiene, as well as cross-cutting areas ranging from Child Rights Monitoring, Prevention of Sexual and Gender-Based Violence through Social Policy. In addition, UNICEF expanded its preparedness and contingency capacity to Albania, Kosovo (UNSCR 1244), Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro and Romania.

As part of its regional portfolio on Child Rights Monitoring, UNICEF has been trying to narrow the gap in research, statistics and data on refugee and migrant children in Europe towards evidence-informed decision-making and advocacy. UNICEF is doing this through analysis on the situation of refugee and migrant children, capacity strengthening for research and data collection systems and accountability mechanisms, as well as fostering exchange of good practices with a wide range of stakeholders (government, civil society, international and regional organisations, children's ombudspersons and national human rights institutions, research communities and academia).

For more information on the article please contact Tsvetomira Bidart, Knowledge Management Office for the Refugee and Migrant Crisis in Europe at [tbidart@unicef.org](mailto:tbidart@unicef.org)

23 Annex IV: A Proposal for International Recommendations on Refugee Statistics, 29 December 2015, developed during the Conference on Refugee Statistics, 2015, Turkey. Available from [www.efta.int/sites/default/files/documents/statistics/ESCoP/Annex%20IV%20International%20Recommendations%20IRRS%20%28final%29.pdf](http://www.efta.int/sites/default/files/documents/statistics/ESCoP/Annex%20IV%20International%20Recommendations%20IRRS%20%28final%29.pdf)

24 See: [http://data.unicef.org/corecode/uploads/document6/uploaded\\_pdfs/corecode/EPDRCLitReview\\_193.pdf](http://data.unicef.org/corecode/uploads/document6/uploaded_pdfs/corecode/EPDRCLitReview_193.pdf); UNICEF, UNICEF Procedure for Ethical Standards in Research, Evaluation, Data Collection and Analysis, available from [www.unicef.org/supply/files/ATTACHMENT\\_IV-UNICEF\\_Procedure\\_for\\_Ethical\\_Standards.PDF](http://www.unicef.org/supply/files/ATTACHMENT_IV-UNICEF_Procedure_for_Ethical_Standards.PDF)

# Crowdfunding for migration, asylum and human rights projects worldwide

Create new futures

Fund your business, development, humanitarian or research project through your Diaspora and other supporters and benefactors



Crowdfunding is an increasingly popular and successful mechanism to generate funding for worthwhile projects and initiatives.

MigFunder ([www.migfunder.com/](http://www.migfunder.com/)), the first and only crowdfunding platform dedicated solely to migration, refugee and human rights initiatives worldwide, was launched a few months ago.

The platform caters to migrants looking to create (or grow) their businesses abroad or in their countries of origin, as well as to migrant organizations, public agencies, non-governmental organizations, and individuals looking to launch a development or humanitarian initiative in support of immigrant and refugee communities worldwide, or a research project/conference in the field of migration, asylum or human rights policy.

This is a pioneering initiative that will contribute potentially to reducing the effects of budget cuts and underfunding in major refugee, migration

and human rights programmes around the world. MigFunder was established by a group of European migration policy experts, including former senior government officials, reputable researchers and IT developers, who set out to extend the facilities and benefits of a crowdfunding platform to the specific needs of immigration, refugee and human rights affairs worldwide.

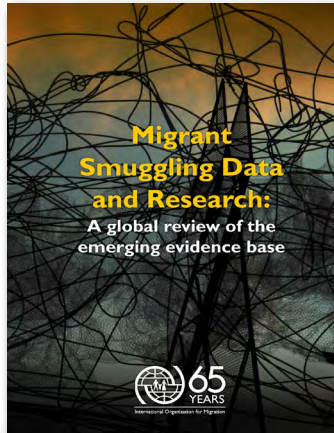
MigFunder targets, primarily but not exclusively, members of the diaspora who are willing and able to support viable business projects from their compatriots, as well as development, humanitarian and research initiatives in the countries of immigration or origin.

Current campaigns on MigFunder originate from organizations such as the International Organization for Migration (IOM), Doctors of the World, the Migrant Offshore Aid Station (MOAS), Business in the Community Ireland and Quist Solicitors, among others. Most are concerned with the current refugee crisis.

For any further information, or to submit a campaign, please contact  
**Solon Ardittis** ([sardittis@migfunder.com](mailto:sardittis@migfunder.com)) or **Don Ingham** ([dingham@migfunder.com](mailto:dingham@migfunder.com)).



## Publications



**Migrant Smuggling Data and Research:  
A global review of the emerging evidence base**  
2016/340 pages/English  
ISBN 978-92-9068-730-6  
Softcover and [Electronic copy](#)  
USD 60

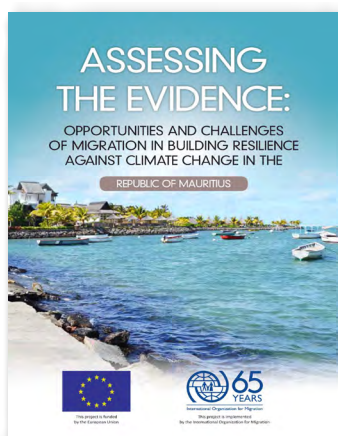
Migrant Smuggling Data and Research: A global review of the emerging evidence base presents a unique review of what is being collected and what can be done to further build the evidence base on migrant smuggling globally. The report is the result of a collaboration between the International Organization for Migration and researchers from a range of backgrounds and academic disciplines, and supported by the Government of Turkey.

The report shows that important research has been undertaken on the transnational crime aspects of migrant smuggling, including on routes, smuggling organization (such as criminal networking and facilitation), smuggler profiles and fees/payment. Likewise, there is an emerging academic literature on migrant smuggling, particularly the economic and social processes involved in smuggling, which has largely been based on small-scale qualitative research, mostly undertaken by early career researchers. Contributions from private research companies, as well as investigative journalists, have provided useful insights in some regions, helping to shed light on smuggling practices. There remains, however, sizeable gaps in migration policy research and data, particularly in relation to migration patterns and processes linked to migrant smuggling, including its impact on migrants (particularly vulnerability, abuse and exploitation), as well as its impact on irregular migration flows (such as increasing scale, diversity and changes in geography). Addressing these systemic and regional gaps in data and research would help deepen understanding of the smuggling phenomenon, and provide further insights into how responses can be formulated that better protect migrants while enhancing States' abilities to manage orderly migration.



**MRS No. 52 - Summary Report on the MIPEX Health  
Strand and Country Reports**  
2016/128 pages/[English](#)  
ISSN 1607-338X  
ISBN 978-92-9068-731-3

The Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) Health strand is a questionnaire designed to supplement the existing seven strands of the MIPEX, which in its latest edition (2015) monitors policies affecting migrant integration in 38 different countries. The questionnaire measures the equitability of policies relating to four issues: (A) migrants' entitlements to health services; (B) accessibility of health services for migrants; (C) responsiveness to migrants' needs; and (D) measures to achieve change. The work described in this report formed part of the EQUI-HEALTH project carried out by the International Organization for Migration from 2013 to 2016, in collaboration with the Migrant Policy Group (MPG) and COST Action IS1103 (Adapting European health services to diversity). Part I of this report shows that many studies have already been carried out on migrant health policies, but because they tend to select different countries, concepts, categories and methods of measurement, it is difficult to integrate and synthesize all these findings. The MIPEX Health strand sets out to surmount this obstacle by collecting information on carefully defined and standardized indicators in all 38 MIPEX countries, as well as Bosnia and Herzegovina and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. Part II describes the conceptual framework underlying the questionnaire and the way in which aspects of policy were operationalized and scored in the 38 indicators. This is followed in Part III by a detailed description of the pattern of results found in 34 European countries on each item in the questionnaire. Part IV reports the results of statistical analyses of collected data.



**Assessing the Evidence: Opportunities and Challenges of Migration in Building Resilience Against Climate Change in the Republic of Mauritius**  
2016/100 pages/[English](#)

In the framework of the European Union–funded Migration, Environment and Climate Change: Evidence for Policy (MECLEP) project, this national assessment focuses on the Republic of Mauritius. The *World Risk Report* (UNU, 2015) ranks the Republic of Mauritius seventh among the 15 most exposed country to natural hazards, namely sea-level rise, cyclones and floods; and thirteenth among 171 countries for its disaster risk. The country is exposed to environmental stressors, such as rainfall, storm occurrences, humidity, temperature and sea-level rise. These climatic stressors make the country one of the most vulnerable countries to natural hazards.

This report offers insights on the potential climate change risk that people living in Mauritius and Rodrigues are facing and maps their vulnerability, and it is structured in two main sections. The first section maps the nexus between environmental and climate change with migration in the Republic of Mauritius. On the other hand, the second section compiles the existing policy framework, including the policies in the process of being elaborated and the policy options and research priorities, as the closure of the Republic of Mauritius' policy toolkit.

This report acknowledges that the Government of the Republic of Mauritius is aware of the country's exposition to extreme events. In fact, the Government initiated studies a decade ago to develop adaptation and mitigation strategies accordingly. Additionally, the report concludes that the Republic of Mauritius' migration scheme is multifaceted, and highlights the need of an integrated migration framework that includes environmental and climatic stressors. While all citizens might be concerned by natural hazards, this research has a special focus on economically disadvantaged communities that are undeniably the most exposed and vulnerable.

This publication is one of six national assessments to be published under the MECLEP project. The other project countries are the Dominican Republic, Haiti, Kenya, Papua New Guinea and Viet Nam.



**Catastrophes, Changements Environnementaux et Migration: Aperçus issus de milieux vulnérables en Haïti**  
2016/94 pages/[French](#)

La présente étude a été réalisée dans le cadre du Projet « Migration, environnement et changement climatique : Données à l'usage des politiques » (MECLEP). Nous explorons, dans cette étude de cas, la façon dont les différentes formes de mobilité humaine peuvent soit contribuer, soit entraver l'adaptation à l'environnement et au changement climatique. Nous analysons aussi dans ce rapport les liens entre ces formes de mobilité et la vulnérabilité des ménages dans trois municipalités haïtiennes (Gonaïves, La Marmelade et Port-au-Prince), sélectionnées en raison de leur vulnérabilité face aux changements climatiques et environnementaux.

Il ressort du rapport que les ménages comptant au moins un migrant sont moins vulnérables que ceux qui n'en comptent aucun. Parmi toutes les formes de mobilité étudiées, les mouvements migratoires sur le court terme sont associés à un taux de vulnérabilité plus élevé que les autres, tandis que les déplacements saisonniers et circulaires semblent, eux, s'inscrire dans la stratégie de diversification des moyens de subsistance la plus prometteuse.

Les résultats de cette étude montrent donc qu'il conviendrait de renforcer les politiques visant à accroître le potentiel que recèle la migration en tant que stratégie d'adaptation aux changements environnementaux et climatiques, tout en prévenant et en réduisant les risques liés au déplacement. Outre le projet de la politique nationale migratoire d'Haïti (actuellement en discussion), on observe une interconnexion entre la migration, la vulnérabilité des ménages et plusieurs domaines d'action politique, dans lesquels il serait important d'intégrer la thématique de la migration, en tenant compte des spécificités des femmes haïtiennes.



**Ocean, Environment, Climate Change  
and Human Mobility**

2016/8 pages/English, French

The impacts of climate change on the ocean and marine ecosystems profoundly affect human livelihoods and mobility. Recognizing the need to respond to the challenges arising from the interaction between ocean and marine ecosystem change and human migration and displacement, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and the Ocean and Climate Platform (OCP) are working together to bring visibility to this issue and promote concrete action to address these challenges. This document, prepared jointly by IOM and OCP, provides an overview of the following: (a) links between ocean, climate change and human mobility; (b) key challenges that countries, communities and individuals face; and (c) possible solutions to address them.

## MPP Readers' Survey

*Migration Policy Practice (MPP)* was launched three years ago and the editors would now like to invite readers to spare a couple of minutes to participate in a short readers' satisfaction survey.

The purpose of this survey, which can be taken anonymously, is to help us identify our readers' profiles, the institutions they represent and their primary interests in our journal. The survey's responses will contribute, in particular, to adjusting and improving, as appropriate, *MPP's* content and style, and thus the reader's experience.

Should you wish to participate in this survey, please [click here](#).

Thank you.





## Call for authors/Submission guidelines

Since its launch in October 2011, *Migration Policy Practice* has published over 155 articles by senior policymakers and distinguished migration policy experts from all over the world.

### Past authors have included, inter alia:

*Eric Adja*, Director General of the International Migrants Remittances Observatory (IMRO) and Special Adviser to the President of Benin; *John K. Bingham*, Global Coordinator of civil society activities in the United Nations High-level Dialogue on International Migration and Development and the Global Forum on Migration and Development; *Ambassador Eva Åkerman Börje*, Chair of the GFMD 2013-2014; *Mark Cully*, Chief Economist at the Australian Department of Immigration and Border Protection; *António Guterres*, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees; *Khalid Koser*, Chair of the World Economic Forum Global Agenda Council on Migration; *Khalid Malik*, Director of the Human Development Report Office, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP); *Cecilia Mamlström*, EU Commissioner for Home Affairs; *Ali Mansoor*, Chair of the GFMD 2012; *Andrew Middleton*, Director of Culture, Recreation and Migrant Statistics, Australian Bureau of Statistics; *Najat Maalla M'Jid*, United Nations Special Rapporteur on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography; *Robert A. Mocny*, Director of US-VISIT, US Department of Homeland Security; *Imelda M. Nicolas*, Secretary of the Commission on Filipinos Overseas (CFO), Office of the President of the Philippines; *Ignacio Packer*, Secretary General of the Terre des Hommes International Federation; *Kelly Ryan* (Coordinator of the Intergovernmental Consultations on Migration, Asylum and Refugees – IGC, Geneva); *Martin Schulz*, President of the European Parliament; *David Smith*, Director of Surveys and Reporting, Australian Department of Immigration and Border Protection; *Sir Peter D. Sutherland*, Special Representative of the UN Secretary-General for Migration; *Ambassador William Lacy Swing*, Director General of the International Organization for Migration (IOM); *Myria Vassiliadou*, EU Anti-Trafficking Coordinator, European Commission; *Catherine Wiesner*, Deputy Assistant Secretary of State, Bureau of Population, Refugees and Migration, US Department of State.

***Migration Policy Practice* welcomes submissions from policymakers worldwide. As a general rule, articles should:**

- Not exceed five pages and be written in a non-academic and reader-friendly style.
- Cover any area of migration policy but discuss, as far as possible, particular solutions, policy options or best practice relating to the themes covered.
- Provide, as often as applicable, lessons that can be replicated or adapted by relevant public administrations, or civil society, in other countries.

Articles giving account of evaluations of specific migration policies and interventions, including both evaluation findings and innovative evaluation methodologies, are particularly welcome.

**To discuss any aspect of the journal, or to submit an article, please contact:**

- **Solon Ardittis** ([sardittis@eurasylum.org](mailto:sardittis@eurasylum.org)); and
- **Frank Laczko** ([flaczko@iom.int](mailto:flaczko@iom.int))