DISPLACEMENT TRACKING MATRIX

LIBYA MIGRANT VULNERABILITY AND HUMANITARIAN NEEDS ASSESSMENT

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Project funded by the European Union

Cover photo: Migrants stranded amidst eruption of armed conflict in Sabratha, Libya. © IOM 2017 / Shaebi

All reasonable efforts have been made to ensure the accuracy of the data referred to in this report, including through data verification. We regret, however, any data errors that may remain.

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ACRONYMS

AfDB	African Development Bank
DCIM	Directorate for Combatting Illegal Migration
DRC	Danish Refugee Council
DTM	Displacement Tracking Matrix
ETF	European Training Foundation
EU	European Union
GMG	Global Migration Group
ICMPD	International Center for Migration Policy Development
IOM	International Organization for Migration
MMC	Mixed Migration Centre
UN	United Nations
UN DESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UN OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner on Human Rights
UNSMIL	United National Support Mission in Libya

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

IOM's Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) is globally at the forefront of primary data collection on migration, having covered internal displacement and cross-border migration flows since 2004. DTM's vast experience and presence on the ground, often in various difficult contexts, places it in a unique position to bring forward data driven evidence on migration trends and migrants' circumstances. In Libya, the DTM programme has been in continuous implementation since 2016, addressing information and assessment needs in support of strategic and operational planning of humanitarian response serving both internally displaced persons (IDPs) and international migrants. This report presents the analysis and findings on the migrant vulnerability and humanitarian needs in Libya.

This migrant vulnerability and humanitarian needs assessment shows that migrants come to Libya from a diverse range of countries of origin, although the majority of migrants present in Libya come from neighboring countries. Migration to Libya is primarily driven by economic motivations that reflect the underlying factors affecting migrants at individual and community levels in their countries of origin such as insufficient income and lack of job opportunities.

Several regional and country of origin variations in drivers of migration to Libya were also observed. A significant proportion of migrants from Middle East (Syria and Palestinian Territories) and from East Africa (Somalia and South Sudan) cited war or armed conflict as one of their main reasons for leaving their countries of origin. While several migrants from a diverse range of countries, including Sudan, reported that they had left their countries of origin due to targeted violence or persecution.

Furthermore, over 80 percent of the migrants interviewed reported that Libya was their intended country of destination at the time of departure from their country of origin, and that they were in Libya for work opportunities. These significant findings strongly indicate that Libya is a country of destination for a majority of migrants, as they seek employment opportunities and better income in Libya than they can access in their countries of origin.

Migration to Libya was overall found to have a net positive impact on the employment status of migrants interviewed as 76% of the migrants reported to be employed in Libya at the time of the interview, while only 52% reported to have been employed in their countries of origin before coming to Libya. While a desire to return to the country of origin emerged as the most important change in the migration intention over the course of migration and stay in Libya, migrants who were unemployed in Libya were found to be more likely to consider onward migration from Libya. Migrants also reported to have made considerable investment towards their migration to Libya, especially in the form of costs related to their migration journey, and can therefore be determined to be relatively better off than their peers who may not have had access to resources to finance migration related costs.

Based on analysis utilizing IOM's Determinants of Migrant Vulnerability (DoMV) model as an analytical framework gender (female migrants in specific), employment status (unemployment in particular), and duration of stay in Libya (in the case of recent arrivals) were identified as the most significant risk factors adding to the migrants' vulnerability at the individual level. While almost half of surveyed migrants reported being aware of potential risks during their journey to and through Libya prior to departure, only few reported to have taken precautionary or self-protective measures before leaving their countries of origin. 46% of interviewed migrants reported to have taken on debt to finance their journey to Libya, potentially adding to their vulnerability to exploitation.

Female migrants showed higher levels of vulnerability and humanitarian needs across multiple indicators than male migrants. Furthermore, newly arrived migrants in Libya were identified to be in specific need of food and shelter assistance due to lack of access to appropriate accommodation. Meeting these initial needs of the newly arrived vulnerable migrants would significantly reduce their vulnerabilities and address its negative impact on their physical and mental wellbeing. Unemployed migrants in Libya were also found to be more vulnerable and were assessed to have higher humanitarian needs than those employed, indicating reduced capacities to cope.

Advocacy for migrants' access to public health services should continue, whereas, lack of access to adequate health facilities should be addressed via medium term solutions such as provision of access to health services via referral mechanisms such as the Migrant Resource and Response Mechanism and mobile health teams. Furthermore, an in-depth local level study on the prevalence of chronic and acute illnesses, and the solutions accessed by migrants, within the scope of a public health services assessment is strongly recommended.

In Southern Libya a majority of migrants reported to rely on the public water network to meet their water needs, however a quarter of the respondents interviewed in the south also reported lack of access to sufficient drinking water which merits further study and an appropriate response. In the short term, interventions aimed at improving migrants' access to water, sanitation and hygiene assistance along the migration routes through southern Libya is recommended to reduce their vulnerabilities.

Lastly, continued attention should be paid to pathways enabling safe return of migrants to their country of origin such as Voluntary Humanitarian Return or Assisted Voluntary Return and Reintegration since a desire to return to the country of origin was expressed by a significant proportion of the migrants interviewed.

INTRODUCTION

There are over 636,000 migrants in Libya[1], with diverse experiences, aspirations, and migration histories. While the tragic stories of migrants at sea attempting to transit through Libya and of those detained in Libya frequently make the headlines, little attention is paid to the larger population of migrants in other circumstances. The vulnerabilities and humanitarian needs of migrants in Libya go beyond the specific cases of those attempting the dangerous transit routes such as crossing the Mediterranean or Sahara via the use of smuggling networks and of those held in detentions. Therefore, this Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) report aims to facilitate a broad evidence-based understanding of migrants' vulnerability and humanitarian needs in Libya.

The analysis presented aims to achieve this within the scope of a holistic understanding of migration to and from Libya which entails a discussion on the various perspectives that have significantly shaped the discourse on migration in the region for the past decade. From the status of Libya as a country of destination or a country of transit, to the emphasis on mixed migration flows, and the missing discussion on labour migration to Libya – regular or irregular and along historical migration routes. It is therefore acknowledged that for a humanitarian response to address the various vulnerabilities and humanitarian needs of migrants in Libya, it is important to keep these overlapping perspectives in mind.

The report presents findings based on the analysis of 13,228 quantitative interviews conducted with migrants between January and August 2019, and 2,312 key informant interviews. The migrant interviews were conducted face-to-face on a continuous basis every month through DTM's Flow Monitoring Survey (FMS), implemented by 46 enumerators covering key locations frequented by migrants in 19 regions ('mantika') of Libya. Interviews with migrants include a set of questions under the thematic areas of Education; Food Security; Livelihoods; Remittances; Migrant Health; Accommodation; and Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH).

The key informant interviews are conducted face-to-face on a bi-monthly basis through DTM's Mobility Tracking component by a network of enumerators. The DTM Mobility Tracking includes a Multi-Sectoral Location Assessment (MSLA) covering all regions and municipalities in Libya. Complementing information obtained from direct interviews with migrants, the MSLA key informant interviews regularly collect sectoral level data of interest at community-level for humanitarian programming. The MSLA key informant interviews used for this report were conducted between June – July 2019.

The regular and continuous implementation of these interviews and assessments makes the Displacement Tracking Matrix in Libya a source for vital humanitarian information that supports strategic level planning and can also be used for operational planning purposes via identification of issues of specific sectoral interest (red flags), affected locations and specific populations including migrants residing in these locations.

The analysis of migrants' vulnerabilities in this report is carried out via adoption of IOM's Determinants of Migrant Vulnerability model[2]. Vulnerable migrants are migrants who are unable to effectively realize their human rights, are at increased risk of violations and abuse and who, accordingly, are entitled to call on a duty bearer's heightened duty of care (GMG / OHCHR 2018).

1 DTM Mobility Tracking Round 27 (August – September 2019)
2 Further explained under the section on "Conceptualizing Migrants' Vulnerability and Humanitarian Needs"

While the humanitarian needs are understood as gaps between the assessed conditions of migrants with regards to their vulnerabilities (at individual, household / family, and community levels) and the acceptable conditions which would enable them to effectively enjoy their human rights.

The analysis shows that some of the main individual and household level vulnerability factors are related to the migrants' gender, employment status, and their duration of stay in Libya. Beyond these three risk factors that add to the migrants' vulnerability as individuals, specific geographical and country of origin trends are also highlighted. Furthermore, several points related to possible underlying structural issues were identified in the analysis and are presented in the findings on the migration drivers as well as in the section on vulnerability and humanitarian needs.

The report first presents a brief overview of the discourse on migration to and from Libya, followed by a description of the assessment framework and methodology used. The main body of the report presents key findings of the assessment divided along the thematic areas covered. Lastly, key conclusions that can be drawn from the assessment are presented, followed by a set of recommendations.

OVERVIEW OF PERSPECTIVES ON MIGRATION TO AND FROM LIBYA

The situation of migrants in Libya, and the phenomenon of migration to and from Libya, has been extensively written about over the last decade. There has been proliferation of reports published as grey literature, papers published in academic journals, and numerous articles, updates, editorials, op-eds, and exposés published in newspapers or news websites. These valuable publications are crucial as they attempt to describe the context of migration to, through and from Libya in part or in whole from different perspectives.

Over the years, some of these publications have also had a significant impact on the discourse about migration to and from Libya. While the focus of this assessment report is to facilitate an evidence-based understanding of migrants' vulnerability and humanitarian needs in Libya, it is crucial to do so in the broader context of the discourse. Furthermore, it is critical to acknowledge these various perspectives in the design of a humanitarian response for migrants and refugees to ensure a complementarity with other migration related programming that falls outside the scope of the humanitarian response. Therefore, in order to facilitate a holistic understanding of the current context, a few brief points on the various prevalent perspectives about migration to and from Libya are presented below.

Mixed Movements (Mixed Migration or Mixed Flows)

Several publications consider the case of migration to and from Libya to be better characterized as – or solely through the perspective of – mixed migration flows. (Sara Hamood 2006; Altai Consulting 2013, 2015; DRC 2013; Reach 2018; Impact 2019) The terminology of mixed movements variously also called mixed migration or mixed flows refers to a movement in which a number of people are travelling together, generally in an irregular manner, using the same routes and means of transport, but for different reasons (UNHCR 2016, IOM 2019a). In the case of Libya, some publications have even attempted to extend the use of mixed migration conceptualization to characterize the migrant population via use of terminology such as "mixed migrant population in Libya" (DRC 2013).

As noted in Mixed Migration Review, "the term 'mixed migration', or rather the analytical lens it provides is clearly as relevant as ever to a better understanding of contemporary human mobility." (MMC 2018) The review further qualifies the applicability of mixed migration as a concept by stating "The term has value in describing those on the move while they are on the move, or in transit, however long their journey." This important point indicates that a potential limitation of the use of the mixed migration conceptualization emerges when considering the case of migrants who are neither on the move, nor in transit.

Benefit of the use of mixed migration conceptualization is in recognizing "that the drivers of the movement of refugees and migrants are multiple, often intertwined, and influence each other" (MMC 2018). Furthermore, this conceptualization is also highly relevant for arguing for protection of individuals on the move across international borders irrespective of their status (migrants or refugees) as the risks and vulnerabilities they face along the route are similar. However, to use this conceptualization as the only vantage point describing the context of migration to and through Libya means an overemphasis on mobility and on the case of the migrants in transit.

Transit Migration to Europe

Transit migration to Europe from Libya has been another important perspective that has significantly shaped the discourse on migration in Libya. Several important publications consider the case of transit migration to Europe as central to the context of migration to and from Libya (Hamood, S. 2006; Bredeloup, S. et al. 2011; Toaldo, M. 2015).

Most of the arguments made for the case of transit migration as central to the context of migration to and from Libya were based on an identification of a change in the status of Libya from historically being a country of destination to a country of transit. However, the publications making this identification of a change in Libya's status (destination to transit country) had largely based their analysis on the mass media coverage of migrant arrivals in Europe via Mediterranean, the shift in EU policy that occurred at the same time, and upon focusing on the findings of a limited sample of interviews conducted outside Libya.

There are several problems in considering the context of migration to Libya only from the perspective of transit migration to Europe, including that "it leads one to believe that these migrants cross the Sahara only in the hope of reaching Europe" (Bredeloup, S. et al. 2011). Overemphasis on this perspective reduces the diversity of reasons driving migration to Libya into a "mere journey across the straits of the Mediterranean" (Ibid). This simplification is also dangerous "as it ignores the historical dimension of the movement of people and its consequences" for the communities along the

migration routes that have benefited from the migration driven urbanization and economic development for decades.

Emphasis on transit migration, as is the case with application of mixed migration conceptualization, puts mobility central and helps highlight the various circumstances that put the migrants on the move or in transit at risk and increase their vulnerabilities. However, migrants who are not in transit, or have reached their intended destination may also have vulnerabilities and humanitarian needs. From the broader perspective of considering the migrant vulnerabilities and humanitarian needs in Libya it is important to consider if Libya is a country of transit or a country of destination, and if both, to what extent so for most migrants in Libya.

Information collected on arrivals of migrants in Europe by national authorities and IOM offices, suggest a noticeable shift from the Central Mediterranean Route (departure from Libya and Tunisia, arrival in Italy and Malta) to the Western Mediterranean Route (departure from Morocco, arrival in Spain) over the past two years. Therefore, inline with the arguments previously used to identify Libya as a country of transit, these recent trends present an opportunity to re-evaluate the status of Libya as either a country of transit or destination.

In 2018, an estimated 81 per cent of the overall arrivals in 2018 crossed the Mediterranean Sea (117,360), mainly using the Western Mediterranean route. The Central Mediterranean Route went from the most active route used in 2017 to the least active route in 2018, with the Eastern Mediterranean Route (departure from Turkey) remained the second in both 2017 and 2018. Overall, a noticeable total decrease in arrivals in Europe was observed over the past two years with 144,166 migrants and refugees arriving in Europe in 2018, representing a 23 per cent decrease compared to 186,788 in 2017, and 63 per cent less than the 390,456 arrivals recorded in 2016.

This trend continued in 2019, with only 8,395 arrivals recorded in Italy between 01 January and 16 October 2019. While arrivals recorded in Malta increased to 2,911 arrivals during the same period, collected data suggests that another substantial decrease of migration flows through the Central Mediterranean route will be recorded in 2019.

Rescue at Sea

In line with the above developments and under the perspective of transit migration through Libya, a decrease has also been observed during 2019, in the number of rescue operations reported by the Libyan Coast Guard (LCG). Although the rate of decline in the number of rescues at sea operations is less than the rate of decline in the arrivals in Europe for 2019. While 18,900 rescued migrants by LCG search operations were reported in 2017, the figure dropped to 15,428 in 2018 while between 01 January and 16 October 2019 only 7,386 rescues were recorded.

At the same time, migrant mortality and death at sea during dangerous crossings of the Mediterranean Sea remains of utmost humanitarian concern. While recorded deaths and missing persons on the Central Mediterranean Route, tracked by IOM's Missing Migrant Project, gradually decreased from 2,853 recorded in 2017 to 1,314 in 2018, the reported mortality rate along this migration route alarmingly increased when taking into account that the decline in arrivals in Europe and the number of migrants rescued by LCG dropped at a proportionally higher rate than the recorded deaths.

Migrant Smuggling

The role of migrant smugglers has also been widely written about, especially from the perspective of transit migration to Europe (TGI 2017, 2019), and to some extent also from the perspective of the historical migration into Libya (Bredeloup, S. et al. 2011, Toaldo, M. 2015). Similarly, several of these publications also present a complex picture of smuggling as an illicit activity that has also been closely associated with the crime of trafficking in the recent years (TGI 2017).

However, recent analysis shows a decline in the smuggling activities due to various changes in the mix migration flows, the associated changes in the smuggling business model, and enforcement of anti-smuggling measures. Similarly, in the same analysis, a reduction in the number of migrants arriving to Europe via the Central Mediterranean Route is also attributed to a decline in the prevalence of migrant smuggling. (TGI 2019)

While the illicit activity of smuggling and the crime of trafficking present significant risks adding to the vulnerability of migrants, direct data collection that may account for their impact on migrants raises serious ethical concerns. Therefore, while the context of migrant smuggling is significant and requires closer attention, it is not directly addressed in this report.

Labour Migration and Circular Migration

Apart from the focus on mixed migration through Libya or transit migration to Europe, several publications also detail other perspectives on the Libyan migration context. These relate to migrant workers coming to Libya as a country of destination for employment opportunities, regularly as well as irregularly, and circular migration across borders with the neighboring countries considered from historical and development perspectives. (ICMPD 2010; AfDB 2012; IOM 2012; Bartolomeo, A. D. et al 2011; ETF 2014)

None of these other perspectives in themselves discount from the fact that while on the move, or in transit, the conceptualization of mixed migration is immensely important in understanding the associated risks and vulnerabilities. However, these other perspectives do warrant attention, especially to establish a holistic understanding of migration to and from Libya, with an intention of establishing programs and solutions – including humanitarian response – that serve the cause of reducing migrants' vulnerability and addressing their needs.

When on the move or in transit, the migrant workers may very well be understood as a part of mixed migration flows, but when in Libya and upon having realized their migration aspirations, they

may constitute a subset of the migrant population that can be looked at from labour migration perspective. It is also important to note that Libya is a signatory to the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, and therefore has committed to granting the protection and rights guaranteed therein.

Migrants in Detention

The case of immigration detention in Libya has also been extensively written about, and the living conditions in the detention centres remain an issue of grave concern with serious humanitarian consequences for the migrants detained. (UNSMIL 2016, 2018; Amnesty International 2017) While, at the time of the drafting of this report over 4,700 migrants were in detention centres under the authority of the Directorate to Combat Illegal Migration (DCIM)[3] across Libya, this assessment does not cover the specific case of these detained migrants. Notably, the number of migrants detained in DCIM detention centres only accounts for a small part of the total migrant population in Libya (1%).

Migrants in Proximity to Conflict Affected Areas

Since the onset of armed conflict in the southern areas of Tripoli on 04 April 2019, a significant number of people have been affected by the conflict. More than 128,000 Libyan nationals have been forced to leave their homes becoming internally displaced persons (IDPs), while conflict has also affected migrants and refugees held in the detention centres in proximity to the sites of armed conflict (IOM 2019b, 2019c).

At the time of the drafting of this report, more than three thousand migrants were in detention centres situated at locations that are considered at risk of being directly or indirectly affected by the ongoing armed conflict, whereas several thousands of migrants outside detention are also determined to be in the areas that are indirectly affected by conflict.

Furthermore, the various perspectives described above are presented with an acknowledgement that quite possibly in the case of some individual migrants these perspectives overlap and may be applicable simultaneously. Thus, a migrant worker arriving in Libya amongst a mixed migration flow with support of informal migration facilitators could also be a victim of trafficking and may have humanitarian needs that fall under all these specific perspectives that dominate the discourse on migration to and from Libya. However, with the capacity of DTM to collect and analyse large-scale data in Libya, there is an opportunity to determine the humanitarian context within the various overlaps of the most significant perspectives that apply and affect migrants, via identification of key trends that emerge from the analysis of migrants' migration aspirations and experiences.

3 DCIM was established as a division of the Ministry of Interior in 2012 to tackle irregular migration flows into the country and therefore stands responsible for arresting anyone who has entered irregularly, organising the deportation of irregular migrants and managing the detention centres.

> "Migrants are not inherently vulnerable, nor do they lack resilience and agency." (UN OHCHR 2018)

CONCEPTUALIZING MIGRANT VULNERABILITY AND HUMANITARIAN NEEDS

This assessment adopts IOM's operational conceptualization of vulnerability for migrants as set out in IOM's Handbook on Protection and Assistance for Migrants Vulnerable to Violence, Exploitation and Abuse.[4,5] Therein, vulnerability is broadly characterized as "the limited capacity to avoid, resist, cope with, or recover from harm".[6] Vulnerable migrants are migrants who are unable to effectively enjoy their human rights, are at increased risk of violations and abuse and who, accordingly, are entitled to call on a duty bearer's heightened duty of care.

As an analytical framework, this assessment utilizes IOM's Determinants of Migrant Vulnerability (DoMV) model by adopting the articulation of risk factors and protective factors. Risk factors are understood as those factors which contribute to vulnerability, while protective factors are those aspects which improve capabilities to avoid, cope with, or recover from harm.

The DoMV model considers risk and protective factors at different levels: individual, household/family, community, and structural. The assessment covers individual, household/family, and community levels with direct data collection carried out via DTM's Mobility Tracking and Flow Monitoring Surveys.

The recommendations are also framed in line with the humanitarian consequences model utilized for the humanitarian response plan (HRP) under the ISCG Enhanced Humanitarian Programme Cycle Approach 2020.

The needs of migrants are therefore understood as gaps between the assessed conditions of migrants with regards to their vulnerabilities (at individual, household / family, and community levels) and the target conditions which would enable them to effectively exercise their human rights.

4 "The concept of vulnerability can be understood to mean that some people are more susceptible to harm, relative to others, as a result of exposure to some form of risk. The type of harm to which they are more susceptible varies: it may be psychological, environmental etc. Risk factors depend on the type of harm being examined and may or may not overlap." – IOM Handbook on Protection and Assistance for Migrants Vulnerable to Violence, Exploitation and Abuse

5 IOM's Handbook on Protection and Assistance to Migrants Vulnerable to Violence, Exploitation and Abuse; https://publications.iom.int/books/iom-handbook-migrants-vulnerable-violence-exploitation-and-abuse

6 See Annex: Definitions

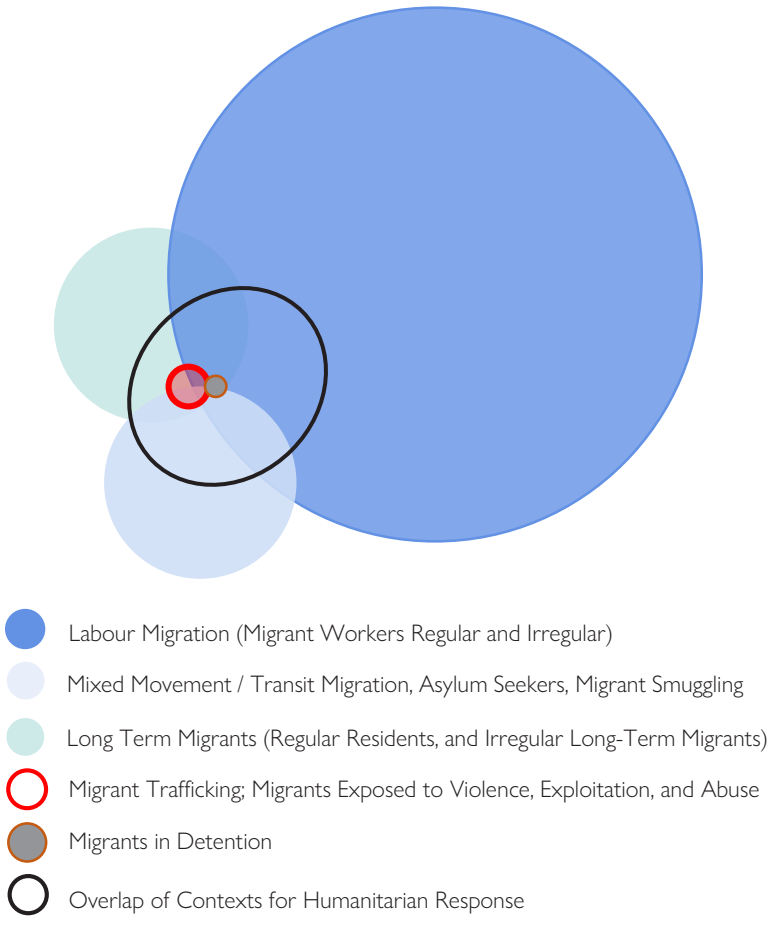
For the purposes of this assessment, the term migrant refers to the individuals who have moved away from their place of residence in their country of origin – across an international border – to Libya, and do not hold Libyan nationality. The assessment does not distinguish between migrants based on their immigration or protection status and therefore includes individuals whose migration status in Libya could range from regular to irregular.

The assessment also includes both long-term migrants in Libya, and those migrants who have arrived more recently, with an aim of understanding their different circumstances.

The assessment aims to considers migrants' mobility and aspirations via an analysis of the drivers of migration and their intentions, through the dual lenses of mixed migration and labour migration. Mixed migration as the applicable framework when considering migrants on the move, and labour migration (regular or irregular) in the case of migrant workers who have arrived in Libya for employment opportunities and identify Libya as their country of destination.

While at the international level no universally accepted definition for the term "migrant" exists, IOM defines it as: "An umbrella term, not defined under international law, reflecting the common lay understanding of a person who moves away from his or her place of usual residence, whether within a country or across an international border, temporarily or permanently, and for a variety of reasons. The term includes a number of well-defined legal categories of people, such as migrant workers; persons whose particular types of movements are legally-defined, such as smuggled migrants; as well as those whose status or means of movement are not specifically defined under international law, such as international students."

Figure 1 Effective humanitarian response aimed at supporting migrants in Libya must be framed with an acknowledgement of the overlapping contexts that apply.



METHODOLOGY

The findings presented in this report are based on the analysis of data collected in Libya via two different DTM components. These two components are DTM Mobility Tracking that includes a Multi-Sectoral Location Assessment (MSLA) and the DTM Flow Monitoring Survey (FMS).

Mobility Tracking is implemented in Libya along a bi-monthly data collection cycle, and the data is collected via key informant (KI) interviews. The data used in this assessment is from 2,312 key informant interviews conducted during the round 26 Mobility Tracking data collection cycle covering June – July 2019. This component tracks population movements to establish baseline estimates of various populations in the areas assessed and includes a Multi-Sectoral Location Assessment (MSLA) module that gathers data on the availability of services, multi-sectoral humanitarian needs, and various other indicators of interest. Mobility Tracking covers all of Libya with data disaggregation down to municipality level (baladiya; admin unit 3) for data on services and needs, and to community or locality level (mahalla; admin unit 4) for population estimates.

The Flow Monitoring Survey (FMS) is part of DTM's survey component for conducting interviews with migrants. These individual interviews with migrants include questions on migration dynamics vis-a-vis aspirations, intentions, migration decision making, routes, potential return to the country of origin, and other migration related aspects. In 2019 the FMS in Libya was expanded with the addition of thematic modules that include questions related to Education; Food Security; Livelihoods; Remittances; Health; Migration Challenges; Accommodation; and access to Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH) services. These thematic modules can be selectively activated as per the data needs at specific locations, and therefore this modular approach can also be used to guide operational planning of assistance provision to migrants.

This report presents the findings of the FMS data collected from the 13,228 quantitative interviews conducted with migrants between 1 January and 24 August 2019. The interviews were conducted at key locations in the 19 regions (mantika; admin unit 2) of Libya[7]. The FMS interviews were conducted by 46 enumerators who are trained on data collection, quantitative and qualitative research methods, definitions and concepts related to thematic modules, and assessments. The FMS interviews utilize a structured questionnaire that is primarily aimed at facilitating quantitative data collection with a few open-ended questions. Migrants' informed consent is verbally obtained before each interview, and upon being informed about the purposes of the interview, the aims of the assessment, that their personal data will be saved in a non-identifiable way, they are not obliged to answer all questions, can terminate the interview at any time, and that they will not be remunerated for the interviews. The questionnaire is filled electronically by the enumerator via Kobo Collect application and is stored directly into a dedicated and secure DTM database.

7 Annex B presents the detailed breakdown of locations and timeframe of thematic interviews conducted with the migrants.

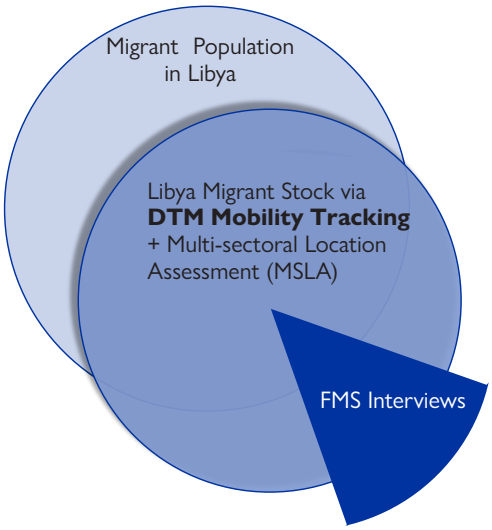
Sampling Approach

The illustration (figure 1) shows the overall sampling approach undertaken for this assessment. The outer box highlights the country-wide coverage of Libya in DTM's Mobility Tracking via over 2,000 key informant interviews (2,312 KIIs conducted between June and July 2019 were used for this assessment). The Mobility Tracking includes an estimation of population figures at community or locality level ('mahalla'; admin unit 4), and a Multi-Sectoral Location Assessment conducted at municipality level (baladiya; admin unit 3) level. The data obtained via Mobility Tracking serves as a baseline estimate of the migrant stock in Libya – as shown in the yellow circle – that is subsequently used for targeting of the migrant sample interviewed via the Flow Monitoring Survey (FMS).

For this assessment purposive sampling was carried out for the FMS interviews by targeting migrants present at the key locations such as transit points like bus stops and bridges along main migration routes, cafes, markets, parks, sites of accommodation or shelters, mosques, public buildings, work recruitment points and residential areas. While this sampling approach limits the assessed sample from being statistically representative of the demographic make-up of the entire migrant stock in Libya, it results in a large-scale assessment of migrants who are accessible for the provision of assistance.

While a fixed portion of the FMS interview questionnaire was administered to all the migrants interviewed, the modular thematic sections were selectively activated throughout the assessment period and therefore each thematic section covers a smaller subset of the entire sample.

Figure 2 Sampling framework and approach used for the assessment.



Limitations

While the report presents findings from a large-scale implementation of the Flow Monitoring Survey (FMS) throughout the year, it does not claim the interviewed sample to be statistically representative of the demographics of the broader migrant population in Libya. Furthermore, the findings represent the sample itself, and are not considered generalizable to the whole migrant population in Libya.

FINDINGS

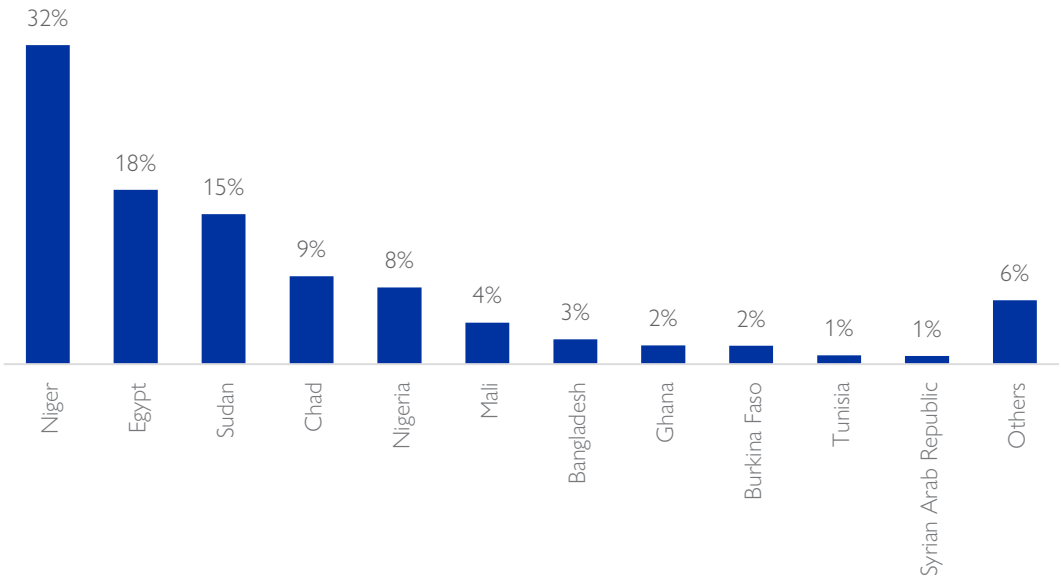
WHO ARE THE MIGRANTS?

Between January and August 2019, a total of 13,228 migrants in Libya[1] were interviewed via DTM's Flow Monitoring Survey (FMS)[2]. The interviews were conducted in 19 regions ('mantika'; administrative unit level 2) and covered 36 municipalities ('baladiya'; administrative unit level 3). The migrants interviewed were from 40 different countries of origin ranging from West Africa to East Africa, and from the Middle East to South Asia. As shown in Figure 3 the majority (93%) of the migrants interviewed were from the top 11 countries of origin. The complete breakdown of nationalities interviewed can be found in Annex A.

The diversity of the migrants interviewed, in terms of the countries of origin, shows that migrants are drawn to Libya from a wide range of countries. However, migrants from the neighbouring countries constitute the biggest share of the sample as about 75% of the migrants interviewed were from Niger, Egypt, Sudan, Chad, Tunisia and Algeria. Beyond the geographical proximity, historical ties and well-established migration patterns, including networks like diaspora or migrant communities, could be some of the reasons why most migrants in Libya are from the neighbouring countries. This trend identified by the FMS also matches the proportion of the migrant stock from Libya's neighbouring countries identified via DTM's Mobility Tracking.

The share of the regions represented amongst the sample of migrants interviewed can be seen in figure 4 (next page). West Africa constitutes the largest region of origin for migrants interviewed as part of the FMS in 2019 for this assessment. The proportional divide of the surveyed sample is also in line with the trend of the regional proportions for migrant stock identified in Libya via the DTM Mobility Tracking (IOM 2019d).

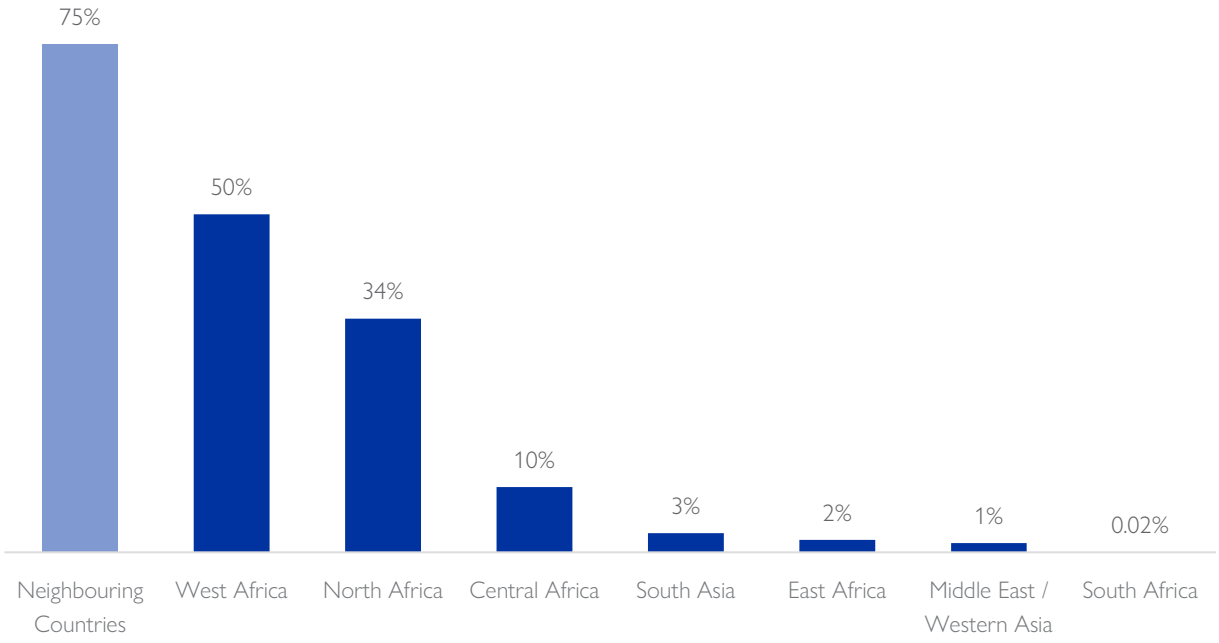
Figure 3 The top 11 countries of origin are shown here, while the remaining are aggregated under the category other. In total migrants from 40 countries of origin were interviewed in Libya. (n = 13,228)



1 Quantitative interviewed were conducted at various key locations in Libya, and the detention centres are not included amongst these locations.

2 Flow Monitoring Survey (FMS) is part of the survey core component of DTM, designed to understand migration flows. Currently, and as implemented in Libya, the FMS has been expanded to also include sectoral modules aimed at understanding migrants' conditions along different thematic areas.

Figure 4 The FMS interviews largely captured migrants from the neighbouring countries of Libya, while the regional distribution of the migrants interviewed is also shown here for comparison. (n = 13,228)

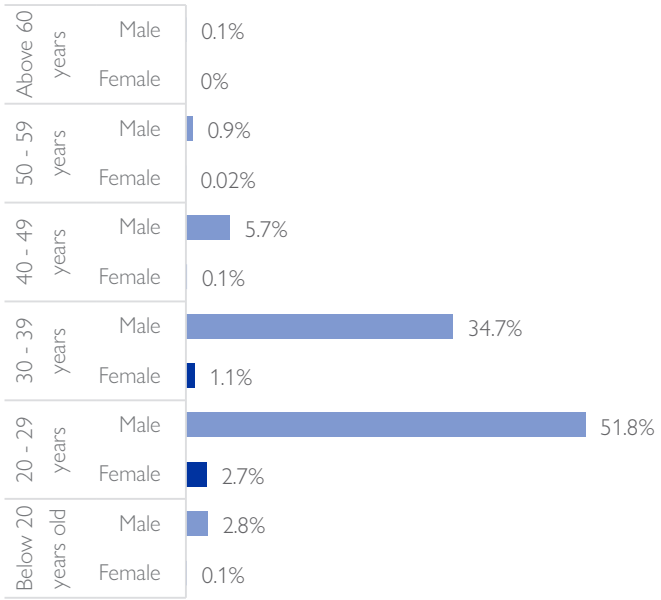


The majority of interviews were conducted with male migrants (96%) whereas 535 female migrants were interviewed (constituting 4% of the sample). The female under-representation in the sample can be partly attributed to the locations targeted for the interviews and to the non-response bias as female respondents are less likely to consent to the interview than male respondents due to socio-cultural reasons.

Across Libya, DTM Mobility Tracking identifies the overwhelming majority of migrants in Libya to be male (87%), while the female percentage of the migrant stock in Libya was slightly higher than in the FMS sample, yet still low at 13 percent (IOM 2019d).

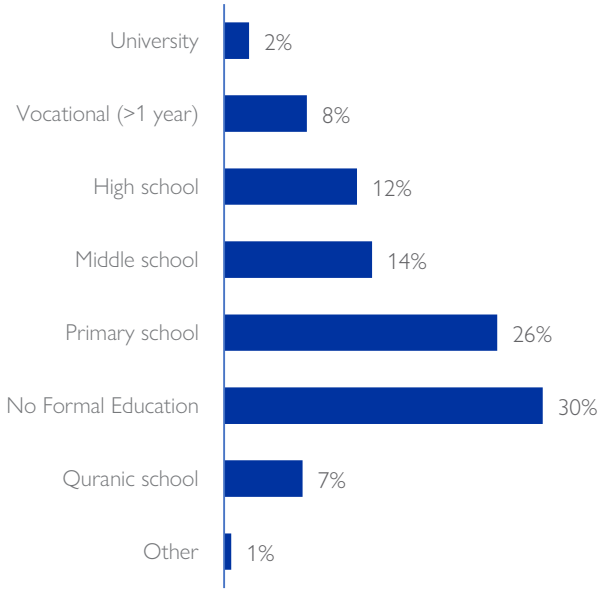
The median age of the sample of migrants interviewed was 28 years, with the male migrants between the ages of 20 and 29 years constituting 52 percent of the sample. The complete age gender breakdown is given in figure 5 below.

Figure 5 Gender age breakdown of the sample interviewed (n = 13,228)



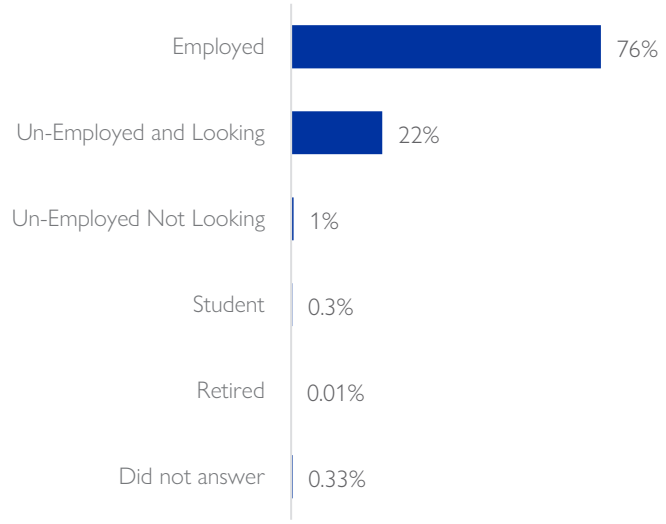
The migrants interviewed also represented a diverse range of educational backgrounds as shown in the figure 6. While 30% of the migrants interviewed reported to have received no formal education (did not attend a school), around 40% reported to have received education up to primary or middle school levels, and 7% had attended a Quran school. Whereas, about 23% of the sample reported to have achieved education levels of high school (12%) or above (6% vocational training, and 2% university graduates).

Figure 6 Highest education levels achieved by the migrants interviewed in Libya (n = 13,228)



With regards to employment, 76% of the migrants interviewed reported to be employed in Libya at the time of the assessment. Furthermore, 22% of those interviewed to be unemployed and looking for work, while about 1% of the sample reported to be unemployed and not looking for employment (including those migrants who identified to be retired, and or students) as shown in the figure 7 (next page).

Figure 7 Employment status of migrants interviewed, shows that 76% of the respondents were employed at the time of the survey. (n = 13,228)



Further analysis of employment status in Libya confirms the assumption that migrants with higher levels of education were more likely to be employed as shown in the figure 8 below.

The analysis of employment status as per the region of origin indicates that the highest proportion of migrants reporting to be unemployed were from East Africa (45% of the cohort), followed by migrants from West Africa (31%) and Central Africa (23%), while rest of the cohorts, as shown in figure 8, reported unemployment rate lower than the sample unemployment rate (22%).

While the region of origin analysis of employment is presented here, it must be noted that no claim towards a straightforward connection between region of origin and employment status in Libya should be made. An in-depth labour market assessment covering the employment dynamics in Libya, including a labour migration perspective, may further explore the underlying factors.

Similarly, the employment status reported by the migrants interviewed from the top 5 countries of origin is also compared below in the figure 8. To highlight, subsequent analysis shows that unemployment constitutes one of the most significant risk factors that increases vulnerability of migrants in Libya. Lastly, analysis of change in employment status in connection with the migration to Libya is presented in the section on migration dynamics.

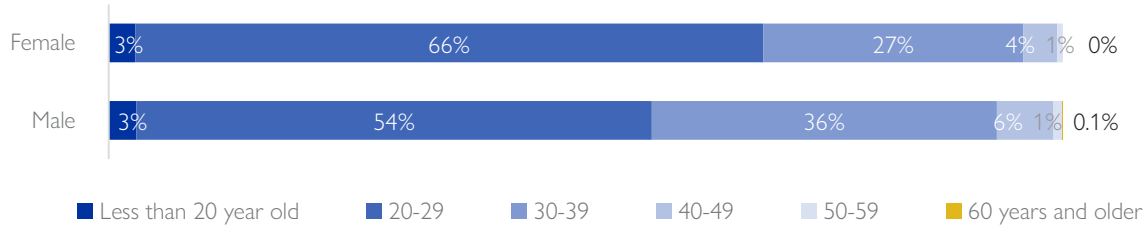
Figure 8 Analysis of migrants' employment status by the highest education levels achieved, as per the region of origin cohorts, and for the top 5 country of origin cohorts.

GENDER PERSPECTIVE

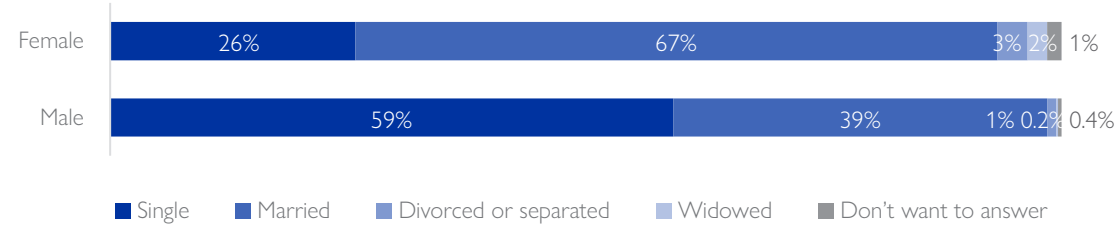
535 female migrants interviewed
4% of the sample

12,685 male migrants interviewed
96% of the sample

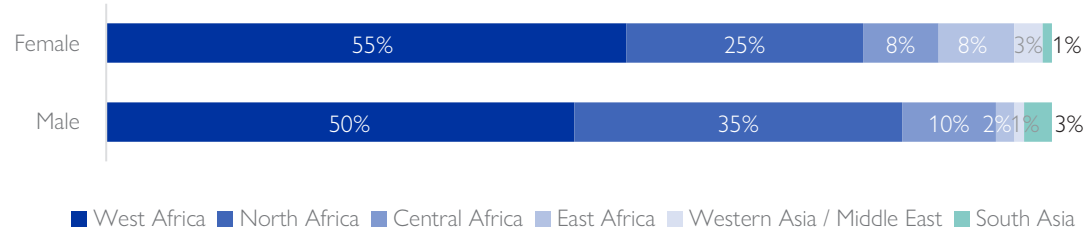
Age Comparison of age distributions for gender cohorts.



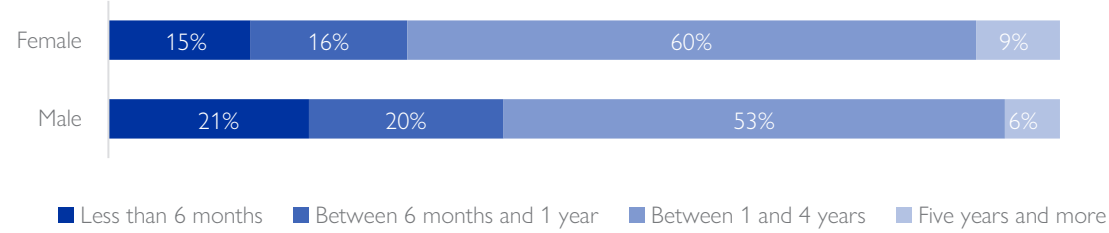
Marital Status Comparison of marital status between gender cohorts.



Region of Origin Comparison of gender cohorts as per their respective regions of origin.

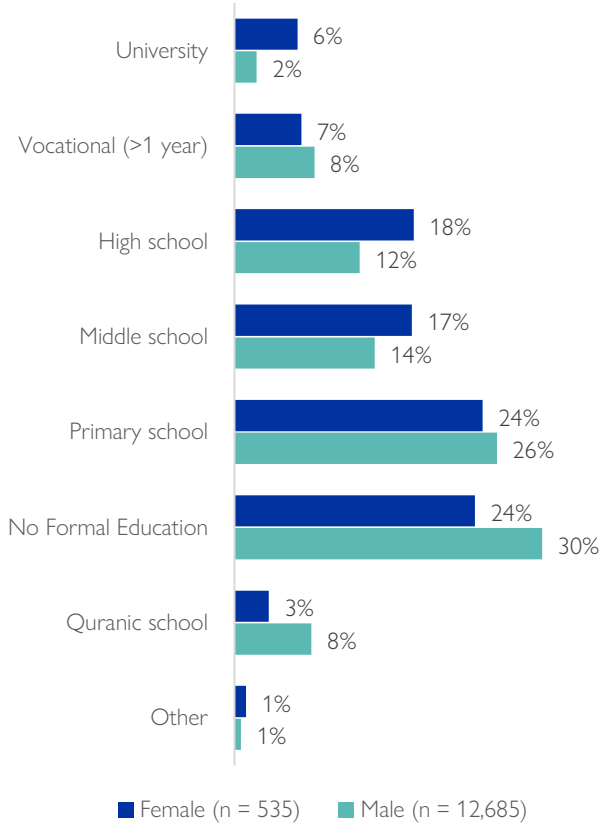


Duration of Stay in Libya Comparison of duration of stay between gender cohorts.

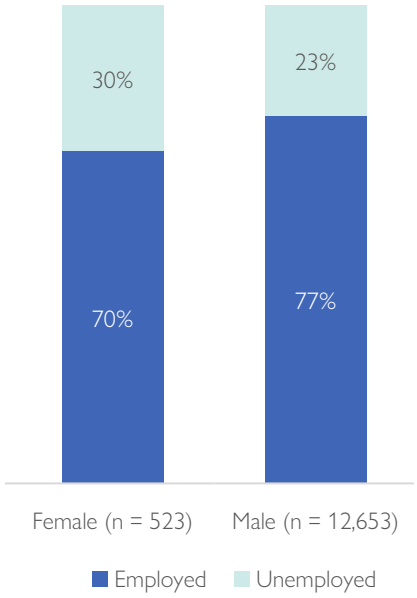


In Libya with Children 28% of the female migrants were in Libya with children, in comparison to only 5% male migrants.

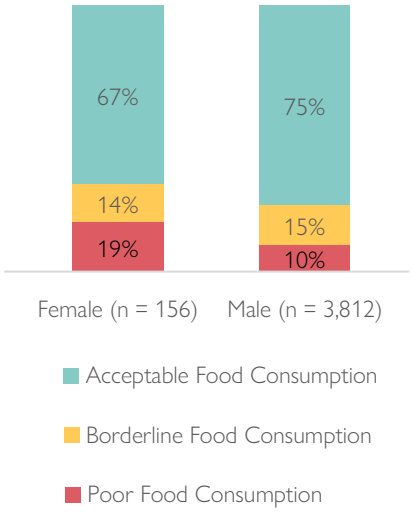
Highest Levels of Education Achieved Comparison of education levels between gender cohorts.



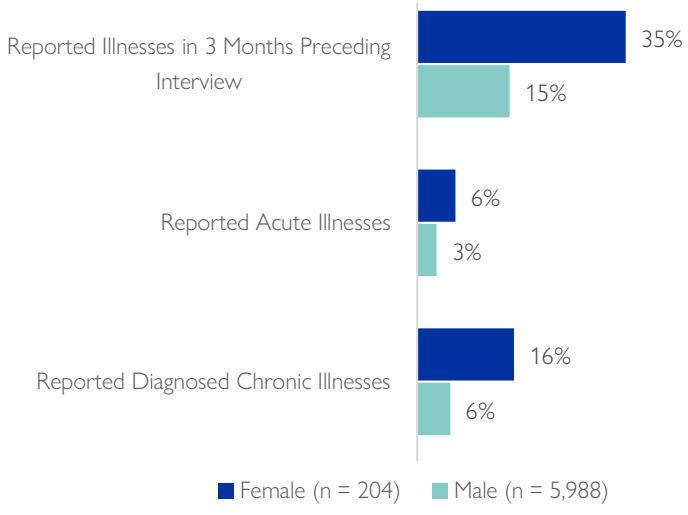
Employment Status Comparison of employment status between gender cohorts.



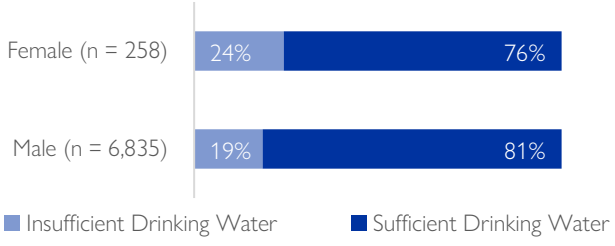
Food Security Comparison of food consumption score by gender.



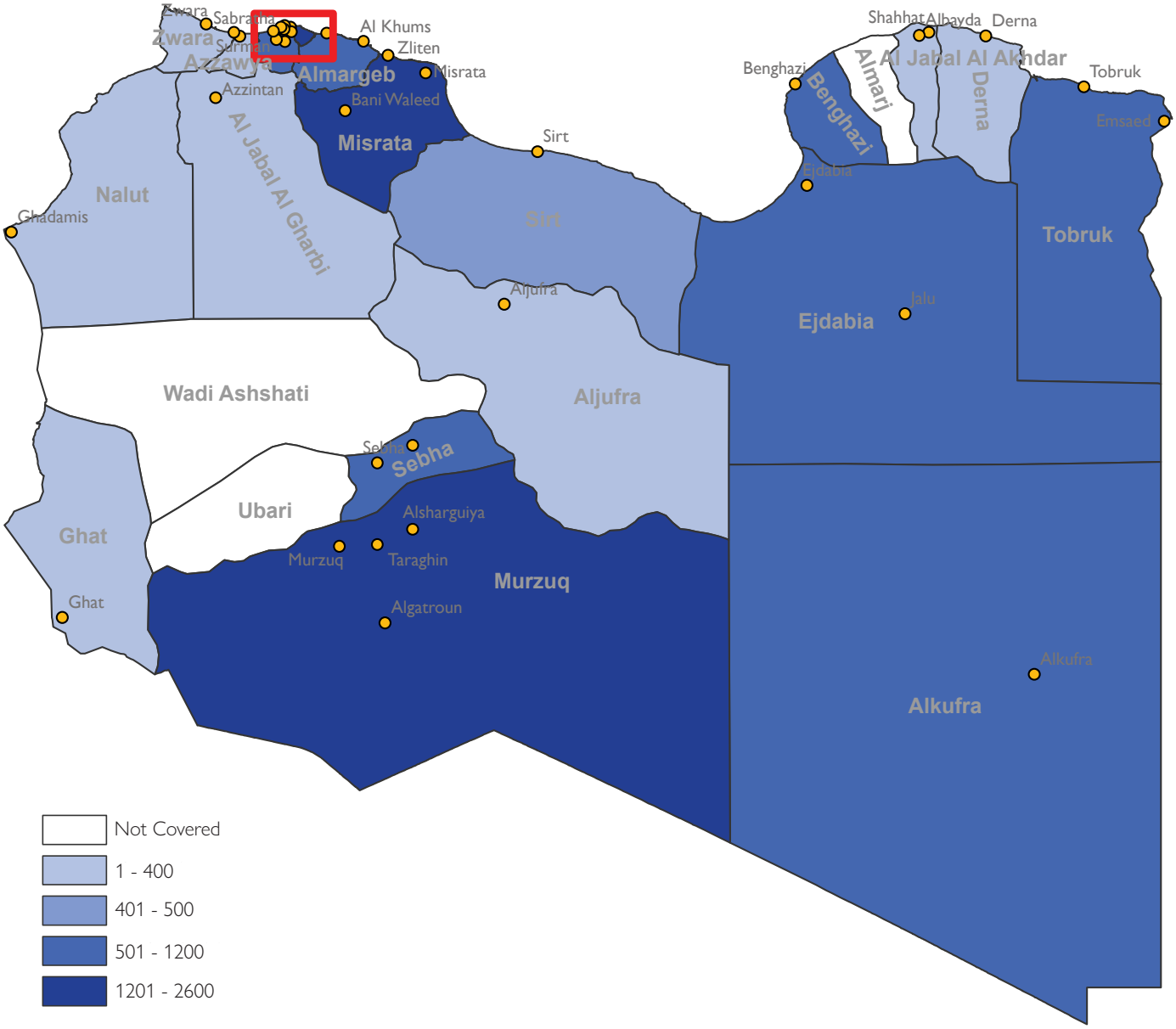
Migrant Health Comparison of critical health indicators by gender.



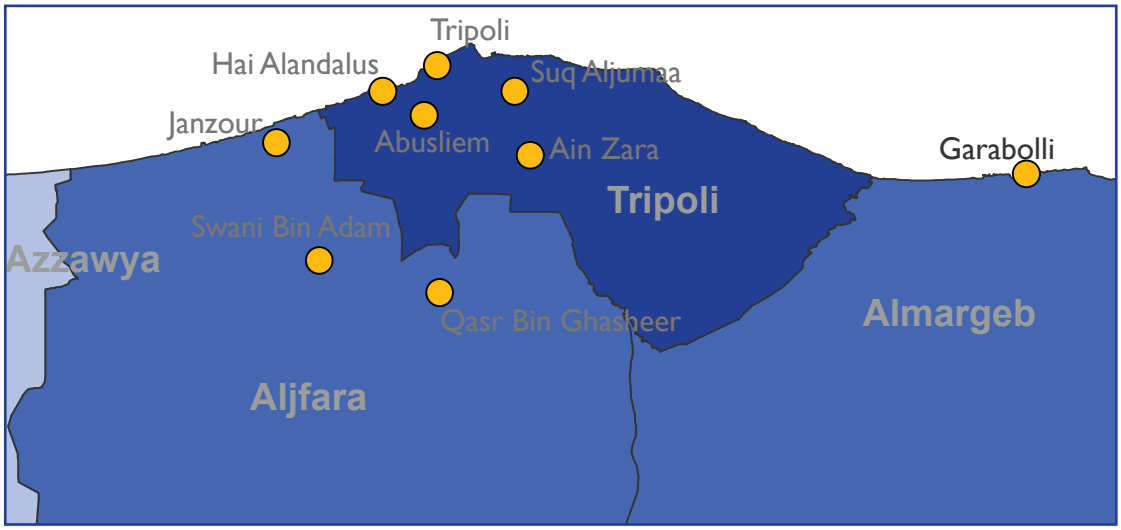
WASH: Access to Water Comparison of access to sufficient drinking water as reported by migrants according to their gender.



Map 1 Geographical distribution of locations where migrants were interviewed via Flow Monitoring Survey (FMS) between January - August 2019.



Inset: Tripoli and Aljfara regions (mantika) and the surrounding locations of FMS interviews.



MIGRATION DYNAMICS

As part of the assessment, DTM carried out in-depth analysis of migration dynamics related to decision-making by migrants, migratory routes and intentions of migrants currently present in Libya. To this end, the Flow Monitoring Survey included a set of questions aimed at supporting an evidence-based understanding of migration to Libya such as migrants' reasons for leaving the country of origin, their decision-making process with regards to intended country of destination, migration routes, risks, costs and other factors.

These questions are asked from migrants as individual respondents (micro-level), whereas the analysis presented in this section - beyond descriptive statistics for the entire sample - also considers these migration aspects in the form of cohorts aggregated at country and region of origin levels. The underlying assumption is that the analysis of these migration aspects at the level of country and region of origin cohorts represents trends that elucidate risk or protective factors that affect migrants in Libya at individual or community levels.

These migration related aspects are also important in understanding the underlying vulnerabilities which migrants may have had in their countries of origin, or those related to their reasons for migrating to Libya. In addition, certain vulnerabilities could be related to the migration routes undertaken or the costs incurred for or during the migration. These factors could also impact the mental and physical wellbeing of the migrants in Libya.

The migrants' humanitarian needs should be considered in light of the migration dynamics that bring these migrants to Libya, and similarly any humanitarian response aimed at addressing these needs should also consider migration related risks or protective factors.

Drivers of Migration

One of the main questions in understanding migration to Libya is related to the drivers of migration to Libya. The FMS approaches the drivers of migration from a perspective of the migrants' reasons for leaving their country of origin. Economic factors impacting migrants in the country of origin emerged as the strongest drivers of migration to Libya across the sample.

When asked about the first and second main reasons for leaving the country of origin a majority of respondents (68%, 99,006 migrants) indicated direct economic reasons as both their first and second reasons for leaving the country of origin. These included economic factors directly affecting the migrants at individual or community levels in their countries of origin, such as lack of job opportunities and insufficient income (34% respondents, 4,501 migrants). Over a third of the migrants interviewed also indicated other economic reasons (34% respondents, 4,505 migrants) potentially related to the macroeconomic structural issues and the perceived relative benefits of mobility to overcome the resulting microeconomic challenges.

Furthermore, 15 percent of the respondents (2,013 migrants) indicated an economic factor as only their first reason, and 6 percent of the respondents (796 migrants) indicated an economic factor as only their second reason for leaving the country of origin.

Around 5 percent of the respondents (611 migrants) indicated reasons for leaving their country of origin other than the economic factors as both the first and second reasons for leaving the country of origin. These other reasons for leaving the country of origin include factors such as limited ability to meet food needs, limited access to services, instances of war or armed conflict, to join family members (family re-unification), and targeted violence or persecution in the country of origin. These reasons for leaving the country of origin – although indicated by a smaller proportion of migrants interviewed – in themselves constitute risk factors that add to those migrants' vulnerability in Libya. Regional analysis presented in figure 12 further depicts this aspect.

The figure 9 below shows the analysis of response patterns to the question on reasons for leaving the country of origin, indicating that factors such as lack of jobs, insufficient income, and/or other economic factors constitute the largest set of reasons for migrants in Libya to have left their countries of origin.

Figure 9 Reasons for leaving the country of origin show that a majority of migrants interviewed had chosen economic factors as both the first and second main reason for leaving the country of origin (n = 13,228)

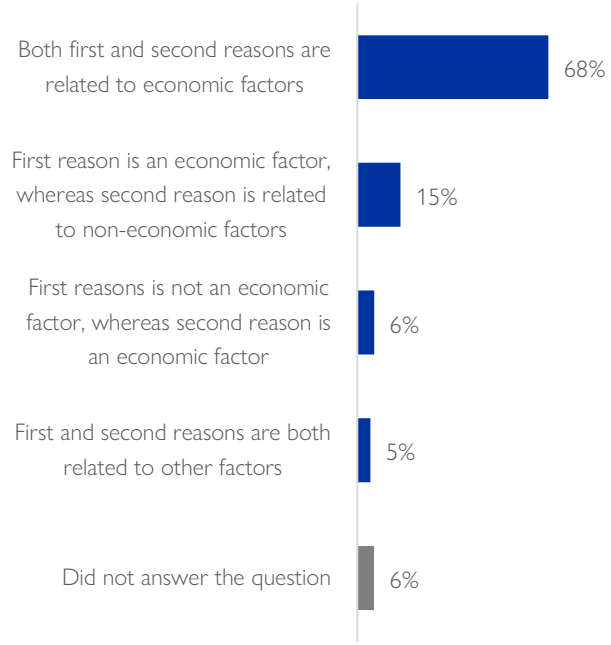
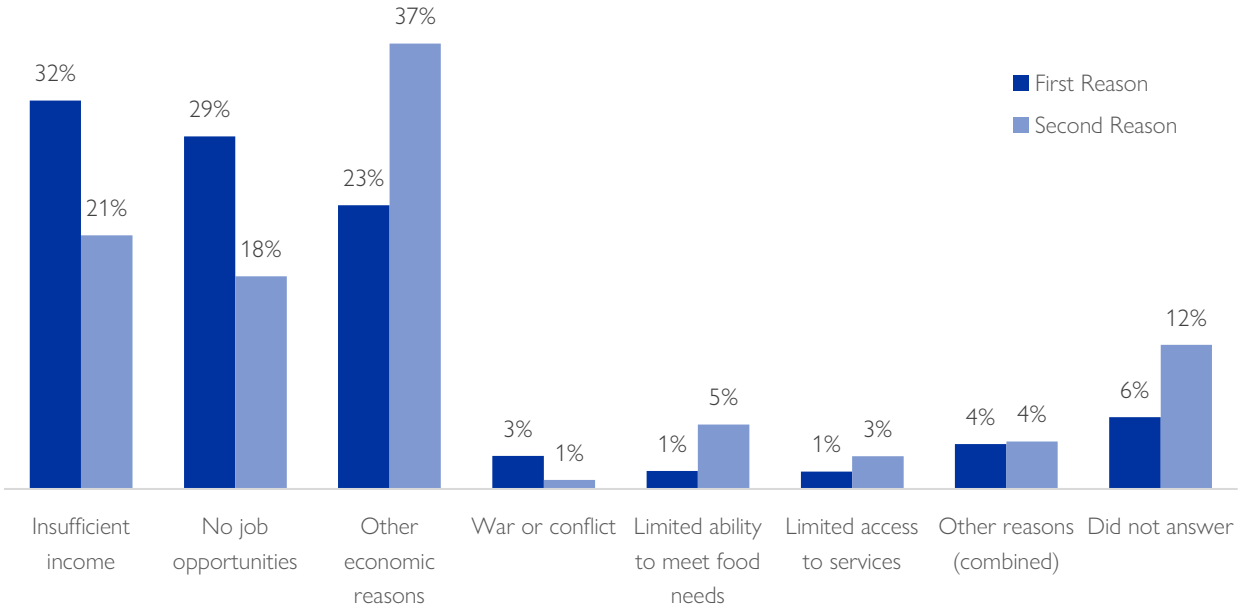


Figure 10 (on next page) shows both the first and second reasons for leaving the country of origin in terms of their respective percentages of respondents choosing each factor. Several of these factors such as limited ability to meet food needs and limited access to services could be related to structural conditions or the state of development or underdevelopment and crisis in the countries of origin for the migrants responding to the interviews. Therefore, subsequent analysis in this section also presents figures showing reasons for leaving the country of origin as per the top country of origin and region cohorts.

Figure 10 Comparison of the first and second main reasons for leaving the country of origin. (n = 13,228)



When the first and second reasons for leaving the country of origin are considered separately, the top first reason to emerge is "insufficient income" in the country of origin, indicated by 32% of the respondents (4,248 migrants), followed by lack of job opportunities ("no job opportunities") as indicated by 29% of the respondents (3,854 migrants). While, the top second reason for leaving the country of origin to emerge is "other economic reasons" as indicated by 37% of the respondents (4,870 migrants), followed by "insufficient income" in the country of origin as indicated by 21% of the respondents (2,774 migrants).

"Other economic reasons" emerges as the top overall reason indicated by the largest proportion of the respondents, primarily because it was identified by a large proportion of those indicating both economic reasons for leaving their country of origin. However, in addition it was also identified as a reason by a significant proportion of respondents whose first reason for leaving the country of origin was not an economic reason, represented by the 6% respondents (794 migrants) shown in figure 9 (previous page).

To further understand the economic factors driving migration to Libya in detail a subsequent question was asked for those who chose at least one economic reason for leaving the country of origin. The aim of this question was to identify the specific type of economic reasons driving migration towards Libya. This question goes beyond the reasons for leaving the country of origin and considers the type of available economic activities in Libya of interest to prospective migrants.

As shown in figure 11, the top specific economic reason for migration as identified by 63% of the respondents (8,270 migrants) was "looking for job opportunities". Interestingly, 18% of the respondents (2,315 migrants) also indicated frequent international mobility by identifying that they were commuting daily or weekly for work. This pattern was only observed among migrants in the South in (relative) proximity to Libya's borders and included 821 migrants interviewed in Algatroun, 219 migrants in Alkufra, and 209 migrants in Sebha. Other economic reasons for migrating, indicated by less than 10% of the interviewed migrants, were business or trading (4% respondents, 534 migrants) and those engaged in seasonal migration, transhumance, or agropastoral activities (3% respondents, 336 migrants).

Figure 11 Migrants reporting economic reasons for leaving the country of origin were also asked about the specific reasons for migrating to Libya, a search for job opportunities emerges as the top reason for migration to Libya (n = 13,228)

A regional comparison of the reasons for leaving the country of origin as identified by the migrants interviewed in Libya indicates two interesting trends. A majority of respondents from the regions of West Africa, North Africa, Central Africa, and South Asia indicate economic reasons for leaving their countries of origin. This can be seen in figure 12 (next page) where more than 50%

of respondents in each of these cohorts identified either "no job opportunities", "insufficient income", or "other economic reasons" for leaving their country of origin.

The second important trend emerging from this regional comparison is that a large proportion of migrants interviewed in Libya who had migrated from Middle East identified war or conflict (74%, 134 migrants out of a total 181 interviewed) and targeted violence or persecution (22%, 40 migrants) as their reasons for leaving the country of origin. Similarly, a significant proportion of migrants in Libya from East Africa also identified war or conflict (36%, 88 migrants out of 243 interviewed) and targeted violence or persecution (21%, 50 migrants).

In the case of migrants originating from Middle East the largest country of origin cohort interviewed was from Syrian Arab Republic (222 migrants), where 85 migrants identified war or conflict and 25 targeted violence and persecution as their two main reasons for leaving Syria.

Among respondents from East Africa, a diverse range of migrants originating from different countries indicated war or conflict and targeted violence or persecution as their reasons for leaving their respective countries of origin. The largest subsets can be identified as 26 migrants from Somalia (out of the 104 interviewed) and 25 migrants from South Sudan (out of 116 interviewed) indicating war or conflict as one of their two main reasons for leaving their respective countries of origin. While, 17 migrants from Ethiopia (out of 140 interviewed), 16 from Somalia (out of the 104 interviewed) and 25 migrants from South Sudan (out of 116 interviewed) identified targeted violence or persecution as of their main reasons for leaving the country of origin.

While the question considering reasons for migration at the individual level puts emphasis on the factors that go into individuals' decision making, there may be structural aspects at play that go beyond the individual sphere of influence. Therefore, while individuals may indicate to have decided to migrate due to economic factors, the underlying root causes resulting in the deteriorated economic circumstances in the country of origin may be structural and related to political or economic instability. This calls for a multi-layered analysis of the migration drivers, i.e. at individual decision-making level as well as at a structural level considering the broader country of origin context. (Migali, S., et al. 2018)

These reasons for leaving the country of origin - specifically war or conflict and targeted violence or persecution - constitute risk factors that add to the vulnerability of migrants in Libya who left their countries of origin because of these reasons.

The country of origin comparison, as shown on the next page in figure 13 for the top 10 cohorts, also depicts the overall finding that the most significant driver of migration to Libya is related to economic factors. The vast majority of respondents in the top 10 country of origin cohorts indicated economic reasons for leaving their country of origin.

Figure 12 Reasons for leaving the country of origin shown as per the region of origin cohorts. Percentages sum up to 200% in each case, as up to two reasons could be chosen. Size of each cohort (n) is shown for comparison.

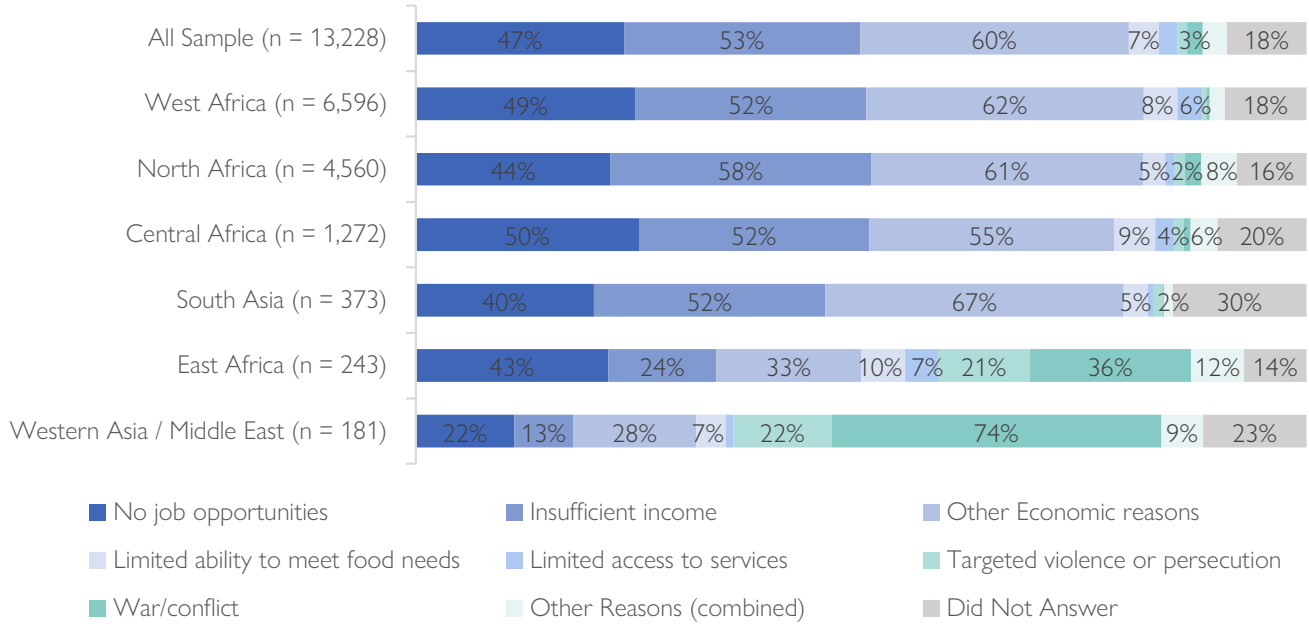
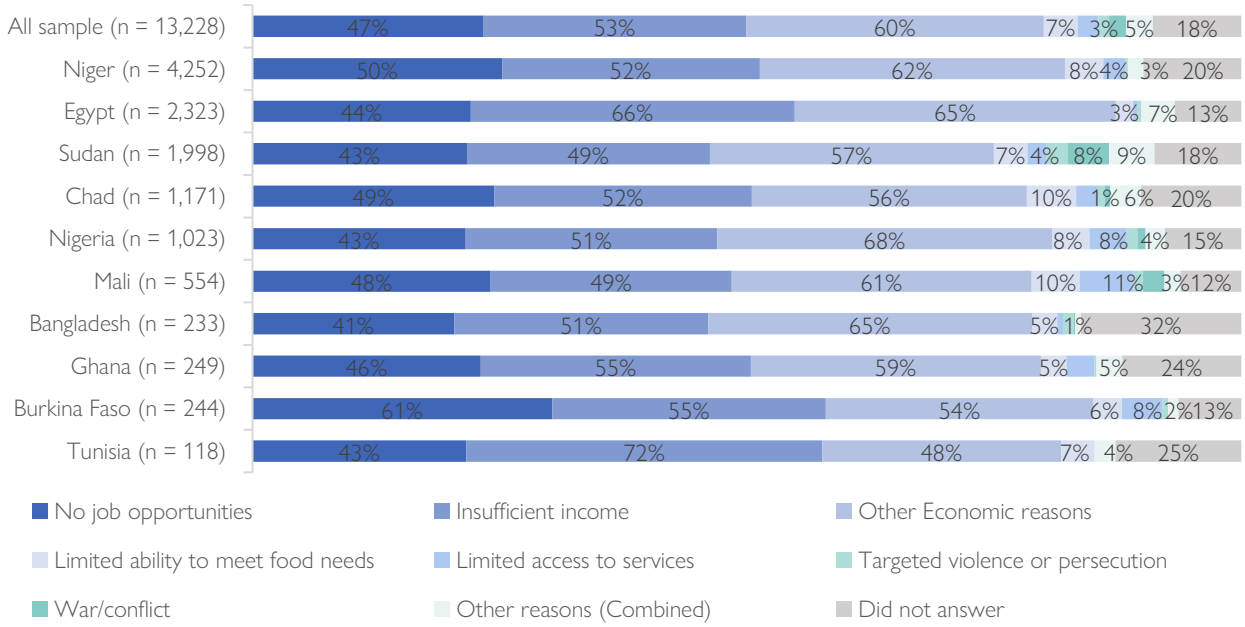


Figure 13 Reasons for leaving country of origin shown for migrants interviewed from top 10 countries of origin. Percentages sum up to 200% in each case, as up to two reasons could be chosen. Size of each cohort (n) is shown for comparison.



Similarly, in terms of specific economic reasons, a majority (more than 50% respondents) in each of the above top 10 country of origin cohorts also indicated "looking for job opportunities" as the main specific reason for migration. A small proportion of respondents originating from the neighbouring countries of Chad (8%, 88 migrants), Niger (3%, 140 migrants), Sudan (2%, 46 migrants), and Egypt (2%, 38 migrants) identified seasonal migration, transhumance, and agropastoral activity related factors as specific economic drivers of their migration to Libya.

Lastly, while the analysis of reasons for leaving the country of origin, and of specific economic reason for migration to Libya, shows that the migration to Libya for a vast majority of migrants is driven by economic factors that influence their migration decision making, it does not exclude the case of refugees and asylum seekers who may have migrated to Libya for the same reasons. As several publications note that refugees' migration decision making is often complex and could be influenced by the economic realities faced by them, especially in the case of secondary migration from a country where they may have obtained protection but lacked economic autonomy. (Crawley, H., et al 2018; Betts, A. et al 2017)

Migration Decision Making and Intended Destination

Another important aspect of the complex dynamics of migration to Libya lies in the understanding of migration decision making with regards to intended countries of destination. Do most migrants come to Libya consider it a country of destination, or do they consider it only as a country of transit along the chosen migration route, or does the answer lie somewhere in between?

FMS interviews also included a series of questions aimed at understanding the migrants' decision-making process in choosing the intended country of destination. The migrants are first asked what their intended country of destination was at the time of departure from their country of origin. Considering that the migrants interviewed in this case have successfully made it to Libya, they are then asked if their decision on their intended country of destination remains the same? Those respondents answering in negative, are subsequently asked what changed their intentions in terms of the new intended country of destination that they now want to migrate to. They are also asked to specify the reasons for choosing the said final country of destination.

In 2019, a total of 5,265 migrants interviewed via FMS received questions from the module on migration intentions and decision making. As shown in figure 14, 81% of the respondents who were asked this question (4,266 migrants) identified Libya as their intended country of destination at the time of departure from their country of origin. In comparison Italy was identified by 7% (387 migrants), France by 3% (179 migrants), and Germany by 2% (116 migrants) as their intended countries of destination at the time of departure from the country of origin. The rest of the distribution of responses can be seen in the figure below. The percentages present a snapshot, and therefore only reflect migrants interviewed in the context of this assessment. While the sample covers a large cross section of the migrant population, the trends obtained are not generalizable as reflecting the intention of all migrants present in Libya. Therefore, the statistics should not be used to calculate the percentage of migrants in transit to Europe. Furthermore, as detailed in other studies (Migali, S., et al. 2018) asking about migration intentions only and not about steps taken in preparing towards following through on those intentions only reflect a partial picture.

The question on migration intention at the time of departure from the country of origin was asked retrospectively, followed by a second question inquiring if respondents still intend to reach the same country of destination. As shown in figure 15 below, a little over 15% of the respondents (815 migrants) who were asked this question indicated a change of intention.

In a subsequent question, the migrants who had indicated that their intention had changed from what they had intended at the time of departure from their country of origin, were asked about their intended country of destination at the time of the survey.

The first trend observed was that a majority of those who had intended to migrate to Libya as a destination country at the time of departure still considered Libya as their country of destination while in Libya. This is shown as the thickest flow line in the chart in figure 16 (on next page) connecting Libya from intended country of destination in the country of origin (left) to Libya amongst the intended countries of destination at the time of the interview (right).

Figure 14 Reason A question on the intended country of destination at the time of departure from the country of origin (asked in retrospective) reveals that 81% of the migrants interviewed had intended to come to Libya as a country of destination. (n = 5,265)

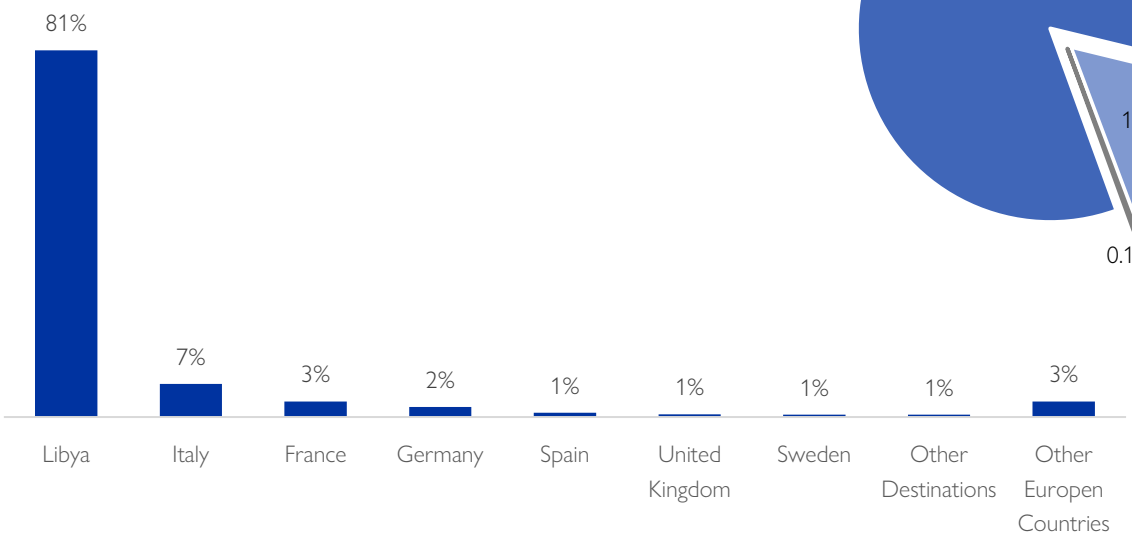
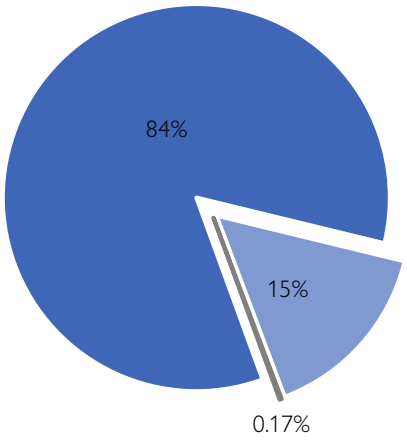


Figure 15 Migrants were also asked if over the course of migration and while now in Libya, had their idea of the intended country of destination changed from when they were leaving the country of origin? 15.5% of the migrants responding to this question indicated that their intended country of destination had changed. (n = 5,265)

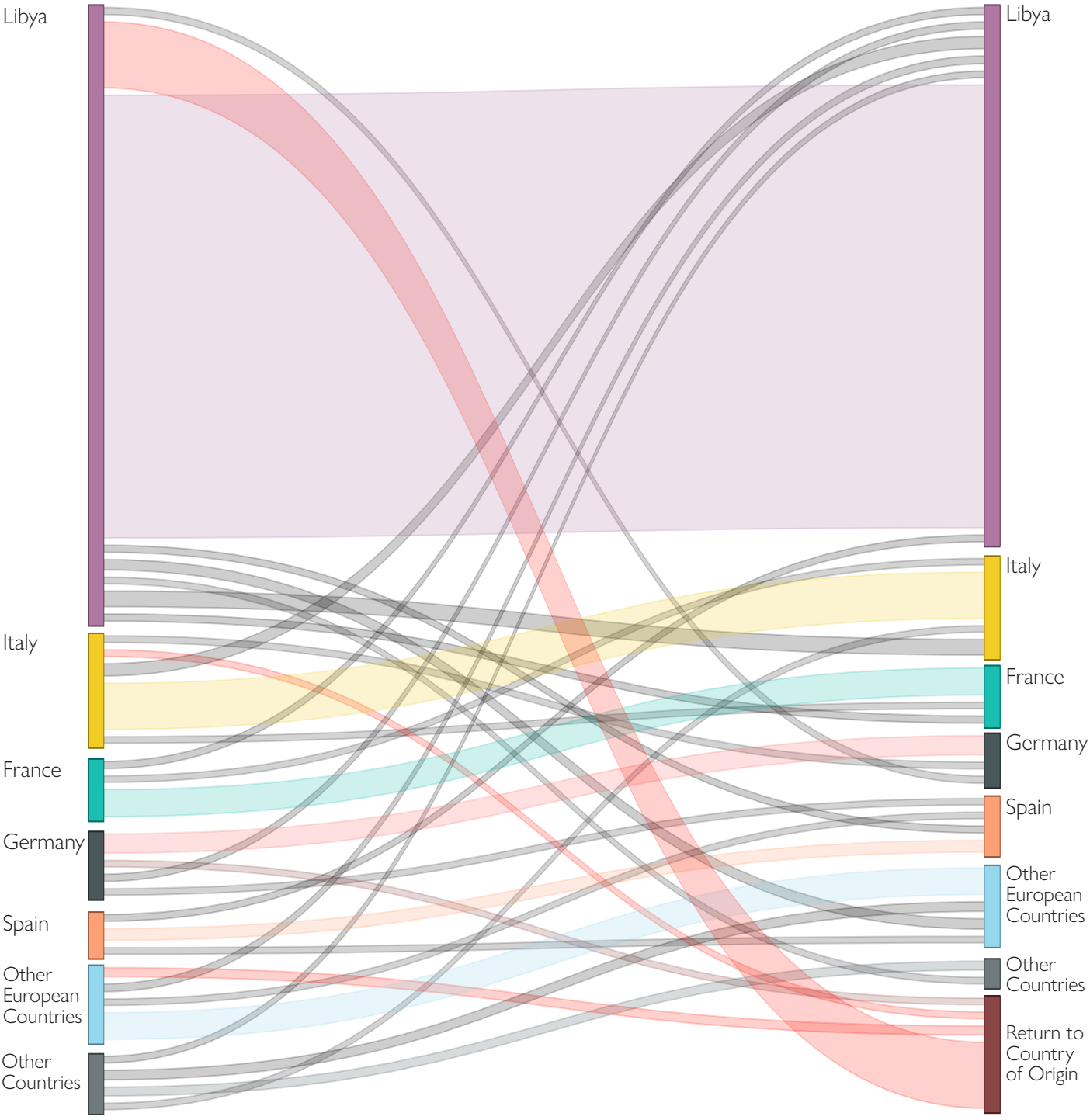


Furthermore, a smaller yet significant proportion of migrants who had originally intended of migrating onwards from Libya now considered Libya as a country of destination. This represented 71% of the respondents replying to this module (3,761 migrants) who expressed that Libya was their intended country of destination now.

The second interesting trend to emerge from the responses received to this module was that a significant proportion of respondents (10%, 528 migrants), who had indicated an intention to migrate to a diverse range of countries of destination at the onset of their migration, now expressed their intention to return to their countries of origin.

The rest of the various smaller trends of migrants either considering the same or a changed country of destination are shown in the Sankey flow chart below (figure 16).

Figure 16 The change in decision about the intended country of destination from the time of departure from the country of origin (left side) to when in Libya (right side) shows that while a majority intended to come to Libya as a country of destination and still thinks so, there are various other complex changes with a desire to return to country of origin emerging as a significant trend. (n = 5,265)



The various changes in the intentions indicate that migration decision making follows complex patterns. The decision to migrate to Libya as a country of destination can change over the course of the migrants' journey or upon arrival when facing the circumstances of stay in Libya to either an intention of return to the country of origin or onward migration elsewhere. Similarly, a few migrants considering Libya as a country of transit at the time of departure from their country of origin, and therefore intending to migrate onwards from Libya to a third country of destination, also changed their intentions and decided to either stay in Libya or to return to their countries of origin.

Migration Decision Making and Employment Status

It is also important to consider the change in employment status of the migrants interviewed in relation to their migration decision, especially since a majority of the migrants interviewed (63%) indicated that they had come to Libya in search for job opportunities.

The overall trend shows that migration to Libya had a net positive impact on the interviewed migrants' employment status, as shown in figure 17. The analysis of the reported employment status in the country of origin and the employment status in Libya shows following trends:

i. A vast majority of migrants who were employed in their country of origin (88%, 6,815 migrants interviewed) reported to have also found employment in Libya after migration.

ii. While the second largest trend shows that a majority of those migrants who were unemployed in their countries of origin (64%, 4,033 migrants interviewed) found employment in Libya after migration.

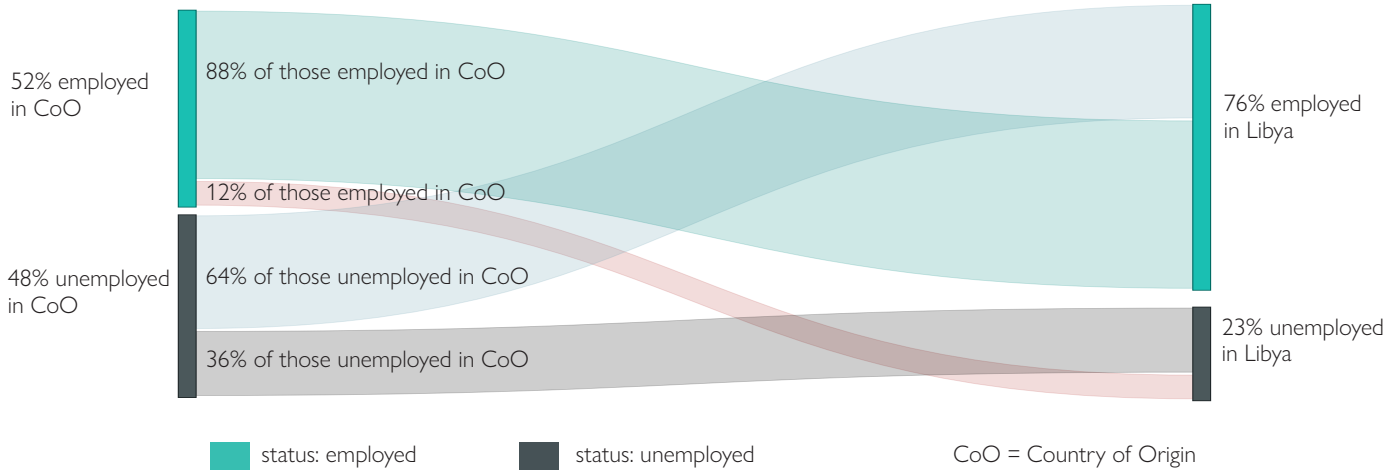
iii. A smaller proportion of migrants who were unemployed in their country of origin (17% of the same, 2,260 migrants interviewed / 36% of those unemployed in their CoO) were still unemployed in Libya at the time of the assessment.

iv. Whereas, an even smaller proportion of migrants interviewed (6% of the sample, 784 migrants / 12% of those employed in CoO) reported to be employed in their countries of origin but were unemployed in Libya.

Overall, the migration to Libya had a net positive impact on the migrants' employment prospects as most migrants reported to have found employment in Libya irrespective of their employment status in their country of origin.

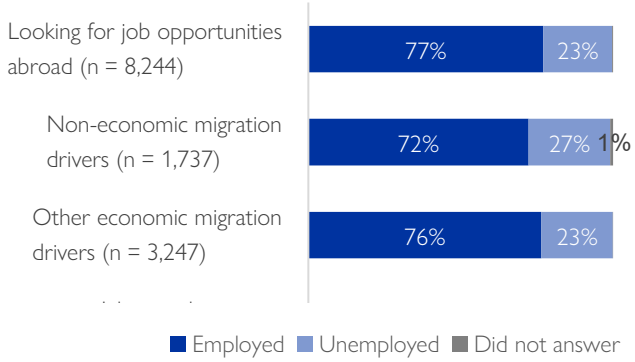
Furthermore, employment status in Libya is also analysed in light of the reported economic reasons for migration to Libya, as shown in figure 18 (next page).

Figure 17 Change in employment status from before migration in the country of origin to the employment status Libya at the time of the interview. (n = 13,108)



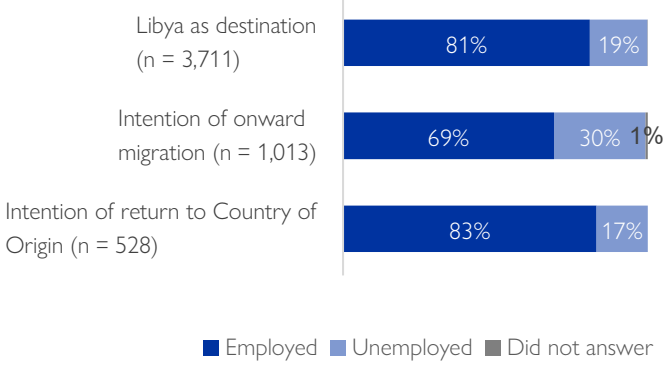
77% of those who reported their main economic reason for migration was to look for work opportunities abroad were employed in Libya. Whereas, even 72% of those who had not reported a specific economic reason for migration to Libya also reported being employed in Libya at the time of the interview.

Figure 18 Comparison of employment status in Libya as per the migration drivers identified (n = 13,228)



Analysis of respondents' employment status as per their response to the question on intended country of destination – as shown in figure 19 – indicates that rates of unemployment were higher amongst the migrants expressing an intention of onward migration by identifying a third country (other than Libya, or their country of origin) as their intended country of destination. Several reports identify that migrants in transit often find work along the way to pay for their migration or travel related costs (Altai 2013, 2015; DRC 2013) however this should be further explored in light of the higher unemployment rates observed amongst this cohort.

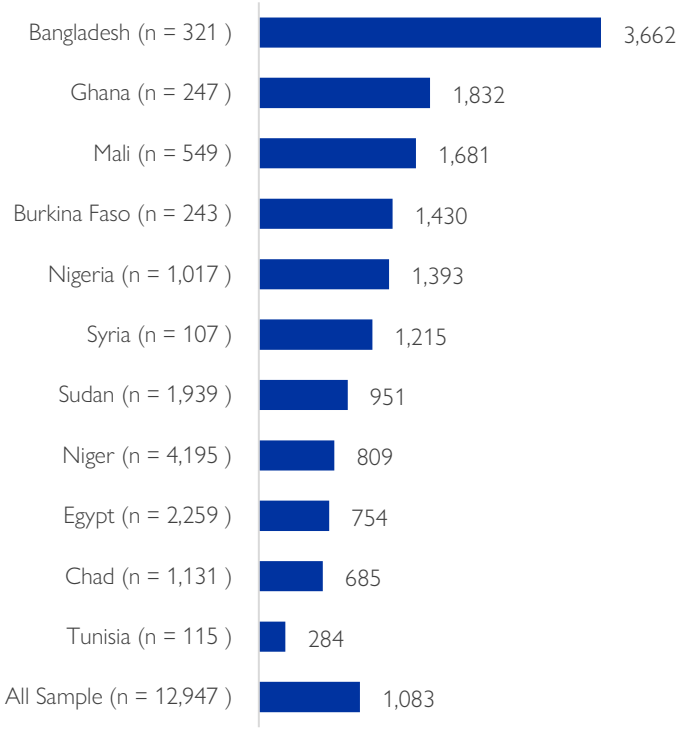
Figure 19 Comparison of employment status and migration intentions (interpreted from the intended country of destination reported while in Libya) (n = 5,252)



Cost of Journey to Libya

Migrants were also asked about the costs of their journey to Libya, and a total of 12,947 migrants (98% interviewed) reported the amount they had spent. The median cost of journey to Libya was reported to be 650 US dollars per person, indicating that half of the respondents paid more than that amount. While the average cost of journey to Libya was estimated to be around 1,083 US dollars per person. Figure 20 shows the average cost of journey to Libya per person for the top 11 country of origin cohorts and the sample.

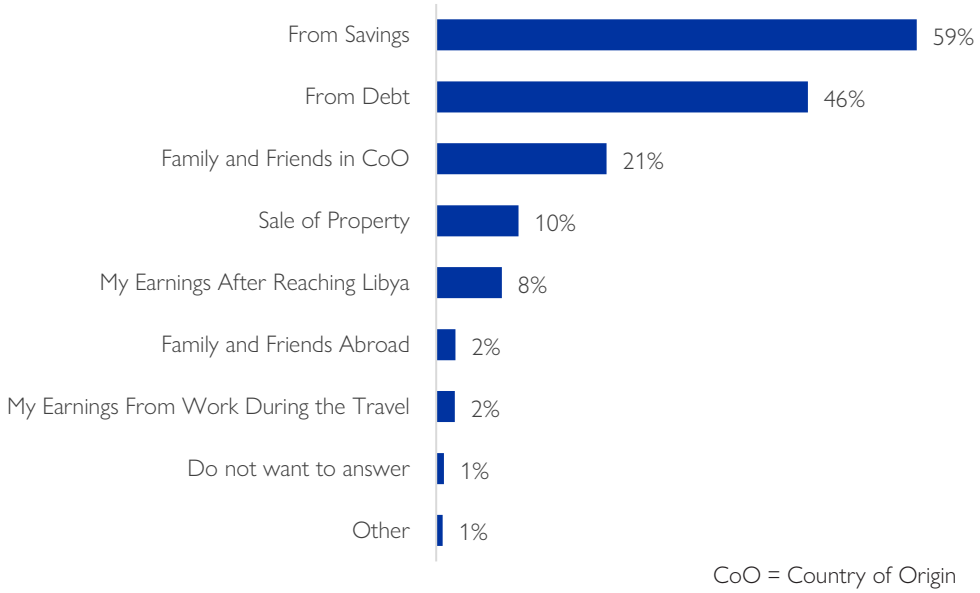
Figure 20 Average cost of journey to Libya for top 11 country of origin cohorts paying the most for their migration. (n = 12,947)



Analysis of the sources and modalities used by migrants to pay for their journey costs shows that 59% of the migrants reported depending on their savings in part or fully to pay for their journey to Libya, while 46% of the migrants also reported taking on debts to finance their journey. Furthermore, 8% of the migrants interviewed reported to rely on their earnings from employment in Libya to pay for the costs of their journey to Libya, and 2% reported to have paid for their journey costs in part or full by working during the travel

Figure 21 (next page) shows the percentage of migrants identifying each source or modality use for meeting the costs of journey to Libya in response to a multiple option question.

Figure 21 Sources and modalities used for meeting the costs of journey to Libya (Percentage calculated from sample n = 13,228, while respondents could choose multiple options in response.)

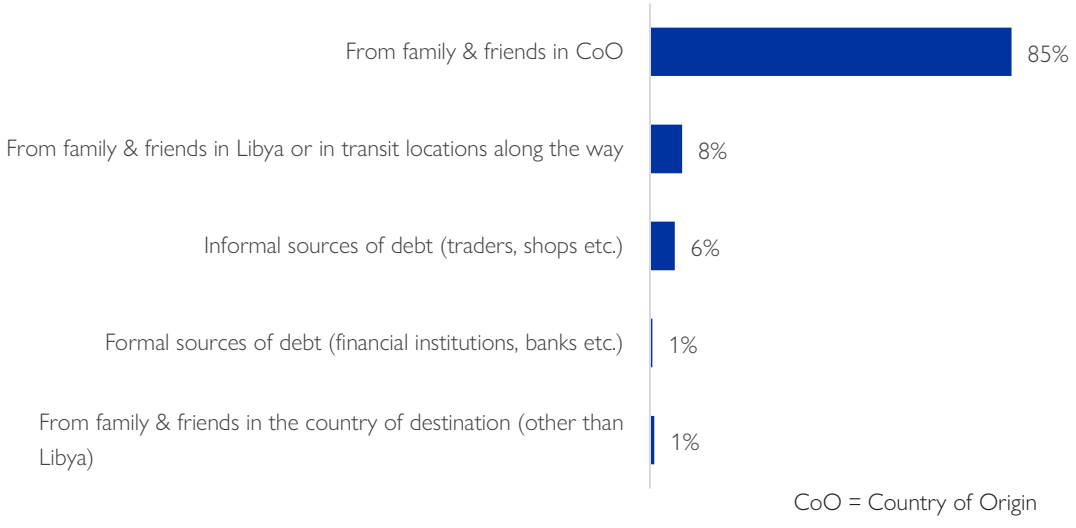


Taking on debt to pay for the journey to Libya increases both financial and protection risks. Similarly, apart from debt (as reported by 46% of the migrants interviewed), depending on earnings from employment in Libya after arrival (8%) or on earnings from work carried out during the travel (2%) also presents potential risk factors that add to the vulnerability of migrants to exploitation.

Migrants who reported taking on debt to finance their journey to Libya were also asked about who they took this loan from. Figure 22 shows that a majority (85% respondents, 5,144 migrants) reported to have taken on debt from their family and friends in the country of origin, followed by those who borrowed money from family and friends who were either in Libya or in another country along their transit route to Libya (8% respondents, 456 migrants). A small proportion of respondents (6%, 352 migrants) reported to have taken on debt from informal sources such as traders or shops. Less than 2 percent of respondents (97 migrants) reported to have taken on debt from family and friends in the country of destination (other than Libya) or from formal sources such as banks or other formal financial institutions. Figure 22 shows the complete breakdown of sources of debt to finance travel to Libya.

This indicates that migrants interviewed in Libya could be assumed to have been relatively better off than their peers in the country of origin who may have lacked required resources to finance migration related costs. This applies to migrants who reported to have financed their migration journey related costs from their savings but could also be true for migrants reporting to have received financial support from family and friends in their country of origin.

Figure 22 Sources of debts used by migrants to cover their costs of journey to Libya. (n = 6,049)



Remittances

A section of the FMS interview is dedicated to a series of questions on remittances sent home by migrants interviewed. One in three migrants interviewed was open to discuss the topic of remittances.

A total of 4,233 migrants reported the net amount of remittances they had sent back home since their arrival in Libya. On average these migrants reported to have sent back around 2,500 US dollars per person since their arrival in Libya. About half of the migrants answering the question on remittances, reported to have remitted more than a hundred US dollar per month. Figure 23 shows the average remittances sent by migrants since their arrival in Libya, from top 11 country of origin cohorts.

The analysis of estimated remittance sent to the country of origin for top ten cohorts shows that 43% of the migrants from Bangladesh reported to have remitted more than 300 US dollars per month, while a quarter of migrants from Sudan also reported to remit more than 300 US dollars per month. Figure 24 shows the complete breakdown of the estimated remittances sent per month by the top ten country of origin cohorts.

The analysis of remittances sent to country of origin by migrants as per their reported professions shows that migrants employed in roles as managers or in office work related professions were able to send higher amounts of remittances per month.

Figure 23 Average remittances (in US dollars) sent to country of origin since arrival in Libya for top 11 country of origin cohorts. (n = 4,233)

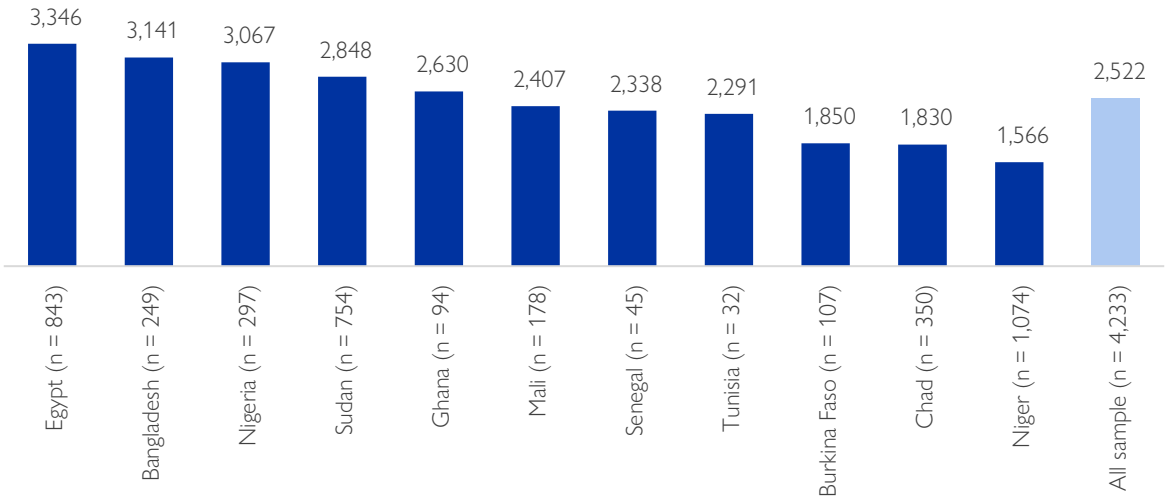
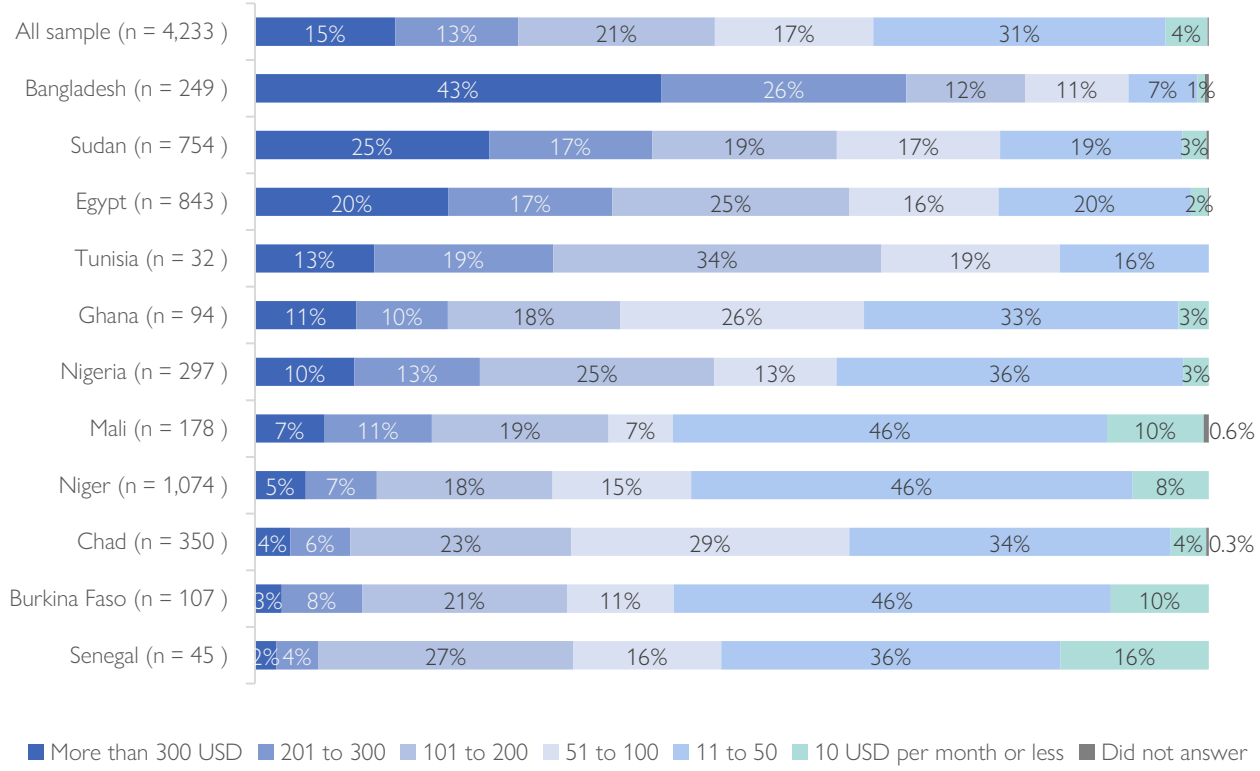


Figure 24 Remittances per month sent to country of origin by migrants from top 10 country of origins shown as percent distribution for each cohort. (n = 4,233)



The amount per month is calculated by dividing the total reported remittance sent to country of origin since arrival in Libya by the number of months' stay in Libya.

Remittances sent by migrants from Libya covered various expenses in their countries of origin, ranging from covering their families' food related costs to reported contribution towards savings, investments, and even towards construction of family homes. Notably, 18% of the migrants also reported that their remittances covered migration related costs incurred by them. Figure 26 shows the complete breakdown of utilization of remittances as reported by migrants interviewed.

Comparing of remittances sent to country of origin with the reported cost of migrants' journey to Libya shows that 60% of the respondents answering both questions (2,546 migrants) had already transferred higher amounts than their reported costs of journey to Libya. This indicates that income from employment in Libya was sufficient to recover migration related costs for most migrants.

Figure 25 Remittances sent per month (grouped) as shown by the profession categories reported by the migrants. (n = 3,414)

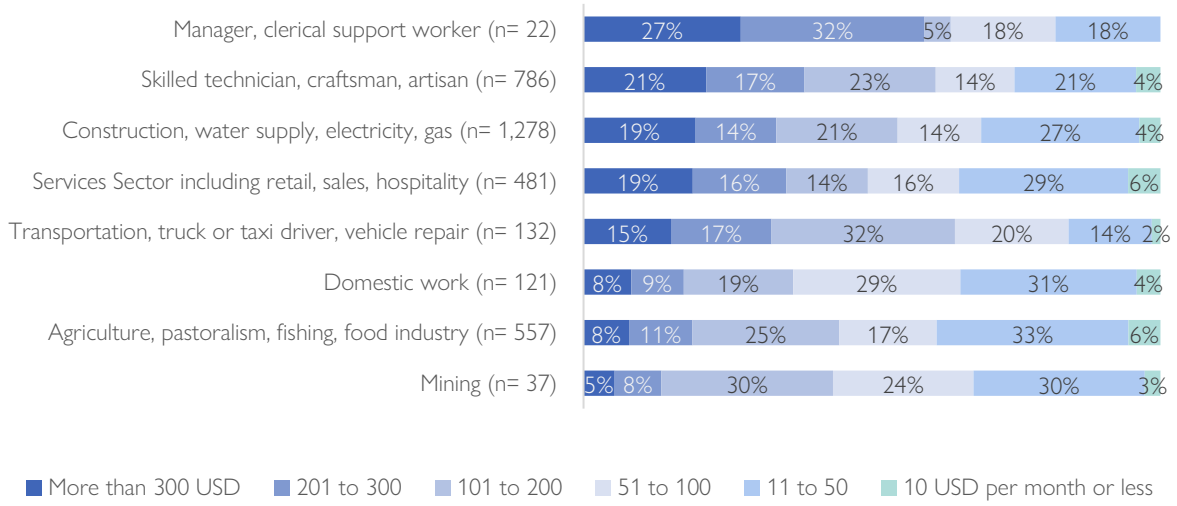
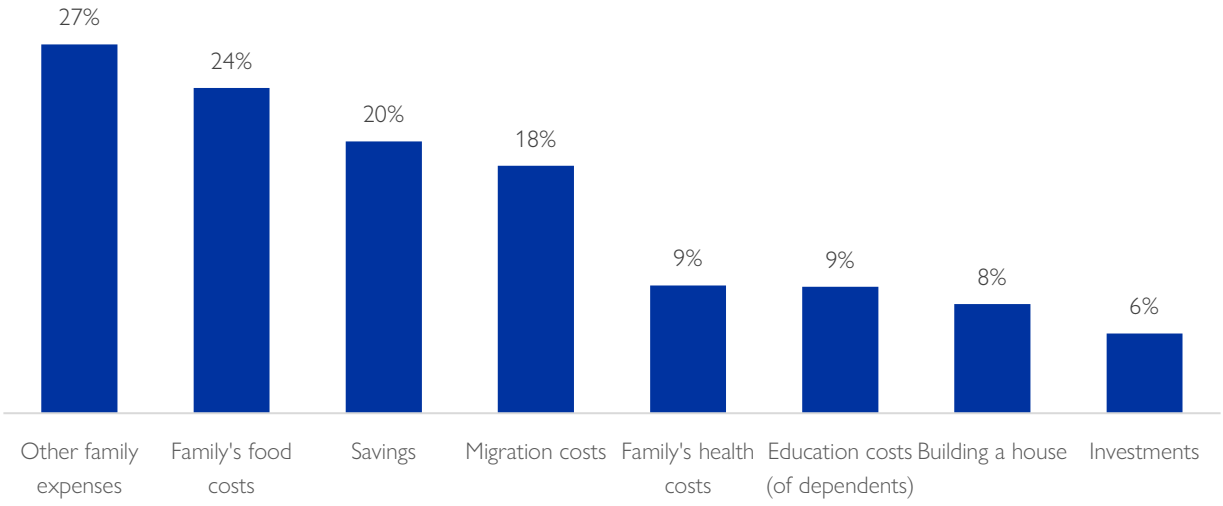


Figure 26 Remittances sent home by migrants from Libya cover various household expenses (percentages from sample n = 13,228)



Sabratha Migrants stranded in Sabratha during 2017 eruption of armed conflict were evacuated out of the conflict affected area. © 2017 IOM / Shaebi

Journey Related Risks, and Awareness

The migrants interviewed were also asked if before their departure from their country of origin they were aware of any risks that they may face during their migration journey. In response only 43 percent of the respondents (5,737 migrants) reported that they were aware of the risks entailed in migration to Libya, while a majority (57%; 7,474 migrants) indicated their lack of awareness of risks associated with migration to and through Libya.

The migrants who had indicated an awareness of migration journey related risks were also asked about what risks they were aware of. A majority of respondents who were aware of the risks identified being robbed while in transit (61%; 3,515 migrants), transport accidents such as vehicle crashes (58%; 3,344 migrants) and risk of being detained (57%; 3,270 migrants) as major risks of concern. Other risks such as facing physical violence (25%; 1,455 migrants), forced labour (23%; 1,334 migrants), involuntary return (22%; 1,239), and sexual violence or exploitation (3%; 183 migrants) were also identified as migration related risks.

Migrants who had identified being aware of these risks were also asked if they had taken any self-protective measures or precautions against these risks. A vast majority of those respondents identifying being aware of the migration journey related risks (82%; 4,730 migrants) reported that they had not taken any measures or steps as precautions before their departure from their country of origin. This indicates a need for continued and targeted awareness raising campaigns in the countries of origin to enable migrants to take informed decisions.

MIGRANT VULNERABILITY AND HUMANITARIAN NEEDS

As discussed in the section on framing of migrant vulnerability and humanitarian needs, this assessment utilizes IOM's Determinants of Migrant Vulnerability (DoMV) model as an analytical framework and articulates the findings of the assessment in terms of their humanitarian consequences on the assessed migrants.1

This is undertaken by utilizing the conceptualization of migrant vulnerability based on risk and protective factors of the DoMV model. As discussed previously, the risk factors are those factors which contribute to vulnerability, whereas protective factors are those aspects which improve capabilities to avoid, cope with, or recover from harm. The findings discussed here are obtained via cross-sectional analysis of the Multi-Sectoral Location Assessments (MSLA) data collected during the June – July 2019 period, and by descriptive analysis of the microlevel data collected via FMS interviews between January – August 2019. The combined findings from both of these DTM components are presented by thematic areas in this section, with at least regional (Mantika, admin level 2) disaggregation.

FOOD SECURITY

DTM's Flow Monitoring Survey includes a module aimed at assessing respondents' status in terms of food security, their livelihoods, and where applicable information on remittances. When evaluating the interplay of food security and livelihoods with regards to their impact on the vulnerability of migrants, the underlying assumption is that the vulnerability has an inverse relationship with food security and livelihoods that can provide for the migrants' basic needs. That is, increased food security and suitable livelihood circumstances lead to reduced vulnerability, and vice versa, or in other words migrants who are food secure and have suitable livelihood options are less vulnerable to harm. Therefore, a positive measure of food security and suitable livelihoods that provide for migrants' basic needs can be considered protective factors.

Furthermore, from a humanitarian needs perspective, food insecurity can have negative humanitarian consequences during a crisis and can result in direct harm to migrants physical and mental wellbeing, whereas a crisis driven disruption of livelihoods can result in reduced resilience and therefore affect living standards. Therefore, both these aspects, even beyond the concept of vulnerability, in themselves present challenges.

As a part of this assessment, one of the main proxy indicators used to determine the possible extent of food insecurity amongst the assessed migrant population was the Food Consumption Score (FCS). Food Consumption Score (FCS), as established and widely used by World Food Programme[2], can be described as a composite score based on dietary diversity, food frequency, and relative nutritional importance of different food groups. The score is based on the reported consumption patterns of the respondents during a 7-day recall period, and the findings are subsequently grouped into three categories of poor, borderline and acceptable food consumption.

Between January and August 2019, 3,971 migrants interviewed were asked questions from the Food Security, Livelihoods, and Remittances module. In terms of the measure of Food Consumption Score, 10% of the migrants responding to this module (415 migrants) were identified to have poor food consumption, 15% (589 migrants) with borderline food consumption, whereas 75% (2,967 migrants) were identified to have acceptable levels of food consumption.

From the analysis of the Food Consumption Score (FCS), three risk factors can be highlighted that could potentially be related to an increased measure of food insecurity and therefore overall increased vulnerability at the individual level. These three factors are i. employment status ii. gender, and iii. the duration of stay in Libya.

Unemployed migrants were found to have a relatively lower Food Consumption Score, indicating that unemployment could be one of the factors impacting migrants' food security. Similarly, a larger proportion of female migrants in comparison to the male migrants were found to have a lower food consumption score. This needs to be further explored, to rule out the impact of reporting bias or possible role of physiological differences that may lead to lower caloric intake needs for female respondents in general. The last factor that was found to impact migrants' vulnerability to food insecurity was related to their duration of stay in Libya. Migrants who had arrived relatively recently were found to have a significantly lower food consumption score than the migrants who had been in Libya for longer. This indicates that migrants who had recently arrived in Libya (less than three months) were most vulnerable to food insecurity and other associated risk factors, and therefore should be prioritized for a targeted humanitarian response.

Geographical comparison (figure 27 next page) indicates that a slightly higher proportion of migrants interviewed in Eastern Libya reported poor and borderline food consumption than those interviewed in the Southern Libya and Western Libya.

1 Articulation of humanitarian consequences is adapted from the Enhanced Humanitarian Programme Cycle (HPC) Approach 2020.

2 Note on Food Consumption Score, WFP: https://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/manual_guide_proced/wfp197216.pdf

Figure 27 Food Consumption Score for migrants interviewed in different geographical parts of Libya (n = 3,971)

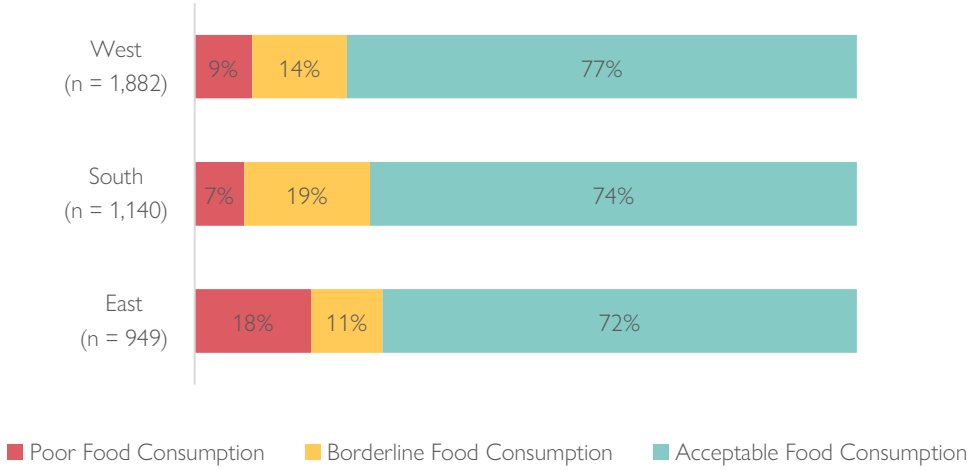
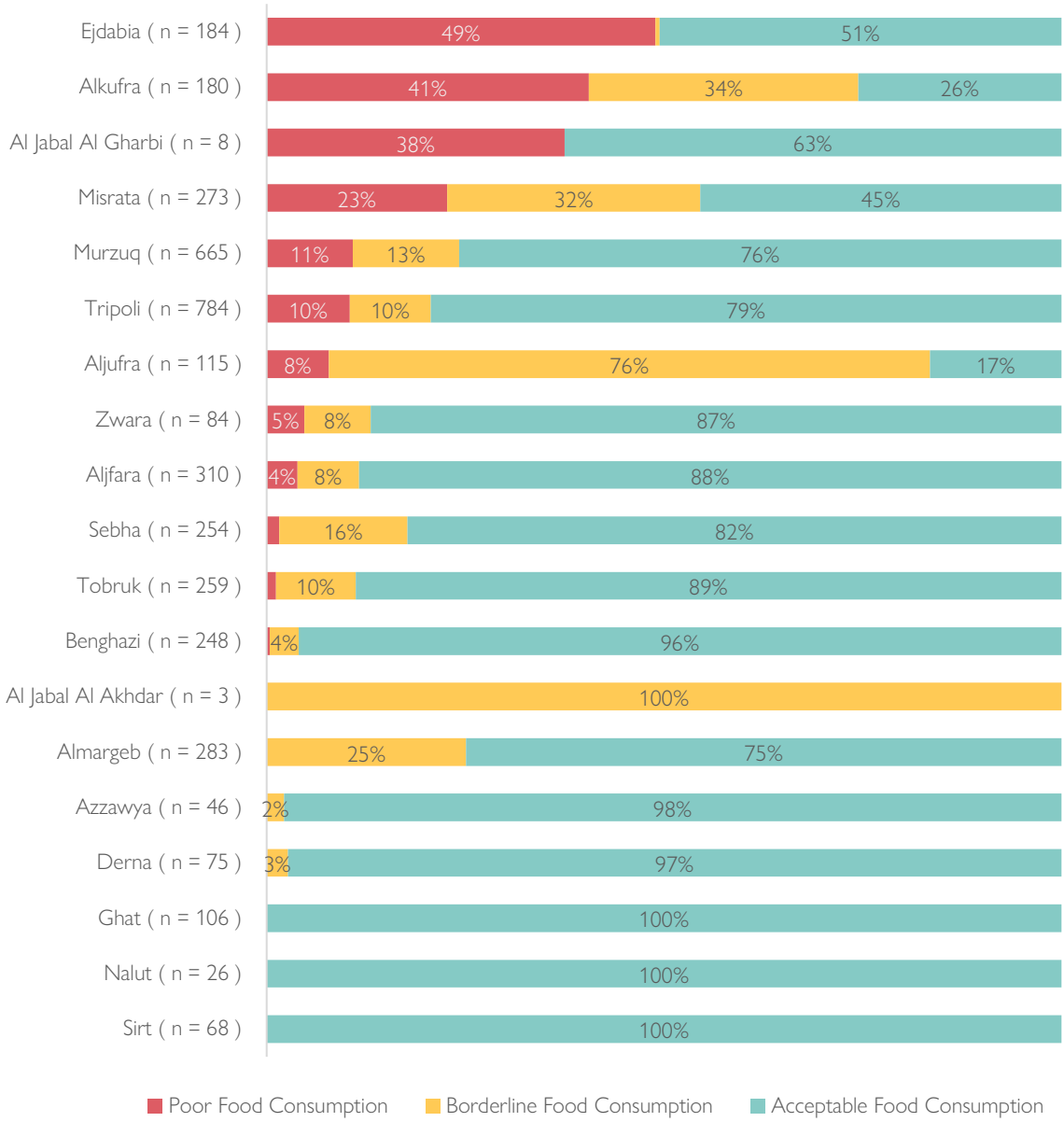


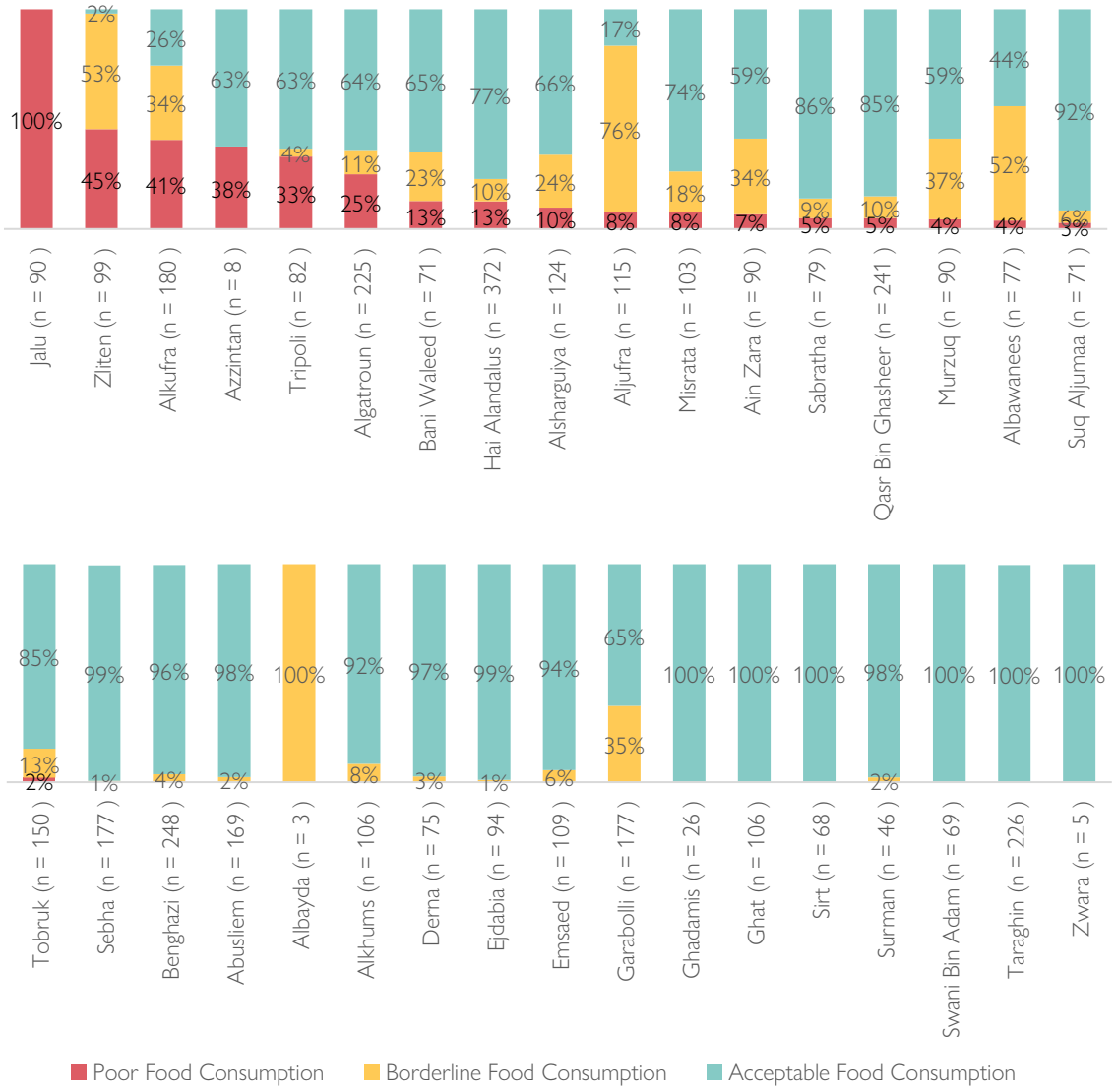
Figure 28 Food Consumption Score for migrants interviewed in different regions (manatik) of Libya (n = 3,971)



Similarly, in terms of the comparison of food consumption patterns at regional levels (Mantika; admin unit 2) shows that a significantly larger proportion of migrants in Edjabia, and Alkufra had poor and borderline food consumption. The rest of the comparison at regional level can be seen in the figure 28.

In terms of comparative analysis at the municipality (Baladiya; admin unit 3) level, migrants interviewed in Jalu (in Edjabia, Eastern Libya) reported to have poor food consumption, followed by migrants interviewed in Zliten (45% poor; 53% borderline), Alkufra (41% poor; 34% borderline), and Tripoli (33% poor; 4% borderline) were assessed to have the worst food consumption scores The FCS for all the municipalities covered is given in figure 29.

Figure 29 Food Consumption Score for migrants interviewed in different municipalities (baladiya) of Libya (n = 3,971)



In terms of the comparison of migrants as per their country of origin, a majority of migrants responding to this module who were from South Sudan and Somalia reported poor and borderline food consumption. The complete distribution of food consumption score as per the respondents' country of origin is shown in figure 30.

While Food Consumption Score covers aspects of food security from a household or individual food consumption, there are several other factors that could impact migrants' food security. Such other factors may well go beyond the household and individual levels and can be structural or area and location specific.

Figure 30 Food Consumption Score for migrants from different countries of origin interviewed in Libya (n = 3,855)

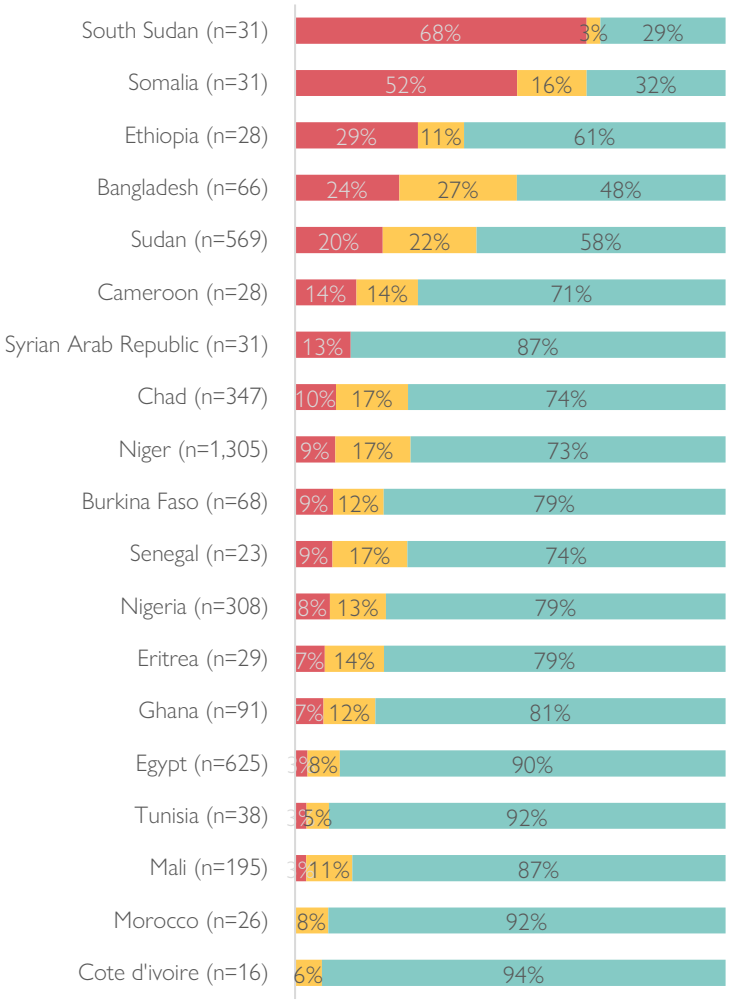


Figure 31 A larger proportion of unemployed migrants reported poor and borderline food consumption scores (n = 3,951)

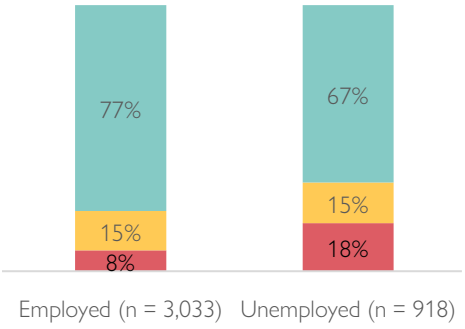


Figure 32 A larger proportion of female migrants reported poor and borderline food consumption scores than male migrants interviewed (n = 3,968)

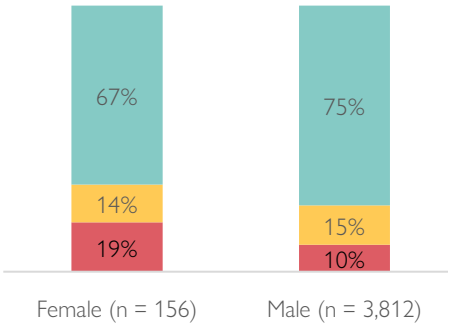
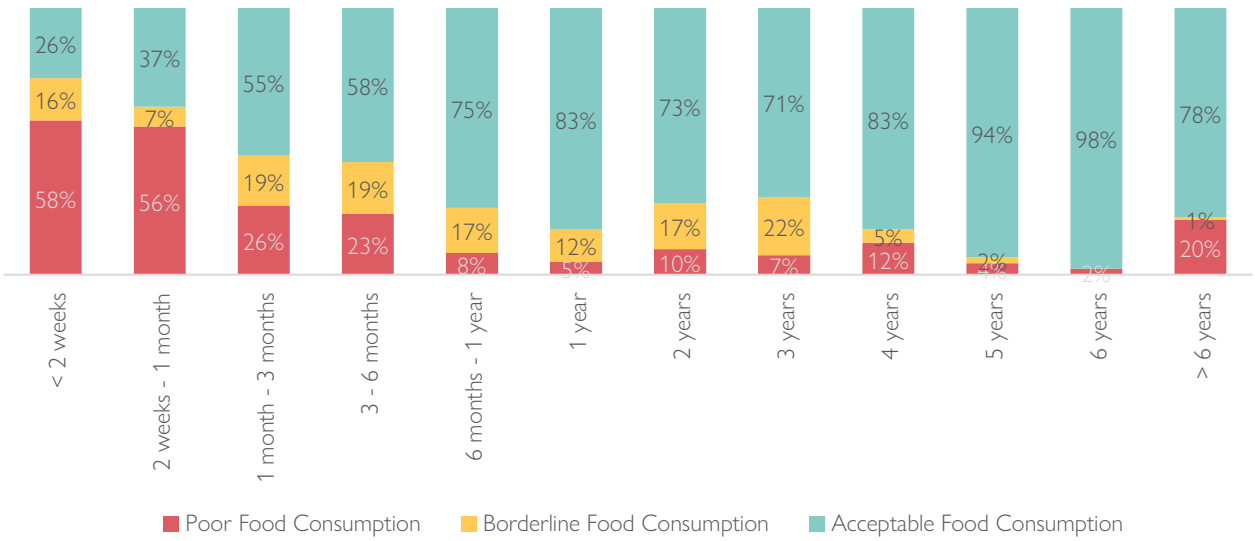


Figure 33 Migrants who had recently arrived to Libya were more likely to have poor food consumption score, indicating potential food insecurity. (n = 3,964)



WATER, SANITATION, AND HYGIENE (WASH)

A module of the FMS focused on the key WASH issues of migrants' access to water, details of the sources available, and the type of sanitation facilities available to migrants. A total of 7,906 respondents were asked questions from this module and the findings below are from those responses received.

Access to Water

Overall, 81% of the respondents reported that they had access to sufficient drinking water, whereas the broader geographical variation in responses shows that a quarter of the respondents in Southern Libya reported to not have access to sufficient drinking water (Figure 34). In the region (mantika) of Sebha 43% of the respondents reported not having access to sufficient drinking water (Figure 35).

From a perspective of migration routes, a high proportion of the transit routes in Libya lie in the South. Locations in Southern Libya such as Al Gatroun, Murzuq, Sebha and Al Kufra are major transit points for migrants travelling along migration routes in Libya. Therefore, lack of access to sufficient drinking water presents a significant risk factor that may negatively impact migrants' physical and mental wellbeing and therefore further increases their vulnerability.

The analysis of various types of water sources that migrants utilize to meet their water needs shows that an overall majority of respondents relied on public water infrastructure in the form of public water network, directly supplying water to their dwelling (43% of the respondents, 4454 migrants) and public taps that can be accessed to obtain water (6% of the respondents, 647 migrants) as shown in figure 36 (next page).

This possibly indicates – as in most WASH related aspects – that a majority of migrants' vulnerability with regards to their access to sufficient drinking water is related more to structural factors than individual, household or community level factors. Although, as discussed later, protective factors at individual levels, such as employment, can result in an increased variation of water sources accessible, and therefore possibly reduce the impact of the structural factors.

Geographically, migrants' reliance on public water infrastructure for meeting their drinking water needs seems to be of more significance in Southern Libya as a clear majority (57% respondents, 1,690 migrants) reported to use public water network for meeting their drinking water needs. This was in particular the case with respondents interviewed in Murzuq and Ghat, where in both cases more than 70% respondents reported utilization of public water network for meeting their water needs. (Figures 36 and 37 on next page.)

The migrants' utilization of public water infrastructure in Southern Libya, in conjunction with the findings discussed above with regards to a quarter of these respondents (25%, 558 migrants) reporting that they did not have access to sufficient drinking water also points towards possible structural factors at play. However, an in-depth WASH assessment should confirm whether structural issues are related to the public water infrastructure itself, or the result of other communal factors that result in migrants' access to water from the public infrastructure being restricted.

Figure 34 Migrants were asked if they were able to access sufficient drinking water: 19% of the interviewed respondents reported that they could not access sufficient drinking water. (n = 7,094)

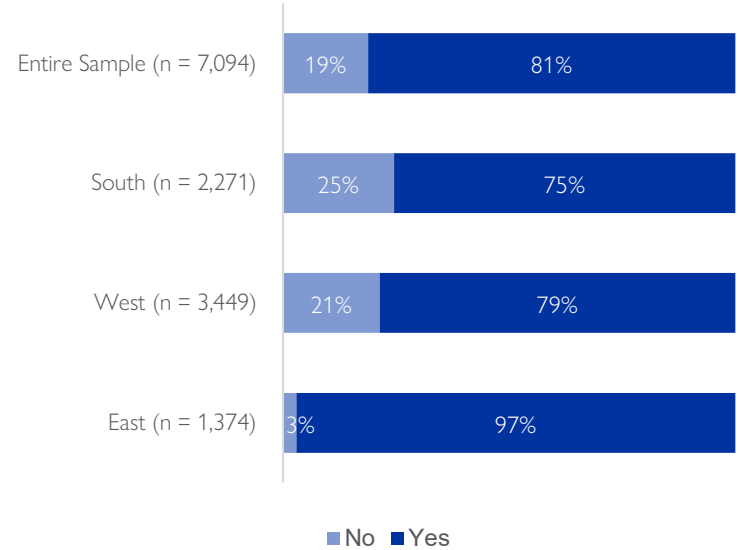


Figure 35 Migrants were asked if they were able to access sufficient drinking water, responses shown per region (mantika) where interviews were conducted. (n = 7,094)

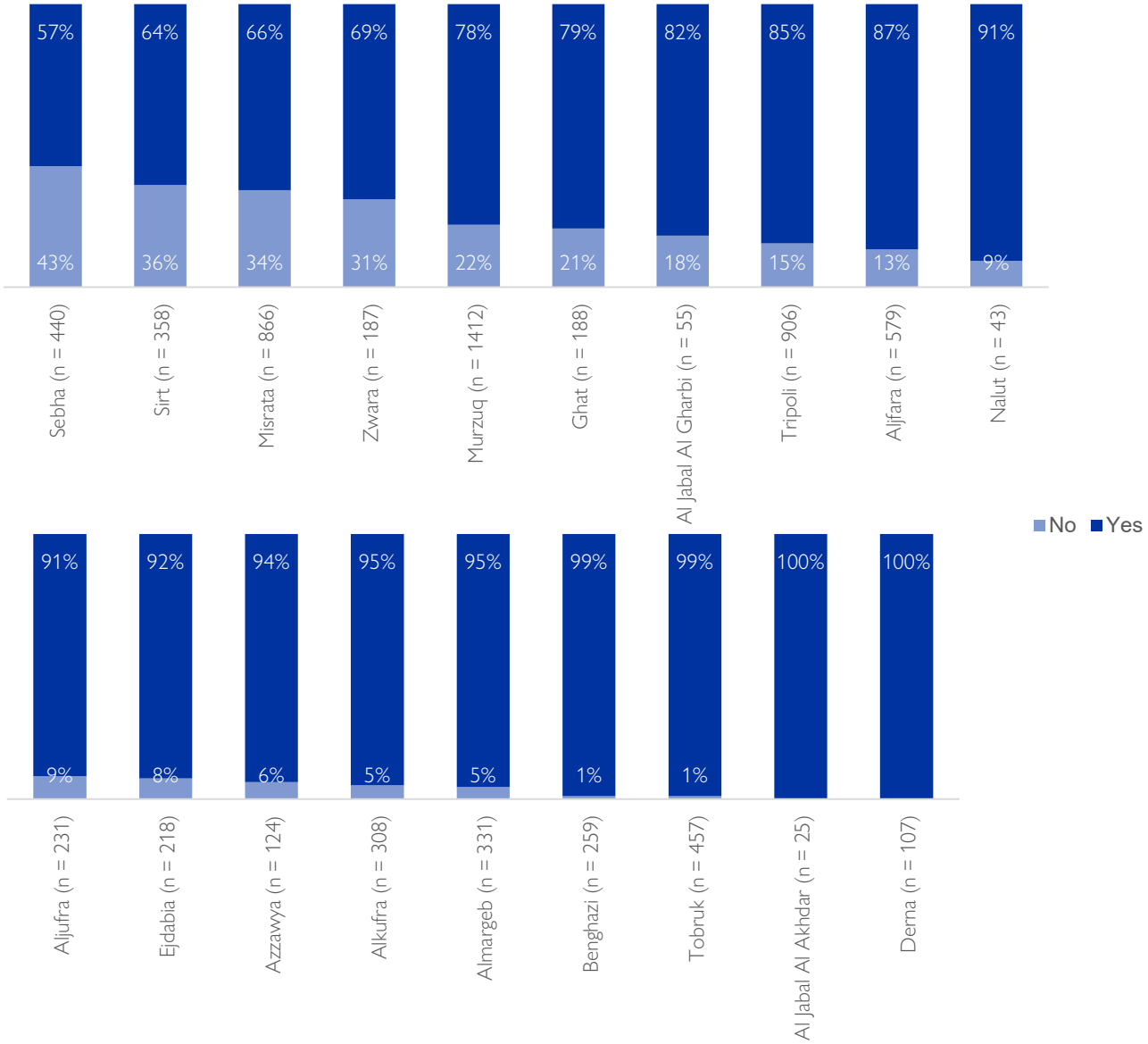


Figure 36 Water Sources utilized by migrants as per the geographical regions of Libya (n = 10,299 responses, from 7,906 respondents choosing multiple options)

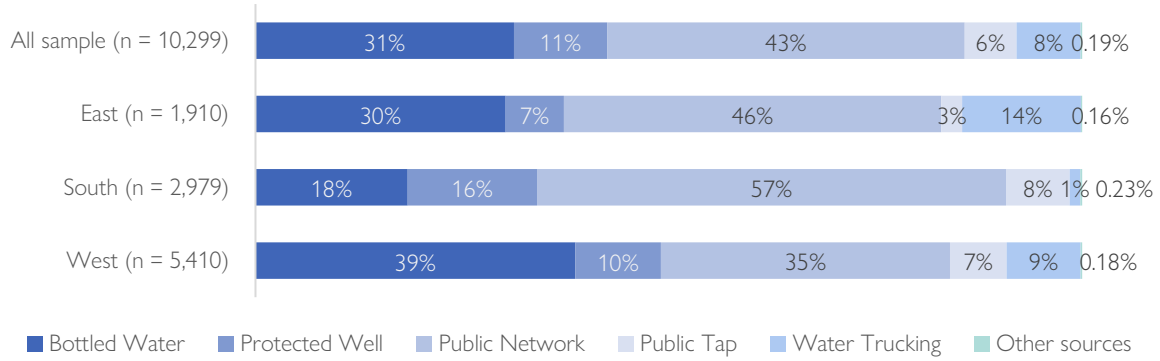
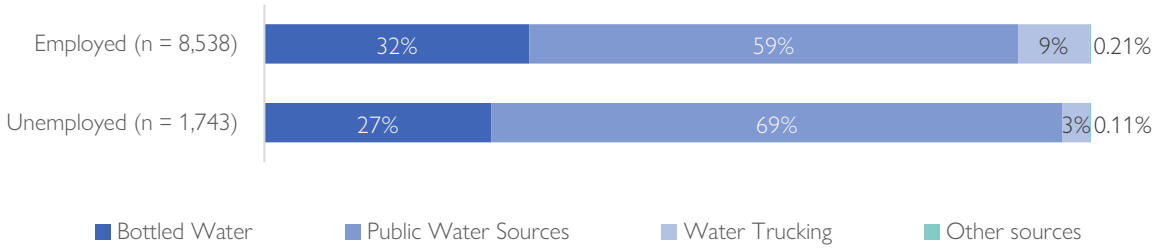


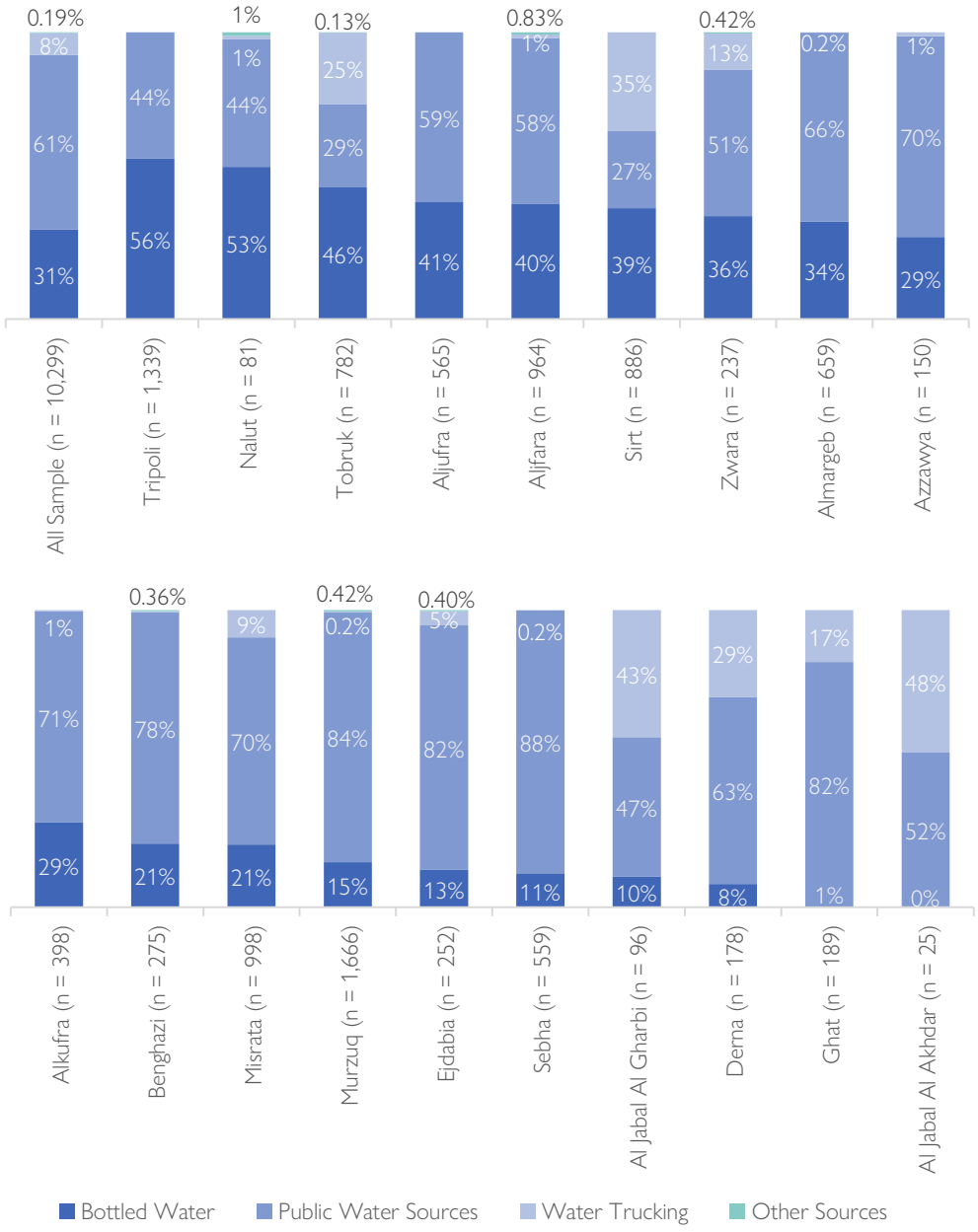
Figure 37 Water sources used by migrants as per employment status (n = 10,281, from 7906 respondents choosing multiple options)



In terms of the utilization of water sources, the reliance on bottled water and water trucking (to dwellings / houses used by migrants) to meet water needs was reported by a higher percentage of migrants who reported being employed. Both sources of water are relatively expensive in comparison to the water available via public water supply infrastructure. In contrast, a higher percentage of migrants who reported to be unemployed indicated reliance on the public and collective water sources like public water network, public taps, and protected wells. This trend also confirms employment status as an individual or household level protective factor, showing that being employed and able to earn allows for an increased variation of water sources accessible, and therefore possibly reduce the impact of the structural factors.

The analysis of responses from a gender perspective indicates that female respondents reported a 5% higher lack of sufficient drinking water than male respondents (24% female respondents in comparison to 19% male respondents). Analysis of the frequency of access to public water network reported by the respondents also shows that 19% of the female respondents reported that they rarely or never accessed public water networks. This was 5% higher than the 14% of the male respondents reporting the same. While, an in-depth study on the experiences of the female migrants could identify the underlying gender specific factors in detail, what emerges from the analysis of the FMS data already indicates that female migrants are at increased risk of being vulnerable in comparison to male migrants.

Figure 38 Water source utilization reported by migrants as per the regions (mantika) of Libya (n = 10,299 responses)



In terms of access to the water sources, a majority of the respondents (63%) reported that they had access to water sources inside their dwelling or in the yard of their place or residence. However, 9% of the respondents indicated that the nearest water source to them was more than 500 meters from their place of shelter or residence. Notably, this applied to around 55% of the migrants interviewed in Aljufra (214 migrants) who responded to the WASH section. However, distance from the water source was not found to have a relationship with the respondents' ability to access sufficient water.

In terms of sanitation facilities, a vast majority of the respondents reported to be using communal toilets. Furthermore, 47% of the respondents (3,270 migrants) who were interviewed for this module reported sharing a toilet with more than 10 individuals.

Figure 39 A higher proportion of female respondents reported lack of sufficient drinking water. (n = 7,093)

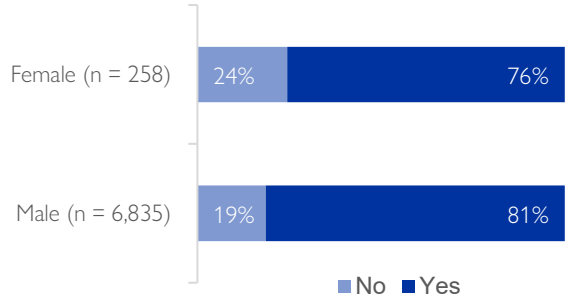


Figure 40 Frequency of access to public network by migrants interviewed (n = 7,906)

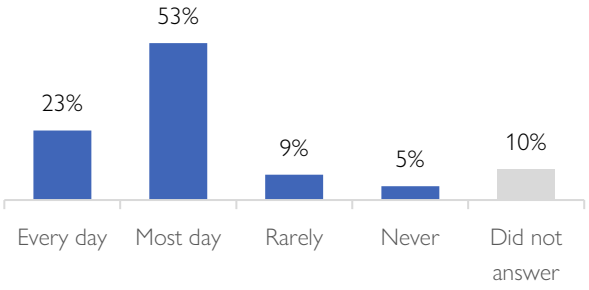


Figure 41 Frequency of access to public network as reported by female vs male respondents (n = 7,090)

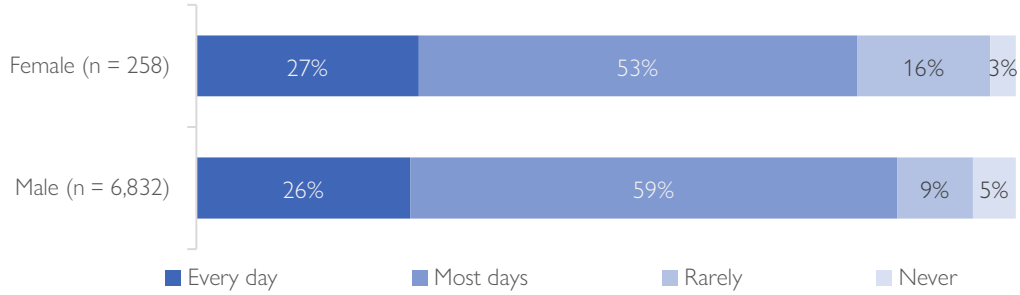


Figure 42 Reported distance from water source (n = 7,078)

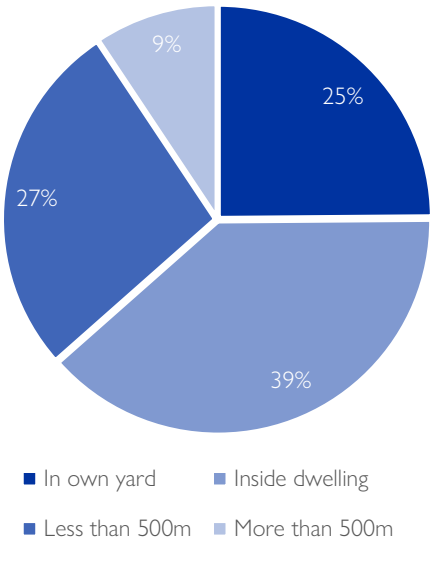
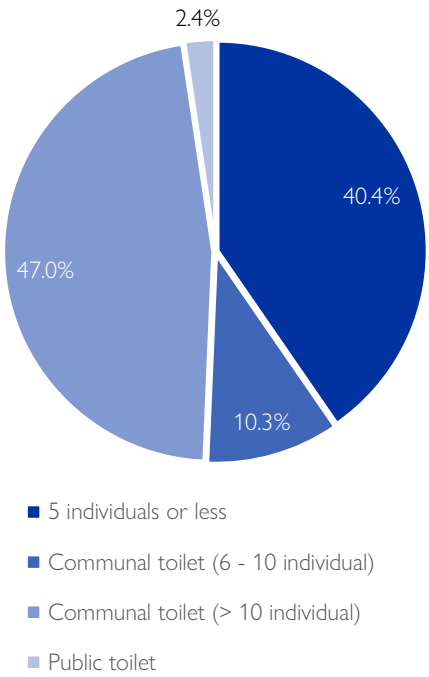


Figure 43 A majority of migrants share toilets with a larger number of other people. (n = 6,964)



MIGRANT HEALTH

A section of the FMS interviews focused on the aspects of migrant health. A total of 6,194 migrants interviewed via FMS between January and August 2019, were presented with the questions from the health module. These included questions on chronic illnesses of respondents (previously diagnosed by a health professional), acute illnesses at the time of the interview (syndromic self-reporting of respondent), illnesses experienced in the three months preceding the interview (syndromic self-reporting of respondent) and access to health services.

Of the 6,194 migrants interviewed, about 6% (363 migrants) reported to have been diagnosed with chronic illnesses. The most reported chronic illnesses were diabetes mellitus (170 migrants, constituting 47% of those with chronic illness), and high blood pressure or hypertension (120 migrants, 33% of chronic illness caseload). Whereas, as shown in figure 36, 47 migrants (13% of the chronic illness caseload) also reported to have been diagnosed with cancer.

The analysis of chronic illnesses diagnosis reported at mantika level shows that more than 20% of migrants interviewed under the health FMS module in Al Jabal Al Akhdar, Alkufra, and Sirt reported having been diagnosed with chronic illnesses. Similarly, 13% in Ejdabia, 6% in Benghazi and 8% respondents in Misrata reported having been diagnosed with chronic illnesses.

These figures are all above the 6% of the sample reporting chronic illnesses diagnosis, and therefore should be further explored via a local level in-depth study from a public health perspective.

Figure 44 The distribution of chronic illnesses reported (n = 363)
Note: several migrants with chronic illnesses reported to have been diagnosed with more than one disease.

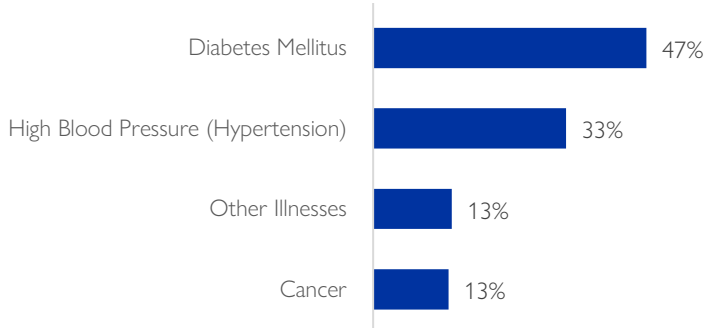
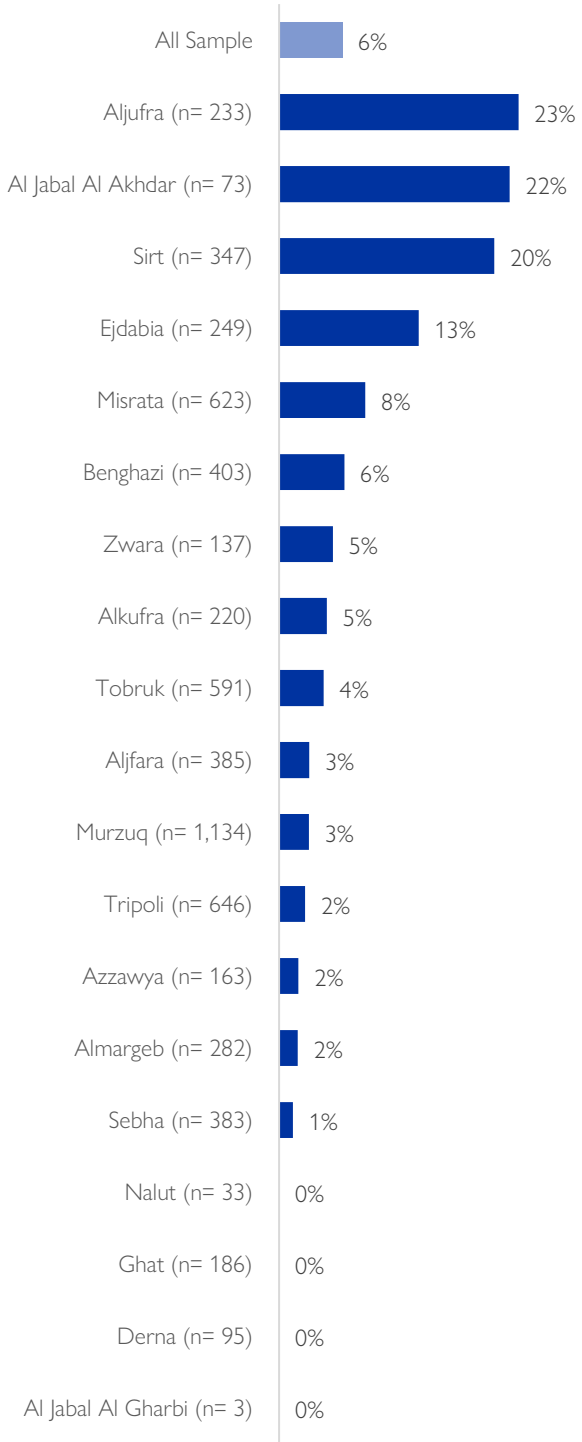


Figure 45 Percentage of respondents interviewed per region (mantika) reporting to be diagnosed with a chronic illness (n = 6,186)



The migrants interviewed under the health module of the FMS were also asked about acute illnesses at the time of interview; data on this question was collected through syndromic self-reporting of respondents in the context of pre-diagnostic surveillance. Slightly more than 3% of respondents (209 migrants) interviewed with the health module between January and August 2019 reported suffering from acute illnesses at the time of the interviews. The most commonly acute illnesses as reported by 31% of those reporting suffering from acute illnesses were respiratory infections, closely followed by 29% reporting urinary tract infections, and 28% reporting skin diseases.

The migrants reporting to suffer from acute illnesses were also asked if they were taking medication for these diseases. About a third of those reporting to suffer from acute diseases at the time of the interview (67 migrants out of 209, 32%) reported to not be taking any medication for these illnesses.

While trend analysis of acute diseases caseload could consider additional parameters such as seasonal variation (especially in the case of respiratory infections), the figure 47 can still be considered indicative of a snapshot baseline at regional (mantika) level. The percentage of migrants reporting to suffer from an acute illness at the time of the survey was observed to be higher in Aljufra, Al Jabal Al Akhdar, Azzawya, Misrata, and Zwara than the overall sample prevalence across Libya for the January – August time period. As the FMS is implemented on a continuous and rolling basis throughout the key locations along migratory routes in Libya, it allows for a regular and seasonal analysis of acute illnesses reported and can therefore also support to corroborate findings of other disease surveillance programmes. Since these findings are resulting from an initial phase of the continuous FMS data collection under the health module, these will be considered as a baseline for comparison with the future findings.

Figure 46 The distribution of acute illnesses reported (syndromic self-reporting) (n = 209)
Note: several migrants with acute illnesses reported to have been diagnosed with more than one disease.

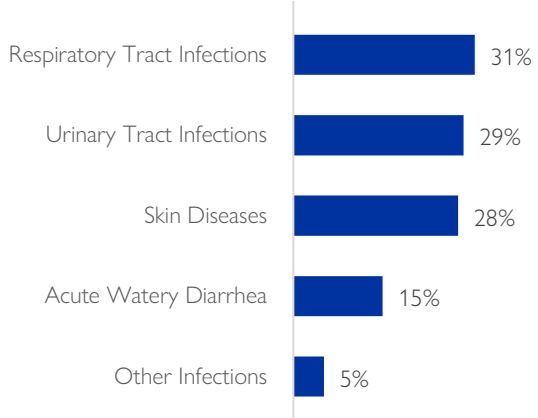


Figure 47 Percentage of respondents indicating to suffer from acute illnesses (syndromic self-reporting) at the time of the interview shown per region (mantika) level (n = 6,179)

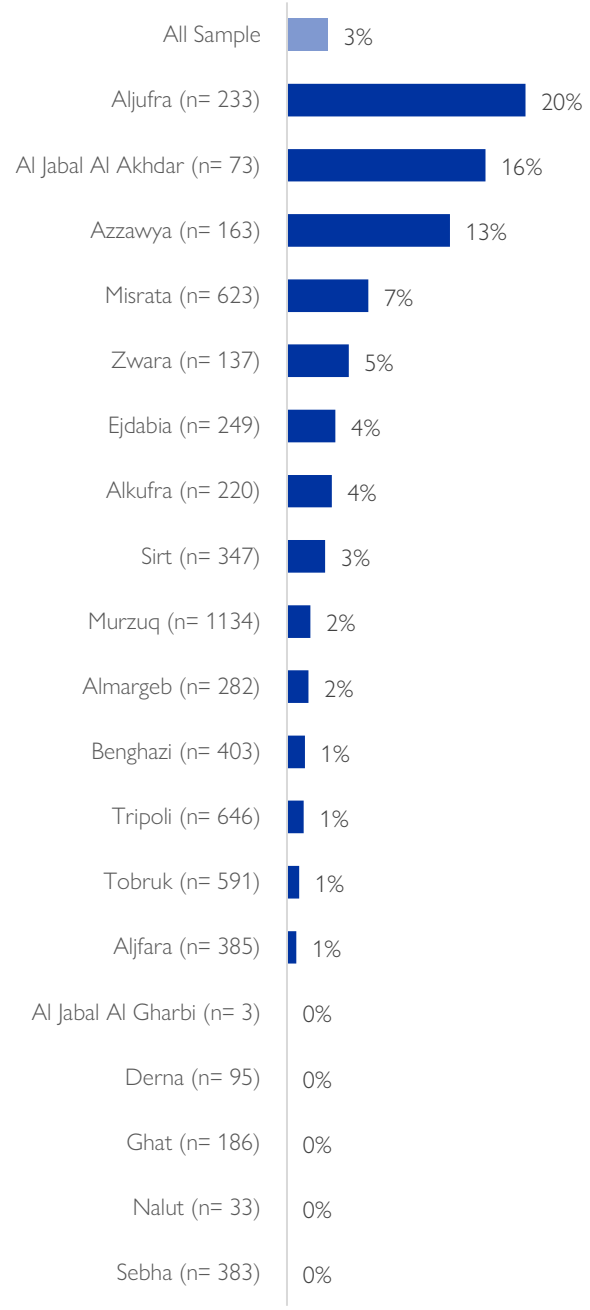
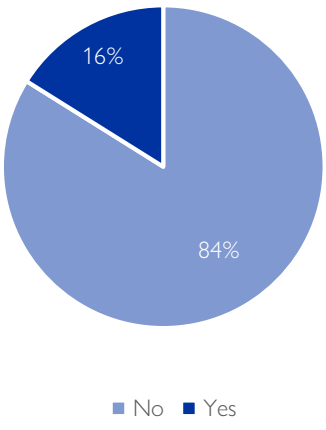


Figure 48 Sixteen percent of the respondents' interviewed via the migrant health section reported (syndromic self-reporting) to have suffered from an illness in the past 3 months (n = 6,179)



In another set of questions, the migrants interviewed under the health module of the FMS were asked if they suffered from an illness in 3 months recall period preceding the survey. 16% of the respondents (995 migrants) reported to have suffered from a health condition in the three months preceding the interviews (figure 48). As for the preceding question, data for this question was also collected through syndromic self-reporting of respondents in the context of pre-diagnostic surveillance.

Around 41% of those reporting to have suffered from a health condition in the three months preceding the interview (403 migrants) reported that they had suffered from a respiratory tract infection, whereas 34% reported various other diseases. Furthermore, 18% of the respondents reporting to have suffered from an illness in the 3 months preceding the interview, indicated to have suffered from a urinary tract infection, and 15% reported to have suffered from skin infections.

When asked if the respondents had received any treatment for the diseases they had suffered in the previous three months, around 13% of the respondents who had reported suffering from a health condition in the last three months (131 respondents) reported to not have received any treatment.

Among the respondents who had indicated having received treatment for health conditions faced in the three months preceding the interview, a majority (53%, 454 migrants out of 860) reported to have utilized the services of a pharmacy. Around a quarter of those who had reported to have received treatment for the health conditions affecting them in the last three months reported to have received treatment at public hospitals or private hospitals/clinics while 23% reported to have consulted a traditional healer. Figure 51 below shows the distribution of the various health services accessed by migrants to receive treatment for health conditions they had faced in the three months preceding the interview.

Figure 49 Health conditions faced by migrants reporting (syndromic self-reporting) to have suffered from an illness in the three months preceding the interview (n = 995)

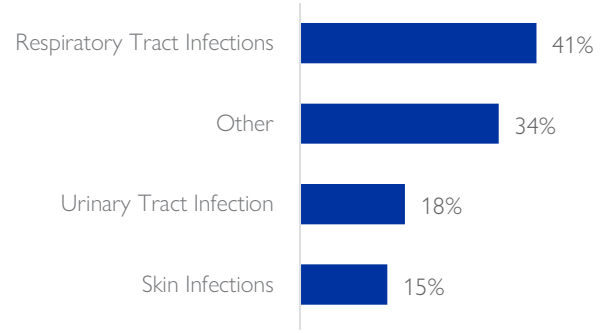


Figure 50 13% of those who reported to have suffered from an illness in the three months preceding the interviews reported to not have received any treatment. (n = 991)

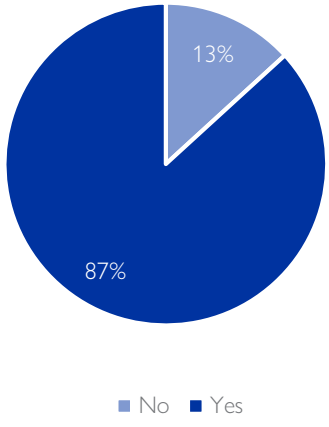
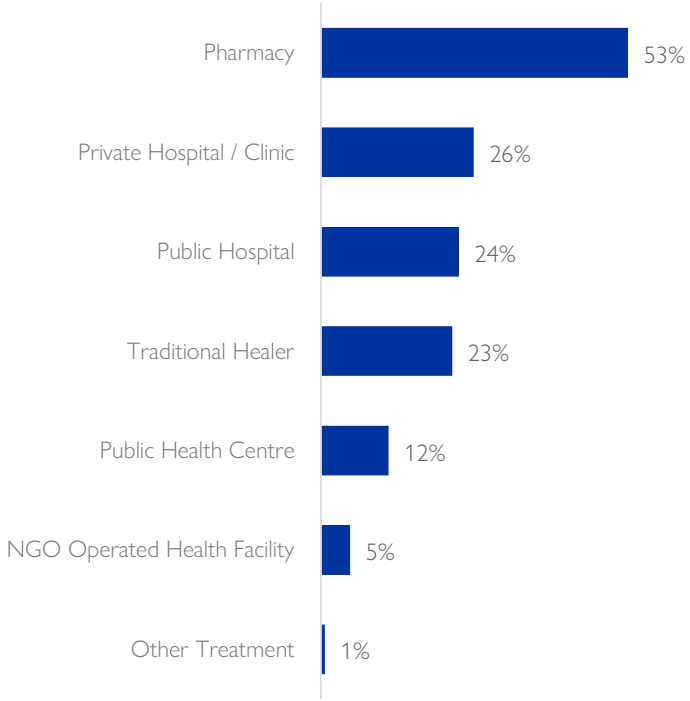


Figure 51 Health facility or treatment accessed by migrants who reported to have received treatment for their reported illnesses in the three months preceding the interviews (n = 860)



Female migrants responding to the health module reported more frequently having been diagnosed with chronic illnesses compared to male respondents, as shown in figure 52. Similarly, analysis of an acute illness reported at the time of the survey, and in three months preceding the interview shows that a higher percentage of female respondents reported to face health problems. Although, the sampling conducted was purposive and therefore no broad generalization about this trend should be made, it still shows that future migrant health studies could explore gender aspects in more depth to confirm or refute this finding.

Furthermore, migrants were also asked about their ability to access health facilities as well as about access constraints. From a total of 5,979 migrants responding to this question, 3% of the respondents indicated that they were not able to access health facilities at all, whereas 71% reported to be able to access health facilities partially, while only 26% of the sample reported to have full access to health facilities without constraints.

The geographical analysis of access to health facilities as shown in figure 53 shows that there is significant variation in terms of migrants being able to access health facilities. For the entire sample only 26% reported to have full access to health facilities without constraints, in the regions of Al Jabal Al Gharbi, Al Jabal Al Akhdar, Aljfara, Aljufra, Alkufra, Ghat, Misrata, Murzuq, Nulut, Sebha, Tripoli, and Zwara the percentage of migrants reporting access to health facilities without constraints was lower than the proportion of migrants in the sample who reported full access.

Figure 52 Analysis of reported diagnosed and syndromic self-reported illnesses from a gender perspective. (n = 6,184)

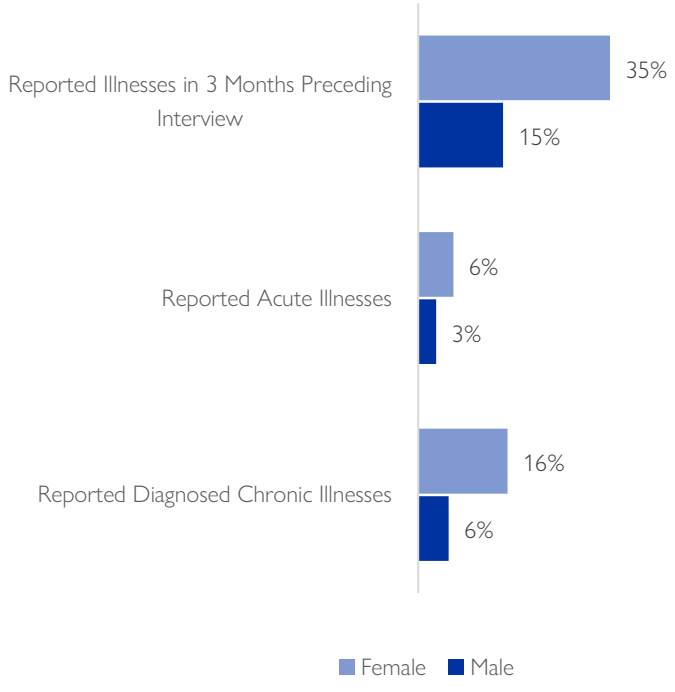
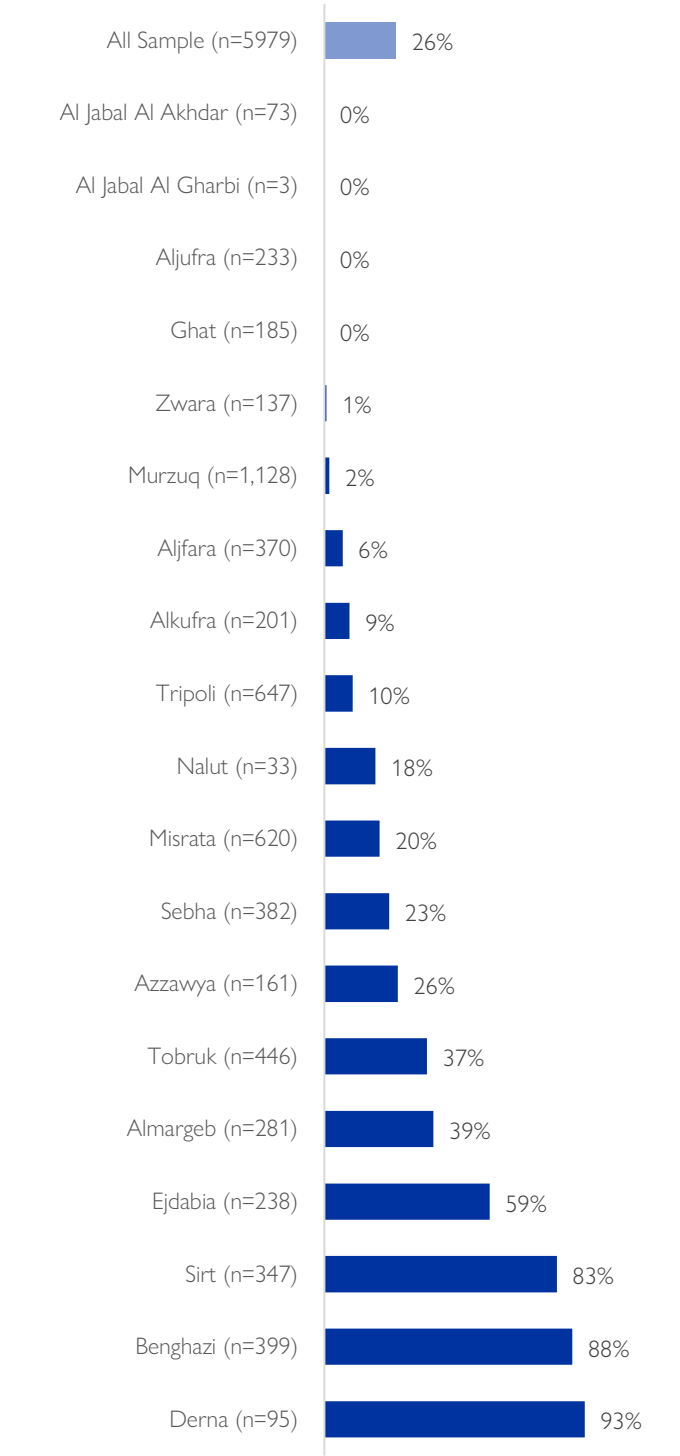


Figure 53 Regional (mantika) variation in the reported access to health facilities without constraints. (n = 5,979)



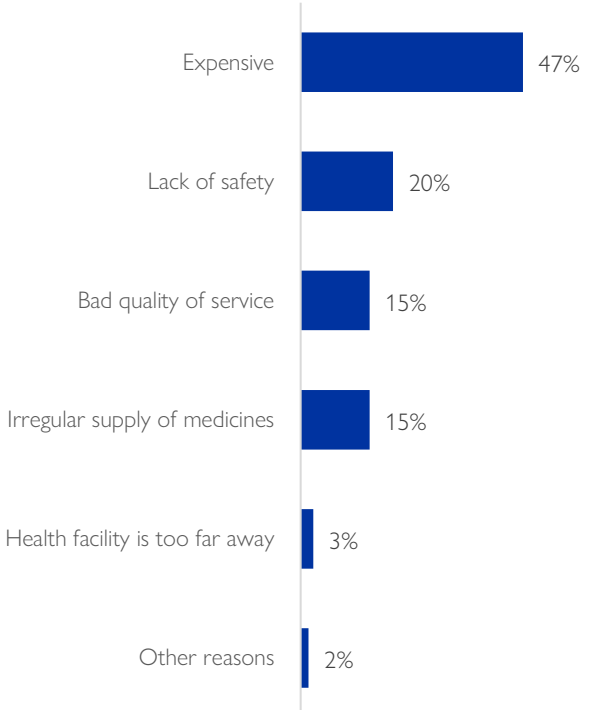
While an in-depth health sector assessment may be able to explore the underlying factors preventing migrants from being able to access health facilities, the reasons reported under the FMS health module for migrants not being able to access health facilities are given below.

Of the 302 migrants reporting reasons for not being able to access health facilities, 47% reported that they were unable to access health facilities because it was too expensive to obtain health services, followed by 20% reporting a lack of safety. Other reported access constraints included insufficient quality of health services, irregular supply of medicine and distances to the nearest health facility (please refer to figure 54 for more details).

These findings were corroborated by data collection through DTM Libya's Round 26 Mobility Tracking component, based on interviews with 2,312 key informants across Libya, where migrants in 75% of the municipalities assessed were reported to be affected from limited availability of the health facilities or struggling to access them.

The findings of the health section above may be affected by the non-response bias and there may be significant under-reporting of health related issues. Several migrants who may be suffering from health conditions would not have been accessible at the usual locations where the surveys are conducted. This presents an important aspect, where data obtained via key-informant interviews can reflect the reality on the ground better.

Figure 54 Reasons for access constraints to health facilities as reported by migrants indicating to have no access to health facilities. (n = 302)



ACCOMMODATION

A total of 7,906 migrants were interviewed via the FMS about the status of their accommodation or housing. While, 78% of the respondents interviewed under the accommodation module (5,459 migrants) reported to be living in accommodation that they had paid for, about 9% of the respondents (613 migrants) were in accommodation paid for by their employers. Furthermore, slightly above 5% of the respondents interviewed on accommodation (377 migrants) were living at their workplace, and 5% were living in accommodation that was paid for by someone else other than their employer.

Whereas, 3% of the respondents interviewed on accommodation reported use of various other options such as occupying other people's properties without permission (6 migrants), abandoned buildings (14 migrants), informal settings such as tents and other make shift shelters that do not provide adequate protection from exposure (27 migrants), schools or other public buildings (35 migrants), and several reported to not have access to any accommodation or housing whatsoever (37 migrants).

Apart from these options, 92 migrants also reported various other inadequate accommodation settings. The findings of the key informant interviews as conducted under the DTM Mobility Tracking between June and July 2019, also identified similar use of accommodation solutions types (IOM 2019d).

Having an adequate accommodation or lack thereof can be a protective factor or a risk factor respectively in terms of determining vulnerability of the migrants. For the purposes of this assessment, the accommodation paid by someone else other than oneself or by the employer, and the various other accommodation options reported by the respondents are considered as potential risk factors.

The average cost of accommodation paid for by the respondents (as calculated from the cost for accommodation reported by 6,608 migrants) was around 50 US dollars per month. Whereas the median cost of accommodation was around 35 US dollars per month, as half of the respondents paid less than that amount.

The cost of accommodation analysis as per the regions (mantika) of Libya shows that a larger proportion of migrants in Al Jabal Al Akhdar, Al Jabal Al Gharbi, Aljafara, Sebha and Tripoli paid significantly more than the over sample average of 50 US dollars estimated for the sample.

Furthermore, analysis of the types of accommodation reported indicate that several migrants in Tripoli (26 migrants), Murzuq (19 migrants), and Alkufra (15 migrants) reported utilizing inadequate accommodation or housing options. Lack of access to housing or appropriate accommodation results in increased vulnerability of migrants to potential exposure to harmful environmental elements, especially during the winter months, and to other forms of harm due to lack of safety and security. The vulnerability and its associated humanitarian consequences that result from lack of adequate accommodation should be responded to via identification of suitable shelter solutions in the short to medium term.

Analysis of the accommodation costs paid by the migrants as per their country of origin shows that more than 40% of the respondents from Ghana, Burkina Faso, Mali, and Nigeria who answered this question paid more than the sample average of 50 US dollars. However, further analysis is needed to establish the underlying dynamics and to establish if the accommodation costs are related to community level factors (as identifiable via country of origin cohorts) or whether they are related to the locations where migrants from these countries were predominantly staying.

Figure 55 The types of accommodation utilized by migrants as reported during the FMS interviews (n = 7,033)

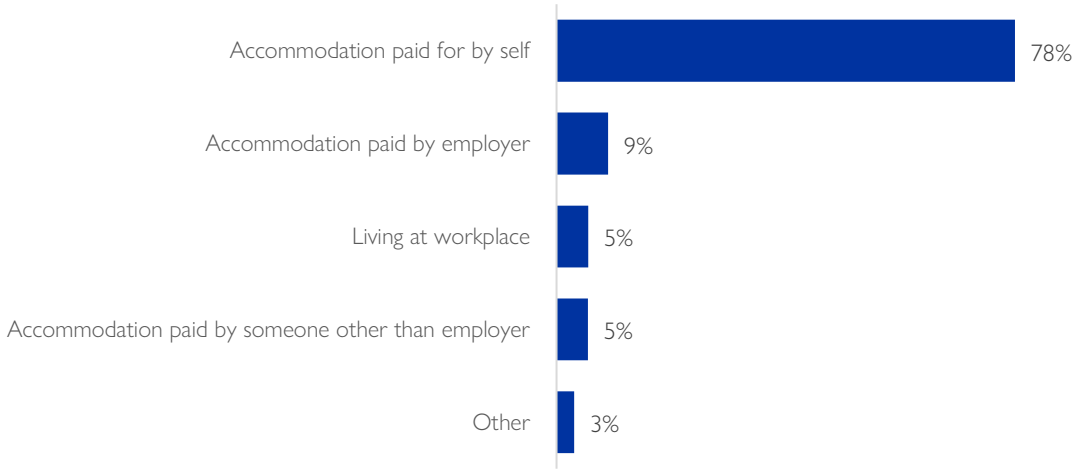


Figure 56 Reported cost of accommodation per person per month as shown for the regions (mantika) in Libya (n = 6,516)

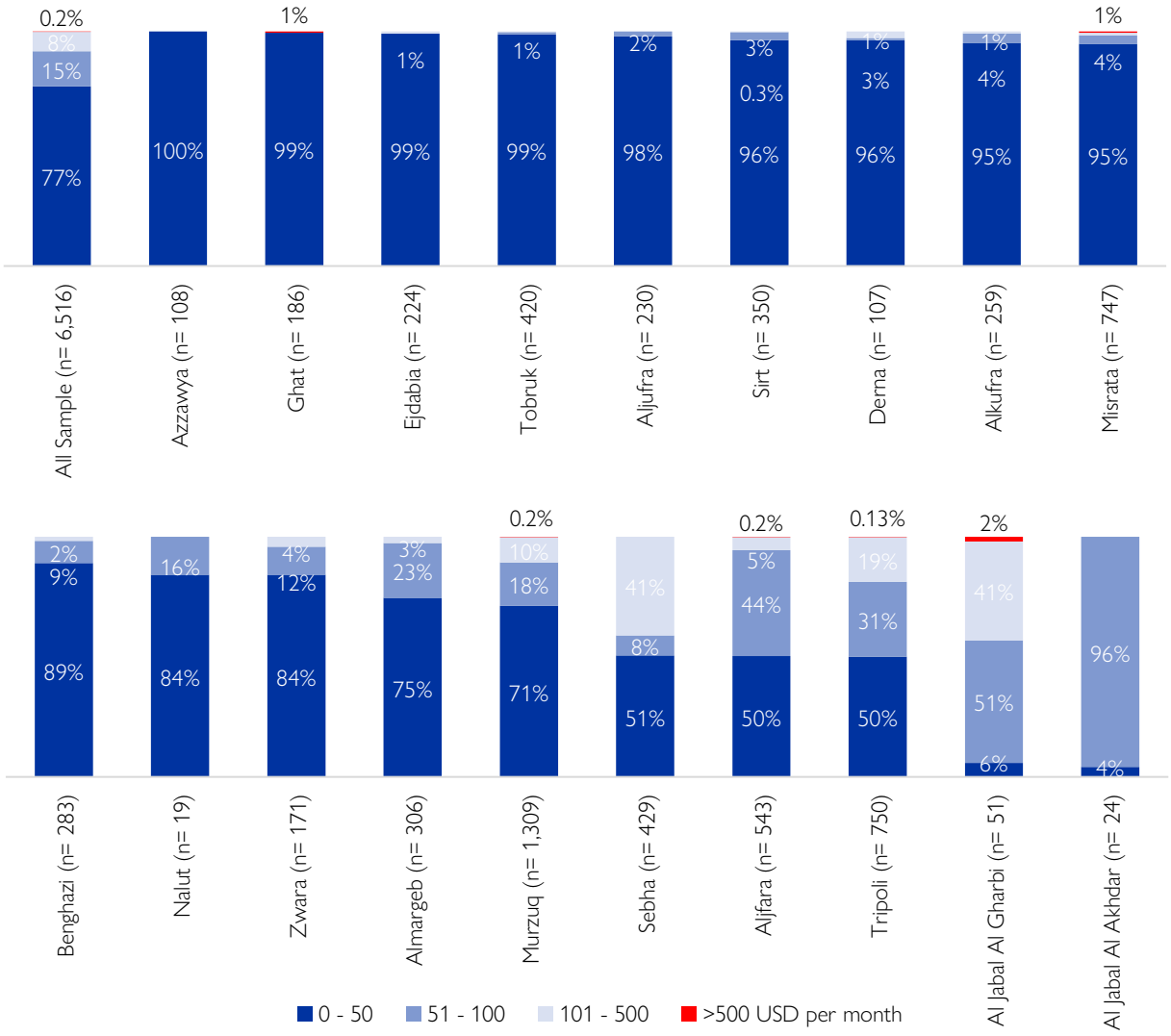
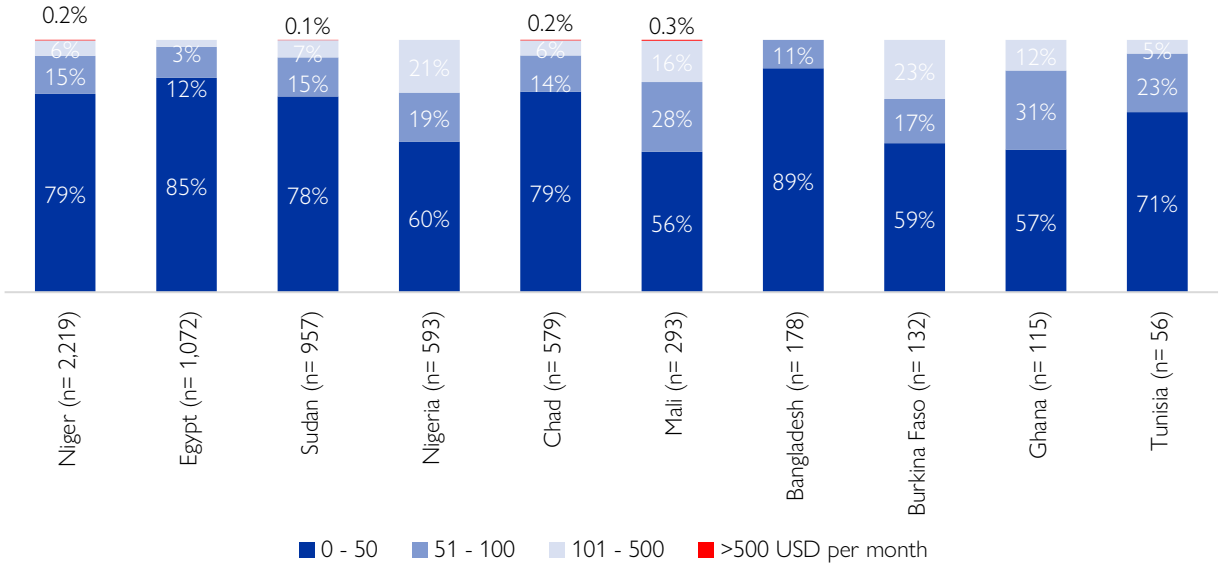


Figure 57 Reported cost of accommodation per person per month as shown for the top 10 country of origin cohorts (n = 6,608)



The main factor that had a significant impact in terms of the types of accommodations being utilized by the respondents was the duration of stay. Respondents who had recently arrived in Libya (less than a month preceding the interview) more frequently reported use of accommodation types that are considered inadequate and a risk factor, thus adding to their vulnerability. This further confirms – as in the case of several other thematic analysis – that duration of stay in Libya plays a significant role as a factor to determine the vulnerability of migrants. Migrants who have recently arrived in Libya are also vulnerable to exposure due to lack of access to suitable accommodation or the needed shelter solutions.

Figure 58 Accommodation types utilized by migrants as shown for the regions (mantika) in Libya (n = 6,998)

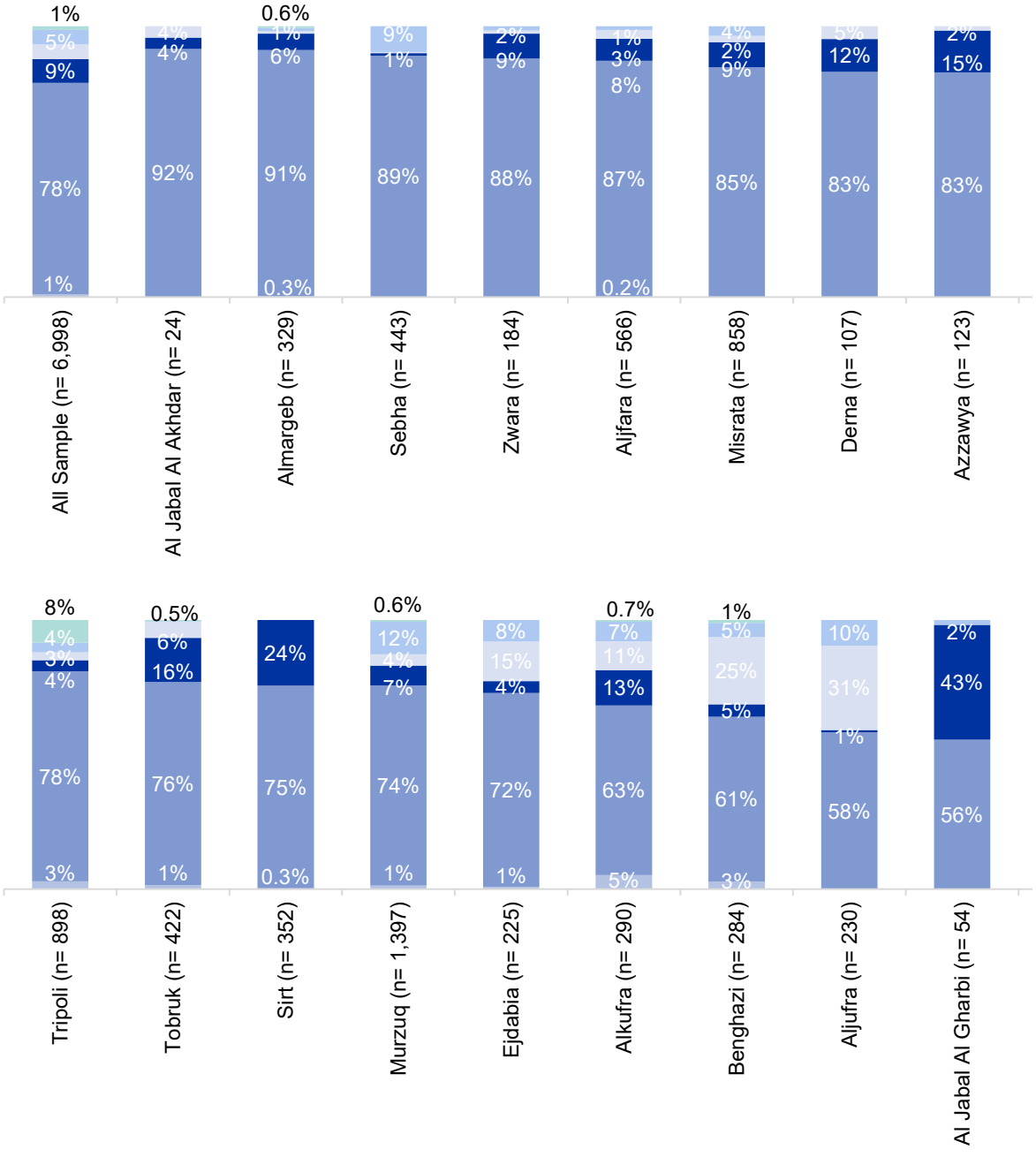
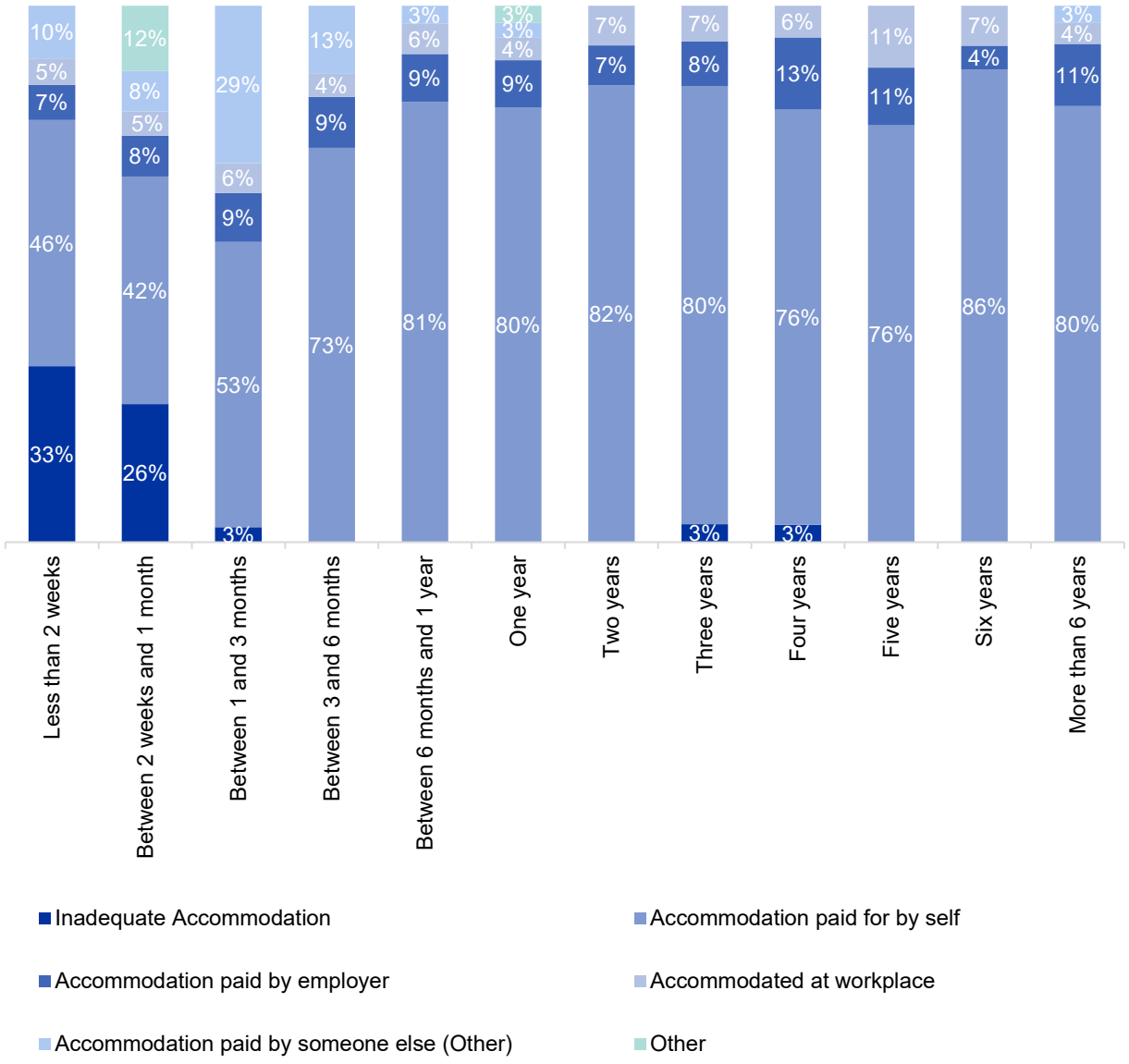


Figure 59 Type of accommodation utilized by migrants as per their reported duration of stay in Libya (n = 7,026)



EDUCATION

As part of the FMS interviews conducted between January and August 2019, a total of 6,041 migrants were also asked questions from the education module aimed at understanding education needs of migrant children. From the migrants interviewed via the education module, only 6% of the respondents (335 migrants) reported to have school-aged children (between the ages of 5 and 18) in Libya. The finding that many migrants present in Libya, especially adult males, are living outside the structure of family or households is also corroborated by DTM's Round 26 Mobility Tracking component which estimated around 91% of migrants in Libya to be adults and only 9% children.

Of the migrants reporting to have school aged children in Libya, 47% of the respondents (157 migrants) reported that their school aged children could not access education in Libya. In subsequent questions, these migrants reporting lack of access to education for their children were asked to report the underlying reason because of which their children could not go to school.

Data collected from key informants across Libya through DTM's Mobility Tracking activity showed similar results, as key informants in 58% of assessed municipalities reported migrant children to have either no access or only very limited access to education services in their communities, corroborating education-related findings conducted through individual interviews in the context of this assessment.

In response to a multiple option question aimed at identifying the underlying factors preventing migrant children from attending school the most cited reason identified was lack of documentation as reported by 61% of the respondents whose children could not attend school. This lack of documentation could be related to the respondent's immigration status, or the requirements of schools' in terms of the documents they require for admitting migrant children.

The second most cited reason for migrant children not being able to attend schools in Libya was identified as "problems with the host community" as reported by 41% of the respondents (65 migrants) whose children could not attend schools. These findings should be further explored with an in-depth study on migrant children's access to education to identify the specific dynamics related to host community and documentation barriers that prevent migrant children from attending schools in Libya. Other significant reasons for migrant children's limited access to education were also identified such as financial barriers, and language barriers.

Overall, in terms of education, and in particular with regards to migrant children's access to education in Libya, the duration of stay was not found to be a significant risk factor, as migrants reporting to have stayed in Libya over extended periods of time still reported to have children who were unable to attend school. However, female respondents reported their children's lack of access to education at a higher percentage than male respondents.

Since the majority of migrants identified in Libya do not travel with the members of their family, interviews conducted in the context of this assessment were aimed at understanding migration and education needs from an individuals' perspective. However, certain aspects of education of migrant children are likely also related to household structures and dynamics; further research and analysis is recommended to understand the underlying factors at play that enable or restrict migrant children's access to education. However, beyond household or community level factors, there may be structural aspects restricting migrant children's access to education. Lastly, given that issues with host communities were among identified barriers in some cases, interventions aimed at improving migrant children's access to education may also factor in ways to improve Libyan children's educational prospects.

Figure 60 Only a small minority of migrants who were asked this question reported to have school going children with them in Libya (n = 6,041)

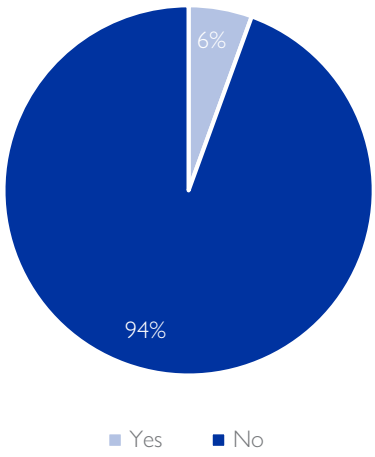


Figure 61 About 47% of the migrants who reported to have school going aged children in Libya reported that their children did not have access to education (n = 335)

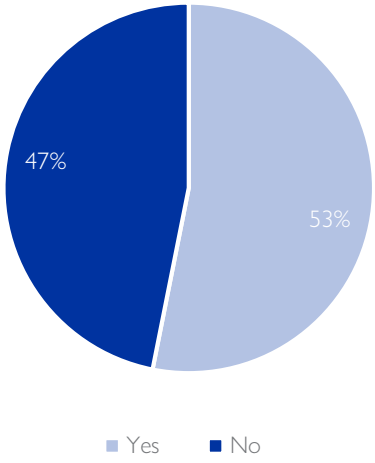
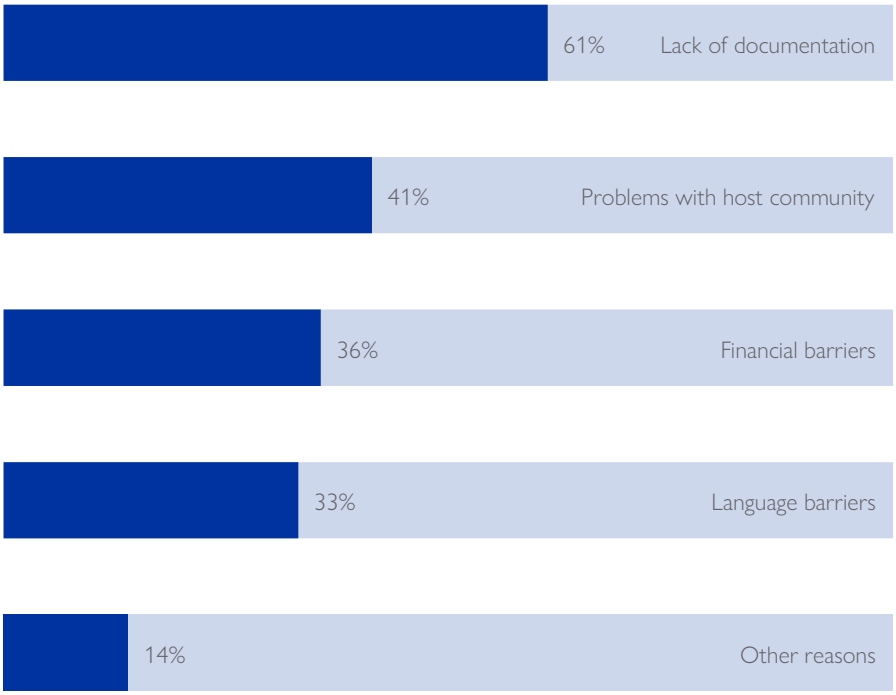


Figure 62 Reasons for lack of access to education as reported by those migrants whose children could not access education in Libya (n = 157)



Suq Aljumaa Migrants in search of casual labour / work opportunities at roadside. © 2019 IOM Outreach Team

CONCLUSIONS

From analysis of 13,228 interviews with migrants, and 2,312 key informant interviews, this report draws findings and conclusions to further enhance our understanding of migration to, through and from Libya, and to give evidence-based insights into migrants' circumstances, and their vulnerabilities and humanitarian needs in Libya.

The interviews were conducted in 19 regions and covered 36 municipalities. The migrants interviewed were from 40 different countries of origin and their diversity shows that migrants are drawn to Libya from a wide range of countries. However, migrants from the neighbouring countries constitute the biggest share of the sample as about 75% of the migrants interviewed were from Niger, Egypt, Sudan, Chad, Tunisia and Algeria. This trend identified by the Flow Monitoring Survey (FMS) interviews also matches the proportion of the migrant stock from Libya's neighbouring countries identified via DTM's Mobility Tracking.

The majority of interviews were conducted with male migrants (96 percent) whereas 535 female migrants were interviewed (constituting 4 percent of the sample). The median age of the sample was 28 years old, while male migrants between the age bracket of 20 – 29 years old constituted 52 percent of the sample, reinforcing the perspective that young males looking for job opportunities are more likely to migrate to Libya.

MIGRATION TO AND FROM LIBYA

A majority of migrants in Libya were found to have decided to leave their countries of origin due to economic motivations related to insufficient income and lack of job opportunities in the country of origin. Similarly, when inquired about specific economic factors encouraging their migration, a majority reported that their decision to migrate to Libya was driven by a search for job opportunities. A majority of the migrants interviewed, irrespective of their migration drivers, reported to be employed in Libya, while unemployment emerged as a significant vulnerability factor.

A smaller proportion of the migrants interviewed indicated other reasons for leaving their country of origin such as war or conflict, limited ability to meet their food needs, limited access to services and other reasons such as sudden or slow onset natural disaster, family reunification, or studying abroad.

In terms of the migration intention a majority of migrants interviewed identified Libya as a country of destination at the time of departure from their country of origin. Similarly, most migrants identified that they intended to stay in Libya. Whereas most migrants who indicated a change in their intentions reported a desire to return back to their countries of origin, only a small minority reported an intent to migrant onwards from Libya either at the time of their departure from their country of origin, or at the time of interview in Libya. Around 15% of the sample reported to have changed their decision on the intended country of destination, while the largest proportion of those indicating a change of decision reported a desire to return to their country of origin. The various other changes in the intentions reported indicate that migration decision making follows complex patterns.

However, from the major trend identified it can be concluded that for a majority of the

migrants Libya is a country of destination that they migrate to in search of employment opportunities and economic circumstances that are perceived to be, at least marginally, better than in their countries of origin. From the analysis of migrant demographics and drivers of migration it is concluded that the context of migration to Libya is largely representative of labour migration, where irregular labour migration constitutes the most significant trend.

MIGRANT VULNERABILITY AND HUMANITARIAN NEEDS

Vulnerabilities

This assessment utilizes IOM's Determinants of Migrant Vulnerability (DoMV) model as an analytical framework that prescribes an identification of risk and protective factors. The risk factors are those factors which contribute to vulnerability, whereas protective factors are those aspects which improve capabilities to avoid, cope with, or recover from harm. Whereas, the migrant needs are understood as gaps between the current conditions of migrants assessed with regards to their vulnerabilities and the conditions in which they shall be able to effectively be afforded their human rights. The study largely assessed the factors affecting migrants at individual, household and community levels, while structural factors that significantly affect all migrants in Libya were beyond the scope of the data collected and are left for a subsequent assessment. The risk factors that emerge the strongest are presented below, where at least one of the risk factors of employment status can also be a protective factor for those who are employed.

Gender

Gender of the migrant was identified as a significant factor indicating the extent of vulnerability faced by individuals. Female migrants reported the poorest food consumption scores indicating a potential increased risk to food insecurity. Similarly, a larger percentage of female migrants reported a lack of sufficient drinking water and were overall more likely to report infrequent access to public water network. Higher frequencies of people sharing sanitation facilities such as public and communal toilets also raise concerns for the female migrants' safety.

In terms of migrant health, a significant higher proportion of female respondents reported having been diagnosed with chronic illnesses, and a similarly higher proportion of female respondents reported facing other health issues such as acute illnesses.

Regarding other co-factors that could also potentially play a protective role, unemployment rates were found to be higher for the female migrants. Therefore, beyond the gender as a singular factor in itself, the trends identified are most likely driven by the overall socio-economic and structural factors that disadvantage the female migrants.

Higher levels of food insecurity, lack of access to sufficient drinking water, and poor results along health indicators strongly suggest that female migrants are relatively more vulnerable than male migrants, and have reduced capacities to fully enjoy their rights. Further gender focused study on the circumstances of female migrants in Libya is recommended to better understand the underlying dynamics that make female migrants more vulnerable. In the short to medium term a focus on female migrants is proposed for the humanitarian response targeting migrants due to their increased vulnerabilities.

Employment Status

The second significant risk as well as a protective factor identified was employment status. Along all indicators of vulnerability and humanitarian needs the migrants who reported to be employed fared better than those who reported to be unemployed.

More specifically, unemployment was identified as a significant risk factor in relation to several main indicators Unemployed migrants were more likely to be food insecure as indicated by worse food consumption scores. The sources of water accessible by unemployed migrants were less diversified than for those migrants who were employed. Similarly, the most significant barrier to access health facilities was cost, hence limited purchasing power particularly affected unemployed migrants.

Duration of Stay in Libya

The third most significant risk factor employed was the duration of stay, where the migrants who had recently arrived in Libya were found to fare worse on all thematic indicators, ranging from higher levels of food insecurity levels to inadequate shelter solutions. This was also found to be related to the employment status as migrants who had been in Libya for shorter durations were more likely to report being unemployed.

Regardless of the underlying dynamics, migrants who had recently arrived in Libya were clearly identified to be at a higher risk of being vulnerable, and therefore an effective humanitarian programming aimed at reducing vulnerabilities must ensure that migrants are also assisted based on their duration of stay in Libya.

Humanitarian Needs

The thematic aspects of the assessment were also able to identify humanitarian needs of migrants in light of the vulnerabilities discussed above. Newly arrived migrants in Libya are in specific need of food assistance and housing or shelter assistance to reduce their vulnerabilities.

While advocacy for migrants' access to public health services should continue, there is a need for continued focus on short to medium term solutions aimed at improving migrants access to health services via mobile health teams or referrals such as those made via Migrant Resource and Response Mechanism.

A majority of migrants interviewed in Southern Libya reportedly use water from the public water network, whereas a quarter of the respondents interviewed in south also reported lack of access to sufficient drinking water. Interventions aimed at improving access to water, sanitation and hygiene services in the southern parts of Libya, especially along the migration routes will significantly reduce the vulnerabilities of migrants in those regions.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In light of the finding that the context of migration to Libya as a country of destination is largely representative of labour migration, with irregular labour migration constituting the most significant trend, it is strongly recommended that labour migration programming should be further supported in Libya. This entails a focus on the motivations of migrant workers in Libya, their professional skills, and livelihood opportunities in the context of areas of demand in the Libyan labour market.

Libya's status as a signatory of the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families presents an opportunity in ensuring that adequate protection of migrants' rights is granted under this convention's framework. As highlighted by the convention a "recourse to the employment of migrant workers who are in irregular situation will be discouraged if the fundamental human rights of all migrant workers are more widely recognized".[1]

Likewise, a Humanitarian Development Peace Nexus approach also warrants further examination to ensure that humanitarian programming for migrants is designed in a manner that respects the overall context of migration to and from Libya. However, continued attention must be paid to the fact that the case of migrants in detention and of those rescued at sea – albeit a minority among migrants present in Libya – presents specific challenges that need separate solutions.

Overall, it is strongly recommended that any humanitarian response that intends to assist migrants in Libya must ensure that the provision of assistance is based on migrants' vulnerabilities. The key factors at individual and household level that are identified by this assessment are related to the migrant's gender, employment status, and their duration of stay in Libya.

From the gender specific findings indicating that female migrants are at an increased risk, a continued focus on the circumstances of female migrants from a humanitarian assistance perspective is recommended so as to reduce the factors adding to their vulnerabilities. To decrease the overall impact of the unemployment as a significant risk factor measures should be taken towards ensuring stable livelihoods opportunities for migrants in Libya. While, direct humanitarian assistance should be provided to the recently arrived migrants in Libya, specifically in terms of food and housing or shelter support, so as to reduce the negative impacts on their physical and mental wellbeing.

Pathways towards improving migrant children's access to education must be found. Although migrants in Libya with children constitutes a minority, lack of access to education has a significant impact on the overall development and wellbeing of migrant children. Therefore, potential solutions should be further explored via an in-depth sectoral assessment of the underlying factors preventing access to education.

Furthermore, an in-depth local level study should be carried out form a public health perspective aim at studying the prevalence of chronic and acute illnesses amongst migrant populations at risk, and the health facilities or informal solutions accessed by these migrants. An in-depth sectoral assessment in the regions of Southern Libya aimed at understanding the factors preventing migrants' access to sufficient drinking water and to water sources is also strongly recommended.

Lastly, in light of the identification of an intention to return to the country of origin as the most significant change in the migration intentions after migrants' arrival in Libya, pathways facilitating safe return of migrants to their country of origin should be supported.

1 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, Adopted by General Assembly resolution 45/158 of 18 December 1990, page 2, para 5.

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ANNEX A: SAMPLE DETAILS

Annex A - Table 1 Number of FMS interviews conducted as per country of origin (CoO) cohort.

Cohort	Number of Interviews	Cohort	Number of Interviews
Niger	4,252	Côte d'Ivoire	40
Egypt	2,323	Pakistan	40
Sudan	1,998	Guinea (Conakry)	30
Chad	1,171	Benin	28
Nigeria	1,023	Gambia	25
Mali	554	Mauritania	25
Bangladesh	333	Guinea-Bissau	21
Ghana	249	Yemen	14
Burkina Faso	244	Central African Republic	10
Tunisia	118	Iraq	9
Syrian Arab Republic	111	Togo	9
Senegal	88	Sierra Leone	8
Cameroon	83	Angola	4
Morocco	75	Uganda	4
Ethiopia	70	Republic of Congo	3
Eritrea	58	South Africa	2
South Sudan	58	Equatorial Guinea	1
Somalia	52	Jordan	1
Algeria	46	Namibia	1
Palestinian	46	Zambia	1
All Sample (Total)			13,228

Annex A - Table 2 Breakdown of the number of migrant interviews per region (mantika) of Libya.

Region (Mantika; Admin Unit 1)	Number of Migrants Interviewed via FMS
Al Jabal Al Akhdar	92
Al Jabal Al Gharbi	112
Aljfara	932
Aljufra	395
Alkufra	570
Almargeb	547
Azzawya	206
Benghazi	766
Derna	217
Ejdabia	572
Ghat	366
Misrata	1553
Murzuq	2514
Nalut	96
Sebha	891
Sirt	489
Tobruk	1099
Tripoli	1491
Zwara	320
All Sample (Total)	13228

Annex A - Table 3 Breakdown of FMS interviews conducted per thematic module and month of data collection.

Module	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Total Interviews
Education	963	1,545	649	280	437	1,814	1,447	771	**7,906**
Food Security	1,396	10	710	685	198	492	420	60	**3,971**
Health	1,341	291	-	93	437	1,814	1,447	771	**6,194**
Accommodation	963	1,545	649	280	437	1,814	1,447	771	**7,906**
WASH	963	1,545	649	280	437	1,814	1,447	771	**7,906**
FMS Monthly Totals	**3,758**	**2,416**	**1,492**	**1,079**	**451**	**1,814**	**1,447**	**771**	**13,228**

ANNEX B: DEFINITIONS

migrants

An umbrella term, not defined under international law, reflecting the common lay understanding of a person who moved away from his or her place of usual residence, whether within a country or across an international border, temporarily or permanently, and for a variety of reasons. The term includes a number of well-defined legal categories of people, such as migrant workers; persons whose particular types of movements are legally defined, such as smuggled migrants; as well as those whose status or means of movement are not specifically defined under international law, such as international students.

For the purposes of collecting data on migration, the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA) defines "international migrant" as "any person who changes his or her country of usual residence" (UN DESA, Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration, Revision 1 (1998) para. 32). The UN DESA definition excludes movements that are due to "recreation, holiday, visits to friends and relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimages" (ibid.).[1]

migrants in vulnerable situations

Migrants who are unable to effectively enjoy their human rights, are at increased risk of violations and abuse and who, accordingly, are entitled to call on a duty bearer's heightened duty of care.[2]

> Note: The United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (HCHR) in its report to the Human Rights Council underlines that: "the vulnerable situations that migrants face can arise from a range of factors that may intersect or coexist simultaneously, influencing and exacerbating each other and also evolving or changing over time as circumstances change". The HCHR further explains that: "[f]actors that generate vulnerability may cause a migrant to leave their country of origin in the first place, may occur during transit or at destination, regardless of whether the original movement was freely chosen, or may be related to a migrant's identity of circumstances. Vulnerability in this context should therefore be understood as both situational and personal". Finally, the HCHR report also calls that: "migrants are not inherently vulnerable, nor do they lack resilience and agency. Rather, vulnerability to human rights violations is the result of multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination, inequality and structural and societal dynamics that lead to diminished and unequal levels of power and enjoyment of rights" (ibid.).

migrant worker

A person who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national.[3]

undocumented migrant worker / migrant worker in an irregular situation

A migrant who is not authorized to enter, to stay and to engage in an remunerated activity in the State of employment pursuant to the law of that State and to international

1 N°34 International Migration Law Glossary on Migration

2 Adapted from High Commissioner for Human Rights, Principles and Practical Guidance on the Protection of the Human Rights of Migrants in Vulnerable Situations, Report of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights to the Human Rights Council (3 January 2018) UN Doc. A/HRC/37/34, para. 12.

3 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (adopted 18 December 1990, entered into force 1 July 2003) 2220 UNTS 3, Art. 2(1).

agreements to which that State is a party.[4]

long-term migrant

A person who moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least one year, so that the country of destination effectively becomes his or her new country of usual residence.[5]

country of origin

In the migration context, a country of nationality or of formal habitual residence of a person or group of persons who have migrated abroad, irrespective of whether they migrate regularly or irregularly.

country of transit

In the migration context, the country through which a person or a group of persons pass on any journey to the country of destination or from the country of destination to the country of origin or the country of habitual residence.[6]

> Note: There is a notion of temporariness in the concept of transit. However, for many migrants, particularly those migrating irregularly, the journey to the intended destination can take months or years. This challenges the very notion of transit and triggers the question on how much time needs to pass for the country of transit to be considered as a destination (United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, Situation of Migrants in Transit (2015) p. 5).

country of destination

In the migration context, a country that is the destination for a person or a group of persons, irrespective of whether they migrate regularly or irregularly.

mixed movements (mixed migration or mixed flows)

A movement in which a number of people are travelling together, generally in an irregular manner, using the same routes and means of transport, but for different reasons. People travelling as part of mixed movements have varying needs and profiles and may include asylum seekers, refugees, trafficked persons, unaccompanied/separated children, and migrants in an irregular situation.[7]

migration crisis

The complex and often large-scale migration flows and mobility patterns caused by a crisis which typically involve significant vulnerabilities for individuals and affected communities and generate acute and longer-term migration management challenges. A migration crisis may be sudden or slow in onset, can have natural or man-made causes, and can take place internally or across borders.[8]

vulnerability

Within a migration context, vulnerability is the limited capacity to avoid, resist, cope with, or recover from harm. This limited capacity is the result of the unique interaction of individual, household, community, and structural characteristics and conditions.

> Note: As a concept, vulnerability implies exposure to and susceptibility to some form of harm. There are different forms of harm, meaning that different sectors use the term differently (e.g. vulnerability to food insecurity, vulnerability to hazards, vulnerability to harm and violence and abuse, vulnerability to rights violation).
>
> Vulnerability derives from a range of intersecting and co-existing personal, social, situational, and structural factors. For example, in crisis or disaster affected communities, individuals and groups may have different levels of vulnerability, depending on their exposure to hazards or to risks of neglect, discrimination, abuse and exploitation. The level of exposure is determined by the interplay of many factors: their sociodemographic characteristics, their capacities (including knowledge, networks, access to resources, access to information and early warnings, etc.), their location (in a camp, in a spontaneous settlement, in a transit center, at the border, etc.) and the crisis induced factors having an impact on them (such as separation, loss and lack of resources and opportunities, discrimination in access to assistance, etc.) (IOM Guidance Note on How to Mainstream Protection across IOM Crisis Response (2016) IN/232, pp. 6-7).

4 Adapted from International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families ((adopted 18 December 1990, entered into force 1 July 2003) 2220 UNTS 3) Art. 5(b).

5 United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration, Revision 1 (1998) p. 10.

6 Adapted from International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (adopted 18 December 1990, entered into force 1 July 2003) 2220 UNTS 3, Art. 6(c).

7 United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, The 10-Point Plan in Action, 2016 – Glossary (December 2016) p. 282.

8 International Organization for Migration, IOM Migration Crisis Operational Framework (15 November 2012) MC/2355, para. 4.

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