Migration and the SDGs:
Measuring Progress

AN EDITED VOLUME

_____

_____

The maps are for illustration purposes only. They do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the International Organization for Migration.

_____

Migration
and the SDGs:
Measuring Progress

AN EDITED VOLUME

IOM UN MIGRATION | GLOBAL MIGRATION DATA ANALYSIS CENTRE

CONTENTS

ACRONYMS

DESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
GMDAC	Global Migration Data Analysis Centre
IAEG	Inter-Agency Expert Group
IDP	internally displaced person
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
LFS	labour force survey
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
NEET	not in education, employment or training
NSO	national statistical office
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
UNHCR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
VNR	voluntary national review
WHO	World Health Organization

MIGRATION IN THE SDGs:
Key data points

MIGRATION IN THE SDGs

1 NO POVERTY

Migration can be a powerful poverty-reduction tool.

However, migrants themselves are often more likely to live in poverty.

For example, approximately

35% MIGRANTS

23% NON-MIGRANTS

were on average in or at risk of poverty in 36 countries in 2015.

83% OF 111 COUNTRIES PROVIDE NON-NATIONALS EQUAL ACCESS TO SOCIAL PROTECTION PROGRAMMES AND BASIC SOCIAL ASSISTANCE (2021).

Sources: ACOSS and UNSW, 2018; Eurostat, 2020b; United States Census Bureau, 2016 in Mosler Vidal, 2021; DESA et al., 2021.

3 GOOD HEALTH AND WELL-BEING

Migrants in some contexts experience poorer health outcomes than non-migrants and often have differential access to health-care services. Meanwhile, many migrants form significant part of countries' health workforces.

IN **111 COUNTRIES** IN 2018-2019 **90% OF GOVERNMENTS** SAY THEY PROVIDE ESSENTIAL AND EMERGENCY HEALTH CARE TO ALL NON-NATIONALS, REGARDLESS OF THEIR MIGRATORY STATUS.

Sources: OECD, 2019; DESA et al., 2021.

2 ZERO HUNGER

While migrants often support positive nutritional outcomes, they can be at higher risk of food insecurity and malnutrition-related conditions than non-migrants.

The relationship between migration and food security can look different in different places. For example, studies have shown:

Stunting and wasting of children in Sri Lanka living in

Stunting — **12%** **15%**

Wasting — **18%** **22%**

MIGRANT HOUSEHOLDS
NON-MIGRANT HOUSEHOLDS

Food insecurity of US-born children

24% WITH FOREIGN-BORN MOTHERS living in the US < 5 years

10% WITH NATIVE-BORN MOTHERS
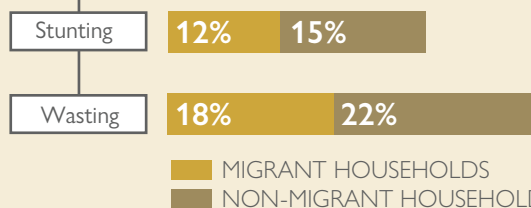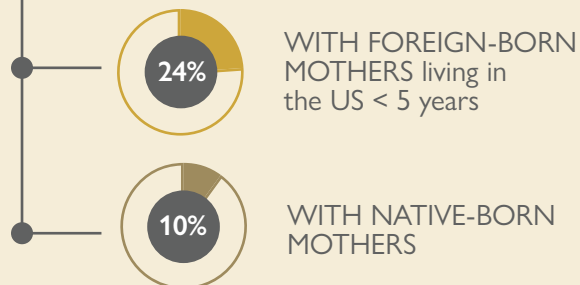
Sources: Jayatissa and Wickramage, 2016; Children's HealthWatch, 2018.

Share of foreign-born doctors and nurses in selected OECD countries, 2015–2016

UNITED KINGDOM
33% **22%**

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
30% **16%**

GERMANY
20% **16%**
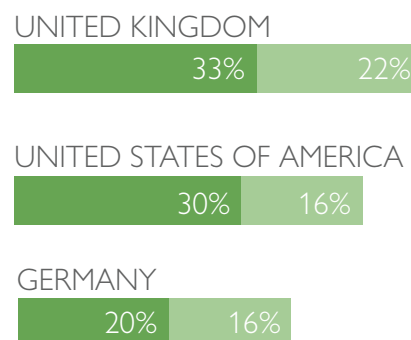
% FOREIGN-BORN DOCTORS
% FOREIGN-BORN NURSES

MIGRATION IN THE SDGs

4 QUALITY EDUCATION

While many students migrate for education, often foreign-born youth are more likely to be neither employed nor in education or training.

Youth neither employed nor in education or training (NEET)

- MIGRANTS
- NON-MIGRANTS

Africa

KENYA (2009)
- 38%
- 15%

SUDAN (2008)
- 31%
- 39%

Asia

ARMENIA (2011)
- 38%
- 43%

KYRGYZSTAN (2009)
- 28%
- 19%
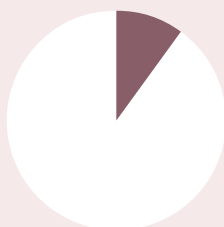
IN 2017,
19% OF FOREIGN-BORN PEOPLE
AGED 18 TO 24
IN THE EU HAD LEFT SCHOOL EARLY,
COMPARED TO 10% OF NATIVE-BORN .

Sources: Jeffers et al., 2018; Eurostat, 2017.

5 GENDER EQUALITY

While migrant women participate more in the labour force than non-migrant women, many women are exposed to gender-specific risks and dangers related to migration.

The **labour force** participation rate of **migrant women is higher** than that of non-migrant women; in 2017 this was **64%** versus **48%**.

Over 2002–2021
73%
of the **victims of human trafficking** recorded on the global Counter-Trafficking Data Collective (CTDC) database were women and girls.

ONLY 69% OF 111 COUNTRIES
HAVE MECHANISMS TO ENSURE THAT MIGRATION POLICIES ARE **GENDER RESPONSIVE** (2021).

Sources: ILO, 2015, 2018; CTDC, 2021; DESA et al., 2021.

8 DECENT WORK AND ECONOMIC GROWTH

Labour migrants promote growth in destination economies, boosting gross domestic product (GDP). Meanwhile migrants are sometimes more vulnerable at work.

5 out of 100 000
FOREIGN-BORN

2 out of 100 000
NATIVE-BORN

── EMPLOYEES ──

experienced a fatal injury at work in 2015 in selected European countries.

MIGRANTS   NON-MIGRANTS
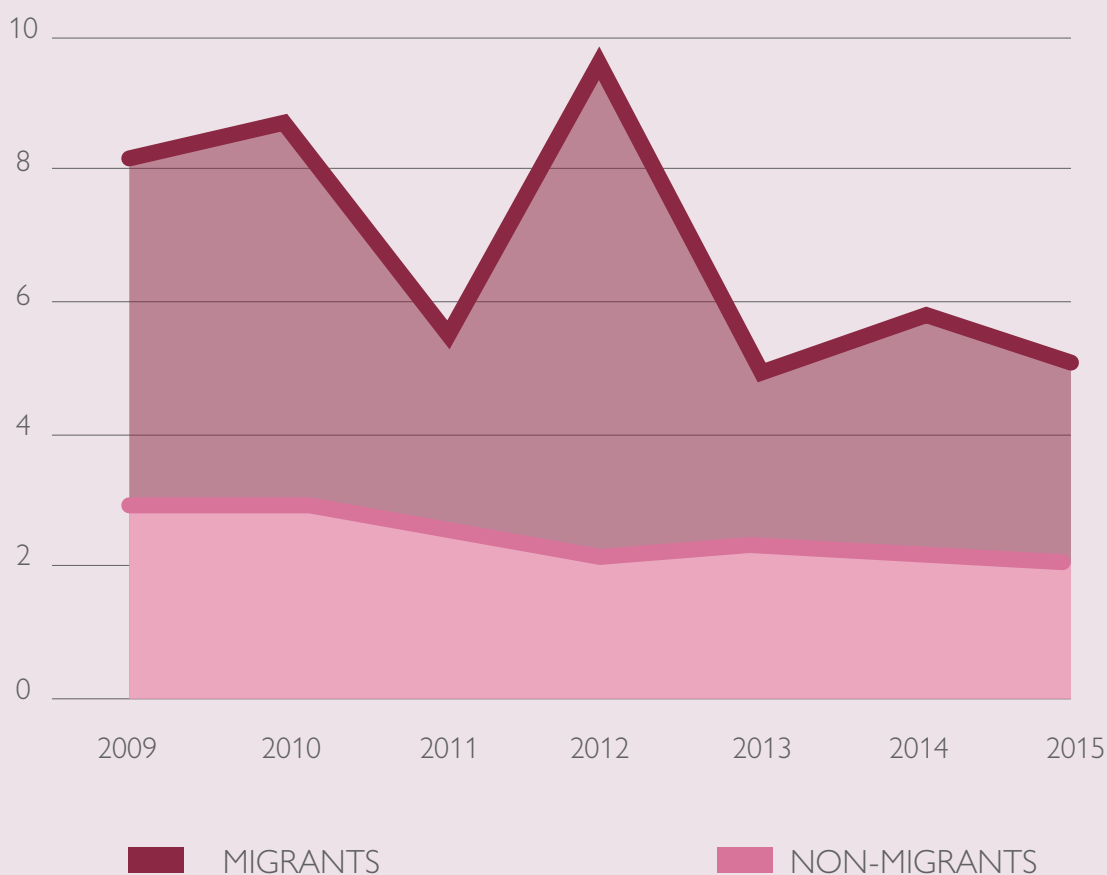
IN 2015 MIGRANTS CONTRIBUTED **9%** – OR **USD 6.7 TRILLION** – TO GLOBAL GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT (GDP), EVEN THOUGH THEY REPRESENTED LESS THAN **3% OF THE GLOBAL POPULATION**.

10 REDUCED INEQUALITIES

MIGRANT WORKERS in Viet Nam pay on average **USD 6,500** for RECRUITMENT COSTS

Over **45,000** MIGRANT DEATHS AND DISAPPEARANCES have been recorded since 2014, with many more going unrecorded

Globally, **63%** OF 138 COUNTRIES reported having policies to facilitate ORDERLY, SAFE, REGULAR AND RESPONSIBLE MIGRATION AND MOBILITY of people

FOR EVERY 100,000 PEOPLE, **311** were REFUGEES OR DISPLACED VENEZUELANS at the end of 2020
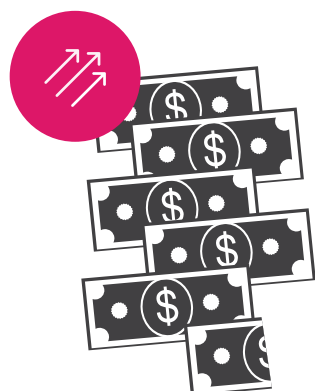
USD 540 BILLION REMITTANCES were sent to low- and middle-income countries in 2020.

GLOBAL AVERAGE REMITTANCE COSTS were **6.5%** in 2020, the lowest ever.

Sources: ILO, 2021; DESA et al., 2021; IOM, n.d.; UNHCR, 2021; World Bank, 2021.

11 SUSTAINABLE CITIES AND COMMUNITIES

Different types of migration contribute to urban growth and diversity in cities around the world. However, many urban migrants have lower living conditions than non-migrants.

Overcrowding rates in EU countries, 2018

40%

20%

0%

2010 2011 2012 2013 2014 2015 2016 2017 2018

NON-EU FOREIGN FOREIGN CITIZENS CITIZENS
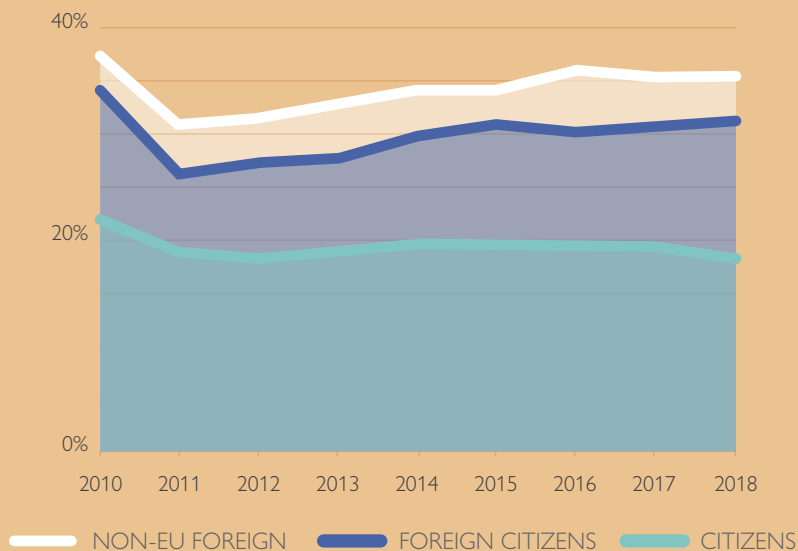
30% of foreign citizens in European countries **lived in overcrowded households** in 2018, compared to 18% of citizens.

Source: Eurostat, 2020a.

13 CLIMATE ACTION

Displaced persons are a specific group among disaster-affected persons. Action on the displacement and migration implications of climate change is linked to the achievement of many SDGs.

30.7m total new displacements (disasters)

(68%) weather related

30m weather related

13.6m cyclones, hurricanes, typhoons

988,000 other storms

14m floods

1.2m wildfires

102,000 landslides

46,000 extreme temperatures

32,000 droughts

In 2020, disasters caused **30.7M** NEW DISPLACEMENTS. 30 million of these were the result of weather-related events.

Source: IDMC, 2021.

MIGRATION IN THE SDGs

16 PEACE, JUSTICE AND STRONG INSTITUTIONS

Many migrants face xenophobia and discrimination more frequently than non-migrants, and many children are at risk of some migration-related vulnerabilities.

UNODC data shows that the **SHARE OF CHILDREN** among detected victims of trafficking in persons is around **30%**.
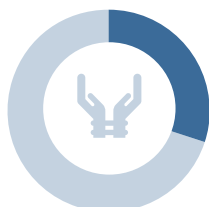
GLOBALLY, HALF OF UNODC-REPORTED TRAFFICKING CASES OVER 2007–2018 WERE FOR SEXUAL EXPLOITATION. THIS RATE VARIES SUBSTANTIALLY BY REGION.
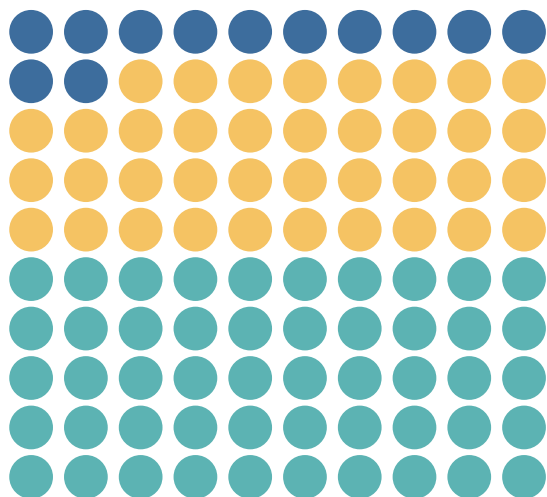
12% Trafficking for other forms of exploitations

38% Trafficking for forced labour

50% Trafficking for sexual exploitaion

Source: UNODC, 2021.

17 PARTNERSHIPS FOR THE GOALS

Global data availability on migration and the SDGs is low. On average around 55% of countries reported on migration-SDG indicators in 2020.

INDICATOR	PERCENTAGE OF COUNTRIES REPORTING ON IAEG DATABASE
3.c.1	87%
4.b.1	72%
8.7.1	61%
8.8.1	33%
10.7.1	0%
10.7.2	45%
16.2.2	42%
10.c.1	46%
17.3.2	75%
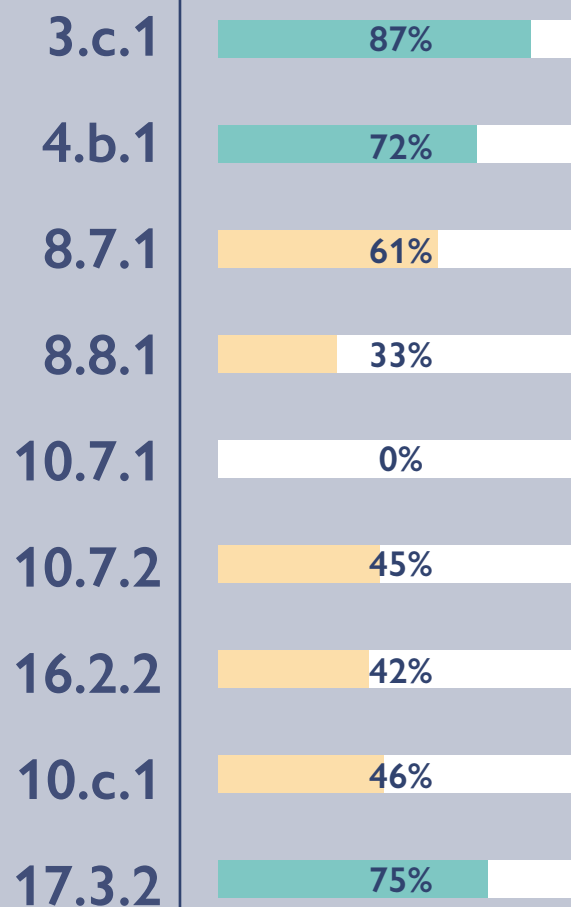
Sources: DESA, 2021, analysis by IOM GMDAC.

MIGRATION IN THE SDGs

Leaving No One Behind

Further, there are many migrant sub-groups with urgent health, educational, economic and other needs who are even harder identify in statistics or are not counted at all.

While migration is a cross-cutting issue across the 2030 Agenda, it is for the most part not possible to identify migrants in official SDG data – limiting our understanding of whether they are being left behind or not.

In 2020, the global SDG database disaggregated

ONLY ONE INDICATOR BY MIGRATORY STATUS.

There were

55 MILLION INTERNALLY DISPLACED PEOPLE (IDPs) in 2020.

IDPs account for the greatest share of displaced populations globally

There were

36 MILLION MIGRANT CHILDREN
and approximately

13 MILLION CHILD REFUGEES AND ASYLUM SEEKERS
in 2020

There are
NO QUALITY GLOBAL STATISTICS on several other important migrant sub-groups who may be at risk of being left behind, such as
MIGRANTS WITH DISABILITIES OR HOMELESS MIGRANTS

Sources: IDMC, 2021; DESA, 2020; UNICEF, 2021.

SDG Icons (left sidebar)

1 NO POVERTY
2 ZERO HUNGER
3 GOOD HEALTH AND WELL-BEING
4 QUALITY EDUCATION
5 GENDER EQUALITY
6 CLEAN WATER AND SANITATION
7 AFFORDABLE AND CLEAN ENERGY
8 DECENT WORK AND ECONOMIC GROWTH
9 INDUSTRY, INNOVATION AND INFRASTRUCTURE
10 REDUCED INEQUALITIES
11 SUSTAINABLE CITIES AND COMMUNITIES
12 RESPONSIBLE CONSUMPTION AND PRODUCTION
13 CLIMATE ACTION
14 LIFE BELOW WATER
15 LIFE ON LAND
16 PEACE, JUSTICE AND STRONG INSTITUTIONS
17 PARTNERSHIPS FOR THE GOALS

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

Elisa Mosler Vidal and Frank Laczko, IOM Global Migration Data Analysis Centre

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development adopted by United Nations member States in 2015 includes a commitment to attain 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and 169 targets. For the first time, migration was recognized as a major topic in the global development agenda. The 2030 Agenda recognizes that migration can contribute to development while also exposing migrants to new risks. SDG targets include, for example, references to the need to reduce remittance transaction costs to boost development outcomes, as well as the need to strengthen measures to reduce human trafficking. The main reference to migration in the SDGs is target 10.7, which calls upon all countries to manage migration more effectively to achieve better development outcomes. SDG target 10.7 specifically calls upon countries to "facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies".

While the inclusion of significant references to migration in the 2030 Agenda is welcome, it presents many countries and the international community with a set of new data challenges, as they seek to monitor progress towards the achievement of the SDGs. First, many countries were faced with the challenge of how best to "operationalize" targets such as SDG target 10.7. How should well-managed migration be defined, and what indicators could be used to monitor progress towards such a target? Second, as recognized in the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration under Objective 1, many countries often lack even basic data on different aspects of migration. For example, the United Nations Statistics Division reports that only 45 countries are able to share data on annual migration flows (DESA, 2015). While the global evidence base on migration has long been recognized as imperfect, the SDG framework was also seen as an opportunity to boost the collection, analysis and quality of migration data. Introducing a need for countries to report on selected migration topics in a standardized way every year was considered a key opportunity to make significant improvements in the collection and analysis of migration data.

The objective of this volume is to assess how much progress has been made in achieving migration-related SDG targets since 2015, based on an examination of key data sources. The report examines how far the 2030 Agenda has been associated with an improvement in key data on migration and development related to the SDG indicators. Although the focus of this report is on the SDGs, it is also highly relevant to discussions about the implementation of the Global Compact for Migration – and in particular Objective 1, which calls for better data and evidence on migration. In May 2022, States will consider how much progress has been made in implementing the Compact at the International Migration Review Forum (IMRF). The Global Compact for Migration builds on much of the migration language included in the SDGs. Countries will come together to review how much progress has been made in improving data on migration and other Global Compact objectives, since the Compact was adopted in 2018. An analysis of how much progress has been made in improving data on SDG-related migration indicators is highly relevant to the IMRF, given the absence of a formal framework for monitoring progress towards the achievement of Global Compact Objective 1. Not only will the IMRF provide a forum for looking "backwards" and the progress that has been made during the last four years. It will also look "forward" and highlight priorities and opportunities for the future, including with respect to how to improve the evidence base on migration. This report is therefore particularly timely given this context.

The report is also timely because it has been written during a period when progress towards achieving many SDGs has been negatively impacted by the global COVID-19 pandemic. The United Nations *Sustainable Development Goals Report 2021* highlights the devastating impacts of the pandemic on the achievement of the SDGs. Furthermore, the pandemic highlighted the weaknesses in data systems around the world, with only 60 countries able to disaggregate COVID-19 infection and death rates by age and sex, and even fewer able to do so by migratory status. COVID-19 has had a negative impact on the ability of countries to gather data on migration in traditional ways, such as through face-to-face surveys. Many national statistical offices (NSOs) reported in surveys, conducted by the United Nations and the World Bank, that they were forced to postpone or delay censuses and surveys due the pandemic (CCSA, 2020a and 2020b). However, the situation has also spurred data innovation and the use of alternative methods to gather data on migration. Many new initiatives were launched during this time using new technologies and big data to track mobility patterns and collect data on the impact of the pandemic on migrants.[1]

Outline of volume

The volume includes contributions from a wide range of migration and development data experts on several SDGs[2] and cross-cutting topics. The volume starts with a **scene-setting chapter** to remind readers of the various ways in which migration and the 2030 Agenda are linked, and the implications of this for data. The first section of the volume brings together and examines, for the first time, data on all four indicators used to monitor target 10.7 – 10.7.1 on recruitment costs, 10.7.2 on migration governance, 10.7.3 on safe migration and missing migrants, and 10.7.4 on refugee populations. This takes stock of what the international community has learned on how to conceptualize and monitor safe, orderly, regular and responsible migration. The **second section of the volume** discusses migration trends and data beyond target 10.7 across the rest of the 2030 Agenda through a diverse set of contributions. These explore the visibility of migrants in SDG data and discusses how to capture information on migrants' and diaspora communities' contributions to sustainable development. Other contributions explore data on several migrant subgroups who may be particularly vulnerable to being left behind, including child migrants and internally displaced persons (IDPs). This section also explores challenges, opportunities and lessons learned in relation to data on migration and development in the context of SDG 3 (health); 5, 8 and 16 (human trafficking); 13 (climate change); and 17 (partnerships and capacity-building). Finally, the volume includes text boxes, tables and infographics that showcase examples of good practices and tools relating to data on internal displacement, migration and health, migration and gender, and other topics.

Key findings

This volume provides an extensive overview of a broad range of migration-related SDGs, targets and indicators, discussing both the state of data availability and trends using available evidence. The range of topics covered is broad, and this data refer not only to the movement of people but also to flows of money through remittances, the policies that countries have adopted to manage migration and development, the risks faced by migrants in vulnerable situations, and many other topics.

A. The state of data on migration and the SDGs

From the contributions in this volume, several key findings emerge related to the state of migration–SDG data, along with the overall impact the 2030 Agenda has had on migration data.

There has been impressive progress on migration data methodologies. The 2030 Agenda triggered impressive advancements in key migration methodologies at the global level, as progress accelerated on several existing and new methodologies, so these could be deployed around the world in a comparable way. Many of these new methodologies are improving over time. Until 2020, all four indicators to monitor target 10.7 were classified as Tier II, and in 2021, two of these moved to Tier 1.[3] Often this involved clarification of key concepts and agreement on what needs to be monitored and how, so that a particular measure could be included in the SDG data architecture. For example:

---

[1] See IOM's Data Innovation Directory for several examples. Available at www.migrationdataportal.org/de/data-innovation.

[2] Note that due to scope constraints, not every goal is mentioned.

[3] Tier 1: Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology and standards are available, and data are regularly produced by countries for at least 50 per cent of countries and of the population in every region where the indicator is relevant. Tier 2: Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology and standards are available, but data are not regularly produced by countries. Tier 3: No internationally established methodology or standards are yet available for the indicator, but methodology/standards are being (or will be) developed or tested. More information is available at https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/iaeg-sdgs/tier-classification/.

(a) The development of indicator 10.7.1 marked an important step towards having a new single, standardized global methodology to measure recruitment costs. The Global Knowledge Partnership on Migration and Development and the International Labour Organization have worked to advance the 10.7.1 methodology and pilot this in selected countries.

(b) Indicator 10.7.2 represents global efforts to develop a new methodology to monitor migration governance. This indicator, developed by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, and IOM, strengthens the evidence base on "well-managed migration". Indicator data are now available for 70 per cent of countries, collected through the United Nations Inquiry among Governments on Population and Development.

(c) Indicator 10.7.3 was adopted in 2020, using data from IOM's Missing Migrants Project. This uses a relatively innovative methodology for an SDG indicator; due to a dearth of official data, the project relies heavily on media reports and other sources of data to capture incidents involving migrant deaths. By documenting these and showing how dangerous the migration process is for many, 10.7.3 monitors one dimension of (un)safe migration in the 2030 Agenda.

In some cases, the 2030 Agenda led to the use of innovative migration data approaches. For example, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime uses innovative methodologies such as the Multiple Systems Estimation, which leverages administrative data on human trafficking, and the Counter-Trafficking Data Collaborative (CTDC), the largest database on trafficking to date, which shows the exciting potential of both administrative data and harmonized operational data to monitor the SDGs. Further, indicator 10.7.3 makes use of media reports as above.

Since 2015, there has been growing focus on improving SDG and migration data. The last years have seen greater interest in building capacities of countries to collect, analyse, report and use migration data as well as development data more broadly. Despite increasing efforts to address this, it is challenging to measure progress made in data capacity-building.

The 2030 Agenda has helped foster several strong partnerships related to migration data. For example, organizations from around the world contribute data to the CTDC, two of the four 10.7 indicators are inter-agency efforts, and many different United Nations agencies and other actors undertake migration data capacity-building initiatives together.

Nevertheless, overall the state of SDG–migration data is imperfect.

- Global-level data availability for migration-relevant SDG indicators is low. Only data for around 55 per cent of countries were reported on these in the Inter-Agency and Expert Group (IAEG) database in 2020.

- Migrants are usually invisible in official SDG data. For example, in 2020, only one SDG indicator was disaggregated by migratory status in the IAEG database, and SDG data do not tend to be reported by who is a migrant. This means that today, the situation of migrants in relation to the SDGs is largely unknown.

- Further, there is not enough data on key migrant subgroups in relation to the SDGs. For example, there were 55 million IDPs at the end of 2020, many with urgent health, educational, economic and other needs. In 2020 there were 36 million migrant children and approximately 13 million child refugees and asylum seekers. Migrant children – in particular, unaccompanied minors – can be vulnerable to abuse or exploitation. SDG data on IDPs, migrant children and many other groups that may be at risk of being left behind are scarce. To inform policy and programming to leave no one behind, better data are needed.

- Moreover, there are many data gaps relating to specific areas of migration and development. For example, better data are needed to identify migration corridors, industries, occupations and workers at greatest risk of high recruitment costs, to inform policies that promote fair recruitment. While migrant contributions are linked to progress in over 18 SDG targets, better data are needed to quantify migrants' and diasporas' development contributions to sustainable development outside of economic remittances. Health and migration topics are difficult to monitor in the SDGs as well – while there are over 50 health and health-related SDG indicators, there are none specifically on health and migration. To reach migrants, health policies require significantly improved data. Similarly, while Goal 13 on climate change does not make direct reference to migration, many of its targets have significant human mobility implications, particularly related to displacement. Data on migration and displacement in the context of disasters and climate change are highly imperfect – but necessary to support both climate action and the achievement of the 2030 Agenda. Available data on human trafficking are patchy, and actual numbers of trafficked persons are much higher than those recorded.

B. Migration and the SDGs: What does the data tell us?

As this volume details, official data availability on migration in the SDGs is patchy. Nevertheless, contributions in this volume each present, as far as possible, available data on diverse migration and development topics as they relate to different SDGs. The data offered are from different years and, overall, a combination of official SDG data as well as data from other sources not formally used to monitor the SDGs. This rich compilation of evidence, while far from perfect, offers key findings below that help us understand different migration topics in the 2030 Agenda. Figure 1 presents selected data from this volume, as well as a few other relevant global-level statistics.

(a) **Recruitment costs remain high**. High recruitment costs incurred by many migrant workers to access jobs abroad are serious impediments to realizing sustainable development outcomes from international migration. Recruitment costs can be as high as the equivalent of 20 work months at the destination country; in Viet Nam, they were USD 6,500 (ILO, 2021).

(b) **Migration governance differs greatly around the world.** Globally, only 4 per cent of governments reported having fully comprehensive policy measures to facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people. Nearly 6 out of 10 reported having provisions in place for these policy measures, while 1 out of 3 had made partial provisions (DESA et al., 2021).

(c) **Migration today is far from safe.** Since 2014, nearly 45,000 lives have been lost during migration worldwide, though the true number is likely far higher. The majority of deaths and disappearances have been recorded on maritime routes to Europe, with 25,816 documented in the Mediterranean Sea crossing (IOM, n.d.).

(d) **Total numbers of refugees have increased in recent years.** At the end of 2020, 20.7 million people were refugees, in addition to 3.9 million Venezuelans displaced abroad, bringing the global number of people who had fled their countries of origin due to war, conflict, persecution, human rights violations, and events seriously disturbing public order to 24.5 million (UNHCR, 2021).

(e) **While migration can be a powerful poverty-reduction tool, many migrants themselves are in poverty.** Data from 36 countries around the world showed that 35 per cent of international migrants were in or at risk of poverty in 2015, compared to 23 per cent of non-migrants (ACOSS and UNSW, 2018; Eurostat, 2020b; United States Census Bureau, 2016).

(f) **While sometimes migration can improve nutritional outcomes for others, some migrants are more food-insecure than non-migrants.** For example, one study in Sri Lanka shows that stunting and wasting are lower in migrant than non-migrant households (Jayatissa and Wickramage, 2016). Another found that 24 per cent of children born in the United States of America by foreign-born mothers who have been in the country for less than five years were food-insecure, in contrast to 10 per cent of those with native mothers (Children's HealthWatch, 2018).

(g) **Migrants may have differential educational opportunities.** In most top migrant-hosting countries in all regions, foreign-born youth aged 15–24 were more likely to be neither in education nor employment or training (NEET) than the native-born (Jeffers et al., 2018). In some countries, migrants were less likely to be NEET – such as in the Sudan and Armenia.

(h) **While migration contributes to growth in cities around the world, many urban migrants have poorer living conditions than non-migrants.** For example, in 2018 almost 1 in 3 foreign citizens (30%) in 31 European countries lived in an overcrowded household, compared to less than 1 in 5 natives (18%). Those from non–European Union countries had an even higher overcrowding rate (Eurostat, 2020a).

(i) **Migrants play an important role in boosting sustainable development.** In 2015, it was estimated that migrants contributed 9 per cent to the global GDP even though they represented less than 3 per cent of the global population (McKinsey & Company, 2016).

(j) **The number of IDPs is rising, and many of these have urgent needs.** A total of 55 million individuals were living in internal displacement at the end of 2020, up from 22 million 10 years ago (IDMC, 2021). IDPs often face considerable humanitarian and development challenges.

(k) **There are many child migrants, many in need of specific policy interventions.** In 2020, there were around 36 million child migrants, and of those, approximately 13 million were refugees and asylum seekers (UNICEF, 2020). Migrant children's health, education and legal rights are often negatively impacted, and they have increased exposure to exploitation and discrimination.

(l) **Migrants often experience suboptimal access to health-care services, and in some contexts, they experience poorer health outcomes than non-migrants.** Barriers in accessing health facilities and services can be complex. Further, the COVID-19 pandemic has exposed vulnerabilities and has often been challenging in many ways on refugees and many migrants, especially those in irregular and precarious situations, who have experienced higher rates of infection and death.

(m) **There are complex gender- and age-related dynamics in human trafficking.** Among the total number of detected human trafficking victims for 2018 by UNODC, around 30 per cent were children (UNODC, 2021). The share of trafficking victims for sexual exploitation in 2018 was approximately 50 per cent, for forced labour 38 per cent, and for other forms of exploitation 12 per cent (ibid.). A total of 73 per cent of the Counter-Trafficking Data Collective (CDTC) over 2002-2021 were women or girls (CTDC, 2021). Many more women and girls have been victims of trafficking for sexual exploitation than men and boys.

(n) **Disaster-related displacements have increased.** In 2020, disasters were associated with 30.7 million displacements, out of which some 30 million were the result of weather-related events (IDMC, 2021). These figures may well be significant underestimations.

Conclusion and way forward

There has clearly been some progress in developing new ways to gather data and report on migration and development targets related to the SDGs, and this is in line with the general progress which has been made in collecting data on the SDGs. The 2030 Agenda has added urgency to many development data needs, and the availability of internationally comparable data on the SDGs as a whole has significantly improved in recent years. According to the United Nation's report on the SDGs for 2021, the number of indicators included in the global SDG database increased from 115 in 2016 to around 160 in 2019 and 211 in 2021 (United Nations, 2021). Despite this progress, huge data gaps still exist in all areas of the SDGs in terms of geographic coverage, timeliness and level of disaggregation. A lack of data timeliness, for example, makes SDG monitoring challenging. Migration is one SDG data area where progress has been made, often as a result of the 2030 Agenda, but where significant evidence gaps persist. There remains a particular lack of timely, comparable, reliable and disaggregated migration data, which means that we are not able to understand where migrants are being left behind in the SDGs, or to fully capture the benefits of migration for sustainable development.

Taken together, the contributions in this volume suggest that there is a disconnect between global conversations on migration and development data and progress at the national level, where data availability remains low. While initiatives mainly taken at the global level by international agencies have seen some success, nationally migration data progress may look different. Countries are often unable to generate "basic" data on migrant stocks and flows, let alone on further migration subtopics for the SDGs. The SDGs placed a large burden on NSOs that may not be well-equipped to deal with migration data requests from the international community. Many countries are forced to prioritize indicators to monitor due to capacity challenges, and for political, technical or other reasons, those on migration may not be chosen. Quality, comparable migration and development indicators reported annually across the world are not yet a reality. Another recent IOM GMDAC publication shows that for many NSOs and other national migration data stakeholders, the SDGs are not a priority and are sometimes poorly understood (IOM, 2022). The SDGs are global goals, but to be successful – in both implementation and monitoring – they need to be translated effectively to national and local levels. While at the global level the international community continues advancing migration data dialogues and methodologies, this may mean little for actual data producers in countries. Insofar as this is a capacity issue, this suggests that greater capacity development on migration data is needed, as well as funding for SDG data work in general and migration in particular. Further, efforts need to focus more on the challenging task of data use, recognized as a gap in various reviews of development data capacity-building programmes. More effort is needed to generate positive national returns from the SDG data framework.

This disconnect could also be linked to the SDG data architecture itself. It can be difficult to make sense of the ambitious SDG monitoring framework. Many indicators may reflect countries' migration priorities, while some key

national migration topics – for example, migration and climate change – may not be reflected in the framework. While having internationally comparable migration data is an important objective, to generate more concrete progress, greater flexibility within the framework could be granted. For example, the use of proxy indicators (such as those using alternative data sources) could be supported where necessary, or countries could be encouraged to report on additional migration and development topics that are most relevant to their contexts.

To a large extent, the mixed success of SDG–migration indicators reflects one important difference between them and many other SDG indicators: their relative youth. While the migration data community has existed for decades, real opportunities to deploy standardized indicators for global use are relatively recent. This is not the case for some other sectors. For example, conversations on how to globally monitor maternal mortality and educational attainment are more advanced than those on migration – and related indicators were included in the Millennium Development Goals and routinely in national development plans. Further, the now-famous terms "orderly, safe, regular and responsible" are not officially defined in the 2030 Agenda or elsewhere. In this sense, it is an achievement in itself that migration indicators were integrated into the SDGs, and progress on these since has been commendable.

How migration is monitored in the 2030 Agenda – both in theory and in practice – raises important questions about how such global data frameworks are designed and implemented. For example, how should countries and international organizations work together to set official global indicators? Is it realistic to expect countries to monitor specific migration and development topics if they cannot measure basic national migration trends? Such questions will be relevant beyond 2030, to inform future efforts around migration in global processes. There are opportunities to learn from the 2030 Agenda's data framework to improve equivalents. For example, references to and data on some key migration and development topics – such as climate change, and migration and health – are lacking in the SDG framework; this could be corrected in subsequent opportunities.

What can be done to address these challenges and, overall, improve data on migration and the 2030 Agenda? Several ideas emerge from contributions in this volume. Several contributions underline the key importance of disaggregating data by age, sex/gender, migratory status and other dimensions, to show across the SDGs how migrants are faring, where they may be at risk of being left behind, and where they contribute to achieving the SDGs. Where opportunities for new data collection are constrained, countries can make better use of existing data towards the SDGs, including from administrative sources. The potential to leverage alternative sources of data, including big data, towards migration–SDG monitoring is huge. While the COVID-19 pandemic disrupted several important traditional migration data-collection instruments – including censuses and household surveys around the world – several impressive applications of innovative methodologies, often leveraging big data, emerged as a result. Finally, this volume contains many specific, concrete suggestions on how to improve migration data in relation to specific SDGs – for example, integrating displacement data into disaster-related information systems to improve our understanding of climate change's mobility implications.

Capacity-building efforts on migration data can be strengthened to help address all of the above. The latest Secretary-General's report on the Global Compact for Migration calls for a global capacity-building programme (UNGA, 2021); to date there has not been any major investment in this area. Efforts should be made, particularly by relatively new data funds such as the World Bank Global Data Facility and the Complex Risk Analytics Fund (CRAF'd), to include support to countries wishing to improve data on migration and displacement. Finally, there is an overall need to better integrate migration data considerations into wider SDG data initiatives, as often efforts remain siloed. Where it is most urgently needed by a country, steps to improve migration data can be prioritized and mainstreamed into broader SDG data exercises.

The Global Compact for Migration has a limited data-driven follow-up and review process and instead is intended to build on the 2030 Agenda's. Right now, these building blocks remain shaky. The inclusion of migration in the SDGs was a huge opportunity to improve migration data; if by 2030 data have not improved, this chance will not have been fully seized. There are many exciting initiatives and much expertise available to build on over the next eight years to change this.

REFERENCES

Australian Council of Social Service (ACOSS) and the University of New South Wales (UNSW)
2018   *Poverty in Australia 2018*. Strawberry Hills. Available at www.acoss.org.au/wp-content/uploads/2018/10/ACOSS_Poverty-in-Australia-Report_Web-Final.pdf.

Children's HealthWatch
2018   Helping our youngest first-generation Americans to thrive. Report card on food security and immigration, February. Available at https://childrenshealthwatch.org/wp-content/uploads/Report-Card-on-Food-Insecurity-and-Immigration-Helping-Our-Youngest-First-Generation-Americans-to-Thrive.pdf.

Committee for the Coordination of Statistical Activities (CCSA)
2020a   *How COVID-19 Is Changing the World: A Statistical Perspective*. Available at https://unstats.un.org/unsd/ccsa/documents/covid19-report-ccsa.pdf.
2020b   *How COVID-19 Is Changing the World: A Statistical Perspective. Volume II*. Available at https://unstats.un.org/unsd/ccsa/documents/covid19-report-ccsa_vol2.pdf.

Counter Trafficking Data Collaborative (CTDC)
2021   Global data hub on human trafficking. Available at www.ctdatacollaborative.org/.

Eurostat
2017   *Migrant Integration*. Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg. Available at https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/8787947/KS-05-17-100-EN-N.pdf/f6c45af2-6c4f-4ca0-b547-d25e6ef9c359.
2020a   Overcrowding rate by age, sex and broad group of citizenship (total population aged 18 and over) [indicator]. Available at https://data.europa.eu/euodp/en/data/dataset/XSMrHAlncCrLP1VTm6lg.
2020b   People at risk of poverty or social exclusion by broad group of citizenship (population aged 18 and over) [indicator]. Available at https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/en/web/products-datasets/-/ILC_PEPS05.

Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC)
2021   *GRID 2021: Internal Displacement in a Changing Climate*. Geneva. Available at www.internaldisplacement.org/global-report/grid2021/.

International Labour Organization (ILO)
2021   *ILO Global Estimates on International Migrant Workers: Results and Methodology*. Third edition. Geneva. Available at www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/---publ/documents/publication/wcms_808935.pdf.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)
2022   *How Countries Manage Migration Data: Evidence from Six Countries*. Geneva. Available at https://publications.iom.int/books/how-countries-manage-migration-data-evidence-six-countries.
n.d.   Missing Migrants Project data. Available at https://missingmigrants.iom.int/downloads (accessed 4 November 2021).

Jayatissa, R. and K. Wickramage
2016   What effect does international migration have on the nutritional status and child care practices of children left behind. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health,* 13(2):218. Available at https:// doi.org/10.3390/ijerph13020218.

Jeffers, K., J. Tjaden and F. Laczko

    2018   *A Pilot Study on Disaggregating SDG Indicators by Migratory Status.* IOM, Geneva. Available at https://publications.iom.int/books/pilot-study-disaggregating-sdg-indicators-migratory-status.

McKinsey & Company

    2016   *People on the Move: Global Migration's Impact and Opportunity.* McKinsey Global Institute. Available at www.mckinsey.com/featured-insights/employment-and-growth/global-migrations-impact-and-opportunity.

Mosler Vidal, E.

    2021   *Leave No Migrant Behind: The 2030 Agenda and Data Disaggregation.* IOM, Geneva. Available at https://publications.iom.int/books/leave-no-migrant-behind-2030-agenda-and-data-disaggregation.

Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)

    2021   Refugee Data Finder. Available at www.unhcr.org/refugee-statistics/.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)

    2019   *Recent Trends in International Migration of Doctors, Nurses and Medical Students.* OECD Publishing, Paris. Available at https://doi.org/10.1787/5571ef48-en.

United Nations

    2021   *The Sustainable Development Goals Report 2021.* New York. Available at https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/report/2021/.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA)

    2015   *International Migration Flows to and from Selected Countries: The 2015 Revision.* New York. Available at www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/data/empirical2/migrationflows.asp.

    2020   Indicator 8.8.1 and Indicator 8.8.2. SDG database. Statistics Division.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, IOM and OECD

    2021   SDG indicator 10.7.2: Number of countries with migration policies to facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people. Policy Brief 2. Available at www.un.org/development/desa/pd/data/sdg-indicator-1072-migration-policies.

United Nations General Assembly (UNGA)

    2021   *Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration.* Report of the Secretary-General. Seventy-sixth Session, Agenda item 15. Available at https://migrationnetwork.un.org/resources/secretary-general-report.

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)

    2021   Child migration. Available at https://data.unicef.org/topic/child-migration-and-displacement/migration/.

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC)

    2021   *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons 2020.* Vienna. Available at www.unodc.org/unodc/data-and-analysis/glotip.html.

United States Census Bureau

    2016   People in poverty by selected characteristics: 2014 and 2015 [Indicator]. Not available online.

World Bank

    2021   Annual remittances data: Inflows. Available at www.worldbank.org/en/topic/migrationremittancesdiasporaissues/brief/migration-remittances-data.

MIGRATION IN THE 2030 AGENDA FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: OVERVIEW AND IMPLICATIONS FOR DATA

Elisa Mosler Vidal, IOM Global Migration Data Analysis Centre
Joanne Irvine, Kristin Eitel and Audrey Hickcox, IOM Migration and Sustainable Development Unit

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2030 Agenda) recognizes migration as a core development consideration, which marks the first time that migration is integrated explicitly into the global development agenda. This is a reflection of the increasing evidence around the potential for migration to support sustainable development outcomes. Target 10.7, calling for the facilitation of "orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies", represents the most explicit reference to migration. Yet migration is a cross-cutting phenomenon that is relevant to all 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), for which success is contingent upon the due consideration of migrants and migration.

Migration and sustainable development: A global opportunity for prosperity

Migration is a long-standing human strategy to enhance socioeconomic well-being, contributing to SDG 1 on eradicating poverty. Migrants can help build stronger, more inclusive and resilient communities through the knowledge, networks and skills that they bring to their communities, and contribute, on average, an estimated 7 to 10 per cent of their host country's GDP (OECD and ILO, 2018). Migrants who move through regular channels and have regular documentation are more able to access decent work and livelihood opportunities, contributing to SDG 8 on decent work. There are an estimated 169 million migrant workers providing essential services, new businesses and economic growth (ILO, 2021). Further, 1 in 9 people around the world rely on remittances from family and friends abroad to provide better nutrition, education and health care (DESA, 2019), supporting access to education as outlined in SDG 4 and improving health and well-being under SDG 3. Despite the devastating economic effects of the pandemic, remittances have proven to be even more important for communities and incredibly resilient to economic shocks, growing by 7.3 per cent and reaching USD 589 billion in 2021 (Ratha et al., 2021). Better educated migrants, refugees and their families can more effectively reach their full potential as innovators and leaders. According to the New American Economy (2019), there are over 3.2 million immigrant entrepreneurs in the United States of America alone, contributing to SDG 9 on industry, innovation and infrastructure.

If not duly considered throughout, we risk missing out on the development opportunities of migration and undermining the 2030 Agenda's motto to "leave no one behind". We will not achieve SDG 13 on climate action if we do not act now to build human mobility considerations into policies and strategies that address the pressing needs of environment and climate change, land degradation, and natural disasters. Similarly, we cannot close the gender gap as envisioned in SDG 5 if we do not adequately address the intersecting forms of discrimination that migrant women face in their origin, transit and host communities.

Efforts to maximize the development potential of migration are not new. Before this was enshrined in the 2030 Agenda, governments, civil society, diaspora organizations, international organizations, and United Nations agencies such as IOM have been working with national and local governments and other actors to achieve this by integrating migration into development policies and sectoral policies, including in health care or employment, and developing tailored migration-specific policies as well as migration and development programming. With the 2030 Agenda in place by 2016, this has continued and been bolstered with further efforts to ensure that good migration governance

is integrated into and considered part and parcel of sustainable development efforts across the United Nations Development System and countries' United Nations Sustainable Development Cooperation Frameworks. While great strides have been made to achieve this, related migration data have yet to significantly improve.

Maximizing the opportunity that good migration governance brings necessitates better understanding how migration affects and is affected by different sectors in any given region, country or territory; and for this, we need data. With its framework of 232 indicators, the 2030 Agenda provides an excellent opportunity to further assess the impact of migration on a range of development issues and to understand better how development can have an impact on migration and migrants within a globally recognized framework, which in turn can support more inclusive and effective policymaking.

Migration and migration data in the 2030 Agenda: An overview

The 2030 Agenda includes a multilayered follow-up mechanism designed to review progress on meeting the SDGs in the run up to 2030. The global SDG indicator framework was developed by the Inter-Agency and Expert Group on SDG Indicators and agreed upon at the Forty-eighth Session of the United Nations Statistical Commission in 2017. This framework comprises 232 indicators to be monitored at the national level, aiming together to monitor progress towards SDG targets. While the responsibility of SDG reporting lies with national governments, SDG indicators also have custodian agencies, bodies responsible for compiling and submitting country data to the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD) for official SDG reporting. Further, each indicator is assigned a tier between I and III, depending on the level of establishment of its methodology, along with data availability for that indicator.[4]

At least 10 out of 17 goals contain targets and indicators that are directly relevant to migration or mobility. The SDGs' central reference to migration is made in target 10.7 to facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies, which appears under Goal 10 to reduce inequality within and among countries. Other targets also make direct connections to migration topics, such as labour migration (8.7 and 8.8), international student mobility (4.b), human trafficking (5.2, 8.7 and 16.2), remittances (10.c), migration data (17.18) and more. These are outlined in detail in Table 1 below.

Several of the SDG indicators refer explicitly to migration (see Table 1). These span across migration topics, from human trafficking to remittances, and require annual national data to be provided on them. For various reasons, reporting of these indicators around the world is overall low. Only around 55 per cent of countries provided data on these in 2020, with large geographical variations (see Chapter 13 for more).

Table 1. Sustainable development indicators directly referencing migration

SDG indicator	Custodian(s)	Partner(s)	Tier
3.c.1 Health worker density and distribution	World Health Organization	World Health Organization	I
4.b.1 Volume of official development assistance flows for scholarships by sector and type of study	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Institute for Statistics	I
8.8.1 Fatal and non-fatal occupational injuries per 100,000 workers, by sex and migrant status	International Labour Organization (ILO)		II

---

4   Tier 1: Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology and standards are available, and data are regularly produced by countries for at least 50 per cent of countries and of the population in every region where the indicator is relevant. Tier 2: Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology and standards are available, but data are not regularly produced by countries. Tier 3: No internationally established methodology or standards are yet available for the indicator, but methodology/standards are being (or will be) developed or tested. (As of the 51st session of the United Nations Statistical Commission, the global indicator framework does not contain any Tier III indicators.) More information is available at https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/iaeg-sdgs/tier-classification/.

8.8.2 Level of national compliance with labour rights (freedom of association and collective bargaining) based on ILO textual sources and national legislation, by sex and migrant status	ILO		II
10.7.1 Recruitment cost borne by employee as a proportion of yearly income earned in country of destination	ILO, World Bank		II
10.7.2 Number of countries with migration policies to facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA), IOM, OECD	World Bank, Global Migration Group, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), OECD	II
10.7.3 Number of people who died or disappeared in the process of migration towards an international destination	IOM		I
10.7.4 Proportion of the population who are refugees, by country of origin	UNHCR		I
10.c.1 Remittance costs as a proportion of the amount remitted	World Bank		I
16.2.2 Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation	UNODC	UNICEF	II
17.3.2 Volume of remittances (in United States dollars) as a proportion of total GDP	World Bank		I

Source: UNSD, 2022.

As aforementioned, it is also important to go beyond the direct references to migration and to acknowledge and address the mutually supporting relationships between migration and each of the goals and targets. Indeed, many more SDG indicators beyond those listed in Table 1 are highly relevant for migration. SDG target 17.18 calls for greater support to developing countries to increase the availability of "high-quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, [and] migratory status". This reflects a growing understanding that **disaggregation of data** can help ensure inclusiveness for specific population subgroups, to ensure no one is left behind. In practice, this means that it is possible to disaggregate myriad other SDG indicators – such as those on poverty and health – by migratory status in order to see how migrants are faring in each. For example, SDG indicator 1.1.1, "the proportion of population below the international poverty line", can be disaggregated to show this data for migrants and non-migrants separately. Disaggregation is key to begin integrating migration as a cross-cutting theme across the SDGs. Nevertheless, only one indicator was disaggregated by migratory status in the global SDG database in 2020, by a handful of countries (see Chapter 6 for more details).

Quality and comparable data on migration in the context of the SDGs are needed to help policymakers devise evidence-based policies across sectors. This requirement occurs in the context of a wider, urgent need to improve migration data. There is a need to address significant gaps in the quality, quantity, accuracy, timeliness, comparability (over time and across countries) and accessibility of migration data around the world. Currently, the overall evidence base for migration is patchy, making it difficult for decision makers around the world to create sensible migration policies and programmes. There is an acute lack of quality regular data on certain migration topics. For example, data on migration flows are scarce, as are comparable data on migrants' contribution to the economic growth of receiving countries across industries. Regular data collection and sharing on these could help improve political conditions to inform sensible migration policy and debate. Further, reliable data on certain hard-to-reach migrant population subgroups who may have specific policy needs, such as homeless or irregular migrants, are especially difficult to obtain.

Rooted in the 2030 Agenda, the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration seeks to address the wider challenge of migration data through Objective 1 – collect and utilize accurate and disaggregated data as a basis for evidence-based policies. Through Objective 1, the Global Compact for Migration outlines the commitment to "strengthen the global evidence base on international migration by improving and investing in the collection, analysis and dissemination of accurate, reliable, comparable data, disaggregated by sex, age, migration status and other characteristics relevant in national contexts ... [and] to ensure this data fosters research, guides coherent and evidence-based policymaking and well-informed public discourse, and allows for effective monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of commitments over time". It recognizes the need for improved data on "the effects and benefits of migration, as well as the contributions of migrants and diasporas to sustainable development, with a view to inform the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and related strategies and programmes at the local, national, regional and global levels".[5] Dedicated efforts to implement Objective 1 of the Global Compact for Migration will have ripple effects across the SDGs, deepening our understanding of the realities that migrants and their families face, and providing the evidence base required to develop effective policies that respond to their needs and improve development outcomes. Aligning Compact and SDG implementation, monitoring, and reporting efforts is a critical step that all countries can take to accelerate progress in reaching the 2030 Agenda. While there is no measuring framework established for the Global Compact objectives, the migration indicators of the SDGs can be used as a starting point or proxy. In the latest report on the Global Compact on Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration of the Seventy-sixth Session of the General Assembly, the United Nations Secretary-General calls for States to consider how to develop benchmarks and mechanisms to measure progress on, and monitor their implementation of, and commitments to, the Global Compact, taking account of existing mechanisms such as the SDGs indicator framework where relevant (UNGA, 2021).

What is next: Inclusive data rely on everyone

Integrating migration into SDG monitoring may be a challenge in the short term, but in the medium to long term, this presents a key opportunity to improve capacity to collect, monitor, report, analyse and improve migration data. Strengthening migration data remains crucial to developing evidence-based sustainable development policies and programmes around the world. Stronger migration data are needed to understand how migrants are a motor for sustainable development across sectors, pushing forward many countries' progress towards achieving the SDGs, so that policy can better leverage these dynamics. Meanwhile, stronger migration data are also needed to reveal where migrants may be more exposed and require extra support to enjoy the same development outcomes as non-migrants – so they are not left behind.

IOM is working closely with Member States to support the implementation and monitoring of the 2030 Agenda, including through the monitoring of indicators 10.7.3 and of 10.7.2 in partnership with DESA and the OECD. It is stepping up efforts to ensure migration policies and programmes lead to transformative pathways for sustainable development, as well as to strengthen data and the overall evidence base for migration and sustainable development to support this.

The *IOM Institutional Strategy on Migration and Sustainable Development* (2020) is a core part of the Organization's efforts to support Member States and the United Nations system in accelerating action to achieve the 2030 Agenda. The focus of the strategy is to maximize the potential of migration to achieve sustainable development outcomes for migrants and societies alike, recognizing that migration, when it is well-managed, can be both a development strategy and a development outcome. Further, migration data is a priority issue for IOM, which has committed to

---

[5] See Global Compact for Migration Objective 1, Action d.

strengthening its engagement in this area. One example is through its recently launched *Migration Data Strategy* (IOM, 2021), which includes a special focus on supporting the monitoring of international frameworks such as the 2030 Agenda.

As coordinator of the United Nations Network on Migration, IOM works with its sister United Nations agencies to provide system-wide support to Member States in the implementation, follow-up and review of the Global Compact for Migration in line with the 2030 Agenda. Network guidance highlights the cross-cutting importance of migration across the SDGs, articulates the role of Global Compact implementation in achieving the 2030 Agenda, and encourages synergies between Compact and SDG implementation, monitoring, review, and reporting efforts to support sustainable development outcomes – including through the use of SDG targets and indicators to inform Global Compact implementation, follow-up and review efforts. Network guidance recognizes the need for a context-driven, flexible approach to meet the needs of each local and national context. To explore the guidance and for further information, visit the Migration Network Hub.[6]

---

[6] For example, see: United Nations Network on Migration, 2020a, 2020b.

REFERENCES

International Labour Organization (ILO)

2021   *ILO Global Estimates on International Migrant Workers: Results and Methodology*. Third edition. Geneva. Available at www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/---publ/documents/publication/wcms_808935.pdf.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)

2020   *IOM Institutional Strategy on Migration and Sustainable Development*. Geneva. Available at https://publications.iom.int/books/iom-institutional-strategy-migration-and-sustainable-development.

2021   *IOM Migration Data Strategy: Informing Policy and Action on Migration, Mobility and Displacement 2020 | 2025*. Geneva. Available at https://publications.iom.int/books/iom-migration-data-strategy-informing-policy-and-action-migration-mobility-and-displacement.

New American Economy

2019   Map the Impact: United States data. Available at https://data.newamericaneconomy.org/map-the-impact/.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and ILO

2018   *How Immigrants Contribute to Developing Countries' Economies*. OECD Publishing, Paris. Available at www.oecd.org/migration/how-immigrants-contribute-to-developing-countries-economies-9789264288737-en.htm.

Ratha, D., E.J. Kim, S. Plaza, G. Seshan, E.J. Riordan and V. Chandra

2021   *Recovery: COVID-19 Crisis through a Migration Lens*. Migration and Development Brief 35. World Bank and Global Knowledge Partnership on Migration and Development (KNOMAD), Washington, D.C. Available at www.knomad.org/publication/migration-and-development-brief-35.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA)

2019   Remittances matter: 8 facts you don't know about the money migrants send back home. 17 June. Available at www.un.org/development/desa/en/news/population/remittances-matter.html.

United Nations General Assembly (UNGA)

2021   Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. Report of the Secretary-General. Seventy-sixth Session, Agenda item 15. Available at https://migrationnetwork.un.org/resources/secretary-general-report.

United Nations Network on Migration

2020a   Implementing the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration (GCM): Guidance for governments and all relevant stakeholders. Advanced draft. Available at https://migrationnetwork.un.org/resources/implementing-global-compact-safe-orderly-and-regular-migration-gcm-guidance-governments.

2020b   Remote training for UN Country Teams: Integrating migration into Common Country Analyses and Cooperation Frameworks. Supplementary facilitator's guide. Available at https://migrationnetwork.un.org/resources/remote-training-un-country-teams-integrating-migration-common-country-analyses-and.

United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD)

2022   Tier classification for global SDG indicators. Available at https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/iaeg-sdgs/tier-classification/.

MEASURING TARGET 10.7

MONITORING MIGRATION:
Measuring Target 10.7 progress

10 REDUCED INEQUALITIES

Target 10.7

facilitate orderly, safe, and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies

Indicator 10.7.1:
Recruitment cost borne by employee as a proportion of monthly income earned in country of destination
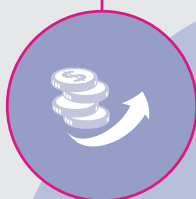
Indicator 10.7.2:
Number of countries with migration policies that facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people

Indicator 10.7.3:
Number of people who died or disappeared in the process of migration towards an international destination

Indicator 10.7.4:
Proportion of the population who are refugees, by country of origin

10.7.1: SUPPORTING EVIDENCE-BASED POLICYMAKING ON FAIR RECRUITMENT

Elisa Benes, Maria Gallotti and Tite Habiyakare, International Labour Organization (ILO)[7]
Sonia Plaza, World Bank

Why an indicator on recruitment costs?

High economic and social costs incurred by migrants have been increasingly recognized as serious impediments to realizing sustainable development outcomes from international migration. In the case of labour migration, one such impediment at the centre of the global agenda is the high recruitment costs that many migrant workers continue to pay to access jobs abroad. The 2015 Addis Ababa Action Agenda first affirmed the imperative to lower the cost of recruitment for migrant workers as part of the global strategy to ensure safe, orderly and regular migration, with full respect for human rights (United Nations, 2015:50). The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development formalizes this commitment with the inclusion of the recruitment cost indicator (RCI), or SDG indicator 10.7.1, as one of the four indicators selected to monitor target 10.7. The Global Knowledge Partnership on Migration and Development (KNOMAD) jointly with the International Labour Organization (ILO) supported the inclusion of this indicator in the 2030 Agenda, and they continue to work together to advance its methodology and support countries' efforts to produce statistics for official monitoring purposes.

Being a new indicator, comprehensive data on the costs paid by migrant workers to secure jobs abroad are still lacking. What information exists indicates that migrant recruitment costs along some "migration corridors" can be as high as the equivalent of 20 work months at the destination – on top of the fees paid by the employers.[8] Such high recruitment costs can be attributed to an often convoluted and opaque recruitment process where layers of brokers and recruitment agencies, multiple requirements and fees to obtain employment clearances, and illegal visa trading and excess demand in low-skilled and elementary jobs coalesce into a potentially exploitative situation that places the financial burden of securing a job on the migrant workers themselves. Amounting evidence suggests that recruitment costs may be rising due to the global COVID-19 pandemic as regular migration options have been restricted, travel has become more costly, and costs for health requirements increased due to new mandatory quarantine and testing protocols (Jones et al., 2021).

Quality data on SDG indicator 10.7.1 are needed to document the above-mentioned trends; identify particular migration corridors, industries, occupations and workers at greatest risk; and inform the formulation of targeted migration policies aimed at promoting fair recruitment practices. The ILO *General Principles and Operational Guidelines for Fair Recruitment* (2019), grounded on relevant ILO standards, states the principle that "no recruitment fees or related costs should be charged to, or otherwise borne by, workers or jobseekers". Not only does improving recruitment outcomes for migrant workers have the potential to positively impact those workers and their families, but destination economies and employers also stand to benefit from the increased productivity that comes with an empowered migrant workforce that can focus on their work and developing their skills, unburdened by debt or the risk of exploitation.

The development community promotes the elimination of worker-paid recruitment fees in line with ILO global principle and guidelines on fair recruitment. This would require effective regulation and monitoring of recruitment

---

[7] With thanks also to Jesse Mertens (ILO) for contributing.
[8] In the case of Bangladesh, the recruitment cost indicator amounts to the equivalent of 17 work months at the destination, but it reaches 20 work months for the Bangladesh–Saudi Arabia corridor (BBS, 2020).

agencies, implemented in constructive collaboration between the sending and the receiving countries. Improving migrants' access to information can help improve the effectiveness of migration-related policies and regulations.

Defining and measuring recruitment costs for SDG monitoring

The RCI, SDG indicator 10.7.1, captures the "recruitment cost borne by employee as a proportion of monthly income earned in country of destination" (ILO and KNOMAD, 2019; ILO and World Bank, 2019). Mathematically, it is the ratio between a "cost" measure and an "income" measure, all expressed in the same currency, irrespective of where these costs are incurred. It can be interpreted as the number of monthly earnings abroad that the migrant worker had to pay (or has incurred as debt) to get the job abroad. Basically, it provides a measure of the financial burden placed on migrant workers to secure a first job in another country.

The ILO and the World Bank are joint custodians of 10.7.1. The indicator is currently classified as Tier II, meaning that it is considered to be conceptually clear and with established standards and methodology, but data are not yet regularly produced by countries. Its methodology has been recently established through an ongoing collaboration between the ILO and KNOMAD of the World Bank. This work greatly benefited from ILO–KNOMAD past experience in conducting small-scale migration costs surveys which first helped to shed light on the scale of the problem.[9]

Draft Guidelines on 10.7.1 (ILO and KNOMAD, 2019) are now available, together with alternative modular questionnaire templates and a detailed *Operational Manual* (ILO and World Bank, 2019). The Guidelines have been developed in consultation with national statistical offices (NSOs) and provide the necessary definitions, classifications and recommendations to promote the regular measurement of migrant recruitment costs as part of official national statistics. Importantly, the Guidelines specify a few key criteria that need to be observed to obtain data that can be recognized as official statistics and that represent all migrant workers in the country of origin or destination.

First, data on costs and income need to be collected for the same individual migrant workers. Second, countries are to rely to the extent possible on standard national surveys for their measurement. In particular, the Guidelines recommend integrating the measurement of 10.7.1 into an existing major national household survey such as a labour force survey (LFS) or a migration or immigration survey. This takes advantage of the already established survey infrastructure and topic overlap, to ensure its sustainability over the long term. Other sources, particularly administrative records, are recommended as auxiliary information to improve the sampling design for the surveys. Traveller surveys are recognized as potential sources if and when migrant workers can be easily identified in ports of entry or exit.[10]

Experience using the agreed methodology is growing, with pilot surveys completed or ongoing in selected countries in Africa (Ghana), Asia (Bangladesh, Cambodia, Indonesia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Maldives, the Philippines, Timor-Leste and Viet Nam) and Latin America (Mexico, see ILO, 2020). Negotiations are also under way with additional NSOs around the world to integrate a short recruitment costs module in questionnaires of upcoming LFSs.

Testing so far has predominantly been conducted by countries of origin. Testing by countries of destination is also needed to improve and validate the methodology.[11] The ILO–KNOMAD partnership is further consolidating national experience and good practice, along with conducting survey research to expand the body of evidence. But wider implementation by countries is necessary to establish the SDG indicator in official statistics, document the scale of recruitment cost in different contexts, and set a global target to tackle this problem at the national, regional and global levels – and ultimately, for them to have the necessary information to support national policies and programmes for the fair management of labour migration.

Recent findings from country surveys and pilots

The findings presented below (Figure 1 and Figure 2) cover selected countries that have already published initial data on this indicator, or shared these data with the ILO and the World Bank, including on a pilot basis. While in this initial

---

9   Collectively, these pilot surveys covered over 19 bilateral migration corridors with a total of 5,603 interviewed migrants. The Migration Costs Surveys primarily focused on costs incurred by workers who were recruited in their home countries and received a job offer prior to migrating. On a pilot basis, several migration corridors were also surveyed to account for non-recruited migrants who moved abroad in search of work without prior job offers. Data sets and documentation can be found on the World Bank's Central Microdata Catalog. More information is available at www.knomad.org/data/recruitment-costs.

10   Further details on the methodology and initial set of questionnaires can be found in the Operational Manual for measuring SDG indicator 10.7.1. Further guidance focusing on the short labour force survey module (for both origin and destination countries) is being developed and tested, and it will be soon available on the International Labour Organization's global database ILOSTAT for broader use by countries.

11   The Republic of Korea is currently developing a comprehensive testing plan that includes cognitive tests prior to including the module in a major national survey in the near future.

phase of implementation the methodologies used by countries vary, the findings nevertheless present a summary picture of differentials in the costs of recruitment for key groups such as women, low-skilled migrant workers, and key destination countries (corridors) for migrant workers from the countries covered so far.

Figure 1. Average recruitment costs paid (Panel A, USD) and recruitment cost indicator (RCI, Panel B, months of salary abroad) of selected countries by sex
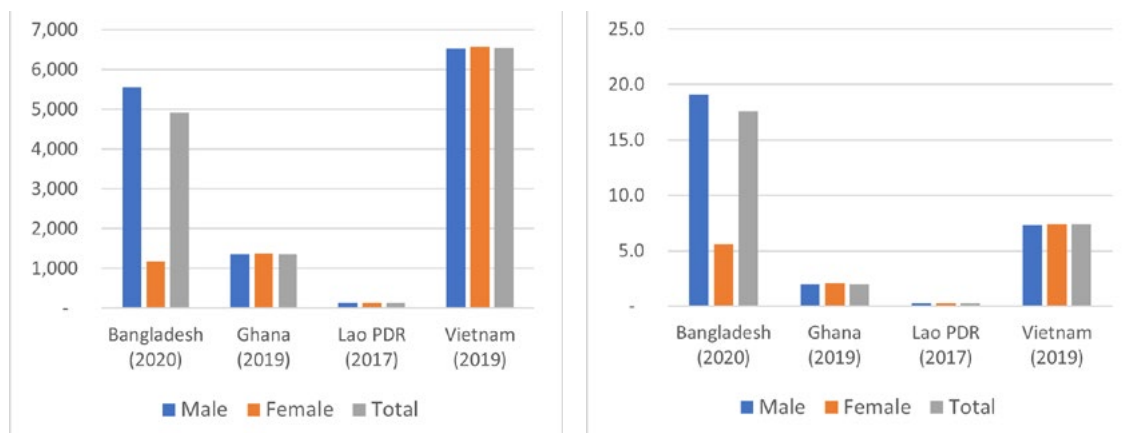
Sources: For Bangladesh, see: BBS, 2020; for Ghana, see: GSS, 2020; for the Lao People's Democratic Republic, see: Habiyakare and Zhong, 2019; and for Viet Nam, see: ILO, 2021.

Findings suggest that migrant workers can pay recruitment costs as high as USD 6,500 (Viet Nam), particularly when they head to more expensive, faraway destinations (such as Japan, the Republic of Korea, or Gulf Cooperation Council States).

Figure 2. Average recruitment costs paid (USD) and recruitment cost indicator (months of salary abroad) of migrant workers from Bangladesh by main corridors (destination countries, Panel A), and by main skills (Panel B)
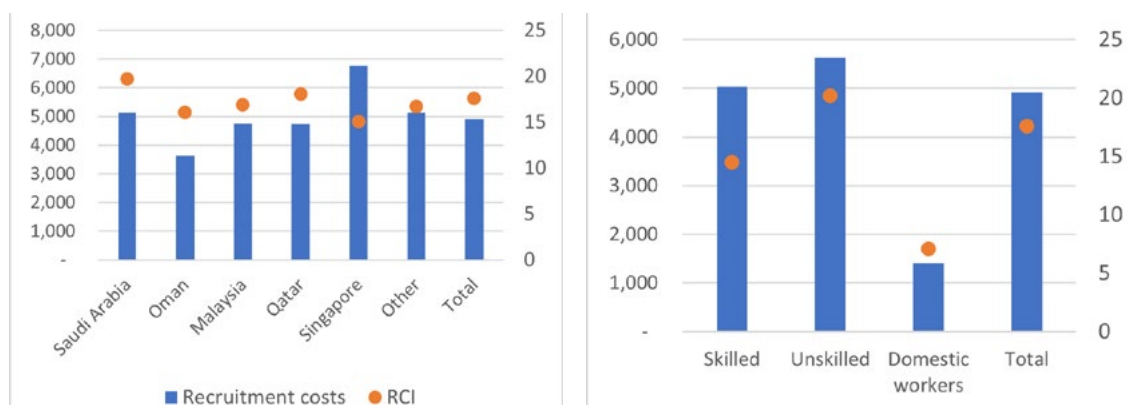
Source: For Bangladesh, see: BBS, 2020.

In terms of RCI, Bangladesh recorded the most expensive corridors, all above 15 months' worth of salary, and up to about 20 months for the Bangladesh–Saudi Arabia corridor. Other expensive countries for migrant workers include Viet Nam, with its corridor to the Republic of Korea costing close to 9 months of salary. Data on skills tend to show the expected picture with the highest RCI among low-skilled migrant workers, as in the case of Bangladesh. Exceptionally, domestic workers from Bangladesh, who are among low-skilled migrant workers, are paid the least, unlike other low-skilled workers. This may be explained by existing policies that protect these domestic workers (BBS, 2020), providing further evidence that policies matter.

Addressing the challenges ahead

Challenges for expanding the measurement of 10.7.1 can be summarized into two main broad areas, both related to the fact that this indicator is still new: (a) methodological issues and (b) competing priorities for NSOs, which limit their capacity or commitment to produce data for the indicator.

Starting with methodological considerations, the adopted Guidelines suggest that the best way to measure this indicator with limited additional costs is to integrate it into existing well-established household surveys covering closely related topics – namely, labour force or migration. However, methodological challenges exist with regard to sampling, both in terms of sample size and coverage. For some countries that have started piloting the methodology nationally, very few cases of migrant workers aged 15 years and above have been captured.[12] This has been a problem, especially where the module has been introduced only to a part of the survey sample. Nevertheless, for most of the sending countries, the achieved sample size of migrant workers is above 1,000 cases, which could be considered as the minimum acceptable number to produce SDG indicator 10.7.1 at the national level, and with basic disaggregation into two limited categories.

Solutions to the issue of small sample size are possible with limited additional costs compared to implementing a new stand-alone survey. First, once the module has been nationally validated through a pilot, NSOs should consider applying the module to the full survey sample. For example, after including the recruitment cost module in a single quarter on a pilot basis, the Viet Nam General Statistics Office has decided to keep the module in all four quarters of its LFS in 2021, with the expectation that the number of cases will increase from about 900 in one quarter, to more than 2,000 cases for the whole year. Second, and to also address potential coverage issues, where administrative data on migrant workers exist, NSOs can consider their use as auxiliary information to further optimize, target or supplement the main survey sample. For example, the Lao Statistics Bureau, with ILO support, is currently piloting a methodology to revise the sampling design of its 2021 national LFS to improve coverage of migrants by using existing administrative data to identify and oversample migrant sending areas, without adversely affecting precision levels for key labour market indicators. Results of this national implementation are expected in 2022.

A second major challenge relates to the competing policy priorities faced by governments and the still limited awareness regarding the vital importance of recruitment cost data for migration policy formulation and targeting. This can negatively impact the attribution of human and financial resources to data collection for this indicator. Governments have committed to monitor target 10.7 – and more broadly to support disaggregation of other SDG indicators by migratory status. To meet these commitments, national statistical systems will need to incorporate these requirements in their priorities and planning, particularly for well-established sending or receiving countries, including developed economies. This will require funding. Stronger advocacy of this indicator is urgently needed, such as through alliances among media, policymakers and practitioners. Greater involvement and action by key destination countries is instrumental to accelerate methodological work for the regular measurement of 10.7.1 and to serve as good example. Access to capacity-building, training, and communication tools and materials at the national, regional and global levels is also urgently needed. Line ministries, NSOs, migrant worker representatives, employers' and workers' groups, the ILO, the World Bank, IOM and other relevant organizations can all play an important role in this regard.

Conclusion

The decision by countries to include SDG indicator 10.7.1 in the 2030 Agenda marked an important step forward in advancing the fair migration agenda globally. KNOMAD and the ILO have been supporting this commitment throughout this process, producing research and knowledge, conducting advocacy, and advancing national efforts to establish a sound methodology. Thanks to these efforts, a single globally recommended methodology on measuring recruitment costs was adopted by countries in 2019. Since then, the number of NSOs piloting the methodology continues to grow, despite the setbacks faced as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic.

The national recruitment cost survey pilots implemented so far shed light on the high costs paid by migrant workers, particularly the poor and low-skilled ones, in order to secure jobs and earnings abroad. These high costs can de facto largely curtail any positive impacts of migration for both migrants and the countries of origin and destination.

Expanding recruitment cost measurement at the national level will be essential to support effective policymaking and policy assessment in the future. Indeed, often the extent of recruitment costs is unknown to governmental authorities themselves as they are often well above stipulated amounts even in those countries where recruitment fees and costs

---

[12] Such as 460 cases for Cambodia in 2019 LFS (NIS et al., 2021), 717 for Indonesia in February 2020 LFS (reported by Statistics Indonesia-BPS to ILO) and 280 for the Lao People's Democratic Republic in 2017 LFS (Habiyakare and Zhong, 2019).

are allowed. Preliminary findings (and other types of studies) suggest different policy and regulatory initiatives can indeed lead to different costs for workers. More and greater data granularity could help shed light on some of these complex interactions, as recruitment costs are known to vary widely by corridor, recruitment form and modality, industry, gender, education level attained and other defining characteristics.

In this regard, the accumulated experience from the ILO–KNOMAD surveys and growing national recruitment cost surveys and pilots also provide important evidence relevant to mainstream recruitment cost data collection. At a minimum, countries can integrate the short recruitment module into existing household surveys such as the LFS, the household income and expenditure survey, or the living standard measurement survey. Results can be useful, albeit with limitations for data granularity and coverage. Further ensuring that the module is included in various successive rounds, such as all quarters/rounds in a year, can serve to mitigate issues due to small sample size. Origin countries with additional resources should consider different approaches to optimize, target or supplement the sampling design without adversely impacting core data collected by the LFS or the main household survey. Finally, destination countries, and certainly those from developed economies, should lead in this global effort by integrating 10.7.1 into their regular survey data-collection plans as an add-on module to the LFS, surveys of immigrants or similar national household surveys.

REFERENCES

Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS)
2020   *Cost of Migration Survey: Bangladesh 2020*. Dhaka. Available at www.ilo.org/dhaka/Whatwedo/ Publications/WCMS_766198/lang--en/index.htm.

Ghana Statistical Service (GSS)
2020   *2019 Recruitment Costs Pilot Survey Report – Ghana: Measuring SDG Indicator (10.7.1)*. Accra. Available at https://statsghana.gov.gh/gsspublications.php?category=MTAwMjg3Mzk3NC4zMDc=/ webstats/1opr93rn57.

Habiyakare, T. and K. Zhong
2019   Measuring recruitment costs of migrant workers through household surveys: results of a pilot test from Lao PDR labour force survey 2017. 62nd World Statistics Congress of the International Statistical Institute (ISI), Kuala Lumpur, August. Available at www.ilo.org/global/topics/labour-migration/ publications/WCMS_775010/lang--en/index.htm.

International Labour Organization (ILO)
2019   *General Principles and Operational Guidelines for Fair Recruitment and Definition of Recruitment Fees and Related Costs*. International Labour Office, Geneva. Available at www.ilo.org/global/topics/fair-recruitment/WCMS_536755.
2020   Análisis de la encuesta sobrecostos de contratación de trabajadores migrantes guatemaltecos en México. Reporte de resultados. Available at www.ilo.org/global/topics/labour-migration/projects/ reframe/WCMS_763482/lang--en/index.htm.
2021   *Measuring Sustainable Development Goal Indicator 10.7.1 on the Recruitment Costs of Migrant Workers: Results of Viet Nam Pilot Survey 2019*. Thailand, May. Available at www.ilo.org/global/topics/fair-recruitment/publications/WCMS_793329/lang--en/index.htm.

ILO and Global Knowledge Partnership on Migration and Development (KNOMAD)
2019   Statistics for SDG indicator 10.7.1: Draft guidelines for their collection. October. Available at www.ilo. org/global/topics/labour-migration/publications/WCMS_670175/lang--en/index.htm.

ILO and World Bank
2019   *Operational Manual on Recruitment Costs – SDG 10.7.1*. December. Available at www.ilo.org/global/ topics/labour-migration/WCMS_745663/lang--en/index.htm.

Jones, K., S. Mudaliar and N. Piper
2021   Locked down and in limbo: The global impact of COVID-19 on migrant worker rights and recruitment. ILO, Geneva. Available at www.ilo.org/global/topics/fair-recruitment/publications/WCMS_821985/lang--en/index.htm.

National Institute of Statistics (NIS), ILO and World Bank
2021   Report on the Cambodia Labour Force Survey 2019. September. Available at www.nis.gov.kh/nis/CLFS/ CLFS19_Final_Full%20Report_EN.pdf.

United Nations
2015   Outcome document of the Third International Conference on Financing for Development: Addis Ababa Action Agenda. A/CONF.227/L.1. Available at www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/ CONF.227/L.1.

10.7.2: MONITORING MIGRATION GOVERNANCE

Population Division of the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA), IOM Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (IOM GMDAC), and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)

Introduction

SDG indicator 10.7.2 – number of countries with migration policies to facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people – provides the evidence base, together with other indicators,[13] for monitoring progress in achieving SDG target 10.7. The indicator was developed by the Population Division of the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA) and IOM after consultations with Member States and other stakeholders.[14] The indicator, which is comprised of six policy domains in line with the principles and objectives identified in IOM's Migration Governance Framework (2015), is obtained by computing the unweighted average of the coded values of the 30 items within the six policy domains.

Methodology

Data for the computation of SDG indicator 10.7.2 are collected through the international migration module of the United Nations Inquiry among Governments on Population and Development (hereinafter referred to as the "Inquiry") (United Nations, 2019 and 2020).[15] Data have been collected through two successive rounds of the Inquiry.[16] For both rounds, the Inquiry was sent to 197 countries, including all 193 Member States, 2 with observer status (the Holy See and the Palestinian Territories) and 2 non-member States (Cook Islands and Niue) of the United Nations. IOM and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) assisted the Population Division of DESA in gathering responses to the migration module of the Inquiry from relevant line ministries or government departments.

As of November 2021, data on SDG indicator 10.7.2 are available for 138 countries, equivalent to 70 per cent of all countries globally. Of these, 49 responded to the Twelfth Inquiry only, 27 to the Thirteenth Inquiry only, and 62 to both the Twelfth Inquiry and the Thirteenth Inquiry.[17] While the global coverage of the indicator improved thanks to the latest round of data collection, regional coverage[18] remains uneven (Figure 3). For three regions (Europe and Northern America, Northern Africa and Western Asia, and sub-Saharan Africa), data were available for 70 per cent or more of countries. Although the coverage was lower for other regions, all regions had data for at least 50 per cent of countries.[19]

---

[13] Other indicators specified to monitor progress in achieving SDG target 10.7 are the following:
    (a) Indicator 10.7.1: Recruitment cost borne by employee as a proportion of monthly income earned in country of destination.
    (b) Indicator 10.7.3: Number of people who died or disappeared in the process of migration towards an international destination.
    (c) Indicator 10.7.4: Proportion of the population who are refugees, by country of origin.

[14] DESA and IOM serve as co-custodians of SDG indicator 10.7.2, and the OECD is a partner agency. For an overview of the process leading to the development of the indicator methodology, see: DESA and IOM, 2019.

[15] Information for the measurement of SDG indicator 10.7.2 was gathered through the module on international migration of the Twelfth Inquiry and the Thirteenth Inquiry. For more information, see: United Nations, 2019 and 2020.

[16] The Twelfth Inquiry was conducted between September 2018 and October 2019, and the Thirteenth Inquiry was conducted between November 2020 and October of 2021.

[17] The data in the present analysis are based on the two rounds of inquiry combined. Where governments replied to both rounds of the inquiry, data from the Thirteenth Inquiry were used.

[18] Countries are grouped into seven SDG regions as defined by the United Nations Statistics Division of DESA and used in The Sustainable Development Goals Report (DESA, 2021). The seven SDG regions are sub-Saharan Africa, Northern Africa and Western Asia, Central and Southern Asia, Eastern and South-Eastern Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, Oceania, and Europe and Northern America.

[19] All regions meet the criteria of having at least 50 per cent data coverage in terms of both number of countries and share of the total population. For an indicator to be classified as Tier I by the Inter-agency and Expert Group on SDG Indicators (IAEG-SDGs), the data have to be regularly produced by countries for at least 50 per cent of countries and 50 per cent of the total population in every region where the indicator is relevant. More information on the IAEG-SDGs tier classification being used for global SDG indicators is available at https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/iaeg-sdgs/tier-classification/.

Figure 3. Country coverage for SDG indicator 10.7.2 by region, 2021 (percentage)
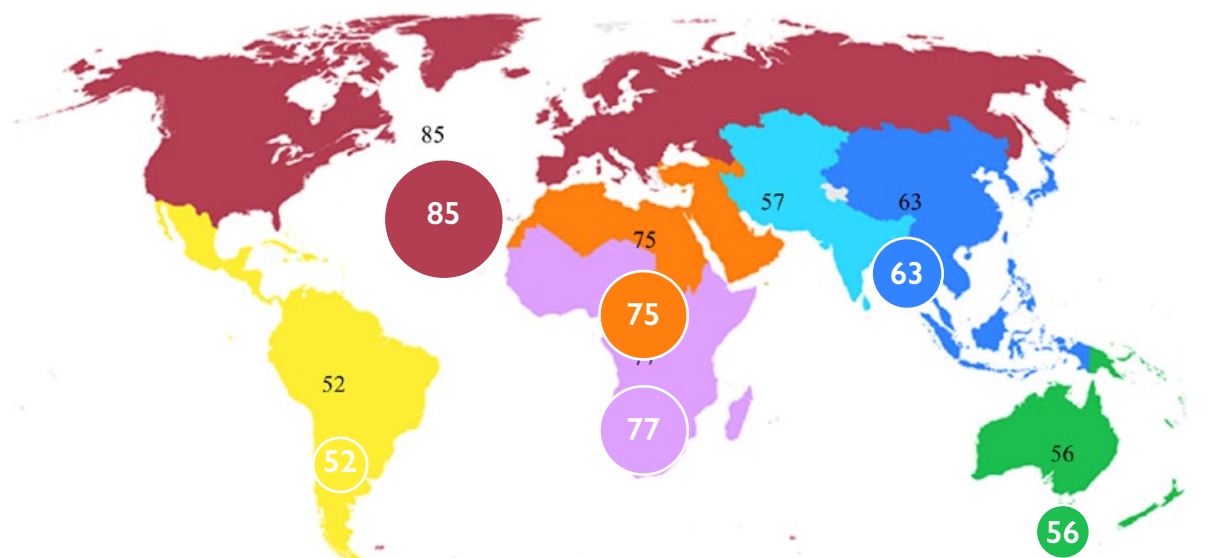
Source: United Nations, 2019 and 2020.

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

Data collected through the Inquiry reflect the answers given by the responding government entities. As such, Member States may differ in the interpretation of some topics covered in the Inquiry.[20] A number of steps were taken to increase the comparability and completeness of the responses. These included providing definitions and guidance on how to respond to the Inquiry. In addition, DESA, IOM and the OECD responded to all queries received from countries and provided clarifications when needed. To ensure consistency across the two rounds of the Inquiry, changes in the wording of the 30 items and six domains of the indicator were kept to a minimum. Further, where countries provided answers to both the Twelfth Inquiry and the Thirteenth Inquiry, checks on the reported data were performed, and any inconsistencies were flagged for resolution by national counterparts.

Results

Globally, 4 per cent of governments that replied to the migration module of the Twelfth or the Thirteenth Inquiry fully met the criteria for SDG indicator 10.7.2 (Figure 4). In other words, they reported having policy measures to facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people for all 30 items under the six domains of the indicator.[21] Nearly 6 out of 10 governments met the criteria for SDG indicator 10.7.2, while 1 out of 3 governments reported having measures that partially met the criteria. Based on their responses to the Inquiry, 4 per cent of governments required further progress in adopting planned and well-managed migration policies to facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people.

Among regions, the highest shares of governments indicating that they had policies that met or fully met the criteria for SDG indicator 10.7.2 were observed in Central and Southern Asia (75%) and Europe and Northern America (74%), followed by Latin America and the Caribbean (71%) (Figure 4). However, the coverage of countries remained relatively low both for Central and Southern Asia and for Latin America and the Caribbean (57% and 52%, respectively). In several regions, at least half of the governments reported that they only partially met the criteria or required further progress, meaning that they had policy measures for less than 80 per cent of the 30 items of indicator 10.7.2. Oceania had the highest proportion of countries (56%) partially meeting the criteria or requiring further progress, followed by Eastern and South-Eastern Asia, and Northern Africa and Western Asia (50% each). For both Eastern and South-Eastern Asia and Oceania, however, country coverage was below 65 per cent.

---

[20] Country responses, for example, may differ in their interpretation of concepts related to social security, with some answers focusing on access to pensions and others on a range of social protection mechanisms and benefits.

[21] Values of less than 40 are coded as "Requires further progress"; values of 40 to less than 80 are coded as "Partially meets"; values of 80 to less than 100 are coded as "Meets"; and values of 100 are coded as "Fully meets". Regional and global values of SDG indicator 10.7.2 refer to percentages of countries that "Require further progress or partially meet" and "Meet or fully meet" target 10.7 as conceptualized and measured by indicator 10.7.2, among those that responded to the Inquiry.

Figure 4. Percentage of governments reporting policy measures to facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people for the world and by region, 2021
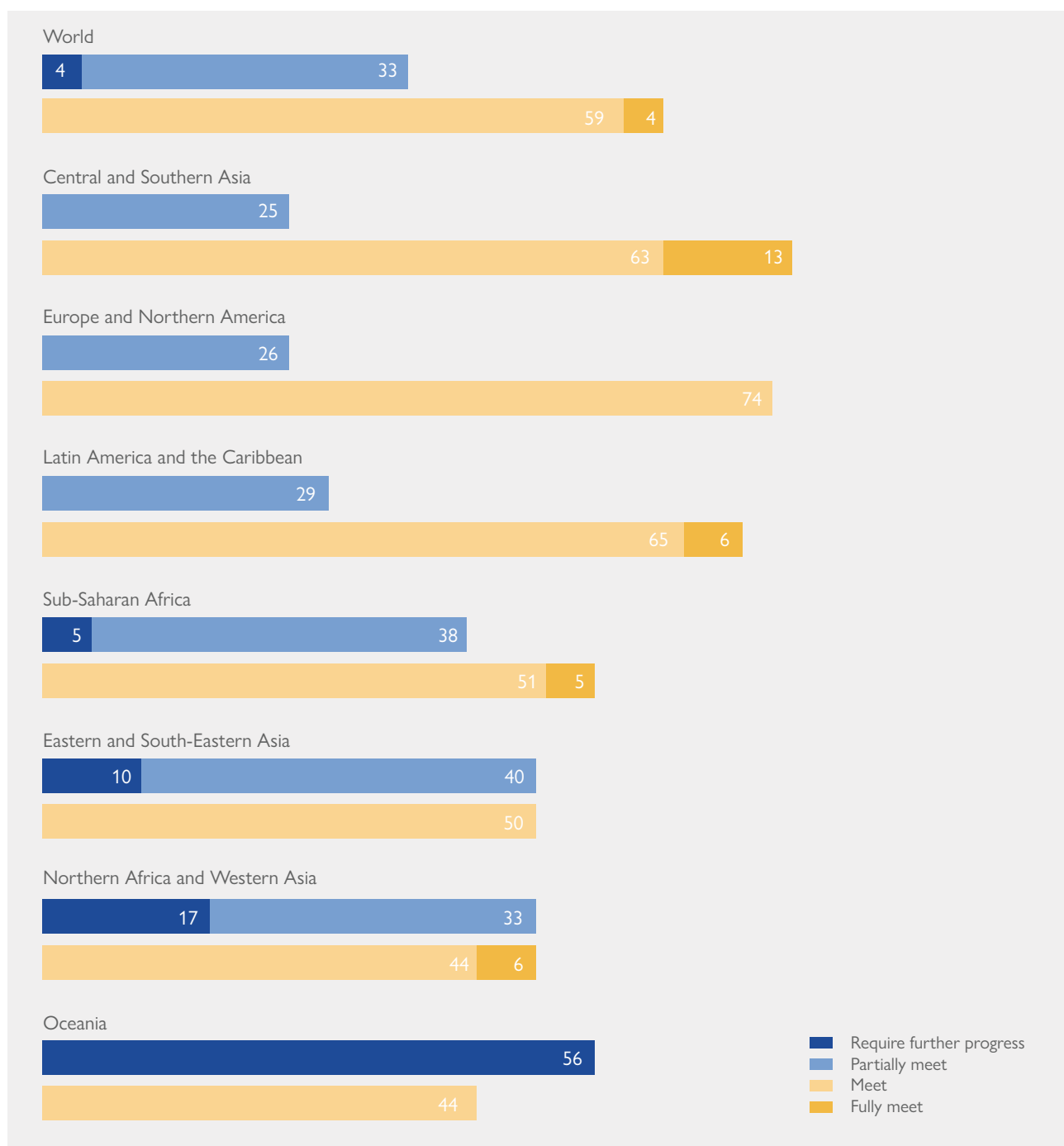
World
4 | 33
59 | 4

Central and Southern Asia
25
63 | 13

Europe and Northern America
26
74

Latin America and the Caribbean
29
65 | 6

Sub-Saharan Africa
5 | 38
51 | 5

Eastern and South-Eastern Asia
10 | 40
50

Northern Africa and Western Asia
17 | 33
44 | 6

Oceania
56
44

Legend:
- Require further progress
- Partially meet
- Meet
- Fully meet

Source: DESA et al., 2021.

Notes: This is based on 138 countries with available data (as of 31 October 2021). Countries that fully meet the criteria for indicator 10.7.2 are those that reported having migration policy measures for all 30 items used to define the indicator. Countries that meet the criteria are those that reported having measures for 80 per cent to less than 100 per cent of the items. Countries that partially meet the criteria are those that reported having measures for 40 per cent to less than 80 per cent of the items, while countries that require further progress are those that reported having measures for less than 40 per cent of the items.
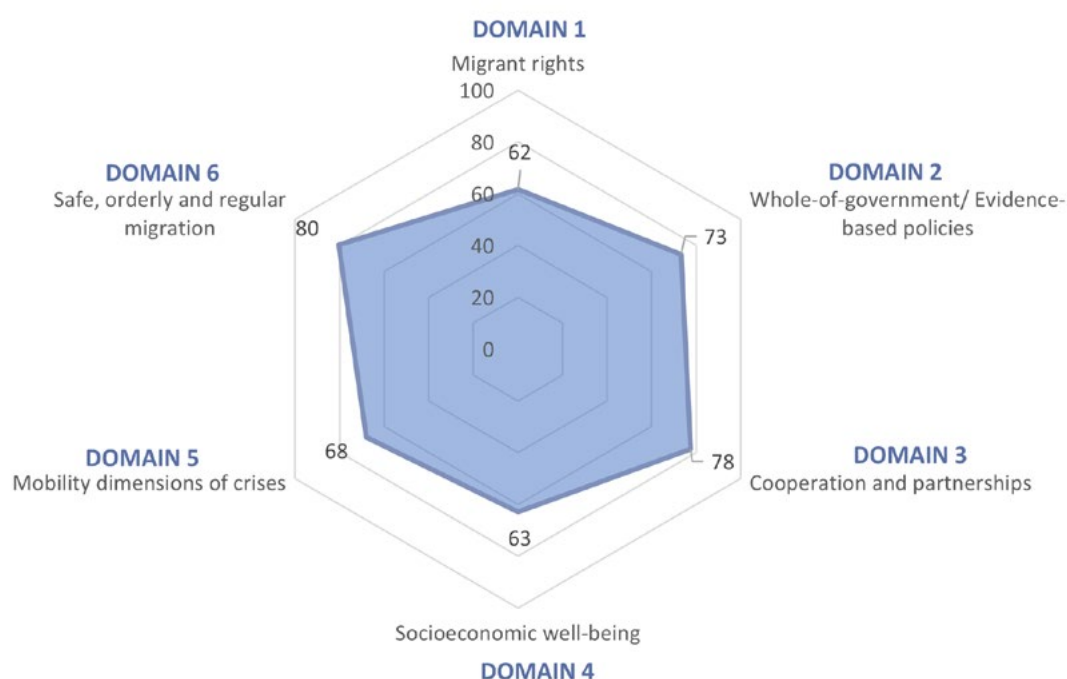
Figure 5. Percentage of governments reporting policy measures to facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people by domain, 2021

Source: DESA et al., 2021.

Notes: This is based on 138 countries with available data (as of 31 October 2021). Data refer to countries that meet or fully meet the criteria for indicator 10.7.2 (reported having migration policy measures for 80 per cent or more of the five items in each domain).

More than three quarters of governments that replied to the migration module of the Twelfth or the Thirteenth Inquiry met or fully met the criteria for Domain 6 "Safe, orderly and regular migration" (80%) and Domain 3 "Cooperation and partnerships" (78%) (Figure 5). Further, more than two thirds of governments reported meeting or fully meeting the criteria for Domain 2 "Whole-of-government or evidence-based policies" (73%) and Domain 5 "Mobility dimensions of crises" (68%). Globally, Domain 1 "Migrant rights" and Domain 4 "Socioeconomic well-being" had the lowest shares of governments reporting a wide range of policy measures: 62 per cent and 63 per cent, respectively.

Among the countries that responded to the migration module of the Twelfth or the Thirteenth Inquiry, data on policy measures to protect migrants' access to basic and essential services, welfare benefits, and rights varied widely. Globally, 93 per cent of governments reported having policies to provide non-nationals equal access to essential or emergency health care. A total of 90 per cent of governments reported providing such services to all non-nationals, regardless of their immigration status, while 4 per cent indicated that they provided them only to those with legal immigration status.

It was found that 94 per cent of governments reported having policies to ensure equal access to justice. Of these, 84 per cent of governments reported providing equal access to justice to non-nationals regardless of immigration status, while 10 per cent provided it only for those with legal immigration status. Equal access to public education, such as public primary and secondary schools, was reported by 91 per cent of governments, including 64 per cent that provided the same level of access to public education for all migrants and 28 per cent that provided access only for non-nationals with legal immigration status.

Policies to provide non-nationals equal access to social protection programmes, including contributory and non-contributory pension benefits, and basic social assistance on a par with nationals were less prevalent (83% of governments).[22] Only 29 per cent of governments reported providing equal access to social protection for non-nationals regardless of immigration status, while 54 per cent indicated providing such benefits only for those with legal immigration status.

---

[22] These programmes include contributory and non-contributory pension schemes (e.g. old age, survivor, disability), unemployment insurance, health insurance, workers' compensation, sickness benefits and basic social assistance.

A total of 88 per cent of governments indicated that they had policy measures to ensure equal pay to all people in the same workplace doing similar work, including 43 per cent that did so regardless of legal immigration status. Another 46 per cent of governments reported that they provided equal pay only to those with legal immigration status.

Among the institutions, policies and strategies that govern migration, having a dedicated government agency to implement a national migration policy was the most commonly reported (93%), followed by having a national policy or strategy for regular migration pathways (84%).

It was noted that 80 per cent of governments indicated that they had a mechanism to ensure that migration policy is informed by data, appropriately disaggregated, while 78 per cent reported having a national policy or strategy to promote the inclusion or integration of immigrants. Formal mechanisms to ensure that migration policies are gender-responsive (69%) were the least prevalent.

In terms of specific policy measures to foster cooperation among countries and encourage stakeholder inclusion and participation, 92 per cent of governments indicated that they had an interministerial coordination mechanism for migration, while 91 per cent had bilateral agreements on migration with other countries. A total of 84 per cent of governments reported having agreements for cooperation with other countries on return and readmission, and 76 per cent indicated that they had formal mechanisms to engage civil society and the private sector in the formulation and implementation of migration policies. Regional agreements to promote mobility were reported by 74 per cent of governments.

Measures to promote the socioeconomic well-being of migrants are essential for maximizing the positive development impact of migration. Yet available data show gaps in the use of such measures. Globally, 84 per cent of governments that responded to the migration module of the Twelfth or the Thirteenth Inquiry reported having policy measures to facilitate the recognition of skills and qualifications acquired abroad, and 81 per cent reported having measures to promote fair and ethical recruitment of migrant workers.

Measures to align labour migration policies with actual and projected labour market needs were reported by 69 per cent of governments, while 67 per cent indicated that they have measures to facilitate the portability of social security benefits. Only 66 per cent of governments responded that they had specific policy measures to facilitate or promote the flow of remittances. Among countries for which remittances represent 5 per cent or more of their GDP, 77 per cent of governments reported having policies to facilitate or promote remittance flows, compared with 64 per cent for countries where remittances correspond to less than 5 per cent of the GDP.

Globally, 86 per cent of governments that responded to the migration module of the Twelfth or the Thirteenth Inquiry reported granting permission for temporary stay or temporary protection to those forcibly displaced across international borders and those unable to return to their home country; 82 per cent reported having a system for receiving, processing and identifying those forced to flee across international borders; and 76 per cent reported using contingency planning for displaced populations to meet basic needs, such as food, sanitation, education and medical care.

In addition, 73 per cent of governments indicated having specific measures to provide assistance to citizens residing abroad in countries in crisis or post-crisis situations, while 60 per cent had a national disaster risk reduction strategy with specific provisions for addressing the displacement impacts of disasters.

Globally, 91 per cent of governments that replied to the migration module of the Twelfth or the Thirteenth Inquiry reported having formal strategies to address trafficking in persons and migrant smuggling. More than 8 in 10 countries reported having provisions for unaccompanied minors or separated children, or having migration information and awareness-raising campaigns (84% each). More than three fourths of all governments reported having a system to monitor visa overstays (80%) or to administer pre-arrival authorization controls (78%).

Conclusion

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development has led to the first ever global attempt to measure well-managed migration and mobility of people, which has been accomplished by adapting the international migration module of the Inquiry, a pre-existing United Nations survey, and developing a new methodology for the measurement of SDG indicator 10.7.2. This represents an important milestone for ensuring that the indicator, alongside others, provides the evidence base for monitoring the steps taken by Member States to facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people. Looking forward, data for SDG indicator 10.7.2 will be updated every four years using the Inquiry as the data-collection instrument. DESA, IOM and the OECD will continue working together closely to provide guidance to countries on how to respond to the Inquiry and to improve the consistency of government responses so that the data can be used to monitor progress in achieving target 10.7.2.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

International Organization for Migration (IOM)
2015   Migration Governance Framework: The essential elements for facilitating orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people through planned and well-managed migration policies. IOM Council, 106th Session, C/106/40, 4 November. Available at https://governingbodies.iom.int/system/files/en/council/106/C-106-40-Migration-Governance-Framework.pdf.

United Nations
2019   United Nations Twelfth Inquiry among Governments on Population and Development. Available at www.un.org/development/desa/pd/themes/population-policies/inquiry12.
2020   United Nations Thirteenth Inquiry among Governments on Population and Development. Available at www.un.org/development/desa/pd/themes/population-policies/inquiry.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA)
2021   *The Sustainable Development Goals Report 2021*. Statistics Division. New York. Available at https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/report/2021/The-Sustainable-Development-Goals-Report-2021.pdf.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs and IOM
2019   Development, validation and testing of a methodology for SDG indicator 10.7.2 on migration policies. Technical paper. Available at www.un.org/development/desa/pd/sites/www.un.org.development.desa.pd/files/undesa_pd_2019_methodology_sdg10.7.2.pdf.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, IOM and Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)
2021   SDG indicator 10.7.2: Number of countries with migration policies to facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people. Policy Brief 2. Available at www.un.org/development/desa/pd/data/sdg-indicator-1072-migration-policies.

World Bank
2021   Annual remittances data: Inflows. Available at www.worldbank.org/en/topic/migrationremittancesdiasporaissues/brief/migration-remittances-data.

This chapter is a shortened version of Policy Brief No. 2 on "SDG Indicator 10.7.2: Number of countries with migration policies to facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people", prepared by the Population Division of DESA, IOM and OECD. Available at www.un.org/development/desa/pd/sites/www.un.org.development.desa.pd/files/desa_pd_2021_policy_brief_10.7.2_2021.pdf.

10.7.3: MEASURING SAFE MIGRATION AND DOCUMENTING MIGRANT DEATHS

Julia Black, IOM Global Migration Data Analysis Centre

Target 10.7 of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development calls on States to "facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies". Of the four indicators to monitor this target, just one – indicator 10.7.3 on the "number of people who died or disappeared in the process of migration towards an international destination" – directly measures how well States are upholding their commitment to "safe" migration. However, data on deaths and disappearances during migration are not regularly produced by the vast majority of State authorities. This fact, along with the reality that documenting migrant deaths is just one terrible final indication that migration remains unsafe for so many, shows that there is much work to be done to uphold the commitment towards safe migration in the 2030 Agenda.

This contribution centres around SDG indicator 10.7.3, highlighting trends indicated by the available data on people who died or disappeared on international migration routes across the world, followed by a reflection on the challenges of documenting these tragedies and the impacts this issue has on families left behind. It also discusses topics linked to (un)safe migration beyond indicator 10.7.3, reflecting on what is known about the risks that migrants face during their migration journeys and in destination countries. Finally, a question is posed: With so little data on the safety of migrants available, how can States uphold their promise to implement planned and well-managed migration policies?

Sustainable development indicator 10.7.3: Documenting deaths and disappearances during international migration

While indicator 10.7.3 was adopted in 2020, its data are derived from IOM's Missing Migrants Project, which has documented deaths along migratory routes since 2014. Since that time, nearly 45,000 lives have been lost during migration worldwide (Figure 6), though the extensive challenges to documenting migrant deaths means that the true number is likely far higher.
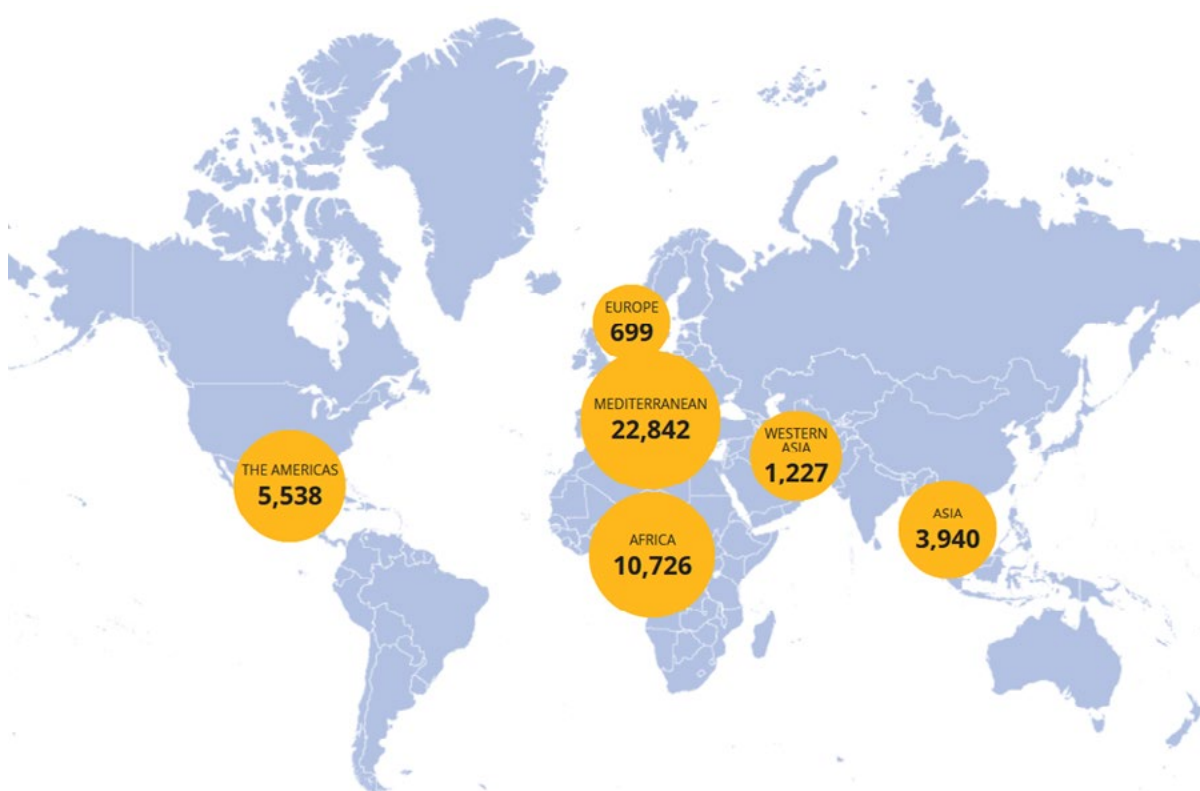
Source: IOM's Missing Migrants Project (n.d.), data from 1 January 2014 to 31 October 2021 (accessed 4 November 2021).

The majority of deaths documented have been recorded on maritime routes to Europe, with 25,816 documented in the Mediterranean Sea crossing, including 18,502 on the Central Mediterranean route between Italy and North Africa. Though media attention on missing migrants often focuses on the Mediterranean Sea, other routes to and within Europe are also deadly: at least 2,272 lives have been lost en route to Spain's Canary Islands, 235 were documented on routes through the Western Balkans, 172 on the Turkey–Greece land border, and 158 on the English Channel crossing to the United Kingdom.

> "They ran out of food and water ... Some guys started to jump into the water – they preferred to die than to stay on board. Other people died during the voyage, and their bodies were thrown into the ocean, even though some passengers asked to keep them on board because their families would like to see them." – Relative of a woman who survived a shipwreck en route to the Canary Islands (Alarm Phone, 2021)

Beyond Europe, there are many other migration routes and border regions characterized by a high number of deaths documented. More than 5,200 people have died attempting the Sahara Desert crossing since 2014, though the vastness and remoteness of these routes mean that many more deaths likely go undocumented. Similarly, the United States of America–Mexico border has claimed the lives of more than 3,400 people, many of whom succumbed to harsh environmental conditions in the Sonora Desert or due to drowning in the Rio Grande as they tried to avoid detection by authorities while crossing into the United States. In Asia, at least 1,379 Rohingya have lost their lives fleeing Myanmar, including 866 in the Bay of Bengal and the Andaman Sea and 250 in the Naf River at the border with Bangladesh. Here too, though, the large geographical areas covered and the difficulty of documenting deaths on overseas routes mean that there are likely far more lives lost than recorded.

Methodological challenges to documenting deaths during migration

Though the efforts to collect data on SDG indicator 10.7.3 have been highlighted as an SDG best practice by DESA (2021), much work remains to be done to fully capture the true number of deaths and disappearances during international migration. The Missing Migrants Project originated in 2014 using a largely open-source methodology, relying heavily on media reports to capture incidents involving migrant deaths, due to a dearth of official data on this issue in almost every country in the world. The current methodology continues to use media monitoring, such as a custom-built, natural language processing-based tool, to detect incidents involving death during migration, but these reports are verified by relevant actors whenever possible. A growing network of contacts at the local, national and international levels mean that the data set includes reports of migrant deaths from official actors such as coast guards, border police and coroners, as well as from non-governmental and civil society actors such as United Nations agencies, humanitarian aid organizations, and collectives of families searching for missing migrant relatives.

These latter reports are vital, as the lack of systematic, government-led data collection on deaths and disappearances during migration means that the existing data are heavily biased towards large-scale tragedies where dozens of lives are lost at once. Narratives of so-called migration "crises" can lead to greater media coverage and humanitarian action on a given route, though many more poorly monitored migration routes may in fact see more people die over time. Especially on routes where people must traverse inhospitable terrains such as deserts or bodies of water without chance of rescue, people may die in small numbers on a frequent basis, but the likelihood that such deaths are detected (let alone that the remains are recovered) is low. Until States commit to systematically collecting data on deaths and disappearances disaggregated by migratory status, the information needed to ensure that the process of migration is safe will remain scarce.

> "If I had known how bad it was, I wouldn't have gone. Even if you paid me to go again, I wouldn't go." – Senegalese man after his journey across the Sahara Desert (*BBC News*, 2015)

Beyond 10.7.3: Missing measures of "safe migration"

Ultimately, there are many other ways to measure the safety of the process of migration, or of migrants once they have reached their destination – deaths during migration represent just one terrible final measure that migration remains unsafe. However, the dearth of data on other measures of safe migration is even more pronounced than for SDG indicator 10.7.3, indicating that evidence to support "well-managed migration policies" and ensure the safety of migrants en route or in country remains insufficient. Beyond measuring unsafe migration in fatal and non-fatal incidents, the risks that migrants face are shaped by the inequality and discrimination created by intersectional factors for which data are even more scarce, including, inter alia, migration status, age, gender and race.

Other measures of unsafe migration journeys

In particular, data and research on the risks that migrants face during their journeys are scarce. While regular migration pathways are generally low-risk, irregular routes pose many hazards to migrants. While data on non-fatal harms do exist to some extent, they are not generally internationally comparable. However, the main causes of death documented by the Missing Migrants Project give an indication of the broad categories of risks that migrants face across the world. The main cause of death on overseas routes is drowning, but many migrants die of starvation, dehydration, and suffocation due to poorly maintained boat engines or inadequate ventilation systems too. Across the world, harsh environmental conditions mean that many migrants die of hypothermia or hyperthermia while crossing deserts, mountains and the like, though these routes are normally survivable with the right equipment. Long journeys across inaccessible topographies without adequate protections also mean that those on the move face risks such as starvation, dehydration and exposure – risks that are linked to a lack of food, water and shelter for those in irregular situations. In addition, sicknesses contracted on or exacerbated by such journeys pose significant risks to migrants, as many lack access to adequate health care en route. Furthermore, violence against migrants, though often poorly documented, remains a reality for them, at the hands of smugglers, host communities (including local authorities) or fellow travellers.These risks, though based on the scarce data available, indicate that the process of migration remains unsafe, especially for those in irregular situations. Beyond the risks documented on irregular routes, it is likely that far more migrants disappear without being accounted for in any data set. Missing-person case reports, whether collected by States or non-governmental actors, are not generally disaggregated by migratory status, nor are they typically compiled for analytical purposes. Behind these largely undocumented cases of missing migrants, there are likely tens of thousands of families searching for loved ones who have disappeared without a trace.

"The years I have lost my brother have been the most painful years, not only for me, but for all of us as a family. When your brother goes missing like this, without a trace, not a day would pass by without thinking about it and reliving the pain." – Woman searching for her brother who left Zimbabwe to migrate to South Africa (Sanchez et al., 2021)

The reality is that the many risks are linked to the irregularity of many migration journeys, meaning that those on the move are actively seeking to escape detection, or may be unable to report a protection risk due to lack of knowledge of the local authorities or because of fear of reprisal. In addition, while many organizations (governmental and non-governmental) provide support to people in distress on migration journeys, they may not collect data on these cases due to valid concerns around data protection or simply due to lack of capacity.

A good example of these dual challenges is the issue of human trafficking. Trafficking is often intrinsically linked to international migration – both where the process of trafficking involves moving individuals across borders, and where there is the likelihood that people already in irregular situations are trafficked. Nearly 80 per cent of documented international human trafficking journeys cross through border-crossing points (CTDC, n.d.), and human traffickers disproportionally target vulnerable groups, including migrants (United States Department of State, 2021). As is the case with any issue linked to irregularity, trafficking is a crime intended to be undetected, and identified cases are not a random sample of the total population. While a 2017 report estimated that 40 million people were victims of modern slavery on any given day in 2016 (ILO et al., 2017), the Counter-Trafficking Data Collaborative, the largest global data source on this topic, contains just under 50,000 individual trafficking case records between 2002 and 2019. While these data provide invaluable insights into trafficking cases, they portray – like all case-oriented data – only a small fraction of victims of trafficking and are not necessarily representative of the total affected population. Like the incomplete data used for SDG indicator 10.7.3, it is challenging to infer to what extent trends within the available trafficking data are representative of the total issue as a whole.

Measuring the safety of migrants at their destination

While the risks that people face during migration journeys are difficult to document, SDG target 10.7 does not only call for the process of migration to be safe. Living and working conditions for migrants can, in some situations, be much less safe than for the native population, especially when migrants have uncertain or irregular status. For example, migrant workers often fill some of the most difficult and dangerous jobs in the world. Research broadly indicates that migrants are at greater risk of injury, illness and deaths compared to native-born workers because of increased exposure to environmental hazards, precarious employment, and overrepresentation in unsafe labour sectors (Brian, 2021). For example, the incidence of work-related fatalities was far higher for migrants than for natives in 73 per cent of countries where data are available (Gammarano, 2020). Similarly, of the 26 countries that disaggregate SDG indicator 8.8.1 on occupational fatalities by migratory status, migrants had higher average rates of work-related fatalities in 22 countries from 2000 to 2019 (DESA, n.d.). This trend is echoed in the 8.8.1 data on non-fatal occupational injuries: in 25 of 35 countries where data are available, migrants experienced higher rates of work-related casualties (ibid.).

While statistics on fatalities, injuries and illnesses are often produced by States, they are only rarely disaggregated by migratory status, as exemplified by the small number of countries which report occupational injury data on both migrant and non-migrant workers for SDG indicator 8.8.1. Marginalized groups, including refugees and migrants with irregular residency status, are even less likely to be represented in such data, even though their uncertain status means that they likely face additional risks. The risks that migrants face often arise from multiple and overlapping forms of discrimination and inequality shaped by a range of intersecting factors such as their age, gender, ethnicity, race, nationality, language, sexual orientation, gender identity, and socioeconomic or migration status. Marginalized groups such as women, children and LGBTQI+ migrants frequently face situations of increased vulnerability, including sexual and gender-based violence, and certain types of debt bondage, exploitation and forced labour. The internationally comparable, systematically collected data that are so crucial to effectively addressing these risks are largely unavailable. For example, national health data are only infrequently disaggregated by migratory status, as are case data on sexual and gender-based violence and human trafficking. While there are some case studies of the risks that migrants face in destination countries, they almost exclusively come from middle- and high-income countries (Brian, 2021). Considering that lower-income countries have, broadly, relatively large informal sectors and looser health and safety regulations, risks for migrants (and natives) are likely higher where data are most lacking.

"Basically, we just want some rights. Our working conditions should be checked. The contract says one thing, but at work, when you start your job, it looks different. It is difficult to take breaks or to sleep. We are often overwhelmed." – Hilda, a migrant care worker in Austria (Amnesty International, 2021)

Conclusion

Poor data means that any discussion of "safe" migration cannot be exhaustive, but it does indicate that SDG target 10.7's call for States to implement policies to facilitate "orderly, safe and responsible migration" can be, at best, only partially evidence-based.

SDG indicator 10.7.3 remains one of the only concrete measures of (un)safe migration in the 2030 Agenda, but data on deaths and disappearances during migration remain highly incomplete due to the lack of official data, as well as the challenges of documenting any phenomenon linked to irregular migration. The adoption of indicator 10.7.3 in 2020 has spurred some government interest in improving data on this issue, but the fact remains that no State produces data on deaths during migration at the federal level. Beyond deaths, other data that can help measure the safety of migrants are even more scarce, both in terms of risks that people face during irregular journeys – including trafficking, non-fatal injuries and illnesses, and disappearances – and of the safety of migrants in destination countries. In order to ensure that migration is safe for all, States should mainstream disaggregation by migratory status across administrative, judiciary and law enforcement records, and train the relevant authorities on the vulnerabilities that migrants face both en route and in destination countries.

"Leave no one behind" is the central promise of the 2030 Agenda, but the continuing crisis of deaths during migration, not to mention the many other poorly documented risks, indicates that those who have left their home to seek out a better life in fact face many inequalities and vulnerabilities. Those who must undertake irregular migration journeys – and therefore risk their safety – are almost exclusively from the global South, and marginalized groups such as women and children (who are considered a priority in the 2030 Agenda) face heightened dangers. Beyond the process of migration, migrants who live and work in situations of irregularity are often excluded from traditional migration data collection, meaning that their needs are likely left out from policies aimed at upholding the promise to leave no one behind. Unsafe, irregular migration affects not only migrants themselves but also countless families in countries of origin, transit and destination, who are even less visible in data and statistics.

"Every time we talk about immigration, we hear about summits, meetings, conferences. At the same time ... young people are drowning at sea. We don't need meetings, we need action. We need to stop this carnage." – Survivor of a shipwreck in the Mediterranean (Bibi, 2021)

Any discussion of data to support the 2030 Agenda must ask whether more and better data truly lead to action. Data to monitor SDG indicator 10.7.3 on deaths during migration have been available in some form for decades, but no significant policy changes to prioritize the safety of migrants have been made during that time. Ultimately, unsafe migration is intrinsically linked to irregularity: without regularizing migration, "orderly, safe and responsible" mobility for all will remain a far-off dream.

REFERENCES

Alarm Phone
  2021   14 people dead after more than two weeks at sea. 31 August. Available at https://alarmphone.org/
          en/2021/08/31/14-people-dead-after-more-than-two-weeks-at-sea/.

Amnesty International
  2021   Austria: Women migrant care workers demand rights. 1 July. Available at www.amnesty.org/en/latest/
          press-release/2021/07/austria-women-migrant-care-workers-demand-rights/.

BBC News
  2015   Failed migrant: "Trip to Europe too dangerous". 13 May. Available at www.bbc.com/news/world-
          africa-32710587.

Bibi, C.
  2021   130 migrants dead in Mediterranean: "All they wanted was a normal life". *InfoMigrants*, 7 May. Available
          at   www.infomigrants.net/en/post/32066/130-migrants-dead-in-mediterranean-all-they-wanted-was-a-
          normal-life.

Brian, T.
  2021   *Occupational Fatalities Among International Migrant Workers: A Global Review of Data Sources*. IOM, Geneva.
          Available   at   https://publications.iom.int/books/occupational-fatalities-among-international-migrant-
          workers.

Counter-Trafficking Data Collaborative (CTDC)
  n.d.   FAQs. IOM. Available at www.ctdatacollaborative.org/faqs.

Gammarano, R.
  2020   COVID-19 and the new meaning of safety and health at work [blog post]. ILOSTAT, 30 April. Available at
          https://ilostat.ilo.org/covid-19-and-the-new-meaning-of-safety-and-health-at-work/.

International Labour Office (ILO), Walk Free Foundation and International Organization for Migration (IOM)
  2017   *Global Estimates of Modern Slavery: Forced Labour and Forced Marriage*. Geneva. Available at www.alliance87.
          org/global_estimates_of_modern_slavery-forced_labour_and_forced_marriage.pdf.

IOM
  n.d.   Missing Migrants Project data. Available at https://missingmigrants.iom.int/downloads (accessed 4
          November 2021).

Sanchez, G., M. Sánchez Dionis and K. Dearden
  2021   *Families of Missing Migrants: Their Search for Answers and the Impacts of Loss – Lessons Across Four Countries*.
          IOM, Geneva. Available at https://publications.iom.int/books/families-missing-migrants-their-search-
          answers-and-impacts-loss.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA)
  2021   Measuring "safe" migration: Collection of global data on migrant fatalities for Indicator 10.7.3. Available
          at https://sdgs.un.org/partnerships/measuring-safe-migration-collection-global-data-migrant-fatalities-indi-
          cator-1073.
  n.d.   SDG Indicators Database. Available at https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/dataportal (accessed 27 October
          2021).

United States Department of State
  2021   *Trafficking in Persons Report*. Available at www.state.gov/reports/2021-trafficking-in-persons-report/.

10.7.4: THE PROPORTION OF THE GLOBAL POPULATION WHO ARE REFUGEES

Tarek Abou-Chabake, Caroline Ferrari, Chao Huang, Ronan Pros Grinberg, Aina Saetre, Gady Saiovici, and Sebastian Steinmmuller, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

Introduction

The objectives and principles at the centre of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, notably leaving no one behind and ensuring human rights for all, make forced displacement and statelessness critical issues for the achievement of all Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) targets. The 2030 Agenda document explicitly mentions refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) when referring to subgroups who are vulnerable and whose needs should be addressed. The attention to those forcibly displaced was further strengthened when the United Nations Statistical Commission (UNSC) at its Fifty-first Session in March 2020 included a new indicator in the global SDG measurement framework. Indicator 10.7.4 measures the "proportion between the number of refugees by country of origin and the population of the country of origin". For every 100,000 people in the world, 311 were refugees or Venezuelans displaced outside their country of origin at the end of 2020, with significant differences across countries and regions (Figure 7).

Trends

At the end of 2020, 20.7 million people were refugees under the mandate of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), in addition to 3.9 million Venezuelans displaced abroad, bringing the global number of people who had fled their countries of origin due to war, conflict, persecution, human rights violations, and events seriously disturbing public order to 24.5 million.[23] This is an increase from 2019 when UNHCR reported 20.4 million refugees under its mandate and 3.6 million Venezuelans displaced abroad, taking the total number to 24 million. A total of 86 per cent of the reported 24.5 million are hosted in developing countries, which often face socioeconomic and environmental challenges, such as poverty, inequality, and climate change. Including refugees in the SDG agenda enables States and humanitarian and development actors to better respond to the challenges arising from forced displacement as well as address the problems that form its root causes.

The Western Asia and Northern Africa region has the largest share of refugees as proportion of its origin population, with more than 1,500 out of 100,000 people being displaced across borders by the end of 2020. [24]

---

[23] In addition, there were 4.1 million asylum seekers whose claims for refugee status had not yet been determined by the end of 2020.

[24] SDG indicator 10.7.4 and all figures in this section include refugees under the mandate of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, and Venezuelans displaced abroad. Palestinian refugees under the United Nations Relief and Works Agency's mandate are excluded.

Figure 7. Sustainable Development Goals indicator 10.7.4 – proportion of the population who are refugees by country of origin, end-2020
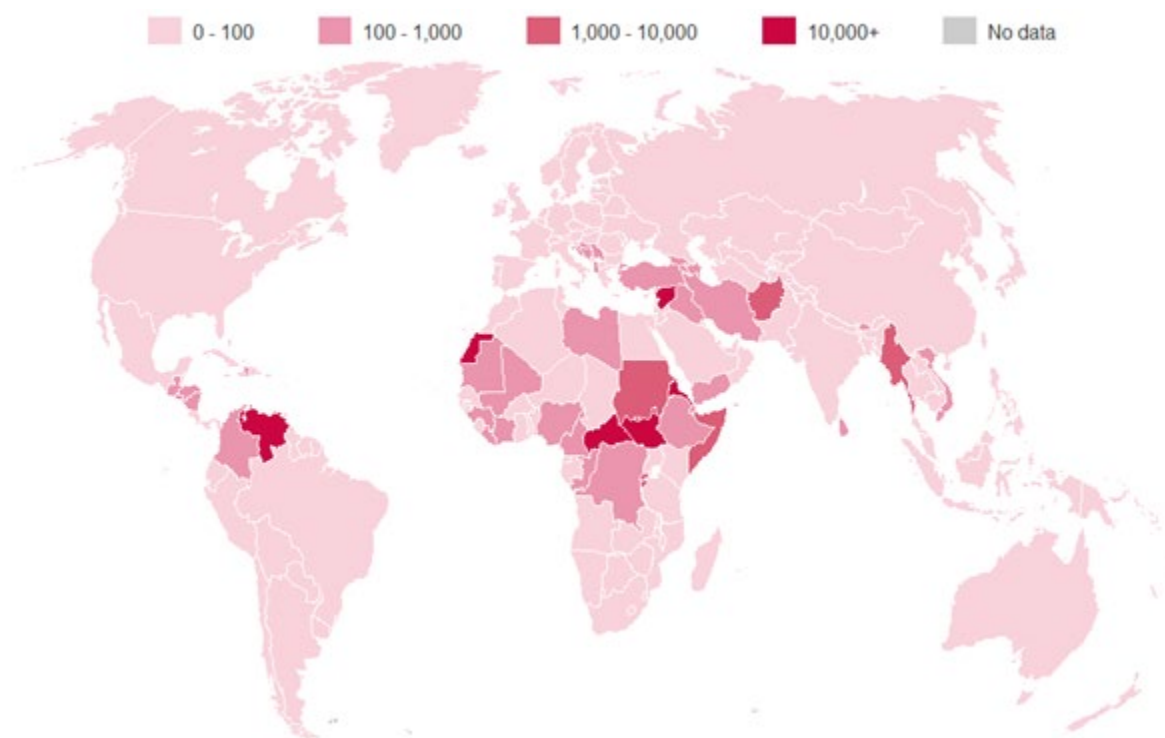
Sources: Refugee Data Finder (www.unhcr.org/refugee-statistics/) and UN World Population Prospects (https://population.un.org/wpp/).

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

Seen as proportion of the origin population, more people have been displaced from the Syrian Arab Republic than from any other country in the world in every single year between 2015 and 2020, with 27,375 out of 100,000 Syrians being displaced outside their country at the end of 2020. The inclusion of Venezuelans displaced abroad in need of international protection due to the ongoing crisis in their country of origin leads to the significant increase in the proportion of people displaced from countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, increasing from 72 people out of 100,000 in 2017 to 667 out of 100,000 in 2020 (Figure 8). The corresponding proportion from countries in sub-Saharan Africa remained high between 2015 and 2020, increasing from 522 at the beginning to 603 at the end of this period, reflecting the continuous crisis and challenges across the region. Displacement from South Sudan has notably sharply increased: the proportion of South Sudanese displaced abroad in need of international protection rose from 6,775 in 2015 to 16,358 out of 100,000 in 2020. In Asia and the Pacific, Afghanistan with 6,249 and Myanmar with 1,987 refugees out of 100,000 people remained the largest origin countries both in relative and absolute terms.

Figure 8. Sustainable Development Goals indicator 10.7.4 – origin countries and territories with the largest proportion of the population who are refugees, end-2015 and end-2020
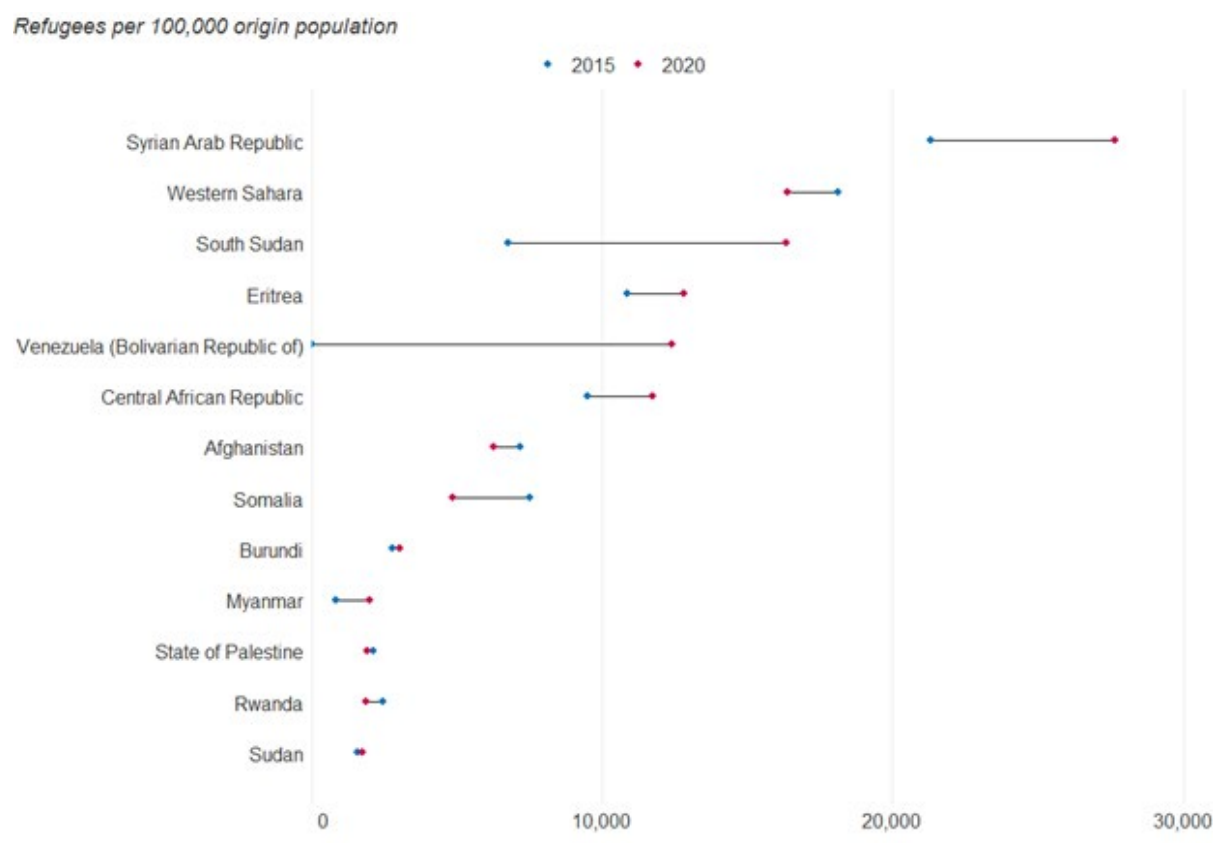
Refugees per 100,000 origin population

Sources: Refugee Data Finder (www.unhcr.org/refugee-statistics/) and UN World Population Prospects (https://population.un.org/wpp/).

State of data on refugees

Economic and social inclusion of refugees in national systems, such as health care and education, is crucial for the achievement of the SDGs, as refugees are often among the most vulnerable groups in society. This means that better data and evidence on these populations are needed to effectively guide inclusive policy and programme development and monitor progress towards the 2030 Agenda.

There have been limited data and statistics available related to the socioeconomic characteristics of the forcibly displaced. The urgent need for improved data and statistics in this area prompted the UNSC to establish the Expert Group on Refugee and Internally Displaced Persons Statistics (EGRIS) in 2016. This group has developed the *International Recommendations on Refugee Statistics*, a *Technical Report on Statistics of Internally Displaced Persons* and the *International Recommendations on Internally Displaced Persons Statistics* – all endorsed by the UNSC in recent years. Currently, the Expert Group focuses on the implementation of the recommendations through promotion and dissemination activities and capacity-building of relevant actors at the national, regional and global levels. This is in line with the EGRIS mandate to facilitate and strengthen national partners' capacity in the production of forced displacement statistics and to support national statistical reporting on global commitments, such as the SDGs and the Global Compact on Refugees. EGRIS has organized several training sessions with national statistical partners to present how to include refugees and IDPs in national statistical data-collection exercises and the wider SDG reporting.

Aside from indicator 10.7.4, data from other SDG indicators are essential to help monitor durable solutions for refugees, particularly those related to integration, reflecting strategies to address a range of social needs such as education, health care, social protection and job opportunities in which refugees should be included. To this end, it is necessary to disaggregate SDG indicators by variables showing refugee and refugee-related populations, and to compare them with those of the host country population. This provides meaningful information on their living conditions and which policy levers could help improve these. EGRIS has identified three policy priority areas where 12 priority SDG indicators should be disaggregated by forced displacement; these are detailed in UNHCR's *Practical Guidebook on Data Disaggregation for the Sustainable Development Goals* (ADB, 2021). Table 2 shows these indicators that are recommended for disaggregation, to boost the visibility of refugees and IDPs in SDG data and, ultimately, to improve statistics on forced displacement and support evidence-based policymaking.

Table 2. Priority sustainable development indicators by policy areas to be disaggregated by forced displacement

Basic needs and living conditions	Livelihoods and economic self-reliance	Civil, political and legal rights
Prevalence of stunting among children u5 (2.2.1)	Percentage of population below national poverty line, by sex and age (1.2.1)	Percentage of total adults with secure land tenure rights (a) with legal documentation, and (b) who perceive rights to land as secure, by sex and type of tenure (1.4.2)
Percentage of births attended by health personnel (3.1.2)	Percentage of children with minimum proficiency in reading / mathematics, by sex (4.1.1)	Percentage of population that feel safe walking along around the area they live (16.1.4)
Percentage of population using safely managed drinking water services (6.1.1)	Percentage of informal employment in total employment, by sector and sex (7.1.1)	Percentage of children u5 whose births have been registered with a civil authority, by age (16.9.1)
Percentage of urban population living in slums (11.1.1)	Percentage of population with access to electricity (8.3.1)	
	Unemployment rate, by sex, age and persons w disabilities (8.5.2)	

Source: ADB, 2021.

In 2020, UNHCR and the Joint IDP Profiling Service published a report[25] analysing the feasibility of disaggregating the 12 EGRIS-recommended priority SDG indicators by forced displacement. This study explores 57 publicly available data sets from household surveys implemented at the country level, including Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys, Demographic and Health Surveys, and high-frequency surveys, to determine the options for identification of forcibly displaced populations and the possibility of disaggregating SDG indicators.

The report identified some of the main technical challenges encountered when disaggregating SDG indicators by forced displacement, such as the following: (a) studies only covered targeted segments of forcibly displaced populations – this could be children, women or geographically limited areas; (b) lack of inclusion of the forcibly displaced in sampling design; (c) difficulties in identifying the forcibly displaced in studies covering multiple populations, as coherent methods to identify these were not included; and (d) low sample sizes in the absence of booster samples of this specific population, making it difficult to generate reliable representative data on the forcibly displaced within a national population.

---

[25] See: UNHCR, 2020.

Improving data

Efforts to improve disaggregated data on refugees are currently under way on multiple fronts, either by having dedicated refugee-related data-collection exercises or through advocacy for the inclusion of refugees in national censuses and household surveys. It is expected that with the adoption of the recent international statistical standards developed by EGRIS, consistent identification of forcibly displaced populations will in turn improve availability and comparability of disaggregated data.

Meanwhile, UNHCR is currently working towards the design of a flagship multitopic household survey series to obtain information specifically on refugees and IDPs. This survey series is a major effort to obtain comparable cross-country evidence on the living conditions and welfare of refugees and IDPs, using standardized modules aligned with international standards, as well as robust and novel sampling techniques for populations who are often on the move or hard to reach. It is expected that this effort will facilitate programming and the design of tailored solutions for these population groups.

In parallel, advocacy to include forced displacement in national censuses or household surveys, or multitopic survey programmes such as the Living Standards Measurement Study, Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys, and Demographic and Health Surveys, could also spur opportunities to improve the disaggregation of SDG and other relevant indicators by forced displacement, thus bringing greater visibility to these populations in decision-making, along with supporting well-informed policies. All efforts above require coordination and collaboration between multiple actors, such as national statistical offices and other relevant institutions as well as regional and international agencies. Good practices have been identified since the endorsement of the EGRIS recommendations, such as the Kenya Population and Housing Census[26] conducted in 2019, which included a question module identifying refugees, and recent thematic surveys in Morocco. [27]

The progress reported above and the increased availability of demographic and socioeconomic data on the forcibly displaced, including the integration of a refugee indicator into the SDG framework, should serve as a reminder that data and statistics collected on the forcibly displaced should be actively and purposefully used by international and national partners. For example, in relation to the refugee indicator, data coverage is high as this is data already collected by UNHCR, so the challenge will be to facilitate that these figures in addition to other available statistics on refugees and IDPs are being used and fed into relevant programming and policymaking. This will strengthen SDG progress reporting, but equally important, it will inform evidence-based national and international humanitarian and development programming. Only then, and with continued advocacy and work in this area, will the data be useful to show progress in relation to the 2030 Agenda and the objective of "leaving no one behind".

---

[26] See: Bunde, 2021.
[27] More information is available at www.hcp.ma/Note-sur-les-resultats-de-l_enquete-nationale-sur-la-migration-forcee-de-2021_a2715.html.

REFERENCES

Asian Development Bank (ADB)
2021   *Practical Guidebook on Data Disaggregation for the Sustainable Development Goals.* Metro Manila. Available at www.adb.org/publications/guidebook-data-disaggregation-sdgs.

Bunde, R.
2021   Data on forcibly displaced and stateless persons in Kenya and collaboration between KNBS and National Commission for Human Rights. Kenya National Bureau of Statistics. During World Data Forum, 24 June. Available at https://unstats.un.org/unsd/undataforum/webinars/22/Renice-Bunde-presentation.pdf.

Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)
2020   Data disaggregation of SDG indicators by forced displacement. Statistics and Demographics Section, Copenhagen. Available at www.unhcr.org/5fd237b84.pdf.

MONITORING MIGRATION ACROSS THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS

MIGRATION, SDGs AND DATA DISAGGREGATION

Elisa Mosler Vidal, IOM Global Migration Data Analysis Centre

Introduction

Migrants are largely invisible in official data relating to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to date. SDG target 17.18 calls to increase the availability of "high-quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity [and] migratory status". This means categorizing data by who is a migrant or not. However, in 2020, countries had disaggregated by migratory status only one of the recommended SDG indicators at the global level (8.8.1). A total of 86 out of 248 countries reported, and out of these, 27 disaggregated by migratory status – 22 in Europe, none in Africa or Oceania (DESA, n.d.). This means that as we rapidly approach 2030, we still do not know what the effects of the SDGs are on migrants, whether they are being left behind and to what extent (Mosler Vidal, 2021).

If we had more disaggregated data, we could answer questions as diverse as the following: What is the housing situation of migrant domestic workers in Qatar? Are child migrants living in Rio de Janeiro going to school? How many entrepreneurs in Silicon Valley are migrants, and are they more likely to set up businesses immediately or after a few years there? Are return migrants in Senegal earning a livable income? What types of agriculture in the United Kingdom rely on migrant labour the most? Do internal migrants in Mumbai have access to clean water? What are the employment trends for reunited spouses of migrants living in Germany? How many doctors in an average Canadian emergency ward are migrants?

Disaggregated data is critical to help us explore trends for migrants within the SDGs and development more widely. It helps us map the needs of migrants and migrant subgroups across issues, to help inform migrant-inclusive programming. However, not only does disaggregation help uncover migrants who may be left behind. Migrants are themselves key actors in development – from being key players in the COVID-19 pandemic response to bringing key economic benefits to destination economies (see the following infographic). Disaggregated data would allow these contributions to be better understood and leveraged.

What do we know about migrants and the Sustainable Development Goals?

While official SDG evidence is limited, some disaggregated data relevant to selected SDGs are available. This section presents some snapshots on the situation of migrants across selected SDGs, compiling disaggregated data from global and regional data sources.

SDG 1. No poverty: End poverty in all its forms everywhere

Migration can be a powerful poverty-reduction tool for communities of origin and destination, as well as for migrants themselves and their families. Meanwhile, many migrants are more likely to be in poverty than non-migrants. Data from 36 countries around the world showed that 35 per cent of international migrants were in or at risk of poverty in 2015, compared to 23 per cent of non-migrants. Exposure to poverty is often greater for specific subgroups of migrants, such as those from countries outside the region. For example, on average 43 per cent of non–European Union citizens in European countries were at risk of poverty in 2015, while only 37 per cent of citizens from other European Union countries were (ACOSS and UNSW, 2018; Eurostat, 2020a and 2020b; United States Census Bureau, 2016).[28] Data disaggregated by more variables may further guide policymakers' responses. For example, by citizenship: in the United States of America, 21 per cent of foreign-born non-citizens were below the poverty line

---

[28] For details on the methodology, see: Mosler Vidal, 2021.

WHERE ARE MIGRANTS IN THE SDGs?
Data disaggregation by migratory status

1 NO POVERTY

35% MIGRANTS
23% NON-MIGRANTS

were on average in or at risk of poverty in 36 countries in 2015.

2 ZERO HUNGER

Studies have shown:

Stunting and wasting of children in Sri Lanka living in

Stunting	12%	15%
Wasting	18%	22%

MIGRANT HOUSEHOLDS
NON-MIGRANT HOUSEHOLDS

Food insecurity of US-born children
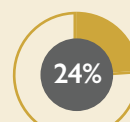
24% WITH FOREIGN-BORN MOTHERS living in the United States < 5 years
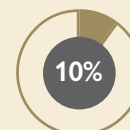
10% WITH NATIVE-BORN MOTHERS

4 QUALITY EDUCATION

Youth neither employed in education nor training (NEET)

MIGRANTS
NON-MIGRANTS

Africa

KENYA (2009)
38%
15%

SUDAN (2008)
31%
39%

Asia

ARMENIA (2011)
38%
43%

KYRGYZSTAN (2009)
28%
19%

11 SUSTAINABLE CITIES AND COMMUNITIES

Percentage of citizens living in overcrowded households in European countries in 2018

30% NON-EU FOREIGN CITIZENS
18% CITIZENS
36% EU FOREIGN CITIZENS

in 2015, while only 11 per cent of foreign-born naturalized citizens were. Native language may also impact poverty: 27 per cent of foreign-born adults in Australia from non-major English-speaking countries were in poverty in 2015, compared to 22 per cent from major English-speaking countries (ibid).

SDG 2. No hunger: End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture

Disaggregated data show that some migrants are more food-insecure than non-migrants. For example, data from 2016–2017 disaggregated by mother's place of birth showed that 21 per cent of United States–born children with foreign-born mothers who have been in the United States for more than five years were food-insecure, in contrast to 10 per cent of United States–born children with native mothers (Children's HealthWatch, 2018). Food insecurity for those with mothers who have been in the United States less than five years was even higher, at 24 per cent. Meanwhile, there is often a link between parental migration and improved nutritional outcomes for their households or children left behind. Evidence from Sri Lanka shows that stunting and wasting are lower in migrant households and having a migrant working father had a positive effect on child birthweight. Prevalence of stunting and wasting in children in migrant households was 12 per cent and 18 per cent, respectively, compared to 15 per cent and 22 per cent for those in non-migrant households (Jayatissa and Wickramage, 2016).

SDG 4. Quality education: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all

Displaced children and young adults tend to have lower schooling levels than natives. This is reflected in refugees' low enrolment rates across educational levels in comparison to non-migrant children, generated by disaggregated data. For example, 61, 23 and 1 per cent of refugees around the world are enrolled in primary, secondary, and university or college, respectively, compared to the global enrolment figures which are 91, 84 and 36 per cent (UNHCR, 2017). Disaggregated data show that in many countries, foreign-born youth tend to have a higher probability of being neither in education nor employment or training (NEET) than their native-born counterparts. A 55-country analysis based on the 2010 census round showed that in most top migrant-hosting countries in all regions, foreign-born youth aged 15–24 were more likely to be NEET than those native-born (Jeffers et al., 2017). This rate varied – for example, in Kenya this was 38 versus 15 per cent for migrants and non-migrants, while in Kyrgyzstan this was 28 versus 19 per cent. In some countries, migrants were in fact less likely to be NEET than natives – such as in the Sudan and Armenia. Showing side-by-side data on migrant and non-migrant school enrolment, attendance, and/or educational outcomes can be crucial for integration policy.

SDG 11. Sustainable cities and communities: Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable

Disaggregated data show that foreign citizens are more likely than nationals to live in overcrowded households. For example, foreign citizens are at higher risk than citizens to live in overcrowded households in the European Union (Eurostat, 2020a). In 2018, almost 1 in 3 foreign citizens (30%) in 31 European countries lived in an overcrowded household, compared to less than 1 in 5 natives (18%). Foreign citizens from non–European Union countries have an even higher overcrowding rate (34%). Environmental disasters often disproportionally affect migrants. Migrants often live in informal settlements or poorly planned, hazard-prone areas, which often makes them the first and worst affected by natural disasters. For example, the number of projected earthquake casualties in Turkey increased from 1 to 26 per cent when accounting for Syrian refugees (IOM and Council of Europe, 2017). More disaggregated data are necessary to understand both urban migrants' living conditions and the scope and extent of migrants' vulnerabilities to natural disasters.

These evidence snapshots show that while migrants contribute crucial skills and labour to countries' economies, health systems, societies and more, in many contexts they may be more vulnerable than non-migrants or have different needs in ways that impact SDG programming. They also reinforce that comparable disaggregated data across countries are scarce, and when these are available, they are more likely to come from high-income countries. This situation is likely to only be exacerbated in the near future, as the pandemic has negatively impacted traditional data collection in many countries — including censuses and household surveys which are more likely to generate harmonized data in some areas. However, while at the regional and global levels disaggregation is scarce, at the national level disaggregation can be much more frequent. See Table 3 for several encouraging examples of regularly disaggregated, policy-relevant data around the world using national data sources.

Table 3. National examples of disaggregated data

Area	Country	Indicator
Poverty	Plurinational State of Bolivia	Percentage of non-migrant and migrant population with coverage of basic services
Hunger	Spain	Body mass index of the adult population by sex, country of birth and age group. Population aged 18 and over
Hunger	Qatar	Percentage of children age 0-23 months who were appropriately breastfed during the previous day by sex, nationality, and mother's education
Health	United Arab Emirates	Incidents of Infectious Diseases by Disease, Age, and Citizenship
Education	China	Children of migrant workers and children left behind by Education Level
Labour	Rwanda	Labour force status of internal and international migrants
Cities	New Zealand	Proportion of migrants feeling safe/ very safe walking alone in neighborhood after dark, by migrant status and age group, 2016–17.

Sources: INE Bolivia, 2018; INE Spain, n.d; Planning and Statistics Authority of Qatar, 2012; FCSA, 2008; National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2018; National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda, 2020; Statistics New Zealand, 2019.

What needs to be done?

More development data need to be categorized by who is a migrant and who is not. In practice, the most widely accepted variables for migratory status disaggregation are country of birth and country of citizenship. Information on country of birth and country of citizenship identifies the foreign-born population and the foreign-citizen population respectively. Both variables are commonly used as proxies by policymakers to understand who is a migrant living in a country. Information on both variables should be collected if possible, as one alone may not necessarily mean somebody is a migrant.[29]

Often countries collect data on additional variables that reflect more complexity in migratory patterns, key characteristics of migrants, or other categories of migrants that are particularly policy-relevant (Mosler Vidal, 2021). For example, information on year/period of arrival in the country can help distinguish migrants who have recently arrived from those who migrated many years ago, information on country of birth of parents can help distinguish between first- and second-generation migrants and identify migrants who are naturalized citizens, acquisition of citizenship can help reveal impacts of migrants becoming citizens in a country, and reason for migration can help differentiate labour, student and other types of migrants. Some common proxies for migratory status can also be used, such as language(s) spoken at home, as can nationally defined variables, such as particular legal statuses and categories of migrants in a country. As far as possible, data should be disaggregated by other dimensions as well, such as age, sex, gender and others, to help gain more insights. Each migrant has a set of individual characteristics that may be linked to their development outcomes too; the sex, age and level of education of a migrant, among many other factors, may affect their situation at work, income, personal safety and more. In some cases, migrants' different characteristics may interact with each other to further disadvantage them through multiple and/or overlapping inequalities (ibid). For

---

[29]   For example, it is possible to be a foreign-born citizen or a native-born foreigner, as a person can be born abroad and be a citizen (naturalized migrant), or born in that country and be considered a foreigner. Country of birth may not reflect where a person spent most of their time living, and a person's country of citizenship can change as those who are not citizens of a country by birth may acquire citizenship through naturalization, marriage or some other method.

example, a transgender woman may face discrimination before and during her migration travel, dealing with sexual harassment and abuse while searching for safety (IOM, 2019).

How can this be done?

Each key data source comes with a set of common opportunities and challenges when attempting to disaggregate data from them. For example, as population censuses collect diverse data – from access to basic services to educational attainment and more – they are a key tool for SDG monitoring, and harmonized census microdata in particular are an important resource, given they usually collect information on migration variables. However, as most censuses are conducted every 10 years, data are not timely. Household surveys are a valuable source of SDG data. However, they are not always appropriate for disaggregation as their sample sizes may not be large enough to identify migrants. Other data sources can also generate disaggregated SDG data. For example, if leveraged and/or combined effectively, data from administrative sources can be very useful, though can be challenging if they use significantly different methodologies. Other common issues relate to identifying migrants who are part of hard-to-reach populations that are not easily counted by traditional data-collection tools, as the most vulnerable may rarely appear in official statistics – for example, homeless migrants. There are some methods to estimate such populations, some taking measures to make data collection more migrant-friendly. Finally, navigating data privacy and protection related to disaggregated data can be a challenge. Any potential risks to migrants should be addressed – for example, through appropriate legislation or installing firewalls between data collection and law enforcement. Therefore, paths to disaggregation will look different for different sectors using different data sources, depending on their disaggregation needs, interests and capacities.

There are often non-technical challenges halting progress in disaggregation – for example, limited coordination, lack of awareness of the importance of disaggregated data, or limited capacity and resources. A few steps – which may be taken in any order – may help tackle these common practical challenges. These include undertaking specialized awareness-raising to boost political will for this topic, bringing together data users and producers. This could discuss why policymakers may choose to disaggregate data by migratory status in a particular sector, such as to understand migrants' characteristics to inform targeted policy, address the relative needs of host communities or improve resource allocation. Other steps may involve conducting a data-mapping exercise to identify existing disaggregated data in a country, mainstreaming disaggregation into any national SDG reporting platform, or publishing specialized publications on disaggregated data (Mosler Vidal, 2021). See Text box 1 for examples of how some countries went about this.

Conclusion

With eight years left before 2030, now is the time to double down on efforts in the Decade of Action to achieve the SDGs and leave no one behind. No one needs reminding how the COVID-19 pandemic revealed and exacerbated many inequalities around the world, underlining how policy should be inclusive of all population subgroups. SDGs cannot be achieved without non-discriminatory and fully inclusive policies. In turn, these can only be created with disaggregated data. Aside from highlighting inequalities, disaggregation can boost migration policies that support development, as it helps uncover the positive effects of migration – from migrants boosting entrepreneurship in a sector to encouraging their families back home to go to the doctor regularly. Therefore, generating disaggregated data is also a smart way to build evidence for migration programming for development.

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development has put data disaggregation by migratory status on the global agenda. However, as yet there are little concrete results. There is still time to change this. If heeded, the 2030 Agenda's call for data disaggregation has the potential to form the basis of more inclusive development policies around the world, way beyond 2030. Concerted efforts are needed to boost the collection and use of disaggregated data. Targeted capacity development is important, including some common actions to boost success in many countries – for example, making better use of existing data, boosting internal coordination, and improving communication between SDG- and migration-data practitioners. As shown above, disaggregation is often common practice at the national level in some sectors. Therefore, continuous peer-to-peer exchange is needed to discuss experiences and lessons learned, as well as to work towards harmonized disaggregated data. In parallel, work is needed at the global level to promote the inclusion of harmonized migration variables in routine data collection. If key national data tools such as household surveys are adjusted, they could sustainably and regularly provide comparable disaggregated data across sectors for years – a game changer for migration policy.

Finally, disaggregated data could have value beyond SDG implementation and national policymaking. The Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration is composed of 23 objectives in policy areas ranging from decent work to access to basic services, yet it has no data-driven follow-up and review framework. Having disaggregated data across policy areas would give policymakers stronger evidence on which to base many Global Compact for Migration interventions.

5 GENDER
EQUALITY

SDG 5:
*Achieve gender
equality and
empower
all women and
girls*

Monitoring gender and migration topics in the Sustainable Development Goals

Estefania Guallar Ariño and Andrea Milan, IOM Global Migration Data Analysis Centre

Gender, migration and the Sustainable Development Goals

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development recognizes both international migration and gender equality as integral to sustainable development. Disaggregation of migration data alone is insufficient. Adopting a gender analysis framework in the production, collection, analysis and use of gender-disaggregated data is key to realizing the 2030 Agenda's central promise to leave no one behind (see Table 4).

Incorporating gender-responsive data in international migration governance is also critical to a human rights–based approach to migration, which is key to the 2030 Agenda. A number of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are relevant to different aspects of gender-responsive migration governance, particularly SDG 5 that has a sole focus on gender equality and, among others, SDG 17.18,[30] SDG 10.7[31] and SDG 8.[32]

For the SDGs to be realized, there is a need to strengthen national-level statistical systems for collecting, analysing and using gender-disaggregated data to inform gender-responsive migration governance, and target 17.18 provides an entry point to do this.

Table 4. Sex and gender disaggregation matters[33]

Disaggregated migration data are essential to inform evidence-based migration policy that captures the realities of all migrants	Gender-disaggregated data can help uncover the socioeconomic realities of women and people with diverse gender identities, and counter gender discrimination.	Governments can use gender-disaggregated migration data to recognize and enhance the social and economic benefits of migration

Major gaps exist in international migration data, particularly with respect to gender. These include gaps in the production and collection of inclusive sex- and gender-disaggregated data, gaps in data on the intersectional experiences of women and people with diverse gender identities, inconsistencies in types and frequencies of measurements, lack of capacity in national statistical offices and data systems, and challenges in relation to transparency, accountability and ethics in migration data (see Figure 9).

---

[30] SDG 17.18 stresses the production and collection of high-quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability and geographic location.

[31] SDG 10.7 focuses on facilitating orderly, safe, regular, and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies.

[32] SDG 8.8 emphasizes protecting labour rights and promoting safe and secure working environments for all workers, including gender-diverse migrants and others.

[33] Sex-disaggregated data involve differentiation of information by sex categories as typically listed on official identification, including male, female and other designations such as O, T or X, depending on the country. Gender-disaggregated data is information about an individual's gender identity. It requires respondents to self-identify their gender, which may or may not correspond with their sex assigned at birth or the gender attributed to them by society.

Figure 9. Existing gaps in international migration data

Figure 9. Existing gaps in international migration data

PRODUCTION AND COLLECTION OF INCLUSIVE SEX- AND GENDER-DISAGGREGATED MIGRATION DATA

DATA ON INTERSECTIONAL EXPERIENCES OF WOMEN AND PEOPLE WITH DIVERSE GENDER IDENTITIES

INCONSISTENCIES IN TYPES AND FREQUENCIES OF MEASUREMENTS

LACK OF CAPACITY IN NATIONAL STATISTICAL OFFICES AND DATA SYSTEMS

TRANSPARENCY, ACCOUNTABILITY AND ETHICS IN MIGRATION DATA

Gender and migration data sources at the global level are limited. A review of global data sources has shown that there are insufficient data to enable a robust gender analysis of migration or fully realize migration-related SDGs as well as the objectives of the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. More work is required for the construction of data related to gender and other areas currently absent from global data, such as disability, age, sexual orientation, sex characteristics, irregular migration, remittances and asylum.

Evidence-based, gender-responsive migration policies support gender equality and maximize benefits from migration for development. A gender-responsive policy approach promotes the production, analysis and use of migration data to enhance the gender-responsiveness of policies and governance. A recently published IOM guidance note (Hennebry et al., 2021) argues that gender-responsiveness of migration data goes beyond disaggregation by sex; it entails five steps to implement a gender-responsive approach to migration data:

(a) Rethink categorization and formulate gender-responsive policy to guide migration data collection and use.

(b) Integrate ethical considerations in migration data collection.

(c) Build capacities and invest in data infrastructure.

(d) Collect and use sex-disaggregated data – and whenever possible, gender-disaggregated data as well.

(e) Adopt a whole-of-society approach in data collection, analysis and evaluation, and use gender-responsive data to inform migration policies and practices.

REFERENCES

Australian Council of Social Service (ACOSS) and the University of New South Wales (UNSW)
  2018   *Poverty in Australia 2018*. Strawberry Hills. Available at www.acoss.org.au/wp-content/uploads/2018/10/ACOSS_Poverty-in-Australia-Report_Web-Final.pdf.

Bolivia National Statistics Institute (*Instituto Nacional de Estadística*, INE Bolivia)
  2018   *Migración interna en Bolivia* [Internal migration in Bolivia]. La Paz. Available at www.ine.gob.bo/index.php/publicaciones/migracion-interna-en-bolivia/.

Children's HealthWatch
  2018   Helping our youngest first-generation Americans to thrive. Report card on food security and immigration, February. Available at https://childrenshealthwatch.org/wp-content/uploads/Report-Card-on-Food-Insecurity-and-Immigration-Helping-Our-Youngest-First-Generation-Americans-to-Thrive.pdf.

Eurostat
  2020a   Overcrowding rate by age, sex and broad group of citizenship (total population aged 18 and over) [indicator]. Available at https://data.europa.eu/euodp/en/data/dataset/XSMrHAlncCrLP1VTm6lg.
  2020b   People at risk of poverty or social exclusion by group of citizenship (population aged 18 and over) [indicator]. Available at https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/en/web/products-datasets/-/ILC_PEPS05.

Federal Competitiveness and Statistics Authority (FCSA)
  2008   Infectious diseases by age group and nationality. Not available online.

Hennebry, J., H. KC and K. Williams
  2021   *Gender and Migration Data: A Guide for Evidence-based, Gender-responsive Migration Governance*. IOM, Geneva. Available at https://publications.iom.int/books/gender-and-migration-data-guide-evidence-based-gender-responsive-migration-governance.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)
  2019   IOM data: Supporting women and girls on the move. Available at www.iom.int/video/iom-data-supporting-women-and-girls-move.

IOM and Council of Europe
  2017   *Migrants in Disaster Risk Reduction: Practices for Inclusion*. Geneva and Strasbourg. Available at https://publications.iom.int/books/migrants-disaster-risk-reduction-practices-inclusion.

Istituto Nazionale di Statistica (Istat)
  2019   SDG Report 2019: Statistical information for 2030 Agenda in Italy. 24 April. Available at www.istat.it/en/archivio/229827.

Jayatissa, R. and K. Wickramage
  2016   What effect does international migration have on the nutritional status and child care practices of children left behind? *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 13(2):218.

Jeffers, K., M. King, L. Cleveland and P.K. Hall
  2017   Data resource profile: IPUMS-International. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 46(2):390–391.

Mosler Vidal, E.

2021   *Leave No Migrant Behind: The 2030 Agenda and Data Disaggregation*. IOM, Geneva. Available at https://publications.iom.int/books/leave-no-migrant-behind-2030-agenda-and-data-disaggregation.

National Bureau of Statistics of China

2018   Children of migrant workers and children left behind by education level. Not available online.

National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda

2020   *Labour Force Survey: Annual Report 2019*. Kigali. Available at www.statistics.gov.rw/publication/labour-force-survey-annual-report-2019.

NYC Mayor's Office of Immigrant Affairs (MOIA)

2019   *State of Our Immigrant City: MOIA Annual Report for Calendar Year 2018*. Available at www1.nyc.gov/assets/immigrants/downloads/pdf/moia_annual_report%202019_final.pdf.

Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)

2017   *Left Behind: Refugee Education in Crisis*. Geneva. Available at www.unhcr.org/left-behind/.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)

2018   *OECD Toolkit for Mainstreaming and Implementing Gender Equality: Implementing the 2015 OECD Recommendation on Gender Equality in Public Life*. Available at www.oecd.org/gender/governance/toolkit/.

Planning and Statistics Authority of Qatar

2019   Vital statistics annual bulletin: Births and deaths 2018.

Spain National Statistics Institute (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, INE Spain)

n.d.   Índice de masa corporal población adulta según sexo, país de nacimiento y grupo de edad. Población de 18 y más años [Body mass index of the adult population by sex, country of birth and age group. Population aged 18 and over]. Available at www.ine.es/jaxi/Tabla.htm?path=/t15/p419/a2017/p03/l0/&file=01003.px&L=0.

Statistics New Zealand (Stats NZ) Tatauranga Aotearoa

2019   Recent migrants say they face bias, but feel safe. 17 January. Available at www.stats.govt.nz/news/recent-migrants-say-they-face-bias-but-feel-safe.

Statistics Sweden

2020   *Leaving no one behind. Statistical review of the implementation of the 2030 Agenda in Sweden*, October 2020. Solna. Available at https://scb.se/contentassets/093a4e6ee4004071815a5ec6773012e7/mi1303_2020a01_br_x41br2101.pdf.

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)

2019   Results of a multi-topic field test in Belize 2019. MICS Methodological Papers, No. 10. Data and Analytics Section, Division of Data, Analytics, Planning and Monitoring, New York. Available at https://mics.unicef.org/files?job=W1siZiIsIjIwMTkvMTIvMjAvMTYvMjIvMjIvOTgzL01JQ1NfTWV0aG9kb2x-vZ2ljYWxfcGFwZXJfMTAucGRmIl1d&sha=7fed55a68585c2cd.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA)

n.d.   SDG global database. Statistics Division. Available at https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/dataportal.

United States Census Bureau

2016   People in poverty by selected characteristics: 2014 and 2015 [Indicator]. Not available online.

QUANTIFYING MIGRANT CONTRIBUTIONS TO SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Roberto Gil Cancel Comas, IOM Labour Mobility and Social Inclusion

Types of contributions

Across its goals, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development clearly recognizes the important role that migration and migrants themselves play in boosting sustainable development.[34] To understand the contributions, these can be broken down into the categories of resources that migrants accrue throughout their journey – namely, human, social and economic capital. The role of each of these resources is best understood in terms of the contributions that migrants and diasporas make to their respective countries of origin, so this will be addressed first.

In terms of human capital contributions by transnational communities of migrants and diasporas, education coupled with the skills, techniques, and technology that they have gained abroad represents an invaluable resource for addressing capacity gaps in countries of origin. Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) target 17.9 calls to "enhance international support for implementing effective and targeted capacity-building in developing countries to support national plans to implement all the sustainable development goals, including through North–South, South–South and triangular cooperation"; these types of migrant contributions clearly contribute to this target. For example, through temporary or virtual return programmes, members of the diaspora often contribute to strengthening health and educational systems in their countries of origin, supporting targets 3.c (which is to "substantially increase health financing and the recruitment, development, training and retention of the health workforce in developing countries, especially in least developed countries and small island developing States") and 4.c (which is to "substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers, including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries, especially least developed countries and small island developing States") respectively. However, since much of this work is done on a volunteer basis, it is hard to quantify, especially in terms of dollar value as called for in indicator 17.9.1 ("of financial and technical assistance (including through North–South, South–South and triangular cooperation) committed to developing countries").

Social capital is a more complex concept to quantify, and it represents the networks of relationships among people who live and work in a particular society, and can be leveraged to channel host country knowledge, technology, investment and trade towards countries of origin. One concrete example of this potential is the aeronautics sector in Morocco, which benefited from the connections of a Moroccan vice president at Boeing who encouraged fellow executives to invest in the country in 2001. The sector has since grown to employ almost 10,000 Moroccans, and they earn around 15 per cent above the country's average wage (Michaels, 2012). This example demonstrates the potential for migrant social capital to support efforts to achieve target 17.5, which is to "adopt and implement investment promotion regimes for least developed countries". This type of capital can be leveraged for scientific, technological, political and other benefits.

The economic capital contributions of migrants and diasporas come in many forms – for example, investment, philanthropy, remittances or tourism dollars spent on trips home. In different ways, these can all support the achievement of SDG 17.3 on "[mobilizing] additional financial resources for developing countries from multiple sources". More specifically, diaspora investment is often directed towards real estate and small and medium enterprises. While the former can have detrimental effects on target 11.1 in terms of access to affordable housing by inflating property prices and reducing the available inventory, the latter can impact and contribute to target 9.3

---

[34] "We recognize the positive contribution of migrants for inclusive growth and sustainable development. We also recognize that international migration is a multidimensional reality of major relevance for the development of countries of origin, transit and destination, which requires coherent and comprehensive responses." (UNGA, 2015)
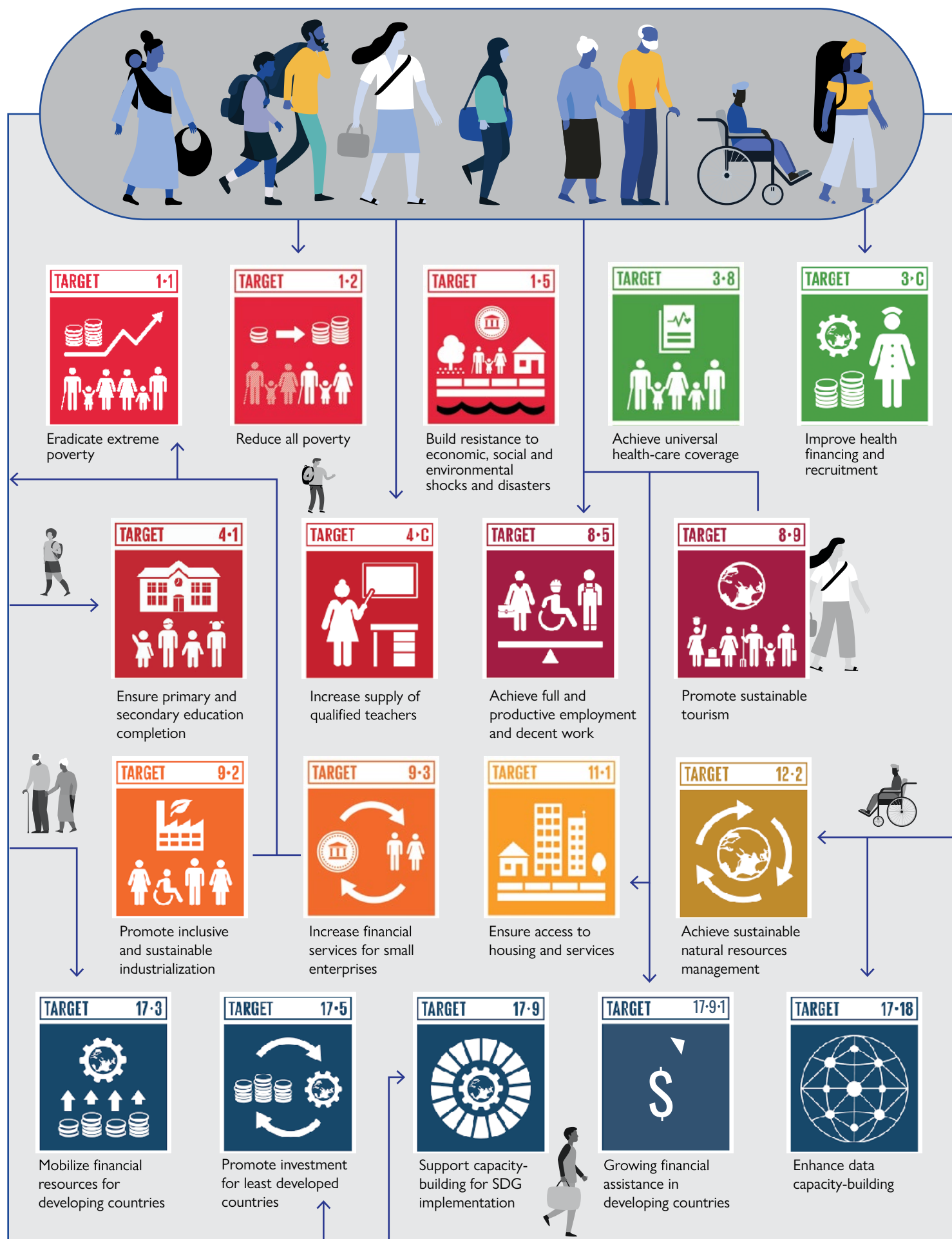
in terms of access to affordable financing for small-scale industries. Diaspora tourists often veer from well-trodden paths taken by most tourists, as they seek to explore forms of cultural expression such as traditional festivals and heritage experiences in more remote towns and villages where they or their parents or even grandparents grew up. This kind of tourism can directly stimulate growth that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products, as called for under target 8.9 (to "devise and implement policies to promote sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products").

Remittances, unlike investment, tend to be disproportionately used for consumption. For example, for a study in Egypt, 90 per cent of households reported using remittances for daily needs such as food, clothes and rent, while only 12 per cent did for savings and investment (Farid et al., 2016). Therefore, remittances often contribute to poverty alleviation as under SDG targets 1.1 (to "eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, currently measured as people living on less than $1.25 a day") and 1.2 (to "reduce at least by half the proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions") and can build, via their often countercyclical nature, resilience of poor communities, contributing to SDG target 1.5 (to "build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters"). Nevertheless, the development impacts of economic remittances may in some contexts be limited or even counterproductive. For example, they can sometimes distort consumption patterns in communities of origin and create dependency on the household or national level, which can undermine SDG target 12.2 (to "achieve the sustainable management and efficient use of natural resources"). Concretely, when the amount remitted exceeds the lowest wage rate that a worker would be willing to accept, recipient households may be discouraged from seeking employment – while on the macro level, remittances fuel consumption and demand for important goods, thus causing trade imbalances as well as driving up inflation.

In countries of destination, migrants' contributions tend to depend on their level of integration in the host society and economy, as they have greater opportunity to realize their potential with access to better labour market and entrepreneurship opportunities. Migrant workers directly contribute to host economies by filling labour market gaps, stimulating local demand for goods and services (SDG 8.1), as well as paying taxes to the State which allow the latter to provide basic services such as health care (SDG 3.8) and education (SDG 4.1). Many studies have found higher rates of entrepreneurship and innovation among migrant populations (Dheer, 2018). Further, their impact is visible not only on the small scale; 44 per cent of companies on the Fortune 500 list of the United States of America's largest companies in 2021 were founded by migrants or their children, employing 13.9 million people.[35] This can directly contribute to targets 9.2 (to "promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and, by 2030, significantly raise industry's share of employment and GDP, in line with national circumstances, and double its share in least developed countries") on sustainable industrialization, as well as 8.5 (to "achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value") on full and productive employment. In fact, in 2015 the McKinsey Global Institute estimated that migrants contributed 9.4 per cent, or USD 6.7 trillion, to the global GDP, even though they represented less than 3 per cent of the global population. Moreover, the study showed that this figure represents USD 3 trillion more than what these individuals would have contributed if they had not migrated (McKinsey & Company, 2016). Forcibly displaced populations also bring with them skills and capital that contribute to economies and societies, and ultimately help meet the SDGs. For example, in Turkey 26 per cent of new businesses in 2014 had Syrian owners or capital (IRC, 2016), while Syrians have injected USD 800 million in new investment in Egypt (UNDP et al., 2017). Thus, even forcibly displaced populations, like all migrants, have potential to be drivers of development given the correct conditions.

---

[35] See: New American Economy, 2021.

Measuring diaspora contributions

TARGET 1·1
Eradicate extreme poverty

TARGET 1·2
Reduce all poverty

TARGET 1·5
Build resistance to economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters

TARGET 3·8
Achieve universal health-care coverage

TARGET 3·C
Improve health financing and recruitment

TARGET 4·1
Ensure primary and secondary education completion

TARGET 4·C
Increase supply of qualified teachers

TARGET 8·5
Achieve full and productive employment and decent work

TARGET 8·9
Promote sustainable tourism

TARGET 9·2
Promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization

TARGET 9·3
Increase financial services for small enterprises

TARGET 11·1
Ensure access to housing and services

TARGET 12·2
Achieve sustainable natural resources management

TARGET 17·3
Mobilize financial resources for developing countries

TARGET 17·5
Promote investment for least developed countries

TARGET 17·9
Support capacity-building for SDG implementation

TARGET 17·9·1
Growing financial assistance in developing countries

TARGET 17·18
Enhance data capacity-building

Data availability

While migrants and diaspora members clearly have a significant impact on the achievement of key SDG targets as above, there is unfortunately a lack of consistent comparable data on these contributions, and relevant evidence cannot easily be collated and aggregated at the regional or global level. This makes it very difficult to concretely capture the migration-related contributions within the indicators and targets. An internal study commissioned by IOM in 2019 found that there is no study that has calculated migrants' contributions to their country of origin at the regional or global level. This found three broad categories of literature measuring migrant and diaspora contributions to countries of origin:

(a) **Estimates of potential diaspora savings and investment** calculated on the basis of global databases on migrant stocks and GDP per capita and/or average earnings by country as well as saving rates, to measure potential investment and savings behaviour. While these provide an estimate of the magnitude that such behaviour could reach, they do not provide accurate data about actual amounts saved or invested.

(b) **Estimates of the economic contributions of migrants through different channels** based on time-series, multi-country econometric models which try to identify a causal effect on trade or investment data in a given country or corridor by controlling for other factors. These help prove some cross-country indications on migrants' impact on economic development but are often limited in scope and provide more of a historical perspective. One example of such a study is a meta-analysis by Genc, Gheasi, Nijkamp and Poot in 2011, which found that a 10 per cent increase in the number of immigrants correlates to a 1.5 per cent average increase in the overall volume of trade between the countries of origin and destination.[36]

(c) **Analysis of diaspora surveys which collect information on respondents' behaviour relating to specific types of contributions to countries of origin, such as remittances, savings, investment, trade or philanthropy.** For example, information on the uses of remittance often comes from these types of studies. These, however, usually use relatively small sample sizes, and their results cannot generally be extrapolated to understand the wider diaspora's aggregate contributions. While they may assist in validating or triangulating information from other data sources, many countries lack the resource to conduct such studies on a regular basis.

Overall there is a real paucity of regular data on migrant contributions to development. Human and social capital contributions are particularly difficult to quantify; therefore, data on these are all but non-existent. However, even on economic contributions, data is scarce. In some cases, there are simple ways forward. For example, while nearly all States have various mechanisms, often aligned with international standards to greater or lesser degrees, for collecting administrative data on financial flows as well as the import and export of goods and services, these data are generally not disaggregated by the migratory status of the sender as foreseen under target 17.18. Thus, while central banks routinely monitor and publish figures on foreign direct investment, they do not differentiate between investments from migrants or members of the diaspora from other types of investors, so it is impossible to know how much direct and indirect investments migrants have contributed.

The key exception in this area are remittances, which are generally well monitored at the national level and for which data are available in various global databases, such as from the World Bank. However, there still remain challenges in terms of data quality, reliability and coverage. For example, remittance data are usually reported to central banks by commercial banks and other licensed agents on the aggregate level. This means they only capture remittances sent through formal channels and lack information on the origin of the funds and the purpose for which they are sent.

In terms of data related to diaspora engagement more broadly, there are fundamental data gaps – related even to quantifying diaspora populations. For example, most censuses that form the basis of United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA) population estimates, which are often used to estimate diaspora populations, capture only information on first-generation migrants.[37] These migrants tend to follow established networks, and diaspora communities in these countries may consist of many more second- or third-generation members as well. For example, in 2010 the United States Census Bureau estimates that there were around 500,000 individuals of

---

[36] See: Genc et al., 2011.
[37] By capturing information on the foreign-born and/or foreign citizens.

Lebanese decent in the United States, versus the 124,883 Lebanese migrants reported by DESA (Asi and Baulieu, 2013; DESA 2010). Thus, when DESA migrant stock data or data from the World Bank's Global Bilateral Migration database is used as a basis for calculating diaspora contributions to the sustainable development of their respective countries of origin or destination, likely these estimations will exclude a significant portion related to the later generations of the diasporas. This underestimation is further compounded when one considers that in terms of contributions beyond remittances, later generations are likely to be better placed to contribute effectively due to their higher level of integration in their country of residence and access to more resources and tools for engagement.

Looking forward

In light of the challenges and gaps highlighted above, IOM has been working actively to create tools that will help States and other actors generate data to be able to develop evidence-based policies and programmes that promote and facilitate the contributions of migrants and diasporas to the SDG targets noted in the first section and to sustainable development more generally. Moreover, these tools directly respond to the objectives laid out in the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. Specifically, and similar to SDG 17.18, the first objective of the Global Compact for Migration calls for states to "collect and utilize accurate and disaggregated data as a basis for evidence-based policies". More specifically, one of the actions under this objective reads as follows:

> Collect, analyse and use data on the effects and benefits of migration, as well as the contributions of migrants and diasporas to sustainable development, with a view to informing the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

It is no accident that accurate and disaggregated data represent the first objective of the Global Compact for Migration, as these are fundamental to being able to achieve all the other 22 objectives. In relation to the latter, there are several Global Compact objectives that speak to the topics covered above. First and foremost, there is Objective 19 under which States have committed to "create conditions for migrants and diasporas to fully contribute to sustainable development in all countries". Other relevant objectives include number 20 on remittances and 22 on portability of social benefits, as well as 16 on full inclusion and 14 on consular protection, assistance and cooperation. The first two make reference to the resources that migrants and diasporas can contribute, while the latter two point out the conditions and support they need to be able to contribute.

As noted above, one fundamental difficulty in empowering transnational communities of migrants and diasporas to support the 2030 Agenda is the lack of data on their composition – from where they live and what their needs are, to what resources they can and want to contribute. While IOM has been supporting governments to conduct Migration Profiles and diaspora mapping exercises for over a decade, the approaches and information contained in these, especially the latter, can vary greatly. To address this, IOM has developed a standardized Diaspora Mapping Toolkit which will allow governments and practitioners to collect comparable data about transnational communities across the globe and over time. With the standardized approach put forth in the Toolkit, including a core module of basic indicators – which should be used in all mapping exercises and objective-specific modules on human capital, economic capital, cultural capital and social capital that can be integrated in a flexible and responsive manner – it will be possible, once it has been used in a sufficient number of countries, to compare the characteristics of migrant and diaspora communities and identify regional and global patterns. Similarly, by applying the same approach over time, it will be possible to have data that could shed light on trends and assist in monitoring the impacts of specific policy changes. Furthermore, combining these two opportunities, in the future the standard approach would allow for analysis of megatrends in terms of how and why transnational communities contribute to sustainable development. All this directly speaks to the second action under the Global Compact for Migration's Objective 1, which calls on States to "improve international comparability and compatibility of migration statistics and national data systems, including by … documenting migration patterns and trends, characteristics of migrants, as well as drivers and impacts of migration".

However, as noted above, these types of diaspora mapping exercises require resources that some countries might not have at their disposable, including some countries that may be especially dependent on the contributions of their diasporas. Recognizing this limiting factor, IOM developed a guidance document to assist governments in adjusting their existing data-collection tools related to economic transfers, beyond remittances, to be able to disaggregate the data by migratory status. *Contributions and Counting* (IOM, 2020) includes step-by-step guidance

for different contexts, along with a practical toolbox with over a dozen examples. The Guidance comprises six steps – from setting up an interministerial working group and identifying local data needs to mapping existing data-collection instruments, and selection adjustments that can be made to these in a phased manner to address the needs identified. It is designed to be as practical as possible, even with limited resources as governments can select from a categorized inventory of options, to disaggregate data on investment, trade, tourism and philanthropy, among others, which are in line with their existing tools and procedures, thus minimizing the cost of the proposed changes. Not only does the Guidance directly support target 17.18, which makes specific reference to building the capacity of least developed countries and small island developing States, who may benefit greatly from evidence-based policies to facilitate and promote the contributions of migrants and diasporas, it also speaks to specific actions outlined in the Global Compact for Migration.[38] There is still much work to be done in this area, such as developing stronger methodologies to quantify non-financial contributions. However, this Guidance is seen as an important step in expanding the availability of concrete and regular data on migrant and diaspora contributions beyond remittances.

In conclusion, though the important role of transnational communities of migrants and diasporas in sustainable development is well recognized in relevant global frameworks, the data available for States to develop, monitor and evaluate this continue to be limited. Some very initial steps have been taken to address this challenge, but it is only the beginning of the journey. The above-mentioned tools need to be rolled out broadly, and there is work to be done in building upon them to achieve a truly comprehensive understanding of the multifaceted ways in which migrants and diasporas can accelerate achievement of the 2030 Agenda. While the previously mentioned SDG target 17.18 clearly commits States to generating data disaggregated by migratory status, the focus of much of the development in this area has been from a protection perspective – i.e. ensuring that the differentiated needs of migrants are identified and monitored – and thus data on migrant contributions to development remain largely hidden. However, the framework provided by the 2030 Agenda helps guide where efforts to disentangle such data can be focused in the medium and long term in order to begin filling the endemic data gaps that currently exist.

---

[38] For example, it provides States with the data and evidence to realize the first action under Objective 19: "Ensure the full and effective implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the Addis Ababa Action Agenda by fostering and facilitating the positive effects of migration for the realization of all Sustainable Development Goals." In addition to this, it will facilitate the action on developing "targeted support programmes and financial products that facilitate migrant and diaspora investments and entrepreneurship" under Objective 19 as well as the action on enhancing "collaboration between State units responsible for migration data and national statistical offices to produce migration-related statistics, including by using administrative records for statistical purposes" under Objective 1. (UNGA, 2019).

REFERENCES

Asi, M. and D. Baulieu
  2013   Arab Households in the United States: 2006–2010. American Community Survey Briefs. U.S. Census Bureau, Economics and Statistics Administration, U.S. Department of Commerce. Available at www.census.gov/library/publications/2013/acs/acsbr10-20.pdf.

Dheer, R.J.S.
  2018   Entrepreneurship by immigrants: A review of existing literature and directions for future research. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 14(3):555–614.

Farid, S., A. Nour El-Deen and R. El-Batrawy (eds.)
  2016   *Egypt Household International Migration Survey 2013 – Volume I: Determinants and Consequences of International Migration.* Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics, Cairo. Available at https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/52535/8125918/A+Egypt-HIMS+Report+Volume+I+English+ed+2018.pdf/b8f46864-91cf-4407-8f8c-7924a5d696ff.

Genc, M., M. Gheasi, P. Nijkamp and J. Poot
  2011   The impact of immigration on international trade: A meta-analysis. Norface Migration Discussion Paper No. 2011-20. Available at www.norface-migration.org/publ_uploads/NDP_20_11.pdf.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)
  2020   *Contributions and Counting: Guidance on Measuring the Economic Impact of Your Diaspora beyond Remittances.* Geneva. Available at https://publications.iom.int/books/contributions-and-counting-guidance-measuring-economic-impact-your-diaspora-beyond-remittances.

International Rescue Committee (IRC)
  2016   Economic impacts of Syrian refugees. Existing research review and key takeaways. Available at www.rescue.org/report/policy-brief-impact-syrian-refugees-host-communities.

McKinsey & Company
  2016   *People on the Move: Global Migration's Impact and Opportunity*. McKinsey Global Institute. Available at www.mckinsey.com/featured-insights/employment-and-growth/global-migrations-impact-and-opportunity.

Michaels, D.
  2012   Morocco's aviation industry takes off. *The Wall Street Journal*, 20 March. Available at www.wsj.com/articles/SB10001424052970204059804577226763868263758.

New American Economy
  2021   New American Fortune 500 in 2021: Top American companies and their immigrant roots. 17 June. Available at https://data.newamericaneconomy.org/en/fortune500-2021/.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), International Labour Organization (ILO) and World Food Programme (WFP)
  2017   *Jobs Make the Difference Expanding Economic Opportunities for Syrian Refugees and Host Communities.* Available at https://reliefweb.int/report/syrian-arab-republic/jobs-make-difference-expanding-economic-opportunities-syrian-refugees.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA)
  2010   International migrant stock. Available at www.un.org/development/desa/pd/content/international-migrant-stock.

United Nations General Assembly (UNGA)

2015   Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. A/RES/70/1. Available at https://sdgs.un.org/2030agenda.

2019   Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 19 December 2018. Seventy-third Session, Agenda items 14 and 119. Available at www.ohchr.org/en/migration/global-compact-safe-orderly-and-regular-migration-gcm.

INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS AND INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT DATA IN THE SDGs

Prithvi Hirani, Joe Costanzo and Duncan Sullivan, IOM Displacement Tracking Matrix

Internal displcement data is an essential indicator of a nation's overall well-being and resilience, it provides vital insight to guide the assistance of humanitarian, development, and peace actors as well as to support the development of well-informed, inclusive policies.
IOM International Disaplacement Data Strategy 2021–2025

Introduction

Internally displaced persons (IDPs) account for the greatest share of displaced people globally, with a total of 55 million individuals living in internal displacement at the end of 2020, up from 22 million just 10 years ago. In 2020 alone, **40.5 million new internal displacements were caused by** conflict and disasters triggered across 149 countries and territories (IDMC, 2021). Simply put, internal displacement not only affects many people globally but is also following an upward trajectory.

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are an ambitious and holistic set of 17 goals that encapsulate global challenges – ranging from poverty to health, hunger, environmental sustainability, education and gender equality. Moreover, **several SDGs include targets and indicators on migration**. To a large extent, the SDGs can be seen to set a globally transformative agenda.

"People who are vulnerable must be empowered." This opening line to paragraph 23 of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development references "refugees and internally displaced persons and migrants" among vulnerable people. Despite putting forward 17 goals, 169 targets, and 232 indicators and notwithstanding the attention broadly given to migration and its commitment to "leave no one behind", the SDGs offer governments and their partners few direct displacement-specific goals and targets,[39] and none is specific to internal displacement or IDPs. Moreover, conflating the needs and vulnerabilities of refugees, migrants and IDPs under "migration" risks conflating the unique set of challenges that each of these groups may face. The lack of direct reference to IDPs and to IDP data is particularly noteworthy given the steady rise in the number of people internally displaced by conflict and disasters, as well as the intrinsic connection between internal displacement and a nation's overall well-being. "Internal displacement data is an essential indicator of a nation's overall well-being and resilience, and provides vital insight to guide the assistance of humanitarian, development, and peace actors as well as to support the development of well-informed, inclusive policies" (IOM, 2021).

In parallel, recent developments in IDP and internal displacement data, methods, and capacity have been significant. In fact, more data are being collected and shared by more individuals and organizations, and the trajectory towards even more data, and data sharing, is continuing. The establishment of the United Nations Secretary-General's

---

[39] Some exceptions include SDG indicator 10.7.4 (proportion of the population who are refugees, by country of origin) and selected indicators on human trafficking (including forced labour). Target 1.5 (climate and other shocks and disasters) provides indirect indicators on displacement, through collecting data on economic and other losses and numbers of "affected" people.
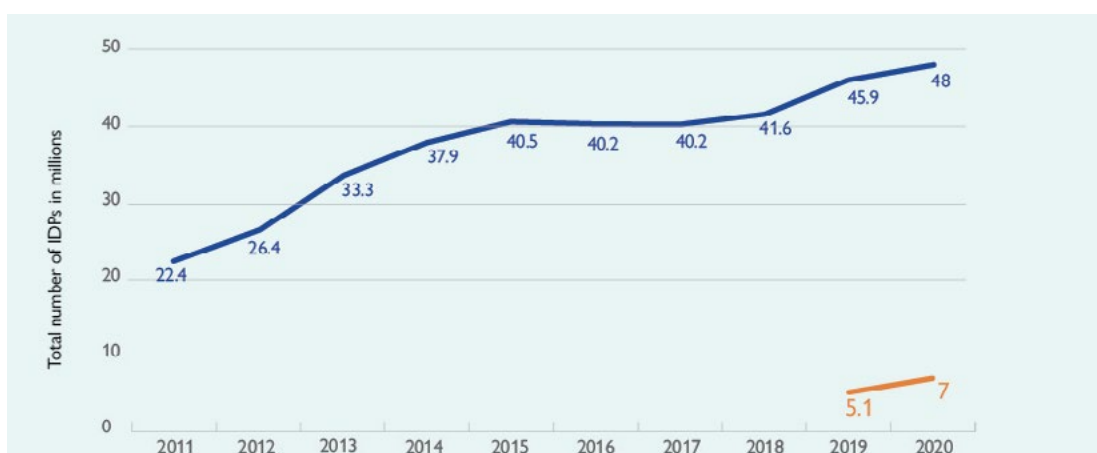
High-Level Panel on Internal Displacement in 2019 endeavours to recognize the needs and amplify the voices of IDPs at the global level.[40] The High-Level Panel released a report titled *Shining a Light on Internal Displacement: A Vision for the Future* in September 2021, which advocates the centrality of data and evidence for advancing solutions to internal displacement.

This paper offers a brief overview of important trends for IDPs in key areas of sustainable development. As the Agenda 2030 pledges to "leave no one behind", efforts to implement the SDGs are likely to fail without empowering vulnerable groups such as IDPs (IPI, 2018a). From this point of view, this paper also underlines the potential of utilizing existing assistance and protection data to support the short- and long-term needs of IDPs, as well as inform SDG implementation policies which could help prevent, respond to and achieve solutions to internal displacement.

Trends for IDPs in key sustainable development areas

Today, IDPs account for the greatest share of displaced populations globally; approximately 64 per cent of those displaced worldwide are internally displaced. As seen below in Figure 10, since 2011, the growing number of IDPs makes addressing the absence of IDPs from the SDGs ever more urgent (IDMC, 2021).[41] Further still, as seen in Figure 11, the cost of internal displacement is also high and broadly impacts the development of a State.

Figure 10. Total number of internally displaced persons globally, by cause: conflict and violence, and disasters

Source: IDMC, 2021.

Figure 11. Impact of displacement

Due to rounding some totals may not correspond with the sum of the separate figures
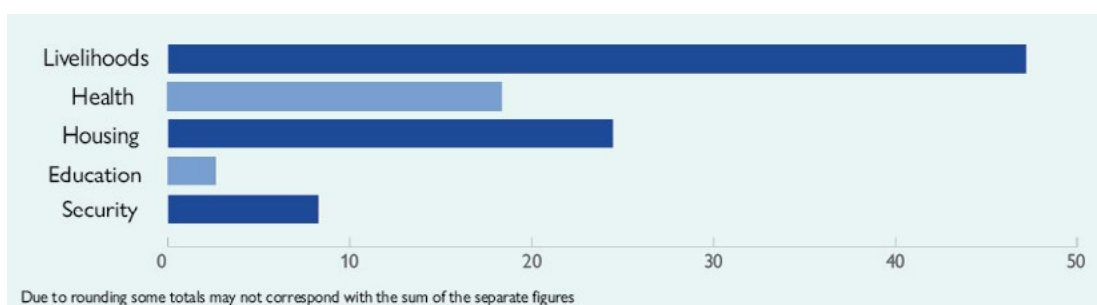
Source: IDMC, 2021.

Describing trends for IDPs by SDGs and their targets has its challenges. First, presenting and understanding trends for IDPs in key SDG areas is difficult due to the lack of explicit links in the SDGs between key policy priority areas and internal displacement. Second, to be useful for policy development and programme implementation for IDPs, SDG data must be collected and shared while disaggregated to show who is an IDP (or at least, an internal migrant). For example, in its formulation of "migratory status", the United Nations has not regularly prioritized displacement.

---

[40] The High-Level Panel on Internal Displacement was established by the United Nations Secretary-General at the end of 2019 to identify concrete recommendations on how to better prevent, respond to and achieve solutions to the global internal displacement crisis.

[41] The annual GRID report by the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre compiles data from key sources, drawing heavily on data from IOM's Displacement Tracking Matrix. More information is available at https://displacement.iom.int/dtm-partners-toolkit/sectoral-guidance-questions-development.

We are now at a critical juncture in the development of recommendations on migration and displacement statistics. The United Nations Expert Group on Migration Statistics is revising the 1998 *Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration* – the current global reference for migration data. The proposed conceptual framework places international migration under international mobility, defined as "all movements that cross international borders within a given year". This proposal would bring temporary movements, including cross-border displacements, under the new international mobility framework and as a distinct group alongside international migration. However, recommendations on internal displacement remain outside the proposed revised (international) migration framework. Instead, recommendations on IDP data and methods are being developed concurrently through the United Nations Expert Group on Refugee and IDP Statistics (EGRIS).

The challenge of achieving the Sustainable Development Goals for internally displaced persons and internal displacement contexts

"The SDGs provide a good framework for defining measurable outcomes for reducing the causes and consequences of poverty but are yet to be translated to address the specific challenges faced by people caught in crisis. All of the SDGs are relevant to people in crisis but this group is not explicitly recognised in the language of goals and targets and only a handful of indicators call for disaggregation by status." (IRC, 2019:3)

Furthermore: "Conflicts, poverty, natural disasters and climate events are also forcing people to migrate in an ever-increasing number. For many low-income countries with large number of internally-displaced people, on the other hand, the high economic costs are making it more difficult for them to invest in SDG implementation." (Helgason, 2020)

IDPs often lack physical, economic and social security as they face considerable humanitarian challenges, including exacerbated health risks, acute poverty, discrimination, gender-based violence, malnutrition, and a lack of socioeconomic opportunities linked to their displacement. In this sense, comprehensive data on internal displacement and migration

The Sustainable Development Goals and durable solutions for internally displaced persons

Though direct references to internal displacement are lacking, some clear and important interlinkages exist (from which indicators could be developed) between the SDGs, the situation of IDPs, and the realization of durable solutions:[42]

(a) SDGs 1 (Poverty) and 2 (Hunger and food insecurity): as an outcome or characteristic of, or exacerbated by, protracted displacement.

(b) SDG 1 (Economic resources): relevant for IDPs who live in irregular settlements or have property left behind.

(c) SDG 1 (Resilience, impact of climate and other shocks): speaks to IDPs in disasters contexts, as more people are being displaced by climate change, as well as SDG 13 (Climate action).

(d) SDG 3 (Health and well-being): often inaccessible or insufficient for IDPs.

(e) SDG 4 (Education and learning): equal access, regardless of migration status, to basic education and technical, vocational and tertiary education to develop skills and learning tools useful for IDP youth to be competitive in the labour market – key for durable solutions.

(f) SDG 5 (Gender equality): speaks to the protection and other needs and services for IDPs of all genders in protracted displacement.

(g) SDG 8 (Economic growth and employment): targets speak to the need for better livelihoods as one of the key measures to move IDPs out of protracted displacement; IDPs often require assistance with access to employment and face discrimination (SDG 10).

(h) SDG 11 (Cities and human settlements): targets to ensure access to housing and basic services address the needs of many IDPs in protracted urban displacement, particularly those living in irregular settlements.

(i) SDG 16 (Peaceful and inclusive societies): seeking to end (or at least mitigate) conflict and violence – 48 million people are internally displaced globally due to conflict and violence at the end of 2020 (IDMC, 2021).

---

[42] These parallels between IDPs and the SDGs have been developed using the example cited by the International Peace Institute. See: IPI, 2018b.

Improving internal displacement and development data: emerging survey tools

Christelle Cazabat, Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre

In 2020, the number of people living in internal displacement reached an all-time high at 55 million worldwide. While there are about twice as many internally displaced people (IDPs) as there are refugees, and while the challenges they face are often similar, IDPs are much less visible in data and policy debates than people who cross international borders. As a result, they may receive less support and lag even further behind in enjoying the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

There is no specific indicator on internal displacement in the SDG framework, but just as displacement can slow down progress on virtually every SDG at the individual, community or sometimes national level, sustainable development can limit the scale and the severity of internal displacement. Target 17.18 does encourages the production of data disaggregated by migratory status, and the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) is actively contributing to this effort, focusing on internal displacement.

In 2019, IDMC developed a survey tool to measure the impacts of internal displacement on the livelihoods, health, education, security, and housing conditions of IDPs and host communities. This tool is intended to start bridging the gap in standardized, comparable data on the repercussions that internal displacement has on achieving sustainable development – for instance, by forcing children out of school, jeopardizing the security of women and girls, or affecting health and financial resources. In the eight studies IDMC has conducted since 2019, information directly relevant to SDGs 1, 3, 4, 5, 8 and 10 and linked with most of the other SDGs has been collected and disaggregated by displacement status, age, sex, disability status, education level and main language spoken at home or ethnicity.

In Jos, Nigeria, data showed that one of the most severe impacts of displacement linked with violence on IDPs was loss of livelihoods (SDG 8), as one third of them lost all source of income and half had to find another activity in their host area. In the Somali region of Ethiopia, significant barriers to IDPs' access to health care and high risk of communicable diseases in their settlement were recorded (SDG 3). In Beledweyne, Somalia, although both displaced and non-displaced children suffered from an interruption in their education linked with recurring floods, data showed that displaced children had more difficulties coming back to school after the floods receded (SDG 4).

This information can be used to monitor progress towards the SDGs, and also to identify areas where populations affected by internal displacement may need humanitarian assistance or longer-term support. IDMC collaborates with humanitarian and development actors in each country to ensure the relevance and usability of the data produced. To date, IDMC's survey has been implemented in Ethiopia, Somalia, Nigeria, Colombia, Kenya and Eswatini, and will be used in Nepal, Indonesia, Papua New Guinea and Vanuatu in 2022.

Although the data collected through this survey tool are not currently statistically representative and should not be used for national monitoring of progress towards the SDGs, the approach could be adapted and scaled up with more resources. As it currently stands, the tool is at the very least a way to ensure IDPs and host communities are included in preparations for sustainable development in countries affected by internal displacement.

Foregrounding operational data on internally displaced persons for the sustainable development indicators

The SDGs provide an entry point to better use existing operational displacement data, such as that from IOM's Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM), in two potential ways. First, consistent, reliable and existing IDP data such as DTM's has the potential to highlight the situations of IDPs and mobile populations across different Sustainable Development Goals or targets. Second, this primary data can be used further to build partnerships and facilitate joint analysis that support evidence-based, longer-term programming. This, complemented with secondary data, can provide a comprehensive picture of the needs of IDPs from a sustainable development perspective. For example, DTM questionnaires, such as the Return Intention Surveys and the Multi-Sector Needs Assessments, collect data that correspond with the Inter-agency Standing Committee Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons indicators as well as link to several SDG indicators. Drawing on these interlinkages and building analysis using data from other agencies, there is immense potential to work towards addressing IDP's longer-term needs, which pave the way for sustainable development. Such an approach also contributes towards better utilizing existing data sources and facilitating joint analysis.

Current state of internal displacement data: Improvement through strategic planning and joint efforts

This section outlines two examples of progress towards the inclusion of IDPs presently and mitigating the lack of SDG guidance on displaced persons. EGRIS is an example of a collaborative approach to collecting data on IDPs with SDG-related recommended indicators. Second, IOM's *Internal Displacement Data Strategy* (IDDS) demonstrates an organizational strategic approach to improved coordination and quality of assistance and protection data.

Joint efforts: Expert Group on Refugee and Internally Displaced Persons Statistics

While the SDGs do not currently adequately account for IDPs, as an international framework with buy-in from States they provide a basis from which to develop IDP data across countries and regions. This provides the foundation for emerging work on IDP data, including a road map for joint projects and governments to develop conceptual frameworks and implementation plans for producing IDP data. Though approaches to their implementation may differ, joint efforts are under way, supporting State commitment and capacity towards building national internal displacement data systems.

Established by the United Nations Statistical Commission in 2016, EGRIS is tasked with making recommendations on refugee and IDP data and methods,[43] and includes among its members international and regional organizations and national authorities (particularly national statistical offices) to carry out its work. In its third phase of work since 2020, EGRIS is now focused on implementing its recommendations on refugee and IDP statistics – the *International Recommendations on Refugee Statistics* and the *International Recommendations on Internally Displaced Persons Statistics* (IRIS), respectively.

Like its refugee report counterpart, the report on IDP statistics makes recommendations for selecting SDG indicators that could be disaggregated by internal displacement according to priority policy areas (see Table 5).[44]

Table 5. Recommended data disaggregation of sustainable development indicators for refugees, internally displaced persons and other displaced groups

POLICY AREA 1: basic needs and living conditions	2.2.1 Prevalence of stunting (height for age ≤ 2 standard deviations from the media of the World Health Organization Child Growth Standards) among children under 5 years of age
	3.1.2 Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel
	6.1.1 Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services

---

[43] The Expert Group on Refugee and Internally Displaced Persons Statistics will also begin to develop recommendations on statelessness statistics starting in 2022. See EU and UN (2020).

[44] This list could be expanded to cover a broader range of policy priorities across the humanitarian, development and peace nexus.

	11.1.1 Proportion of urban population living in slums, informal settlements or inadequate housing
POLICY AREA 2: livelihoods and economic self-reliance	1.2.1 Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex and age
	4.1.1 Proportion of children and young people (a) in grades 2/3, (b) at the end of primary and (c) at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading and (ii) mathematics, by sex
	7.1.1 Proportion of population with access to electricity
	8.3.1 Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment by sex
	8.5.2 Unemployment rate, by sex, age and persons with disabilities
POLICY AREA 3: civil, political and legal rights	1.4.2 Proportion of total adult population with secure tenure rights to land (a) with legally recognized documentation and (b) who perceive their rights to land as secure, by sex and type of tenure
	16.1.4 Proportion of population that feels safe walking alone around the area where they live
	16.9.1 Proportion of children under 5 years of age whose births have been registered with a civil authority, by age

Source: *IRIS* (European Union and the United Nations, 2020).

Strategic plans: IOM's *Internal Displacement Data Strategy*

Building on the United Nations Secretary-General's *Data Strategy 2020–2022* and its own *Migration Data Strategy 2020–2025* and *Institutional Strategy on Migration and Sustainable Development*,[45] in late 2021 IOM released its *Internal Displacement Data Strategy 2021–2025* (IDDS), laying out its vision to strengthen capacity and leadership in internal displacement data. IOM and other actors have continued to improve and promote the collection and sharing of data on IDPs and internal displacement. The IDDS is one example of an organization's strategic approach to filling in the gaps in SDG indicators on displaced persons through strengthening capacity and building leadership in internal displacement data.

As the United Nations Migration Agency, and leading global provider of IDP data, taking concrete and strategic steps to answer the call to "leave no one behind" is buttressed by IOM's commitment to strengthen capacity and leadership in internal displacement data. The IDDS vision for 2021–2025 underlines IOM's central leadership role in IDP data, and this brings us all closer to achieving SDG commitments to vulnerable persons.

Looking ahead

One key element to measure success as we approach 2030 will be how well we ensure inclusion of vulnerable populations in sustainable development efforts. This means inclusion of migrants and displaced populations in SDGs on health-care coverage, education, and socioeconomic opportunities and many more. Given the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, success towards 2030 could also similarly be defined by equitable pandemic recovery and universal capacity development for preparedness across the globe.

The lack of reference to IDPs in the SDGs should not prevent policymakers and practitioners from pursuing SDG goals and targets nor from developing indicators for their work with IDPs and on internal displacement. Governments and other State and non-State actors seeking to improve IDP data and their response to internal displacement should not be discouraged. Understanding the scale and characteristics of internal displacement within a country helps in the prevention of, preparation for and response to crises, outbreaks and escalations.

---

[45] Tied to reaching the targets set by the SDGs, the Strategy outlines IOM's whole-of-organization approach to comprehensively integrate migration and development into policymaking and programming within the Organization. The Internal Displacement Data Strategy (IDDS) outlines a high-level course of action over the next five years for IOM to enhance its internal displacement data operations. The IDDS is structured according to four strategic pillars (assistance and protection data, safeguards and standards, data coordination, and use and accountability).

"Leave no one behind" is a clear call for sustainable development to be inclusive, for displaced as well as migrant populations. Looking to 2030, it should be common practice across data systems to collect, analyse, disseminate, and apply displacement and mobility data in sustainable development policies.

To reiterate, the United Nations Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of IDPs, Cecilia Jimenez-Damary, asserted that the 2030 Agenda is "highly relevant" to IDPs. She also mentioned that using the SDGs as a framework "will help humanitarian and development actors to design, implement, and monitor solutions that are adaptive, responsive, effective, and sustainable". She added that the Inter-agency Standing Committee Framework on Durable Solutions for IDPs is "particularly useful for helping to shape data processes that can enable the inclusion of IDPs in plans to achieve the SDGs". (IPI, 2018b)

To meet near-term policy and programme demands as well as to set out a future development data landscape that includes IDPs, it is important to (a) advocate collecting and sharing data disaggregated by migratory status that includes IDPs and (b) promote coverage and inclusion of IDPs (and internal migration/mobility) in the development of national strategies and statistical recommendations. This critical disaggregation makes the SDGs a relevant global framework for developing policies and programmes that serve IDPs.

Overall, SDG indicators inform national and international strategies and action plans to address the needs of the 55 million people now living in internal displacement across 149 countries and territories. At this critical moment, national authorities, regional bodies and international organizations are working together to build quality, timely, and comprehensive migration and internal displacement statistics towards empowering vulnerable people in need.

REFERENCES

European Union and the United Nations

2020   *International Recommendations on Internally Displaced Persons Statistics (IRIS)*. Expert Group on Refugee and Internally Displaced Persons Statistics (EGRIS). Available at www.jips.org/tools-and-guidance/idp-refugee-statistics/.

Helgason, K.

2020   The economic and political costs of population displacement and their impact on the SDGs and multilateralism. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA) Working Paper No. 167, ST/ESA/2020/DWP/167. June. Available at www.un.org/hi/desa/economic-and-political-costs-population-displacement-and-their-impact-sdgs-and.

Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC)

2021   *GRID 2021: Internal Displacement in a Changing Climate*. Geneva. Available at www.internal-displacement.org/global-report/grid2021/.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)

2021   *Internal Displacement Data Strategy 2021–2025*. Geneva. Available https://publications.iom.int/books/internal-displacement-data-strategy-2021-2025.

International Peace Institute (IPI)

2018a   Reaching internally displaced persons to achieve the 2030 Agenda. Issue brief, November. New York. Available at https://www.ipinst.org/2018/11/reaching-internally-displaced-persons-to-achieve-2030-agenda.

2018b   Reaching internally displaced persons to achieve the 2030 Agenda for sustainable development. 17 July. Available at www.ipinst.org/2018/07/internally-displaced-persons-2030-agenda-sustainable-development#9.

International Rescue Committee (IRC)

2019   Sustainable Development Goals, in crisis. Available at www.rescue.org/resource/sustainable-development-goals-crisis.

United Nations Secretary-General's High-Level Panel on Internal Displacement

2021   *Shining a Light on Internal Displacement: A Vision for the Future*. Available at https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/HLP-report-WEB.pdf.

MIGRANT CHILDREN IN THE SDGs: WHAT DO WE KNOW?

Sebastián Palmas, Jan Beise and Danzhen You, UNICEF, with support from colleagues from UNICEF's Data and Analytics Team

Of the 281 million international migrants estimated in 2020,[46] around 60 million are young people.[47] Furthermore, among the 36 million children, boys outnumbered girls by 1.2 million, and approximately 13 million children were refugees or asylum seekers.[48]

During their journey and once at the destination, migrant children are often exposed to adverse effects on their health, education and legal rights, and they also have increased exposure to exploitation and discrimination. In addition, migrant children and youth often lack birth certificates that help them access services (including education) to overcome exposure to risks (such as family separation, trafficking and illegal adoption) during journeys as they settle in unfamiliar places. These risks are of particular concern among unaccompanied minors.

UNICEF (2019a) identifies over 40 Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) indicators directly relevant to children's well-being and rights integrated under 9 of the 17 goals. UNICEF's report on SDG progress for children (2018) reveals that 52 countries, with approximately 650 million children, are off track in meeting the targets on at least two thirds of the children-related SDG indicators for which they have data. It is not possible to see how many of these children are migrants.

Similar to data on many other cross-cutting issues featured in this volume, official global data on migrant children in the SDGs are scarce. Literature regarding SDG indicators on children on the move is frequently limited to regional studies, often in the United States of America and Europe. Acknowledging that diverse regional or even country-specific data and analyses are not usually framed in the context of the SDGs, this section presents case studies and other relevant literature regarding key migrant children-related SDG indicators.

Poverty (Sustainable Development Goal 1)

Poverty, economic hardship and loss of job are common primary reasons described by young people for leaving their home areas (UNICEF, 2021b). However, assessing poverty rates among migrant children and young people is a challenge. Without age- and migratory status-disaggregated national poverty data, even in data-rich countries, poverty rates among migrant children are usually estimated from poverty rates across the general immigrant population, making child poverty invisible.

In most European Union countries, migrant children are at an economic disadvantage compared to other children (Toczydlowska and D'Costa, 2017). Migrant children from Asian countries living in the United States are less likely than Americans overall to live in monetary poverty (10% versus 13%). The percentage of children living in monetarily poor households is higher (at 16%), most likely due to poorer families having more children than other families (Budiman and Ruiz, 2021). Poverty rates differ by country of origin (e.g. Indian migrants in the United States are considerably less likely to be living in poverty than Mongolian migrants in the same country).

---

[46] Data from 2020 include refugees and asylum seekers (DESA, 2020a).
[47] A young person is under 25, and a child is under 18 (DESA, 2020b).
[48] See: UNICEF, 2021a.

On the other hand, the remittances sent by migrants often have a positive poverty-reducing impact on those who stay in countries of origin, including for children left behind. For example, in Guatemala, households receiving remittances spent twice as much on education, which would help to reduce multidimensional poverty, compared with what they would have spent without remittances (Adams and Cuecuecha, 2010).

As remittances are an essential source of income for large numbers of children and young people worldwide (on the move and those who have been left behind in their home countries by adult migrants), economic recessions are likely to have negative impacts on migrant children's and young people's nutrition, education, and physical and mental health, and even lead to a growth in child labour.

Nutrition (Sustainable Development Goal 2)

At least 1 in 3 children under 5 is undernourished or overweight, and 1 in 2 suffers from hidden hunger (SDGs 2.1 and 2.2) (UNICEF, 2019b). Due to complex variables – including food insecurity, cultural and religious beliefs, and sociodemographic factors like ethnicity, socioeconomic status and education – migrant children are often especially vulnerable to hunger, food insecurity and malnutrition.

A systematic review of studies from Europe, North America and Australia found a strong correlation between migration and both child obesity and stunting (Dondi et al., 2020). This apparent opposite effect still has no clear context-dependent explanation, and studies that correlate it to food insecurity report conflicting results. Gender, ethnicity, socioeconomic status and parents' educational backgrounds are just a few of the variables that intersect with chronic malnutrition of migrant children. Higher prevalence of early childhood caries and iron and vitamin D deficiency among immigrant minors were also reported.

In Colombia in 2016–2018, the Venezuelan population was estimated to have roughly twofold the mortality rate due to undernourishment compared to the Colombian population. Children were the most affected by this undernourishment, representing more than 75 per cent of the Venezuelan undernourishment deaths in the country.

The data presented here are only fragments of evidence, and given that malnutrition also plays a role in migration patterns (UNICEF, 2016), there is still much more research needed to understand the relationship between SDG 2 targets and the migration of children and youth.

Health (Sustainable Development Goal 3)

Health studies on migrant children have a limited scope regarding countries of origin and destination, and they often do not differentiate between the forcibly displaced and other types of migrants (IOM, 2021). Although migrants are often, at least initially, relatively healthy compared with the non-migrant population in the host country (Borhade and Dey, 2018), available data suggest that they tend to be more vulnerable to certain communicable diseases, poor mental health (especially for forcibly displaced and refugee children) (Werthern et al., 2019), and newborn health problems (Rechel et al., 2013). Some of the challenges contributing to migrant children's physical health problems are limited health-care access, food insecurity, poor living conditions in their new host countries, and psychological stresses associated to the causes and processes of migration.

Deaths of newborns and children under 5 are stated in target 3.2

High infant mortality rates among immigrant populations have been found across the world (Naimy et al., 2013; Rasmussen et al., 2021; Belihu et al., 2016). The higher mortality rates for migrant newborns and children under 5 are related to overcrowding in low-quality housing, poor sanitation (both in communities and refugee camps), substandard health care, inadequate diets, the mother's educational attainment, and the migration process (Tulloch et al., 2016).

SDG target 3.3 aims to end the epidemics of AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria and other communicable diseases

Foreign-born children account for a lower proportion among all paediatric tuberculosis cases (15.3%) in the European Union and the European Economic Area in 2010, when compared with that of the foreign-born reported among the overall population (26%). In the region with the largest number of refugee children, they tend to be more likely to suffer from infectious diseases – such as malaria, pneumonia and diarrhea – than other children in the host community (Salami et al., 2021).

The increased disease vulnerability of migrant children has been related to limited access to treatments and social determinants such as limited language proficiency, low socioeconomic status, food insecurity, undocumented legal status, and higher exposure to risk factors such as poor living conditions and limited access to hygiene (Van Hook et al., 2013).

Health-care access: 3.8.1

A systematic literature review from different European countries shows that health-care access inequalities persist between migrants and non-migrants (Lebano et al., 2020). The lower coverage for migrant children is explained by legal, procedural, financial, cultural and social barriers (e.g. discrimination and stigmatization by health-care providers or language barriers). A lack of firewalls between service providers and immigration authorities may deter undocumented migrants from seeking health services for their children for fear of arrest, detention or deportation. Vaccination rates (SDG 3.b.1) are also consistently lower among migrant children than their host peers (Charania et al., 2019).

The COVID-19 pandemic further complicated the provision of health care to children on the move: in some settings, mandatory lockdowns and restrictions have undermined migrant and displaced children's access to services and their right to security and safety (Devi, 2021). Around 50 per cent of countries in which UNICEF has active humanitarian operations report a reduction in access to health care among displaced and refugee populations due to the pandemic.[49]

Education (Sustainable Development Goal 4)

Completion rates of primary and secondary education (SDG 4.1.2) often differ between foreign-born and host children. In 2017, 19 per cent of foreign-born people aged 18 to 24 in the European Union had left school early, compared to 10 per cent of the native-born (Eurostat, 2017).

Proficiency level results (SDG 4.1.1) from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development's Programme for International Student Assessment (OECD-PISA) indicate that immigrant students living in OECD countries tend to perform worse in school than non-immigrant students.[50] For example, immigrant students are more than twice as likely as their non-immigrant peers to perform below Level 2 in science (OECD, 2016).

Gender can intersect with ethnicity and/or migratory status to influence achievement gaps between girls and boys (UNICEF, 2017). Migrant and refugee girls in the global North typically have better school outcomes than migrant boys (UNICEF, 2021c). For instance, among Black and Hispanic migrants in the United States, second-generation migrant boys had poorer grades than first-generation boys, but the reverse was true for girls (Qian et al., 2018).

Gender gaps in education are exacerbated in humanitarian settings, often favouring boys. Among humanitarian action countries, or emergency countries, 19 per cent of girls of secondary-school age have never even entered primary school, compared to 13 per cent of boys. However, an equally small share of boys and girls in emergency countries – just 26 per cent – transition to upper secondary at the expected age (UNICEF, 2021d). Disparities between foreign-born and native-born completion rates and proficiency levels are associated with multiple factors. Economic hardship is often the most significant barrier to accessing education (UNESCO, 2019). Other common barriers to accessing education are lack of Internet, lack of recognition of previous studies, lack of available information, and language barriers (OECD, 2015).

---

[49] See: UNICEF, 2020.
[50] The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) defines an "immigrant student" as one whose mother and father were both born in a country/economy other than where the student sat the PISA test.

Child protection (SDG 5.2, SDG 8.7, SDG 16.1, SDG 16.2)

Children on the move, especially those unaccompanied or separated from their families, are vulnerable to exploitation and abuse since they typically lack financial resources and access to effective child protection, welfare and justice systems, and effective paths to residence status (UNGA, 2016).

The journey is often the most dangerous stage of migration for many children. An analysis of the journey of some 11,000 migrant and refugee adolescents (aged 14–17) and youth (aged 18–24) along the Central and Eastern Mediterranean routes in 2016 and 2017 found that 8 out of 10 adolescents reported exploitation (UNICEF and IOM, 2017). Around 62 per cent of respondents aged 14–17 and 60 per cent of respondents aged 18–24 on the Central Mediterranean route reported being held against their will, while 47 per cent of those aged 14–17 and 44 per cent of those aged 18–24 reported being forced to perform work or other activities. The same report found that travelling alone[51] more than doubled the risk of exploitation.

When migrant children reach a destination country, they may encounter other difficulties, such as discrimination or limited access to basic services, in some cases making them highly vulnerable, including to sexual exploitation (UNGA, 2017:12). For example, interviews with key informants in Greece found that sexual abuse and exploitation of unaccompanied migrant children are widespread in rural and urban settings (Digidiki and Bhabha, 2018).

Age, gender, sexual identity and disability are all intersecting factors that determine a child's experience and vulnerability to sale and sexual exploitation. Being a girl, a boy or a transsexual child will affect a migrant child's experience differently and the kind of sexual exploitation they might be subjected to (WRC, 2019). A systematic review of the sexual and reproductive experiences of migrant girls in Africa showed a high prevalence of sexual abuse and sexual exploitations (Ivanova et al., 2018). Among detected victims of trafficking, girls outnumber boys 4 to 3 (UNICEF, 2021c).

It is important to mention that sexual abuse and exploitation of all children, including migrants, are difficult to quantify, among other reasons, because minors may not be willing or able to report such incidences due to fear of reprisal, stigmatization or shame (Digidiki and Bhabha, 2018). Therefore, statistics on migrant children's experience of sexual abuse or exploitation are highly likely underestimates.

Birth registration (SDG 16.9)

In situations of displacement, birth registration is an important protection tool. At the basic level, birth registration establishes a child's identity. A lack of birth registration can lead to serious barriers such as denial of access to services (including education), increased risk of violence and abuse, risk of being treated as an adult, increased risk of family separation, and obstacles to durable solutions.[52] Lack of birth certification can also lead to statelessness. It is harder to protect children from exploitation, early marriage, other types of abuse and immigrant detention if they are stateless and/or lack identity documents.

It is estimated that 237 million children under the age of 5 are currently without a birth certificate in the world.[53] However, data on birth registration coverage for migrant children are scarce. In one of the few available studies, in Thailand, a study among 723 children, all 48 of those born outside Thailand did not have a birth registration from the country of origin, most of them from ethnic minority households (Chamchan et al., 2021). The same study showed that two thirds of migrant children from migrant worker households, born outside a hospital setting, did not receive a birth certificate, most frequently because families are unaware that they should receive one.

The systematic under-recording of migrant children's births in many countries remains a serious challenge, highlighting the urgent need to improve and strengthen civil registration and vital statistics and the importance of recording the possible statelessness of refugee and migrant children from the moment of arrival.

---

[51] Unaccompanied – that is, without parents or a legal guardian.
[52] Such as a return to the child's country of origin, settlement and integration into the host country, or relocation to a third country.
[53] Unregistered and without proof of registration (UNICEF, 2019c).

Data gaps and recommendations

This chapter provided a brief overview of key children-related SDG indicators, showing that migrant children and youth fare more poorly than their non-migrant counterparts across several SDGs. However, gaps related to the quality and coverage of global SDG indicators statistics concerning children and youth on the move are evident:

(a) Studies on migrant children that relate to SDG indicators have a limited scope in terms of countries of origin and destination. In addition, many studies use small samples or refer to very specific populations and are not generalizable within a country and comparable across contexts.

(b) Studies and analyses often do not disaggregate data by age and migratory status – and the few that do often do not differentiate between migrants and those forcibly displaced, making it a challenge to identify the particularities of children and youth on the move across a variety of issues.

(c) There are multiple SDG indicators relevant to migrant children without comprehensive regional or subregional coverage – for instance, those measuring adolescent women's access to sexual and reproductive health-care services (3.7.1 and 3.7.2) or violence against children (16.2.1 and 16.2.3).

To inform policy- and design-targeted advocacy and interventions that ensure the well-being of migrant and displaced children and youth, access to better data is necessary. It is imperative to do the following:

(a) Disaggregate data by age, sex and migratory status (including displacement) as applicable when collecting data.

(b) Coordinate SDG indicator data collection and sharing, analysis, and dissemination efforts within countries, across borders and between United Nations agencies.[54]

(c) Establish policies that foster migrant-sensitive and child-sensitive data collection while protecting migrants from harmful actions from the host government/community. For example, by putting in place firewalls between immigration authorities and government entities collecting health data.

(d) Promote and establish innovative child-specific data-collection methods and partnerships.

---

[54] The International Data Alliance for Children on the Move (IDAC) is a multi-partner initiative to strengthen data and statistics on migrant and forcibly displaced children to support evidence-based policymaking.

REFERENCES

Adams, R.H. and A. Cuecuecha
    2010   Remittances, household expenditure and investment in Guatemala. *World Development*, 38(11):1626–1641.

Belihu, F.B., M.A. Davey and R. Small
    2016   Perinatal health outcomes of East African immigrant populations in Victoria, Australia: A population based study. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*, 16(86).

Borhade, A. and S. Dey
    2018   Do migrants have a mortality advantage? *The Lancet*, 392(10164):2517–2518.

Budiman, A. and N.G. Ruiz
    2021   Key facts about Asian Americans, a diverse and growing population. Pew Research Center, 29 April. Available at www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2021/04/29/key-facts-about-asian-americans/.

Chamchan, C., K. Apipornchaisakul and P. Muensakda
    2021   An assessment of access to birth registration among migrant children: The quantitative study. Institute for Population and Social Research, Mahidol University. Available at www.unicef.org/thailand/reports/assessment-access-birth-registration-among-migrant-children.

Charania, N.A., N. Gaze, J.Y. Kung and S. Brooks
    2019   Vaccine-preventable diseases and immunisation coverage among migrants and non-migrants worldwide: A scoping review of published literature, 2006 to 2016. *Vaccine*, 37(20):2661–2669.

Devi, S.
    2021   Mediterranean migrants lacking health care. *The Lancet*, 398(10299):479–480.

Digidiki, V. and J. Bhabha
    2018   Sexual abuse and exploitation of unaccompanied migrant children in Greece: Identifying risk factors and gaps in services during the European migration crisis. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 92(C):114–121.

Dondi, A., V. Piccinno, F. Morigi, S. Sureshkumar, D. Gori and M. Lanari
    2020   Food insecurity and major diet-related morbidities in migrating children: A systematic review. *Nutrients*, 12(2):379.

Eurostat
    2017   *Migrant Integration*. Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg. Available at https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/8787947/KS-05-17-100-EN-N.pdf/f6c45af2-6c4f-4ca0-b547-d25e6ef9c359.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)
    2021   Migration and health. Migration Data Portal, 6 May. Available at www.migrationdataportal.org/themes/migration-and-health.

Ivanova, O., M. Rai and E. Kemigisha
    2018   A systematic review of sexual and reproductive health knowledge, experiences and access to services among refugee, migrant and displaced girls and young women in Africa. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 15(8):1583.

Lebano, A., S. Hamed, H. Bradby, A. Gil-Salmerón, E. Durá-Ferrandis, J. Garcés-Ferrer, F. Azzedine, E. Riza, P. Karnaki, D. Zota and A. Linos

    2020   Migrants' and refugees' health status and healthcare in Europe: A scoping literature review. *BMC Public Health*, 20(1039).

Naimy, Z., J. Grytten, L. Monkerud and A. Eskild

    2013   Perinatal mortality in non-western migrants in Norway as compared to their countries of birth and to Norwegian women. *BMC Public Health*, 13(37).

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)

    2015   *Immigrant Students at School: Easing the Journey towards Integration*. OECD Publishing. Available at www.oecd.org/education/immigrant-students-at-school-9789264249509-en.htm.

    2016   Immigrant background, student performance and students' attitudes towards science. In: P*ISA 2015 Results (Volume I): Excellence and Equity in Education*. OECD Publishing, Paris. Available at www.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/pisa-2015-results-volume-i/immigrant-background-student-performance-and-students-attitudes-towards-science_9789264266490-11-en.

Qian, Y., C. Buchmann and Z. Zhang

    2018   Gender differences in educational adaptation of immigrant-origin youth in the United States. *Demographic Research*, 38:1155–1188.

Rasmussen, T.D., S.F. Villadsen, P.K. Andersen, S.S. Jervelund, A.M.N. Andersen

    2021   Social and ethnic disparities in stillbirth and infant death in Denmark, 2005–2016. *Scientific Reports*, 11(1):8001.

Rechel, B., P. Mladovsky, D. Ingleby, J.P. Mackenbach and M. McKee

    2013   Migration and health in an increasingly diverse Europe. *The Lancet*, 381(9873):1235–1245.

Salami, B., S. Mogale, F. Ojo, M. Kariwo, J. Thompson, P. Okeke-Ihejirika and S. Yohani

    2021   Health of African refugee children outside Africa: A scoping review. *Journal of Pediatric Nursing*, 61:199-206.

Toczydlowska, E. and B. D'Costa

    2017   Migration and inequality: Making policies inclusive for every child. Innocenti Research Briefs No. 2017-14. Available at www.unicef-irc.org/publications/903-migration-and-inequality-making-policies-inclusive-for-every-child.html.

Tulloch, O., F. Machingura and C. Melamed

    2016   Health, migration and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. ODI briefing, July. Available at https://cdn.odi.org/media/documents/10761.pdf.

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)

    2016   *Uprooted: The Growing Crisis for Refugee and Migrant Children*. Division of Data, Research and Policy, New York. Available at https://data.unicef.org/resources/uprooted-growing-crisis-refugee-migrant-children/.

    2017   *Education Uprooted: For Every Migrant, Refugee and Displaced Child, Education.* New York. Available at www.unicef.org/reports/education-uprooted.

    2018   *Progress for Every Child in the SDG Era*. Data and Analytics Section, Division of Data, Research and Policy, New York. Available at https://data.unicef.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/03/Progress_for_Every_Child_in_the_SDG_Era.pdf.

    2019a   *Progress for Every Child in the SDG Era: Are We on Track to Achieve the SDGs for Children*? The situation in 2019. Available at www.unicef.org/reports/progress-for-every-child-in-the-sdg-era-2019.

    2019b   *The State of the World's Children 2019. Children, Food and Nutrition: Growing Well in a Changing World*. New York. Available at www.unicef.org/reports/state-of-worlds-children-2019.

    2019c   *Birth Registration for Every Child by 2030: Are We on Track?* Data and Analytics Section, Division of Data, Analytics, Planning and Monitoring, New York. Available at https://data.unicef.org/resources/birth-registration-for-every-child-by-2030/.

2020   COVID-19 has led to dramatic reduction in essential services and protection for migrant and displaced children in countries around the world. 18 December. Available at www.unicef.org/press-releases/covid-19-has-led-dramatic-reduction-essential-services-and-protection-migrant-and.

2021a   Child migration. Available at https://data.unicef.org/topic/child-migration-and-displacement/migration/.

2021b   *Reimagining Migration Responses: Learning from Children and Young People Who Move in the Horn of Africa.* Office of Research – Innocenti, Florence. Available at www.unicef-irc.org/child-migration-hoa.

2021c   *Uncertain Pathways: How Gender Shapes the Experiences of Children on the Move.* Data and Analytics Section, Division of Data, Analytics, Planning and Monitoring, New York. Available at https://data.unicef.org/resources/uncertain-pathways-how-gender-shapes-the-experiences-of-children-on-the-move/.

2021d   *How Are Children Progressing through School? An Education Pathways Analysis.* Data and Analytics Section, Division of Data, Analytics, Planning and Monitoring, New York. Available at https://data.unicef.org/resources/how-are-children-progressing-through-school/.

UNICEF and IOM

2017   *Harrowing Journeys: Children and Youth on the Move across the Mediterranean Sea, at Risk of Trafficking and Exploitation.* New York and Geneva. Available at https://publications.iom.int/books/harrowing-journeys-children-and-youth-move-across-mediterranean-sea-risk-trafficking-and.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA)

2020a   Executive summary. In: *International Migration 2020 Highlights.* Population Division. Available at www.un.org/en/desa/international-migration-2020-highlights.

2020b   International Migrant Stock 2020. Population Division. Available at www.un.org/development/desa/pd/content/international-migrant-stock.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)

2019   *Migration, Displacement and Education: Building Bridges, Not Walls.* Global Education Monitoring Report. Paris. Available at https://en.unesco.org/gem-report/report/2019/migration.

United Nations General Assembly (UNGA)

2016   Sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography. Note by the Secretary-General, Seventy-first Session, Item 65 (a) of the provisional agenda. A/71/261. Available at www.refworld.org/docid/57c96ed24.html.

2017   Sale and sexual exploitation of children, including child prostitution, child pornography and other child sexual abuse material; and trafficking in persons, especially women and children. Note by the Secretary-General, Seventy-second Session, Items 69 (a) and 73 (b) of the provisional agenda. A/72/164. Available at https://reliefweb.int/report/world/joint-report-sale-and-sexual-exploitation-children-including-child-prostitution-child.

Van Hook, J., N. Landale and M. Hillemeier

2013   *Is the United States Bad for Children's Health? Risk and Resilience Among Young Children of Immigrants.* Migration Policy Institute, Washington, D.C. Available at www.migrationpolicy.org/research/united-states-bad-children%E2%80%99s-health-risk-and-resilience-among-young-children-immigrants.

Werthern, M.V., G. Grigorakis and E. Vizard

2019   The mental health and wellbeing of Unaccompanied Refugee Minors (URMs). *Child Abuse & Neglect,* 98(104146).

Women's Refugee Commission (WRC)

2019   *"More Than One Million Pains": Sexual Violence Against Men and Boys on the Central Mediterranean Route to Italy.* New York. Available at https://reliefweb.int/report/italy/more-one-million-pains-sexual-violence-against-men-and-boys-central-mediterranean-route.

GOAL 3: MONITORING THE HEALTH OF REFUGEES AND MIGRANTS IN THE CONTEXT OF THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS

Santino Severoni, Rifat Hossain, Richard Alderslade, Soorej Jose Puthooparambil, Rimu Byadya and Miriam Orcutt, World Health Organization

Background

Today there are over a billion migrants globally, about 1 in 7 of the global population. These include 281 million international migrants, and the remaining ones are internal migrants. Around 82.4 million people are forcibly displaced (of which 48 million are internally displaced people and 26.4 million are refugees) (UNHCR, 2021).

While as per the human right to health, all should have access to universal health coverage (UHC), in practice refugees and migrants often experience suboptimal or lack of adequate access to health-care services, leading to a negative impact on health (IOM, 2021; WHO, n.d.a). Barriers in accessing health facilities and services may include issues of nationality or legal status; fear of detention and deportation; discrimination and exclusion; language and cultural differences; poor information about services and administrative and financial hurdles impeding access; and also, adverse living conditions contributing to poor health, making seeking health care difficult.

Health policies and supporting legislative and financial frameworks are needed at all levels – global, regional, national and local – to define policies to improve health and address inequities. Such policies should deal with all socioeconomic and environmental determinants of health; use multisectoral, whole-of-government, whole-of-society and health-in-all-policies approaches; strengthen health systems; and give particular attention to the needs of all vulnerable groups, including refugees and migrants. Such approaches are integral to "ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages" or the achievement of Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 3, as well as all other SDG health-related targets. As was intended, to achieve these targets, we must also take note of the importance of "[strengthening] the means of implementation and [revitalizing] the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development" (SDG 17).

In particular, to support such policy development and implementation, more extensive, comprehensive, and disaggregated data and information are needed on the impact of migration on health, the health needs of refugees and migrants across their whole migration journey, as well as health system responses and outcomes.

The 2019 World Health Organization's (WHO) global action plan on promoting the health of refugees and migrants[55] (the GAP) – developed in close collaboration with IOM and the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), and consistent with the Global Compact on Refugees (UNHCR, 2018) and the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration (UNGA, 2019) – upholds the right to health of refugees and migrants. This is fully aligned and integrated with the WHO policies and interventions to promote and secure equitable improvements in global health and well-being. The current WHO strategy, known as the Thirteenth General Programme of Work (GPW 13), contains an overall strategic goal to "promote health, keep the world safe, and serve the vulnerable", supported by three high-level global targets (the "triple billion" targets):

---

[55] See: WHO, 2019a.

(a)   One billion more people benefiting from UHC.

(b)   One billion more people better protected from health emergencies.

(c)   One billion more people enjoying better health and well-being.

GPW 13 is supported by the WHO Transformation Agenda,[56] and an outcome framework of goals and targets, aligned with the SDGs and the global SDG indicator framework.

The impact of migration on the health of refugees and migrants

There is little official SDG data on migration and health, given that there are no dedicated migration–health indicators and much data used for Goal 3 monitoring are not disaggregated by migratory status. Nevertheless, it is important to understand various migration–health linkages and the situation of migrants across Goal 3 policy areas.

Public health circumstances that affect refugees and migrants are specific to both those populations and each phase of the migration and displacement cycle. Refugees and migrants with existing chronic conditions and hereditary diseases may experience interruption in their care or episodic care, and they may move without medicines or health records. Poverty, education, housing and nutrition are directly related to disease prevalence and illness outcomes.

Refugees and migrants may come from areas where specific communicable diseases are endemic. They may be at risk of contracting communicable diseases, including foodborne and waterborne diseases, because of the perils of travelling and factors in the host country associated with poor living and working conditions, together with lack of access to essential health-care services.

Delayed HIV testing and diagnosis can be a major challenge for migrant and refugee populations due to limited access to health services, social stigma and discrimination, which can lead to high rates of late-stage diagnosis of HIV/AIDS (Alvarez-del Arco et al., 2013).

Access to vaccination and continuity of care are more difficult for people on the move. Poor access to medicines and poor management of treatment may facilitate the development of antimicrobial resistance.

International migration results in differences in perinatal outcomes between migrant and non-migrant women, and between migrant subgroups (Heslehurst et al., 2018). Refugee and migrant women may have limited access to sexual and reproductive health-care services and have low knowledge and use of sexual and reproductive health services (Endler et al., 2020). Low awareness and utilization of contraception compared to host nationals is reported for many migrant and refugee groups (Tanabe et al., 2017).

High levels of sexual violence are experienced by refugees and migrants, particularly women, during displacement and after arrival, including intimate-partner violence and generalized sexual and gender-based violence (Keygnaert, 2014). Unaccompanied children are particularly vulnerable and need provision of specific services and care (UNHCR, 1994).

The migration and displacement process may lead to food insecurity and nutritional problems, including malnutrition (Carney and Krause, 2020). The process of migration also leads to disruption of infant and young child feeding practices and care (Save the Children and UNHCR, 2018), and women and children face constraints in accessing essential health-care services because of insecurity, gender inequality, cultural discrimination and limited mobility.

Non-communicable diseases represent an increasing health burden among refugee and migrant populations, particularly those in middle- and high-income host countries. Cancer is often diagnosed at later stages among refugees and migrants (WHO, 2019b).

Many refugees and migrants, particularly those who are low-skilled and semi-skilled, work in low-paid jobs that are dangerous, dirty and degrading (Benach et al., 2011) – deviating from SDG target 8.8, which is to "promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants,

---

[56] More information is available at www.who.int/about/transformation#:~:text=The%20WHO%20Transformation%20Agenda%20is,adapt%20and%20act%20on%20feedback.

and those in precarious employment" and potentially giving rise to higher risk of occupational injuries and negative health outcomes. Once again, we need to "increase significantly the availability of high-quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by … migratory status", among other dimensions, as required by SDG target 17.18.

The prevalence of common mental disorders such as depression, anxiety and post-traumatic stress disorder tends to be higher among migrants exposed to adversity and refugees than among host populations (Blackmore et al., 2020). Common challenges include family separation, community and workplace stressors, and social exclusion (Kirmayer et al., 2011).

Emergency situations such as armed conflicts, natural disasters and other humanitarian crises exacerbate the risk of mental health conditions. Nearly all people affected by these emergencies will experience psychological distress, with 1 in 5 likely to have a mental disorder such as depression, anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorder, bipolar disorder or schizophrenia (WHO, n.d.b). The WHO Health and Migration Programme (PHM) is undertaking a Global Evidence Review on Health and Migration (GEHM) to establish a global baseline of information on these issues. This, along with the comprehensive review to be contained in the upcoming World Report on Health and Migration, will articulate the global evidence base for mental health and other health issues. It will also help shape how we must address the various challenges to have a robust monitoring framework for the health status and health needs of refugees and migrants, for the achievement of the SDGs, in order to have targeted interventions and impactful programming for better health and well-being of refugees and migrants.

3

GOOD HEALTH
AND WELL-BEING

SDG 3:
*Ensure healthy
lives and
promote
well-being
for all at all ages*

Improving migration data in the context of SDG 3: Examples from IOM

Janice Lopez, Sweetmavourneen Agan, Kolitha Wickramage, IOM's Migration Health Division

3.3 Addressing HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria among migrant populations

Improving data for HIV programming for mobile populations in Somalia

Following two successful rounds of integrated biological and behavioural surveillance surveys involving female sex workers in Somaliland in 2008 and 2014, IOM conducted a third survey in 2017, in collaboration with the AIDS Commission, the Ministry of Health and UNICEF. IOM undertook the survey with sex workers and clients, including uniformed personnel, port workers and truckers across three cities in Somalia. The study informed the formulation of key interventions, such as the design and optimization of a peer education programme, aiming at improving key indicators such as HIV programme coverage and increased access to HIV services due to minimal stigma and discrimination.

Evaluating tuberculosis programming among Syrian refugees in Jordan and Lebanon

IOM has supported the National Tuberculosis Program (NTP) in detecting and treating tuberculosis among Syrian refugees since 2012 in Jordan and 2013 in Lebanon. In 2016, IOM, together with the United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, evaluated the Organization's programme on NTP support. The study revealed that the programme successfully provided critical services for Syrian refugees as shown by the high tuberculosis treatment completion rates (i.e. 94.8% in Jordan and 87.8% in Lebanon in 2015) among the target population. It concluded that IOM and WHO regional initiatives in cross-border case surveillance and treatment programmes for Syrian refugees display commitment to reduce tuberculosis among this vulnerable population.

Reviewing policies on migrants' access to malaria services in the Greater Mekong Subregion

In 2015, IOM and WHO collaborated in developing evidence-based guidance for malaria programme managers at the national level in the Greater Mekong Subregion. A key part of this collaboration was the documentation and analysis of existing national (i.e. in Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar, Thailand and Viet Nam) as well as regional and international policies and legal frameworks as they relate to the access of migrants (internal, inbound and outbound) to health services, particularly for malaria. The study outlined a listing of the available conventions and legal instruments as well as mapped the gaps and opportunities in malaria and health policies to aid programme managers in the region in addressing challenges faced by migrants and other mobile populations.

3.4 Promoting mental health and well-being among mobile populations

Examining psychological morbidity among Nepali cross-border migrants from India

A community-based cross-sectional study was conducted in six districts of Nepal from 2017 to 2018. The study demonstrated that psychological morbidity was prevalent in the study participants – particularly among vulnerable groups such as women, the elderly, marginalized groups and minorities – and varied significantly with individual characteristics as well as work and health conditions. The findings call for the need to craft migrant-specific mental health promotive interventions to meet SDG target 3.4, and to strengthen the legal framework for providing rights and social security to migrant populations.

3.8 Achieving universal health coverage for all, including migrants

Reviewing data on the health and coverage of unaccompanied migrant children

In 2021, IOM was part of the study team that summarized the evidence on international migration and the health of unaccompanied minors. According to the data available from UNICEF and UNHCR, around 300,000 child migrants were reported to be unaccompanied or separated in 2015–2016, and more than 150,000 unaccompanied minors were reported among the refugee population in 2019, which might have increased due to border closures during the COVID-19 pandemic. The review stated that unaccompanied minors should be explicitly included in migration management, and that if these minors are provided with appropriate forms of protection, such as health and psychosocial care, including crucially through UHC, they can thrive and have good long-term outcomes. Reviews such as this are vital to provide an evidence base so that SDG 3 interventions can reach unaccompanied migrant children – often a highly vulnerable group.

3.b Ensuring migrants' access to vaccines

Improving the evidence base for vaccination programmes for United States–bound refugees

In an evaluation in 2019 of the United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, the United States Department of State, and IOM's joint global vaccination programme for United States–bound refugees, it was found out that the programme's immunization schedule included 11 vaccines preventing 14 diseases, in more than 80 countries in Africa, the Americas, Asia, Europe and the Middle East. The lessons learned from this programme can be adopted by similar programmes implemented in the pre-migration setting, in the context of 3.3/3.b programming.

3.c Increasing development and retention of the health workforce by engaging the diaspora

Data to engage the health diaspora of the Eastern Mediterranean region

IOM and WHO jointly conducted in 2021 a review compiling and summarizing available data on existing health diaspora organizations and institutions, and challenges in relation to the emigration of health professionals in the Eastern Mediterranean region. This revealed that engaging the diaspora brings about opportunities to help strengthen the health workforce and health systems, and that it needs to be anchored on well-coordinated and supported government programmes to yield a sustainable impact.

Source: Migration Health Research Portal, available at https://migrationhealthresearch.iom.int/publications-search.

The COVID-19 pandemic

The COVID-19 pandemic has exposed vulnerabilities and has often been challenging in many ways on refugees and migrants, especially those in irregular and precarious situations, who have experienced higher rates of infection and death (Caron and Adegboye, 2021). These groups have also experienced difficulties in accessing COVID-19 vaccines.

Refugees and migrants have been disproportionately affected by both the direct effects of the COVID-19 pandemic and the restrictive migration measures put in place, which, in turn, have hampered coordinated and consistent public health responses. They have also been particularly hit hard by the economic slowdowns associated with restrictive lockdowns. The recently published report titled *Refugees and Migrants in Times of COVID-19: Mapping Trends of Public Health and Migration Policies and Practices* (WHO, 2021a) – the first in the series of the GEHM[57] – mapped how the needs of refugees and migrants have been addressed in COVID-19 responses across countries, and how these have varied considerably from inclusive policies to discriminatory practices.

Many countries ensured access to health care for refugees and migrants regardless of migration status, and many also suspended forced returns and prioritized alternatives to immigration detention. An integrated approach to migration and public health policies covering protection-sensitive access to territories, a flexible approach to migration status, and non-discriminatory access to health care is suggested as a policy consideration to uphold international conventions protecting the right to health without discrimination for refugees and migrants.

On 18 December 2020, the International Migrants Day, and during the height of the pandemic, WHO launched a report[58] from the ApartTogether global study to assess the public health and social impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on refugees and migrants. Based on the overview of refugees' and migrants' self-reported impact through information collected directly from 30,000 refugees and migrants from 159 countries around the world (residing across 170 countries), the report outlined policy considerations on several aspects – reduction of barriers to seeking health care for refugees and migrants, public health measures to prevent COVID-19, targeted and accessible information for all, combating discrimination, improving daily living conditions, provision of psychological support during and after the pandemic, and fostering connectedness and participation of refugees and migrants. It was a joint effort between WHO (across its regional offices), the United Nations system, and a collaboration of research centres led by Ghent University (Belgium) and the University of Copenhagen (Denmark).

All the above efforts reiterated the importance of high-quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by migratory status, which are comparable across countries and over time – a hallmark requirement for global and regional monitoring, ultimately to drive progress in achieving global goals and targets, including towards the achievement of the SDGs, thus leaving no one behind.

The COVID-19 pandemic needs to be controlled everywhere, to reduce or eliminate transmission if it is not to continue creating humanitarian and economic havoc around the world. For all countries, the preeminent guiding principle for national equity is that there should be equitable access to vaccines for all. This includes refugees, migrants, asylum seekers and internally displaced persons (IDPs). To support this objective, countries have a responsibility to develop national deployment and vaccination plans based around six core principles that should guide vaccine distribution: human well-being, global equity, reciprocity, equal respect, national equity and legitimacy (WHO, 2021b).

Public health services

Globally, public health services have given low priority to health investment, and there is a clear need now after the pandemic to "build back better" and update and upgrade public health infrastructures to cope with today's new threats. UHC is an effective tool to address health needs among refugees and migrants, protect global public health, facilitate integration, and contribute to social and economic development. In response, national health policies and supporting legislative and financial frameworks should promote the right to health for all. All countries need robust and resilient health services of good quality, which can respond to the needs of all their populations, including those who are vulnerable. For refugees and migrants, systems must be responsive to their languages and their unique health problems – for example, reproductive and child health, mental health, and trauma from injuries and violence.

---

[57] The Global Evidence Review on Health and Migration (GEHM) series addresses knowledge gaps on the health status and health policies related to refugees and migrants by summarizing the best available evidence worldwide and proposing policy considerations. Several other GEHMs are in various stages of preparations.
[58] See: WHO, 2020.

Responding to the challenges: Strengthening the evidence base

To be successful, health policies, strategies and plans require significantly improved data and information on health needs and responses at the whole-of-population level, as well as for groups who may often be vulnerable – such as refugees and many migrants, especially irregular migrants and those in precarious situations – as a basis for planning, service delivery, and monitoring and evaluation.

Figure 12. Cyclical data process

The cyclical process from data collection to use in policy, programmes and budget formulations, along with the perpetual increase of quality and integrity, is denoted in Figure 12.

To promote this critical availability of data, information and evidence, WHO Headquarters has established the Division of Data, Analytics and Delivery for Impact (DDI), which is responsible for the data governance mechanisms across the organization. DDI does not act to centralize all data functions of the organization but works as a "data hub" – across WHO programmes and global, regional and country WHO offices, where the latter serve as "data spokes".

This hub-and-spoke model is supported by a Hub and Spoke Collaborative, which also allows for specific technical programmes to develop and share their data and related experiences for the benefit of others, such as the PHM's engagement with the United Nations Experts Group on Migration Statistics or the Experts Group on Refugee and IDP Statistics.

While the SDG indicator framework contains over 50 health and health-related indicators, unfortunately there are no specific indicators on health and migration. This makes it very difficult to understand how far refugees and migrants may be left behind vis-à-vis their health status, trends or needs. It is not currently possible to meet Objective 1 of the Global Compact for Migration with its aspiration to "collect and utilize accurate and disaggregated data as a basis for evidence-based policies".

Target 17.18 is aimed at enhancing capacity-building support, for countries to significantly increase the availability of high-quality, timely, and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts (see Chapter 13). Since we missed the SDG target 17.18 deadline of 2020, during the comprehensive review of the SDG indicator framework, the indicators have been realigned to focus on national statistical capacity, legislation and plans – based on the assessment of the needs of the national statistical systems, especially those in low- and middle-income countries.

This requirement has been reaffirmed by the need during the COVID-19 pandemic for multilevel, disaggregated, and timely health data and information for effective policies and targeted decision-making to manage transmission, and for pandemic response and recovery.

To date, therefore, the information available at all levels is inadequate for policy and decision-making on the health of refugees and migrants, and is often limited to migration flow and some demographic characteristics.

There are several current challenges in establishing this evidence base. Many countries have poor legislation on the health and financing needs of refugees and migrants; what data there are may not be in an accessible form; data may be fragmented and incomplete – for example, using an unclear definition of "migratory status" or covering noncommunicable diseases unsatisfactorily; the available data often do not cover undocumented migrants; and often little data are available about health system responses.

The World Health Organization's response

Building a solid evidence base for health and migration is of crucial importance for WHO and its PHM to support implementation of the GAP as well as its primary goal to serve WHO member States in addressing the public health aspects of people on the move.

To promote implementation of the GAP at the global, regional and country levels, WHO established the global PHM, with the remit to provide global leadership and advocacy; set norms and standards for health and migration; promote a research agenda; strengthen data and information gathering; provide specialist technical assistance to WHO member States, Headquarters technical departments, regional and country offices, and partners; and promote multilateral action and international cooperation. Further, with the above in mind, WHO PHM is establishing a global data centre on health and migration with the ultimate goal of having regular high-quality, timely, and robust data on health and migration first and foremost at the country level, as well as helping conduct baseline and period assessments of health and migration across WHO member States. Such assessments involve reviewing existing health information systems that integrate information on refugees and migrants, along with health system responses to various health needs of refugees and migrants, conducting topical and periodic surveys, and other related issues, through the development of methodologies and tools for standard data-collection modules from national health information systems and other administrative records or surveys.

3 GOOD HEALTH
AND WELL-BEING

SDG 3:
*Ensure healthy
lives and
promote
well-being
for all at all ages*

Boosting integration of migration health in health information systems: IOM examples

Janice Lopez, Sweetmavourneen Agan, Kolitha Wickramage

Beyond improving data on migrants in relation to specific SDG 3 targets, it is also necessary to work towards longer-term integration of migration considerations into household surveys in order to regularly generate representative and policy-relevant data on this to inform health policies and programming.

Migrant Health Country Profile tool

IOM, in partnership with academia and country-level partners, spearheaded the development of the Migrant Health Country Profile tool (MHCP) aimed at identifying sources of migration and health data at the national level – from either traditional or non-traditional (agency-based) data sources – and describing existing domestic policies and legal frameworks, relevant stakeholders, and health/social services available related to migration health. The tool aims to characterize how data are disaggregated according to migratory status within routine health information systems, disease surveillance systems, national public health registries, disease prevention and control programmes, demographic and health surveys, health insurance data sets, big data sources and others. The resulting data and composite map may be harnessed to formulate a migration health country profile. The tool underwent phase 1 feasibility analysis across five North African countries (Morocco, Egypt, Libya, Tunisia and Yemen). Evaluation showed that it contributed to improving the understanding of the sources and types of migration-related health data and migrant-health-related policies existing at the country level. The MHCP tool is currently undergoing phase 2 development across the Middle East and North African region, and once formulated, it may form a useful "compass" to guide policymakers, researchers, practitioners and advocates in navigating the landscape of migration health data.

The Electronic Personal Health Record to foster access to health and integration of migrants

The Electronic Personal Health Record (e-PHR) was developed in 2016 to establish a more comprehensive data-based approach to foster health provision for migrants arriving in Europe, and to facilitate follow-up and continuity of care. The e-PHR presents an example of enhancing health monitoring and health information systems as well as ensuring continuity of care for migrants, including refugees. The tool was requested by the European Commission in the context of large numbers of new arrivals to the region challenging domestic health systems and demonstrating the need to expedite implementation of European Union directives regarding cross-border care and data sharing. It is a resource for health professionals aiding health assessments and medical follow-ups for newly arrived migrants. After a pilot phase in Croatia, Greece, Italy and Slovenia, IOM (in coordination with Member States) implemented and consolidated the use of the e-PHR as a single tool for health assessments in European Union countries, and it also developed a revised version of the tool and its related electronic platform, expanding its usage to Bulgaria, Cyprus and Serbia while scaling up in Croatia, Greece, Italy and Slovenia. The tool also supports health professionals in getting a comprehensive view of the person's health status and needs during clinical encounters and/or treatments. For authorized users, records are retrievable from multiple locations within the Member States and across borders, and the e-PHR is accompanied by a handbook providing wider guidance on the health assessment process for migrants. In addition, Member States are supported in building the capacity of health mediators, selected among migrant populations to provide training on health mediation and on the electronic platform usage. As of 31 January 2019, over 24,000 health assessment have been done using the e-PHR. It can generate tailored reports, which highlight the main disease trends and needs across the migrant population, and this aggregate information is important public health information for decision makers. There is now a need to further develop and disseminate the e-PHR implementation module of governance across Europe, ensuring that health checks are offered and provided to guarantee access to health care for all migrants requiring health protection. With the current pandemic, the e-PHR is even more needed in the context of cross-border care and data sharing.

Source: Zenner et al., 2021.

REFERENCES

Alvarez-del Arco, D., S. Monge, A. Azcoaga, I. Rio, V. Hernando, C. Gonzalez, B. Alejos, A.M. Caro, S. Perez-Cachafeiro, O. Ramirez-Rubio, F. Bolumar, T. Noori and J. Del Amo
2013   HIV testing and counselling for migrant populations living in high-income countries: A systematic review. *European Journal of Public Health*, 23(6):1039–1045.

Benach, J., C. Muntaner, C. Delclos, M. Menéndez and C. Ronquillo
2011   Migration and "low-skilled" workers in destination countries. *PLoS Medicine*, 8(6):e1001043.

Blackmore, R., J.A. Boyle, M. Fazel, S. Ranasinha, K.M. Gray, G. Fitzgerald, M. Misso and M. Gibson-Helm
2020   The prevalence of mental illness in refugees and asylum seekers: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS Medicine*, 17(9):e1003337.

Carney, M.A. and K.C. Krause
2020   Immigration/migration and healthy publics: The threat of food insecurity. *Palgrave Communications*, 6.

Caron, R.M. and A.R.A. Adegboye
2021   COVID-19: A syndemic requiring an integrated approach for marginalized populations. *Public Health*, 9.

Endler, M., T. Al Haidari, S. Chowdhury, J. Christilaw, F. El Kak, D. Galimberti, M. Gutierrez, A. Ramirez-Negrin, H. Senanayake, R. Sohail, M. Temmerman and K. Gemzell-Danielsson
2020   Sexual and reproductive health and rights of refugee and migrant women: Gynecologists' and obstetricians' responsibilities. *International Journal of Gynecology and Obstetrics*, 149(1):113–119.

Heslehurst, N., H. Brown, A. Pemu, H. Coleman and J. Rankin
2018   Perinatal health outcomes and care among asylum seekers and refugees: A systematic review of systematic reviews. *BMC Medicine*, 16.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)
2021   Migration and health. Migration Data Portal, 6 May. Available at www.migrationdataportal.org/themes/migration-and-health.

Keygnaert, I.
2014   Sexual violence and sexual health in refugees, asylum seekers and undocumented migrants in Europe and the European neighbourhood: Determinants and desirable prevention [PhD thesis]. Ghent University.

Kirmayer, L.J., L. Narasiah, M. Munoz, M. Rashid, A.G. Ryder, J. Guzder, G. Hassan, C. Rousseau and K. Pottie
2011   Common mental health problems in immigrants and refugees: General approach in primary care. *Canadian Medical Association Journal*, 183(12):E959–E967.

Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)
1994   *Refugee Children: Guidelines on Protection and Care*. Geneva. Available at www.unhcr.org/protection/children/3b84c6c67/refugee-children-guidelines-protection-care.html.
2018   *Global Compact on Refugees*. New York. Available at www.unhcr.org/5c658aed4.
2021   *Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2020*. Statistics and Demographics Section, Copenhagen. Available at www.unhcr.org/60b638e37/unhcr-global-trends-2020.

Save the Children and UNHCR
2018   *Infant and Young Child Feeding in Refugee Situations: A Multi-sectoral Framework for Action*. Geneva. Available at https://reliefweb.int/report/world/infant-and-young-child-feeding-refugee-situations-multi-sectoral-framework-action.

Tanabe, M., A. Myers, P. Bhandari, N. Cornier, S. Doraiswamy and S. Krause
2017   Family planning in refugee settings: findings and actions from a multi-country study. *Conflict and Health*, 11.

United Nations General Assembly (UNGA)
2019   Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 19 December 2018. Seventy-third Session, Agenda items 14 and 119. Available at www.ohchr.org/en/migration/global-compact-safe-orderly-and-regular-migration-gcm.

World Health Organization (WHO)
2019a   Promoting the health of refugees and migrants. Draft global action plan, 2019–2023. Seventy-second World Health Assembly, Agenda item 12.4. A72/25 Rev.1. Available at www.who.int/publications/i/item/promoting-the-health-of-refugees-and-migrants-draft-global-action-plan-2019-2023.
2019b   Migrants and refugees at higher risk of developing ill health than host populations, reveals first-ever WHO report on the health of displaced people in Europe. 21 January. Available at www.euro.who.int/en/media-centre/sections/press-releases/2019/migrants-and-refugees-at-higher-risk-of-developing-ill-health-than-host-populations-reveals-first-ever-who-report-on-the-health-of-displaced-people-in-europe.
2020   *ApartTogether Survey: Preliminary Overview of Refugees and Migrants Self-Reported Impact of COVID-19.* Geneva. Available at https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/337931.
2021a   *Refugees and Migrants in Times of COVID-19: Mapping Trends of Public Health and Migration Policies and Practices.* Geneva. Available at www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789240028906.
2021b   COVID-19 immunization in refugees and migrants: principles and key considerations. Interim guidance, 21 August. Available at www.who.int/publications/i/item/covid-19-immunization-in-refugees-and-migrants-principles-and-key-considerations-interim-guidance-31-august-2021.
n.d.a   Migration and health: key issues. Available at www.euro.who.int/en/health-topics/health-determinants/migration-and-health/migration-and-health-in-the-european-region/migration-and-health-key-issues.
n.d.b   Ensuring a coordinated and effective mental health response in emergencies. Available at www.who.int/activities/ensuring-a-coordinated-and-effective-mental-health-response-in-emergencies.

Zenner, D., A. Requena-Méndez, S. Schillinger, E. Val and K. Wickramage
2021   Health and illness in newly arrived migrants and refugees arriving at Europe's shores: Analysis of the electronic personal health record system in seven countries. Available at https://migrationhealthresearch.iom.int/health-and-illness-newly-arrived-migrants-and-refugees-arriving-europes-shores-analysis-electronic.

GOAL 16/8/5: COMBATING TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS AND PROMOTING SAFE AND REGULAR MIGRATION

Fabrizio Sarrica and Claire Healy, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime

In 2015, the United Nations adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Among the targets to be achieved by member States by 2030, three make explicit reference to trafficking in persons. Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) target 5.2 calls for eliminating all forms of violence against all women and girls in public and private spheres, such as trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation; and SDG target 8.7 calls for immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour and end modern slavery and human trafficking. In the context of SDG 16, on promoting peaceful and inclusive societies and access to justice for all, target 16.2 calls for an end to child trafficking by 2030. The fact that different SDGs make reference to trafficking in persons emphasizes how this is a multifaceted phenomenon, with criminal, violence, human rights, migration, labour and gender implications. In addition, SDG target 10.7 commits the international community to facilitating "orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies".

To monitor implementation of these targets, the United Nations Statistical Commission's Inter-agency and Expert Group on SDG Indicators recommended, among others, that SDG indicator 16.2.2 measures the "number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation". The data for this indicator are collected every year by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) for the production of the *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons* (2021), and can also be used to measure progress on SDG targets 5.2 and 8.7. Over the last decade, academia and the research community at large have made improvements in gathering solid data on trafficking in persons and the smuggling of migrants. UNODC is a member of Alliance 8.7, a global partnership committed to taking effective measures to eradicate forced labour, modern slavery, human trafficking and child labour. While there is no specific SDG indicator on combating migrant smuggling, promoting orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration is a key target, and the UNODC Observatory on Smuggling of Migrants contributes to informing the relevant indicators, as set out below.

Measuring trafficking in persons

The quest for reliable and comparable data on trafficking in persons (TIP) was boosted by the adoption of the SDGs in 2015 – and in particular SDG target 16.2. Monitoring progress in achieving the targets related to trafficking in persons in the framework of the SDGs requires countries to report the number of trafficking victims per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation. This, in turn, requires increased efforts to improve national and regional systems for collecting and analysing TIP data, covering all of the constituent elements of the trafficking crime: the act, the means and the purpose in the case of adults, and the act and purpose in the case of children.

Innovative methodologies

In the field of measuring the prevalence of trafficking in persons, UNODC has successfully tested an innovative methodology, the multiple systems estimation (MSE), with the purpose of estimating the number of victims of trafficking in a certain target country. UNODC has implemented the MSE in four countries in Europe. The application of MSE offers countries a robust and cost-effective means of estimating the total number of victims, in

order to accurately compute SDG indicator 16.2.2. Scaling up the implementation of this methodology across the world will foster a more comprehensive and solid understanding of the extent and trends of trafficking.

In the Netherlands, the study found that there are four to five times as many presumed victims of trafficking as those who are detected. For 2015 – the latest year for which data were available – this would mean a total of 6,250–6,500 victims. The victimization rate – the metric required by SDG indicator 16.2.2 – is 37 victims per 100,000 population. Three other countries, Ireland, Romania and Serbia, have also carried out national MSE studies in partnership with UNODC and the Walk Free foundation. The studies applied the MSE methodology and found that in 2016, there were nearly 200 trafficking victims in Ireland (3 per 100,000 population), around 1,200 in Romania (6 per 100,000) and 970 in Serbia (12 per 100,000).

MSE is a promising methodology that is still under development. However, not all member States can adopt it to report on trafficking in persons. MSE can be used only when relatively robust information is already available, such as at least three lists of recorded victims of trafficking, each of them with a minimum number of victims detected of around 100.

Official statistics

Meanwhile, official statistics, though they cannot be used to measure the extent of the phenomenon, can be used to track the trends and characteristics of trafficking in persons. The UNODC *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons* is currently the only international source of information on detected victims of trafficking in persons, by age, sex and form of exploitation suffered, for a large number of countries. The data on trafficking in persons regularly collected by UNODC can also be used by member States to track progress towards the realization of the three relevant SDG targets.

The report is based on different types of information, with the main source for the analysis consisting of official statistics on detected cases of trafficking in persons, collected from 148 countries for the 2020 edition. The countries covered encompass more than 95 per cent of the world's population. The *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons* has become an established and authoritative resource. Over more than a decade, in the context of the Global Reports, UNODC has collected information for about 350,000 detected victims of trafficking, along with hundreds of thousands suspected or convicted traffickers. The official statistics collected refer to cases of trafficking officially recorded by national authorities reporting on the profiles of victims and offenders, as well as the characteristics of trafficking cases.

On the basis of this wealth of information, UNODC generates baseline data for indicator 16.2.2 to define trends on the profiles of the victims detected, including the sex and age, as well as on the form of exploitation, concerning the subgroup of trafficking victims detected. The Global Report data on child trafficking, for instance, show an increasing trend in the share of trafficked children detected globally since the data has been available (2004), and that the shares of girls and boys among detected victims of human trafficking peaked in 2011 at 21 per cent and 13 per cent, respectively, of the cases detected by authorities that year. More recently, for the year 2018, the share of detected girls among victims of trafficking remained stable at about 20 per cent, while the share of boys increased to 15 per cent. As a result, the share of child trafficking among the total number of detected victims remained stable at around 30 per cent (see Figure 13 below).

For target 5.2, the UNODC data show that the share of women and girls among detected trafficking victims is approximately 65 per cent, which is a significant and sustained reduction since 2004 (see Figure 14 below).

In connection with target 8.7, the UNODC data indicate that the share of victims of trafficking for forced labour among trafficking victims increased over the last 15 years. More recently, for 2018, this share remained broadly stable at about 38 per cent (see Figure 15 below).

Figure 13. Share of children among detected victims of trafficking in persons, by gender, 2004–2018
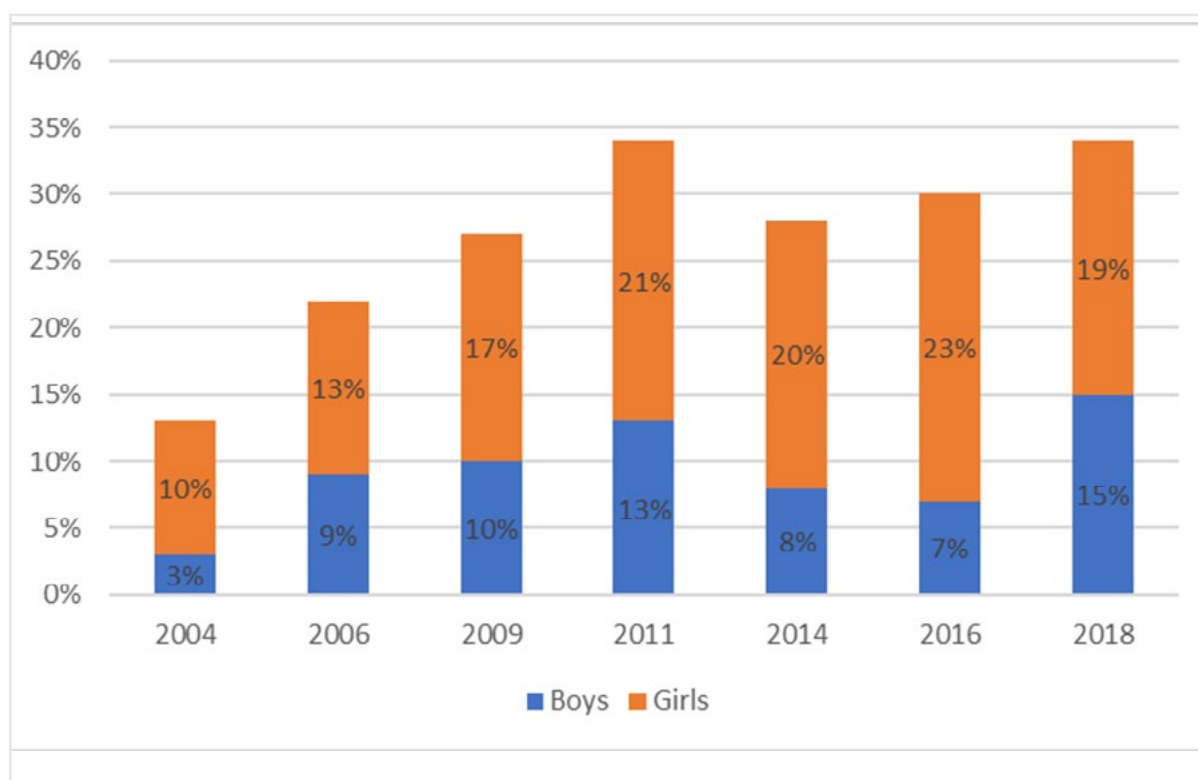
Source: UNODC elaboration of national data.

Figure 14. Share of women and girls among detected victims of trafficking in persons, 2004–2018
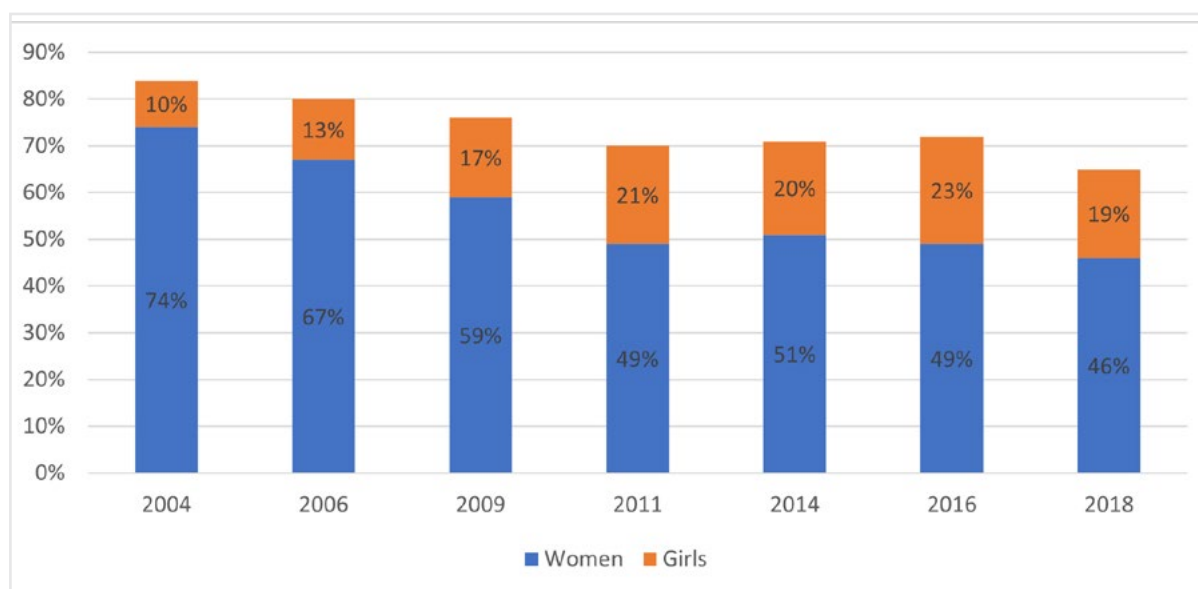
Source: UNODC elaboration of national data.

Figure 15. Share of detected victims of trafficking in persons by forms of exploitation, 2007–2018

Source: UNODC elaboration of national data, available at www.unodc.org/unodc/data-and-analysis/glotip.html.

Measuring smuggling of migrants

Smuggling of migrants is a crime that is receiving increased attention among policymakers and practitioners, as well as the media and the public at large. However, the evidence base for the crime and its impacts is sparse, and data collection at the global, regional and national levels is weak and patchy and lacks comparability. For this reason, the UNODC Observatory on Smuggling of Migrants was set up in 2019 to assess the characteristics, drivers and impacts of migrant smuggling in rapidly changing contexts.[59] While there is no smuggling-related SDG indicator, this indirectly contributes to the measurement of SDG target 10.7.

The data available on migrant smuggling, which can be an indirect indication of progress towards achieving target 10.7, are largely qualitative. Even in the case of States that are implementing the United Nations Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, they do not always collect data on related criminal justice processes in a systematic and comparable fashion. It is therefore a significant challenge to measure the extent of the phenomenon of migrant smuggling – who are the criminals and criminal groups involved, what proceeds criminals obtain and what fees are paid by refugees and migrants, and what human rights abuses are suffered in the context of migrant smuggling.

The Observatory seeks to fill this gap by providing up-to-date evidence on the modus operandi of migrant smugglers, smuggling routes, financial aspects, and abuses suffered in the context of migrant smuggling. The information is gathered through regular field research in origin, transit and destination countries, with people on the move, law enforcement, civil society and other key actors. This is complemented with targeted surveys with people on the move and migrant smugglers in origin and transit countries.

The information is updated on a regular basis to provide real-time information, and to allow for a longitudinal assessment of the data and information. The Observatory's first interactive StoryMap, launched in 2021, covers migrant smuggling in West Africa, North Africa and the Central Mediterranean. Among the findings are that the COVID-19 pandemic and related restrictions did not lead to a reduction in irregular migration and migrant smuggling on the Central Mediterranean route.

The Observatory currently involves research and data collection in 10 United Nations member States, as of September 2021 (Afghanistan, Italy, Libya, Mali, Morocco, the Netherlands, the Niger, Nigeria, Spain, Tunisia), with the objective of enhancing the evidence base for counter-smuggling response. It is expected to expand to cover an increasing number of countries by 2030, as well as increasing in impact as measured by the number of visits to

---

[59] More information is available at www.unodc.org/res/som/index.html.

the Observatory's online platform and the use of the data and information by States and other stakeholders. This provides access to robust information on trends in terms of combating migrant smuggling and reducing irregular migration (for an example, see Figure 16 below), in order to promote safe, orderly and regular migration and mobility, as per SDG target 10.7.

Figure 16. Departures and arrivals across the Central Mediterranean route
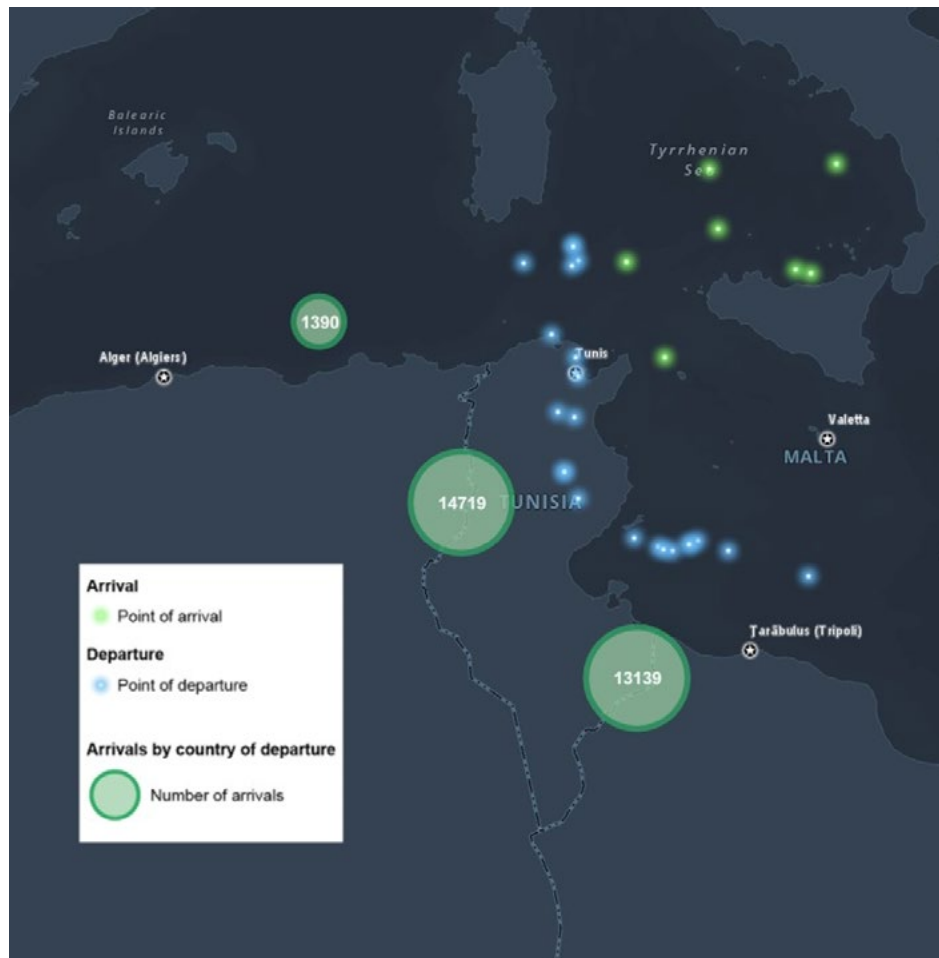
Source: UNODC Observatory on Smuggling of Migrants, available at www.unodc.org/res/som/index.html.

The SDGs have brought urgency and prominence to the need to measure progress in combating trafficking in persons and in promoting safe and regular migration, among other issues. Recent developments in estimating the prevalence of trafficking in persons and understanding the incidence of, and demand for, migrant smuggling through the UNODC Observatory on Smuggling of Migrants represent responses to this need.

REFERENCE

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC)

2021   *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons 2020*. Vienna. Available at www.unodc.org/unodc/data-and-analysis/glotip.html.

GOAL 16/8/5: LEVERAGING ADMINISTRATIVE DATA TO FIGHT HUMAN TRAFFICKING

Claire Galez-Davis, Harry Cook, Stine Laursen, Phineas Jasi and

Irina Todorova, IOM Migrant Protection and Assistance Division

Leveraging administrative data to fight human trafficking

Several of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) reference the eradication of trafficking in persons, as described in Chapter 11 – specifically, targets 5.2,[60] 8.7,[61] and 16.2.[62] Reaching these targets and complying with their reporting obligations require data and information on the crime. However, there is an acute lack of quality evidence and research for the development of national policies and programmes to combat human trafficking.[63] This is largely due to the lack of available data on human trafficking itself, which is a complex, clandestine crime designed to be undetected.

In this chapter, we will describe the importance of administrative data to inform policy under all three SDG targets (including with respect to indicator 16.2.2) and IOM's work in this respect. We conclude by underlining the important role of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in the domain of human-trafficking data.

Prevalence and administrative data

Obtaining data for indicator 16.2.2[64] is challenging, to say the least. Indeed, this indicator is about the prevalence of trafficking in persons, which is, loosely defined, how much trafficking in persons is taking place in a given place at a given time. Historically, producing estimates of the prevalence of trafficking based on the collection of new primary data – for example, through surveys – has been difficult. Trafficking in persons is a rare event, statistically speaking, so victims are hard to reach via traditional surveys. In addition, trafficking in persons is a crime and therefore meant to go undetected. This difficulty in reaching the relevant population also means that even if some victims were to be identified in a survey, it would likely be in very small numbers, making it difficult to extrapolate any results to the broader population. Last but not least, there are ethical considerations related to surveys in terms of the sensitivity of certain questions (for example, questions related to sexual exploitation or violence). For all these reasons, reporting prevalence is difficult.

On the other hand, many counter-trafficking agencies (social and child protection authorities, law enforcement, courts, civil society organizations, etc.) routinely collect information on the people they serve (victims) or arrest/ prosecute (perpetrators). These data, also referred to as administrative data, constitute one of the only, and often the main, window into the crime. They provide a wealth of information on a relatively large sample of a population that would be otherwise hard to reach. They are routinely collected, and at little cost, since they are part of an agency's existing operations. In short, administrative data are a key resource in providing baseline data on the identified population of victims and perpetrators of trafficking in persons.

---

[60] Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation.

[61] Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking, and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labour in all its forms.

[62] End abuse, exploitation, trafficking, and all forms of violence and torture against children.

[63] This chapter uses the terms "human trafficking" and "trafficking in persons" interchangeably.

[64] Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation.

Administrative data are increasingly used to inform estimates of the prevalence of trafficking in persons and hence contribute to indicator 16.2.2. Where prevalence estimates already exist, administrative data can be used to extrapolate the profile of the trafficked population, since they are sometimes the only source of data that allow for a breakdown of population by age, gender and type of exploitation (cf. paragraph above on the difficulty in surveying victims of trafficking). Administrative data can also be used to complement other sources to estimate prevalence. For example, in the *Global Estimates of Modern Slavery* (ILO et al., 2017), administrative data from IOM's database of victims of trafficking were used[65] in combination with 54 national probabilistic surveys to estimate forced sexual exploitation, forced labour of children and the duration of forced labour. Finally, some trafficking prevalence estimates are based entirely on administrative data, like the multiple systems estimation exercises described in Chapter 11.

Given the importance of administrative data, both on their own and as a means to estimate prevalence, IOM has been working towards making more quality data available for research and analysis. However, using administrative data for analysis and prevalence estimation is not without challenges. Administrative data sources are often diverse (ranging from law enforcement to civil society organizations, as described above), mostly disconnected and limited in scope, which creates silos and leads to fragmented knowledge. There are also confidentiality issues involved with sharing and publishing data on trafficking in persons, given that such data often pertain to individuals. Victims in particular face risks of retaliation and re-victimization, if they were ever identified in a data set by their trafficker.

The Counter-Trafficking Data Collaborative

In answer to the above-mentioned challenges, IOM established the Counter-Trafficking Data Collaborative (CTDC), the first global repository of primary case data on human trafficking with data contributed by organizations around the world.[66] CTDC provides a platform for front-line organizations to publish their data safely and in a standardized format, so they can contribute to the evidence base. An unprecedented achievement in the field of migration data, CTDC currently combines some of the largest human trafficking case data sets in the world, resulting in one centralized data set with information on over 156,000 cases.[67] Spanning the period 2002–2021, the CTDC data set provides crucial information on the sociodemographic characteristics of victims and the crime itself (means of control, relationship with recruiters, etc.) – all of which is vital information needed to better prevent trafficking in persons, assist survivors, and prosecute perpetrators and to reach all three SDG targets. The paragraphs below highlight key findings from the CTDC database.

Spanning the period 2002–2021, the CTDC data set provides crucial information on the sociodemographic characteristics of victims and the crime itself (means of control, relationship with recruiters, etc.) – all of which is vital information needed to better prevent trafficking in persons, assist survivors, and prosecute perpetrators and to reach all three SDG targets. The paragraphs below highlight key findings from the CTDC database.

As shown in Figure 17, 73 per cent of the victims in the CTDC database are women or girls.[68] Figure 18 shows the age and gender characteristics of victims. While boys under 18 constitute 22 per cent of identified male victims (versus 15% for girls), male victims overall tend to be slightly older than female victims.

---

[65] IOM has been implementing counter-trafficking programmes since 1994. Since then, the Organization has assisted around 100,000 trafficked persons. It is the largest provider of services to victims of human trafficking across the globe. Through its direct-assistance activities, IOM has developed its central case-management database, which contains information on over 72,000 individual cases; it is the largest database of its kind in the world.

[66] More information is available at www.ctdatacollaborative.org.

[67] The first version of the Counter-Trafficking Data Collaborative included data from IOM, Polaris and Liberty Shared. In the last iteration, the initiative was scaled up to include two more partners: the Portuguese Observatory on Trafficking in Human Beings (Observatório do Tráfico de Seres Humanos, or OTSH, CTDC's first government partner) and A21. CTDC also presents data from the United Kingdom Home Office's National Referral Mechanism.

[68] The data set also includes individuals that are gender nonconforming; however, the group makes up only 0.3 per cent of the data set and is not included in the graph below or the subsequent analyses to avoid identifiability and maintain privacy.

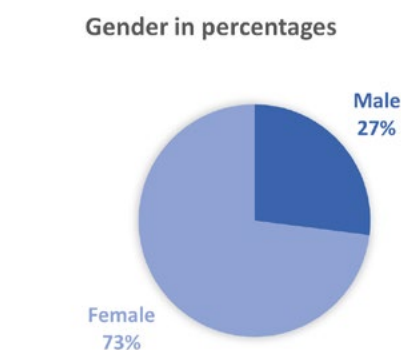**Figure 17. Gender of victims of trafficking recorded by the Counter-Trafficking Data Collaborative (2002–2021)**

Gender in percentages

Male
27%

Female
73%

Figure 18. Age distribution of victims of trafficking recorded by the Counter-Trafficking Data Collaborative (2002–2021)

Age distribution by gender in %

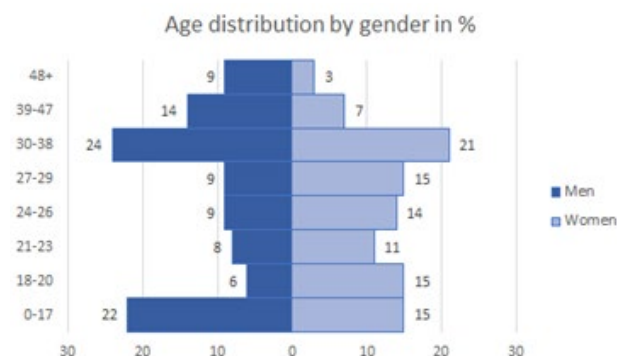| Age	Men	Women
48+	9	3
39-47	14	7
30-38	24	21
27-29	9	15
24-26	9	14
21-23	8	11
18-20	6	15
0-17	22	15

■ Men ■ Women

Figure 19. Type of exploitation by gender, reported by victims of trafficking recorded by the Counter-Trafficking Data Collaborative (2002–2021)

TYPE OF EXPLOITATION BY GENDER

■ Sexual exploitation ■ Forced labour ■ Other exploitation

MALE: Other exploitation 11%, Forced labour 75%, Sexual exploitation 14%

FEMALE: Other exploitation 7%, Forced labour 25%, Sexual exploitation 67%

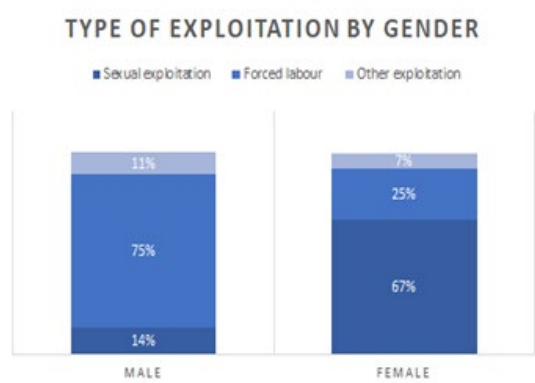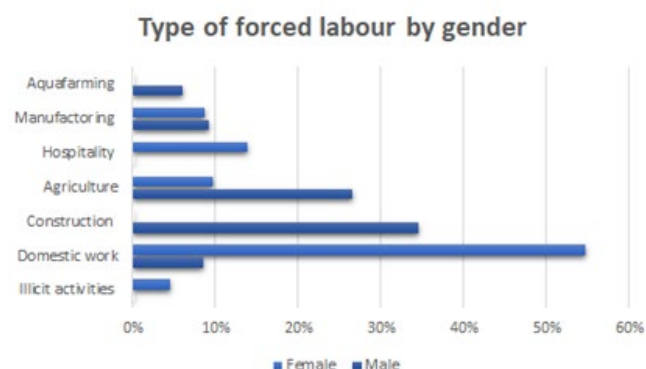**Figure 20. Type of forced labour by gender, reported by victims of trafficking recorded by the Counter-Trafficking Data Collaborative (2002–2021)**

Type of forced labour by gender

Aquafarming
Manufactoring
Hospitality
Agriculture
Construction
Domestic work
Illicit activities

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60%

■ Female ■ Male

Source: CTDC, n.d.

The most common forms of exploitation reported by identified victims of trafficking are sexual exploitation and forced labour, as can be seen in Figure 19. The difference across gender is large, as 67 per cent of women and girls reported having been sexually exploited, versus 85 per cent of non-conforming victims and 14 per cent of boys and men. The CTDC data allow going beyond the type of exploitation and offers the possibility to analyse the specific sector/type of exploitation that identified victims of trafficking have reported, as shown in Figure 20 for forced labour. Identified female victims reported exploitation in domestic work much more frequently for example, while male victims reported exploitation in construction more often than female victims. Further analysis shows that children reported begging and peddling much more frequently than adult victims did.

The CTDC data set also makes it possible to explore the means of control used by traffickers as well as the relationship between recruiter and victim (as reported by the victims), as shown in Figures 21 and 22 below. How victims of trafficking are trapped in trafficking situations and by whom they are recruited are key to understanding the process of trafficking and to preventing it. The most frequent means of control reported by male victims is earnings confiscation, whereas for female victim it is threats. While male victims were more likely to report being recruited by a friend or acquaintance, female victims reported being recruited by all three groups (friend, relative or intimate partner) almost at the same frequency. Previous analyses have shown that children are overwhelmingly recruited by family members (IOM, 2017).
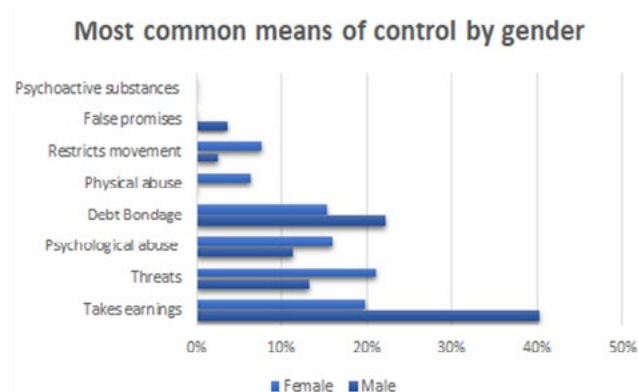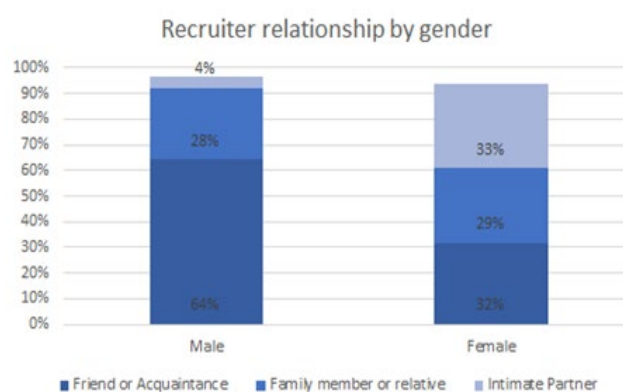
Source: CTDC, n.d.

The above findings demonstrate that the whole trafficking process is highly gendered, with large differences across female and male victims throughout the trafficking process, from recruitment to sector of exploitation. While this type of information is relevant to inform all SDG targets related to trafficking in persons, it is particularly so for target 5.2, which focuses on women and girls.

More insights are available on the CTDC website, through visualizations and maps. De-identified data sets are also publicly available for download.[69] Given the privacy concerns inherent in individual case data on victims of trafficking, these data sets are heavily de-identified, and until recently it meant that the published data set was highly redacted compared to the original version.

However, in 2021, IOM released the first ever synthetic data set on survivors of trafficking in persons, in partnership with Microsoft. This data set is generated by an algorithm which accurately preserves the statistical properties and relationships in the original data. However, its records no longer correspond to actual individuals – instead, each row is constructed entirely from common attribute combinations. This means that none of the attribute combinations in the synthetic data set can be linked to distinctive individuals (or even small groups of distinctive individuals) in the sensitive data set, or the world at large. In short, the synthetic data set is the largest collection of primary human trafficking case data ever made available to the public, while enabling strong privacy guarantees that preserve the anonymity and safety of victims and survivors. Moreover, the use of synthetic data enables CTDC to publish visualizations and dashboards that are far more interactive, with unlimited drill-down and analytic functionality since there will be no risk of an individual being identified. While this new data set has already allowed safely releasing more data than ever before on CTDC, the new privacy-preserving algorithm has also been made freely available via GitHub. This means that any organization who wishes to do so is now able to release their data in a safe and privacy-preserving manner – and therefore contribute to the evidence base for trafficking in persons.

Towards international standardization of data collection and processes

CTDC helps to overcome data privacy and confidentiality issues. But as mentioned earlier, part of the challenge in working with administrative data is also that they are diverse. Front-line organizations may collect similar data, but it is not always the case, and even when they do, they may operate under different definitions of key concepts. On the other hand, there is no international standard which they can use to harmonize data and processes, and which would make it easier to pool different sources of data and gain a more complete picture (including prevalence estimates).

Since 2019, IOM and the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) have been working together to bolster the capacity of governments and other stakeholders to collect, manage, and use high-quality, comparable primary data on human trafficking. Working together with research, government and non-government organization

---

[69] More information is available at www.ctdatacollaborative.org/global-k-anonymized-dataset and www.ctdatacollaborative.org/global-synthetic-dataset.

partners, they are developing and disseminating the first international standards and guidance on the definition, collection, management and safe use of administrative data on human trafficking. The aim is that governments around the world collect data that are comparable, high-quality and safely used to develop the evidence base. The forthcoming International Classification Standard for Administrative Data on Trafficking in Persons (ICS-TIP) provides a concrete data standard to be used, and its accompanying manual provide guidance spanning the whole data cycle – from data collection to data analysis and presentation, including data sharing. The manual notably promotes data governance frameworks, bringing together diverse stakeholders to decide how data are to be shared, with whom, and for what purposes they may be used.

The ICS-TIP and its companion guidance manual are primarily targeted at government agencies tasked with gathering data from the various front-line agencies active at the national level (although many of the insights can be useful to other counter-trafficking actors). To support front-line agencies, IOM has developed the Human Trafficking Case Data Standard Toolkit and Guidance (HTCDS). The toolkit embeds the ICS-TIP and standardized fields related to case management, but it also provides tools and guidance for front-line counter-trafficking agencies on the collection, management and potential sharing of information related to human trafficking cases in a standardized way. HTCDS is publicly available on GitHub, a platform which fosters exchange and feedback among the field's practitioners as well.

Conclusion: Has the adoption of the 2030 Agenda had any impact on human trafficking data?

The inclusion of targets to eradicate trafficking in persons in the 2030 Agenda, and the related need to measure progress through target indicators, has undoubtedly placed renewed emphasis on the need for better data on the crime and the poor state of evidence in the field. In the same way, the adoption of the 2030 Agenda has provided a political and technical platform from which to advocate and improve the collection, management and use of human trafficking administrative data. Recent efforts towards the provision of technical and ethical guidance for collecting, managing and using human trafficking data are made possible because of the desire to achieve relevant SDG targets by all actors. The 2030 Agenda has also provided a banner for partnerships in the field of counter-trafficking and helped convene all actors in the sector, at all levels (local, regional and global). Partnerships are particularly crucial when it comes to human trafficking, given its frequent cross-country nature and the need for integrated, multisectoral responses. Furthermore, through its ability to convene, the 2030 Agenda has helped to disseminate data and evidence on trafficking in persons, enabling reports and publications to reach a wider audience than they would otherwise.

More specifically, the choice of a target indicator focused on prevalence, while ambitious, is theoretically unambiguous and necessary; if we want to measure progress towards eradication, we need to measure reduction in prevalence. This has led to an increasing number of exercises by diverse actors, with a range of different methodologies, to estimate the scale of trafficking at various levels (e.g. national, regional, local or sectoral level) in different contexts. This investment and experimentation have been important in trying to meet the challenge set in the 2030 monitoring framework and in providing baseline evidence about the scale of trafficking in persons where such estimates have been possible. The advantages and limitations of these methodologies are more widely documented, understood and evaluated, with more specialists working on them, than ever before. Prevalence estimates are even being undertaken with the aim of evaluating the impact of anti-trafficking interventions.

However, there are still very few prevalence estimates that have been completed – particularly at the national level. Those that do exist tend to not be easy to compare. There are still no prevalence estimates at the global or regional level. Given the relatively nascent state of the field, the variety of approaches, and the highly technical nature of the methods, work conducted to date has been relatively top-down, led by a limited number of specialists through limited and specific funding instruments. There is a need to develop a bottom-up approach so that national actors, such as national statistical offices, have the tools and resources to plan and implement prevalence estimates to produce national statistics on a regular basis as part of the 2030 Agenda. This will require the production of international standard measurement frameworks, tools and guidance for estimating the prevalence of trafficking in persons, developed through multilateral, wide and inclusive processes. Finally, as highlighted in this chapter, given the challenges in estimating the prevalence of trafficking and the limited information such statistics provide, continued investment in, and openness to, a wide range of research and data sources on trafficking in persons is important. In particular, improving the capacity of anti-trafficking actors to produce high-quality administrative data, from their existing entry points to the hidden crime, is essential.

REFERENCES

Counter Trafficking Data Collaborative (CTDC)
    n.d.   Global data hub on human trafficking. Available at www.ctdatacollaborative.org/.

International Labour Office (ILO), Walk Free Foundation and International Organization for Migration (IOM)
    2017   *Global Estimates of Modern Slavery: Forced Labour and Forced Marriage*. Geneva. Available   at   www.alliance87.org/global_estimates_of_modern_slavery-forced_labour_and_forced_marriage.pdf.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)
    2017   Family members are involved in nearly half of child trafficking cases. Counter-Trafficking Data Collaborative. Available at www.iom.int/sites/g/files/tmzbdl486/files/our_work/DMM/MAD/Data%20Brief%20on%20Child%20Trafficking_CTDC.pdf.

GOAL 13: MONITORING CLIMATE AND MIGRATION TOPICS

Lorenzo Guadagno, IOM Migration, Environment and Climate Change Division

Nexus between climate action and migration

Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 13 ("Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts") acknowledges the need to step up climate action, in order to both keep the global average temperature below the 1.5°C increase over pre-industrial levels stipulated in the Paris Agreement and to strengthen our collective resilience to climate-related hazards and disasters. It calls, in particular, for integrating climate change in all relevant policies, strategies and plans (13.2); improving awareness on climate change impacts and climate action (13.3); and promoting related financial and knowledge transfer mechanisms (13.a and 13.b).

SDG 13 does not make explicit references to migration, and related reporting activities tend to primarily concentrate on the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions and the mitigation of climate change (United Nations, 2021a).[70] However, many of its targets and indicators[71] have significant human mobility implications:

(a) Displaced persons are a specific group among the disaster-affected persons mentioned in indicator 13.1.1.

(b) Migration, displacement and planned relocation considerations should be included in disaster risk reduction (DRR) strategies at the national (13.1.2) and local (13.1.3) levels, as well as in adaptation policies, strategies, plans and commitments (13.2.1).

(c) Knowledge and action related to human mobility in the context of disasters and climate change should systematically be part of education/awareness (13.3.1) and capacity-building efforts (13.3.2) all over the world.

Overall, efforts to curb emissions within lower boundaries and to limit the effects of climate change on ecosystems and societies will translate into less intense and more manageable hazards, disasters and environmental degradation processes.[72] Such events and processes are having, and are increasingly expected to produce, significant impacts on migration systems, including by driving displacement and migration; reducing their frequency and impacts has therefore become a key recommendation in both climate and migration forums and frameworks (UNGA, 2019).[73] At the same time, policy and operational efforts to effectively manage migration, displacement and planned relocations will be key to increasing the resilience and adaptive capacity of people and communities at risk, assisting affected persons, and ultimately avoiding negative impacts worldwide.

While no migration-specific targets and indicators are elaborated under SDG 13, diverse data on migration and displacement in the context of disasters and climate change, and on related policies and plans, are necessary to support overall advancement towards effective climate action as well as sustainable development.

---

[70] More information is available at https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/report/2021/goal-13/.

[71] More information is available at https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/indicators-list/.

[72] More information is available at www.ipcc.ch/sr15/.

[73] More information is available at https://unfccc.int/process-and-meetings/bodies/constituted-bodies/executive-committee-of-the-warsaw-international-mechanism-for-loss-and-damage-wim-excom/workshops-meetings/cop24-side-event-recommendations-of-the-task-force-on-displacement.

Linkages with other Sustainable Development Goals

Progress towards SDG 13 is a precondition to, and a product of, achieving a variety of other SDGs. As highlighted in other chapters in this publication, migration governance will be a key element to progress broadly towards sustainable development – but action on the displacement and migration implications of climate change is specifically linked with the following goals and targets:

(a) **Target 1.5:**

Reducing exposure and vulnerability to climate-related events and other disasters. Migration is a key strategy to build resilience for individuals, households and communities, while anticipating and addressing disaster displacement is key to reducing the hazards' impacts.

(b) **Goal 6:**

Clean water and sanitation. Under climate change scenarios, access to water will be one of the key dynamics shaping people's settlement and mobility. Ensuring that clean water is accessible to all will be essential to achieving safe and orderly migration for all.

(c) **Target 10.7:**

Facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration. The implementation of planned, well-managed migration policies will be key to managing the mobility implications of climate change.

(d) **Goal 11:**

Sustainable cities and communities. Planning for displacement and migration under climate change scenarios will be essential to planning and governing safe, resilient and inclusive cities.

(e) **Goal 15:**

Life on land. Under climate change scenarios, accounting for the impacts of population movements upon local land systems will be essential for the sustainable management of natural resources and ecosystems.

These interconnections highlight the importance of data on migration and displacement relevant not only towards SDG 13 but also for tracking progress on other objectives too. At the same time, they point to the fact that there might be overlaps between data collection to monitor progress in other SDGs and data collected explicitly towards SDG 13.

The data landscape

Scope and coverage of existing data on migration and climate change

"Climate migration" is a complex phenomenon with multiple data implications. Under climate change scenarios, most areas of the world are expected to experience degradation, leading to water, food and livelihood insecurity for local populations (Callaghan et al., 2021). However, the human mobility implications of these impacts are going to be very context-specific.

Climate migration may include population movements all along the forced–voluntary spectrum, ranging from disaster displacement to migration for employment, education or family reasons. It can be a matter of days, for disaster-affected persons who can quickly go back to their homes; seasons, for migrants who seek employment in a nearby town during the dry season; or a permanent occurrence, for people who leave areas that become inhabitable. It can also involve single individuals and households or whole communities. In most, but not all, cases, climate migration takes place within national borders and along existing routes. Moreover, in some cases, climate change might even lead to people becoming "trapped", by reducing their ability to invest in migration projects, or the availability of livelihood opportunities in traditional places of destination.

In fact, the impacts of environmental change can act (a) as a direct migration pressure; (b) as a dynamic of other economic, social, political and demographic processes influencing migration; or (c) as an obstacle to migration itself – and sometimes they play all these different roles at once. They do affect migration patterns in context-specific ways, including both more movements (all along the forced–voluntary spectrum) and more immobility (Selby and Daoust, 2021).

Available data largely reflect this complexity: evidence and models show a very contextual picture, pointing to diverse impacts of climate change on different migration systems, with movements from (Beine and Parsons, 2014) and to (Benveniste et al., 2020) areas at risk or affected, alongside reduced mobility for trapped populations (Chen and Mueller, 2019). Climate change being an elusive process to isolate, our current body of knowledge on the topic largely builds on a body of research observing mobility impacts of weather-related hazards, or longer-term processes that have shorter-term, more local human drivers linked with ecosystem use (Selby and Daoust, 2021). And even more complicated to single out are the environmental drivers of mobility decisions that are inherently multicausal (Tejero et al., 2020).

Largely due to this conceptual complexity, there is currently very little standardized, comparable data on climate migration. To some extent, however, limitations are shared by other topics and domains related to climate change, which explains the relatively narrow nature of the indicators associated with SDG 13. The following sections lay out available knowledge on this, articulating how migration data can help support progress monitoring against SDG 13 indicators.

Data on displacement in the context of disasters

Disaster displacement estimates rank among the best available evidence of population movements taking place in the context of disasters and environmental change. Gathered by disaster management and humanitarian actors in countries all over the world, and standardized and compiled by the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC), these figures provide a yearly snapshot of disasters' direct impacts on people and communities, and nuance the notion of "affected persons" at the core of indicator 13.1.1.

As reported by IDMC (2021), in 2020, disasters were associated with 30.7 million displacements, out of which some 30 million were the result of weather-related events. Storms and floods resulted in over 20 million displaced persons in Asia alone. These figures are largely consistent with yearly estimates that IDMC has been publishing since 2008: throughout this period, IDMC reported an average of over 24 million new disaster displacements every year, totalling close to 320 million displacements, almost 90 per cent of which are due to weather-related hazards (IDMC, 2019). A breakdown of these figures shows how they are driven by large events affecting areas with high population exposure: with these, and other, drivers of displacement expected to increasingly gain prominence over the coming decades, it is likely that disaster displacement will become an also increasingly commonplace phenomenon.

It is important to note that these figures may well be significant underestimations, as IDMC's (2021) methodology primarily captures sudden-onset events. Moreover, available figures do not fully capture distance and (more importantly) duration and impacts of movement, despite recent efforts to expand related data (Cazabat and Yasukawa, 2020). What we do know, however, is that displacement, especially when not properly managed and long-lasting, effectively extends and amplifies the impacts of disasters, hindering effective recovery and leading to poorer development prospects and outcomes for displaced persons and other affected communities – including as relates to livelihood security and poverty, access to health services and education, safety, and dignity (Sherwood et al., 2014; Sherwood et al., 2015; Yonetani, 2017). Stronger, more systematic data collection on disaster displacement and its impacts could help better assess, and address, key concerns for the achievement of the SDGs.

Integration of mobility considerations in disaster risk reduction strategies and actions

While countries are reporting regularly on their progress in the development of DRR strategies and plans as part of their monitoring efforts towards target E of the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction, little systematic effort is ongoing to track the inclusion of human mobility considerations in these documents.

This question has been addressed by one analysis in 2018.[74] The study covered 82 national strategies on DRR, from all regions, covering about 40 per cent of the United Nations member States. Over 80 per cent of these strategies contained references to displacement, migration, planned relocations or evacuation, with significant differences related to coverage of human mobility topics and implications drawn: evacuations were found to be mentioned in over 60 per cent of the strategies, versus displacement in 39 per cent and migration in 35 per cent. Region-specific analyses have also been carried out. In East Africa and the Horn, 4 out of 8 countries included mobility considerations in their DRR strategies and plans.

---

[74] See: Yonetani, 2018.

More recently, the Migration Governance Indicators (MGI)[75] have emerged as an option to track relevant progress in a more systematic and iterative manner. According to the latest available assessments, 28 out of 84 (33%) MGI countries have a national DRR strategy with specific provisions for preventing and addressing the displacement impacts of disasters.

These broad mentions in policy documents, however, do not always translate into clear operational provisions: migration and displacement data are not systematically used for DRR planning, nor collected as part of disaster risk and loss assessments.

Inclusion of migration in policies and commitments related to climate and development

The last decade has seen a progressive alignment of global policies on issues related to climate change and human mobility. Climate change and related disasters have been recognized as important drivers of migration pressures – and population movements and immobility as some of the key social implications of climate change. At the global level, this approach has translated into growing references to human mobility in the context of negotiations under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC),[76] and in the creation of a Task Force on Displacement under the Warsaw International Mechanism for Loss and Damage.[77] On the migration side, the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration – and to a lesser extent the Global Compact on Refugees – highlights the need to address climate impacts as a driver of forced migration.[78] Ad hoc initiatives, such as the publication of a report on internal displacement in the context of slow-onset climate change impacts, by the Special Rapporteur on the human rights of internally displaced persons (OHCHR, 2020), or the work of the High-Level Panel on Internal Displacement[79] have once again highlighted the interconnections between climate, migration and displacement.

National adaptation plans and Nationally Determined Contributions

At the national level, this attention has translated into increasing consideration of human mobility issues in climate-related policies, plans and commitments. As already highlighted in the above section in relation with DRR policies, however, a systematic mapping of these policy advancements is lacking.

A 2018 analysis[80] performed under the workplan of the Task Force on Displacement showed that 30 out of 50 national adaptation policies submitted to UNFCCC registries mentioned at least some human mobility element in the context of climate change. This was also the case for 35 out of 183 Nationally Determined Contributions – despite these being documents originally focused on climate change mitigation measures – as well as for 100 out of 143 national communications.

References included in these documents are quite diverse, spanning various mobility implications: most recognize movements as one of the key impacts of disasters and environmental degradation, while others highlight the specific situation of need and vulnerability of those on the move. In other cases, they pointed out the links between climate change and migration, and security, health or urbanization. Lastly, they also recognize the relevance of migration, evacuations, and relocations as key measures and strategies for protecting people at risk and coping with the adverse impacts of climate change.

However, these policy references (and related calls for evidence in key policy documents) do not actually translate into the establishment of mechanisms to systematically collect data related to the above-mentioned phenomena. Relevant migration and environment data do exist in several countries (Andreola Serraglio et al., 2021), but their integration and use for relevant work are largely still in their infancy.

High-level Political Forum on Sustainable Development reports and voluntary national reviews

SDG reports do not always include sectoral information that might reveal advancement on actions addressing the

---

[75] More information is available at https://gmdac.iom.int/migration-governance-indicators.

[76] More information is available at https://environmentalmigration.iom.int/human-mobility-unfccc.

[77] More information is available at https://environmentalmigration.iom.int/task-force-displacement.

[78] More information is available at https://environmentalmigration.iom.int/environment-and-climate-change-global-compact-migration.

[79] More information Is available at www.un.org/internal-displacement-panel/.

[80] See: IOM, 2018.

human mobility implications of climate change – such as those detailed in the previous sections: movement impacts of major disasters, or inclusion in relevant policies and programmes. Therefore, no specific data on migration or displacement is currently utilized in these kinds of efforts.

However, voluntary national reviews (VNRs) submitted by governments to the High-level Political Forum often have broader takes on matters of interest to member States, reflecting issues beyond the formal SDG indicator framework. As such, some VNRs tackle issues related to migration and displacement in the context of climate change, and specifically under their reviews of progress under SDG 13. It is the case for instance of Afghanistan's 2021 VNR,[81] which contains references to the internal and cross-border movements stemming from floods, droughts and other disasters, showing at least some potential for relevant issues and actions to be listed, mapped and assessed.

Limitations of data and way ahead

While data on the migration and displacement implications of climate change would be relevant to monitor progress towards SDG 13, systematic efforts to gather relevant information are far from comprehensive.

Substantive quantitative evidence on population movements triggered by environmental events and processes is almost exclusively available for sudden-onset hazards, and much more complex to compile for movements in the context of slow-onset hazards and creeping processes of environmental degradation (Selby and Daoust, 2021; Tejero et al., 2020). Available displacement figures rarely provide information on population composition, distance of movement, and duration of displacement – or on the costs incurred by displaced persons, host communities and other affected populations due to displacement. Improvement on the coverage and level of details of displacement data would be key to fully understanding the impacts of hazards on affected people, communities and societies – and, crucially, to quantify the relevance of displacement as an obstacle to the achievement of the SDGs. A starting point would be to integrate displacement data collection (tracking, monitoring, assessing related costs and losses) in disaster-related information systems.

While data on the inclusion of human mobility considerations in DRR strategies and climate-related policies, plans, and commitments can be compiled based on publicly available documents, in the absence of dedicated reporting requirements, this information has been gathered through ad hoc analyses that provide time-bound snapshots of the global policy situation. Despite existing provisions and calls for evidence in key global, regional and national policies, the availability, integration and use of relevant data are still spotty at best. Standardization of relevant collection efforts, systematic uptake, and integration will be essential to promoting policy and operational coherence on issues related to migration and displacement, climate, and development. This is particularly important in the presence of multiple parallel forums and workstreams in which such issues are addressed: a review of human mobility policies in 66 countries revealed that 35 of them include climate and environmental considerations (IOM, 2018). Coherence will be key to effective progressing towards all related SDGs.

Stronger data and models on migration and displacement would be key to understanding, anticipating and addressing the impacts of disasters and climate change on people on the move and other affected populations. These, in turn, are essential to allowing communities and societies to plan for comprehensive, inclusive access to services and opportunities: in an increasingly mobile world, this will be a precondition to the achievement of all the SDGs.

---

[81] See: United Nations, 2021b.

REFERENCES

Andreola Serraglio, D., S. Adaawen and B. Schraven
2021   *Migration, Environment, Disaster and Climate Change Data in the Eastern Caribbean – Regional Overview.* International Organization for Migration Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (IOM GMDAC). Berlin. Available at https://publications.iom.int/books/migration-environment-disaster-and-climate-change-data-eastern-caribbean-regional-overview.

Beine, M. and C. Parsons
2014   Climatic factors as determinants of international migration. *The Scandinavian Journal of Economics,* 117(2):723–767.

Benveniste, H., M. Oppenheimer and M. Fleurbaey
2020   Effect of border policy on exposure and vulnerability to climate change. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences,* 117(43):26692–26702.

Callaghan, M., C.F. Schleussner, S. Nath, Q. Lejeune, T.R. Knutson, M. Reichstein, G. Hansen, E. Theokritoff, M. Andrijevic, R.J. Brecha, M. Hegarty, C. Jones, K. Lee, A. Lucas, N. van Maanen, I. Menke, P. Pfleiderer, B. Yesil and J.C. Minx
2021   Machine-learning-based evidence and attribution mapping of 100,000 climate impact studies. *Nature Climate Change,* 11:966–972.

Cazabat, C. and L. Yasukawa
2020   *Unveiling the Cost of Internal Displacement: 2020 Report.* IDMC, Geneva. Available at www.internal-displacement.org/sites/default/files/publications/documents/IDMC_CostEstimate_final.pdf.

Chen, J. and V. Mueller
2019   Climate-induced cross-border migration and change in demographic structure. *Population and Environment,* 41(2):98–125.

Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC)
2019   *Disaster Displacement: A Global Review, 2008–2018.* Thematic report. Geneva. Available at www.internal-displacement.org/sites/default/files/publications/documents/201905-disaster-displacement-global-review-2008-2018.pdf.
2021   *GRID 2021: Internal Displacement in a Changing Climate.* Geneva. Available at www.internal-displacement.org/global-report/grid2021/.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)
2018   Mapping human mobility and climate change in relevant national policies and institutional frameworks. Task Force on Displacement Activity I.1. Available at https://environmentalmigration.iom.int/sites/environmentalmigration/files/20180917%20WIM%20TFD%20I.1%20Output%20final_0.pdf.

Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR)
2020   Report on internal displacement in the context of the slow-onset adverse effects of climate change. A/75/207. Available at www.ohchr.org/en/calls-for-input/2020/report-internal-displacement-context-slow-onset-adverse-effects-climate-change.

Selby, J. and G. Daoust
2021   Rapid evidence assessment on the impacts of climate change on migration patterns. Foreign, Commonwealth and Development Office, London. Available at www.gov.uk/research-for-development-outputs/rapid-evidence-assessment-on-the-impacts-of-climate-change-on-migration-patterns.

Sherwood, A., M. Bradley, L. Rossi, R. Guiam and B. Mellicker

2015   *Resolving Post-Disaster Displacement: Insights from the Philippines after Typhoon Haiyan (Yolanda).* The Brookings Institution, Washington, D.C., and International Organization for Migration (IOM), Geneva. Available at www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Resolving-PostDisaster-DisplacementInsights-from-the-Philippines-after-Typhoon-Haiyan-June-2015.pdf.

Sherwood, A., M. Bradley, L. Rossi, R. Gitau and B. Mellicker

2014   *Supporting Durable Solutions to Urban, Post-Disaster Displacement: Challenges and Opportunities in Haiti.* The Brookings Institution, Washington, D.C., and IOM, Geneva. Available at www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/07/Supporting-Durable-Solutions-to-DisplacementHaiti-March-4-2014.pdf.

Tejero, D.G., L. Guadagno and A. Nicoletti

2020   Human mobility and the environment: Challenges for data collection and policymaking. In: *Migration Policy Practice*, X(1):3–10. Available at https://publications.iom.int/books/migration-policy-practice-vol-x-number-1-january-march-2020.

United Nations

2021a   Sustainable Development Goals progress chart 2021. Statistics Division, Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Available at https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/report/2021/progress-chart-2021.pdf.

2021b   Afghanistan Voluntary National Review (VNR) 2021. Available at https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/memberstates/afghanistan.

United Nations General Assembly (UNGA)

2019   Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 19 December 2018. Seventy-third Session, Agenda items 14 and 119. Available at www.ohchr.org/en/migration/global-compact-safe-orderly-and-regular-migration-gcm.

Yonetani, M.

2017   Recovery postponed: The long-term plight of people displaced by the 2011 Great East Japan Earthquake, tsunami and nuclear radiation disaster. Case study series. IDMC, Geneva. Available at www.internal-displacement.org/publications/recovery-postponed-the-long-term-plight-of-people-displaced-by-the-2011-great-east.

2018   Mapping the baseline: To what extent are displacement and other forms of human mobility integrated in national and regional disaster risk reduction strategies? Platform on Disaster Displacement (PDD). Available at www.preventionweb.net/files/65230_07052019mappingthebaselineweb.pdf.

GOAL 17: MIGRATION DATA CAPACITY-BUILDING

Claudia Jenkins and Elisa Mosler Vidal, IOM Global Migration Data Analysis Centre

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, both as an underlying objective and as stated in Goal 17, calls for stronger international cooperation. Specifically, Goal 17 calls to "[s]trengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development" through innovative and multi-stakeholder partnerships across all areas of development. Data is a key component of this, with the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) reporting framework presenting a new opportunity to improve the quality and availability of statistics – and to do this in multi-stakeholder partnerships. Target 17.18 calls for an increase in the availability of "high-quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity [and] migratory status" (UNGA, 2015). This is just one of the nine pillars of the "data revolution" which calls on sustainable development to improve the quality and availability of statistics (UNSD, 2020).

There are at least 10 indicators that directly reference migration within the SDG reporting framework, including 3.c.1, 4.b.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 10.c.1, 16.2.2 and others (IOM, n.d.). Migration data needs, however, go beyond information for these indicators. For example, as addressed in this volume, disaggregating data by migratory status across the Goals is also key for monitoring SDG progress and ensuring inclusive policy and programming decisions. Migration data can be further improved in the context of the SDGs to better our understanding of many other migration and development topics – for example, children on the move as well as climate change and migration. Overall, the adoption of the 2030 Agenda presents many opportunities to improve migration data globally, while increasing pressure on countries to provide much of these data.

Despite the opportunity to improve migration data in the context of the SDGs – through the migration-related indicators, disaggregation of data or other ways – much remains to be done. Reporting of the global migration-related indicators is low, with the percentage of countries that have provided data on these averaging around 55 per cent in 2020 (Figure 23). Data availability varies widely. For example, while 87 per cent of countries reported data for indicator 3.c.1 (the most reported indicator) and 45 per cent for 10.7.2, none reported data on 10.7.1. Data availability also varies regionally, with 21 per cent of the countries that reported data for indicator 3.c.1 being from Africa, followed by Asia (19%), Europe (17%), Oceania (16%) and the Americas (14%). This is an overall trend throughout the indicators, with Africa and Europe tending to have the highest levels of reporting on migration-related SDG data, and Oceania typically the least.

Figure 23. Percentage of countries that report on migration-related sustainable development indicators, by region

	Africa	America	Asia	Europe	Oceania
3.c.1 Health worker density, by type of occupation (per 10,000 population)	21%	14%	19%	17%	16%
Health worker distribution, by sex and type of occupation (%)	15%	11%	16%	16%	15%
4.b.1 Volume of official development assistance flows for scholarships by sector and type of study	21%	14%	15%	4%	7%
8.7.1 Proportion and number of children aged 5-17 years engaged in child labour, by sex and age	15%	8%	7%	2%	1%
8.8.1 Frequency rates of fatal and non-fatal occupational injuries, by sex and migrant status	4%	7%	9%	14%	1%
10.7.1 Recruitment cost borne by employee as a proportion of yearly income earned in country of destination	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
10.7.2 Number of countries that have implemented well-managed migration policies	14%	6%	9%	12%	4%
10.c.1 Remittance costs as a proportion of the amount remitted	15%	8%	11%	6%	2%
16.2.2 Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation.*	8%	10%	11%	16%	1%
17.3.2 Volume of remittances (in United States dollars) as a proportion of total GDP	21%	15%	18%	16%	6%

● 0–32%   ● 33%–65%   ● 66%–100%

Source: SDG global database (DESA, n.d.).
  [1] Data from 8.7.1 Series 1.
  [2] Same reporting percentage for 8.8.1 Series 1 and 2.
  [3] Data from 16.2.2 Series 5.

Globally, data disaggregation by migratory status is also low. In 2020, only 1 of the 24 indicators recommended for disaggregation by migratory status (indicator 8.8.1, which is the rates of "fatal and non-fatal occupational injuries … by sex and migrant status") was disaggregated. Moreover, of the 86 countries that reported data on this indicator, only 27 disaggregated by migratory status. The majority of countries that did so are in Europe (22), while none are in Africa and Oceania (UNSD, 2020).

This shows that concrete large-scale progress related to migration data and the SDGs is lacking. To understand why progress has been limited, it is useful to examine wider development data trends.

Financing Sustainable Development Goals and migration data

Growing global attention on improving "high-quality, timely and reliable data" to monitor the SDGs – beyond just migration data – has not necessarily been met with a sustained increase in funding. While official development assistance (ODA) allocated to data and statistics did increase from USD 591 million in 2015 to USD 693 million in 2018, no significant increase has occurred since 2019 (DESA, 2021). Support for statistics remains a relatively low cooperation priority for most donor countries; around 0.33 per cent of total ODA around the world has been allocated to statistical capacity-building in the last years. Furthermore, 69 per cent of this came from just five donors (Calleja and Rogerson, 2019). As a result, a large gap exists between the political ambition of the SDGs and the resources needed to mobilize statistical systems that are capable of meeting the corresponding demands for better data. According to a report by the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development Data (2016), this funding gap is estimated to be USD 635–685 million annually in developing countries, despite developing regions receiving the largest amount of funding for data and statistics since reporting (by PARIS21) began in 2007. For example, between 2016 and 2018, Africa received an estimated USD 325 million compared to USD 62 million in Eastern Europe (PARIS21, 2020).

It is difficult to understand how much ODA or other funding for statistical capacity-building is allocated specifically to migration data. A total of 32 per cent of all donor commitments for statistics in 2016–2018 was for demographic and social data, which often includes migration data (ibid.). This support has steadily increased since 2014–2016 (when it was 24%), and it is worth noting that demographic and social data remained the preferred statistical area of donor support in 2020 (ibid.). However, migration data is by no means the most significant area of such data support. For example, gender statistics have been a major recent focus for donors; in 2015–2018, financing for gender data – which cuts across many sectors – was estimated to be between USD 217 and USD 272 million per year on average.[82]

Although it is difficult to calculate total funding directed towards improving migration data, it is clear that this topic has received substantially increased support and global visibility in recent years. For example, many dedicated migration data institutions have been established recently, such as IOM's Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (GMDAC) in 2015, the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees–World Bank Joint Data Centre on Forced Displacement in 2019, and various migration observatories in Africa. These include the Pan-African Institute for Statistics which facilitates the comparison of statistics for African Union member States through coordination and collaboration (African Union, n.d.a), the African Migration Observatory in Morocco which works to provide centralized data on migration throughout the continent (African Union, 2020), and the African Centre for the Study and Research on Migration in Mali which serves as a specialized technical office to advance the knowledge base of the African continent on migration and mobility (African Union, 2021).

Migration data capacity-building

As defined by the United Nations in 1992, "Capacity-building is the process by which individuals, organizations, institutions and societies develop abilities to perform functions, solve problems and set and achieve objectives" (UNCED, 1992). This aims to strengthen institutional performance and human resources (IOM, 2019) and is a long-term and continuous process in which all stakeholders are required to participate (ibid.). Statistical capacity-building aims to improve the availability and quality of data, leading to "increased usage, data literacy, demand and funding" (ibid.). It is important to note that the term "capacity-building" is often used interchangeably with "capacity development" – the latter term expressing an emerging and more dynamic and flexible approach, building on pre-existing skills and knowledge (ibid.).

---

[82] Key donors providing this support include Canada with 30 per cent of total commitments, Sweden with 24 per cent, and the United Kingdom with 15 per cent (ODW and Data2X, 2021).

There is a clear need to improve the institutional capacity of countries to collect, analyse, report and use migration data, for SDG reporting and beyond (IOM, 2019). Capacity-building activities are designed to empower individuals, organizations and institutions to improve migration data for evidence-based policymaking (ibid.). This can involve supporting governments by providing appropriate tools such as manuals, global or regional data guidelines, or other materials, and holding training workshops (IOM, 2021b). For example, in recent years the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, the World Bank and UNHCR have published handbooks or guidelines related to migration statistics (IOM, 2019). Migration data capacity-building can entail much more than technical assistance in some cases, extending to coordination assistance, for example. Several countries already collect considerable amounts of migration data across various government branches, but they lack the capacity to centralize, disaggregate, and cross-reference data collected and use this towards SDG reporting (IOM, 2021b). The establishment of technical working groups on migration data or other interministerial coordination mechanisms can help in this regard. Co-designing migration data action plans or strategies is another recommended activity. In 2020, 84 out of 132 countries and territories reported having fully funded statistical plans (not related to migration) – only 4 were less economically developed countries (DESA, 2021). As such, there is a need to ensure that capacity-building approaches reach first those countries that are in greatest need of statistical assistance.

IOM GMDAC's related activities involve working closely with Member States around the world and other United Nations agencies to identify the strengths and limitations of existing migration data frameworks and ways to improve these. GMDAC works at the national level (working in particular with Member States in Africa to improve migration data) as well as the regional level – for example, with the African Union, the Economic Community of West African States, the Southern African Development Community and other bodies. Further, GMDAC offers online courses on migration data, aimed at migration data users and producers, including lessons on key migration data concepts and definitions; using censuses, surveys and administrative sources; migration data harmonization and sharing across government ministries and agencies; and more.

While this type of capacity-building has clear objectives – for example, to improve the availability, accessibility, quality and communication of migration data and statistics, and their use in policymaking and programming – it is difficult in practice to assess progress. There are some concrete ways to measure this. For example, "improvements in the availability of data, data reliability and validity, timeliness and quality control could all be measurable outcomes of success", irrespective of individual activities (IOM, 2019). Linked to this, one measure of progress related to the 2030 Agenda is how many countries report data on the migration-related SDG indicators and disaggregate others by migratory status – as explored at the start of this piece. However, it still remains challenging to measure the overall effectiveness of specific migration data capacity-building activities, and therefore the effectiveness of related investments. The World Bank attempts to measure overall progress via a composite score to assess countries' statistical systems, based on available information on methodologies, data sources, periodicity and timeliness of statistics, using its Statistical Capacity Indicator (ibid.). To date, no such index exists to address migration data specifically.

Conclusion

Despite the recent increased global focus on migration data, there is still much to be done to improve the quality and availability of statistics for monitoring migration in the SDGs, six years on from their adoption. To meet the migration data challenges related to the 2030 Agenda, significant international cooperation, support for statistical capacity-building, and resources are needed. It is through effective capacity-building that migration–SDG data gaps can be addressed, leading to better quality migration data that can be used to inform development interventions and migration mainstreaming. This requires organizations and institutions to commit to capacity-building as a long-term, continuous process, to increase the potential of any progress achieved eventually becoming an endogenous process (IOM, 2019). Moreover, there is a need to improve measures for monitoring the effectiveness of statistical capacity-building so that limited resources can be allocated successfully.

REFERENCES

African Union
2020   Official inauguration in Morocco of the African Migration Observatory. 18 December. Available at https://au.int/en/pressreleases/20201218/official-inauguration-morocco-african-migration-observatory.
2021   Official inauguration of the African Centre for the Study and Research on Migration. 13 March. Available at https://au.int/en/pressreleases/20210313/official-inauguration-african-centre-study-and-research-migration.
n.d.a   Pan-African Institute for Statistics (STATAFRIC). Available at https://au.int/en/ea/statistics/statafric.

Calleja, R. and A. Rogerson
2019   Financing challenges for developing statistical systems: A review of financing options. PARIS21 Discussion Paper, No. 14. Available at https://paris21.org/sites/default/files/2019-01/Financing%20challenges%20for%20developing%20statistical%20systems%20%28DP14%29.pdf.

Global Partnership for Sustainable Development Data (GPSDD)
2016   *The State of Development Data Funding*. Available at https://opendatawatch.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/09/development-data-funding-2016.pdf.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)
2019   Building migration data capacity: Examples of good practices for the African Region. Central Mediterranean Route Thematic Report Series, No. 3. Geneva. Available at https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/capacity_building.pdf.
2021a   Africa Migration Data Network (AMDN). Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (GMDAC). Available at https://gmdac.iom.int/africa-migration-data-network-amdn.
2021b   *How Countries Manage Migration Data: Evidence from Six Countries*. Geneva. Available at https://publications.iom.int/books/how-countries-manage-migration-data-evidence-six-countries.
n.d.   Migration data and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Migration Data Portal. Available at www.migrationdataportal.org/sdgs?node=0.

Open Data Watch (ODW) and Data2X
2021   *State of Gender Data Financing 2021*. Available at https://data2x.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/State-of-Gender-Data-Financing-2021_FINAL.pdf.

Partnership in Statistics for Development in the 21st Century (PARIS21)
2020   *The Partner Report on Support to Statistics (PRESS) 2020*. Available at https://paris21.org/sites/default/files/inline-files/PRESS2020%20Final.pdf.

United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED)
1992   Report of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development. Rio de Janeiro. Available at www.un.org/esa/dsd/agenda21/Agenda%2021.pdf.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA)
2021   *The Sustainable Development Goals Report 2021*. Statistics Division. New York. Available at https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/report/2021/The-Sustainable-Development-Goals-Report-2021.pdf.
n.d.   SDG global database. Inter-agency and Expert Group on Sustainable Development Goal Indicators. Available at https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/dataportal.

United Nations General Assembly (UNGA)
2015   Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. A/RES/70/1. Available at https://sdgs.un.org/2030agenda.

United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD)

2020   Review of implementation of data revolution. Prepared for the High-Level Group for Partnership, Coordination and Capacity-Building for statistics for the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (HLG-PCCB). Background document. Available at https://unstats.un.org/unsd/statcom/51st-session/documents/BG-Item3a_Review-of-Implementation-of-Data-Revolution-E.pdf.

World Health Organization (WHO)

1992   United Nations Conference on Environment and Development. Report by the Director-General. Forty-sixth World Health Assembly. Rio de Janeiro. Available at https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/176422/WHA46_Inf.Doc-3_eng.pdf?sequence=1HYPERLINK.

https://migrationdataportal.org