Integrating migrants in emergency preparedness, response and recovery in their host countries:

Training manual

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

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FOREWORD

In today’s globalized and highly mobile societies, migrants – including migrant workers and their families, international students and business travellers, tourists, refugees and asylum seekers – represent a significant share of the population of cities and countries all around the world. Their movement and presence shape the composition of their host communities, requiring authorities to think inclusively when defining public policies and providing access to essential services and opportunities.

Past experience shows that the impacts of natural disasters, industrial accidents, violence and emergencies of any kind can be felt heavily by migrants living or transiting in affected areas. Migrants often face specific barriers to accessing essential information, resources and assistance, as a consequence, for instance, of their limited proficiency in the local language; their lack of local knowledge and networks; policies and regulations influencing their status; and marginalization, exploitation and xenophobia.

This has significant implications for the work of their host countries’ civil protection, emergency management and disaster risk management actors. Inclusive, non-discriminatory preparedness planning, awareness campaigns, emergency communications and provision of relief and recovery assistance need to reflect the presence and needs of migrants of different nationalities, languages, and cultures. They also need to recognize that migrants are resourceful individuals, with a unique set of skills and capacities that need to be leveraged in all emergency-related work, in order not only to reduce their vulnerability, but also to contribute to the resilience of their host communities.

In the past few years, the need to include migrants in efforts aiming to reduce the impacts of emergencies has gained prominence in the global policy agenda. The 2015 Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction has explicitly recognized migrants as a key stakeholder for disaster risk reduction policies and operations at all levels. The need to develop mechanisms and measures to protect and assist migrants in emergencies has been the main concern driving the Migrants In Countries In Crisis (MICIC) Initiative, and is now enshrined in its outcome document – the Guidelines to Protect Migrants in Countries Experiencing Conflict or Natural Disaster.

The International Organization for Migration (IOM) has been deeply engaged in these processes, based on its long-standing experience assisting populations affected by emergencies, including migrants. The experience of IOM and of other governmental and non-governmental actors all over the world represents the base of this manual and training package. Through this publication, IOM attempts to provide a comprehensive evidence base, and a collection of examples, practices and tools, to help practitioners and policymakers systematically include migrants in emergency prevention, preparedness, response and recovery work.

William Lacy Swing
Director General
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<th>Full Form</th>
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<tr>
<td>ASEAN</td>
<td>Association of Southeast Asian Nations</td>
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<tr>
<td>CARE</td>
<td>Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECHO</td>
<td>Emergency, Community, Health and Outreach</td>
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<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<td>FEMA</td>
<td>Federal Emergency Management Agency</td>
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<td>ICT</td>
<td>information and communications technology</td>
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TOPIC 1: THIS TRAINING COURSE

Migrants’ vulnerability in times of crisis is shaped by barriers to their access to resources, information and opportunities. This training course is aimed at providing details on why it is important, and how, to roll out measures that can help bridge some of these barriers. Such measures include those that the relevant actors can take to improve their capacity to reach, assist and protect migrants before, during and after crises, and those that improve migrants’ ability to access resources, information and opportunities.

This training course is not aimed at covering all of the interventions needed to address the root causes of migrants’ vulnerability, but is focused on improving the inclusion of migrants in crisis preparedness, response and recovery in host countries.

Whom this course is for

A number of actors and elements contribute to determining whether, and in what ways, migrants are made vulnerable to crises. These include State institutions at all levels, including ministries (ministries of interior and of foreign affairs, and those dealing with migration issues, development, social policies and welfare, and employment), civil protection agencies, risk and emergency management authorities, public service providers, local governments, foreign governmental authorities and international institutions. Also included are non-State actors, such as the migrants themselves, diasporas, civil society organizations, employers and the private sector, academics and research institutions.

The actions covered in this training course explicitly target the work of State and non-State actors dealing directly with emergency management in countries of destination. Such actors include those in charge of: providing education and raising public awareness; issuing and disseminating early warnings and emergency information; providing affected persons with evacuation assistance, as well as material and psychosocial support; and planning and implementing recovery and reconstruction activities.

The main target of the course is the technical staff of emergency and disaster risk management and civil protection institutions who work at the national and subnational levels. More broadly speaking, it can be of interest to actors with stakes in emergency preparedness, response and recovery, such as the media, employers and private sector actors, schools, non-governmental relief organizations, police and armed forces, fire management agencies, and so forth. Specific resources are available if the training participants include individuals more focused on strategic planning and abstract thinking (such as session 1B).

However, actors not usually involved in emergency management can also be involved in the training, as their inclusion in emergency preparedness and response work can be key to effectively improving migrants’ resilience. This is particularly important for those who work more closely with migrants in non-emergency times.
Expected outcome and specific learning objectives of the training course

This training is aimed at:

- Raising the awareness of personnel of emergency preparedness, response and recovery actors about migrants’ specific vulnerabilities in the face of different kinds of crises;
- Providing concrete information and practical guidance to reduce migrants’ vulnerability through a variety of measures, including those on the delivery of appropriate and accessible information and services, improved engagement and involvement of migrants, and evaluation of response efforts and learning from these evaluations.

More specifically, by the end of the training, the participants should be able to:

- Explain the main terms and concepts used during this training course (session 1A);
- Describe the situation in their own country in relation to migration, including the legal framework regulating migration (session 1A);
- Describe the guiding principles that should be respected when acting with migrant communities before, during and after emergencies (session 1B, which is optional);
- Explain why migrants require specific attention during crises, by describing their specific needs and explaining why migrants might suffer disproportionately compared with other populations (session 2);
- Identify the stakeholders that need to be involved in efforts to address migrants’ needs before, during and after emergencies and the options available for engaging and coordinating with them (session 3);
- Describe the legal frameworks and institutional mandates their work with and for migrants is based upon (session 3);
- Describe the processes to conduct data collection and profiling activities, with the objective of identifying, quantifying and localizing migrants, as well as understanding their needs, resources, capacities and conditions of vulnerability (session 4);
- Adapt to migrants’ specificities the existing programmes related to recruitment, volunteering, and community-based preparedness, response and recovery (session 5);
- Take specific actions to improve migrants’ trust in the relevant institutions and actors (session 5);
- Recognize best practices to raise awareness among migrants’ communities about their exposure to hazards, preparedness measures, available assistance, their rights and so forth (session 6);
- Adapt early warning and emergency communication systems and messages to ensure migrants receive sufficient information in emergency situations (session 6);
- Explain why and in which ways contingency plans should be adapted to address migrants’ specific conditions and situations (session 7);
- Describe how the planning and management of evacuation assistance and evacuation sites should be adapted to address the needs of migrants (session 7);
Recognize how the services and assistance provided during and after emergency situations are adapted and complemented to address migrants’ needs (session 8);

Recognize the need to implement specific measures to prevent trafficking and exploitation of migrants (session 8);

Identify which measures can be used to assess the effectiveness of preparedness, response and recovery efforts targeting migrants (session 8).

To help participants attain these learning objectives, this training course is aimed at providing: (a) the tools to identify how migrants’ vulnerability is shaped in the country or area context; and (b) the resources (such as examples of past experiences, operational guidance and contact information of the relevant institutions) that can be used to design and implement targeted interventions. These interventions will improve the inclusion and consideration of migrants in the work of emergency management actors before, during and after crises, and will ultimately improve the assistance and protection available to migrants in emergency situations.

The trainings should include one or more sessions in which the participants apply the knowledge they acquired during the training course (for example, by using one of the tools provided in the course). The priorities and capacities of the participants will determine the structure and priorities of the sessions.

Table 0.1: Overview of the handbook

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TOPIC 2: BACKGROUND

MICIC Initiative

Today there are no less than 244 million international migrants worldwide and tens of millions of people displaced by conflicts, violence and disasters. Many more people move across borders for shorter periods of time, including in an undocumented manner, going largely unrecorded by migration tracking systems. Increasing population movements at all scales and between all geographic areas are made possible by the increasingly interconnected character of our modern societies, but population movements also contribute to making the world a “smaller” place. The presence of labour migrants, international students, tourists, refugees and expatriates has become such a significant part of many societies that it is requiring States, cities and non-governmental actors to rethink the communities they serve, and to transform the way they work to provide these groups with services, opportunities and resources. This is particularly true in specific areas, such as hub cities and locations that are key to the functioning of today’s global economic systems. In fact, non-nationals represent almost half of the population of many of the world’s most dynamic cities (such as Brussels, Buenos Aires and London).

The presence of such a significant number of people living outside of their countries of origin, and the different needs, capacities, resources and networks they display and access, have specific consequences in times of crisis. Whether the consequence of natural hazards or technological accidents, or conflict and violence, crises often affect the lives and the well-being of non-nationals in very different ways than they do native populations. There are numerous recent examples – the Libyan conflict that began in 2011, the Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear meltdown in 2011, Hurricane Sandy in 2012, the civil wars in the Central African Republic and more recently in Yemen beginning in 2015 have all shown specific ways in which migrants can suffer disproportionately in times of crisis.

Migration is a far-reaching phenomenon that is unlikely to become any less pervasive over the next decades. With disasters and conflicts expected to be further driven globally by resource scarcity, inequalities and environmental change, preparing, protecting and assisting migrants in times of crisis should be of concern to all States and communities. It is important to note that this is a concern in countries of all levels of wealth and development – in any social context, in any part of the world, non-nationals have different capacities and resources, and face different obstacles and challenges than native populations, both in daily life and in times of crisis.

Over recent years, a number of calls have gone out to ensure that the effects of crises on migrants are adequately addressed. Starting in 2011, there have been discussions at the United Nations, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and the High-level Dialogue on International Migration and Development on ways in which countries could collaborate to develop a better approach to addressing the issue. The ideas encompass a variety of measures, including improved protection and assistance in the area affected by the crisis, and enhanced capacity to evacuate people out of the area (and in extreme cases back to their home countries), as well as better consideration of migrants in preparedness and recovery systems.
The theme for IOM’s 2012 International Dialogue on Migration was “managing migration in crisis situations”. The background paper (IOM, 2012) included the following statements:

When migrants’ host countries experience crises, migrant populations often have few means to ensure their own safety. In some cases migrants may be unable to leave the crisis area, in others they may be unwilling to leave or unable to access humanitarian assistance, while in others they may seek refuge across borders in adjacent countries. In the latter case, repercussions may spread throughout entire regions, particularly in border areas and neighbouring States.

As a consequence of these calls, a small group of actors started working to explore and define the issues, to look at best practices, to collect the evidence base, and to propose a set of guidelines to strengthen national and international capacities to address migrants’ vulnerability in disasters through the Migrants in Countries in Crisis (MICIC) Initiative. The group included Governments (the Philippines, United States of America – the two co-chairs, and Australia, Bangladesh, Costa Rica, Ethiopia) and the European Commission, international actors (IOM, the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on International Migration and Development, and the International Centre for Migration Policy Development) and a research institution (Institute for the Study of International Migration of Georgetown University).

Through a series of multi-stakeholder consultations, the MICIC Initiative produced a set of “Guidelines to protect migrants in countries experiencing conflict or natural disasters”, aimed at improving the ability of States and other relevant stakeholders to alleviate the suffering, and to protect the dignity and rights, of migrants caught in countries in situations of acute crisis through more targeted preparedness, response and recovery efforts.

As emphasized in the consultations and in the guidelines, governments of the migrants’ countries of origin bear responsibility for the safety and welfare of their citizens, even when they are travelling, residing or working abroad. However, governments, local authorities, service providers, employers and civil society in areas of destination play a key role in improving both the migrants’ day-to-day living conditions and their resilience to crises.

**Scope of the MICIC Initiative: Migrants and crises**

The MICIC Initiative and Guidelines are limited to addressing the vulnerability of migrants living, working or staying in countries that face major emergencies. There are a number of situations in which migrants might be experiencing hardship as a consequence of their mobility status (for example, migrants in accidents at sea, and migrants who are victims of organized criminal groups while on the move); however, the Initiative deals only with situations that represent major crises for the host country.

Such crises may include disasters linked with natural hazards (such as earthquakes, hurricanes and floods) or with technological accidents (such as nuclear failures and contamination by
chemical or biological agents), or situations of conflict (ranging from generalized violence and low-level civil unrest to international armed conflict). In all such situations, it is the country in which migrants are physically present that is experiencing a crisis (as a whole or in some of its parts), not only migrants and their groups.

There are significant differences between conflict situations and disaster situations, particularly in terms of security, access to the affected populations, and the capacity and willingness of authorities and actors to operate in host countries. The Initiative is aimed at identifying options that can guide action under a variety of operational and political contexts.

Likewise, it is clear that migrants’ specific conditions of vulnerability in crisis situations have roots in pre-crisis conditions of exclusion and marginalization, and that the way the post-crisis phase is addressed is key to replicating, reinforcing or reversing such conditions. Pre- and post-crisis phases need to be considered alongside the acute emergency period if one is to reduce migrants’ specific vulnerabilities.

For the aims of the MICIC Initiative, migrants include all categories of persons who have crossed international borders to find themselves, for a more or less extended period of time, in a country other than their own. The term migrants therefore refers to migrant workers and their families, business travellers and expatriates, students, marriage migrants, and victims of trafficking and smuggling. The Initiative is aimed at reducing their vulnerability, regardless of the reasons for their migration and their migration status (that is, documented or undocumented).

While refugees, asylum seekers and stateless persons are formally excluded from the scope of the Initiative, most of the content of this training is largely applicable to work targeting these groups.

Recognizing that individual features (such as gender, age, ethnicity, physical status, education and employment status), including those linked to people’s migration status, contribute to shaping individual needs and capacities, the Initiative stresses the need to promote actions that take into consideration the specific crisis context and the characteristics of the affected migrant groups.

The MICIC Initiative does not try to replace existing protection frameworks for refugees or asylum seekers as they are established through the Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and its Protocol. However, while refugees and asylum seekers might face specific conditions of vulnerability or they might be protected through a dedicated regime, the principles and actions that can help to reduce migrants’ vulnerabilities in the face of emergencies are very relevant to improving refugees’ safety and security in their host countries, and can complement existing protection mechanisms.

The actions and experiences presented in this training build on a body of work that has been accumulated in a number of different contexts. In particular, the training draws on policies and actions to integrate linguistically and ethnically diverse communities in emergency
preparedness and response, as well as the work to manage the massive inflow, integration and repatriation of migrants in non-crisis times.

The MICIC Capacity-Building Programme on Reducing the Vulnerability of Migrants to Emergencies

In order to reduce the vulnerability of migrants, it is vital to improve the capacity of all of the relevant actors to address the specific needs of migrants in times of emergency. This training is part of a more comprehensive capacity-building programme – the MICIC Capacity-Building Programme on Reducing the Vulnerability of Migrants to Emergencies. This Programme is a first effort to address the vulnerability of migrants caught in emergency situations abroad by working with governmental and non-governmental actors in both countries of origin and countries of destination.

The Programme’s initial phase, which takes place from 2015 to 2016, targets four countries, namely Guatemala and Myanmar (considered to be mainly countries of origin of large migration flows), and Mexico and Thailand (considered to be countries of destination of large migration flows). These countries have been selected based on the potential for high-impact intergovernmental coordination, and on the existing work of the relevant national institutions and international organizations. The present training course concerns Mexico and Thailand, countries of destination.

In Guatemala and Myanmar, the training course will focus on strengthening the capacity of consular officials to assist their nationals caught in emergencies while abroad, on supporting the development of an e-learning tool to be integrated into consular staff trainings, and on establishing information management systems to improve emergency assistance provided by the consular corps.

In Mexico and Thailand, the Capacity-Building Programme will be focused on improving the inclusion of foreign nationals in emergency preparedness, response and recovery. The present course is the key component of this work. It includes activities to improve risk awareness among local migrant populations and supports efforts on migrants’ inclusion at the community level in high-immigration locations.

In addition, through the Programme, coordination among the relevant institutional actors in countries of origin and destination is being promoted.

The objective is to be able to not only reduce the immediate impacts migrants suffer in crisis situations but also prevent indirect, longer-term negative impacts on the well-being of communities of origin and destination, to which migrants actively contribute.

The activities included in the Programme – and in this training in particular – build upon experiences accumulated by diplomatic services and risk management actors around the world. While the focus of the MICIC Initiative is limited to migrants and major crisis situations, the training covers principles and actions that can be applied to pursuing an inclusive approach to preparedness planning, emergency response and post-crisis recovery.
TOPIC 3: TRAINING METHODOLOGY

The training materials have been developed by drawing on a variety of experiences of national and local institutions, experts and practitioners (such as researchers, non-governmental actors and representatives from the migrant community) related to improving preparedness, response and recovery for migrants and minority groups in general. These include crisis management efforts by IOM, and especially its work supporting governments of home and host countries assisting non-nationals in such recent emergencies as the 2011 floods in Thailand, the Libyan conflict that began in 2011 and the civil strife in Yemen that began in 2015.

The vast literature and experience relating to improving cultural competence within emergency response provision, to involving minorities in emergency preparedness and response efforts, and to communicating with minorities in emergencies have been key to this work. Scientific literature, reports by governmental and non-governmental institutions, newspaper reports, existing training programmes and direct contributions by the relevant individuals have been fundamental to developing this training course. A list of additional reading materials is provided as part of the training package (see Annex).

Presentation of the training package

Figure 0.1: The MICIC Training Package

- **MICIC Initiative training package**
  - Comprises eight training modules.
  - Each module contains information about the session topic (to reinforce the facilitator’s knowledge) and a session plan indicating in detail the organization of the corresponding session.
  - All resources required to conduct the training sessions are included in this manual, with the exception of the PowerPoint presentations.

- **Facilitator’s manual**
  - Comprises information on the subject matter of each of the eight course chapters.

- **Participant’s manual**
  - PowerPoint presentations required for some chapters are available to the facilitators in the training package.

- **PowerPoint presentations**
CHAPTER 1

Setting the scene
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AIM OF THE CHAPTER

Participants are able to describe the main features of the migration situation in their country and are familiar with the basic migration- and emergency-related terminology used in the course.

Participants are aware of the guiding principles that should be respected when acting with migrant communities before, during and after emergencies.

INTRODUCTION

According to United Nations data, there are currently about 244 million people living and working abroad. Many more people visit foreign countries for shorter periods for work, tourism or education. Their movement is driven by the social and economic dynamic of globalization and made easier by the availability of long-distance transportation, communication networks, and information on available opportunities and risks in transit and destination areas.

Whether moving in a documented or undocumented manner, whether staying abroad for short periods or permanently, foreigners are part of today’s societies. The presence of labour migrants, international students, tourists, refugees and expatriates is a key feature of many of the world’s most advanced societies and communities – it connects places and countries, shapes their culture, fosters their capacity to innovate and contributes to their economy.

The presence of foreigners has become so significant for societies all over the world that it is requiring State and local authorities, as well as non-governmental actors, to rethink the way they work to provide their communities with services, opportunities and resources. This is particularly important in specific areas, such as cities that are the economic and cultural hubs of their country or region, which often host a disproportionate percentage of foreigners; their presence is both a result of and a reason for their centrality.

Migrants and other foreigners in emergencies

The presence of such a significant number of people living outside their countries of origin, and the different needs, capacities, resources and networks they display and access have specific consequences in emergencies. Whether the consequence of natural hazards, technological accidents, or conflict and violence, emergencies often affect the lives and the well-being of migrants and other foreigners in very different ways than they do native populations. There are numerous recent examples of emergencies in which migrants and other foreigners were heavily affected: the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami, the 2011 floods in Thailand, the Japanese earthquake, tsunami and nuclear meltdown in 2011, Hurricane Sandy in 2012, as well as a variety of conflicts, such as the civil wars in Libya, and more recently in the Syrian Arab Republic and Yemen.

According to the 1963 Vienna Convention on Consular Relations, the host country is responsible for ensuring the safety and welfare of all individuals in their territory in times of
crisis, whatever their legal status (that is, documented or undocumented) and qualification (for example, migrant workers, international students, foreign professionals or tourists). While not all countries are signatories to the Convention, many provide for the delivery of life-saving emergency services on a non-discriminatory basis (that is, without looking at, among other things, race, nationality or legal status), including by embedding this principle in their relevant legal or administrative frameworks.

This can, however, translate into diverse individuals and groups being provided with the same services in the same manner, that is, a “colour-blind” approach. This approach includes, for instance, disseminating non-translated early warnings that migrants and other foreigners will not understand, providing food that some foreigners might not eat, or failing to set up procedures for them to evacuate back home, if they wish to do so.

A one-size-fits-all approach does not always work with diverse communities. In order to provide the same services (for example, to save lives and to protect health, assets and livelihoods) to different people and groups with different capacities and needs, different approaches are needed.

Figure 1.1: Elements of cultural diversity

When asked about the ways in which they pay specific attention to the needs of migrants, many emergency management actors reply that they do not actually need to – their services are provided in a non-discriminatory manner, without looking at the origin, nationality or migration status of the people they are assisting. At the same time, they might already have specific procedures in place or might provide specific forms of assistance when reaching out to and serving particular groups within their societies. For instance, targeted emergency preparedness, response and recovery efforts are routinely carried out for:

- Women
- Minors (children in particular)
- Older persons
- Persons with disabilities

In order to fulfil their mandate of providing preparedness, response and recovery assistance to a sufficient standard, emergency management actors need to address specific needs and leverage specific capacities, adapting the way they work and the services they provide.

Similarly, working with migrants and other foreigners means recognizing that, just like these other groups, they could present a set of capacities different from those of the local people (for example, they speak a different language, they do not have many local acquaintances, or they live, work and stay in different places) and therefore have different needs in emergencies. This does not require setting up a completely different system for managing emergencies that affect migrants; rather it requires understanding how the work of emergency actors can be adapted to better consider their specificities, alongside the many other factors of diversity that characterize different individuals and groups in any community (see Figure 1.1).

Among these factors, the following are most likely to be relevant specifically to migrants:

- Nationality
- Race
- Ethnicity
- Migration status (documented or undocumented)
- Language proficiency
- Religion

For emergency actors, understanding how these elements might result in specific capacities and needs (or obstacles in accessing aid) before, during and after emergencies is key to taking measures that enable migrants to receive information, support and assistance of a quality similar to that of the rest of the community. Conversely, if these elements are not taken into account, it is likely that some migrants will fall through the cracks of emergency management systems.

Numerous emergency management systems have specific mechanisms in place that cater only to the situations and needs of some categories of foreigners (often those that are already more privileged, such as tourists and expatriates). It is important to recognize the presence of all
other groups, including migrant workers (even if undocumented), and the contributions they make to the local society and its economic, social and cultural life, and to highlight that they too should be the object of inclusive and non-discriminatory service provision, particularly in emergencies. In fact, these other groups often constitute a much more sizable, and far more vulnerable, component of their host societies.

With migrants being an increasingly sizable and important component of societies around the world, not accounting specifically for their needs means failing to serve at-risk and emergency-affected groups, increasing their members’ vulnerability and ultimately the vulnerability of the whole communities of which they are a part.

**KEY LEARNING POINTS**

- Migrants are an increasingly sizable component of societies and communities around the world.
- Their presence adds to the existing diversity of the communities the emergency actors serve.
- Different approaches and efforts are required when working with different people and groups.
- Whenever they do not take into account migrants’ specific characteristics, emergency actors risk failing to serve adequately the communities with which they work.
TOPIC 1: PROMOTING CULTURALLY COMPETENT PREPAREDNESS, RESPONSE AND RECOVERY (OPTIONAL)

Culturally competent systems

_Cultural competence_ is a concept that has often been adopted to inform concrete efforts aimed at providing diverse communities with adequate services. It recognizes culture (see the definition box) as being the result of a variety of individual and collective factors (see Figure 1.2) and the core of different people’s and groups’ identity, shaping what people value and need, what they think and how they act – including in emergencies.

_Culture_ is the set of traditions, values, beliefs, customs, history and institutions that a given group of people share based on their nationality, ethnicity, language, religion and so forth. It is one of the elements determining people’s thinking, actions and expressions, and is constructed and adapted through time and places. Growing up in a given culture is a key part of each person’s identity.

As culture is determined by a variety of factors, cultural competence is not exclusively an approach that is useful to working effectively with migrant groups. Religious, ethnic and linguistic differences can exist among nationals, and gender and sexual orientation, age and health status also affect one’s culture.

_Cultural competence_ is a set of behaviours, attitudes and policies that allows systems, organizations and professionals to work effectively in culturally diverse contexts.

In fact, the cultural competence approach can be adopted when working with any minority group, not only migrants. However, it is particularly important when working in communities hosting a large number of migrants and other foreigners, and not only for institutionally mandated authorities, but for all actors engaging in emergency preparedness, response and recovery.

The inability to address effectively the needs of people of all cultures, classes, races, ethnic backgrounds, religions, legal status, or sexual orientation is more than ever a concern for emergency actors around the world – it can undermine the fulfilment of their very mandate, and represents one of the challenges most frequently encountered by their staff members in the field.
As illustrated below, cultural competence is articulated in five main principles.

**Being aware of, accepting and valuing diversity**

Diversity is an intrinsic feature of any community, as well as a feature of each migrant group within a given community. It should not be assumed that migrants share the culture of their host communities, but it should also not be assumed that everyone in a given migrant group shares the same culture, as individual and collective characteristics (such as gender, ethnicity and socioeconomic status) might result in significant internal diversity. Hence, it is necessary to look at people’s backgrounds, experiences, insights, and points of view – and recognize that they represent a wealth of resources upon which to build.

*Figure 1.2: The five principles of cultural competence*

**Being aware of one’s own cultural values**

Everyone has a cultural background. All workers of institutions working with migrants (and in fact, even the institutions themselves) are influenced by a set of values, beliefs and customs of which they might not necessarily be aware. Recognizing the influence of one’s background on his or her actions is key to avoiding cultural bias when making decisions, defining priorities, planning, interacting with migrants and so on.
Understanding and managing the dynamics of difference

Interactions among persons from different cultural backgrounds are always influenced by each individual’s experiences, beliefs and values. People’s beliefs and values (and ultimately their culture), however, evolve as they have new experiences. When working in a multicultural environment, it is necessary to know that diversity can lead to misunderstanding, mistrust and conflict, and that setting up communication, mediation and collaboration mechanisms to address these is key.

Developing and institutionalizing cultural knowledge

All facets of the relevant organizations’ structures and work should reflect the fact that they work in culturally diverse communities, and that the implications of this diversity is understood and addressed in their work. This might include: developing policies that stress the importance of cultural diversity for the achievement of a given organization’s aims; developing the cultural competence of individual staff members; ensuring that a positive image of other cultures is reflected in all materials and communications an organization issues; promoting diversity within the organization through targeted hiring of staff and managers, and so on.

Adapting to diversity

Based on the understanding of the four other principles, organizations (and their members) should adapt the services, resources and assistance they provide, as well as the activities they implement, to the cultural context of the beneficiaries and their communities. For emergency actors, this means ensuring that preparedness procedures and information, and response and recovery services and efforts can adequately address the specific needs and challenges of diverse people and groups within the at-risk or affected community.

Value of a culturally competent organization

Improving an organization’s cultural competence could result in the following benefits:

- Having a working environment conducive to increased respect and mutual understanding among staff and volunteers of different backgrounds;
- Improved problem solving resulting from better recognizing and valuing all internal and external resources, capacities and contributions;
- Increased trust and cooperation internally and externally, including in particular the willingness of specific minority groups to engage and collaborate;
- Increased inclusion and equality within the rest of the society;
- Improved ability to serve the entire community of the beneficiaries, thereby better fulfilling its mandate and better supporting the resilience of the whole community.
Elements of a culturally competent system

Working in a culturally competent manner

In order to ensure that emergency preparedness, response and recovery services are provided in a culturally competent manner, the following aspects should be looked at in detail, with an understanding of how they are applicable to the different individuals and groups – including migrants – that compose the at-risk or affected community:

- Assistance-seeking behaviours;
- Dress codes;
- Welcome and communication etiquette (including speaking clearly, simply and effectively, and considering who can address whom, and how);
- Social status and gender conventions (including whether communities might be more comfortable seeking or receiving assistance from same-gender or same-age service providers);
- Dietary restrictions and preferences;
- Privacy, clothing and spacing needs (including needs for separated rooms or spaces in mixed gender facilities);
- Attitudes towards health care and healing, and psychosocial support (including perceptions of and attitudes towards pain, and possible stigma regarding psychosocial assistance);
- Treatment of the dead;
- Collective rituals and commemorations, including religious ceremonies.

Having a good understanding of the characteristics of the various groups that compose a community is key to delivering adequate services effectively. This means ensuring that service delivery is driven by the beneficiaries’ freely determined preferences and needs.

The day after the earthquake in Christchurch, New Zealand, in February 2011, the Christchurch Migrant Inter-Agency group was set up to give advice to the institutions responsible for relief and recovery efforts, as well as to support these efforts through community-based work. The group included representatives from the city and from over 60 local migrant and refugee associations.

Building culturally competent institutions

All of the relevant actors should understand the need for a culturally competent approach and this should be translated into their work and practices. Organizations must sanction, and even mandate, the incorporation of cultural knowledge in all of their structures and efforts. The following measures can help ensure an organization’s commitment to the relevant principles and values:

- The cultural competence approach can be included in an organization’s principles and mission statements, as well as internal guidelines and strategic documents. In particular,
these documents should reflect the principle of equal access and non-discriminatory service provision.

- The work of management should reflect respect for the principles of cultural competence.
- A respectful work environment should be actively promoted (including by establishing standards, complaint mechanisms and policies to ensure that discrimination based on nationality, ethnicity and sex is addressed).
- External and internal communications and outreach materials should reflect and respect diversity.
- Specific positions or internal bodies or committees can be created in order to advise on, or deal with, diversity matters and issues.
- A specific budget should be set aside to finance these efforts.
- Human resources policies and hiring processes should actively promote and value individual diversity and cultural competence within the organization (for example, through the inclusion of cultural competence in job descriptions, or targeted hiring of personnel from specific groups).
- Establishing effective consultation and coordination mechanisms with members or representatives from diverse groups is key to having a good picture of these dimensions and to being able to work effectively.

In Fuenlabrada, Spain, the local police department has set up the Diversity Management Team to address issues related to the migrant presence. Among other things, the Team maintains a network of contacts within the migrant groups, who can be contacted quickly when reaching out to the respective communities.

The United States Department of Health and Human Services, through its Office of Minority Health, has developed the National Standards for Culturally and Linguistically Appropriate Services in Health and Health Care (the National CLAS Standards). These Standards are aimed at offering people and organizations working in the areas of emergency management, public health and other relevant fields a framework for developing and implementing programmes and measures to eliminate health-care disparities. Effective, equitable, understandable and respectful quality care and services should be provided in a manner that is responsive to diverse cultural health beliefs and practices, preferred languages, health literacy and other communication needs. See [www.thinkculturalhealth.hhs.gov/content/clas.asp](http://www.thinkculturalhealth.hhs.gov/content/clas.asp).
Enhancing the cultural competence of staff members

In addition, the concept of cultural competence and its operational implications should be fully understood by workers at all levels (management, staff members and volunteers) through, for instance:

- Inclusion of these principles in the staff’s continuous training, including compulsory on-the-job training, through the creation of targeted courses and of continuous learning mechanisms;
- Development and distribution of awareness-raising materials;
- Establishment of certifications and recognitions or awards for successful, engaged staff members;
- Development and use of self-assessment tools and procedures to evaluate individual and institutional cultural competence.

In the United States, the Cultural Competency Curriculum for Disaster Preparedness and Crisis Response of the Office of Minority Health is a complete, publicly available tool targeted at first responders, emergency managers, disaster mental health personnel and dentists. The programme offers a wealth of information on the main cultural and linguistic barriers that minority groups might encounter, and cultural competence self-assessment exercises, examples and case studies. It is designed to equip providers with the relevant competencies required to improve the quality of services provided before, during and after disasters. See [https://cccdpocr.thinkculturalhealth.hhs.gov/](https://cccdpocr.thinkculturalhealth.hhs.gov/).

The MICIC training package includes an example of a self-assessment tool to evaluate individual and collective cultural competence (“M1_self-assessment tool”).

Hiring competent staff is a key part of building institutional cultural competence. This can be achieved by:

- Ensuring that job descriptions and human resources documents explicitly include cultural competence (often described as “capacity to work in a culturally diverse environment”) as an asset or a requirement;
- Targeted hiring (staff or volunteers) of representatives from the various groups in the community to be served;
- Setting up rosters of pre-identified representatives and organizations of migrant and other minority groups to draw from when facing the increased demand for service provision in emergencies.
In addition to training and awareness-raising, staff members and volunteers might need specific operational support in order to work more effectively in multicultural contexts. The development of tools, guidelines and information papers can support the operationalization of cultural competence. These documents might include:

- Individual self-assessment tools to discover one’s cultural bias and to assess one’s capacity to work effectively in culturally diverse environments;
- Tools to assess needs and resources and to analyse gaps in an organization’s functioning in relation to cultural competence;
- Tools to gather information on minority groups, such as community profiling tools (see Chapter 4);
- Methodological and guidance notes to help individual responders to be mindful of the implications of working in culturally diverse communities;
- Checklists and synthesis materials that highlight how the cultural backgrounds of different people and groups tend to affect their needs and access to basic services (for example, food assistance, shelter and health care);
- Documents that list how specific aspects of the assistance the organization provides (for example, diet, privacy and space allocation, dressing and communication codes, death and post-mortem care, health including mental health) are likely to be affected by a person’s cultural background.

The Office of Minority Health has developed a methodological tool (namely, RESPOND) to guide health practitioners taking the medical history of culturally or linguistically diverse populations, including in emergency situations. The elements of RESPOND include:

- R – Build rapport
- E – Explain your purpose
- S – Identify services and elaborate
- P – Encourage individuals to be proactive
- O – Offer assistance to individuals to identify their needs
- N – Negotiate what is normal to help identify needs
- D – Determine next steps


For an example of a collection of basic information on the cultural specificities of various ethnic and religious communities in the United Kingdom, see [www.nwas.nhs.uk/media/325891/working_with_diverse_communities_pocket_guide_2013_v1bs.pdf](http://www.nwas.nhs.uk/media/325891/working_with_diverse_communities_pocket_guide_2013_v1bs.pdf).
Learning from past experiences

Setting up systems that allow organizations to learn from past experiences is key to improving their own, their staff’s and the whole system’s cultural competence. These mechanisms might include:

- Collecting and analysing data on the impacts of emergencies on the well-being of different groups;
- Collecting and analysing data on different groups’ access to basic services and assistance;
- Setting up feedback mechanisms, such as hotlines, mailboxes or webforms for people to display appreciation, dissatisfaction or specific challenges encountered with service provision and access;
- Interviewing informants within the affected community about the relevant aspects of their experience with emergency service provision;
- Interviewing informed staff and volunteers about the relevant aspects of their experience in providing diverse groups of beneficiaries with services;
- Setting up consultative mechanisms for planning and evaluating efforts with the participation of cultural advisers and mediators or representatives from minority groups or their associations;
- Setting up processes to revise the organization’s planning and work, and mechanisms to communicate changes to the general public, and especially to migrants and other minority groups.

In addition, having mechanisms to ensure that the guidelines and principles regarding cultural competence are in fact being followed by staff and volunteers in the field can help strengthen their individual capacity and make the whole institution more effective.

These mechanisms might include:

- Monitoring systems with the involvement of cultural advisers as observers;
- Mechanisms to record cultural missteps occurring when services are provided, and to redress and learn from such missteps.

After the Christchurch earthquake, the Maori Wardens Association became the “eyes and ears” of the institutional structures dedicated to culturally competent assistance. They worked closely with service providers, identified existing needs and priorities, and reported back and offered possible solutions to the mandated agencies.
KEY LEARNING POINTS

- The culture of the beneficiaries affects their needs, capacities and willingness to seek and accept assistance and support, and should therefore be reflected in all dimensions of the work of service providers before, during and after emergencies.
- Integrating cultural competence into the work of organizations requires efforts at all levels, from policy-strategic to operational levels. It also requires increasing the cultural competence of individual staff members.
- Establishing systems to learn from past experiences is key to enabling organizations and their staff to become more culturally competent.
Migrants’ vulnerability and resilience in emergencies
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AIM OF THE CHAPTER

Participants are able to explain why migrants require specific attention during crises by describing migrants’ specific needs and explaining why migrants might suffer disproportionately compared with other populations.

Participants are aware of the main factors that determine the specific vulnerability of migrants in emergencies.

INTRODUCTION

Evidence from past emergencies shows that migrants, and in particular the most marginalized among them, are disproportionately affected by natural and man-made hazards. While not all migrants are equally vulnerable, being a migrant is often linked with specific conditions that reduce their capacity to prevent and cope with emergencies. When they are not adequately taken into account and addressed by the host society’s legal, political and operational system, characteristics such as language proficiency, a lack of knowledge of the local context and a lack of trust in the institutions of the host country can significantly reduce migrants’ access to information, resources and assistance before, during and after emergencies.

Migrants, however, also possess a unique set of skills and capacities that may make them particularly resilient in the face of shocks. In the light of their widespread, and increasing, presence in societies all over the world, leveraging such capacities in emergency preparedness, response and recovery efforts can have benefits for the whole communities of destination.
TOPIC 1: MIGRANTS’ SPECIFIC VULNERABILITY – MAIN BARRIERS TO ACCESSING INFORMATION, RESOURCES AND ASSISTANCE

Migrants are often disproportionally affected by crises impacting their host communities. Harm, hardship, distress, trauma and violence associated with emergencies are more common, acute and severe for migrants, especially the most marginalized among them. Specific crisis impacts may even affect them exclusively, as in the case of post-crisis xenophobic violence against migrant “scapegoats”.

This different vulnerability stems from the interaction of migrants’ individual and collective characteristics (such as nationality, status and linguistic proficiency) and the way the host society and its institutions are shaped and work. This in turn is a function of the structural factors (economic, politic, social and cultural) that shape migrants’ status, rights, and access to resources, services and opportunities, and therefore their personal and collective well-being and security in daily life. In crisis situations, these factors result in specific conditions of exclusion and need.

In order to reduce the overall impacts of crises on affected communities, and particularly the impacts that migrants may suffer, it is essential that emergency management actors address these conditions of vulnerability through targeted preparedness, response and recovery efforts.

While migrants’ vulnerability is strongly linked to the structural features of the societies they come from and those they live in, tackling the root causes of migrants’ conditions of poverty and inequality is outside the scope of this training. Instead, the following sections will focus on what can be done when preparing for, responding to and recovering from crises in order to reduce their impacts on migrants’ lives and well-being.

However, it should be noted that protecting, strengthening and leveraging migrants’ capacities in crises can help change the perceptions host communities might have of migrants and migrant issues, improve migrants’ involvement and representation in matters pertaining to their societies of destination, and improve communities’ overall well-being – thereby producing a more profound transformative change in the structural factors determining migrants’ vulnerability.

Language barriers

Migrants – particularly newcomers, members of especially marginalized groups and those living in isolated locations – may be less proficient than the native population in the local language. This may result in reduced access to and understanding of information, which in turn can lead to increased risks and reduced availability of assistance.
Language barriers are a key issue before crises, as they can reduce access to information and educational resources on hazards and risk management procedures, and to the services and opportunities available in disasters or conflict situations. Language barriers hamper the understanding of emergency communications, undermining the effectiveness of early warning and early action procedures – potentially leading to increased casualties – and of relief and response service provision. Language barriers are also an obstacle to obtaining information on secondary risks and accessing available resources and assistance after crises (including in particular psychosocial counselling).

When a tornado hit the town of Saragosa, Texas, in 1987, most of the 26 deaths were Spanish-speaking migrants who had not been adequately warned due to failures in translating and transmitting the warning messages into Spanish on time. This was due both to migrants’ preference for alternative information sources and to the need for a hasty translation of the warning messages into Spanish, often done directly by the broadcasters.

When Hurricane Andrew destroyed much of South Miami-Dade County in Florida in 1992, the majority of the people affected were of Latin or Haitian origin. Response agencies such as the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) and the American Red Cross did not initially have translators and hence were not immediately able to deliver food, medical supplies and disaster grants to the non-English speaking minorities, and in particular to migrants from South and Central America, who were already among the most affected groups.

After the 2011 floods, the Government of Thailand provided affected migrants with relief and relocation assistance (for example, by setting up shelters and providing relief services). However, obstacles to official outreach efforts meant that many migrants did not know where the shelters were located or how to reach them, or to which kinds of services they would be entitled.

Use of alternative media and information sources

A lack of consideration for the needs of linguistically (and culturally) diverse communities in mainstream media can result in reduced use of specific media by migrants. When seeking or wishing to validate information, migrants often prefer to watch television channels and to listen to radio stations from their country of origin, or they may rely on interpersonal communications (often with people of a similar background). This might make the host community’s mainstream media completely ineffective when trying to reach migrant groups, and the development of targeted communication strategies, including through the involvement and empowerment of local and distant ethnic media, might be required.
During the 2003 San Diego fires, Spanish-language emergency communications were insufficient, despite the fact that Spanish speakers in the affected areas amounted to about 20 per cent of the total population. These groups turned to Mexican television channels for news. However, foreign media were largely unprepared to coordinate with United States authorities to produce and disseminate such information. Lessons from this event were learned, however, and the Spanish-language response to and coverage of the 2007 fires affecting the same area were much more effective.

Migrants coming from countries that more routinely experience emergency situations might be particularly aware of specific hazards and of the actions to take if they occur. This was the case for Latin American migrants living in the Turks and Caicos Islands. In many cases, in addition to experiencing previous disasters and responses, they were better aware of the situation than the native populations because of the information they received through the media in their home countries.

**Administrative and legal barriers to accessing resources and assistance in emergencies**

Legal frameworks do not usually include explicit provisions for the protection and assistance of migrants in times of crisis. More often, laws and regulations can exclude all or some specific groups of migrants from accessing information, assistance, resources and opportunities that can be key to people’s preparedness for, and capacity to cope with, crises. Systems in which migrants might not be entitled to the same level of protection and relief assistance as native groups might be rare, but migrants’ options for recovery assistance by host institutions are almost always restricted. This is particularly the case for the more marginalized groups, such as undocumented migrants.

In addition, administrative obstacles to movement might constrain migrants’ options for evacuation and return in times of crisis, thereby increasing their exposure to harm and hardship. This is the case for work permits or visas tied to people’s permanence in a certain area or employment in a certain job or with a certain employer. Migrants might also face additional requirements (such as a fee or specific documents) to exit or re-enter a country during or after an emergency, or to cross a border into a third country in search of safety.

In 2012 in the United States, “non-qualified aliens”, including some groups of documented migrants (such as those with Temporary Protected Status in light of the situation in their country of origin), could not access cash assistance or unemployment benefits after Hurricane Sandy.
The Thai immigration system includes a series of work permits that allow the holder to work only in a certain job or that limit their movement to specific areas – meaning that the holder cannot move out of designated areas or change jobs without losing the right to stay in the country. After the 2011 floods, with such restrictions continuing to be enforced, many migrants had to choose between staying in affected areas and risking the loss of their regular status. In addition, refugees from Myanmar were legally forbidden to leave camps and were therefore unable to access assistance or to earn an income outside the camps.

During the 2006 Lebanon war between Israel and Hezbollah fighters, hundreds of Sri Lankans camped around their embassy in the hope of obtaining an emergency laissez-passer. This then had to be ratified by General Security (the body responsible for all foreigners in Lebanon) in order for the Sri Lankans to leave the country, as they could not obtain a valid exit visa from the Government of Lebanon through routine channels. General Security also released hundreds of migrant domestic workers from prisons and detention centres, declaring an amnesty for all migrant workers in an irregular situation on the condition that they leave the country and not return for at least five years.

After the Tohoku disaster in 2011, asylum seekers in Japan were expected to stay in the area where they had applied for asylum. Evacuating from an area affected by the tsunami and the nuclear fallout might therefore mean losing the right to have their case heard. The Government of Japan did not have provisions in place to assist in the return of the asylum seekers to Japan (including to resume the application for asylum process) and in their reintegration after the emergency subsided.

Syrian legislation requires domestic workers to obtain an exit permit to leave the country, which can be issued only with the employer’s consent (often granted only upon reimbursement of recruitment costs) and upon payment of a fee to immigration officials. This hindered the domestic workers’ ability to evacuate in the face of the post-2011 violence, and represented an additional issue for undocumented migrants, who could not obtain the exit permit at all. Compounding this, Jordan has refused access for Palestinians and Iraqis fleeing from the Syrian Arab Republic, preventing them from reaching safety in the country.
Exploitation, trafficking and limited respect for migrants’ rights

Migrants can be the target of a variety of violations of basic rights and acts of exploitation by public and private actors before, during and after crises. Such actions, whether carried out by authorities, employers and recruitment agencies, or other actors, can translate into constrained capacities in the face of emergencies and heightened exposure to conditions of harm and hardship.

Withholding a migrant’s documents can be a common practice among employers and recruitment agencies, smugglers and human traffickers, and corrupt officials, as well as part of many immigration administrative procedures. It limits an individual’s capacity to evacuate from a given area or country and to receive relief and recovery support and consular assistance. In addition, the withholding of documents can hamper the circulation of information on crisis-affected people, including information for families in the country of origin so they can be updated on their migrant family member’s health status, they can be reunited with them or they can repatriate their body.

Underpaying migrants or withholding their wages can deprive them of the material means to evacuate and to cope with the impacts of a crisis, or it can lead them to stay in unsafe areas for fear of losing their earnings. Similar effects are linked with the practice of bondage by debt to an employer or a recruitment agency.

Trafficking, smuggling and exploitation of migrants are often magnified in crisis situations. Corrupt authorities and criminals might charge migrants fees to leave an area at risk, or take advantage of their situation of hardship by extorting money from them or involving them in human trafficking schemes. All of these forms of abuse reduce the options and resources migrants have to protect themselves and to cope with and recover from shocks.

When the crisis began in Lebanon in 2006, the country was hosting no fewer than 120,000 domestic workers, mostly from Sri Lanka, Ethiopia and the Philippines. The country had not signed the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families. Under a sponsorship system, Lebanese employers withheld the migrants’ passports to prevent their employees from absconding and to avoid losing the recruitment fees paid to the agencies. During the crisis, while many employers delivered their employees to their respective embassies for safety and repatriation, others refused to let them leave. Many migrants simply ran away, claiming they were escaping abusive employers, and left without papers or money. Others chose to stay because they did not want to lose their source of income, because they were hoping to receive withheld salaries or because they still considered the situation in Lebanon better than that back home.
Many Myanmar migrants affected by the 2011 floods in Thailand faced especially dire economic conditions – they were often paid below the legally guaranteed salary and their employers often withheld wages. In addition, some reports highlighted a few cases in which immigration officials asked migrants for up to USD 500 to leave the country. Many migrants, particularly undocumented ones, also had to resort to using smuggling networks to the cross border back into Myanmar.

Libyan gangs have organized smuggling networks to bring non-citizens (often nationals of sub-Saharan countries) across borders. However, many were promised passage out of the country (often to Europe), paid the required fee and were never actually transported.

**Lack of local knowledge**

When migrants move from their place of origin to a new social and environmental destination, they might lose much of their site-specific knowledge and not be able to gain a sufficient understanding of the context of their destination. This might result in: (a) reduced awareness or a modified perception of the severity and distribution of local hazards (such as violence, illness, landslides and floods); (b) reduced understanding of how to react when facing them (for example, where to evacuate to for shelter and safety); and (c) reduced awareness of existing resources and assistance institutions, and where to access them (for example, their rights and the procedures available to uphold them against possible violations, the opportunities available for support and assistance, and the procedures to access them).

Overall, migrants with no previous experience of crises (and particularly of the ones potentially affecting their area of destination) seem to consider preparedness and risk management less important than those coming from areas previously affected by such events.

After Hurricane Sandy struck New York in 2012, some forms of assistance were open to all affected persons (transportation, medical care, crisis counselling, emergency shelter, food, water, medicine and other basic supplies), while others were available only to citizens and registered migrants (cash assistance for relief and reconstruction). However, undocumented migrants were considered eligible if their household included a United States citizen (including, for instance, a child born in the United States). Confusion and a lack of knowledge about these regulations and about how to apply for assistance resulted in a large share of the migrant population not accessing assistance services at all.
A migrant Latino farmworker in North Carolina stated: “The problem when there is a warning is that they announce where the disaster is coming from, but because we don’t know the area, we go where the disaster is. We don’t know our surroundings, we don’t know the names of the states, cities and areas the disaster might be coming from; there isn’t a way to find it out.”

Lack of social networks

As people move away from their places of origin and into a new community, their family and community ties might be disrupted. Such ties are key to people’s access to income, health care, childcare and education in normal times, and can be even more important in times of crisis, when additional material resources and emotional support might be needed in order to cope with hardship. The availability of such resources and opportunities might be greatly reduced for migrants in areas of destination, which is particularly problematic as migrants tend to rely on such resources (for example, for information and support) much more than native groups, before, during and after crises – and most frequently when the formal provision of assistance is limited.

Social support is therefore one of the main reasons why non-citizens tend to cluster together in ethnically, linguistically and culturally homogeneous communities. While this can facilitate people’s movement and establishment in a certain area, it can also lead to isolation in segregated, homogeneous communities in which migrants are further marginalized.

A lack of social networks might be particularly severe for migrants who are members of national or ethnic groups that are not well established in a given area, as they are less likely to easily access a local community upon arrival. This might also concern tourists, expatriates and international students who are travelling to non-traditional areas.

After the 2011 earthquake in the Emilia-Romagna region of Italy, a large share of the affected persons were hosted in publicly run tent camps. By the time the relief phase subsided, the overwhelming majority of the families remaining in the camps were made up of non-Italian natives. This was attributed to these groups having reduced access to owned or rented private housing options within their families and networks.

Reduced participation in civic affairs (including emergency volunteering)

The availability and extensiveness of social networks are also influenced by the different degree of participation of migrants in community-level organizations and civic activities, especially those that are active before, during and after crises. A lower level of participation by migrants may be the result of a series of factors, such as:

- Lack of trust and fear of being exposed (particularly in the case of undocumented individuals);
Lack of direct involvement or interest in the circumstances of the community of destination or transit, in which they may feel unwanted or are only temporarily present;

- Lack of resources and time to devote to such activities;
- Limited language proficiency;
- Lower levels of formal education.

In Germany, about 20 per cent of the native population engages in volunteer work with the fire brigades (at different levels of commitment). Only about 1 per cent of the registered migrant population does. Since fire brigades are often “one-stop shops” for disseminating awareness about local hazards and emergency communications, and about the current situation during emergencies, as well as for accessing a variety of life-saving services, the lack of migrant engagement results in their exclusion from a key communication and service delivery channel.

Lack of trust in and fear of authorities

A lack of trust in public authorities is the product of long-term relationships between authorities, their representatives and the host communities they represent, and migrant groups, in domains such as law enforcement, service provision and employment. While deeply rooted in these normal-time dynamics, the lack of trust can have particular consequences before, during and after crises. This lack of trust in (or fear of) authorities in fact shapes migrants’ willingness to be involved in emergency drills and preparedness mechanisms, and their understanding of and reactions to warnings and communications. For example, the need to validate within their community the information they had received means migrants would be delayed in evacuating, or may not even evacuate at all. In addition, this lack of trust shapes their willingness to look for assistance, and it may also reduce their willingness to engage in efforts to provide affected persons with assistance.

Migrants might fear for their physical integrity, their freedom and their ability to stay in the country, and have limited confidence in the authorities’ capacity to assist them adequately. This is despite the fact that they often state that they have more confidence in their host country’s institutional system than in the one of their country of origin (judicial, electoral and law enforcement systems in particular). The involvement of specific institutions (such as police and immigration officers, as opposed to firefighters) or the setting up of specific activities (such as checkpoints and registration) in emergency response efforts might exacerbate these issues. Previous negative experience with emergency response actions and institutions can further undermine people’s willingness and capacity to follow warnings and to refer to mandated institutions for support.

Lack of trust is an obstacle to receiving emergency assistance particularly for migrants in an irregular situation and for discriminated minority groups – those who, for instance, might interpret an evacuation order as leading to deportation or violence, or requiring them to leave behind unprotected belongings. The willingness to protect an undocumented member of the
family or acquaintance might also shape other migrants’ behaviour (including those who might have legal migration status and potentially citizenship of the host country), forcing them to adopt riskier behaviours than necessary.

Following the landfall of Hurricane Sandy in 2012, many migrants restrained from looking for formal assistance due to fear of deportation. This led to a number of migrants, potentially eligible for cash assistance and unemployment benefits, not applying for support. Even families whose children were citizens of the United States – and who were therefore legally eligible for unrestricted assistance – ended up not applying.

During the 2007 San Diego fires, Latinos were reportedly the target of discriminatory behaviours, in particular by the local police force. Some undocumented migrants did not receive assistance, and were apprehended and referred to the immigration authorities for follow-up. While there were some reported cases of people unduly trying to take advantage of disaster assistance, the general sentiment was that such incidents were unjustifiable and prompted a lack of trust in the police department among community members. Furthermore, the police fuelled this feeling by setting up checkpoints to identify drivers in cars and impounding cars if no identification could be provided. As a consequence, many migrants remained and refrained from seeking assistance from the police, or tried to “help themselves” as much as possible.

Tens of thousands of Latino workers were drawn to New Orleans after Hurricane Katrina because of the employment opportunities in reconstruction. Thousands, especially undocumented day labourers, decided not to evacuate during Hurricane Gustav in 2008 for fear of arrest and deportation, in particular as a consequence of being checked aboard buses (often the only formal evacuation options available to poor migrants). Evacuees, on the other hand, refused to join government-assisted plans and spent their own money on transportation and shelter, wiping out their savings.

Lack of consideration in preparedness and response planning

Preparedness and contingency plans and training of personnel do not often take into account the presence of migrants and their specific needs. Data on the number and whereabouts of migrants, especially in the case of unregistered migrants, are often not comprehensive or up to date, potentially leading the responsible actors to underestimate migrants’ needs in crises, particularly in domains as critical as evacuations and service provision.
In addition, the presence of migrants often requires that preparedness and response actors cater to beneficiaries with specific needs. These needs might be a consequence of their living conditions and circumstances (such as the need to communicate with distant family, to have documentation issued or to leave the country) or their diverse profiles (for example, being a member of a linguistic, cultural, ethnic or religious minority). Collaboration among a variety of actors (emergency management actors, consular corps of the country of origin, migrant associations and so forth) is key to identifying and addressing these needs. Whenever this is not done, the capacity of preparedness, relief and recovery actors (including those supporting evacuations, providing temporary and transitional shelters, distributing food and non-food items, or offering psychosocial and livelihood assistance) to actually support migrants might be insufficient.

Thailand does not explicitly include migrants in their disaster management planning and has no dedicated institutional structure in place for dealing with their specific needs in emergencies. During the 2011 floods, the Government set up dedicated shelters for migrant workers, where tailored services (such as employment placement and return assistance) were provided. However, the institutions did not have sufficient capacity to assist the whole migrant population, which meant that many remained underassisted or completely unassisted.

The identification of the bodies of foreigners in the 2004 tsunami proved arduous due to the presence of a significant number of unregistered migrants among the victims. No clear procedure was in place, for instance, to collaborate with the Myanmar authorities for verifying the victims’ addresses in the country of origin and for notifying the families. In addition, the Thai authorities reportedly removed corpses before families had been able to grieve adequately, and did not systematically invite distant families to commemorative ceremonies.

After the 1989 Loma Prieta earthquake in California, Central American migrants were reported to have largely avoided public displacement sites. Fenced-off tent areas did not appeal to them due to the cultural insensitivity of the services provided in such sites. They preferred to stay close to home in order to protect their belongings, and found the camps to be similar to the prison camps that were common in the conflict-ridden countries from which they were fleeing.

In addition, contingency plans and response procedures might not adequately take into account the specific culturally learned behaviours migrants might display in emergencies. This could further reduce the capacity of the system to meet their assistance needs.
After the earthquakes in Christchurch, New Zealand, in 2010 and 2011, members of migrant and refugee groups were especially likely to remain at home during the continuing aftershocks due to culturally learned behaviours and reduced access to updated information. This decreased their opportunities for social interactions, contributed to social isolation and reduced their access to key information and resources for response and recovery.

**Discrimination and hostility**

In non-emergency times, discrimination along ethnic and cultural lines can result in isolation, persecution and reduced access to employment opportunities and basic services. It can represent one of the main underlying factors of migrants’ vulnerability. In extreme cases, outright hostility can translate into targeted violence and xenophobic attacks targeting migrants and their assets, which might become “crises” in their own right. This was the case in South Africa in 2008 and Côte d’Ivoire in 2011, when migrants were targeted in a series of violent acts.

In other cases, migrants suffer specific impacts in crises as a direct consequence of their migration status.

More often, however, emergencies (and the hardship and breakdown of law and order that might follow) can be a trigger for hostility towards migrant communities. Hostility can manifest itself in a variety of acts – ranging from de-prioritization in, or partial exclusion from, emergency assistance delivery to migrant scapegoating or targeted violent acts – perpetrated by a variety of actors (such as affected members of the host community, the communities to which the migrants might be displaced and emergency workers). All of these forms of discrimination may contribute to reducing migrants’ willingness to evacuate or to look for external assistance in crises, thereby representing another source of vulnerability.

The Christchurch earthquakes fuelled a mounting climate of hostility vis-à-vis immigrants, particularly Asian immigrants, who were blamed for the soaring cost of housing throughout the reconstruction phase. Prices increased as a consequence of the destruction of thousands of houses in the earthquake; however, the increase was more fundamentally linked with pre-earthquake speculations.

During the 2011 floods in Thailand, a number of migrants looked for assistance outside the migrant-dedicated shelters the Government had set up. Due to a lack of sufficient resources, authorities were reportedly prioritizing Thai citizens over migrant victims whenever it came to allocating space and distributing resources.
Sub-Saharan Africans in Libya faced deeply rooted racial discrimination well before the 2011 civil war. The conflict only exacerbated the issues, as allegations started circulating that Gaddafi was recruiting ethnic minorities and foreign mercenaries into his armed forces. While this might have happened, in most cases foreigners were coerced into enrolling with the promise of obtaining identification papers. As a consequence, migrants, including women and children, from Chad, Mali, Niger, Nigeria and other sub-Saharan countries faced increased stigmatization, physical and verbal violence and arbitrary arrest by rebel factions. The same held true for non-Arab minority groups such as the Tebu, Tuareg and Amazigh. Arrests and imprisonments also discouraged many more migrants from crossing checkpoints and borders held by armed forces, trapping them in conflict-affected areas.

The Colombian armed conflict involved the Government of Colombia, left-wing guerrilla groups (such as the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia – People’s Army and the Camilist Union – National Liberation Army) and so-called “criminal bands”. Until 2002, with a growing number of migrants settling in the country, particularly from the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the United States, Spain, Ecuador, Peru and Mexico, migrants had been the object of frequent kidnappings for ransom by armed groups, as foreigners used to command a higher ransom than nationals. Most victims were businesspeople, although tourists and workers from non-governmental organizations (NGOs) were sometimes also targeted. In addition, irregular migrants transiting through the country aiming to go north were the object of smuggling, exploitation and abuse by armed groups.

In the aftermath of Hurricane Katrina, Latinos felt targeted by discrimination and racism on the part of police forces – both in the provision of assistance and in situations in which they had competing claims with native, white individuals (such as disputes with landlords over a house, or with employers over wages or a job).

Livelihood insecurity and poverty

While insecure employment and poverty are not necessarily associated with the migrant status, and while not all migrants are poor, the additional barriers migrants face in making a decent living in areas of destination mean that they are often more likely to face such conditions than native or majority groups.
Deskilling, administrative barriers, discrimination and language barriers often lead migrants to take up jobs that are informal and low paid. These jobs are mostly tenuous, often done on a day-to-day basis and without welfare benefits or long-term security. Job insecurity is exacerbated in crisis situations – the interruption of businesses and the inability to reach the workplace from the evacuation site (or, in the case of domestic workers, the evacuation of the employing family) can result in under- or unemployment, especially for unprotected, low-qualified migrant workers. Reduced access to secure, well-paid employment opportunities can have long-term effects on the poverty level not only of the migrant but also of their family and the community of origin, particularly when they depend on the distant member’s livelihoods for survival.

A lack of financial means can result in reduced preparedness and coping capacity. This can occur through a lack of, for example: funds to stockpile essential items or resources; one’s own vehicle to evacuate; savings to pay for emergency accommodation or medical care or to buffer against periods of unemployment and hardship; and insurance for lost assets. More fundamentally, a lack of financial means can lead migrants to live and work in areas, sites and buildings at a higher risk of natural hazards, such as floods or landslides, or of everyday hazards linked to unhealthy living conditions, work and traffic accidents, pollution and so forth. All of these factors can result in migrants being disproportionately affected in emergencies.

Latinos and Asian migrants in the United States are more likely to lack financial resources, time and space to stock their emergency kits in anticipation of disasters. As demonstrated by their behaviour during Hurricane Katrina, foreign groups in the United States are also more likely than native white citizens to lack transportation options for evacuation, and are less likely to have the resources needed to leave.

After Hurricane Sandy, an estimated 27 per cent of affected migrant families fell behind on their rent due to the lack of savings to cope with the period of unemployment.

Isolation

Similar to poverty, isolation is not unique to the life of migrants; however, migrants might be more likely to work and live in conditions of social, physical or geographical segregation, and might be less connected to information and communication networks than other groups within a given community.

Migrants are more likely than natives to find employment in jobs that take place in spatially segregated locations or conditions (such as rural labourers, workers in industrial parks and domestic workers). Migrant communities are also more likely to live in marginal, informal neighbourhoods, which are often less connected to roads and infrastructural networks and more difficult to access than formal neighbourhoods. In addition, xenophobia, a lack of
representation and insufficient inclusion within local policies, planning and service provision can also result in social isolation.

In times of crisis, this can mean that migrants are not as directly or effectively reached by life-saving information, whether conveyed through formal or community-based channels. In some instances, isolation might also be the result of a lack of resources (such as radios, televisions, telephones and the Internet). Geographical isolation can also reduce the capacity and willingness of responders to access marginal areas to provide emergency services, or the commitment of the relevant authorities to assist in the recovery of those areas, which might be deprioritized compared with the recovery of other areas.

During the Lebanon crisis in 2006, guest domestic workers, especially women, faced reduced access to information and services as a consequence of their segregation in buildings in specific districts of southern Lebanon and in the Shia suburbs of Beirut that were directly targeted by airstrikes.

Volunteer groups that were formed to assist stranded Myanmar workers during the 2011 floods in Thailand reported that the migrants had insufficient access to the shelters provided by the Government of Thailand, and therefore also to the food and items distributed there. In addition, the response actors could not easily access or service many of the shelters that had been set up specifically for migrant workers due to their remoteness. This also reduced the availability of translation services and psychosocial support, as well as prevented affected migrants from obtaining their newly issued documentation.

Before and after Hurricane Sandy struck in the United States, a lack of access to the Internet and other telecommunications channels greatly reduced the ability of migrant minority groups to receive crisis-related information. Local NGOs working with Asian communities in New York had to organize a door-to-door outreach system in Chinatown to make sure that warnings and emergency communications were reaching local residents.

Migrants’ role vis-à-vis families and home communities

A person’s migration is usually the result of a collective decision taken within a household or sometimes a whole community. Migration is in fact often part of collective income and well-being strategies. As a consequence, a migrant’s circumstances end up affecting much more than just his or her individual well-being – when a migrant’s livelihood is disrupted in a crisis, families left behind may face a sudden loss of income, assets and resources. This is even more significant for families that depend greatly or wholly on a migrant’s remittances for their income.
Reduced incomes might result in the family’s inability to pay daily expenses, particularly the debt contracted to send the migrant member abroad. Furthermore, when migrants are forced to return home as a consequence of a crisis, returning to the country of origin might result in additional pressures on the resources available to households and communities. The individual migrant’s “failure” may therefore expose many more people to hardship and insecurity.

All of these factors might put additional pressures on migrants in the face of emergencies and result in reduced choices and in their unwillingness to look for safety through evacuation and to return to the country of origin. The situation might be especially dire for migrants (and families and communities) who have contracted debts to migrate.

**KEY LEARNING POINTS**

- A variety of factors that characterize migrants’ specific experiences and conditions can result in conditions of vulnerability in emergencies.
- Vulnerability stems from the interaction of individual and collective conditions (such as language skills, ethnicity and nationality) and the political, economic, social and cultural features of the context of destination (such as migration policies, emergency management systems and xenophobia), at both institutional and community levels.
TOPIC 2: DIFFERENT MIGRANTS, DIFFERENT CONDITIONS

Not all migrants experience the same barriers to the same extent, and therefore not all migrants present the same patterns of vulnerability. Characteristics such as gender, age, skill level, family situation, place of origin and migration status play a significant role in shaping vulnerability at the individual level. This is particularly important in the light of how comprehensive the scope of the MICIC Initiative is, as it includes documented and undocumented migrant workers, tourists, international students, expatriates and their family members, as well as stateless and displaced persons, asylum seekers and refugees.

When Hurricane Ingrid and Tropical Storm Manuel hit the Acapulco area of Mexico in 2013, tens of thousands of tourists – many of them foreigners – became stranded in the affected areas. Early warning systems and evacuation procedures did not work effectively, and people were unable to move as roads were flooded or blocked by landslides, and the local airport was operating at a reduced capacity. Military planes and helicopters were used to evacuate people to Mexico City, often after hours of waiting without food at (or near) the airport. However, the conditions of the migrants working in the local resorts and hotels might have been even more dire, as they did not have access to the specific assistance received by tourists.

It is therefore important to understand how these individual features interplay with local economic, social and political systems to determine people’s level of access to services, opportunities, assistance and representation – and therefore their vulnerability – before, during and after crises.

Conditions of vulnerability linked with migration status

A lack of legal status in a country can be a major driver of vulnerability, leading to reduced access to essential services and opportunities, and may result in livelihood and personal insecurity and poverty. This situation is magnified in crises, when unregistered migrants might not be taken into account by emergency management systems in countries of origin or destination, and therefore might be unable to access preparedness, relief and recovery assistance.

Due to a fear of arrest and deportation linked with their status, these individuals might avoid seeking the assistance of public service providers and law enforcement officials, refrain from accessing the judicial system, or reduce moving to the bare minimum. As a consequence, they are far more likely to experience conditions of isolation, exploitation and violation of basic rights. In times of crisis, they are more likely to make risky choices that could result in, for example: losing savings; having their documentation withheld by employers or recruitment agencies; being exposed to increased danger in affected areas from which they are unable to flee; or falling into the hands of smugglers, traffickers or corrupt authorities while seeking informal evacuation options.
After the 2011 floods, many undocumented migrants in Thailand stayed in flood-affected areas due to the fear of being arrested and deported by police and immigration officials. Deportation would have jeopardized their future chances of formal employment in Thailand and exposed them to the costs of returning to Thailand. The fear of authorities also resulted in undocumented workers using smugglers to cross borders to return home. Smugglers reportedly charged between USD 80 and USD 130 per person to guide the migrants along clandestine routes and out of the country, where on occasion some faced further exploitation by officials from Thai or Myanmar armed forces.

Refugees, asylum seekers and stateless persons

In many countries, refugees and asylum seekers have a well-defined legal status and might even enjoy adequate levels of protection, assistance and participation in the host community’s life. However, they may have reduced movement options when facing a crisis, as they might lack the capacity to return freely and safely to their country of origin. They might be in the position of having to choose between returning to conditions of violence or persecution (and potentially losing their recognized status) and remaining exposed to the conditions of emergency in their place of destination. This might also be the case for individuals whose application is being processed, and who might be required to stay in a given area due to restrictions linked with the asylum process.

Similar conditions can be faced by stateless persons, who simply might not have a country to return to. In addition, they might lack the documentation needed to evacuate and access assistance, and might be refused access to third countries in the case of international evacuation.

Hundreds of thousands of Palestinian refugees had been living in the Syrian Arab Republic, many in camps, when the 2011 conflict began. The option of moving to Jordan was severely restricted by the Government of Jordan, which left many stranded inside conflict areas without access to assistance. A similar situation was faced by the almost 150,000 Iraqi refugees who lived in the Syrian Arab Republic – out of which only about one third have returned home.

Newcomers and migrants in transit

Migrants who have spent, or are planning to spend, little time in a specific location might also present specific conditions of vulnerability – or rather, might experience more acutely the conditions that might be common to larger groups of migrants. They might lack local knowledge and local social networks, and be less willing, or less capable of, engaging in local civic and community affairs, or even less interested in taking basic risk reduction and preparedness measures in the places where they are living.
Many migrants living in “the Jungle”, an informal site close to Calais, France, planned on staying in the area only until they find an opportunity to migrate onward (mainly to the United Kingdom). Some left every day looking for options to cross the border, only to return when their efforts proved unsuccessful. As a consequence, they did not build anything permanent in the camp or invest resources in the prevention or mitigation of local hazards (such as fire and health hazards). Precariousness is one of the root causes of risk in similar sites all over the world.

In addition, migrants transiting through an area affected by an emergency can be impacted in severe, indirect ways. As their routes are disrupted by disasters, conflict or violence, they may look into even riskier alternatives to reach their final destination, enduring severe deprivation, exploitation, abuse and health hazards far from the affected areas receiving mainstream attention.

Storms and tropical cyclones affecting Mexico can have severe impacts on Central American migrants transiting through the country on their way to the United States or Canada. In 2005, for instance, Hurricane Stan damaged railway tracks, while trains were one of the main means of transportation migrants used. As a consequence, migration flows have shifted towards less safe areas and routes, where migrants are more likely to become victims of trafficking, violence and abuse, extreme heat or attacks by wild animals.

**Conditions of vulnerability linked with employment status**

Specific conditions of employment – often segmented along clear gender lines – can also lead to situations of heightened vulnerability. This is the case for domestic workers, which is typical employment for female migrants, who may work under conditions of spatial and social isolation. It is also the case for labourers who work on remote farms or in industrial parks, which are also common occupations for migrants, men or women depending on the sector, in many countries around the world.

Such workers can be completely unaccounted for by host and home governments and by emergency actors due to their location and the unwillingness of employers to declare them. In addition, certain categories of workers (such as domestic workers) work alone, without regular contact with colleagues and in locations that are spread out within a certain community or country. The lack of contact with other workers, labour organizations or even simple acquaintances also exposes them to a heightened risk of exploitation.
Ninety per cent of the Filipino migrants working in the Syrian Arab Republic before the civil war were undocumented. Filipino officials designed targeted campaigns to try to reach female domestic workers through radio announcements and leaflets. However, the outreach was insufficient due to both the location where the migrants were living (often in the midst of conflict-affected areas) and the unwillingness of their employers to release them from their jobs.

**Conditions of vulnerability linked with gender, age and ethnicity**

Individual characteristics such as gender and age also shape people’s migration experience, both in transit and in the area of destination. They influence when, where and how people move, whether they can count on any (and which kinds of) support in the area of destination, which kinds of jobs they can access, and whether they might be the target of acts of violence, exploitation or abuse. These factors result in specific patterns of vulnerability in the face of emergencies of all kinds. While these dynamics are not exclusive to migrant communities, they may create specific patterns of disempowerment and fragility when coupled with migration status.

Men often tend to travel along riskier routes than women and to move to places in which they cannot count on much support through social networks, especially when they are the “bridgeheads” preparing the future migration of the rest of the household. They often take up or are forced into more hazardous or exploitative jobs and might be forced to live in hazardous locations, work multiple jobs or work illegally in order to fulfil their role as the breadwinner. Women, on the other hand, might be far more vulnerable to violent acts, and in particular acts of sexual violence, and to trafficking, or they might be coerced into specific forms of forced labour (such as sex work). They might also have specific needs linked with beliefs and social conventions (such as privacy or a lack of willingness to talk to strangers) that might need to be taken into account for adequate service delivery in emergencies.

Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender or intersex migrants often face specific patterns of discrimination based on their sexual orientation or gender identity. This might include discrimination and isolation within their home and host community, as well as within the migrant groups in the area of destination. On occasion, their decision to migrate might be directly linked with persecution or abuses they had experienced in their country of origin. These conditions might result in reduced access to information, services and representation in times of crisis.

Similarly, migrants that are part of ethnic, cultural, religious or linguistic minorities in their country of origin might face specific patterns of isolation or a lack of representation within the migrant groups in their area of destination. Their position might need to be reflected in participatory mechanisms (for example, for preparedness and recovery), as well as in communication and outreach efforts (for example, early warning and emergency communications). In addition, ethnic minorities might also be more at risk of being trafficked.
Minors, particularly when unaccompanied, also face specific conditions of vulnerability linked with the reduced availability of support and networks, and increased exposure to exploitation and trafficking. The elderly, alternatively, might face specific conditions of isolation, additional language barriers and reduced mobility, all of which are relevant for preparedness and response efforts.

**KEY LEARNING POINTS**

- Migrants are a diverse group, and include people with different experiences, who encounter diverse challenges.
- Migration is just one factor interacting with many others in determining a person’s levels of capacities and vulnerability.
- The various forms in which migration takes place, and the different experiences linked with each form, are a key determinant of migrants’ vulnerability.
While migrants often present specific conditions of vulnerability, they also possess particular capacities, skills and resources that can be leveraged to improve crisis preparedness, response and recovery. Creating the conditions for such resources to be used is key not only to reducing migrants’ own vulnerabilities, but also to increasing the resilience of whole communities of destination. Migrants may contribute to their host community’s security and well-being in a variety of ways, including through their individual work and through the efforts of their organizations and groups.

This has been explicitly acknowledged in the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction vis-à-vis disaster situations and efforts to reduce disaster risk. In the Framework, signatory States have highlighted migrants’ contribution to building resilience in areas of origin and destination, as well as the need for local disaster risk management planning to recognize and include migrants as fundamental actors in diverse societies.

**Leveraging local kinship mechanisms**

Migrant groups often have strong systems for mutual assistance and solidarity, and their members tend to rely much more on informal, community and kin relations than do members of the host community. Mobilizing these networks can be essential for effective response and recovery.

Key individuals and community organizations often play an essential role in the circulation of information, warnings and communications within migrant groups before, during and after emergencies. Leveraging communication channels, including informal ones, within their community can be useful in helping to increase awareness about potential hazards and emergency procedures among fellow migrants, as well as among other groups they might be part of, and can effectively complement mainstream early warning and emergency communication systems.

During the 2011 floods in Brisbane, Australia, community gatekeepers (that is, migrants who possess information and maintain intensive interactions with other migrants in order to transmit information) were active intermediaries between the Australian authorities and the migrant community. They adapted warnings and communications to the needs of their respective communities, disseminated warnings, helped rescue and relief actors identify and reach out to victims through door-to-door safety checks, advocated for their communities with local authorities, and supported the dissemination of relief and recovery resources.
Involvement in relief efforts

Migrants and their groups can be directly involved in evacuations, search and rescue, distribution of food and non-food items, and other relief efforts. They are often better able and more willing to provide services to the isolated, underserved areas in which they and their communities might live, which again is key to adequately assisting not only migrant groups but also other marginalized populations.

In the Pico Union district of Los Angeles, low-income immigrant workers, many of whom were undocumented Latinos, came together to support the common efforts of more than 30 NGOs to deliver assistance after the Northridge earthquake in 1994. Pico Union, well off the radar of the media, had been severely damaged, and appeals by local NGOs and churches were not immediately prioritized by officials. This self-help process resulted in improved quality and comprehensiveness of response efforts, and ultimately led to the creation of an independent disaster preparedness programme by the NGOs grouped together as the Pico Union Cluster. Eventually, the Cluster joined the official body that the city and county of Los Angeles uses for coordinating NGO response, preparedness and mitigation: the Emergency Network Los Angeles.

Migrants’ direct involvement in planning and relief efforts might also result in interventions that are more sensitive to diversity (such as linguistic or religious diversity). Migrants – especially young members of the migrant community and students in particular – can usefully serve as interpreters and cultural mediators, which is important for delivering preparedness and response information and for providing victims of a traumatic experience with adequate services, particularly health and psychosocial support. This can help reduce the immediate and longer-term impacts of crises that migrant groups might experience.

Access to distant networks and resources

In addition, migrants and migrant communities might have access to a series of more or less distant networks and resources that can help them cope with the impacts of crises, and help them, and potentially the rest of the community, bounce back. Being able to draw on active and widespread assistance networks for shelter, food and non-food items and emotional support, as well as for loans and help in reconstruction work, can reduce their suffering during crises and facilitate recovery. Migrants also may receive direct assistance from their families, host communities, governments or diasporas, all of which can improve their capacity to cope with and recover from stresses. In order for these forms of support to be effective, the establishment, or re-establishment, of communication channels with families back home and in other areas of the country after a crisis is fundamental.

Migrants’ businesses, especially those based on trade and exchanges with places beyond the boundaries of the crisis-affected areas, can be particularly resilient to shocks.
Following Hurricane Katrina, the New Orleans Vietnamese community’s tight social bonds were essential in helping survivors find shelter, medical aid, administrative assistance and information, including through their own community-based radio stations. The lack of official preparedness and emergency communications available in Vietnamese was overcome thanks to the opportunities they accessed through their social networks. The group’s recovery was much quicker than that of other minority groups affected by the disaster.

Reconstruction and recovery

The presence of migrants is often necessary to satisfy the extraordinary demand for workers in a range of key sectors for reconstruction and recovery (such as removing debris, and rebuilding and restoring housing, basic infrastructure and networks). Migrant workers may even be drawn into a crisis-affected area by the opportunities linked with reconstruction by private and public actors. However, such situations often present risks of abuse and exploitation by employers and should therefore be attentively disciplined by competent authorities to prevent further conditions of vulnerability for the migrants. Also, the arrival of the migrants can create competition for existing employment opportunities (in addition to housing availability and service provision) and potentially lead to tensions with host communities, particularly with the segments that are more likely to be affected by their arrival (often low-skilled unemployed and underemployed populations).

After Hurricane Sandy in New York in 2012, the continuity of migrant businesses and activities, accounting for 22.4 per cent of New York State’s gross domestic product, was essential to the economic and social recovery of the whole region. In addition, thousands of migrant workers were recruited by businesses and individuals to support early recovery activities, including rubble removal and infrastructure rehabilitation. Up to 75 per cent of these informal day labourers were undocumented, and many ended up facing further hazards linked to unsafe working conditions and exploitation by employers in order to access the opportunities in reconstruction. A survey of 11 workers’ rights organizations conducted by the City University of New York found that, despite increased outreach by the United States Department of Labor and the departments of labour of New Jersey and New York, more than three quarters reported the occurrence of wage theft, and 64 per cent reported significant workplace injuries during the clean-up period.

Migrants as a key component of host communities

Migrants are an important component of the economic and social life of communities of destination. With more and more non-citizens living in urban and rural communities all
around the world, considering “community well-being” and “community resilience” without considering the resilience and well-being of migrant groups is simply impossible.

This is not only the case in the best-established, high-immigration areas, where migrants easily represent one quarter or even half of the residing population. Along practically all migration corridors in the global South, as well as in the global North, both qualified and low-skilled migrants contribute to filling skills gaps in local labour markets, support local fiscal systems, and enhance a community’s cultural vitality and innovation.

The migrant workforce is often essential to the functioning of specific economic sectors (such as caretaking, health and nursing, construction, agriculture, and research and development), including some that are vital for crisis response and recovery. Migrants’ incomes and wealth also play a key role in financing welfare systems, particularly in shrinking, ageing societies.

The impacts on migrants and their assets and activities, which can lead in the most extreme cases to their evacuation abroad, are not only an issue for the migrants themselves but also for the community at large. Labour market gaps can arise when massive migrant populations flee, potentially leading to secondary crises (such as widespread food insecurity or the collapse of the health system) or to longer-term consequences that can greatly hinder recovery (such as the failure of research systems or a shortage of workers in the reconstruction process).

Giving adequate consideration to migrants as part of a whole-of-society approach to preparedness, response and recovery is therefore a concern for the overall resilience of host communities.

Following the Tohoku triple disaster, thousands of foreign students, researchers and other academics living across Japan – including in areas well beyond those affected by the contamination – left the country. This greatly disrupted, if only for the short- or medium-term, the continuity and quality of the country’s higher education system, as students were forced to miss whole semesters due to a lack of teachers, and research projects stopped due to a lack of researchers.

**KEY LEARNING POINTS**

- Migrants are individuals with a specific set of capacities and skills.
- Migrants’ capacities can be effectively leveraged in order to reduce their vulnerability, as well as to support the resilience of their whole host communities.
Relevant frameworks, actors and institutions
AIM OF THE CHAPTER

Participants are able to identify the main actors that play a role in reducing the vulnerability of migrants, and understand their mandates, responsibilities and capacities.

Participants are aware of ways to build relations and cooperate with such actors.

INTRODUCTION

States (of origin and of destination) bear the principal responsibility for assisting and protecting migrants in times of emergencies. However, reducing migrants’ vulnerability is a much broader endeavour, which depends on efforts by a variety of actors, both governmental and non-governmental, in home, host and transit countries and at local, national and international levels. Their work (or lack thereof) directly influences the level to which migrants enjoy fundamental rights and access basic services, resources and assistance before, during and after emergencies – and therefore determines whether and how they will be affected by hazards.

The type and severity of the crises that institutions concretely face can greatly influence their capacity to better prepare migrants and respond to their needs. In conflict situations, governmental actors are often directly involved in fighting and violence, or might have reduced access to (and control of) specific areas of the country. Their relevant capacities and structures might therefore be disrupted. However, this can be the case in natural disasters, too, particularly following events that hit a country’s capital or a centre of the subnational governance structure. This was the case in the 2010 earthquake in Haiti, which hit the capital (Port-au-Prince), and the 1980 earthquake in southern Italy, which hit Avellino, the main town in the affected district. The impacts can be overwhelming especially in countries that have weak capacities or no effective coordination system in place among response structures in different locations and at different scales.

All efforts to prepare and to assist migrants are framed by a variety of legal provisions and institutional settings that define migrants’ rights in normal times and during emergencies, as well as by legal obligations and standards that have to be respected by all of the actors involved. This institutional landscape varies radically from country to country (and from place to place), depending on the applicable international, national and local provisions.

Assistance to migrants involved in the 2008 episodes of violence in South Africa was complicated by a widespread lack of clarity concerning what governmental agency was to lead the assistance efforts, as well as by the roles of the Department of Home Affairs and the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) in an emergency response situation. This was despite South Africa’s adherence to the relevant basic principles of international law, stated in its Constitution, which proscribes discrimination based on nationality and legal status regarding basic rights to life, dignity, food and so forth.
TOPIC 1: RELEVANT LEGAL AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORKS

Human rights law and international humanitarian law do not explicitly address the rights of migrants affected by crises – or the responsibility to protect them. In particular, no instrument clearly targets the issue of displaced migrants, and it is debated whether the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement can be applied to the situation of migrants, particularly if they are undocumented. This is largely the rationale behind the MICIC Initiative.

However, a variety of legal and policy instruments at all levels define such rights, determining governments’ obligations to protect migrants in emergencies. Such tools are generally aimed at increasing the ability of duty-bearers (principally State institutions, but also a range of other actors as identified above) to respect and protect these rights by fulfilling their obligations, and the capacity of rights-holders (the migrants) to make their claims. It should be noted that whenever the rights-holders are unable to make the claims to obtain protection and assistance themselves, these legal instruments often include provisions for other claim-holders to push for the fulfilment of the migrants’ rights on their behalf (for instance, non-governmental organizations, faith-based organizations, community representatives and any other person or entity that can act on behalf of the migrants).

The main principles of human rights law that frame these provisions include:

- **Participation**: the right of migrants to participate in decisions that affect their human rights, including by being able to access information in a form and a language that they can understand.
- **Accountability**: duty-bearers should be held accountable for upholding the human rights of migrants, including through effective monitoring and remedies in case of human rights breaches.
- **Non-discrimination and equality**: all forms of discrimination in the realization of rights must be prohibited, prevented and eliminated. This also entails that the most marginalized people, who face the greatest barriers to realizing their rights, may need specific or priority interventions.
- **Empowerment of claim-holders or rights-holders**: people should be aware of their individual and community rights; they should be supported to participate fully in the development of policy and practices that affect their lives and to claim rights where necessary.

International conventions and legal instruments

International law is relevant for the protection of migrants, including in times of crisis – all migrants, irrespective of their status, are entitled to the full protection of their human rights. For instance, States should allow humanitarian access to crisis-affected persons, including by allowing other States to provide assistance to their citizens living, working or staying in their territory.

There are a variety of declarations, conventions and international frameworks that determine the backdrop to the institutional efforts to reduce the vulnerability of migrants in each
country. These include instruments such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, the Migration for Employment Convention and other rights-based conventions (such as the ones promoted by the International Labour Organization). Countries that have ratified these instruments are legally obliged to promote and protect the relevant rights.

In cases of armed conflict, international humanitarian law also applies to migrants, and the most relevant provisions include the principle of distinction between civilians and combatants, the right of migrants to leave the country in conflict, the prohibition of forced movements and departure arrangements.

**International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families**

This document is a comprehensive instrument covering persons engaged in paid work abroad (such as seasonal workers, seafarers, frontier workers, project-tied workers, itinerant workers, workers in offshore installations and self-employed workers) and their family members. Provisions that are particularly relevant to crisis situations include:

- **Article 28** guarantees migrant workers and members of their families the right to receive any medical care that is urgently required for the preservation of their life or the avoidance of irreparable harm to their health, regardless of their employment and migration status in the host or transit country.
- **Article 29** guarantees each child of a migrant worker the right to a name, registration of birth and nationality. This is important during crisis situations as unregistered children might be considered stateless, which might reduce their access to assistance and hinder their repatriation. The same guarantee is stated in Article 15 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and Article 7 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child.
- **Article 71** mandates States parties to ensure the repatriation of remains of migrant workers and members of their families. Settlement issues must also be processed according to applicable national laws and bilateral or multilateral agreements.

**Geneva Convention relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War**

This Convention, adopted on 12 August 1949, requires States parties to protect non-combatants or civilians, including migrants and migrant workers, during conflicts and wars, regardless of race, nationality, religion or political opinion. Some of its salient provisions include:

- **Article 32** prohibits States parties from causing physical suffering or killing protected persons in their hands.
- **Article 35** entitles all protected persons to leave the territory at the outset of, or during, a conflict.
- **Article 38** guarantees the right of protected persons to receive medical attention and hospital treatment, practice their religion and move from dangerous areas to the same extent as the nationals of the State affected by the conflict.
Domestic Workers Convention

Adopted on 16 June 2011, this Convention sets the framework governing the rights of domestic workers. To date, however, it has been ratified by only 18 countries. Provisions that are particularly relevant to crisis situations include:

- **Article 5** mandates States parties to take measures to ensure that domestic workers enjoy effective protection against all forms of abuse, harassment and violence.
- **Article 7** encourages States parties to include in the migrant workers’ written contracts the terms of their repatriation.
- **Article 9** entitles migrant workers to keep in their possession their travel and identity documents.

Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030

The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030, adopted in March 2015 by the Member States of the United Nations at the Third World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction, stands as the global blueprint for all efforts aimed at reducing the impacts of hazards on people, communities and societies over the next 15 years. The framework explicitly calls for the inclusion of migrants in disaster prevention, mitigation, preparedness and recovery efforts.

- **Paragraph 7** calls on governments to engage with migrants in the design and implementation of policies, plans and standards for disaster risk reduction.
- **Paragraph 27(h)** points to the empowerment of local authorities, through regulatory and financial means, to allow them to better coordinate with migrants in disaster risk management at the local level.
- **Paragraph 36(a)(vi)** recognizes that migrants contribute to the resilience of communities and societies and that their knowledge, skills and capacities can be useful in the design and implementation of disaster risk reduction.

Convention relating to the Status of Refugees

The 1951 Convention is the key legal document defining who is a refugee, what rights he or she is entitled to and what the legal obligations of States vis-à-vis refugees are. The 1967 Protocol removed geographical and temporal restrictions from the Convention.

Some of the protection obligations that the refugees’ State of transit or of destination might need to respect may be relevant to crisis situations – and therefore to the implementation of activities similar to those covered by this training course.

United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women: General recommendation No. 26 on women migrant workers

General recommendation No. 26 applies to women migrant workers who: (a) migrate independently; (b) join their spouses or other members of their families who are also workers; or (c) are undocumented. It forms part of a series of other general recommendations by the Committee to clarify and to provide guidance on the application of the Convention on the
Elimination of Discrimination against Women. Section 26 includes provisions related to the protection of migrants in crisis situations.

- **Section 26** requires the country of destination to:
  - Ensure that employers and recruiters do not confiscate or destroy travel or identity documents belonging to women migrants;
  - Protect the basic human rights of undocumented women migrant workers, including access to legal remedies and justice in cases of risk to life, cruel and degrading treatment, and failure to fulfil basic needs.

**Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment**

The Convention entered into force in 1987 and includes the following provisions:

- **Article 2** requires States to take measures to prevent acts of torture in any territory under its jurisdiction, without exceptions linked with war, internal political instability or any other public emergency.
- **Article 3** provides that States not expel, return or extradite a person to another State where he or she would be in danger of being tortured.

**Convention on the Rights of the Child**

The Convention is aimed at protecting the rights of all children worldwide, recognizing that “the child, by reason of his physical and mental immaturity, needs special safeguards and care, including appropriate legal protection, before as well as after birth”. It recognizes that children should grow up in a happy, loving and understanding family environment.

- **Article 2** requires States to ensure that children are protected against all forms of discrimination or punishment on the basis of the status, activities, expressed opinions or beliefs of their parents, legal guardians or family members.
- **Article 3** requires that in all actions concerning children, the best interests of the child shall be a primary consideration.
- **Article 8** requires States to:
  - Respect the right of the child to preserve his or her identity, including nationality, name and family relations;
  - Provide assistance and protection to children who might have been illegally deprived of their identity.
- **Article 11** requires States to combat the illicit transfer and non-return of children abroad.

**Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement**

While the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement do not explicitly recognize migrants or non-nationals, given the broad and inclusive intent of this document – which has its basis in human rights and humanitarian law – it can be argued that migrants are encompassed in the Guiding Principles’ definition of “persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence”. Questions do remain, however, as to whether “temporary” migrants such as tourists and business travellers, as well as non-resident migrant workers, are covered.
Regional frameworks

Many regional-level migration policies are key in determining the right of migrants to move into and out of a given country, and to access vital services and opportunities while in the country of destination. Examples include European Union (EU) treaties and agreements for the free circulation of people within the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) region or within West Africa. Specific policies or agreements might include provisions for recognizing and protecting migrants’ rights, including in times of crisis. An example is the ASEAN Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers.

Other relevant instruments might establish mechanisms for mutual assistance in crises, such as those that provide joint civil protection and emergency management, and those that require subsidiary consular attention for nationals caught in emergencies while abroad. The first is the case of the disaster risk management system in the Andean region, the second the system developed by the Scandinavian countries.

Whenever the scale of an emergency overwhelms the response capabilities of any European country, the EU Civil Protection Mechanism facilitates the delivery of coordinated assistance from its members. All 28 EU Member States participate in the Mechanism, as well as the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Iceland, Montenegro, Norway and Serbia. Turkey has signed an agreement to join the Mechanism and is expected to begin participating in the Mechanism soon. Any country in the world, as well as the United Nations and its agencies and certain international organizations, can request assistance through the Mechanism. As part of the joint civil protection, participating States provide, among other things, relief items, expertise, intervention teams and specific equipment to countries affected by disasters. Experts are deployed under the Mechanism for needs assessments and coordination with local authorities and international organizations, as well for advice on prevention and preparedness measures. When civil protection assistance is requested by third countries, it is often combined with humanitarian aid. The Mechanism created a voluntary pool of pre-committed response capacities. Recent examples of events when the Mechanism was implemented include the Ebola outbreak in West Africa (2014), the flooding in the Western Balkans (2014), the conflict in eastern Ukraine (2015) and the European refugee crisis (2015).

National laws and policies

National and local level policies, operational frameworks and legal tools are key to determining which institutions are mandated to assist migrants before, during and after emergencies, as well as their obligations vis-à-vis the different migrant groups. The relevant policies include, for instance, laws that determine migrants’ status and access to services and opportunities, policies that determine the role, structure and obligations of civil protection, emergency management

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and disaster risk management institutions, as well as all policies that define what institutions are responsible for the delivery of key services (such as health, psychosocial support, food and shelter), and the standards they must respect in their work.

**Funding**

Funding for emergency planning is a prerequisite to ensuring migrant communities are adequately included in the process. A lack of dedicated and flexible resources, as well as inertia within the system, reduces the ability of local emergency management agencies and local groups and organizations to fully integrate migrants into their services.

National and local governments can partner with local communities and groups to apply jointly for funding or to coordinate resources and efforts. However, securing the funds to develop and to sustain services, programmes and policies that strengthen diverse communities’ ability to prepare for, respond to and recover from emergency events is essential for the sustainability of much of the work described in this training course.

**KEY LEARNING POINTS**

- No international legal instrument explicitly protects migrants caught in emergencies while abroad.
- Many international instruments define the rights of migrants that are relevant in crisis situations and the obligations of other State and non-State actors to protect and promote them.
- Regional and national frameworks for migration management and emergency management are the key legal frameworks for all of the operational measures presented in this training course.
TOPIC 2: GOVERNMENTAL AUTHORITIES IN COUNTRIES OF DESTINATION

Emergency management and civil protection

The State in which an emergency is taking place is responsible for all persons in its territory or under its jurisdiction before, during and after the emergency. Coordinating and executing actions that are aimed at preventing and preparing for, and assisting populations in, emergencies are usually the main responsibilities of emergency, disaster (risk) management and civil protection agencies. In the case of specific hazards, some of these responsibilities might be shared with particular institutions (such as fire brigades). These institutions play a key role in reducing the vulnerability of migrant populations.

In the prevention and preparedness phase, the main responsibilities of such actors usually include the production and dissemination of awareness-raising materials, the maintenance and operation of early warning and emergency communication systems, the preparation of emergency plans and the establishment of area-based systems to assist affected persons during emergencies (through, for instance, training, procurement and prepositioning, and planning).

In the immediacy and aftermath of emergencies, such institutions may coordinate and operate most kinds of assistance, including supporting evacuations, operating shelters and distributing essential items, food and water.

It is therefore key that these institutions plan inclusively to reflect the presence of migrants in the locations where they operate, based on an adequate understanding and profiling of migrants’ presence in the area (see Chapter 4). A large share of these institutions should in principle provide the same levels of relief assistance to all affected persons, regardless of their origin, ethnicity or status. However, in order to do so, they might be required to, among other things: overcome language barriers that prevent people from receiving and understanding awareness-raising messages, emergency communications and basic services; adapt service provision in order to provide culturally appropriate food, non-food items, shelter and psychosocial assistance; and build migrants’ trust in response institutions.

In order to achieve these objectives, the institutions can often collaborate with other actors that possess the relevant capacities, skills, experiences and connections. While it is often the role of these institutions to communicate and coordinate with other actors in order to build more effective response systems, working to reduce migrants’ vulnerability might require building partnerships and coordinating with actors that are not traditionally involved in emergency preparedness and response.
Failures in translating early warnings resulted in reduced preparedness of the Mexican community in Saragosa, Texas, when a tornado struck in 1987. When Hurricane Andrew ravaged South Miami-Dade County in Florida in 1992 a majority of those affected were of Latin or Haitian origin. Response agencies such as the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) and the American Red Cross did not initially have translators, and hence the neediest Latino victims were much slower to receive food, medical supplies, psychosocial support and disaster grants than the English-speaking survivors.

In evaluations of the relief and recovery efforts after 2004 Hurricane Katrina in the United States, it was noted that official warnings and emergency communications in languages other than English were scarce or non-existent. In addition, it was highlighted that the post-disaster benefits provided by FEMA to the victims were allocated by household (in order to avoid double coverage), disregarding the fact that many migrant victims lived in multi-family and multi-generational housing units.

Although some translated generic disaster information was available from government agencies during the 2008 Brisbane floods in Australia, official emergency information was available only in non-simplified English. This resulted in many individuals from culturally and linguistically diverse communities not adequately taking heed of the warning messages, underestimating the risks to which they were exposed and not taking appropriate protective action.

**Recovery and reconstruction**

Facilitating effective recovery and reconstruction of affected areas is key to reducing long-lasting direct and indirect impacts of emergencies. Recovery is often the responsibility of a dedicated authority, but it is always a process that requires coordination with a broad pool of actors (such as the authorities responsible for urban planning, labour policies and livelihood support).

Recovery and reconstruction support, which includes addressing situations of population displacement, is not universally provided to the community of affected persons, and it is usually more politicized than relief provision. Recovery and reconstruction support requires longer-term choices and often entails prioritization among possible beneficiaries for the allocation of scarce resources. It is even more important that these efforts be inclusive and designed to foster communication and trust among migrant groups and their host communities, and
to bridge the cultural barriers that migrants might encounter. Such efforts must be inclusive and address comprehensively the preferences, needs and vulnerabilities of all directly and indirectly affected persons in order to prevent inter-communal tensions and conflicts.

One particular aspect that these authorities might need to address as part of recovery processes is the prevention of the exploitation of migrant workers who participate in reconstruction activities such as debris removal and housing repairs. Specific regulations can help prevent reconstruction efforts (often paid for by public authorities and executed by their contractors) from being carried out in violation of the basic rights of migrant workers.

Following Hurricane Sandy, FEMA issued clear messages regarding the inclusive coverage of relief efforts and support, especially its non-monetary forms, which were available to affected persons regardless of their migration status. However, recovery and reconstruction support were not as inclusive, and did not extend to unregistered or undocumented migrants.

After the earthquakes in Christchurch, New Zealand, cultural advisers in the city council, Partnership Health Canterbury, the Office of Ethnic Affairs and the New Zealand Police helped the agencies deliver more targeted support to affected minorities.

**Immigration authorities**

Ministerial and departmental-level authorities that deal with migration issues play a key role in determining migrants’ perception of the risks of migration. They determine policies and regulation on migrants’ right to enter or leave a country, and to move within its boundaries.

Following emergencies, a number of measures have been taken by migration authorities around the world to improve migrants’ capacity to cope with a crisis. These measures include:

- Suspending the enforcement of immigration regulation in times of emergency and extending the ability to stay in a crisis-affected country regardless of a person’s migration status;
- Allowing migrants to leave a crisis-affected country legally despite their lack of exit visas;
- Working with foreign authorities to keep borders open or to produce temporary documentation to facilitate international evacuations of non-nationals;
- Allowing migrants to move within national borders despite administrative constraints to stay in specific places, when the location they have to stay in is affected by a crisis.

These authorities might also be responsible for taking measures to prevent trafficking of vulnerable migrants and for establishing schemes for the readmission of migrants who might have fled the country as a consequence of the emergency.
In addition, these authorities often manage programmes to provide newcomers with adjustment services (such as a one-stop shop for migrants’ access to services or post-arrival briefings), which can be leveraged in order to increase migrants’ preparedness.

During the Lebanon crisis in 2006, a number of migrants, domestic workers in particular, were isolated in locations from which evacuation was challenging, often without money or documents. In order to facilitate the evacuation of stranded non-nationals, Lebanese authorities coordinated with Caritas Lebanon and foreign consular corps to issue and approve travel documents allowing migrant workers without passports to leave the country. In addition, the Government declared an amnesty for all undocumented migrant workers on condition that they leave the country and not return for at least five years. The Lebanese Ministry of Justice and Caritas Lebanon also produced a trilingual booklet in Sinhalese, Amharic and Tagalog to caution domestic workers against possible traffickers. These booklets were distributed to migrant workers at the borders as they left Lebanon.

The National Institute of Migration of Mexico set up Grupos Beta, a specialized body entirely dedicated to protecting and providing assistance to migrants in transit through Mexican territory. Grupos Beta is tasked with targeted search and rescue, first aid and awareness-raising – helping migrants who face violence, abuse and risks to their physical integrity, regardless of their legal status. They also collect information, for statistical purposes only, which they do not disseminate (not even to other units within their institution) for immigration enforcement purposes.

Labour authorities

Labour regulations have a direct influence on the vulnerability of migrants before, during and after crises. They contribute to determining who works in which locations and under which conditions, who faces abuses and violation as part of their work, and which resources they can count on to cope with shocks. Inadequacy or a lack of enforcement of labour regulations is a key element determining migrants’ vulnerability.

Specific measures during and after crises might also be needed to ensure that migrants are not further exploited when crises occur. These measures can facilitate their evacuation either within or outside the country – for instance, by making sure employers or recruiters do not prevent migrants from leaving by withholding their documents and salaries, by waiving recruitment fees migrants might still be reimbursing, and by promoting flexible working arrangements and unemployment benefits in case of evacuation. Measures can also prevent abuses from employers in the aftermath of crises, when migrants might be willing to take on jobs in risky or economically exploitative conditions.
In addition, labour regulations can play a key role in facilitating re-migration and re-employment of migrants once the emergency has subsided and they are willing to return to the crisis-affected country.

Many Gulf countries regulate the bulk of labour migration through a sponsorship (kafala) system. This system grants the migrant a temporary work permit linked to a citizen stakeholder or to an institution (kafil). This means that migrants’ visas, and more generally their rights, are strictly dependent on the will of the sponsor. The associated, and illegal, practice of employers holding migrants’ documents has been an obstacle during evacuation operations. Over past decades, some countries have started reforming this system. In 2006, for instance, Bahrain’s King Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa established the Labour Market Regulatory Authority to replace the kafala system. In Qatar, in order to hire foreign workers, employers now have to complete a “labour demand letter” detailing the number of workers and the skills required, as well as the salary, accommodation and food provided. The Ministry of Interior, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Qatari Chamber of Commerce must sign the letter before it goes to the embassy of the country of origin for attestation for validation of the suitability of the employer and the conditions of accommodation.

Security, border management and armed forces

Decisions on border management following crises can be crucial with regard to migrants’ opportunities to escape from the affected country and return home. Facilitating transit, including through bilateral agreements with neighbouring countries, can be key to reducing migrants’ vulnerability.

Security forces often play a significant role in emergency response, and are even more fundamental actors in situations of conflict or violence. Their presence, however, often discourages migrants, especially those who are undocumented, from seeking assistance in emergencies. This is particularly the case when it is border guards or groups in charge of enforcing migration regulations that participate in the crisis response. In a number of instances corrupt armed forces have even exploited migrants caught in emergencies, taking advantage of their conditions of distress and of the institutional vacuums consequent to emergency situations.

It is key that staff from these institutions be culturally competent and fully aware of the delicate position they might have vis-à-vis affected migrants. They should also receive specific training and information on possible modifications to migration regimes in times of emergency, on preventing trafficking and on procedures for issuing emergency documentation for migrants to stay in or leave the affected country. It is also important to involve these staff members in longer-term trust-building exercises with at-risk communities and marginalized groups, including migrants.
During the 2007 San Diego fires, border patrol officers reportedly sought undocumented migrants with the aim of repatriating them. Police officers referred undocumented migrants looking for assistance to the border patrol. Such actions disregarded federal-level instructions to provide emergency assistance regardless of a person’s legal status, and contributed to reducing migrants’ willingness to seek assistance.

**Health system**

Health service providers include a variety of actors whose job is crucial during and after emergencies in addressing direct physical and psychological impacts of crises on affected populations. They include medical personnel and physiotherapists, as well as social workers and providers of psychosocial assistance. Providing health services in a non-discriminatory manner in times of crisis is key to reducing the vulnerability of all affected groups. Migrants, however, are often less likely (and less willing) to access health services due to linguistic, cultural, economic or administrative reasons. Adapting service provision to the specific features of the actual beneficiaries is therefore a precondition to the effectiveness of health service providers’ work.

The United States has developed the National Standards for Culturally and Linguistically Appropriate Services in Health and Health Care (National CLAS Standards), which aim to allow providers of medical care and psychosocial support to deliver effectively their services in emergencies to linguistically and culturally diverse communities, including migrant groups. The National CLAS Standards recognize the need to improve the cultural competence of these services’ staff members and to foster communication and coordination with the relevant communities.

**Education system**

Education systems (including advanced and professional education) are key in promoting awareness of risk and preparedness for emergencies of all kinds. They play a role in the development and in the dissemination of information and knowledge on hazards and their consequences, in the establishment of systems to monitor hazards and issue early warnings, and in the development of more effective emergency management mechanisms.

Schools are particularly important in disseminating preparedness information, and migrants often access the relevant information through their children or the young members of their groups. Efforts within the education system may involve specialized preparedness trainings or disaster risk education at school, with specific attention to overcoming language and cultural barriers. The incorporation of migrant children in the preparedness and planning process is important because children are among the most vulnerable during a disaster, but they can also be very effective communicators and disseminators of preparedness messaging to their families and communities.
The role of the education system is crucial as greater numbers of international students attend schools and universities abroad. Integrating these groups into preparedness, evacuation and emergency management efforts at the school level is key.

Training institutions can also play a role in adult migrants’ awareness and preparedness. Dedicated trainings on existing risk and its mitigation, and on preparedness and response measures, can be a part of migrants’ orientation packages upon arrival.

A number of Japanese municipalities and district authorities collaborate with adult learning centres to provide incoming migrants with voluntary trainings on emergency preparedness and response, including risk awareness, family-level preparedness and first-aid.

Local authorities

Authorities at municipal, district and other subnational levels play a key role in a number of areas that determine locally available opportunities, services and resources – and therefore people’s, including migrants’, vulnerability in general. These areas include urban and development planning, infrastructure, transportation and governance. Some local authorities even play a direct role in migrants’ status (such as “sanctuary cities” in the United States) and in their inclusion in consultation and decision-making processes (for instance, through local councils, specific hearings or involvement in co-development projects). Depending on local institutional assets, such authorities may also be in charge of, or contribute to, determining the way service suppliers in the education, health and security systems work at the local level. This often also extends to coordination of emergency preparedness and management services.

“Sanctuary cities” are cities in the United States or Canada that do not use municipal funds or resources to prosecute undocumented migrants based exclusively on their irregular migration status. In sanctuary cities, municipal employees and the local police are not allowed to inquire about an individual’s immigration status or to enforce federal immigration laws.

In addition, local authorities play a direct role in emergency planning, preparedness and awareness-raising, in particular by producing and providing information on local hazards, evacuation systems and locations, identifying sites for assistance, facilitating evacuation by public transportation and assisting affected persons through the provision of essential services. They oversee or collaborate on the level of efforts and responses that are closest to at-risk and affected populations.
After the 1989 Loma Prieta earthquake, the city of Watsonville in California was sued by its population of Central and South American descent, including migrant groups, as a consequence of their insufficient involvement and consideration in disaster planning measures, and the inadequacy of information and of the provision of disaster assistance. As a consequence, the city hired bilingual workers within its emergency services, created a dedicated ombudsperson in charge of identifying and reporting on the issues faced by the migrant community, and trained Latino community leaders as emergency responders in order to improve inclusiveness and comprehensiveness of its disaster planning and management system. A countywide culturally diverse disaster planning team was also set up, in parallel with a number of grassroots preparedness efforts within migrant groups.

**KEY LEARNING POINTS**

- Emergency management, disaster risk management and civil protection authorities are key to setting up and delivering inclusive emergency preparedness, response and recovery.
- Collaborating with other relevant governmental actors is fundamental for their work to be effective.
Governments from countries of origin

Migrants’ countries of origin retain responsibility for their nationals even when they are in the territory of another State. Assistance is usually provided through consular institutions that are responsible for delivering a range of services that can be essential in emergencies.

The relevant assistance provided by consular services includes identifying and reaching out to affected migrants, supplying information and issuing emergency documentation, facilitating evacuations and repatriations, and communicating with families and communities back home. They might also provide support when the identification or repatriation of migrants’ bodies is necessary. Consular services can play a key role in facilitating the dissemination and translation of locally available information to the migrant community, and in ensuring they receive information produced by governments of countries of origin regarding the emergency. They also facilitate the circulation of information from crisis-affected areas to mass media in the country of origin. Following emergencies, they can support activities aimed at enabling the re-migration of their nationals to the affected locations.

During the 2011 Tohoku triple disaster in Japan, the short-term, automatically issued earthquake warnings were not adequately translated and follow-up information, particularly on the levels of contamination as a consequence of the Fukushima accident, was neither as good nor as comprehensive as that provided to the Japanese public. As a consequence, many foreigners turned to their own consular corps and television stations for information. These sources, however, did not always have the most up-to-date information and often pushed overly prudent solutions. This included suggesting the evacuation of foreign residents from areas not affected by the contamination. Contradictions between this messaging and the official Japanese communications also reduced overall trust, and particularly that of non-nationals, in Japanese authorities.

During the 2011 Côte d’Ivoire crisis, a number of migrants found refuge in their respective consulates, where they could more safely wait to be evacuated to their home country.

In normal times, services provided or managed by consular corps can also be key to reducing migrants’ vulnerability. These services might include registration of incoming and outgoing migrants, as well as their tracking at different locations within the country, which may inform emergency planning and response efforts. The provision of information upon arrival, which
can help improve migrants’ risk awareness and disaster preparedness, may also be among the services provided.

Tunisian embassies and consulates collected data on migrants abroad (including for electoral purposes, as registered citizens enjoy full voting rights). At the height of the Libyan crisis (2011/2012), this information was crucial to the identification and localization of missing migrants.

Consular services are a key counterpart for national institutions dealing with crises in which migrants are affected. However, they may often be overwhelmed by the exceptional needs stemming from emergency situations. This is usually addressed through the deployment of crisis cells from the capital, or, when there is limited capacity, through cooperation with third countries or international organizations. Whenever this happens, coordination efforts by and mechanisms of governmental authorities in the country of destination might need to take into account the presence of an additional set of stakeholders.

However, with regard to receiving assistance, consular services might not be an option for some migrants, including in the following situations:

- Unregistered migrants might prefer not to go through official channels for assistance, not even those of their home country;
- Foreigners who have reasons to fear contact with the government of their home country might also prefer to avoid consular services;
- Some of the migrants’ countries of origin might not have a consular presence in the host country or an agreement with other countries to support their nationals in emergencies.

Including consular services in contingency planning and emergency coordination and communication mechanisms can be an important approach to better serving migrants and to reducing their vulnerability.

**Regional institutions and cooperation mechanisms**

Regional institutions, such as regional economic communities and unions and regional consultative processes on migration, can be a key element in defining how States deal with non-nationals in crisis situations. In particular, the work of such regional institutions might have an effect on visa, transit and immigration issues.

This could mean, for instance, that as a result of the work of regional institutions, or of the measures or decisions they take (for example, limiting migrants’ movement out of a crisis-affected country), migrants might be able to seek assistance in embassies and consulates of a third country (for example, in the case of coordinated emergency consular assistance) or that they might be entitled to specific rights (for example, in the case of agreements establishing freedom of movement and employment within a given region, or regulating temporary rights for migrants to remain in a given country in the case of an emergency).
Regional institutions may also play a crucial role when crises involve more than one country in a region, as they can have in place coordination mechanisms for service provision in countries affected by emergencies.

The Caribbean Disaster Emergency Management Agency is an interregional support network of independent emergency units from 18 countries. In 2010, the Agency played a pivotal role in managing relief efforts in Haiti following the earthquake, including through the deployment of military, medical and technical personnel for search and rescue, distribution of supplies, provision of medical services and security operations.

The African Union elaborated a roadmap to outline the steps to end the Libyan crisis, calling for the “protection of foreign nationals, including African migrants living in Libya.”

Third-country governments

Governments of third countries can also play a role in determining how emergencies impact migrants. They can provide substantial resources for relief and recovery, and support specific assistance to and evacuation of migrants.

Neighbouring countries play a key role in maintaining the option of international evacuations through their border management decisions. This might include decisions about whether to accept people displaced across the borders of a country affected by an emergency and about what kind of status to give them (including, for instance, granting them refugee status or specific forms of protection, especially when evacuation to their countries of origin is not possible).

At the height of the Libyan crisis, most migrants fled the violence to Egypt (263,554 people) or Tunisia (345,238 people), which was made possible by the decision by the Governments of the two countries to keep their borders with Libya open.

During the Yemen crisis, the Russian Federation and India were among the countries that first started evacuating their nationals. They have also responded positively to requests from other Governments to evacuate their citizens.
Canada and Australia have a Consular Services Sharing Agreement that allows Canadians to receive consular services from Australian officials in 20 countries where Canada does not have an office and for Australians to seek similar assistance from Canadian missions in 23 countries. The Agreement includes, among others, provisions related to crisis management.

International organizations

International organizations play an important role in assisting countries whose governmental capacities are overwhelmed by crisis situations. International humanitarian response is coordinated through the Inter-Agency Standing Committee. States facing significant pressure can employ the assistance of the international humanitarian system for help in managing relief and recovery efforts. This assistance includes addressing the specific plight of migrants caught in emergency situations.

In particular, upon request of States, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) provides targeted assistance to non-nationals caught in emergencies while abroad. The work of IOM is rooted in its Migration Crisis Operational Framework and counts upon, among other things, the newly established Migration Emergency Funding Mechanism to facilitate timely and comprehensive responses. IOM’s assistance encompasses:

- Technical assistance for humanitarian border management;
- Provision of emergency consular services;
- Referral systems for persons with special protection needs;
- Provision of protection and assistance to vulnerable migrants, such as victims of trafficking, exploitation and abuse;
- Provision of temporary protection for migrants crossing an international border;
- Organization of safe evacuations for migrants to return home; and
- Reintegration assistance.

States also systematically turn to UNHCR for support in the protection of asylum seekers and refugees in their territories, including those caught in the midst of a crisis in a country of asylum. In consultation with stakeholders, UNHCR developed its 10-Point Plan of Action to support States and other stakeholders in addressing the identification, protection and solution needs for refugees in mixed migration flows. The application of the Guidelines on Temporary Protection or Stay Arrangements is directly relevant to crisis situations characterized by mixed migration flows, in which immediate assistance and protection need to take precedence.

Nonetheless, the situation of migrants in countries in crisis is yet to be systematically integrated into humanitarian systems. The Inter-Agency Standing Committee’s operational guidelines on human rights and natural disasters, for example, mention migrants only in the context of documentation.

Other international organizations (such as the International Labour Organization, the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, the World Health Organization, the United Nations
Office on Drugs and Crime, and UNICEF) play roles that may be relevant when preparing and building capacity for, and responding to, situations in which migrants are caught in a crisis.

In addition, international organizations may support or promote conventions and other human rights instruments that protect migrants, including those in emergency situations. These instruments include, for example, the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, and various International Labour Organization conventions on migration and employment.

The role of IOM and UNHCR in the evacuation of thousands of migrants stranded in Libya was vital, particularly to support countries that did not have the capacity to assist their nationals. Coordination was required both to facilitate people’s movement out of conflict-affected areas (using all of the available transportation options) and to manage assistance to those who had reached the borders. Out of an estimated 50,000 Bangladeshi citizens thought to be residing in Libya, more than 35,000 were evacuated with the assistance of IOM.

**KEY LEARNING POINTS**

- Among the actors that may be involved in emergency management efforts aimed at reducing migrants’ vulnerability, home country institutions, third countries and international organizations can be particularly relevant.
TOPIC 4: NON-GOVERNMENTAL ACTORS

Affected migrants

Those with the greatest stake in times of crisis are migrants and their families directly affected by the crisis. They face specific conditions of vulnerability linked with their socioeconomic and legal status, with their linguistic proficiency and with the capacity and willingness of local actors to identify and address adequately their specific needs in the face of emergencies. However, they are also key actors in crisis prevention, preparedness, response and recovery, and their capacities should be adequately considered in coordination efforts.

Identification and inclusion of migrants, especially the most vulnerable among them, are crucial in adequately preparing and carrying out awareness-raising activities, contingency planning, early warning issuing and dissemination, and providing relief and recovery assistance that address their specific needs (for example, delivering multilingual messaging, offering culturally appropriate assistance and overcoming barriers linked with migrants’ legal status). Leveraging migrants’ skills and capabilities is also key to improving the skill sets and collective capacity, including outreach capacity, of crisis preparedness and management systems, and making them stronger, sounder institutions.

As stated previously in this chapter, collaborating with children and younger members of the migrant community can be crucial. Due to their involvement in preparedness and awareness-raising activities at school, they are often better prepared than adults in their communities in times of disasters. In addition, they are usually more proficient in the local language, and might have better connections with representatives from the local host community.

Filipino community leaders are encouraged to take part in the command procedures and structures of the contingency plans for Filipino nationals abroad. They are part of the “wardenship” system, wherein each Filipino community leader has to take care of a number of Filipinos, including by keeping them informed of the security situation and of the contingency plan measures. These leaders and their respective organizations are considered to be effective conduits of information and instructions that need to be disseminated to the Filipino community in times of crisis. The wardenship system connects Filipino migrants to each other and to the Philippine’s diplomatic and consular personnel. These pre-established networks help to identify migrants who cannot, for various reasons, access diplomatic and consular services and information in times of crisis and to facilitate their access to humanitarian and other assistance. The wardenship system was used in providing distressed Filipino diaspora members with assistance in Egypt, Japan, Libya, the Syrian Arab Republic and Yemen.
In New Zealand, after the Christchurch earthquake, young people became natural leaders of their communities for all matters related to disaster response and recovery. Due to their good knowledge of English, they were better able than their parents and the elderly members of their groups to communicate with authorities and service providers, as well as to access information and apply for assistance.

In Australia, the Government’s Project Red recommended including children with migrant and refugee backgrounds in emergency preparedness measures. The project was aimed at promoting emergency volunteering at various outreach events and was designed to:

- Work through well-known and trusted emergency actors;
- Target groups rather than individuals;
- Train pupils at school during school hours to prevent any disruptions to their daily routines.

Overall, the enthusiasm of youth volunteers and their connections to marginalized minorities were important resources for the Government of Australia to use in its outreach to culturally and linguistically diverse communities vis-à-vis preparedness and response information and measures.

Local migrant groups, associations and representatives

Migrants in their host countries often find support in networks, associations and other groups. This involves participating in ethnic or hometown communities, worker groups or other peer associations that can provide services such as: language courses; organizing traditional celebrations and social gatherings; support in finding employment or housing, in accessing legal assistance (including paying for or finding it free of charge) and in paying medical bills; and a whole range of other adjustment services. While all of this assistance can greatly improve migrants’ well-being in normal times, such organizations also have a role in times of crisis.

It is within such organizations that preparedness and response efforts specific to migrant communities often take place. They can be essential for disseminating warnings, messages and communications, or for adapting and validating those that are issued by official authorities, through more or less formal information networks (such as telephone lists and door-to-door communications). In particular, these organizations play a key role in delivering information to the most excluded migrants – those who are not reached by official assistance or who might prefer to avoid contacts with officials.

Such organizations also provide key knowledge on the composition and whereabouts of the local migrant populations, and can therefore be crucial to successful preparedness and evacuation efforts. Their understanding of migrants’ preferences, needs and distribution
can also improve delivery of relief and recovery assistance. In addition, these organizations routinely play a role in complementing and strengthening overall preparedness, response and recovery efforts, and should be considered as actors holding resources that are vital to the resilience of the whole community of destination.

Wardens, gatekeepers, migrant representatives and other leaders of migrant communities can also play similar roles – brokering services, delivering information and coordinating with their groups.

The Filipino community in Libya was successfully mobilized through the wardenship system at the outbreak of the 2011 crisis. In the Syrian Arab Republic, however, the system worked less well due to the high number of undocumented overseas Filipino workers, who were largely excluded even from these community-based outreach efforts.

In the United States, following Hurricanes Katrina and Rita, Boat People SOS provided affected Asian populations with interpreting services to communicate with FEMA workers. The organization aims to provide Vietnamese people arriving in the United States with adjustment services; however, it also mobilized networks and a community of more than 55,000 Asians in the Gulf Coast to help those who had been affected by Hurricanes Katrina and Rita.

See also Chapter 2 for an example involving Hispanic immigrants in the Pico Union district of Los Angeles.

When working with migrant leaders and groups, however, it is necessary to keep in mind that they are the expression of specific power relations within their communities. Leveraging these structures means also accepting these power relations, and the fact that they might hide conditions of exclusion of individuals and minorities within the migrant group.

**Home communities and diaspora groups**

Migrants are often part of complex transnational networks that link their place of destination with their place of origin, as well as with a number of other locations, including those in other parts of the host country and in third countries in which other migrants of the same household, community, or ethnic or national group live and work. Knowledge, financial resources and other assets are transferred along these networks, often representing a key element of livelihood and well-being strategies of migrants and their households and communities.

In times of crisis, assistance through such networks can be key to supporting the coping capacity and recovery of migrants affected by disasters or conflict in their area of destination. Distant relatives or members of one’s group – whether back home, in other areas of the host country or in third countries – can provide resources that allow crisis-affected recipients to cope better
with and recover from shocks. These assistance efforts can take place through individual and collective initiatives, and can be supported through a variety of measures, including:

- Improving communication among migrants and diasporas;
- Ensuring diaspora members are kept up to date on the migrants’ situation and conditions;
- Facilitating transfer of financial and non-financial resources.

These measures can improve migrants’ access to targeted, appropriate aid. Such support is often both faster and longer in term than that provided by official authorities, and can help recipient migrants recover much more effectively.

Diaspora groups and communities of origin can also effectively advocate for the improvement of migrants’ living conditions – and for their inclusion in crisis preparedness, relief and recovery efforts – in their countries of destination.

While most of the literature has focused on the support provided by migrants to crisis-affected countries of origin, evidence shows that support and resource transfers are mutual, and also benefit distant migrants in times of hardship.

Civil society in the Philippines supports nationals abroad through a number of initiatives. One of them, called Balabal (meaning “shawl” or “cloak”), works to promote the exchange of information and resources between home communities and migrants, based on the premise that this can make all of them more resilient during crises. By leveraging these informal channels, the Government of the Philippines was better able to reach out to and assist migrant workers trapped in the Syrian Arab Republic.

The International Diaspora Engagement Alliance is focused on fostering capacity development of its members and of diaspora communities. As part of those efforts, the Alliance is building an interactive platform that elevates and supports the work of diaspora communities around the world. Through the Diaspora Map, the Alliance will collect information on and visualize member organizations’ presence and influence, as well as increase exposure and networking opportunities for participants.

See [www.diasporaalliance.org/about-the-map/](http://www.diasporaalliance.org/about-the-map/).

**Non-governmental and civil society organizations**

International, regional, national and local non-governmental organizations (NGOs) can play an important role in reducing the vulnerability of migrants before, during and after emergencies. Integrating migrants into prevention, preparedness and response efforts is key to leveraging all capacities at all levels of a society or community.
Organizations acting locally, such as churches and faith-based organizations, workers’ unions and community-based groups, whether explicitly aiming to assist migrants or more broadly addressing conditions of exclusion within a given community, can be vital in disseminating information and delivering services (such as health, legal, employment and capacity-building services) to migrants, and especially the most marginalized among them.

In addition to complementing the authorities’ role in the delivery of basic services and opportunities, NGOs often act as mediators in the relationships between institutional response actors and migrants, as they often represent the structures that migrants approach instead of authorities. They can also give visibility to migrant issues and advocate for their inclusion in policymaking at local and national levels.

All of these roles can be very relevant in crisis situations, where civil society actors can help official emergency actors reach out to migrant communities and adapt their efforts to better meet migrants’ needs, or can act directly as providers of essential relief and recovery services (such as evacuation assistance, shelter, and food and non-food distribution).

Larger, international NGOs can also be key stakeholders, particularly in severe emergencies. This is, for instance, the case of the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, as well as of organizations such as the Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere (CARE) and Save the Children. This is also the case of networks of civil society organizations: at the global level, the Migration and Development Civil Society Network has been an important initiative to connect civil society organizations worldwide and to strengthen their capacity to work with governments and promote policies for the well-being of migrants. The Network evolved from years of participation of civil society organizations at the Global Forum on Migration and Development and was officially launched in 2014.

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**Following the 2003 San Diego fires that disproportionately affected low-income farm workers, and based on previous experience involving farm worker communities in preparedness efforts, the Farm Worker CARE (Collaboration/Communication, Advocacy/Access, Research/Resources, Empowerment/Education) Coalition dispatched health workers, provided shelter and food, and assisted the Mexican consulate in printing migrants’ damaged or destroyed documents. The Coalition is a collaborative initiative between governmental and community-based organizations in the San Diego area that helps identify the health and social service needs of agricultural workers.**

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**The role of NGOs was pivotal in the outreach, rescue and evacuation of stranded migrants in the Lebanon crisis. Caritas Lebanon and a number of national Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies stepped in alongside major international organizations to provide thousands of migrants with documentation and to allow them to move out of the country. They further supported registration and assistance at reception points and transit locations in third countries (such as Cyprus).**
After the Canterbury earthquakes in New Zealand, traditional community and tribal networks mobilized quickly to assist affected persons. *Maraes* (traditional Maori social and religious buildings or structures) were turned into hubs for the provision of relief assistance and shelter. Migrant and refugee groups were included in the emergency response through activities carried out in the *maraes*.

During the Côte d’Ivoire crisis, churches offered space for the displaced and a safe refuge for the victims of the racial violence.

**Private sector**

**Employers and recruitment agencies**

The majority of migrants worldwide move in order to work. Employers and recruitment agencies can therefore be key actors in reducing their vulnerability. They are often able to locate and communicate with migrant workers in times of emergency, and might be able to reach people who cannot be otherwise contacted. In addition, workplace preparedness efforts led by employers are key to including migrant workers and their families in response efforts (including evacuation, sheltering and assistance delivery).

Employers and recruitment agencies’ unethical behaviour, including abuse and exploitation of migrants, is often a main factor in migrants’ vulnerability. The concern of employers and recruiters that the migrants may leave and break their contract and that this may cause them an economic loss might push them to withhold documentation or salaries. They may also refuse the migrants the right to flee the country, which could leave them in precarious situations, hindering them from leaving the affected area and having them resort to credit to survive or to pay for their return home. By allowing migrant workers to leave, reducing their conditions of isolation and facilitating their access to documents and salaries, employers and recruiters can greatly increase migrants’ capacity to avoid or to cope with the impacts of emergencies.

Efforts by employers need to target the most vulnerable workers. Although many corporations have systems to evacuate high-level staff, there are often no standards of practice for lower-tiered employees. Planning for emergencies and providing assistance might be an issue especially for smaller, informal employers, who do not employ a large enough number of migrants that they believe would justify preparedness and response efforts. However, considering migrants in contingency planning for businesses that employ a large number of migrant workers is key to their continuity and recovery.
During the 2011 conflict in Libya, which saw 200,000 foreign workers of various nationalities caught in the crisis, Shell made sure that internationally deployed employees of all levels were effectively evacuated from the country. Hyundai Engineering Co. and Doosan Heavy Industry and Construction Co., which employed both Korean nationals and a large number of workers of other nationalities, had detailed plans in place to evacuate all workers from the country. LBS Recruitment Solutions Corp., a migrant worker recruiting company, elaborated a tracking platform and other outreach tools to contact the workers it had employed and coordinate their evacuation. It also supported the safe and timely redeployment of workers willing to take up future employment abroad.

A Chinese company operating in Libya remitted unpaid salaries for its Bangladeshi workers directly to the Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training of the Government of Bangladesh.

The Government of Singapore has recognized that employers need training to understand their roles and responsibilities when hiring migrant workers. The Ministry of Manpower and accredited training centres conduct the Employer’s Orientation Programme, a three-hour compulsory course for employers of domestic workers. The aim of the programme is to provide employers with an understanding of their role and responsibilities, the basic ability to develop and maintain a productive working relationship with their employee, and a basic understanding of legal issues and guidelines related to the employment of foreign domestic workers.

**Other private sector actors**

Transportation companies and tour operators can play an important role in facilitating evacuations. Airlines and shipping companies, as well as public and private land transportation services, are key to facilitating people’s movement out of areas affected by conflicts and disasters, and can proactively reduce economic and documentation barriers to evacuation by providing special service conditions in times of crisis. Tour operators are also important actors in preparedness and awareness-raising campaigns targeting tourists, and often represent a valuable source of information on the presence and whereabouts of tourists in a given country.
When the crisis in Libya ignited, the Government of Thailand directly chartered ships and flights to enable Thai nationals to leave the country. Similarly, in 2004, the Governments of France, Germany and the United Kingdom chartered flights to evacuate their national tourists out of areas affected by the Indian Ocean tsunami.

Telecommunication companies can help migrants to get in touch with authorities in host and home countries and to communicate with their own households and communities. This can be essential not only for their well-being but also in planning rescue and evacuation efforts or assistance provision. These services may be supported as part of more comprehensive efforts towards re-establishing communications in emergency-affected locations.

During the 2011 conflict in Libya, Qatar Telecom distributed prepaid SIM cards and calling vouchers to people fleeing the country and seeking refuge in neighbouring Tunisia, including many Bangladeshi, Nigerian, Pakistani, Somali and Sudanese citizens trying to reach safety.

Media play a key role in the circulation of information. In order to reach migrant communities, however, it might be necessary for the emergency management entity to coordinate efforts with media from the migrants’ countries of origin or with community-based broadcasters, which could be those the migrants actually turn to for information. Such actors are also important for translating and adapting warnings and communications.

During the 2007 San Diego fires, the use of mainstream channels allowed for high-quality live coverage of the disaster to be accessible to non-native English speakers.

When Hurricane Katrina hit New Orleans, information translated into Vietnamese was broadcasted through a local community-based Vietnamese station.

A specific role is played by social networks, which are increasingly important for communicating during emergencies. For example, Google Person Finder or Facebook Safety Check can be used to help locate people in emergencies. Other examples of areas of work in which high-tech companies can effectively reduce migrants’ vulnerabilities include population tracking and mapping, electronic storage of documentation, targeted dissemination of information, and so forth.

Insurance companies can play a specific role in transferring risks linked with migrants’ involvement in emergencies. Insurance schemes can be subscribed to by migrant workers
themselves, by their employers or by recruiting agencies to cover losses and expenses linked with migrants’ inability to work, evacuation and repatriation. Such coverage may also mean that employers and recruiters are more likely to collaborate with crisis management authorities, and as a result no additional barriers to the movement of migrants are created.

Translators, interpreters and cultural mediators represent a group of professionals that are instrumental to communicating effectively with migrant groups. They play a key role before, during and after emergencies in translating and adapting awareness-raising materials, warnings and communications, and facilitate the delivery of services (such as evacuation assistance, health care, psychosocial care and legal aid).

Academics and researchers

Academics and the research community may have knowledge that is relevant to preventing, preparing and responding to emergencies, including studies on distribution of migrants, drivers of emergencies, migrants’ conditions of vulnerability, the relevant practices for the different actors and lessons learned from previous efforts. Research that may be particularly suited to this work includes literature related to disaster risk reduction, disaster management, humanitarian relief, political science, psychology, migration, ethnography, urbanization and sociology.

In addition, research actors can help to monitor and evaluate practices and to improve the understanding of how successful prevention, preparedness and response efforts have been and how they can be improved.

KEY LEARNING POINTS

- Migrants – both as individuals and as groups – are key stakeholders in emergencies. Together with community-based and civil society organizations, they often provide the most effective and targeted assistance.
- Different private sector actors need to be involved in emergency management efforts – both those that have direct contact with migrants (such as employers and recruiters) and those whose access to services in emergencies can be vital (such as tour operators, and transportation and telecommunication companies).
TOPIC 5: SETTING UP MECHANISMS TO COLLABORATE WITH OTHER ACTORS

Coordinating with all actors that can access and assist migrants can help authorities in delivering more effectively targeted emergency preparedness, response and recovery assistance. All of the relevant mechanisms can be set up in advance of an emergency. In fact, identifying and building relations with these actors before an emergency hits, as part of preparedness efforts, is likely to result in much more effective collaborations in times of need.

Setting up coordination mechanisms with the relevant stakeholders (including non-emergency actors) can be very useful for a number of aspects of emergency preparedness, response and recovery – and especially for those aspects that are not traditionally within the scope of emergency management institutions. However, it should be noted that the actors involved and their level of engagement might vary depending on the type and severity of the crisis that is concretely faced. If different scenarios are considered as part of emergency planning, it might be necessary to keep in mind that the relevant stakeholders might differ.

Enumeration and identification of migrants

Consular corps, ministries of labour and of foreign affairs, departments dealing with nationals abroad, recruiting companies, remittance companies and other actors can provide a wealth of information on migrants’ numbers, characteristics and whereabouts. This information is vital for preparedness and response purposes, in order to target and deliver assistance effectively, and particularly to ensure that unregistered or undocumented migrants are taken into account.

These actors also play a role in identifying and localizing migrants during emergencies. Working directly with home country authorities is particularly important when issuing or renewing identity and travel documents is required, including for international evacuations, and for identifying and repatriating mortal remains.

Facilitating communications with families back home

Establishing channels of direct communication between migrants and families back home, or at least mechanisms to share information on the status of migrants, is essential for the well-being of both the migrants and their relatives. While many crisis-affected migrants have their own resources to get in touch directly with their relatives (increasingly through social networks and instant messaging applications), in some cases it might be necessary to set up dedicated communication systems or centralized databases for the collection and sharing of essential information regarding migrants in affected areas.

Collaboration with home country authorities (and their counterparts in the government of the host country – typically the minister of foreign affairs) can be essential to this end, as they are likely to be responsible for further disseminating relevant information to the migrants’ families and the general public in home countries. However, other actors such as employers, telecommunication companies, or the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies can also carry out relevant work through their family reunification services.
Facilitating international evacuations

Authorities and the military from the home country and from third countries, tour operators, international organizations, and airlines and shipping companies are all likely to be involved in efforts to evacuate people out of emergency-affected countries. Collaborating with these actors to issue documentation, provide affordable transportation options and negotiate take-off and landing rights can help ensure that migrants can leave the country in a safe and timely manner.

To prevent migrants from being trapped in risky areas, coordination may also be necessary with bordering countries or with third countries to which migrants might be evacuated, in order to ensure that the borders remain open and that these countries accept the inflow of people, including those with temporary travel documentation.

When the 2004 tsunami hit the coasts surrounding the Indian Ocean, about 10,000 British tourists were staying in the region, 40 per cent of whom were independent travellers. While most holidaymakers who were on package holidays could return home on flights chartered by their tour operators – an obligation of British tour operators whose customers face emergencies – the independent travellers returned home autonomously or on flights chartered by the United Kingdom or by other EU countries, including France and Germany.

Facilitating delivery of external assistance in affected areas

A variety of actors can directly engage in supporting local responses to emergencies through efforts as diverse as fundraising, providing and distributing items (such as tents, drugs or other relief items), deploying staff and so forth. Such actors might include international organizations, as well as NGOs and governmental and non-governmental actors from the migrants’ home countries, and diaspora groups.

Coordinating with these actors, which would likely take place through their local representatives (such as consular staff or migrant leaders), is key to matching their assistance with the capacities and needs existing on the ground. Coordination might also be necessary with other governmental actors of the host country who might be responsible for ensuring that the external actors have the status and capacity to access and operate within the affected areas, and that the goods and resources they contribute can easily enter, and can be transferred within, the country and delivered to the intended communities in a timely fashion.

Chinese migrants affected by the 2012 earthquake in the Emilia-Romagna region of Italy received food, money, hygiene products and other items through their Government’s official assistance channel, while Moldovan migrants were assisted by their diaspora in Italy and in other EU countries.
After Hurricane Katrina, Vietnamese diaspora in other parts of the United States were keen on helping affected areas, particularly as they learned that many Vietnamese migrants had been affected. However, poor coordination and unclear directives limited the options available to would-be contributors, resulting in people staying at home and not sending aid, as well as feelings of frustration about the missed opportunities.

After the Canterbury earthquakes in Christchurch, New Zealand, ethnic-based associations took action to support affected individuals from minority groups. These associations had very effective support systems operating across the city for their communities, as well as across the country through associated groups.

Following the Indian Ocean tsunami, the foreign service of the United Kingdom reached out to the British Red Cross and the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies to request support for affected British nationals. Despite the lack of coordination with the Government as part of crisis planning before the event, the response of the foreign service included setting up:

- An information hotline to offer advice to callers affected by the tsunami;
- A team of doctors and psychologists, who flew to Thailand and visited British survivors in hospitals, and provided them and their families with psychological support;
- A welcome service (operated by volunteers) to welcome returnees;
- A support network to assist affected nationals further upon their return home through information provision.

**Actor stocktaking and asset mapping**

Taking stock of the relevant actors and the resources they have available to them can be a fundamental measure in building coordination mechanisms that avoid duplication of efforts and that leverage all existing capacities in emergencies. All of the actors highlighted in the sections above can contribute to emergency management efforts. Creating inventories that include their contact details (especially those of the individuals responsible for providing the services that are relevant in emergencies), as well as the organizational resources, skills, services and materials they can contribute, is a crucial element of contingency planning.

It is also important to understand whether such directories might already exist, as they may have been developed as part of past contingency planning exercises or because specific actors might have compiled thematic ones (for example, a ministry of foreign affairs’ directory of the
representatives of foreign countries, such as staff members of consulates and embassies). In any case, compiling further details (for example, emergency contact numbers, or capacity of the relevant actors to reach out to the migrant groups) might be necessary to make existing directories relevant to the context of migrant-specific emergency management efforts.

Other specific actors, such as businesses and employers, prisons, hospitals and schools, also tend to play a particularly active role in preparedness and response efforts. They usually set up specific emergency and evacuation planning and coordination mechanisms within the broader emergency management system. Identifying those that are especially relevant to the migrant community (for example, employers and businesses with a large number of migrant workers, and schools with a large number of migrant students) can be an important way to prioritize these interventions.

**Community-level actors**

Identifying which organizations and actors already work with and within the different migrant groups, which services they provide and which resources they are likely to be able to count on in emergencies is a key element of adapted preparedness and response. The relevant actors might include:

- Civil society organizations;
- Community centres, hometown associations, and social, cultural and recreational centres;
- Community kitchens and restaurants;
- Health-care providers;
- Churches, mosques, temples and other religious centres;
- Internet and telephone points;
- Remittance transfer companies.

In addition, it might be necessary to identify whether the different migrant groups have their own, group-based systems to:

- Access and circulate information with other members of their group;
- Coordinate responses and evacuations;
- Provide newcomers with adjustment services;
- Activate mutual help and solidarity mechanisms for people in need.

Understanding how these systems work and identifying the correct entry points to leverage them can help in taking effective action in emergencies. This might include identifying migrant representatives, leaders, gatekeepers and wardens, who might play key roles in leading or coordinating all of the actions mentioned above.
The present training package includes a form and a matrix that can be used to build a directory of the relevant local actors (“M3_community organization stocktaking” and “M3_community organization matrix”). The package also includes an example of a pre-compiled form (“M3_example Minnesota”). It is recommended that the form be used as a template/checklist to identify at least two contact points within each organization or system. It is also important to understand the organization’s mandate or objective, which migrant groups it covers and which services it can actually provide.

In addition, the “M3_example Minnesota” form includes some more detailed sections in case the identified organizations can play a specific role in particular preparedness and response efforts (for example, if they have specific communication channels open with their beneficiaries, or if they can provide the beneficiaries with specific relief services).

Interpreters, translators and cultural mediators

Identifying professionals and non-professionals who can help translate, adapt and validate warnings, communications and documents is key to disseminating information in a timely and effective manner. They might also be deployed in the field to support direct service delivery (including, for instance, by providing evacuation assistance, health care and psychosocial support) and to help bridge language gaps, which are one of the main barriers foreigners encounter in emergency situations abroad. In addition, their presence is particularly important whenever foreign staff, such as international search and rescue teams, participate in the relief efforts.

Creating a directory of companies, organizations and individuals that can support these functions and who are willing to be involved in preparedness, response and recovery efforts can help in quickly accessing the correct resources when they are needed. The relevant actors include:

- Professional interpreters and translators, the companies for whom they work and their organizations;
- Bilingual emergency response staff and trained volunteers, especially those with the same cultural background as the migrants;
- Members of the migrant community who speak the local language, including leaders and representatives from groups and organizations;
- Members of the consular corps of migrants’ countries of origin;
- Professional cultural mediators;
- Staff and volunteers of emergency management actors that have received training in cultural mediation.
The package includes a form and a matrix that can be used to build a directory of available resources for translation, interpretation and cultural mediation (“M3_translators stocktaking” and “M3_translators matrix”). It is recommended that they be used to collect information on the relevant individuals and organizations, including their contacts, which languages they can assist with, and which services they are willing to be engaged in before, during and after emergencies.

Training or briefing these groups on emergency management terminology and scenarios can help in working more effectively in times of emergency.

The Emergency and Disaster Interpreting Initiative was established in Turkey in the aftermath of the 1999 Marmara earthquakes. Before then, interpretation in times of emergency in Turkey was provided only on an ad hoc basis (mostly in displacement sites) by any person proficient in the languages needed. In the aftermath of the 1999 earthquakes, however, Turkey acknowledged the presence of a large number of foreigners, including many foreign search and rescue teams coming to Turkey to provide assistance. As a consequence, professional translators and interpreters launched a training programme in collaboration with the Turkish Civil Defence and the Turkish Translators Association. The Initiative has been active since 2000, and about 300 people have received 100-hours of basic training. The training is aimed at enabling trainees to take action during disasters if there is a need for translation or interpretation services. The Initiative is supported through the collaboration of an NGO, a State institution and a university, and has resulted in a number of studies on the establishment, use and benefits of interpretation services in emergencies and disasters.

Media

Migrants often resort to their own information channels to access or validate information in emergencies, including through institutional actors and media from their country of origin or from third countries, as well as community-based mechanisms.

During Hurricane Sandy, Bangladeshi migrants living in New York used news sources from back home. The operator of Bangla Patrika, a website that aggregates Bangladeshi newspapers, reported that he had been receiving calls from Bangladeshis living in the United States who were seeking his advice. An estimated 150,000 Bangladeshis were living in areas of New York and New Jersey that were severely flooded and damaged by the hurricane.
Taking stock of which channels the various migrant groups actually use to communicate, how they might function and how they could be leveraged in emergencies is crucial in reaching out to their audiences for the dissemination of awareness-raising information, early warnings and emergency communications. These channels include:

- Representatives from local consular corps;
- Television and radio stations from the migrants’ home countries, or from other countries in which their language is spoken;
- Local radio stations, including Internet radio stations;
- Local area systems (such as loudspeakers or sirens);
- Physical locations (such as community centres, churches or other religious centres);
- Community representatives and leaders, wardens and gatekeepers;
- Key social network profiles and websites;
- Door-to-door communication systems and telephone chains.

It should be noted that these actors and channels are likely to play a role in the circulation of information in emergencies regardless of their actual involvement in coordination mechanisms. Ensuring that coordination actually takes place is key not only to providing targeted communications more effectively, but also to disseminating consistent warnings and information that do not undermine people’s trust in mandated institutions.

**Coordination mechanisms**

There are a variety of ways to integrate external actors into emergency preparedness, response and recovery work – more or less formal, and more or less adapted to coordinate with specific actors. Some of the most relevant options are described in the sections below.

**Preparedness and response plans and structures**

Identifying the relevant actors, assigning them responsibilities and coordinating their responses is a key element of preparedness planning. Contingency, evacuation and emergency communication plans represent a key option for leveraging the capacities of specific stakeholders.

---

In 2007, wildfires in California engulfed 368,316 acres and destroyed 1,751 homes and businesses in San Diego County. The disaster had a devastating, long-term impact on the livelihoods of migrant farm workers. The Farm Worker CARE Coalition witnessed the exclusive nature of how emergency information was disseminated and relief services provided, and committed to creating an emergency plan specific to this community.

A preparedness plan was developed and shared among Coalition agencies, in coordination with authorities, local administrations and other actors working in emergency preparedness and response.
Coordination can take place by including community-based organizations and their focal points, consular posts and migrant leaders in the command structure outlined in the plan, and by listing their responsibilities as part of overall response efforts. Emergency communication plans can identify specific media outlets and communication channels through which messages can be disseminated in parallel with those that are better established (such as the mainstream media). They can also make provisions for including the interpretation and translation of messages, and arrange for the involvement of the relevant professionals.

**Memorandums of understanding and service agreements**

Setting up memorandums of understanding, standard operating procedures and service agreements among emergency management authorities and other relevant actors can help mobilize resources and capacities in an effective and timely manner in emergencies. Such agreements can be of assistance in improving mutual understanding between the relevant institutions and in identifying potential bureaucratic and operational issues, resolving them well in advance of an emergency situation – or at least creating a less contentious and problematic basis for service delivery when a crisis hits.

Service providers that might be particularly relevant to this end include:

- Transportation companies (both local and long distance);
- Telecommunication companies;
- Health-care providers;
- Interpretation and translation companies;
- Mass media.

The training package includes a template for a memorandum of understanding between an emergency management agency and an international organization (“M3_MoU example”). It covers such aspects as:

- General principles;
- Information exchange;
- Joint action;
- Areas of cooperation;
- Confidentiality;
- Intellectual property;
- Dispute resolution.
Referral mechanisms

Setting up referral systems can be useful in ensuring that affected migrants, especially those who have specific needs, can be assisted by professional, dedicated service providers. These systems are particularly effective in complementing the assistance provided by the emergency management actors when they do not have specialized capacities. These cases might include:

- Child welfare;
- Eldercare;
- Mental health care;
- Legal assistance on migration issues;
- Cultural mediation;
- Interpretation and translation;
- Issues specific to asylum seekers and refugees;
- Victims of trafficking.

Referral systems should also support the actual activities provided, by enabling people to make appointments with the relevant professionals, facilitating the referred person’s transfer to the relevant venue, providing information about costs and following up with the person after the referral.

Bilateral, multilateral and regional agreements

Coordination and cooperation among governmental actors is likely to be defined through bilateral, multilateral or regional frameworks, which might be developed and agreed upon by institutions within governments that are not directly affected in emergency response, especially pertaining to matters such as border management and immigration.

However, mechanisms for cross-border cooperation on emergency preparedness and response, including joint contingency planning and simulations, might be developed directly by emergency management actors and their counterparts in third countries.

Similarly, they can be part of coordination agreements between the government of the host country and the resident diplomatic missions.

Instructions and recommendations

When there are no formal coordination agreements in place, informal or unilateral instructions and recommendations can be issued by the emergency management authority to help ensure that other actors’ efforts align with and contribute to the work of the local response system.
Chile has recently developed a manual for emergency preparedness and response that targets foreigners in its territory. The manual lists a series of measures that embassies and consulates are recommended to take, including:

- Maintaining an updated register of their nationals living in Chile, with personal data, addresses and telephone numbers in Chile and in their homeland;
- Giving ample orientation to the visitors and residents of their own nationality, including by promoting the manual among visitors and residents;
- Promoting community-building activities among their nationals living in the same areas;
- Promoting safety and security for their nationals residing in Chile;
- Selecting in advance safe places in which to locate evacuation shelters in neighbourhoods where large shares of their nationals live or stay (such as sports clubs);
- Training and preparing their nationals so they are able to work with first responders in the case of an emergency affecting their community;
- Training personnel to act as links between their nationals and their families back home in order to support surging needs for information in the aftermath of an emergency;
- Nominating focal points to link with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Chile.

Working groups and consultative mechanisms

Consultation with the various components of an at-risk or affected community is key to inclusive emergency management efforts. It is often the responsibility of mandated emergency management agencies to ensure that there are forums in which all groups within the local society (including migrants and host communities) can voice their concerns and highlight their needs and priorities.

While it might not be easy to set up these processes during emergencies, the participants (such as community members and migrants) can provide useful inputs to prevention, preparedness and recovery work. By improving the transparency of the decision-making processes, they can also increase the credibility of the emergency response actors and the levels of public satisfaction with their work.

Particular attention should be paid towards ensuring that, in addition to recognized migrant leaders and representatives, potentially marginalized groups also have a voice. This might include promoting the participation of groups that have no recognized coordination or leadership structure, for instance, by setting up dedicated forums.

A more detailed description of these activities is given in Chapter 5.
KEY LEARNING POINTS

- A variety of mechanisms exist to engage and coordinate with the different relevant actors.
- Whether formal or informal, these mechanisms can be leveraged to complement the capacities of emergency response actors and to provide more effective, timely and adequate services.
CHAPTER 4

Profiling, quantifying and localizing migrants
## CONTENTS

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AIM OF THE CHAPTER

Participants are able to identify which data they need to better inform emergency preparedness, response and recovery efforts in communities hosting migrants.

Participants are aware of the existence of the relevant sources of this information, and of ways to collect first-hand data, should other sources not be available.

INTRODUCTION

Understanding the presence of migrants in a given location, their living and working conditions, and their individual needs and preferences, as well as how their groups and communities are structured and work, in normal times and in times of crisis, is fundamental to informing the efforts of any actor, before, during and after emergencies. This knowledge can be helpful in planning for and responding to emergencies through more targeted efforts. It is also key to understanding what impacts migrants suffer as a consequence of a crisis and how well dedicated preparedness, response and recovery efforts have worked.

The conditions of vulnerability that migrants might experience during emergencies are largely rooted in underlying pre-crisis factors, such as social exclusion, physical marginalization, poverty and xenophobia. This is not the focus of the present training course, which covers more proximate causes of migrants’ vulnerability by addressing interventions that contribute to improving their access to information and resources in emergencies. However, looking at these dimensions is essential to understanding the issues and obstacles that risk management and emergency management actors might face when working with migrants and their groups.

Generic, aggregate information is often available for identifying main migration routes and destinations, demographic and professional features of the different migrant groups, and the main risks migrants face along the routes and in their destinations. However, understanding precise numbers, whereabouts, characteristics and conditions of migrants can be a much more difficult endeavour.

Non-citizens are a very diverse group that include permanent and temporary labour migrants (employed in all productive sectors and in a variety of settings ranging from large factories to households to agricultural businesses in isolated rural locations), tourists, students and migrants in transit.

All of these groups arrive in the country and many individuals continue moving within and outside its territory in response to different factors and according to different cycles. These cycles include: the agricultural sector’s seasonal calendar, which affects agricultural workers; periods of intense demand in the manufacturing sector, which affects migrant workers; major holiday periods, which affect both incoming tourists and labour migrants returning home; and the academic calendar, which affects international students, as well as daily and weekly commuting patterns. Hence, the picture of migrants’ presence changes continuously, and only
a share of this change is likely to be adequately captured, and especially migrants’ movements within and out of the country are likely to go unrecorded.

Migrants who regularly enter a foreign country are usually accounted for by border services, or immigration or local authorities. However, many enter a country in a completely undocumented manner. Other migrants might decide to stay well over the expiration of their initial visa, or to change the purpose of the issued visa. Tracking the presence and movements of undocumented migrants is particularly difficult, as they are not likely to register with a host country authority or service provider. Facing possible arrest and deportation, they often go unaccounted for in preparedness and response efforts.
TOPIC 1: MAIN SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Having at least a basic understanding of the number, whereabouts and characteristics of the population in a given area at risk or affected by an emergency is essential for all aspects of preparedness and response. Understanding the key features of the presence of migrants enables preparedness and response actors to carry out these efforts in a more targeted manner. In the absence of comprehensive and updated official statistics, there are a variety of other sources of data and information that can support the work of the host country’s emergency management system, and that can be, to different extents, available and accessible (see Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1: Main sources of information for data collection on migrants

Host country’s governmental authorities

People entering a country in a regular manner are usually recorded in border or immigration authorities’ registers, as well as in those of local authorities. Such systems might include:

- Centralized and local-level population registration and census systems;
- Special-purpose registers or databases on foreigners (such as those on aliens, asylum seekers or people with stay permits);
Passenger surveys and border card systems that collect information on cross-border movements;
Household sample surveys that include questions pertaining to emigrants, even though emigration might not be their main focus;
Border sample surveys.

Some of these systems may include information that is relevant – although not necessarily updated – for emergency management, including the individual migrant’s registered address, workplace and contact information, and an emergency contact back home. More often these systems will provide aggregate information that can be analysed to help users understand migrants’ stocks and distribution in the country, as well as their trends.

Mexico offers Guatemalan workers a variety of options for documented stay and formal employment. The Government manages a database with information on the workers’ residence in the country, employment details and their family residing in the country. This information is complemented by special-purpose databases, such as the one managed by Grupos Beta, a service of the National Institute of Migration, which collects information on migrants (mostly undocumented migrants in transit through the country) so they can be offered assistance and support. During the 2007 Tabasco floods, Grupos Beta was one of the only actors to have updated information on the large population of “invisibles” who were affected by the floods.

Every foreigner visiting India on either a student, research, medical or employment visa valid for more than 180 days is required to register with the Foreigners’ Regional Registration Offices and with officers having jurisdiction over the place where they intend to stay. This must be done within 14 days of their first arrival, irrespective of the duration of their stay. Foreigners visiting India on other categories of visa valid for more than 180 days, including business or journalist visas, do not require registration with the relevant Foreigners’ Regional Registration Office if the duration of the stay does not exceed 180 days on a single visit.

Foreigners possessing tourist visas are required to register only if they re-enter the country within 60 days of the last departure. No registration is required for children below the age of 16 years. It is mandatory for all foreigners to appear in person at the applicable Office for any visa-related services. Registration usually takes one day and is free of charge – however, delayed registration can lead to a penalty equivalent to USD 30.

It should be noted that official databases often provide a very inaccurate snapshot of the reality because of the presence of undocumented migrants, of the existence of free movement/circulation agreements, and because of people’s post-arrival mobility. Tracking individuals’
post-arrival mobility is particularly complicated in areas characterized by an intense circulation of people (such as border areas, inner cities and slums), where these tools rarely reflect the actual patterns of short-distance, short-term movements.

**Home country’s governmental authorities**

A small number of countries keep track of their citizens’ presence abroad for emigration, health, labour and education purposes through registration and tracking systems. In addition, home countries’ consular posts often have their own registration systems that are kept in order to be able to provide consular services (such as family registries, electoral lists and fiscal registries). These registries can represent a ready-made source of information on migrants, including their demographic characteristics, whereabouts within the host country and occupation, and may even be used by the home country authorities in planning for emergencies.

Many other countries have travel registration or advisory systems that allow them to be aware of their nationals’ presence abroad, to maintain communication with their nationals to raise their awareness about potential hazards in the country they are in, and to provide them with any useful information in cases of emergency.

It should be noted, however, that many countries do not systematically record their citizens going abroad. Registration is usually done voluntarily, and such systems are not always used by migrants due to costs, bureaucracy, an unwillingness to “formalize” their situation or the fear of consequences should their presence be known to home-country agencies involved in, for example, revenue and taxation or police matters.

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**The Department of Foreign Affairs of the Government of Australia**

The Department of Foreign Affairs of the Government of Australia has a specific registration system as part of its emergency preparedness and response efforts. Australians are invited to register at embassies or consulates or online. Data on their presence and whereabouts help embassies and consular posts to inform their contingency or emergency planning. Registers include contact details (personal e-mail addresses and mobile telephone numbers), through which the embassy can contact their nationals in the event of a crisis in order to convey key messages, tips, advisories and general information. The information received by registrants will be consistent with what is available elsewhere through their usual communication channels (such as official communications by the Department, consular posts’ websites, and Australian and other English-language media).

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**Mexico**

Mexico has a smartphone application that enables the straightforward consular registration of their nationals in the United States. As many Mexican migrants in the country possess a smartphone or have access to a computer, the application has been a successful option for registering and communicating with nationals in the country, which is the main migration destination for Mexicans.
In Sri Lanka, social media and mobile telephones are being used to facilitate communication between migrants and consular authorities during emergencies affecting the migrants’ places of destination. In order to facilitate tracking (and communicating with) migrants during emergencies, the Government of Sri Lanka has established a national database on migrant workers. Workers are registered via the special SIM cards migrants receive upon departure. This system is particularly useful when it is necessary to reach out to those working in isolated areas or in private households.

When the Government of the Philippines formally established diplomatic relations with The Syrian Arab Republic in 2009, it could only roughly estimate that the number of Filipinos in The Syrian Arab Republic was between 9,000 and 20,000, most of whom worked in private households and were undocumented. The Philippines embassy and consulates in the country started building a database to capture the migrants’ presence. In order to do so, consular staff checked the records of the Philippine Overseas Employment Administration, solicited information from immigration and labour authorities in The Syrian Arab Republic, and contacted the Filipino community in The Syrian Arab Republic to reach nationals working there. These efforts enabled the embassy to create its database of Filipinos working in the country, which facilitated their location and extraction at the onset of the 2011 civil war.

Some institutions in migrants’ home countries also collect information on their nationals’ whereabouts in emergencies, including through field-level surveys by consular staff deployed to assist in emergencies.

After the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami, representatives from the British Diplomatic Service of the United Kingdom (working both at local embassies or consular posts and in the capital) were dispatched to affected areas to deliver consular assistance to affected British nationals, particularly those who could not be immediately evacuated or who were in the care of local hospitals.

Other actors

A variety of additional actors can also have information or compiled data that can be useful to understand better the migration picture in a given area or country, as well as to look for missing migrants in emergencies. Such actors may include:

- Placement and recruitment agencies, in both countries of origin and countries of destination, which might keep track of numbers, professions and locations of the migrant workers they have deployed.
The Philippines-based LBS Recruitment Solutions Corporation specializes in the global supply of professionals and skilled workers. LBS Recruitment produced a geo-locating interface that uses Google Maps’ geolocation technology (history location) to locate migrants. Use of the interface facilitated the successful evacuation of 97 workers from Libya in 2011.

- Employers, who can provide information on the workers they employ, including by providing details on their working times and presence at the workplace. However, they might be reluctant to provide details on undocumented workers and might hide any information that could show they do not respect labour laws (for example, having staff work overtime hours, or having an excessive number of employees in a given structure).
- Unions, especially those that are relevant to the sectors in which large numbers of migrants are employed.
- Migrant groups, organizations and representatives.

During the Gulf War in 1990/1991, crisis management officials from the Philippines relied on the advice of members of the local Filipino community when providing information on the needs and locations of their nationals in affected areas. This information supported the provision of relief efforts, as well as the evacuation of 28,000 workers.

- Churches, mosques and temples, and faith-based organizations.
- Community centres.
- Tour operators, hotels, hostels and their organizations.

Following the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami, tour operators and hotels in Maldives were a valuable source of information on affected tourists’ whereabouts and conditions.

- Remittance transfer and international communication companies. While their information might not capture the presence of individuals in a specific location, it can be useful in analysing trends.
- Service providers (such as telecommunications companies, water and energy suppliers, schools, insurance companies and health-care service providers), which might provide information on the number of users they serve. The information can be analysed to identify an estimated population presence in a given area. While not disaggregated by migration status, this information may help to provide an understanding of migrants’ presence and patterns of movements during the day, week, season and so forth, in at-risk or affected areas, including those areas that host large numbers of migrants.
Civil society organizations, particularly those working directly with migrants, which often have a clear picture of the composition and distribution of local migrant groups, even though such knowledge does not often extend beyond the boundaries of the area where they directly operate.

- Academic institutions, including universities, colleges and trade schools.
- Larger non-governmental bodies and international organizations, which might engage in collection and standardization of data related to migrants’ presence, occupation, status and so forth. In some cases, such information is systematically compiled in statistics reports that are made publicly available.

Caritas Italy and the Migrantes Foundation have collected and analysed data on migrants’ presence in Italy for about 25 years. The data are presented in an annual report, disaggregated by migrants’ origin, sex and distribution across regions. The report also provides a picture of their education and employment.

The International Labour Organization has set up a database to collect international labour migration statistics in the Association for Southeast Asian Nations region. The initiative has generated inputs and technical assistance for the improvement of national databases on migration. While it does not provide data on the precise locations of migrants affected by emergencies, it does contain basic information on flows, stocks and trends. Statistics from the International Labour Organization are available from www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/lang--en/index.htm.

It is often necessary to draw upon a variety of these sources in order to gather a clear, comprehensive picture of migration in a given area. This is especially the case for the more “invisible” groups of migrants, including undocumented ones, who are the most likely not to appear in official databases. However, none of these systems is perfect, and there is likely to be a significant amount of overlap among the various sources. Validating this information by cross-checking the data and doing further research would increase its usefulness; however, it is not always logistically possible.

Surveying existing data and data sources and building a directory of the relevant actors before a crisis, as well as setting up agreements for information-sharing and use could help paint a more accurate picture of migrants’ presence and could be an effective way to ensure that all of the available information is sourced and captured during an emergency.
KEY LEARNING POINTS

- Host country and home country authorities, as well as other actors in home and host countries, are likely to have a wealth of different information and data on migrants’ whereabouts and characteristics.
- Data are likely to be incomplete or outdated due to both the elusiveness of undocumented individuals and the mobility of migrants within and outside the borders of the host country.
- Compiling and verifying various sources of data might help draw an accurate picture of migrants’ presence, which can effectively inform emergency management efforts.
TOPIC 2: GATHERING FIRST-HAND INFORMATION ON MIGRANTS

Emergency management institutions often collect information on the at-risk or affected communities with which they work so as to provide a better understanding of their composition and characteristics, of the impacts these communities might experience (or have experienced) and of the needs they might have in emergencies. This information is used to better plan for future emergencies and to provide more targeted, adequate services and assistance during relief and recovery phases. If the community of beneficiaries includes migrants, it might be necessary to adapt data collection efforts in order to capture their conditions and needs adequately. This can be done by adapting the way data are gathered and by complementing the information that is usually collected for other population groups with specific details that are especially relevant to describe migrants’ needs and conditions.

Adapting data collection is relevant for the community profiling work that might be performed in anticipation of future emergencies (for instance, in order to plan for a possible evacuation or to set up stockpiles of essential relief goods). It is also important for the impact assessments and needs assessments or the displacement tracking efforts that may be carried out in response to an emergency (for instance, in order to inform the delivery of food and non-food items, or to alert other actors in charge of providing specific services).

In both cases, emergency management actors are usually responsible for specific data collection efforts that involve information not readily or fully available from any other actor. While many countries have such systems (and allocate resources to ensure they are rolled out in order to provide detailed, comprehensive and updated information), they do not always capture the appropriate information that can help capture migrants’ specific conditions of vulnerability, needs and capacities.

Options for collecting data

There are a variety of ways to collect data, each with advantages and shortcomings (see Table 4.1 for some salient examples). In Figure 4.2, the advantages and disadvantages are looked at systematically. These information-gathering systems can also be combined in order to provide an aggregate, higher-level understanding of communities (for example, through focus groups with key informants) before looking at more detailed information (for example, through individual interviews).
### Table 4.1: Tools for collecting information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Shortcomings</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Face-to-face interviews</td>
<td>• Provide detailed information on individuals and households</td>
<td>• Lengthy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Allow for clarifications and follow-up on questions and answers</td>
<td>• Costly</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Require presence of a surveyor in the field, which might not be an option,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>especially during emergencies</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Potential language and trust barriers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telephone interviews</td>
<td>• Provide detailed information on individuals and households</td>
<td>• Lengthy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Allow for clarifications and follow-up on questions and answers</td>
<td>• Contacts needed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Less expensive than a face-to-face interview</td>
<td>• Exclude migrant households without telephones</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Might not be possible without a reliable telephone connection</td>
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<tr>
<td>Paper questionnaires</td>
<td>• Provide detailed information on individuals and households</td>
<td>• Questions might be unclear</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Less expensive and less time-consuming than interviews</td>
<td>• Information collected might not be easy to comprehend</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Cannot be used with people unable to read or write</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Could require the presence of a surveyor in the field, which might not be</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• an option, especially during emergencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online questionnaires/forms</td>
<td>• Provide detailed information on individuals and households</td>
<td>• Questions might be unclear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Possibly less expensive and less time-consuming than any other system</td>
<td>• Information collected might not be easy to comprehend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Cannot be used with people unable to read or write</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Cannot be used with people who do not have Internet access</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interviews and focus group</td>
<td>• Cost-effective and easy to organize</td>
<td>• Results are not statistically significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>discussions with key informants</td>
<td>• due to flexibility involved in arranging for a small number of participants</td>
<td>• Not useful for collecting information on individuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Can help in identifying collective features and characteristics</td>
<td>• Provides information only about specific migrant groups and from a single</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• person’s perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Collection Methods</td>
<td>Community Consultations</td>
<td>Registration Tools/Applications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|                                 | ❍ Cost-effective  
|                                 | ❍ Can help in identifying collective features and characteristics                        | ❍ Unlikely to be statistically significant  
|                                 | ❍ Less useful for collecting information on individuals                                   | ❍ Logistical challenges in organizing (e.g. availability of a location where migrants feel safe; interpretation in relevant languages)  
|                                 | ❍ Logistical challenges in participation (e.g. time of the day, transportation costs)    | ❍ Logistical challenges in participation (e.g. time of the day, transportation costs)  
|                                 | ❍ Selected representatives may not represent all community members                       | ❍ Selected representatives may not represent all community members                                      |

**Figure 4.2: Strengths and weaknesses of the different data collection methods**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Collection Methods</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Face-to-face interviews</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Telephone interviews</td>
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<td>Paper questionnaires</td>
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<td>Online questionnaires</td>
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<td>Interviews and focus groups with key informants</td>
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<td>Community consultations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Registration tools/applications</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* ICT = information and communications technology.
In order to have statistically significant results, it is necessary to identify a sample group of respondents that is representative of the composition of the surveyed community, regardless of the system that is actually used to collect data (such as face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews or paper questionnaires). However, some methods, and particularly those that involve groups or their representatives (such as focus groups and community consultations), might be by design very unlikely to produce statistically significant information. Even a superficial and generic understanding of a community, its composition and its members’ characteristics and assets, however, can be extremely valuable to better guide emergency preparedness, response and recovery efforts.

While being consulted might be a welcome change for many communities, there have been cases in which communities have reported “consultation fatigue”. These exercises are likely to be most effective when the respondents understand how their inputs will inform policymaking or decision-making processes, especially when they receive regular feedback on how their inputs are being used or observe first-hand the changes their contribution is fuelling.

Many such exercises also provide opportunities for feedback on local actions, service provision and so forth, and tools should be in place to capture the feedback in order to improve policies and planning.

**Interviews**

Face-to-face interviews with migrants can be a good way to obtain detailed information at the individual or household level, and may provide the most solid base for statistically significant data. However, the process of collecting and analysing data at the household level is a lengthy endeavour and especially costly if the involvement of interpreters and cultural mediators is required when reaching out to specific individuals.

Linguistic and cultural barriers and trust issues may be significant for interview responders (particularly in the case of face-to-face interviews, when physical interaction is needed). This could mean that interviewees may not be willing to interact with the interviewer (for example, due to an unwillingness to speak to an “authority” or due to gender roles), which can undermine the data collection process.

Interviewers might need to be bilingual or specifically trained in or briefed on the relevant aspects of the migrants’ customs and culture, or they might need to be accompanied by an interpreter or a mediator. Interpretation and mediation, however, might not be an option in the case of telephone interviews, which are also not an option for households that do not have a (registered) telephone number.
Researchers in North Dakota in the United States sought to understand how different communication strategies reach particular populations before, during and after a crisis. Using telephone interviews and focus groups, the researchers studied attitudes and concerns about crises and the sources of information used by at-risk populations. They analysed the methods used to access or to receive information that were identified by respondents as being the most trusted ones. Telephone focus groups were found to be a cost-effective way of getting the views of experts across to specific populations.

Questionnaires

Paper and online questionnaires to be returned to the relevant authorities are likely to be less costly than interviews. The analysis, especially of online forms, is also likely to be less time-consuming. Both can be distributed or sent to a specific sample of households (via mail or e-mail) or made available for feedback by an undetermined audience (for example, a form on a website or a paper form freely available at key locations). In the second case, it is unlikely that the information collected would be comprehensive or even representative of the local community. Questionnaires can also be filled in anonymously, which can help address trust issues.

Questionnaires may pose fundamental language and trust issues for respondents, and these are less easily mitigated than in the case of interviews, as no interpretation/mediation or clarification of the questions is possible. The respondents’ inputs might also be unclear or not to the point or useful.

Interviews and focus groups with key informants

Identifying key informants and interviewing them (individually or collectively) is one of the least expensive ways to achieve a better understanding of the characteristics of a given community. While these processes will likely provide only a partial snapshot of a migrant community from the point of view of a single individual or organization, they can be useful to start building an understanding of a group or community. These processes can be carried out in parallel with efforts to identify community-level organizations and other stakeholders that are relevant to asset mapping or contingency planning. Such exercises are also useful for surveying a variety of actors and ensuring that the informants that are actually chosen have a comprehensive perspective of the target community.

In the United States, authorities in Sonoma County, California, surveyed local civil society organizations to gather information on the numbers, locations and needs of their beneficiary population in order to develop a contingency and emergency communication plan for local groups with specific needs.
The training package includes a form that can be used to gather information on migrant groups collectively, rather than on individual migrants, with the sole aim of emergency planning (“M4_profiling tool migrants”). An electronic version of the sample form is also available from https://form.jotformeu.com/60605615991358. It is recommended that the form be used as a template/checklist for focus groups/interviews with key informants from local migrant groups, while keeping in mind that the information might need to be adapted (for example, if the focus is more on response/recovery than on preparedness, or if other information is more relevant to the local context).

The form has sections on: contact information; the group’s demography, location and composition; frequently used media and communication channels; social structures and community life; and community asset mapping for emergencies.

Community consultations

Consultations might also be an effective way to capture the composition of a whole community; however, they present specific logistical challenges. Securing a venue that is not too difficult to reach and is well-known and trusted by the migrants might be essential to their attendance, as is choosing a day and time that works for people with various occupations. Possible trust issues, and food, privacy and dress code requirements also need to be taken into consideration when organizing these events.

It is particularly important to make sure that all of the relevant components of the community are represented and actually participate – more vocal community members might end up being overrepresented in an open debate, and marginalized or excluded minorities might find it very difficult to voice their concerns.

The Australian Emergency Management Institute conducted a study exploring the disaster risk management capabilities of communities with migrant and refugee backgrounds, with specific attention paid to Pacific islander and Bhutanese groups. Researchers engaged with the two groups in a series of consultations, including semi-structured individual interviews, to:

- Share information, questions, ideas, knowledge and so forth;
- Develop strategies to support local action;
- Improve local migrants’ risk understanding and buy-in in emergency preparedness and response actions;
- Share relevant information;
- Build connected networks and relationships, ownership and trust.
**Online and application-based registration tools**

Setting up specific registration and tracking tools for emergency preparedness and response is a costly option that may be useful in capturing information, at least on basic features of migrant communities and their locations. Such tools can help support systems that provide real-time early warnings and emergency communications, including by supporting multilingual information dissemination. While registration can be done anonymously, it requires users to provide their contact information and, in the case of multilingual support, information on the language they speak. Registration can therefore create trust issues, or even be avoided for involving culturally unacceptable practices.

In a 2006 study, African community members in Oregon opposed the idea of giving their contact information to health service providers. Some of the reasons provided by those interviewed were: negative past experiences with local public institutions that had led to the death of a member of the community; they had no relationship with the health department and therefore did not trust that the information would be used correctly; the list could be used to name certain individuals whose medical tests did not meet the standards/requirements of the local health agencies (and that they could be deported based on this information); and the list itself was antithetical to how the group communicated culturally.

**Data to collect**

A variety of information can be useful for emergency preparedness, response and recovery efforts, and highlight potential conditions of vulnerability the migrants might face. Knowing such details as numbers, living and working locations and patterns of movement of migrant groups, as well as demographic characteristics (age, sex) and health status, including disability, is fundamental in planning for and responding to emergencies in any community. Having additional details can, however, be helpful in further targeting migrant-specific efforts.

Such data can be collected by observing people’s living and working conditions, their access to services and availability of assets, as well as by studying their needs and reactions in past emergencies.

The sections below mostly reflect and build on the elements of the community profiling tool included in the toolbox (“M4_profiling tool migrants”).

**Migration status**

Migration status is a key determinant of a person’s vulnerability. Undocumented migrants, newcomers and migrants in transit, as well as stateless persons, may face legal and administrative barriers to accessing formal employment, housing and basic services. In addition, they may be not be permitted, or may be unwilling, to move within or out of the country or to seek assistance with response actors. They are also less likely to be covered by medical insurance or public welfare, including unemployment benefits, and relief and recovery support.
As a consequence, understanding people’s migration status can help emergency management actors anticipate some recurrent issues for different groups of migrants affected by emergencies. It could be difficult to gather this kind of data at the individual level (through interview or surveys) due to people’s reluctance to speak about such a sensitive topic. Having broader, aggregate estimates from key informants might be a more realistic option to understand this element.

**Linguistic proficiency**

Knowing which languages the migrants speak is fundamental to emergency communications and service provision. This means knowing whether migrants speak the local language (and their level of proficiency), what their native language is and which other languages they speak, keeping in mind that the place of origin and mother tongue do not necessarily correspond. In addition, this might require understanding whether migrants are literate (including whether they can read the local script).

**Preferred communication channels**

Understanding how information circulates within the different migrant groups is key to building more effective emergency communication systems. This includes knowing whether migrants use:

- Mainstream media of their country of destination (public and private national television and radio stations);
- Television and radio stations and newspapers of their home country;
- Their embassies and consulates;
- Local and community-level media (television and radio stations, including Internet radio stations);
- Specific social media pages of individuals and institutions;
- Informal, community-based communication systems.

Gathering contact information and other details is crucial to ensuring that these communication channels can be easily and effectively leveraged for emergency communication purposes. It is also necessary to understand whether they are likely to function in an emergency situation, and if not, which other communication channels the migrants might use instead.

**Living conditions**

Migrants often live in particularly risky or marginalized areas. In order to understand the ways in which their day-to-day living conditions influence their vulnerability to crises, it might be necessary to understand whether they live:

- In areas or buildings that are particularly prone to hazards;
- In remote or isolated areas, or in areas that could be out of reach to responders in the event of an emergency (including due to a lack of adequate infrastructure);
- In socially segregated areas (for example, in neighbourhoods populated almost exclusively by migrants, who have little communication with other groups).
Employment status

Having formal employment and social protection through welfare systems can reduce the impacts of a crisis and can determine how well a person manages to recover in its aftermath. A variety of employment-related factors are relevant in determining a person’s vulnerability, including:

- Type of occupation and location of workplace;
- Whether the job is formal or informal (for example, if a worker has a regular contract or has been registered as required);
- Whether the worker is a member of a union;
- If the worker is a victim of abuses by the employer (for example, documents or salary has been withheld);
- If the worker is covered by social insurance schemes, including those for crisis-induced unemployment, whether by the employer or recruiter, home or host country welfare system;
- If the work is in an isolated location (for example, a worker on a remote farm or in a remote factory, or a domestic worker alone in a family’s home).

Behaviour in emergencies

How a person reacts in an emergency is dependent on a variety of individual characteristics. However, recurrent traits can be identified that characterize different groups, and these can inform preparedness and response efforts. Such factors include:

- Level of awareness of local hazards and of response options;
- Involvement in workplace, household and community preparedness efforts, plans or drills;
- Level of trust in and fear of authorities;
- Way in which a person validates the warnings he or she receives (for example, by asking neighbours, relatives or authorities);
- Availability of transportation options for evacuation (for example, whether a person has a private vehicle, whether his or her area is served by public transportation, or whether there are planned evacuation services);
- Whether the person feels comfortable leaving his or her home unguarded.

Cultural traits that are relevant to service provision

Customs and culturally determined preferences influence all aspects of service provision, including:

- Food restrictions and requirements (for example, a group does not eat specific foods, has to respect specific rituals or times);
- Privacy requirements, dress codes and etiquette (for example, specific greeting codes for addressing members of the community; no physical or verbal interaction between men and women, including emergency workers; specific clothing requirements; and specific space requirements);
- Perception and acceptance of health care and psychosocial support;
Need for religious celebrations and other rituals, including treatment of the dead;
- Need for other collective gatherings, including those that might be necessary for decision-making or recovery.

**Unmet needs**

While evaluating the unmet needs of people affected by crises is a common feature of post-impact assessments, understanding the specific challenges and barriers that affected migrants might be encountering is key to providing adequate services. Looking at whether cultural specificities, trust issues, fear and xenophobia are leading to migrants’ inability to access some forms of assistance and support is key to ensuring that these obstacles are addressed and that the impacts of a crisis on migrants are mitigated. This information can also be useful for referring migrants to other service providers that might be able to serve them better through appropriate assistance (such as civil society organizations, international actors or clinics).

**Movement intentions**

Migrants’ patterns of movement in emergencies are often more complex and involve longer distance travel than those of members of their host communities.

Understanding whether migrants may wish to move out of an area at risk or affected by a crisis, and whether they have the means to do so, is key to planning for their evacuation and assistance and to developing appropriate long-term solutions. This includes understanding:

- Whether they wish to leave the at-risk or affected area or country, and when;
- Whether they have the means to leave;
- Where they would be headed, and what support they could count on in their place of destination (including back home);
- Whether they would wish to return to the country at a later stage, and whether they would be permitted or able to do so.

This information is required by emergency management and other host country actors in order to plan for the provision of response in the affected areas and in other parts of the country (for example, to set up shelters and food distribution areas at a distant site). It can also help in planning for international evacuations or return back home, and may be essential to working effectively with transportation actors and border management authorities, including those of third countries. Lastly, this information can be important in facilitating migrants’ re-migration, as it might be needed by the host country’s immigration and labour authorities. Even though these tasks go well beyond the mandate of emergency management actors, they can play a key role in gathering and disseminating this information in a timely manner before and during crises, thereby supporting broader response and recovery.

**Contact details**

In order to improve information circulation before, during and after emergencies (and therefore the effectiveness of emergency preparedness and response efforts), it is often necessary for emergency management actors to have access to the contact details (telephone
numbers, instant messaging system details, e-mail addresses and social network profiles) of the representatives, or gatekeepers, of the main migrant groups and communities (elected representatives, heads of households, religious leaders, teachers and elderly members of the community), and of the non-governmental organizations and community service organizations that work with migrants.

In addition, it can be useful to collect information on the relatives, leaders and community members (including those living back home) that the migrants might wish to contact in emergencies.

**Collecting and sharing data**

All data collection and tracking efforts present risks relating to migrants’ privacy and security. The information migrants provide may be confidential and should not be available for any uses other than those for which it was provided, unless permission had been granted by the migrants or if it is a matter of the migrants’ survival.

As part of all data collection efforts, it is therefore necessary to clarify which data would be used for which aims. In particular, it may be important to stress that the data would be used for emergency preparedness, response and recovery purposes only, and that they would not be used in any way to alert local immigration, taxation or border service authorities in the migrants’ host and home countries. Unless these assurances are provided, it is unlikely that vulnerable migrants, especially those who are undocumented, would provide any information at all.

Data can also be collected anonymously (or collectively) – hence the usefulness of the group profiling tool included in the training package (“M4_profiling tool migrants”).

Setting up a non-threatening environment for data collection may also be necessary. This may require:

- Involving interpreters and translators (or bilingual staff members) and cultural mediators in events and interviews, in order to minimize linguistic barriers;
- Involving individuals trusted by the migrants (such as leaders or representatives, priests or imams, or teachers) in events and interviews, ensuring that they introduce or clarify the exercise and its purposes for the respondents;
- Training or briefing the individuals in charge of data collection on the cultural specificities of the migrant community;
- Having trained community members directly perform the data collection, which can also improve outreach and reduce data collection costs;
- Co-organizing or co-advertising the information gathering exercise with organizations trusted by the migrant community, which can also promote community ownership of the process;
- Being flexible with the scheduling of events and interviews in order to enable the migrants to participate;
- Covering or reimbursing the costs linked with participation;
Organizing events at locations in which migrants feel safe (known locations such as community centres, churches, mosques or temples), and in which their privacy can be respected;

Organizing data collection efforts in conjunction with community events, including awareness-raising events or preparedness drills;

Specifically reaching out to and involving minorities, particularly vulnerable migrants.

All efforts to collect data should be guided by the principle of “self-identification”, which means that people should be allowed to decide whether to declare themselves part of a certain migrant group or to avoid being recognized as a member of a group. This is especially important in group or participatory data collection.

Sharing information, and in particular aggregate statistics, about migrants might, however, be necessary – for instance, with home country authorities working to protect and assist their nationals, or with other actors in charge of search and rescue, service provision and so forth. Similarly, emergency management actors might need to access information that has been collected by other organizations.

In all of these cases, it is important to have pre-established data collection and sharing agreements that specify how the data should be collected and in which form and under which conditions it could be shared, as well as how they can be made more useful to the counterparts. These agreements are best developed in advance of potential future emergencies.

The United Nations Economic Commission for Europe’s Guidelines for Exchanging Data to Improve Emigration Statistics explores the possibility of using immigration data in receiving countries to improve emigration data in sending countries. Guidelines are provided for countries interested in applying this approach to improve their emigration data. Advice is also offered on how to enhance the compatibility of the data collected, processed and disseminated between migrants’ countries of origin and countries of destination.
KEY LEARNING POINTS

- There are a variety of options for collecting first-hand data before, during and after emergencies, each with specific benefits and shortcomings.
- The status and conditions of migrants can affect all aspects of emergency preparedness, response and recovery, and the relevant data encompasses a variety of domains, including communications, behaviour in emergencies, and needs and preferences for service provision.
- Collecting information is a sensitive issue, particularly when it is potentially vulnerable individuals whose data are being collected. Creating clear and safe conditions for data collection exercises is necessary to avoid fear and to promote effective data collection.
- Establishing data collection and sharing agreements with other relevant actors is essential, whether it is the emergency management actors that provide other service providers and authorities with information, or the other way round.
CHAPTER 5

Involving migrants in preparedness, response and recovery efforts
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AIM OF THE CHAPTER

Participants are aware of the main opportunities and challenges linked with actively involving migrants in emergency preparedness, response and recovery efforts, and of how the recruitment of staff members and volunteers of emergency actors should be adapted in order to better target migrants.

Participants are aware of ways to build migrants’ trust in emergency management actors and of what to avoid in order to prevent manifestations of mistrust.

INTRODUCTION

Active participation of migrants in emergency response and recovery work in their host countries is a recurrent “feel good story” in the aftermath of crises of all kinds. While migrants do engage in many types of emergency-related work, to the benefit of their groups and the affected community, their efforts often take place in an ad hoc, unstructured and unprepared fashion. Overall engagement of migrants in volunteer and professional emergency management work is often likely to be less than that of the native population. In fact, evidence from around the world points to this being the case.

Despite this fact, engaging, training and retaining migrants in emergency preparedness, response and recovery structures is becoming increasingly important for the sustainability of their host countries’ emergency management work.

First, active participation of migrants in emergency management systems is key to ensuring that local migrant groups are actually reached and serviced during emergencies. Migrants (particularly, but not exclusively, migrant leaders, representatives, gatekeepers and wardens) play a vital role in disseminating and validating information to the benefit of other migrants, and in directly assisting them throughout emergencies. These forms of grassroots assistance are particularly important in helping those migrants who might be isolated or unwilling to have contact with the mandated preparedness and response institutions.

Second, migrants represent a significantly large share of the population of certain countries, districts, cities or neighbourhoods – often much more than a minority, but rather one of the main demographic groups. In addition, migrants tend to be overrepresented in the working-age groups, representing an especially important component of the resilience of ageing communities and societies. Without their engagement, their communities fail to leverage skills, resources and capacities that can be vital for the safety and well-being of all community members in emergencies.
TOPIC 1: IMPROVING MIGRANTS’ ENGAGEMENT IN PREPAREDNESS, RESPONSE AND RECOVERY WORK

Evidence from a variety of countries consistently shows that migrants tend to be less engaged than natives in working, whether as volunteers or professional staff, with emergency management actors.

This is sometimes due to migrants having a cultural background in which voluntary and community service work might not be common practice, or might be limited to family, kin or community-based support systems. In these cases, it can be particularly complicated to involve migrants directly in targeted volunteering and recruitment efforts. In other cases, migrants might come from countries in which emergency management structures are not equally organized, or do not coordinate effectively with grassroots actors.

More often, however, a lack of engagement is likely to result from a mix of:

- A lack of awareness of local opportunities for engagement;
- Fear or mistrust of host country institutions, resulting in reduced willingness to contact them;
- Reduced interest in engaging in efforts benefitting a community that is perceived only as a temporary destination;
- Reduced understanding that the host community might need emergency preparedness and response work – including due to a sense of “safety” for having reached their destination (particularly in the case of newcomers);
- A lack of culturally appropriate participation spaces, especially for migrant groups who might already have mutual support mechanisms that are not adequately leveraged or coordinated within the host destination’s emergency management system;
- Xenophobic and discriminatory acts, more or less blatant or violent, particularly on the part of other volunteers and staff members of institutions involved in emergency response;
- Inability to engage due to practical impediments (such as linguistic or administrative barriers).
In order to improve migrants’ levels of volunteering in disaster management, the Australian Emergency Management Institute supported a survey of young migrants and refugees in the Melbourne area on their knowledge of the local system and interest in and barriers to joining it for volunteer work. The main findings of the consultation included the need to address cultural obstacles to participation and fear of xenophobic stances by co-workers and beneficiaries alike, as well as the need to overcome material barriers (such as the time and resources available) to commitment. As a follow-up to the consultation process, local disaster management institutions, such as the Melbourne Fire Brigades, directly involved, trained and eventually hired young migrants to act as preparedness and response leaders for their respective communities. In Victoria, Australia, the firefighters at Broadmeadows have gone a step further to develop strategies such as trainings delivered in Turkish and adapted to Turkish culture and customs. In addition, they have formed partnerships with the local Migrant Resource Centre, Islamic schools and Turkish media.

Reduced engagement is an issue particularly for recently arrived migrants, migrants and other foreigners who are only transiting through a given area or country or might otherwise be planning on staying for shorter periods (such as tourists), migrants who are part of a group that does not have a well-established local presence, and undocumented migrants.

Understanding and addressing the barriers that prevent specific migrant individuals and groups from engaging is vital to improving their inclusion in emergency management structures. In turn, by successfully engaging, training and retaining them, emergency management actors can leverage migrants’ diverse skills and capacities, thereby improving the quality, quantity and coverage of the services they provide, and making their action more inclusive and effective.

**Engaging migrants in emergency management work**

Recruiting and training volunteers and staff members is a key part of the work of emergency management actors worldwide, both before and during emergencies. In societies in which migrants represent a significant share of the population, effectively targeting and including them in such efforts may be necessary to ensuring that emergency management institutions have sufficient personnel to respond to emergencies effectively, and can build specific capacity to reach out to and serve migrant groups and other minorities. This may be particularly important so that especially marginalized migrant groups, including undocumented migrants, newcomers, people in transit and short-term stayers, can be adequately reached and assisted in the event of an emergency by leveraging pre-existing structures and capacities within their communities.

As a consequence, a range of governmental agencies (national and local), local authorities, and emergency management actors have set up a variety of dedicated programmes to engage, train and retain migrants in preparedness, response and recovery work. The challenges these programmes have to address are recurrent; they therefore represent a body of experience that
can be of great use in guiding and informing further work, including in different geographical contexts.

The International District is one of Seattle’s most diverse inner city neighbourhoods, with first-, second- and third-generation residents with Asian, Pacific island, African and Hispanic backgrounds. For at least three decades the local emergency response system has worked with the International District Emergency Center to provide more inclusive preparedness and assistance in the highly diverse area. The Center responds to calls within the International District alongside the fire, medical and law enforcement departments. It provides residents, non-profit organizations and businesses with fire- and life-safety education and cultural sensitivity training. Disaster personnel have even volunteered with the Center to attain first-hand experience with the International District culture and challenges. The International District Emergency Center is open 24 hours a day to support disaster management actors with culturally competent staff and dedicated resources.

Institutional engagement

Regardless of their structure, aim or intended target groups, in order to be successful, programmes for enhancing migrants’ participation require the full engagement of the institution that is promoting them. This means that the staff working on the programme, as well as other staff members, volunteers and the institution’s management, must be committed to achieving the aim of the programme.

Those responsible for promoting migrants’ participation in emergency management activities might use the following points, which could be relevant to an institution’s operations:

- Migrants represent a significant share of the local population. The institution is required to assist them, and they should be assisted through dedicated efforts.
- Migrants represent a significant share of the local pool of potential staff members and volunteers. The institution needs to employ them in order to have enough staff to ensure its own sustainability.
- The institution derives a number of benefits from hiring migrant volunteers and staff members, including:
  - Improved response effectiveness through the development of local capacities;
  - Enhanced ability to work in multilingual and multicultural environments;
  - Improved ability to reach out to potentially marginalized groups;
  - Reduced costs that derive from this increased internal capacity;
  - Diversity of skills, experiences and perspectives, and the possibility of peer learning and creative problem solving.

Previous success stories (from projects not necessarily related to emergency management) can help highlight the benefits to the organization. In doing so, these benefits can help in increasing the commitment of the institution’s staff to such programmes.
The institution’s full engagement should also be reflected in its mandate, outreach documents, human resources documents and procedures (including routine trainings for staff members and volunteers), and mechanisms to receive feedback on and address episodes of discrimination based on nationality, ethnicity or migration status. All of these elements should clearly promote the inclusion of migrants in the institution’s structure and work (for example, by recognizing migrants as partners and as a specific group of beneficiaries entitled to assistance) and actively fight discrimination, including less blatant episodes. If an individual or group is responsible for the coordination and recruitment of volunteers, they should be made aware of the importance – to the organization and the broader local community – of including migrants and of fighting discrimination.

Engaging the senior staff of the relevant organizations in the activities (including having them attend meetings, trainings, workshops and so forth) can help increase migrants’ interest in the process, as they see their inclusion is being valued.

More generally, these initiatives work better if the institution spends time and resources cultivating relationships with migrants and their organizations and groups. This can be done through service provision, dedicated outreach efforts and non-discriminatory and inclusive behaviours.

Designing programmes to improve the engagement of migrants

A variety of existing programmes to recruit and train volunteers and staff members for emergency management purposes could be adapted to address the specific characteristics of migrants and to promote their effective engagement. Similarly, a range of awareness-raising and capacity-building programmes that already target migrants for various aims could be adapted in order to improve migrants’ involvement in emergency management efforts. Examples of these programmes that could be adapted to this end include:

- Courses and workshops to assist migrants in their adjustment in their host country, delivered on a voluntary or mandatory basis upon their arrival;
- Language courses;
- Preparedness drills, events or programmes at workplaces or schools, which could actively involve the family members of the migrant workers or students;
- Workshops or courses for administrative issues, for which attendance would be required (for example, to issue visas or driving licenses).

All of these courses or events represent opportunities to increase migrants’ awareness of, and engagement in, existing mechanisms for emergency preparedness and response, and to build their capacities to contribute to overall response efforts (for example, through first aid trainings).
Recognizing the language problems, lack of understanding and access barriers that characterize their intervention in high immigration communities during disasters, emergency management authorities in central Ohio in the United States have started actively supporting programmes to recruit and train volunteers from the Latino community.

Since 2010, various agencies have trained more than 360 bilingual community volunteers to respond to major fires, floods, tornados, terrorist attacks and other disasters. The training consisted of four full days (nine hours each) of learning first aid, fire safety, light search and rescue techniques, and the psychological effects that disasters can have on people. Lessons were held on Saturdays in order to maximize attendance. Trained volunteers are then involved in official emergency drills. They receive some basic relief supplies, such as a dust mask, first aid kit, flashlight, goggles, hard hat, leather gloves, reflective vest and a wrench, in order to make them better able to respond effectively in emergencies.

Coordination with local community-based organizations is now being explored in order to train additional key representatives from the local community, particularly community-health volunteers, who already work to bridge the gaps between Latino residents and health and human service providers, and who are well acquainted with community needs.

Prioritizing certain groups over others

While in principle having an inclusive recruitment process that targets migrants from all groups and demographics might be desirable, it might not be a practical option (too costly, or too difficult to engage members of certain groups). Hence, it might be necessary to prioritize certain groups over others. Criteria that can guide prioritization include:

- Size of the migrant group in the area or country: Larger groups are more likely to represent a larger share of affected persons in emergencies. However, smaller groups might have fewer resources, capacities or networks available for self-help.
- Time since the group’s establishment in the area or country: Engagement of members of better-established groups might be easier to obtain. However, groups of newcomers are likely to be more vulnerable in emergencies.
- Demographic composition: Younger groups and second generations might be easier to engage; hence, developing specific programmes targeting them (for example, though schools) might be particularly effective.
- Level of marginalization/vulnerability: Undocumented migrants, informal workers and migrants in transit might be particularly difficult to engage, and getting their direct involvement in emergency preparedness, response and recovery programmes is especially challenging.
Language proficiency: Organizations have different capacities for producing materials in various languages, and the size of the audience differs depending on the community of the speakers. In addition, in some communities many will be proficient in the local language, while in others, many will not.

Simplifying application procedures

Procedures to recruit and to train staff and volunteers might need to be simplified, and emergency management actors could do this by setting up a variety of dedicated channels for the application process and by ensuring that the administrative requirements for applying and volunteering or working are reduced to the minimum. If participation by migrant groups is to be specifically promoted, practical requirements for their engagement (for example, less time spent in capacity-building events and being on call) might need to be reduced as well.

In all cases, the criteria for the selection of applicants should be clear. In addition to physical/health or skills requirements that might be common among native workers or volunteers, linguistic proficiency in the local language might be included if the course is to be given in the local language with the aim to build the capacity of bilingual workers.

Setting up trainings targeting groups of migrants, rather than individual migrants, and allowing migrants to apply collectively or through their groups might help participants overcome possible fears of participating.

Adapting the language of the programme

Migrants are likely to come from diverse backgrounds, and it is therefore crucial to convey the programme content in a way that is understandable to all those who are involved in the programme.

Adapting the programme to make it more appropriate to migrant volunteers or workers and to promote their engagement might require translating programme materials (substantive documents, as well as awareness-raising materials, if needed) or simplifying their content. This could include using as little text as possible in the materials, keeping to the essential concepts and using as many visual elements as possible.

The language in which the events or trainings are imparted should also be translated or simplified. Interpretation is an option whenever the trainer does not speak the migrants’ language or whenever migrants are part of a broader, mixed group of participants. It is preferable, however, to have bilingual people in charge of actually delivering the training, or people who have been trained to use simplified language.

Simplification is also achieved by ensuring that learning is as activity-based as possible. Not only is this a good practice for adult learning in general, but it also helps in showing practical examples and in bridging potential gaps in understanding.

It is particularly important to have shared terminology – not all groups have the same experience or understanding of the different hazards or emergency preparedness and response
mechanisms, and it should not be assumed that basic concepts are necessarily commonly known.

If the programme is not delivered exclusively to members of a migrant group, establishing a “buddy system” with representatives from the home community can help improve migrants’ understanding of and participation in the programme.

**Adapting the content of the programme**

Migrants might have specific capacities and skills, including those that are a result of previous experience in emergencies (such as involvement in preparedness and response efforts, or knowledge of signs of impending hazards or ways to react to them). Building on migrants’ resources, including by designing activities through which they can actively contribute their knowledge and ideas, and having their contributions integrated into the programme and into the institution’s work would benefit a country’s whole emergency management system.

In addition, migrants and their groups might have specific priorities and concerns for potential upcoming emergencies. Ensuring that these needs are captured and used to develop more targeted materials can be key to their engagement.

**Adapting the delivery of the programme**

The environment in which the programme’s events actually take place should feel non-threatening so as to minimize trust barriers to migrants’ participation. Meetings, particularly those that take place early on in the process (such as those on advertising the programme), should occur in a familiar environment, such as at a local association, community centre or religious centre used by migrants. Conditions should be secure enough to allow people to identify themselves as members of a minority or migrant group, as well as to express themselves and fully participate.

In some cases, the programme’s schedule and location might need to be adapted, taking into consideration the migrants’ workplaces and hours, or religious or national holidays, to ensure they can attend. Delivering specific sessions or activities at key locations in the migrants’ community can also be useful in further engaging migrants and their groups in the process.

The amount of time allocated for the programme might also need to be adapted when working with people speaking different languages or from different cultural backgrounds.

**Ensuring the sustainability of migrants’ engagement**

Once migrants have been involved in a training or recruitment programme, it might be necessary to set up specific measures to support them in order to maintain their engagement. This is particularly the case for volunteers.

Making migrants feel valued is key to this end. This requires showing that they have been selected based on merit, capacities or potential, and not only because of their nationality or ethnic background. It is important to give them opportunities to develop new skills and to take on responsibilities.
In addition, targeted evaluation processes (of both migrant workers and of those who have benefitted from their activities) can help monitor their experience (what has worked, what has not) and redesign roles and responsibilities in ways that are better adapted to the migrants’ capacities and constraints. Open and informal feedback from the migrants should be promoted.

Migrants can assist in reaching out to a broader pool of potential recruits and resources by championing the programme to other members of the community. At the same time, leveraging community representatives and organizations or other institutions can help in further fundraising and recruiting.


### Raising migrants’ awareness about existing opportunities

A lack of information on existing opportunities for engagement with emergency management actors might be one of the reasons why migrants are less likely to volunteer or to work with such institutions. Information on recruitment and volunteering opportunities should be disseminated through a variety of channels that would reach migrant groups effectively (not unlike the awareness-raising and emergency communication messaging discussed in Chapter 6).

Deciding how to reach out to the different groups should be based on an understanding of how they usually access information, and which sources of information they usually trust (this information can be collected through profiling exercises, as described in Chapter 4). Using ethnic media or community-based and face-to-face channels is often especially effective. Introducing the programme through a community information session, organized in collaboration with civil society or migrant organizations, or hosting members of the community so they can provide testimonials about the programme, can be powerful ways to engage other migrants.

Other outreach materials and messages (such as leaflets, and television and radio advertisements) should address the doubts and misconceptions migrants might have regarding the role and functioning of the institution, as well as the implications of working or volunteering with it. This might be done by, for instance:

- Ensuring that migrants know that they are being explicitly targeted through dedicated recruitment efforts;
- Clarifying whether the institution has a religious affiliation or connotation;
- Clarifying whether the work is paid or unpaid;
- Highlighting if specific profiles, skills or languages are particularly desirable;
- Specifying the minimum skills (including language proficiency) and level of engagement required.
All visual materials (television advertisements, brochures and leaflets) should visually reflect the kind of diversity that the institution is planning to achieve.

Migrants can be specifically motivated to work or volunteer with emergency management actors if the benefits they can derive from their engagement are highlighted, including:

- Being part of an institution and a local network of professionals or volunteers;
- Developing skills and increasing employability;
- Contributing to the well-being of their groups and host communities;
- Becoming champions of cultural change and integration for their own group and their host community.

**Migrants as cultural mediators, interpreters and translators**

It is important that preparedness and response actors working in diverse, multicultural environments have linguistic skills and cultural competence. Collaborating with migrants to improve service delivery in emergencies is a rather simple objective that can be achieved with relatively limited participation and engagement of the migrants before an emergency.

The first step in recruiting migrants (for paid work or as volunteers) is to identify the type of support they would provide in an emergency situation. Their contact data can be gathered to create a roster or contact directory to facilitate mobilization in times of need. Such a database can also be useful in identifying if there are specific language needs that are not covered – and if so, whether recruitment activities can be pursued to fill the gaps.

The identified migrants can be targeted through specific trainings, especially on matters related to intercultural communication, terminology specifically relevant to emergency management, and preparedness trainings to improve their effectiveness in emergency situations. Depending on their skill set, these individuals can be mobilized before and during emergencies to support the follow activities:

- Translation and revision of messages, outreach materials, signs and so forth.
- Revision of preparedness plans, evacuation shelter set-ups, food arrangements and so forth to make sure they adequately cater to the specificities of migrant groups.
- Manning of hotlines and information points before and during emergencies.
- Interpretation whenever a staff member of a preparedness and response institution needs to communicate directly with migrants who might not be linguistically proficient (for example, for awareness-raising campaigns, door-to-door early warnings, registrations in evacuation shelters or service provision).
- Assistance in interviews and counselling as part of health-care and psychosocial support, even though this is a particularly sensitive activity:
  - If possible, participating migrants should be specifically trained to perform these kinds of duties in emergency contexts;
  - In all cases, participating migrants should be made aware that they are subject to the same standards and obligations as the other workers (professionalism, non-discrimination, confidentiality and anything else that might be applicable).
In 1990 the city of Sendai in Japan established the Sendai International Relations Association (SIRA) to promote international exchange and intercultural relations within the local population. For over 20 years, SIRA has been providing language courses, support for children with a migration background and general guidance for foreign residents living in Sendai. It carries out research, organizes intercultural festivals and issues newsletters, guidebooks and a monthly electronic newsletter.

In 2000 SIRA started running the Sendai Disaster Interpreter Volunteer Programme, which aims to include foreign residents in disaster risk management. Local authorities were aware that it was just a matter of time until there was a large earthquake and in 2010 commissioned SIRA to set up the Sendai Disaster Multilingual Support Center. The Center started operating less than two months before the great east Japan earthquake struck the peninsula on 11 March 2011.

Through the activities it had been running over the years, SIRA had developed a strong network within the local migrant population and was a trusted, respected institution. As a consequence, when the earthquake struck many migrants spontaneously volunteered to handle enquiries and to provide information in foreign languages. As a result it was much easier to mobilize migrants after the earthquake in 2011 than it would have been if SIRA had not existed.

Working with migrants and their representatives to improve outreach and assistance

Whether formally included in preparedness, communication or response efforts or not, migrants (especially trusted or authoritative members of the local community) and their organizations play a key role in preparedness and response. The tasks that these actors tend to perform spontaneously in emergencies include:

- Facilitating the adaptation, circulation and validation of risk information and communications;
- Coordinating responses at the local level;
- Advocating with response institutions and other actors on behalf of a group.

Identifying and empowering these individuals and organizations can be particularly effective in improving the ability of emergency management actors to reach out to and assist migrant communities. In carrying out these kinds of efforts, these actors can benefit from having a clear picture of the structures and organizations that operate effectively within a given migrant community, of the way they function and of the services they provide. (More details on how to build a directory of local organizations are provided in Chapter 3.)
A variety of options are available to strengthen migrants’ capacities and to coordinate their efforts with the work of the other response actors, including:

- Collaborating with them in developing awareness-raising materials, early warnings and emergency communications that are consistent with official messages and adapted to the needs and capacities of the migrant audiences;
- Formally including them in coordination and emergency communication structures in order to improve their access to emergency information and to clarify their roles and responsibilities;
- Building their capacity to act in emergencies through targeted preparedness trainings to ensure that they contribute as much as possible to the overall response and do not act based on subjective priorities and previous experiences alone;
- Providing material support, including by providing them with the relevant equipment (such as telephones and credit, and radios) to contact other migrants in the area;
- Supporting the establishment or updating of a comprehensive contact directory for the local migrants or their associations and groups, or of a contact chain that could help disseminate information efficiently during emergencies.

A consortium of institutions in Maryland in the United States (including a migrant-focused community service organization, the County Department of Health and Human Services, and the University of Maryland), developed a project to improve the emergency preparedness of migrant communities. Called Project PREP, it was based on an assessment of local low-income Latinos’ awareness of risk and preparedness measures, linguistic proficiency and needs. The Project was carried out through a series of focus group discussions with the relevant members of the community.

Under Project PREP, the consortium then developed a curriculum to train emergency health workers, professionals who already had good knowledge of and relations with the target groups and who already performed relevant awareness-raising and service provision functions. The health workers were trained and then led educational sessions on emergencies and emergency preparedness, focusing on understanding emergencies, developing a family emergency plan, and preparing an emergency supply kit with essential items.

Assessments were conducted before and after the educational sessions to evaluate the impacts of the intervention on the participants’ awareness and preparedness. The intervention proved very successful, due to:

- The limited, realistic scope of the educational sessions;
- The trustworthiness of the participating community service organization and the workers in the eyes of the target audience;
- The skills, talents, creativity and enthusiasm of the health workers.
During the 2011 floods in Brisbane, Australia, migrant gatekeepers actively disseminated information to their communities, although the kind of information they shared and methods of dissemination they chose varied among them. Some encountered problems accessing emergency information that matched their communities’ needs, despite having access to mass media and direct channels of communication with key informants. They were also actively engaged in advocating throughout the recovery phase with mandated public institutions on behalf of their communities.

The gatekeepers were diverse individuals, with different disaster experience, knowledge, length of stay in Brisbane and reasons for coming to Brisbane. All of these factors affected their perception of risk and their individual behaviour in the emergency, including the way they filtered, adapted and disseminated information.

Consulting migrants in preparedness and recovery planning

Migrants have needs before, during and after emergencies that are often different from those of their host communities. At the same time, migrant groups and communities often show exceptional resilience due to their rich social networks and tight social bonds, the existence of effective mutual support mechanisms, and their capacity to tap into distant resources through the support of households and communities in the place of origin and more generally of the diaspora outside the affected areas.

Consultation with migrants, their representatives and their organizations is therefore essential for designing targeted emergency preparedness, response and recovery efforts, and for ensuring that migrants’ own resources and capacities are leveraged to support their overall long-term well-being. Setting up forums and processes for their active participation in the planning and implementation of preparedness, response and recovery efforts can help support inclusive emergency management.

Pacific islanders in Australia (particularly those from Tonga) showed a strong willingness to engage in reconstruction and recovery efforts after the 2011 floods through volunteer work (a key element of the mutual support mechanisms in their communities). The reconstruction process, however, did not always provide opportunities that matched their community-level discussion and decision-making style.

Consultative processes can be useful to:

- Provide an understanding of the specificities of the local migrant communities in order to design more targeted emergency preparedness, response and recovery efforts;
- Collect feedback on how specific activities and programmes are faring;
Inform the community (especially migrant groups) about the relevant decisions or progress of the emergency management and recovery process.

In addition, they represent an opportunity for migrants to contribute directly to the community in which they live and to influence, through the emergency management process, their longer-term prospects in the area of destination (including their access to basic resources, services, opportunities and political representation). Participation in emergency preparedness, response and recovery can therefore increase their involvement in the management of local affairs, including in normal times.

Consultative mechanisms often require some time to be established, and more time might be needed to integrate their inputs into planning and service delivery; hence, they are not easily set up in times of emergency. They can, however, be established as part of preparedness or (early) recovery efforts so that the information relevant to interventions can be exchanged before, during and after emergencies.

Having a clear picture of the composition of the local community, a contact directory of its representatives and organizations (see Chapters 3 and 4), and good working relations with the relevant groups can help speed up the establishment of consultative processes. Even though many of these initiatives come to light in the aftermath of emergencies, starting stocktaking and profiling exercises before the emergency may help in collecting more comprehensive information.

After the 2008 episodes of violence in South Africa, the consultations with, and the participation of, displaced migrants in the planning, implementation and monitoring of the response and recovery intervention was generally inadequate. Consultation processes were made more difficult by the linguistic and cultural diversity of the affected migrant groups, by the diverse conditions of individual migrants (such as legal status and willingness to collaborate), and by the lack of a ready-made representative leadership structure with which to consult.

Organizing consultations with migrant groups

Consultations can take place in physical locations or as virtual events. Both options present advantages and shortcomings that should be considered when planning for inclusive participation. Mixing the two solutions (for example, by setting up online opportunities for discussion and feedback in parallel with or in between physical gatherings) can help maximize participation by a more diverse audience.

In the case of live discussions (whether taking place online, by telephone or face to face) language barriers can be a key practical issue, and providing interpretation might be necessary to allow everyone to participate fully. Translation might still be needed in the case of questionnaires, feedback forms and discussions via written texts (such as e-mail), but it is usually more easily set up (reduced time constraints, potentially less expensive) than interpretation at a live event.
Attendance at live events might be hindered by specific issues linked with migrants’ work or holiday schedules (day of the week or hour of the day). Culturally specific etiquette and customs, as well as migrants’ capacity and willingness to speak in public or with specific individuals (depending on their role, sex or age), might be an obstacle in their participation, in particular in face-to-face meetings. Holding different meetings at different times and with different groups (including preparatory meetings with specific minorities) can help promote broader participation.

The costs of participating in meetings, especially face-to-face events (transportation, food and lost time), and the potential inability to participate due to economic reasons or distance from the event venue should also be taken into account when organizing live events. At the same time, attending virtual consultations might require access to technology – a potential barrier, especially for less wealthy groups. Technological barriers, however, can be partially addressed by equipping specific locations (such as a community centre or a migrants’ association) with the relevant technology, and using these locations to gather groups of people who might not be able (or willing) to join individually.

Choosing an adequate venue can have an impact on people’s ability and willingness to participate. Locations that have a specific value or that are well known or “owned” by the migrant community (such as community centres and associations, churches, temples or mosques) can help increase participation and ownership of the process. Such sites are likely to become hubs of response and recovery efforts regardless of official activities (for example, they may function as evacuation shelters, host distribution of relief items, or host collective commemorations and gatherings). If designated coordination centres for response and recovery already exist, they can represent an important option to increase migrants’ awareness of emergency management arrangements and available options for assistance.

**Ensuring broad participation**

Consultations can be open to all members of a community or restricted to their representatives, depending on the size of the venue, the available budget, whether there is enough time, availability of interpreters and flexibility of scheduling. What is important is ensuring that all groups within the local migrant community are adequately represented and have a chance to participate actively. This might require giving specific attention to individuals and groups that might be more marginalized (such as low-income groups, people with specific professions, and women), including those that have less visibility within the migrant community itself.

The consultations can also include community-based and civil society actors working in support of migrant groups, who might have a wealth of information and insights on the challenges migrants face, their unmet needs and the resources they have available. In addition, these organizations (migrant associations, and local non-governmental and community-based organizations) are often already key actors in the dissemination of information within the migrant community, fundraising and advocacy on behalf of migrant groups, and even basic service provision (such as transportation, accommodation and food distribution). Identifying and collaborating with such groups, as well as promoting their leadership and ownership of the process, are important in making the process sustainable.
Involving these actors might also help in addressing potential issues linked with people’s attendance at the meetings. While it might be difficult to have the same audience attending all of the relevant meetings, as long as a core group of people participates regularly and actively the process can still be productive.

Consultative processes can also involve migrants (or their representatives) along with members of their host communities and people from neighbouring communities that might not directly benefit from the targeted action. This inclusion can help in reducing the potential for inter-communal frictions and tensions linked with the allocation of scarce resources, including the potential for xenophobic and discriminatory acts targeting migrants because they are perceived as receiving assistance unduly. Improved transparency in the decision-making process vis-à-vis the allocation of resources can reduce the potential for such tensions.

After the Christchurch earthquakes, recovery authorities set up regular community meetings with representatives from culturally and linguistically diverse groups, including migrants, as well as a mailing list for the dissemination of information among the relevant community representatives. The Ethnic Leaders Forum in particular worked with key agencies to inform the response and recovery process and to act as a targeted information dissemination channel for the respective minority groups.

These efforts resulted in the creation of the Community Language Information Network Group, established as part of the inter-agency framework for response to the Christchurch earthquakes. The Group comprised representatives from the Christchurch City Council, Canterbury Earthquake Recovery Authority, Christchurch Resettlement Services, Community and Public Health, Human Rights Commission, Interpreting Canterbury, Ministry for Pacific Peoples, Partnership Health Canterbury and a local radio station.

Chinese and Pacific islanders’ community clubs were identified as key hubs for the circulation of information and for access to resources and assistance for the respective communities in the affected areas. They were provided with resources and were supported by the relevant actors in the overall recovery process. The involvement of community leaders and representatives in the recovery efforts, including through pre-earthquake inter-agency networks, was well appreciated by the migrant communities.

The process also resulted in a set of guidelines on increasing the preparedness of emergency management actors (central and local governments and civil society organizations) to communicate with culturally and linguistically diverse communities in emergencies.
KEY LEARNING POINTS

- Migrants might participate less than native groups in emergency management activities. However, they constitute both a key pool of potential resources and a key group of beneficiaries.
- Ensuring that initiatives to involve migrants directly in emergency management efforts are supported at all levels by the relevant institutions, as well as building upon pre-existing networks and relations, is key to the success of the initiatives.
- A variety of existing opportunities can be leveraged to reach migrants in order to increase their awareness of and engagement in emergency management activities. At the same time, existing capacity-building and engagement opportunities need to be adapted to reflect the specific skill sets and needs of migrants.
- Working with migrant organizations and representatives is key to setting up efficient engagement mechanisms, but it may mean excluding migrant groups that are under-represented within their own community.
TOPIC 2: BUILDING TRUST IN LOCAL ACTORS AND WARNING AND RESPONSE SYSTEMS

Before and during emergencies, migrants might have reasons not to trust, or reasons even to fear, emergency management actors. In other cases, they might fear or not trust members of their host communities. Fear or a lack of trust has significant impacts on migrants’ conditions in emergencies, including by affecting:

- The way migrants perceive warnings, instructions and communications (for example, whether they believe them, or whether they need additional proof from a trusted source before they believe them);
- Their willingness to comply with instructions given by officials and institutions, particularly evacuation orders and directions;
- Their willingness, or lack of it, to look for external assistance during and after emergencies.

A lack of trust in local authorities and communities is therefore a key driver of migrants’ specific vulnerabilities, which cannot always be fully overcome in times of emergency through the action of emergency management actors alone. It represents one of the main recurring obstacles that highlight how adopting a one-size-fits-all approach to civil protection and emergency management work often results in increased vulnerability of some groups. If migrants are less willing to evacuate or to look for assistance, and unless proactive, adapted efforts are rolled out, they will be most likely to suffer disproportionate impacts in emergencies.

A lack of trust is often based on migrants’ previous individual and collective experiences with institutions and host communities. Experiences of other members of the same group, or of members of other migrant groups, might also affect a migrant’s perceptions of how trustworthy a given institution is. Experiences with other public institutions (such as discrimination by basic service providers or harsh treatment by the police) might equally reduce trust in emergency management actors. Even previous experiences with institutions in other geographical contexts (for example, a lack of trust in corrupt institutions in their area of origin or transit) might end up contributing to migrants’ lack of trust.

After the 1989 Loma Prieta earthquake in California, many members of the Latino community were found to avoid fenced-off shelters based on previous experiences with imprisonment in camps in countries of origin, as well as fear of aftershocks due to previous experience with earthquakes (such as the 1984 earthquake in Mexico City).

A lack of trust tends to be a particular issue for undocumented migrants, for whom contact with emergency responders might translate into a referral to immigration authorities and deportation. This might happen even in contexts in which official guidelines on emergency management guarantee assistance regardless of migration status or even suspend enforcement of the relevant immigration laws and regulations.
Specific ethnic groups, including those that are less established in the area, or workers in specific sectors who are particularly targeted by discrimination and xenophobic violence might also have a reduced level of trust.

In the aftermath of Hurricane Sandy, research showed that many migrants avoided trying to access assistance for fear of deportation or reprisal, including undocumented migrants who would have qualified for non-cash assistance only. Even though undocumented migrants were much more likely to avoid contact with the authorities, such behaviours were also common among regular migrants and parents of children born in the United States – who would have qualified for full assistance.

Trust in institutions and host community members is a structural issue that can only be fully addressed through community-wide, long-lasting efforts that change policy, institutional practices and the individual behaviours of a variety of actors, including workers in key institutions (such as police, health-care providers and immigration enforcement) and private individuals (such as employers, politicians and members of the host community). While emergency management institutions might not have simple, rapidly effective options to enhance migrants’ trust in the preparedness and response system, they play a role in overcoming these barriers.

**Structure and functioning of emergency management actors**

Ensuring that migrants can enjoy services and assistance before, during and after emergencies without being discriminated against based on their nationality, migration status, culture, ethnicity, religion or race is key to building their trust in the system. Changing institutions’ policies and adapting their routine activities to take into account the specific conditions of migrants are important to this end.

In addition, it is essential to build the awareness and competence of staff members and volunteers who will be working concretely with migrants so they can provide more adequate services. Hiring bilingual workers, training personnel in culturally competent service provision or even simply briefing them on the specificities of the migrant group they might serve in an emergency can all help to this end (see Chapter 1 for more details). Internal procedures and human resources rules can also help in ensuring that positive behaviours are valued (for example, by rewarding and valuing positive behaviours by staff members and volunteers).

**Setting up opportunities for participation and dialogue**

It can be useful to set up opportunities for participation and dialogue among migrant groups and emergency management actors. In addition to dedicated events, these can include:

- Needs, impact and capacity assessments as part of preparedness, response and recovery planning;
- Contingency planning;
- Recovery planning.
These events can be organized in partnership with trusted institutions, community-based organizations and migrant associations, which might also be tasked with making the first contacts with migrants and their representatives.

These events represent opportunities for public authorities to develop their cultural competence, as they provide an opportunity for the authorities to learn about what obstacles migrants might face (such as misconceptions and discrimination). However, mechanisms should be in place to make sure that migrants’ inputs are actually used. Whenever migrants provide feedback through these mechanisms, it should be made explicit that their inputs are received and addressed, and whether or not (and how) they are put into practice. If the migrants do not see corresponding changes in policies and actions, they might further lose trust in the institutions.

**Communicating with migrants**

Setting up communication channels to disseminate information, including by communicating through the migrants’ preferred channels and media, can help build trust. In addition, joint communications (through such channels or others) with the institutions the migrants already trust can also be effective. Adapting outreach materials, institutional websites and communications in order to reflect respect and consideration for the cultural specificities of the migrant community can make the content of the communication better received. On occasion, adopting a non-threatening, recognizable mascot or symbol/logo has also helped emergency management institutions increase trust.

Information conveyed to migrants at all stages of an emergency should be clear and consistent, especially if there are multiple actors disseminating it. Specific efforts need to go into coordinating emergency communications and warnings. Communication should also include specific attention to migrants’ rights (paying particular attention to the fact that immigration regulations might be applied more flexibly in the aftermath of an emergency) and available remedies in case they suffer abuses. Clear statements on the systems’ shortcomings or abilities to intervene are preferable to partial information.

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After the 2011 Tohoku triple disaster, Japanese authorities were largely perceived to be reluctant to provide information on the actual levels of radiation and genuine risks faced by people living in areas surrounding the Fukushima power plant. As a consequence, many foreigners resorted to the media and consular services from their countries of origin for information.

**Deploying personnel**

Emergency management efforts often require the coordination of personnel from a range of organizations, and migrants are likely to have different levels of trust in or fear of these organizations. Understanding how the different institutions are perceived and planning for the deployment of personnel accordingly can be key to increasing migrants’ trust in the overall system.
Involving police, armed forces, border guards and similar institutions in preparedness and response efforts can be particularly detrimental to migrants’ willingness to seek assistance. It might therefore be beneficial to avoid deploying them in locations in which high numbers of migrants are likely to live or work. Instead, institutions such as fire brigades or neighbourhood police (and potentially many others in the actual local context, such as Grupos Beta in Mexico) might be much better accepted. Avoiding the deployment of uniformed officers (even though they might be working, for instance, with civil protection institutions) can also be useful; instead, responders could have a recognizable accessory, item of clothing or sign.

In case less trusted institutions such as the police or armed forced need to be deployed to high-immigration areas, their personnel might need to receive specific training and awareness-raising courses (including awareness of the perception that migrant groups might have of them), or they might be accompanied by specially trained or mandated staff. Otherwise, the migrants themselves can be involved as staff or volunteers in emergency management activities, joining the institutions’ workers in performing key tasks (such as gathering data, providing information and assistance during evacuations, manning evacuation sites or performing interpretation services).

Ethnic liaison officers from the New Zealand Police were a key resource to service the needs of migrants after the Christchurch earthquakes. They acted as translators and information brokers, and facilitated contact among affected migrants and the civil protection headquarters. In addition, they played a key role in identifying migrant victims. The linkages they had built with the migrant communities before the earthquake were key to these efforts.

**Accountability and remedies**

Increasing accountability in a country’s emergency response and recovery system vis-à-vis migrants and making sure they have access to remedies against abuses they suffered are vital to enhancing migrants’ trust in the system. There should be mechanisms in place to address migrants’ complaints effectively and fairly – otherwise they may result in increased mistrust in the local institutional system.

Fear of losing their belongings is one of the main reasons for migrants’ unwillingness to evacuate at-risk or affected areas. Therefore, there should be measures in place to ensure that migrants feel their belongings and houses would be protected in emergencies if they left, and that they would have access to support to recuperate or replace them.

**Awareness-raising efforts**

Raising migrants’ awareness of their rights in emergencies, existing assistance options and potential remedies to which they might have access if they suffered violations or abuses can increase migrants’ willingness to access emergency assistance. Specific efforts should target vulnerable migrants, especially undocumented ones and marginalized groups. However, it
should be noted that there can be tensions among different migrant groups, and that targeted assistance and support to some groups might reduce other groups’ trust in the institutions.

At the same time, raising the awareness of the members of the host community with regard to migrants’ rights, the reasons why they might receive differential treatment in emergencies by response actors, and migrants’ rights, capacities and possible roles as part of preparedness and response efforts, can help reduce the potential for tensions and xenophobic or discriminatory acts. Particular community groups that might have specific reasons to oppose or hinder assistance to migrants in emergencies should be the target of dedicated efforts.

Joint activities (whether directly related to emergency management or not) that involve members of all groups can help build mutual trust.

As part of the Australian Government’s National Action Plan to build community resilience to disasters, Emergency Management Australia engaged in a dialogue with culturally and linguistically diverse communities in order to improve mutual understanding and to enhance these community members’ access to disaster prevention, preparedness, response and recovery. There was a specific focus on highlighting the distinctive features of the diverse groups composing Australia’s culturally and linguistically diverse communities, and on their specific needs and capacities in the face of crises and other emergencies. The dialogue provided the basis for activities to improve the capacity of the emergency management sector to engage with these communities and to become more responsive to their needs. However, it also had an intrinsic, broader trust-building value because of the discussions, collaboration and participation fostered among specific groups and institutions.

**KEY LEARNING POINTS**

- The lack of trust in, or the fear of, certain institutions and host community members is a key obstacle that prevents some migrants from evacuating and accessing assistance in emergencies.
- While trust issues are linked to structural factors, a variety of measures available to emergency management actors can mitigate them, even though no “silver bullet” exists.
- Improving communications with migrant groups, raising their awareness of their rights and the options they have for acquiring assistance, deploying the right personnel in the field, and improving host communities’ and service providers’ understanding of migrants’ specificities can improve migrants’ trust in the system.
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AIM OF THE CHAPTER

Participants are aware of how to adapt the content and dissemination modes of awareness-raising messages, early warnings and emergency communications to target migrant groups more effectively.

Participants are aware of the main options and challenges that need to be considered and addressed when planning communications with communities that include migrant groups during emergencies.

INTRODUCTION

Communicating with at-risk and affected populations before, during and after emergencies is an important responsibility of emergency management actors. Developing and conveying awareness-raising messages, early warnings and emergency communications is key to improving people’s preparedness for potential and incoming hazards, enabling them to behave in ways that reduce the hazards’ impacts, and increasing their ability to look for assistance and support.

For the purpose of this chapter, awareness-raising products refers to materials developed and disseminated well before the occurrence of a hazard that provide general guidance and preparedness information. Early warnings and emergency communications are used to designate products and messages issued and disseminated immediately before or after a hazard strikes in order to guide at-risk and affected people’s responses to a specific event.

These materials and messages can be developed by national authorities and institutions (such as national civil protection agencies), covering the whole territory of a State or a region, or by local emergency management actors, particularly when some degree of local adaptation is required. While awareness-raising products can be issued by a variety of emergency management actors, including non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and private sector actors, emergency communications and even more so early warnings are usually produced and disseminated by official authorities.

When communicating with migrant groups, it is necessary to keep in mind that they have specific communication needs and use particular communication channels, and as a result the content of and the dissemination strategies for information products and messages may need to be adapted. Migrants might not be proficient in the local language, might use different media than the rest of the population, might not understand warnings and communications the way natives do, and might need to access information that is different from that accessed by other at-risk or affected groups. This can be especially the case for specific groups of migrants, such as those who have recently arrived in the host country or who are spending very limited time in a given destination (including both tourists and migrants in transit), those who come from very different social and environmental contexts and who might not be familiar with local hazards and procedures, and in general those who are less integrated into the host community (such as the elderly, migrants who interact mostly with people from their own groups, or those who work in isolated locations).
Communicating effectively with migrants before, during and after emergencies requires adapting the content and dissemination channels of awareness-raising and preparedness information, as well as early warnings and emergency communications, to address their specific conditions.

**Principles of effective communication**

In order to be effective, communication (both for longer-term prevention and preparedness aims and for early warnings and emergency response) must reflect a series of core principles, all of which have a specific scope when its audience comprises migrants, as discussed in the following sections. Effective communication is:

- **Appropriate and understandable:** it has to match the linguistic, literacy and knowledge levels of the audience in order to be understood.
- **Tailored and culturally sensitive:** it needs to provide information that is relevant to the audience in order to be used effectively.
- **Disseminated through multiple channels:** it needs to reach as large and as diverse an audience as possible through the different communication channels people actually use.
- **Delivered through trusted sources:** the information has to be perceived as reliable, otherwise it might not be used by the audience in an effective manner.

The main features of information on risks, potential emergencies and actions to take in response include:

- **Decision-relevant:** it has to convey information that is actionable in an emergency and that allows people to take the safest decision based on the information available.
- **Interactive/two-way:** it allows for integrated feedback.
- **Timely:** it is disseminated at the right moment and gives people enough time to prepare but not enough that they can ignore or underestimate the information.
- **Iterative:** it can be repeated over time either to strengthen or to update the messages.

**Figure 6.1: Characteristics of an effective message**
Practical tips for developing emergency messages

Dos

- Use simple, non-technical language. People in stressful situations have a difficult time understanding and remembering complicated information.
- Include only factual and verified information.
- Provide clear instructions on who needs to do what, when, how and why.
- Include sincere expressions of sympathy and concern for those affected by the crisis. Using pronouns such as we and our helps create a sense of solidarity with the affected community.
- Detail the positive measures and interventions taken by the response actors.
- Be clear about what can or cannot be done. Being precise and clear about the assistance options that are available enables affected persons to make appropriate decisions and hopefully to avoid unnecessary hardship, and can prevent unnecessary suffering of their families and communities.
- Acknowledge uncertainty, but explain the steps the institution has taken to verify information and get answers.
- It is appropriate to remind migrants that they are not alone in this situation, especially when an entire country is in a state of emergency.
- Make sure that the messages are consistent and verified.

Don’ts

- Assign blame to deflect criticism.
- Attack or antagonize people, organizations or the media.
- Use judgemental or patronizing statements.
- Be defensive or offer excuses; however, it might be appropriate not to fully disclose available information on security grounds.
- Ignore or inadequately counter erroneous information and rumours circulating in the media.
- Jeopardize the safety of victims by leaking sensitive personal information that could affect their well-being (for example, during hostage situations, or by revealing their location to traffickers).
- Promise what you or your agency cannot deliver. Making promises on behalf of a third party is not recommended unless you have worked with them for some time and know that what is being asked is definitely within their abilities.
- Speak on behalf of another agency or government. Never include statements from other agencies unless consent is provided and the information is adequately validated.
TOPIC 1: ADAPTING THE CONTENT OF INFORMATION PRODUCTS AND MESSAGES

Awareness-raising materials, early warnings and emergency communications tend to cover – to different extents – the following aspects:

- **Hazards** that might affect a given location, either natural (such as earthquakes, floods or fires) or man-made (violence, kidnappings or other crimes, or potentially dangerous events or meetings). They include information on:
  - When such hazards are most likely to occur (for example, a particular month or season when hurricanes often occur), or, in the case of early warnings, which day or at which time the event is expected to occur (for example, when a hurricane is expected to make landfall);
  - Which locations or areas will be or could be particularly affected;
  - Whether there are precursory signs (for example, patterns, such as an earthquake triggering a tsunami or strong rains triggering landslides, and environmental conditions) and what to watch out for;
  - What impacts they have had or could have in the area (lives lost, disease outbreaks, injuries due to accidents, disruption of services or infrastructure);
  - Whether they could induce dangerous secondary effects and other hazards (such as a storm leading to a landslide, an earthquake leading to a tsunami or a fire), the areas these hazards might affect and the impacts they might cause.

- **Preparedness and response measures** that individuals or households might take in order to reduce the hazards’ impacts on them and their assets. They include information on:
  - Whether to visit, or to remain in, a specific area, or when to leave;
  - Simple emergency preparedness measures to take before the hazard strikes (such as stockpiling essential items, becoming familiar with evacuation routes and assembly points, and sanitation and disease prevention practices);
  - Appropriate behaviours to minimize risks in the immediacy of the event (for example, staying away from crowds, avoiding especially risky areas, helping other vulnerable people, learning first aid and survival measures);
  - Suggested evacuation routes, sites and means of transportation;
  - Potential sources of updated information and warnings (radio, television or newspapers), through which it is possible to stay informed on local developments, as well as their location and contact information;
  - Potential sources of support, assistance and other resources before or after the event (such as shelter, medical assistance, food distribution and transportation), their location and contacts, including dedicated support for specific groups (such as children and the elderly).
Local institutions that might be particularly relevant in emergencies (such as civil protection agencies, fire brigades, police, NGOs and consulates). They include information on:

- What kinds of services they provide (such as search and rescue, health care and information provision), and what services they cannot provide;
- Under which conditions they can provide the services (for example, only if a disaster strikes, or for everyone or for only some groups of people);
- How to access/request their assistance or services (such as the institution’s contact information);
- How to recognize their staff members (for example, by their uniforms, or signs).

In order to communicate with migrants effectively, information products and communications often need some degree of adaptation. In order to produce messages that are tailored to migrants’ needs and that migrants can understand, it is necessary to identify the specificities of migrants’ communication channels and ways to address them.

Translating and interpreting messages

Translating messages and products into a language migrants speak is key to conveying information effectively. Materials and messages should be translated into all of the languages that are spoken by the main migrant groups, keeping in mind that not all people who come from a given country will necessarily speak that country’s official (or first) language.

Japanese authorities have established an early warning system for earthquakes, which disseminates warnings to people between a few seconds and a few minutes before the earthquake’s impact. Some warnings and information are broadcasted live in English on Japanese television channels.

Awareness-raising products can usually be translated well in advance of hazards, while there might be very limited time to translate early warnings and emergency communications (particularly in the event of rapid-onset emergencies such as earthquakes). For these messages, it can be useful to translate standard warnings and messages (and to identify interpreters and television and radio announcers) in anticipation of future emergencies, and to set up communication systems to ensure that information can be translated and delivered and that migrants can be alerted in a timely manner.

Translated information and messages can be disseminated through monolingual and multilingual products. Multilingual products might be more costly to produce and less clear; however, they can be disseminated more easily or more rapidly. This is the case for both multilingual awareness-raising paper products (a single multilingual product does not require targeted dissemination strategies by language, and poses fewer problems with printing and managing stocks of different publications) and early warning messages, especially video materials (a video message with audio and subtitles is an effective way to convey multilingual information).
The authorities of Moka City, Japan, have developed a multilingual emergency map that includes information on evacuation routes and sites, and the relevant sites and institutions providing assistance in emergencies.

The map is available from [www.city.moka.tochigi.jp/resources/content/3984/20130329-153400.pdf](http://www.city.moka.tochigi.jp/resources/content/3984/20130329-153400.pdf).

The website of the Japan Meteorological Agency provides up-to-date information about weather, climates and earthquakes in English. The website also includes satellite imagery, high-resolution precipitation “nowcasts” and tsunami warnings and advisories.

See [www.jma.go.jp/jma/indexe.html](http://www.jma.go.jp/jma/indexe.html).

The disaster prevention website of the Mie prefecture in Japan provides up-to-date warnings and emergency information in Korean, Chinese, Portuguese, Spanish and English. It includes information on the available services, projected paths of storms, and evacuation orders and instructions.


The “Fast facts for disaster preparedness and response” booklet, also known as the “Chinatown disaster information book”, is aimed at helping Chinese residents learn where to call, where to go, what to do and what to prepare before a crisis. Prepared in English and Chinese, the booklet provides a list of contacts for individuals to use in times of crisis, along with a map to a designated area where people register and receive information and emergency supplies as they become available. “Fast facts” also covers instruction on, for example, turning off electricity and water in the house, how to use a fire extinguisher and what to do if someone is injured. The booklet could be helpful for other cities when creating their crisis preparedness materials, as it provides households with a set of preparedness materials and instructions and it can also be used as a manual in times of crisis.

See [www.diversitypreparedness.org/browse-resources/resources/Fast%2520Facts%2520Chinatown](http://www.diversitypreparedness.org/browse-resources/resources/Fast%2520Facts%2520Chinatown).

Professionals, bilingual staff, volunteers and members of the migrant community can support the translation and interpretation of emergency communications. Smartphone applications, websites, automated translation systems, and remote translation and interpretation services can also be employed for translation and interpretation. Text-to-speech software can be used to produce audio messages. However, it should be noted that:

- Literal and automated translations, as well as translations by a non-native speaker, are not always fully understandable.
- Translations by a person who does not fully understand the initial message (such as someone not specializing in matters related to emergency management) might not be precise.
- Any message can be distorted through the translation process.

Prior to Hurricane Katrina, no awareness-raising activities targeting migrant communities in the area had taken place. During the disaster, however, there was no time for warnings and messages to be tailored to the various local communities. In addition, computerized translation devices went for weeks without power during and after Katrina. Responders therefore had to rely heavily on volunteers and untrained community members to disseminate information and provide affected migrants not proficient in English with services.

Building specific capacities and knowledge of translators and interpreters – preferably before the emergency, but also right before their deployment – in domains such as emergency management terminology, evacuations, service provision and legal issues can be a useful measure to improve the system’s communication capacities.

Specific tools can be developed to support face-to-face emergency communications (for example, in evacuation sites and shelters, and more generally between migrants and emergency response personnel). They can include basic phrasebooks or collections of key terminology with phonetic transcriptions, which can be distributed to migrants and to staff members and volunteers.
Simplifying messages and language

Alternatively, or in addition to translating messages, using simple language and terminology can help make messages more easily understood. Using simplified language is in fact a good practice in all emergency communications, including those targeting natives, especially — but not only — young members of the community, or those with limited education or with cognitive handicaps. Interpreting messages in stressful situations, such as before or during emergencies, can be challenging for anybody. Emergency messages should therefore be understandable for people with only a basic education and no technical background. However, this is even more necessary when communicating with migrants, who often have reduced proficiency in the local language, and when no translation options are available.

Australian authorities have developed a series of leaflets to raise people’s awareness about the most relevant hazards and how to respond to them. These leaflets use simplified text and pictures in order to convey information in an effective manner.


Simplifying the content (that is, the amount of information being conveyed) can also help in communicating more effectively. Condensed versions of existing materials and messages are more easily and quickly translated, and are likely to be more understandable to people who are not highly proficient in the local language.

Simplification, however, often comes at the expense of details: it should therefore be ensured that no key information is lost when condensing materials. A compromise solution can be to create content hierarchies that highlight or underline key messages.

Using pictures and signs

Many products and messages (not only those targeting migrants) include pictures and videos to convey information in a more effective and engaging manner than through text alone. Visuals can depict hazards, actions (such as moving important items to elevated locations in floods), items (what to include in an emergency bag), symbols (for evacuation routes and sites), service providers (how to recognize them through uniforms or other distinctive signs) and routes.

Pictures (including maps) and videos can be used both in awareness-raising products and in emergency messaging. Comics, for instance, are routinely used to disseminate information to younger people. In addition, they can be used to develop clearer signage (evacuation routes and sites, or types of services provided at emergency shelters) that can be understood by people who do not speak the local language (or read the local script). There are international standards for many of the relevant pictorial elements (for tsunamis, evacuation routes and so forth); however, it should always be ensured that signs, pictures, drawings, colours and even numbers can be easily understood by migrants.
Pictorial tools and signs can also be used to enhance the capacity of emergency response personnel to communicate with migrants. Teaching personnel basic signs, as well as developing booklets or applications to cover the most relevant domains (such as health provision, explaining their needs, evacuation assistance) and distributing them to migrants and responders, can be useful in bridging linguistic barriers.

The Emergency Management Bureau of the Massachusetts Department of Public Health in the United States has developed a tool to communicate, through the use of pictures that include pointing, with people who do not speak English.

The tool is available from www.mass.gov/eohhs/docs/dph/emergency-prep/risk-communication/show-me-tool.pdf.

The French association B4Com has developed ToxCom, a “dictionary” of about 120 hand signs that enables relief workers to communicate effectively despite degraded conditions. The people recruited to teach ToxCom are deaf and can communicate with participants only through the use of sign language. These signs can potentially help bridge language barriers.

See www.b4com.eu (French language).

The Japanese Association of International Relations of the city of Sendai has made available on CD and on YouTube a multilingual disaster prevention video, which provides practical advice in 10 languages on what actions to take during an earthquake.

Adapting terminology

As stated above, it is a good practice in emergency communications to avoid the use of overly technical terminology, as it might not be fully understood by those receiving it. When developing products and messages targeting migrants, it is also necessary to keep in mind that migrants might have reduced knowledge of local hazards, the geographical context, emergency management institutions and possible responses. For instance, migrants might not know what a tsunami or a storm surge is, might not be familiar with the term mudslide, or might use different terms for evacuation site and emergency shelter.

It is therefore important to ensure that migrants learn the terms that might be known only to local people. These might include the names of sites and locations, roads, buildings and landmark features, or references to past emergencies and hazards, local actors or people, products, brands and companies. In addition, it should also be ensured that the key terminology (those related to hazards, early warnings and evacuation) corresponds to that used within the
migrant community. The use of simple, descriptive terminology is particularly important when conveying information and messages to migrants who might not have previous experience with a specific hazard or with emergencies in general.

**Accounting for different cultural traits, risk perceptions and behaviours**

Previous experiences, ideas, knowledge and perceptions related to hazards and emergencies affect people’s ability and willingness to prevent, prepare for and respond to emergencies. People receiving information always interpret it based on their background, and this should be taken into account when developing awareness-raising products and emergency communications.

Migrants can perceive risk differently from the local population (relating to, for example, how dangerous a potential hazard actually is, or whether they are risking their lives or losing their homes), based on their experience in their homeland. For example, in some countries floods might be routine events that are considered by affected communities to be perfectly normal occurrences. Or, based on culturally learned behaviours, migrants might respond differently from the local population when threatened by the impact of a hazard (for example, the measures they would take in anticipation or response to a hazard, or when or how to evacuate). Different responses might also depend on reduced preparedness (for example, if one is unable to interpret an alarm properly, or is not aware of the location of or directions to evacuation sites).

During the Christchurch earthquakes in 2010 and 2011, representatives from the local Chinese community ran from their houses while the tremors were still taking place – a culturally learned behaviour that did not correspond to the standard recommendations of the New Zealand authorities in the event of an earthquake.

In taking migrants’ specificities into account, it might be necessary to provide additional, easy-to-understand information on the locations that can be impacted, the severity of the consequences of the hazard, and the recommended response measures and actions. Vague or incomplete indications, instead, are likely to leave more space for inaccurate perceptions and unplanned behaviours, which can result in increased risk.

In order to make messages more relevant to migrants – and people from different backgrounds in general – it is also useful to make sure that any materials and communications include messaging, pictures, speech and music that are appropriate to the various migrant groups and that consider their cultural specificities. They should refer to their communities and representatives, leaders, religions, needs, taboos and so forth, and respectfully and precisely show people with recognizable ethnic attributes and features.
Providing information on specific services and assistance

A range of actors and options might be available to provide migrants with dedicated support and assistance before, during and after emergencies. Such assistance is vital to addressing migrants’ specific needs, and ensuring that migrants are aware that the assistance exists and of how to access it is key to reducing their vulnerability. In order to convey this kind of information, the relevant actors can include it in generic preparedness or response communications targeting migrants, or issue dedicated messages and products.

The relevant information can include:

- A description of migrants’ rights to assistance and support through the host country’s emergency management system, and especially of the rights of undocumented and irregular migrants. This would include, for example, information on access to:
  - Emergency shelters;
  - Food distribution;
  - Health care;
  - Evacuation assistance.

- Names and contact information of the relevant emergency management actors and a description of the types of assistance they provide specifically for migrants. This might also include information on consular services of the migrants’ countries of origin, or on the assistance provided by community service organizations. The relevant services can include:
  - Safe or migrant-specific emergency shelters and evacuation sites;
  - Translation and interpretation services;
  - Issuing identity documents and other types of documentation;
  - Legal assistance and support to apply for response and recovery assistance;
  - Multilingual information hotlines and feedback mechanisms;
  - Assistance for victims of trafficking;
  - International evacuations;
  - Communication with families and communities back home;
  - Obtaining unpaid salaries or identity documents withheld by employers or recruiters.

- Details on the specific expectations and requirements migrants might need to meet in order to access assistance, for example:
  - having updated, valid identity documents, visas and work permits;
  - registering with the local consular representation.

- Whether immigration regulations will change (or have changed), particularly in the sense of increased flexibility, as a consequence of the emergency, resulting for instance in:
  - Suspension of enforcement of immigration regulations against undocumented and irregular migrants as part of evacuation and emergency assistance;
  - Facilitated issuing of visas and permits, including those needed to exit the country.
Chile’s emergency manual for foreigners recommends foreigners in the country:
- Ask for advice and orientation from their own embassy or consulate upon arrival or in anticipation of a potential emergency;
- Keep safe any updated personal documents (passport and other identity documents, and visas);
- Get in touch with their consulate or embassy and with members of their community in normal times, provide their contact information, and participate in community preparedness actions;
- Provide the relevant Chilean authorities with their contact information and information on their whereabouts before visiting remote areas;
- Ensure they have the contact information of their embassy or consulate, and of community members who are essential in emergencies;
- In the case of an emergency, get in touch with the relevant home country authorities, as well as with their families back home, to make sure they know whether they have been affected by the emergency, if they are well and if they have specific needs.

Providing information on specific risks and barriers

Migrants might also face specific risks or barriers to accessing assistance in emergencies. Providing migrants with information on what these issues might be and on how they might be able to address them is key to reducing their vulnerabilities. These risks or barriers might include:
- Being smuggled or trafficked;
- Being abused or exploited, particularly when participating in reconstruction and recovery activities;
- Not being able to access certain forms of assistance as a consequence of their lack of citizenship or of their migration status;
- Not being able to leave the country without specific documentation.

Validating messages and products

Ensuring that information products and emergency messages are correctly translated, culturally appropriate, and cover migrants’ essential needs and assistance options is key to conveying precise information and to avoiding the circulation of unfounded rumours. Involving migrant representatives (and ideally members of the most marginalized groups of the migrant community) in validating the language and content of the communications before they are disseminated can be crucial to this end. In addition, setting up dedicated feedback mechanisms and learning from past experiences can help improve the quality of migrant-specific communications.
Participation of representatives from, and members of, the migrant community and its organizations in the development of communication materials can be beneficial to raising their groups’ awareness of the information they convey. This participation can also be valuable in issuing more comprehensive products; for instance, participatory risk mapping is a way not only to produce maps that are understood and owned by the community, but also to enable better assessments of existing risks and improved identification of specific conditions of vulnerability within the community.

ECHO (Emergency, Community, Health and Outreach) is an initiative designed specifically for immigrants and refugees in Minnesota in the United States. Through collaboration with experts, bilingual community leaders and spokespersons, ECHO produces high-quality programming for television, radio, telephones, the Web and DVDs, as well as printed materials, in English, Khmer, Somali, Vietnamese, Lao, Spanish and Hmong, as well as a number of resources in other languages (Amharic, Arabic, French, Karen, Oromo, Russian and Swahili). The mandate of ECHO is to increase the access of migrants to emergency information and ensure that their communities have the information necessary to make informed decisions about their well-being.

Ensuring that the migrants know that the actors they trust or work with have been involved in the development and validation of the materials can mean that the communications are better accepted and more trusted. This can be done by including the relevant partners’ logos and contact information in the materials or by organizing joint launch events and visibility/dissemination campaigns.

Migrants in fact might not attribute the same credibility as natives to messages issued by official sources, which can result in slower or no response in emergencies, as they decide not to comply with warnings and communications or to seek to validate the information they receive before acting. This is particularly the case for migrants who have faced discrimination or have specific reasons not to trust public authorities (for example, undocumented migrants may fear arrest and deportation).

While representatives from the consular corps of the migrants’ countries of origin or other governmental actors can represent an especially authoritative actor in validating these messages, it should be noted that some migrant groups might have reasons not to trust their home government either.
Research in a variety of locations has shown that a number of migrant communities in the United States (such as Mexicans or other Latinos, and Somalis) are likely to look for validation of official and emergency communications with members of their families or communities. This means that instead of complying immediately with the instructions they receive, they often try to get in touch with other people to make sure that they actually have to comply. Families and communities often represent their main channel for accessing information of any kind.

**KEY LEARNING POINTS**

- Adapting information products, early warnings and emergency communications is key to disseminating information to migrants effectively before, during and after emergencies.
- Adaptation requires modifying the language used in order to make it understandable to migrants who might be facing communication barriers or have reduced local knowledge.
- Adaptation also requires complementing the content the materials provide with information that is specifically relevant for migrants.
- Validating messages (ensuring that they are understandable and relevant) before they are disseminated is vital for ensuring effective communications and appropriate responses.
TOPIC 2: SELECTING APPROPRIATE CHANNELS TO COMMUNICATE WITH MIGRANTS

Emergency management actors can package awareness-raising messages, early warnings and emergency communications in a range of products and disseminate them using a variety of channels – not all of which are equally viable, effective or functioning before, during and after emergencies. Choosing appropriate products and channels to disseminate messages is key to effective communication. Figure 6.2 highlights the main advantages and shortcomings of the various products available for disseminating information relevant for emergencies, and shows whether they are suitable for awareness-raising, early warnings and emergency communication purposes. Green shows products that fully meet a certain attribute (for example, printed books can be multilingual); orange shows products that only meet a certain attribute partly or under specific conditions (for example, audio communications can be accessed using a hand crank radio even if other networks are down); red shows products that under most circumstances would not meet a certain attribute (for example, emergency sirens and alarms usually include very little detail).

**Figure 6.2: Advantages and shortcomings of various forms of communication for emergency preparedness and response purposes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Printed books</th>
<th>Printed leaflets</th>
<th>Digital paper products</th>
<th>Video communications</th>
<th>Audio communications</th>
<th>Community gatherings</th>
<th>Door-to-door communications</th>
<th>Emergency alarms</th>
<th>SMSs</th>
<th>Smartphone notifications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Suitable for awareness-raising</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Suitable for early warnings</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
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<td>No</td>
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<tr>
<td>Suitable for emergency communications</td>
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<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inexpensive to produce/adapt</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Multilingual</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Portable</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
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<td>No</td>
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<td>Easy to disseminate</td>
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<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
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<tr>
<td>Accessible to a broad audience</td>
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<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
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<td>No</td>
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<tr>
<td>Easily updated</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Allows for tailored messages and clarifications</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
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<tr>
<td>Not easily damaged or lost</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Can be used even if networks or power is down</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Can include visuals</td>
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<tr>
<td>Accessible to people with limited literacy</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Accessible to people with a visual impairment</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Accessible to people with a hearing impairment</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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</table>
As stated above, migrants tend to access information, both in normal times and in times of crisis, through media and channels (both formal and community-based) different from those normally used by the local population. They might also consider specific sources of information more trustworthy than official or mainstream ones. In addition, the areas in which they live might be underserved by the usual emergency communication systems (for example, no sirens have been installed or their telephone numbers have not been registered for telephone-based alerts).

Therefore, to communicate effectively with migrants, it is important to know which media and channels they actually use and trust. This can be done through surveys and profiling exercises (see Chapter 4 for further information). Emergency management actors should coordinate with communications actors well before emergencies occur to ensure that they are able to disseminate messages that are consistent with, and as comprehensive as, official warnings. This coordination is key to avoiding contradictory and untimely information and to issuing statements that are mutually reinforcing, thereby ensuring the effectiveness of the whole emergency communication system.

Widening the pool of dissemination channels means that the whole community can be reached more effectively, even when some networks are down, and that a more inclusive communication system can be established.

**Key sites and locations**

Migrants are likely to visit or gather in key places and sites regularly, both in normal times and in emergencies. These locations can therefore be used as hubs to distribute information products (such as printed materials and posters) and for communications (person-to-person). They can also be places to hold information meetings and gatherings, and potentially to gather migrants’ feedback before, during and after emergencies. These sites may include:

- Migrants’ associations, clubs and community centres;
- Embassies and consulates;
- Immigration offices (including local authorities’ population offices);
- Remittance transfer agencies;
- International call centres and Internet points;
- Workplaces and employment centres;
- “One-stop shops” for migrant services;
- Churches, temples and mosques;
- Schools and community clinics;
- Hotels, hostels and resorts;
- Airports, ports, train stations and bus stations through which migrants arrive and depart;
- Emergency shelters;
- Shops and local businesses, as well as other places of public interest that are relevant to the migrants’ community life.
Alternative newspapers, television channels and radio stations

Due to language or cultural reasons, and in order to access information on their home country or local community, migrants often use mass media that are different from those used by the members of their host communities in their daily life. As television channels, radio stations and newspapers play a main role in the dissemination of information before and during emergencies, making sure that the relevant messages and products are disseminated through the ones that migrants actually use is key to improving their preparedness. This might include disseminating information through the following channels:

- Foreign television channels (from the migrants’ countries of origin or from third countries);
- Local and ethnic television channels;
- Local and ethnic radio stations, including Internet radio stations;
- Local foreign-language newspapers;
- Printed leaflets and posters.

Identifying these media outlets and coordinating with them on how to share and disseminate information can be critical to reaching migrants. Supporting them (in particular the smaller, community-based ones) with equipment or staff can help ensure that they are able to continue functioning during emergencies. In addition, distributing portable hand crank radios to members of the migrant community can also help ensure that they have access to broadcasted information in times of emergency.

In the United States, New America Media and Multicultural Broadcasting provide contact information for local ethnic media outlets across the country.

Just before Hurricane Katrina hit, the Government of the United States failed to give emergency warnings in Spanish, Vietnamese or Portuguese. Radio Tropical Caliente, a Spanish-language radio station in New Orleans, disseminated evacuation alerts until the hurricane made landfall. Following the disaster, Radio Tropical Caliente provided its listeners with key relief and recovery information.

During the 2007 fires in San Diego, the Spanish-language television channels Telemundo and Univision provided translated information on evacuation and relief for Spanish-speaking communities. While their reporting lagged behind that of the English media sources, throughout the crisis they played an important role for non-native communities and helped improve coordination with disaster risk management authorities.
Communication channels based in home countries

Authorities in the migrants’ countries of origin, whether based in the host country (in embassies or consulates) or back home (for example, in ministries of foreign affairs), might have a variety of ways to communicate with their nationals and might therefore play an important role in disseminating information before, during and after emergencies. These communication options can include:

- Travel advisories and registration applications;
- Gatherings of the migrant community (for example, for national celebrations);
- Mailing lists;
- Websites;
- Home country media;
- Field visits by local staff.

Coordinating with these actors for the dissemination of information is also key to ensuring that official sources in the migrants’ countries of origin and destination provide consistent information. If this does not take place, the trustworthiness of the whole emergency management system can be greatly undermined.

Home country institutions are likely to be in charge of gathering information about affected migrants during emergencies and disseminating it to their families and communities back home. Ensuring that the relevant information is exchanged between emergency management actors and these institutions (such as the identity and location of the affected migrants, their health status and their unmet needs) can help improve the system’s effectiveness in assisting and supporting migrants.

Community-based communication systems

Migrants often rely more than members of their host communities on local social networks for accessing information in normal times. Migrant communities are therefore likely to be connected through well-established communication systems, which can help disseminate information to their members. In addition, migrants often reach out to other members of their community to validate the early warnings and emergency communications they receive through official channels. This is particularly the case when official information is perceived to be incomplete or when there is little trust in the institutions issuing the messages.

Mechanisms that can be leveraged to disseminate and validate the relevant information include:

- Telephone, short message service (SMS) and instant messaging chains, through which community members contact each other according to a predetermined list;
- Mailing lists;
- Door-to-door information dissemination;
- Community meetings and gatherings (including community consultations, fairs, celebrations and community theatres).
In the specific case of tourists or international students, these channels are often based in hotels, hostels and resorts, or schools, universities and campuses.

Community-based communication channels can be particularly useful in reaching out to migrants living or working in spatially segregated locations (such as remote factories or farms) or in social isolation (such as domestic workers working alone), who might have reduced access to other media. With the exception of gatherings and meetings, which might take longer to organize, these communication channels can be used effectively to disseminate early warnings and urgent communications.

These communication systems can be managed directly by migrant groups and associations or by civil society, NGOs and other local actors (such as churches, temples, mosques and charities). If these systems do not already exist, they can be set up specifically for emergency communication purposes. Leveraging such channels usually requires coordinating with leaders and representatives from local civil society and migrant communities (such as wardens or gatekeepers), who can be the emergency management actors’ point of contact within the community.

Community representatives can also help translate and adapt the information, and are likely to convey information that will be more trusted by the migrants who receive it.

Training the individuals involved in the information dissemination can help increase the quality of the information they provide, thereby reducing the potential for the circulation of inaccurate or incomplete messages. Supporting the efforts of the individuals responsible for disseminating information (for example, through reimbursements or the provision of telephones and credit or megaphones) can also help facilitate their efforts. There is evidence that trained (and formally hired) educators and communicators tend to be more competent and to convey messaging more effectively than voluntary workers.

In order to improve disaster preparedness in Latino communities in Maryland in the United States, the Latino Health Initiative and its health promoter programme Vías de la Salud rolled out an awareness-raising programme targeted at low-income Latinos. The health promoters, who already had contacts with community members as part of health-care efforts, were trained and then held educational sessions addressing such topics as “what is an emergency” and “steps in emergency preparedness”. The sessions included such activities as initiating a conversation about emergencies, developing a family emergency plan, and preparing an emergency supply kit with essential items. The intervention was successful in increasing overall levels of preparedness in the communities – greater numbers of Latinos felt better prepared and had taken action for preparedness (such as stocking supplies).

Joint dissemination (between migrant representatives and emergency management personnel working together on, for instance, giving warnings door-to-door or holding meetings and gatherings) can be a good strategy to ensure effective dissemination of comprehensive,
accurate messages. The physical presence of a migrant representative can also help bridge cultural or trust barriers, particularly for specific groups of migrants, such as:

- Migrants who might be intentionally excluded from specific information (for example, employers hiding information from undocumented workers for fear of repercussions);
- Migrants who face cultural barriers to speaking with strangers (for example, women who are expected not to speak to unknown men in some groups).

In addition to, or instead of, joint information dissemination, overcoming trust barriers that might arise when institutions directly approach individual migrants or migrant groups might require:

- Having staff of more trusted emergency management actors (often firefighters) disseminate information in the migrant community;
- Deploying staff members that might be well known or well received by the community (such as someone from the same background or someone who usually works in the area);
- Ensuring that deployed staff members appear as non-threatening as possible (for example, they do not wear uniforms, they present materials to groups of people rather than to individuals, and they are introduced by local representatives).

The Kentucky Cabinet for Health and Family Services established the Outreach Information Network to reach isolated at-risk populations. It built a person-to-person network using trusted individuals, agencies, informal and formal groups, and the media to disseminate messages. By the end of its development, it will be used during emergencies as well as in day-to-day situations.

### Websites, smartphone applications and social media

People are increasingly accessing and communicating information through websites, social media and smartphone applications, and these channels are being used in emergencies more and more. Migrants are no exception, as many migrant groups rely heavily on the Internet and on mobile communications for their communication needs in normal times and in times of crisis. It should be noted, however, that use of these channels is often more common among younger groups, and is strongly dependent on Internet access (including mobile Internet), which might be challenging in specific locations (such as rural areas and underserved neighbourhoods), as well as in emergencies in general.

Emergency management actors are already likely to be disseminating information and products through such channels (including corporate websites, Facebook, Twitter and YouTube). Adapting the way these channels are used can help the actors reach migrants more effectively. This can be done by, for example:

- Establishing multilingual websites and smartphone applications with dedicated sections for migrant-specific materials;
- Setting up foreign language social media profiles of emergency management actors;
• Posting information on social media in multiple languages, and posting information specifically relevant to migrants.

In addition, disseminating information through the websites, social media profiles and groups, and smartphone applications that migrants usually access in normal times can help emergency actors communicate with them in a direct, effective manner. These channels might include:

• Websites and social media profiles of host country institutions that provide migrants with services or information for non-emergency purposes (such as immigration, employment or tourism authorities, local authorities, and migrants’ online one-stop shops);
• Websites and social media profiles of other institutions (consulates or embassies) or organizations (such as NGOs or migrant associations);
• Websites and social media profiles of key media outlets (newspapers, television channels or radio stations that migrants use to access information);
• Social media profiles of key members of the community or of public personalities that are influential within the community;
• Migrants’ social media groups;
• Websites and social media profiles of key service providers (such as remittance transfer agencies or communications companies).

For an example of an online multilingual one-stop shop for disaster preparedness, see http://tia21.or.jp/disaster_eng.html.

While publishing information on other institutions’ websites requires some form of coordination, it may be easier to share information through other institutions’ social media profiles and groups (for example, posting information on their walls or using hashtags to promote and disseminate content).

Disseminating official materials and messages through social media might be particularly important in preventing and countering the circulation of rumours and inaccurate information.

Smartphone applications can also be an effective way to reach a diverse and widely spread target community. They can support localization and the dissemination of information in multiple languages and even early warnings. Applications specifically designed for emergency management purposes can be adapted for use by migrants (for example, for translation and tailoring of content), while other actors’ applications (such as consular services’ travel advisory applications and employers’ tracking applications) can be leveraged to disseminate awareness-raising, early warnings and emergency messages. However, a lack of trust is often an obstacle for migrants (especially those who are undocumented) to subscribe to such services. Anonymous registration can help in overcoming these barriers.
For an example of smartphone applications for disaster preparedness and early warnings, see [www.emknowledge.gov.au/connect/smartphone-apps/](http://www.emknowledge.gov.au/connect/smartphone-apps/). *DisasterWatch* is an application that provides publicly available news and information about disaster events in Australia in multiple languages via direct feeds from a range of national and state- or territorial-level authoritative sources.

In the United States, the Idaho Office of Emergency Management has developed a system that uses a wide range of methods to contact people in case of an emergency. Enrolment is voluntary, with users able to choose how to receive warnings (including through mobile telephones, pagers, personal digital assistants, e-mail, home telephones or other communication devices). The system includes support for non-native English speakers. See [http://bhs.idaho.gov/Pages/Operations/WarningSystems/SAWS.aspx](http://bhs.idaho.gov/Pages/Operations/WarningSystems/SAWS.aspx).

In Japan, NTT DOCOMO has a package of applications and services for disaster situations, including status verification through text and voice messages. See [www.nttdocomo.co.jp/english/info/disaster/](http://www.nttdocomo.co.jp/english/info/disaster/).

These media also offer specific functionalities (such as geotagging or Facebook’s Safety Check) that can be extremely useful in emergencies. In addition, they generally allow for the receiving of feedback by the target audience on elements such as clarification of information, unmet needs and satisfaction with the service provision.

**Trainings and events**

Events and training courses can also be an effective manner to reach out to migrants with awareness-raising and preparedness information, or to communicate information and gather feedback in emergencies. Actors that are not usually involved in emergency management activities (such as government agencies or NGOs working with migrants) may already have structures in place for a variety of aims. These include:

- Welcome events and induction courses for newcomers, which provide them with basic information on locally available services and opportunities (organized by, for example, municipalities or local authorities);
- Events or courses required for newcomers to receive specific documents (such as driving licenses or work visas);
- Language courses.
Information on preparedness can be integrated into such events and courses. Alternatively, emergency management actors can organize dedicated events and trainings to, for example, drill emergency procedures, raise migrants’ awareness, and involve migrants in volunteer activities and in response and recovery processes. (For more information on involving migrants in activities and processes, refer to Chapter 5.)

Since 2004, the Government of Malaysia has required foreign workers, upon arrival in the country, to attend an induction course on communication skills, Malaysian culture, laws and regulations. The course is provided through training centres located in the sending countries and accredited by the Ministry of Human Resources. Completion of the course is a precondition for the issuance of an employment visa by the Immigration Department of Malaysia. The aim of the course is to help promote good social relations, to improve adherence to standards of workplace safety and health, to enable foreign workers in Malaysia to have basic communication skills in English or Malay, and to develop foreign workers’ understanding of Malaysian laws and regulations.

The Government has appointed the National Vocational Training Council, a department under the Ministry of Human Resources, to develop the training modules for this course. The Council has in turn appointed certain accredited training companies to conduct the induction course on its behalf. Employers can also implement the induction course themselves, though they must notify the Labour Department and submit the course syllabus for approval. Foreign workers who successfully complete the induction course receive the Certificate of Eligibility from the National Vocational Training Council, Malaysia.

Events and trainings can cover a variety of topics, including:

- Local occurrence of hazards;
- Institutional arrangements for emergency management;
- Evacuation routes and sites;
- Basic preparedness measures;
- Basic first aid;
- How to collaborate effectively with emergency management actors.

They can also provide an occasion to gather migrants’ feedback on preparedness, emergency response, and the provision of relief and recovery services.

Events and trainings represent an opportunity for hands-on learning, but they can also provide an opportunity to identify and train representatives from the local community, who can then be supported in transferring knowledge further within the migrant groups. However, such trainings are unlikely to reach migrants who have reasons to fear contact with local institutions. Co-organizing such events with trusted, well-known institutions, or having migrants’ representatives present the trainings, can help in overcoming this barrier.
In addition, emergency management actors routinely support awareness-raising, preparedness and response activities in specific locations, such as schools (for students), workplaces (for workers) and hotels, resorts and hostels (for tourists). Including workplaces where large numbers of migrants are employed, schools attended by large numbers of students with migrant backgrounds and hotels where large numbers of international tourists stay is key to reaching these groups (and their local communities), as they might be among the only settings in which they interact with people and actors outside their communities. It may be necessary to adapt the usual content to the needs of these groups. Experience shows that school-based awareness-raising events and preparedness trainings can be particularly effective, as children with migrant backgrounds are likely to convey information actively to their families and communities, and to step up as leaders in emergencies.


**Hotlines**

Hotlines (based on telephone calls, contact e-mails or webforms) can provide at-risk or affected people with updated, targeted information on emergency preparedness and response. A variety of measures may need to be adopted to improve their capacity to inform audiences that include large numbers of migrants. These measures are described below.

Staffing hotlines with personnel or volunteers proficient in the migrants’ languages can be useful. This requires setting up mechanisms that enable requests to go to the correct staff members. Staffing should reflect the expected volume of contacts from migrants of the different linguistic groups. If staff availability is insufficient to cover the lines 24 hours per day, 7 days per week for a diverse targeted community, part-time arrangements are possible (for example, different time slots being manned by staff speaking different languages), but such arrangements should be clearly advertised in the relevant communications.

During the Australia water crisis in Sydney in 1998, Sydney Water established a hotline with bilingual staff to respond to the concerns of citizens, including those of culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. The hotline was available during a six-week period and the Sydney Water official was in contact with translators to provide updated information. By organizing translations of press releases for ethnic media, the Ethnic Affairs Commission of New South Wales also played an important role in the hotline.

Hotline personnel usually receive some degree of training or briefing so that they can respect a standardized approach and provide or collect accurate information. There are often standard responses and messages that staff members and volunteers are supposed to give when
answering queries. When migrants are involved, trainings, briefings and guidance documents should include specific information for them, including on:

- Options for dedicated assistance;
- Options for international evacuations;
- Contact information of the relevant institutions;
- Issuing and renewing identification papers, visas and permits.

Procedures should be in place to redirect queries to particularly qualified or trained professionals when they cannot be answered through standard responses.

To ensure that the hotline is used when a crisis occurs, awareness-raising products should include the contact details (such as telephone numbers and weblinks) and a list of the services offered (such as translations) and types of information that can be provided (or collected, such as information on migrants’ status and location, which can be shared with the relevant authorities and families) by the hotline operators. The awareness-raising products should highlight the languages that are spoken by the hotline operators and the kind of information they provide that may be particularly relevant to migrants. Already existing offices or websites that deal with migrants’ issues or that offer services to migrants, including services not related to emergencies, can be used to host emergency information desks or as virtual access points for emergency hotlines.

In the wake of the earthquake and tsunami in Japan in 2011, a 24-hour, 365-day per year telephone service called the “Yorisoi” hotline was established to serve the needs of not only Japanese citizens but also non-residents/migrants. The hotline service evolved into the One-Stop Consultation Support Project for Social Inclusion, which offered non-Japanese residents direct assistance in emergencies and consultation services for other problems they experienced.

Feedback and complaint mechanisms

Ensuring that migrants, as well as their representatives and associations, can provide feedback and submit complaints about the services they receive in emergencies can be a useful way both to better focus current response actions and to learn from past experiences. This would in turn improve the future delivery of dedicated assistance. Allocating resources to mechanisms for feedback and complaints might not be considered a priority, particularly in the immediacy of a crisis, but they can be an effective way to increase the responsiveness and inclusiveness of the whole emergency management system.

Information that can be collected through these mechanisms include feedback on crisis response and the assistance being received, unmet needs, the level of satisfaction, as well as complaints and grievances related to the response process. Recording migrants’ grievances is important as this can enable authorities to follow up at the end of the crisis – including upon the migrant’s return to the country of origin – on issues such as abuses and violations, trafficking, and withheld salaries and documentation.
There are a range of methods for gathering feedback, including through hotlines, web-based contact forms, web-based information crowdsourcing tools (such as Ushahidi maps), social media pages, e-mails, dedicated offices or meetings. Not all of these can be set up during emergencies, and there are significant differences both in the costs of setting them up and in the commitment of the responsible institution.

For each of these methods, there should be the option of anonymity, and there must be compliance with data protection principles and policies. They should include a fair and transparent data verification process and have mechanisms for follow-up in terms of both immediate assistance and longer-term redress.

### KEY LEARNING POINTS

- In order to communicate with migrants effectively, it can be useful to adopt specific communication modes and to leverage specific communication channels, complementing those that are used to reach out to, and receive feedback from, the host community.
- Involving non-traditional emergency actors (such as civil society, faith-based organizations and migrant associations) in emergency communication efforts can be useful to bridge potential communication gaps.
- Knowing which media and other channels the various migrant groups use to access information in normal times is key to communicating with them effectively in emergencies.
- Setting up mechanisms for feedback and complaints can help in responding more effectively and in creating the conditions for more inclusive emergency management and recovery.
CHAPTER 6: COMMUNICATING WITH MIGRANTS BEFORE, DURING AND AFTER EMERGENCIES

TOPIC 3: MIGRANT-INCLUSIVE EMERGENCY COMMUNICATION PLANS

Having an emergency communication plan makes it easier for emergency management actors to gather and disseminate information before, during and after crises. Emergency communication plans identify the different actors’ roles and responsibilities in issuing and disseminating warnings and messages, the kind of information that should be disseminated, and the channels through which they can be communicated to the target audiences. They enable the agency or institution coordinating emergency management efforts and all of the other actors active in preparedness, response and recovery efforts – whether governmental or not, and with or without an explicit emergency management mandate – to work more effectively together to issue and disseminate messages.

Such plans can be developed before emergencies and after the impacts of hazards, and can be key to establishing effective early warning systems, to improving emergency preparedness, and to ensuring effective and consistent emergency-related communications. They are therefore an important element of emergency preparedness and response efforts.

Planning for effective communication is particularly important when the audiences include groups that might be more difficult to reach (for example, because they do not speak the local language, they do not use mainstream media or they do not trust authorities) or that might have specific information needs (for example, in the case of emergency communications targeting migrant communities). Planning allows emergency management actors to identify these challenges and specificities more accurately, and provides options for addressing them in an effective manner.

Identifying audiences

An emergency communication plan is built around the understanding of the composition of the target audience, as different audiences are likely to have different information needs and to be reached through different channels. The relevant audiences with communication specificities can include:

- Affected and at-risk migrant workers;
- Affected and at-risk undocumented migrants;
- Affected and at-risk migrants in transit;
- Affected and at-risk foreign students;
- Affected and at-risk tourists;
- Affected and at-risk refugees and asylum seekers;
- Institutions of the foreigners’ countries of origin;
- Media from the foreigners’ countries of origin;
- Foreigners’ next of kin (both living in the country and back home).
In addition, a variety of other stakeholders (including employers, recruiters, organizations, other migrants and members of the host communities) are likely to need information concerning migrants and their conditions.

Groups of different nationalities may need to be considered as separate audiences for an emergency communication plan.

It should be noted that not all audiences are equally important for the purpose of emergency communications: providing potentially affected persons with life-saving warnings is a greater priority than communicating with media. Identifying a clear order of priority can be a useful measure to maximize the positive impacts of information circulation.

**Developing messages**

While some types of communications (such as warnings concerning an incoming hazard) might be of interest to all target audiences regardless of their nationality or migration status, different audiences usually have different priorities and are therefore likely to need specific information in emergencies (see Topic 1 for more details). Migrant workers, for instance, might need to understand how their job or salary could be affected by the emergency, as well as what their prospects might be to retrieve unpaid salaries or resume work after the emergency. Instead, undocumented migrants might need to know whether their status will prevent them from accessing assistance, or might expose them to arrest and deportation. Home country authorities and communities, which would gather information through institutions and media, might need to know whether any of their nationals and community members have been affected and, if so, what their conditions are.

Determining the content of and drafting these messages before the emergency occurs (based on potential emergency scenarios) can greatly help emergency management actors disseminate clear information. The messages will likely differ as one moves from the preparedness to the response and recovery phases. In particular, monitoring what information actually circulates (including inaccurate or outdated information and unfounded rumours) can be important in developing more targeted messages.

In communication plans, details should also be given about when the messages should be disseminated and about how often they should be repeated.

To communicate effectively with migrants, it is vital that communication plans have provisions in place for messages to be translated and interpreted into the languages used by the migrants. Whenever possible, messages and warnings, or at least draft versions and templates, should be translated and adapted (and possibly validated or approved by members of the migrant communities) before the emergency so that the messages will be accurate and quickly communicated.
Identifying sources of information

Meeting the information needs of diverse audiences may require providing information that emergency management actors do not always have immediately available. Being able to source this information from other relevant actors is therefore essential. When dealing with audiences comprising migrants and other foreigners, as well as their home country institutions and media, such actors are very likely to be diverse and not necessarily traditionally involved in emergency management (for example, consulates, labour authorities in countries of destination and ministries of foreign affairs in countries of origin). It is therefore important to identify these actors, as well as the kind of information they could provide.

It should be kept in mind that information flows before, during and after emergencies move in all directions. Migrants, for instance, need information, but they can also provide first-hand information about the situation in the field or about their own conditions, which may in turn be needed to guide emergency response efforts.

Contacts and channels

Emergency communication plans should also identify the channels through which information can be gathered from the relevant sources and conveyed to the different target audiences, as well as what is needed to use these channels. Using these channels would include, for example, giving a television or radio interview, issuing a press statement, posting messages on a migrant group’s social media profile, and alerting hotels or businesses. Decisions on which channels to use should be based on an understanding of which media sources and channels the different audiences use and trust, and which ones may be suitable for circulating the different kinds of information and information products. Figure 6.3 depicts which channels may be suitable for reaching out to different migrant, and in general foreign-born, audiences. Green represents channels that are fully dedicated to, or are effective mostly for, particular audiences; orange represents channels that might be effective only under specific conditions (for example, if migrants use the local media), or might be indirectly effective (such as communications through schools to the students’ migrant families); red represents channels that are mostly ineffective (such as official communications to undocumented migrants). Developing diagrams such as the one included in the training package (“M6_comms_plan”) can help clarify the structure, roles and responsibilities described in a communication plan.
Figure 6.3: Channels for reaching out to migrant groups and other foreign-born audiences

Available channels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Migrant groups</th>
<th>Available channels</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Documented migrant workers</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Undocumented migrant workers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Migrants in transit/newcomers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isolated migrants (e.g. domestic workers)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Refugees and asylum seekers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students with migrant background</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourists</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expatriates</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note: CSOs = civil society organizations.

In order to facilitate the circulation of accurate, up-to-date information, the following positions and roles should be identified in communication plans:

- **Focal points or contact persons for the different audiences, dissemination channels and information sources.** Plans should include their contact details and identify channels to contact them – ideally channels that would work despite the potential disruption of communications due to the impact of the hazard or the increased use of networks in emergencies.
- **Staff members responsible for sourcing and verifying information from each source that has been identified.**
- **Internal roles and responsibilities for developing the various messages** (for example, writing and adapting the text, translating the text, recording video and audio messages, and producing maps).
- **An individual responsible for the decision to issue the main messages** (such as early warnings and alerts).
- **Staff members responsible for publishing the various messages** (such as a webmaster or a social media manager), and for disseminating them through the most relevant external channels.
Specific individuals and institutions (and their telephone numbers, addresses and web pages) that can be contacted by the members of the various audiences with any queries. A media spokesperson and an individual responsible for communications with foreign government institutions should be available at all times, at least in the early stages of an emergency.

Communication plans can also include an inventory of the available staff (and their skills), equipment and resources, which can help in identifying how best to allocate the existing resources to meet the audience’s needs related to communications (for example, giving bilingual staff specific translation responsibilities, or have a well-spoken, highly experienced member of the media as the spokesperson). An inventory can also reveal existing capacity or resource gaps.

It should be noted that a communication plan should also have details on coordinating with the relevant external actors and include information on their respective responsibilities (and those of their staff or members). Effective coordination and communication mechanisms enable, for instance, the identification of migrant representatives, gatekeepers or wardens who can further disseminate information to migrant groups.

Planning can also facilitate the identification of the resources and support that might be needed for the external actors and structures to be fully integrated into the plan and operational (for example, communications equipment and dedicated training). This may include setting up facilities where migrants can charge their telephones, access credit and communicate with distant relatives.

**KEY LEARNING POINTS**

- Setting up inclusive emergency communication plans can help in overcoming the main communication barriers migrants may face before, during and after emergencies.
- This requires identifying the main migrant groups that are part of the population at risk or affected, as well as other groups that have stakes in receiving information on the location and conditions of the migrants.
- These audiences may need specific messaging, and the use of particular channels may be required to reach them. Identifying these in communication planning efforts can improve the effectiveness of communications in emergencies.
Planning for and supporting migrant-inclusive evacuations
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AIM OF THE CHAPTER

Participants are aware of the specific individual and collective characteristics and conditions they need to take into account when planning for and supporting evacuations in emergencies that affect migrant groups.

Participants develop an understanding of the need to prepare for international evacuations in emergencies affecting migrants, and of the main options, needs and challenges that must be considered and addressed in the related planning.

INTRODUCTION

Evacuations are a key measure to reduce the impact of natural and man-made hazards. Moving out of the at-risk or affected area, whether before or after a hazard’s impact, over short or long distances, within a country’s territory or across international borders, can greatly reduce human losses. Planning for and supporting evacuations is a key element of the mandate of emergency management agencies. While every emergency situation might pose different challenges to emergency management authorities, planning in advance allows for the identification and development of collaborations, resources and mechanisms that can be used in a flexible manner to support people’s evacuation.

Migrants’ conditions and experiences influence their capacity and willingness to evacuate in emergencies. These include the location in which they live and work, the language they speak, the way they are reached by warnings and how they interpret them, the levels of trust they have in the local emergency management system, and the resources they can mobilize. As a consequence of these factors, migrants might be more reluctant than natives to evacuate, they might move along different routes and to different destinations from other groups, and they might be more likely than other groups to evacuate internationally. For emergency management actors working in communities hosting migrants, understanding how these conditions are reflected in migrants’ evacuation behaviours (and more generally in the way they react in emergencies) is vital to being able to support effective emergency response.

Including migrants in evacuation planning and support is a responsibility of the mandated emergency management institutions. However, it is often also part of the work of a number of diverse traditional and non-traditional emergency response actors, including community-based disaster management structures, migrant associations, non-governmental and civil society actors, and, in the case of cross-border evacuations, foreign governments and international organizations. Migrant-inclusive evacuation planning and support may therefore require identifying and leveraging very diverse actors and resources.
TOPIC 1: MIGRANT-INCLUSIVE EVACUATIONS

Local-level planning and efforts are needed to support evacuations before and after emergencies. Whether the evacuations take place within a given neighbourhood, city, district or country (or even internationally), identifying local hazards, routes and capacities is key to facilitating effectively people’s movement to safety. Local-level planning and efforts are crucial to this aim, and tend to be the responsibility of municipal and district-level emergency management actors, although often under broader national and regional frameworks.

As part of these local small-scale efforts, many emergency management actors take into account the different conditions of vulnerability, capacities and behaviours of various population groups (including, for instance, the elderly, people with disabilities, pregnant women and lactating mothers), taking proactive measures to address them. The presence of migrants poses a similar challenge: in order to ensure their effective evacuation in emergencies, planning and responses might be designed in a way that addresses their specific characteristics, including:

- The places where they live and work;
- Their culturally learned emergency response behaviours;
- Their lack of trust in authorities and communities;
- Their lack of proficiency in the local language;
- Their reduced access to private transportation options.

This does not require setting up dedicated evacuation systems, rather adapting existing plans and arrangements. The following sections address how some of the main components of local-level evacuation planning and support might need to be adapted when emergency management actors work in communities hosting migrant groups. Other components (for example, the evacuation decision-making mechanism, or coordination among various levels of the emergency management system in support of evacuation operations) are not likely to depend on the composition of the population at risk.


Hazard and vulnerability assessment

Planning and supporting evacuations effectively is based on an assessment of actual and potential risks. This entails looking at:

- The hazards that might affect a certain area;
- The area’s topography and transportation infrastructure (and the infrastructure’s capacity to withstand hazards);
- The presence of people in the area (including their distribution, also depending on the time of the year, day of the week and time of the day);
- The demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the population, with specific attention paid to people’s access to private and public transportation options, and evacuation behaviours.
Migrants are likely to present specific individual and collective features that will probably translate into risk conditions that are different from those of native groups in the same community. Collecting data on such features of migrants and their groups through surveys and community profiling exercises is key to informing inclusive evacuation planning and support efforts (see Chapter 4 for more information on data collection options and aims).

It is particularly important for emergency management actors to consider:

- The dynamics of migrants’ presence: migrants’ presence might be especially high in specific areas and locations (neighbourhoods, worksites and schools), during specific times of the year (harvest or peak production periods, high tourist season and academic year), on a particular day of the week (market day, school/work week, arrival or departure of tourists), or at a particular time of day (opening hours of day or night venues, and during working hours). Also included should be where and when migrants in transit move (if specific months, seasons or times of the day are preferred to cross a given area).

- Whether migrants are living, working and staying in areas particularly at risk, such as on hazard-prone land (cheaper land in informal settlements, but also beachfront land in touristic areas) or in unsafe buildings, as this could mean that they could be disproportionately affected by the direct effects of many hazards (such as floods, fires, earthquakes and tsunamis).

- Whether migrants are living, working and staying in remote or isolated areas or locations, disconnected from communication networks, underserved by transportation infrastructure and services, and socially marginalized (including in places where they have no contacts with the local population or other non-migrant groups), as this could mean that outreach and evacuations might be challenging. Specific attention should be given to migrants living in prisons, detention centres and so forth.

- Migrants’ demographics and socioeconomic conditions, with specific attention given to elements that are likely to be particularly relevant to evacuations, such as language proficiency, age, health status, potential cultural issues, ownership of (or access to) vehicles, detention status and access to family or group-based forms of support.

- Specific obstacles migrants may be facing in evacuations, including in particular any legal or administrative provision controlling their movement within or out of the country.

In Thailand, registered foreign workers receive work permits that are only fully valid in the province where they have been issued, which means that migrants are not allowed to move freely within the country. During the 2011 floods, this was a significant obstacle to their moving out of flood-affected areas, forcing foreign workers to choose between physical safety and loss of status.

- Migrants’ specific evacuation behaviours, based on an analysis of previous experiences and of their cultural and social background. Ideally, an estimated percentage of compliance to evacuation orders and instruction should be determined. This point in particular might require dedicated research, data collection and analysis by emergency management actors and their partners.
These exercises can also help emergency management actors determine the existing capacities and resources migrants might be able to leverage in response to a hazard, which is key to ensuring effective, community-led responses (and evacuations in particular).

**Coordination and management structure**

Evacuations are complex processes requiring the involvement of multiple organizations and actors, whose coordination is crucial to ensuring an effective response. When an evacuation concerns a community hosting migrants, it is likely that the coordination structure will need to involve a variety of non-traditional actors who can be responsible for assisting and managing the movement of migrants, disseminating information and warnings, or providing services in emergencies.

Some core roles and responsibilities are not likely to change, including those attributed to the institutions in charge of:

- Monitoring hazards and the development of the crisis;
- Issuing evacuation orders (determining the criteria for activating an evacuation and the process to issue the order);
- Assessing whether areas of return are safe.

However, a variety of additional actors might need to be involved in other aspects of the evacuation, including institutions that can play a role in:

- Coordinating and managing the evacuation of specific groups of migrants (such as employers and recruiters of migrant workers; schools attended by international students and children with migrant backgrounds, hotels hosting tourists and diplomatic representations);
- Disseminating and validating information for migrant groups;
- Transporting migrants out of at-risk or affected areas and facilitating movement (for example, by providing information along routes and at checkpoints);
- Setting up and managing safe shelters;
- Providing specific services (such as legal assistance, family tracing and issuing of documentation);
- Providing security in evacuated areas.

These actors might include:

- Representatives from embassies and consulates and other institutions from migrants’ home countries (such as labour attachés) deployed in the crisis-affected areas (these actors might need to be reached through the ministry of foreign affairs);
- Representatives from other home country institutions that may intervene to assist migrants affected by crises (such as a crisis management team based in the home country or in a third country);
- Host country authorities responsible for immigration management, migrant detention centres and other similar places, and prisons;
- Non-governmental organizations (NGOs), civil society and community organizations, mosques, temples, churches and faith-based organizations;
- Migrant groups and associations (such as hometown associations) and their leaders and representatives;
- Community-based and third-country media;
- Employers, recruiters, unions and workers’ associations of the sectors, companies, locations and factories that are particularly relevant to the migrant population;
- Schools that are attended by large numbers of migrants;
- Tour operators, hotels and their associations;
- Translators, interpreters and cultural mediators.

In order to improve coordination among all of these actors, emergency management actors should identify the different stakeholders that can contribute to supporting evacuations and their capacities (see Chapter 3 for further information on actor stocktaking and asset mapping). Clear roles and responsibilities should be established for each identified actor. The actors might include community-based organizations and NGOs, private sector actors, and host and home governmental institutions. The role of civil society, community-based and kin-based structures and mechanisms is particularly important in improving inclusiveness of migrant groups. Clearly identifying channels and procedures for transferring information among these institutions is key to ensuring effective coordination (see Chapter 6 for details). These exercises also help emergency management actors understand which resources and capacities each actor has available (such as personnel, equipment, space and supplies), and inform and prioritize the capacity-building of partner organizations, if needed.

**Figure 7.1: Example of an emergency response coordination structure**
A command, control and coordination structure (such as the one depicted in the incident command map in Figure 7.1) can be developed or revised to include actors that are relevant to migrant-specific responses. These structures rely on pre-identified, effective communication channels and include enumerations of clear, agreed-upon responsibilities and tasks of all of the identified actors in the event of an emergency.

These structures need to be tailored to the different hazard scenarios, as the relevant actors and available resources and responses are likely to be different in different situations. The specific context of the evacuation also needs to be taken into account in a coordination mechanism; for instance, the presence, capacities and leadership structures of the various actors are likely to be very different in isolated rural worksites from those in densely populated urban settlements.

In the absence of clear coordination structures, organizing arrangements before the emergency for the provision of specific services (for example, through memorandums of understanding or other service agreements with key actors) can also help support more effective responses.

A consortium of academic and community-based organizations in San Diego, California, has developed, in the event of a disaster, a preparedness and evacuation plan for local farmworkers (many of whom are undocumented Latinos), which is coordinated with the official emergency response structure. The plan includes the identification of “safe havens” in which migrants can find shelter during evacuations. They are managed exclusively by local organizations, which means they are less threatening to migrants who have reasons to fear contact with authorities. The safe havens are at local churches or private agencies willing to perform this service during a disaster. A video case study is available in the training package (“M7_California” in English).

**Identification of evacuation routes and shelters**

Knowing which areas or facilities evacuees need to move to in emergency situations and which routes they need to use to reach them is key to emergency management actors being able to make informed evacuation decisions. Suitable evacuation routes and shelters should:

- Resist hazards (including secondary hazards) or be located in areas hazards will not affect;
- Be accessible;
- Have sufficient capacity to accommodate the flow or presence of evacuees.

In addition, shelters should be served or reachable by basic utility networks (such as water and electricity).

Evacuees usually prefer to stay close to the place where they live or work – evacuation to remote and inaccessible shelters may lead to loss of livelihoods or to household disruption, or it could mean reduced use of the evacuation facilities. For migrants, easy access to nearby
Chapter 7: Planning for and Supporting Migrant-Inclusive Evacuations

Shelters is especially important, as they are often less likely than natives to evacuate to locations that are further away, due to:

- Reduced access to private means of transportation;
- No formal unemployment protection;
- Documents or salaries withheld by employers or recruiters;
- Inability or unwillingness to move around within the country (as a consequence of regulations, or fear of arrest or of xenophobic acts).

However, migrants are also more likely than natives to live and work in informal or low-quality settlements, where finding adequate, safe shelter might be more difficult. Similarly, such areas may be geographically isolated, remote or poorly connected to roads or other transportation infrastructure. Hence, identifying adequate evacuation routes might be particularly challenging, which has significant repercussions in terms of organizing the evacuation vis-à-vis the time it takes to evacuate and the resources needed.

During the 2011 floods in Bangkok, the Government of Thailand set up dedicated evacuation shelters for flood-affected migrants. However, not many migrants were able to access them due to their distance from the locations where the migrants lived and worked, and due to the lack of adequate transportation options.

Not all at-risk or affected people actually need evacuation support, as many can stay with neighbours, friends or family members in safe locations (including in other parts of the country). Migrants, however, are often among lower-income population groups and have limited options for spontaneous or unassisted evacuation, and may therefore be more likely than natives to evacuate to shelters and to remain in these sites for longer periods after the emergency. Accounting for this potential difference in evacuation behaviour is key to planning for shelters with sufficient capacity.

At the same time, migrants might not be willing to use, or might not need to use, official shelters at all: they may rely on peers and networks for all types of services, or they may not trust the emergency management actors managing them (especially if they have reasons to fear contact with authorities, as is often the case for undocumented migrants), or they may perceive the evacuation sites to be too similar to detention centres. Identifying safe, familiar places where migrants can evacuate to without fear can help minimize these issues. This might mean identifying centres or establishments of key, well-known and trusted institutions (such as churches, temples, mosques, community service organizations and schools) that could potentially be used to this aim. Such spaces should be sufficient and adequately located, and if dedicated shelters are set up, regular public shelters and safe places should not be off-limits to migrants.

Shelters hosting migrants might also need to have particular features in order to accommodate migrants’ specific needs (for example, by keeping together households that might be larger...
than the average local ones; accommodating privacy requirements of women, children and the elderly; having areas for common activities, including for prayer or other religious activities). In addition, special shelter arrangements may be necessary for specific groups (such as pregnant women or people with disabilities), whose needs might not be fully met in basic shelters.

Involving potential host communities and other relevant actors (such as hotel owners) in the identification of evacuation sites can help prevent or mitigate potential resentment towards the evacuated population. This is particularly important when the evacuated population includes migrants, who might easily be (or become) the target of xenophobic acts.

**Timing of the evacuation**

Evacuation timing models provide estimates for how much time an evacuation would take, thereby informing emergency management actors about when to issue an alert and when to order an evacuation. These should be determined based on the information available on the hazard, the features of the local early warning system and the time needed for people to react to the alert. Effectively disseminating warnings and carrying out an evacuation in migrant communities might take longer, and this needs to be considered in the evacuation decision-making mechanisms and planning.

When warnings and orders need to be translated and adapted, the additional time required needs to be taken into consideration. Delays can be minimized – but not likely completely avoided – by identifying in advance interpreters, translators, cultural mediators and speakers, and by translating in advance standard messages or by setting up automated translation systems. Disseminating messages through additional channels might also require additional time, particularly when community-based channels are used (such as communication trees and door-to-door warnings) instead of mass media.

Evacuation timing models are usually based on an estimation of the time people will need to accept that a warning is real and to actually leave the evacuation zone. These times might differ between migrants and members of their host communities.

Migrants often need additional time to validate official warnings through trusted channels (such as their community, their preferred media or their consular authorities). The process can be shortened by ensuring that warnings and information are disseminated through these media or that these validation mechanisms are considered in the emergency communication plan, and that the relevant actors are provided with the relevant information and adequately supported. Effective validation of warnings can also be supported by setting up a multilingual hotline for the verification of information, or by disseminating multilingual information on the relevant websites and social network profiles. Deploying response personnel, staff of trusted institutions or community members in areas with a high migrant presence, with the aim to help answer queries, can also be useful to this end.

Migrants’ reactions to validated warnings are also likely to be different from those of natives. Evacuation behaviours depend on people’s culture, and migrants may have learned to react to emergencies in ways that may not correspond to the recommendations of the host country’s
systems (for example, fleeing instead of remaining in a relatively safe place). In addition, migrants are less likely to own a vehicle and more likely to live and work in remote, isolated areas underserved by quality transportation infrastructure – both conditions can make their evacuation slower. Lastly, they may be more likely than natives to ignore evacuation orders and to remain in the hazard zone due to concerns for their family members and property left behind, and due to a lack of trust in the capacity of emergency management actors (and more generally of the host country’s institutions) to protect them.

Providing evacuees with warnings and information

Communicating timely, accurate information is key to providing the population with details on the situation and with instructions on the actions to be taken to inform an effective evacuation. The specifics of communicating with migrants before, during and after emergencies are discussed in detail in Chapter 6; however, it is important to be reminded that:

- Messages targeting migrants may need to be translated and adapted, and the actors responsible for these tasks should be formally included in emergency communications and warning systems.
- Migrants might be living and working in isolated, underserved areas and locations, with reduced access to information. In addition, they might use communication channels different from those used by the native population, and are likely to keep using these channels during emergencies, including for receiving and validating warnings. It may be necessary to coordinate with additional media and through additional channels in order to disseminate and communicate consistent, appropriate information.
- Migrants might need specific information as part of warnings and emergency communications, including on:
  - Specific sites where they can evacuate to in safety or where they can receive targeted services;
  - Eligibility or prerequisites for receiving basic services and aid;
  - Contact telephone numbers and/or addresses of multilingual hotlines and information services;
  - Updates about changes to immigration regulations.

Specific procedures and channels (as well as targeted awareness-raising and preparedness efforts) might already be in place to communicate with hard-to-reach groups. They can represent a blueprint when adapting the system to better target migrants. Gathering and disseminating information on the evolution of the situation (including on people’s movements, unmet needs, risks they face, existing responses and available assistance) is important to ensure that responses are better adapted to migrants’ needs.

Facilitating movements out of the evacuation zone

Prepared, informed and well-resourced individuals may be able to evacuate on their own in the face of a hazard or upon receiving a warning. However, many other evacuees may need assistance to leave the evacuation area and to get to safe locations. Based on the assessment
of the evacuation zone and of the population to be evacuated, as well as on the identification of possible evacuation routes, it is usually possible to understand people’s actual ability to move in response to the threat or impact of a hazard, and to plan, to arrange, to facilitate and to assist their evacuations.

Supporting the evacuation of migrants requires understanding that they are often less able or less willing to evacuate than natives. This is due to, for example:

- Reduced knowledge of evacuation routes and sites;
- Fear of arrest, deportation and xenophobic acts;
- Unwillingness to accept assistance from people outside their community;
- Concerns regarding the security of families and assets left behind;
- Willingness to stay close to kin and community members, or to their workplaces;
- Reduced access to private transportation options.

**Directing migrant evacuees to safe areas and shelters**

The use of maps, signs and automated information systems (such as Dynamic Route Information Panels) along evacuation routes can help people evacuate in the right direction and to the right places. It can be useful to install translated or pictorial signage along routes that might be used by migrants in emergencies. When leaflets and other information handouts (such as maps) are produced to guide evacuees, multilingual or translated products can be considered.


It can also be useful to deploy bilingual personnel or volunteers to provide directions and information along routes and at checkpoints and shelters. Ideally, such personnel would receive training on migrants’ cultural specificities and specific needs, and, in order to avoid trust issues, on dos and don’ts.

**Accounting for migrants’ isolation and connections**

Migrants are more likely than natives to live in isolated, underserved areas in which transportation infrastructure and public transportation options are below local standards – and from which it may be particularly difficult to evacuate. Such places may include, for instance, rural areas, isolated industrial sites and informal urban neighbourhoods. In emergencies, such areas may be particularly difficult to access, due to their location or the fragility of the infrastructure. Dedicated support may be needed in order to ensure that all people living or
working in such places are effectively evacuated, as responders are often likely to neglect them (which is often especially the case in high-immigration areas).

In addition, specific groups of migrants might suffer particular conditions of isolation. They include migrants in detention, undeclared migrant workers, migrants facing restrictions to their movement for administrative reasons and migrant women who, for cultural reasons, are not allowed to leave their houses alone. Specific outreach and transportation efforts may be needed to ensure their effective evacuation.

In yet other cases, migrants may be unwilling to evacuate without other members of their family or kin. While this may be the case for non-migrants as well, increased day-to-day reliance on social networks and limited trust in local response actors are likely to make this element particularly relevant when planning for the evacuation of migrants.

**Presence of police and armed forces**

It is often uniformed officers who are responsible for informing and directing evacuees to gathering points or safe sites. Their presence can reduce migrants’ willingness to evacuate and to access assistance. The deployment of border police and other personnel usually in charge of enforcing immigration regulations should be avoided especially in high-immigration areas – plainclothes officers, community police officers, or staff of more trusted institutions (such as fire brigades, civil protection agencies and migrant assistance units) or of non-institutional actors (such as NGOs, community service organizations and migrant volunteers) can be deployed instead. The need for uniforms can be reduced by using badges or symbols for identifying the staff involved in evacuation operations, which may be perceived as less threatening.

Police officers or members of other armed forces are often deployed to evacuation zones to maintain security and to prevent unauthorized access. Migrants are often more reluctant to evacuate due to concerns for the security of the belongings they leave behind, which would partly be addressed by the presence of armed forces. However, they often have reasons to fear or mistrust them; hence, their presence in and around evacuation areas may further reduce migrants’ willingness to evacuate.

To help address these issues, certain emergency management actors, such as the police, can have a clear policy of not enforcing immigration regulations, including arrest, detention and deportation, as part of evacuation efforts. They may issue statements to inform migrants about this policy. Further, emergency management actors can ensure that limited or no proof of identity, and no documents or information about migration status, would be required in order to access evacuation assistance.

Only specifically mandated authorities should enforce immigration regulations, and ideally they should not be involved in evacuation assistance and emergency management efforts in general. This may include ensuring that the police and the armed forces who are deployed to assist in the evacuation operations do not concentrate on immigration-related duties. Preventing and punishing exploitative or abusive behaviours by such actors are absolutely key to improving migrants’ willingness to access evacuation assistance, as well as to building trust in the host country’s institutional system overall.
Arranging transportation options

While providing information and guidance for people to be able to move autonomously is essential for effective evacuations, the presence of people who do not have the means or the capacity to move on their own should be considered in contingency plans and emergency assistance. Arranging adequate transportation options out of at-risk areas to safe locations and evacuation sites is key for inclusive, effective evacuations.

Migrants tend to have reduced ownership of, or access to, private means of transportation (such as cars, bikes or boats) and to rely more on public transportation, both in non-emergency and emergency times. In terms of percentage, more migrants than natives require evacuation support, and this needs to be taken into account in contingency plans.

In addition, migrants often live and work in areas that may be poorly served by public transportation networks or poorly connected to transportation infrastructure (such as informal urban settlements, isolated rural areas and industrial establishments). Specific arrangements may need to be made in order to ensure that transportation options are adequate and that sites are sufficiently accessible (for example, for debris removal or for the use of alternative routes and sites). To this end, the use of public buses and vans, and rental and other private vehicles, is a viable option. Migrants may be less willing to use vehicles of institutions they do not trust (such as police cars and vans, military trucks and prison buses). It is vital to identify and coordinate with the relevant stakeholders (such as NGOs and migrants’ organizations, embassies and consulates, employers, hotels owners and tour operators, and local business owners) in order to assess and leverage all locally available resources.

In Los Angeles, the Metropolitan Transportation Authority has planned to help support a possible evacuation from isolated, high-immigration, low-income districts through its own public transportation network in the case of disasters.

Livelihood and documentation concerns

In a number of instances, migrants have been found to be less likely to evacuate than non-migrants as a consequence of a variety of circumstances, which emergency management actors can help address.

Loss or destruction of documentation (a common occurrence in emergencies) may reduce the willingness of migrants to move within the host country. In other cases, migrants may not have access to documents because they are being withheld by their recruiter, employer or a host country authority. They may also be unwilling to evacuate for fear of losing unpaid salaries, or to avoid losing their employment prospects, especially when they are working in informal, unprotected jobs. Withholding documents or salaries is a particularly common way for employers and recruiters to prevent migrants from changing jobs, moving to another destination within a country or reporting exploitative practices to authorities. This especially
affects undocumented workers or those who have contracted a debt with their employers or recruiters.

Local emergency management actors do not usually have the mandate to address such issues directly. Disseminating information on the relevant measures and mechanisms, if they have been established, can help remove obstacles to evacuations. Such measures may include:

- Issuing duplicates of identity documents, visas and permits;
- Increasing flexibility in the enforcement of migration and labour regulations by host country authorities;
- Providing migrants with opportunities to obtain temporary protected status for humanitarian reasons;
- Offering employment opportunities or (un)employment-related benefits that may be accessible to migrants;
- Having mechanisms to cover losses employers or recruiters may incur as a consequence of migrants’ departure;
- Providing migrants with options for claiming unpaid salaries.

Such actors, however, can also be in charge of mediating directly with recruiters, employers and their associations to facilitate the release of migrants or their documents and pay, or both.

**Information management**

The process of registering and profiling evacuees is key to tracking the progress of the evacuation operations, to informing and evaluating the provision of further assistance and to monitoring the evolution of the emergency situation. Being able to access accurate data on evacuees and affected persons, including their numbers and characteristics, packaged in reports, maps and databases, helps emergency management actors to target relief and recovery efforts and to counter rumours and speculation.

In order to provide more meaningful information, disaggregation of these data is essential. Common criteria for disaggregation include age, sex and health status. However, in evacuation operations that involve large migrant populations, additional disaggregation criteria often need to be considered, including:

- Language spoken;
- Country of origin;
- Migration status;
- Privacy requirements;
- Dietary restrictions and preferences;
- Stances towards health care and psychosocial support;
- Religion and collective rituals;
- Unmet needs;
- Return intentions (which is key to inform tracking of movement across borders).

Tracking and collecting information on migrant evacuees, however, might be particularly challenging, as migrants may not be willing to provide information. This is especially the case
with unregistered migrants who fear arrest or deportation. Ensuring that data are used only for emergency management purposes, and that migrants are made aware of this by individuals they trust is key to enhancing their willingness to participate in such exercises.

In some cases, data collection will have to be carried out by specific staff (such as staff from trusted institutions or female staff members) or under specific conditions of privacy (for example, in a reserved space where privacy can be respected).

In order to collect data concerning migrants who do not speak the local language, it may be necessary to:

- Translate data collection forms;
- Deploy bilingual enumerators;
- Have professional or voluntary interpreters accompany enumerators;
- Develop and distribute basic phrasebooks or pictorial communication tools among the staff responsible for registration and data collection.

Having this information is essential for facilitating the evacuation of whole families, as well as for carrying out family tracing and reunification. It can also be important for referring evacuees to particular service providers; for example, they may present specific needs, they may need to be referred to specific actors, or they may present particular conditions of being vulnerable to becoming victims of trafficking or exploitation, which is especially the case for unaccompanied minors. Migrant evacuees may be, and in some cases are often, especially vulnerable to these situations. Information available on migrants’ whereabouts and movements may need to be shared with the relevant institutions of the countries of origin (embassy or consulate, or home country institutions if the country of origin does not have a consular representation in the area).

**KEY LEARNING POINTS**

- Migrants’ specificities affect their capacity and willingness to move to safety in the face of emergencies. This needs to be taken into account when planning for and supporting evacuations.
- Due to language and trust barriers in particular, there needs to be a rethinking of the way: (a) directions are provided along evacuation routes and in evacuation sites; (b) personnel is deployed in the field; and (c) information is collected to track population movements. Limited ownership of means of transportation is another important element to take into account when assisting people’s evacuation out of at-risk or affected areas.
TOPIC 2: FACILITATING INTERNATIONAL EVACUATIONS AND REPATRIATIONS

While migrants often prefer to remain in the area or at least in the country affected by an emergency, massive international evacuations have taken place both from conflict-affected and from disaster-affected countries. Examples of the former case include, for instance, the Syrian Arab Republic and Yemen crises. Examples of the latter include the 2011 triple disaster in Japan (when many foreign workers and students left the country looking for safety in the face of unclear levels of risk as a consequence of the Fukushima accident), the 2011 floods in Thailand and the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami. Such international evacuations are complex operations that pose specific challenges to emergency preparedness and response actors, and that may require the provision of a broader range of services than in local evacuations.

Coordination mechanisms

Collaboration with a larger group of governmental and non-governmental actors (including civil society and private sector actors) is key to providing these services and facilitating cross-border population movements. Such actors may include:

- Governments of migrants’ home countries;
- Third-country governments that may be supporting the evacuation of nationals from other States;
- International organizations that may be supporting evacuation operations;
- Governments of neighbouring and transit States;
- Employers and recruiters that may be evacuating their own employees (and possibly their dependents and other individuals) themselves;
- Tour operators, airlines, and shipping or other transportation companies that may be running the actual evacuation operations.

Establishing service agreements, memorandums of understanding, or bilateral or multilateral cooperation mechanisms before an emergency can allow for more effective coordination on issues such as nationality verification, means of transport, temporary accommodation, fit-for-travel health assessments, family tracing and so forth. If no such mechanisms exist, ad hoc arrangements can be useful to this end (for more details on options for collaboration and coordination, see Chapter 3). These mechanisms are important in determining the roles and responsibilities of the relevant actors and how they will share the costs of the evacuation.

It should be noted that evacuation operations often happen in parallel with international relief efforts, including delivery of humanitarian aid (such as food, non-food and shelter items, and medical materials). These efforts often require the establishment of coordination mechanisms involving host country emergency management actors, intervening institutions of home and third countries, international actors and other stakeholders in order to make the best use of all of the staff and resources they can contribute. To assist in the evacuations, the migrants’ countries of origin may deploy technical teams – comprised of skilled personnel such as enumerators and processing teams, movement officers and health specialists – to affected areas. While...
both the presence of additional capacities and the departure of significant numbers of affected persons can ease pressures on the local response system, a lack of coordination can lead to inefficient responses (for example, inability to mobilize transportation in a timely manner, and overcrowding of airports, seaports and departure points).

In order to improve the effectiveness of such arrangements, it can be useful to test them through tabletop exercises and drills before an emergency occurs, as well as to evaluate the way they work in times of emergency.

**Identifying options for evacuating migrants**

At various stages before and during an emergency, different groups of migrants are likely to have access to a different array of international evacuation options, depending on:

- Where the affected area is located and how it is connected to foreign territories;
- Where their home country is located and how it is connected to the area affected by the emergency;
- What actual resources can be deployed by the migrants themselves, their home governments and other relevant actors (such as international organizations and third-country governments) for the evacuation.

Understanding the options available to different groups of citizens of different States is key to informing the way evacuations are planned and managed. This includes understanding how to address particular cases (for example, families of mixed nationality, including nationals of the host country). The whole range of actors indicated above can provide relevant information to this end. In addition, some of this information may already be available to other host country institutions (such as air traffic controllers, port and border authorities, or the ministry of foreign affairs).

Criteria such as age, sex, health status, family composition and specific needs may also help to determine migrants’ qualification for (priority) evacuation assistance. This kind of individual-level information is often collected by emergency management actors as part of routine information management efforts connected to evacuation or displacement.

A series of additional data collection efforts might also provide data that are useful to inform evacuation efforts, including to conduct:

- Nationality verification, in collaboration with home country authorities;
- Rapid vulnerability assessments;
- Pre-departure health screenings;
- Family tracing;
- Surveys of the migrants’ return intentions;
- Monitoring of vulnerable cases (such as unaccompanied minors and, potentially, victims of trafficking).

Circulating information among local, national and international actors involved in the response is key when planning and carrying out international evacuation operations.
Raising migrants’ awareness about evacuation options

Ensuring that migrants have comprehensive, updated information is key to the success of evacuation operations. Such information may include:

- Options available to different migrant groups to evacuate;
- Current obstacles to evacuation, and the outlook for the coming hours, days or weeks;
- The process needed to access evacuation assistance.

Emergency response actors in the host country can help disseminate this information to migrants through targeted awareness-raising campaigns and communications (such as inclusion in “know your rights” materials and emergency communications). Because the available options and priorities are likely to change as the emergency unfolds, the information that is disseminated should be updated to reflect such changes.

It is highly likely, however, that other actors will also be working to this end (including home country authorities, tour operators and international organizations). It is therefore necessary to ensure the consistency of the messages.

Legal and administrative aspects

Providing potential evacuees with the necessary identity and travel documentation to exit the country and to move to their destination is key to facilitating international evacuations. This might require setting up processes for identity/nationality verification of potential evacuees, as well as facilities to issue temporary laissez-passer or to renew lost or damaged identity and travel documents. Such processes can be set up through collaboration between emergency management actors in the host country and the relevant institutions in the home country, and the operations can be established in key evacuation locations (such as shelters, exit points and border crossings).

Registering evacuees is important for the preparation of passenger manifests, documents that are necessary to ensure that a vessel or vehicle can depart. Such documents usually include names and personal information (such as date of birth and identification number), as well as the place where the person’s trip originated, any intermediate stops and the final destination.

In addition, host country institutions often play a role in facilitating people’s movement out of the country in emergencies by simplifying exit procedures. Such measures might include:

- Waiving fees related to exit, overstay or violation of restrictions on movement, or not requiring exit visas, which is particularly important for undocumented migrants, overstayers, detained migrants and other categories of migrants without regular status;
- Expediting the provision of exit visas and other necessary documents, including through bulk issuance;
- Easing re-entry permits for affected migrants, including students and foreign workers.

These measures also help ensure that movement into the country is still possible, both for those who enter after an emergency begins and for migrants who return after having been repatriated.
In the wake of the 1996 crisis, the Government of Lebanon released hundreds of migrant domestic workers from prisons and detention centres, declaring amnesty for all undocumented migrants on the condition that they leave the country.

In other cases, host States may advocate for and coordinate with neighbouring countries to keep borders open, or with third countries to ensure they will allow evacuees to transit through the country en route to their final destination (for example, by issuing transit visas in bulk), and with all of them to ensure incoming migrants will have regular status (including through the establishment of preferential channels for temporary protection). Host country institutions also play an important role in enabling migrants to recoup outstanding wages by directly covering the wages or by receiving and redressing their complaints, including when the migrants are abroad. Lastly, they are key to granting access to external actors (such as international organizations, transportation companies, and the relevant institutions and agencies from foreign governments – including their armies, navies and air forces) to key transportation facilities, transit centres and locations in order to organize, assist and carry out evacuations.

While these measures are not usually within the mandate of emergency response actors, the way they reflect on people’s movement options is extremely significant for planning and managing international evacuations. Emergency management actors can support these efforts by disseminating relevant information and ensuring that personnel deployed in particularly critical locations (such as exit points and evacuation routes), including border guards, are aware of changes in regulations and of how they affect their work with migrants.

**Improving operational capacity of emergency management actors**

The deployment of staff with specific skill sets can support international evacuation efforts, complementing capacities that emergency management actors do not always have. Such personnel may be seconded or deployed by other institutions or authorities, and can include:

- Trained enumerators and surveyors;
- Officers who can liaise with the relevant institutions;
- Media spokespersons and social media managers;
- Specialists on international travel;
- Additional health and psychosocial professionals;
- Specialists on family tracing, as well as on using any relevant platform for the collection and sharing of data on affected persons and evacuees;
- Professionals trained in humanitarian border management, and in recognition and referral of specific cases;
- Bilingual workers, interpreters and translators.

Personnel deployed in the field may need to receive targeted training on the specificities of international evacuation operations, including on:
Options available;
Eligible migrants;
Procedures to follow;
Referral mechanisms to other authorities.

Cross-border cooperation with the relevant authorities of neighbouring countries can also help the host government manage people’s (and migrants’) movement during emergencies. This can include:

- Establishing coordination mechanisms;
- Carrying out joint simulations and drills involving local and national crisis-response bodies, border services, fire brigades and other relevant personnel;
- Establishing standard operating procedures for cross-border cooperation in crises;
- Disseminating key information on crisis preparedness, including locations of shelters, hospitals and consulates, to migrants and other populations residing in the border area.

Facilitating movement out of the country

Host country institutions are not usually directly tasked with organizing transportation out of the country, but they play a role in creating the conditions for the arrival and departure of airplanes, ships, trains, coaches and so forth. Emergency management actors may be in charge of coordinating activities at the main seaports and airports, including as part of efforts to manage the incoming flow of foreign aid. In these cases, the following measures can help emergency management actors support effective international evacuations:

- Ensuring that the operating capacity of airports and seaports, stations and routes is re-established early on;
- Considering people’s needs for evacuation when scheduling the usage of ports and routes;
- Setting up systems to provide timely authorization for the arrival and departure of airplanes, ships and so forth.

In addition, host country emergency management actors play a key role in enabling international evacuees to reach safe areas and holding centres, border crossings and other exit points (such as airports and seaports), which is often one of the first steps required in international evacuations. The possibility of international evacuations may therefore need to be considered when planning for and assisting local evacuations, as migrants may need to be directed towards different locations and according to specific schedules.

Local emergency management actors are also likely to be responsible for supporting potential evacuees before the actual evacuation takes place, including through the management of shelters and the distribution of basic aid at evacuation sites and exit points. In these capacities, these actors should respect the accepted standards for relief operations. Setting up, or facilitating the establishment of, transit centres along major routes or in key transportation hubs (such as airports, seaports and border crossings) can help facilitate the provision of assistance, migrants’ registration and the organization of further evacuations.
Migrants are more likely than natives to be involved in international evacuations, which are complex operations that require a range of skills that local emergency management actors might not always have. Coordinating with a variety of actors, including non-traditional partners, is therefore critical.

Coordination is essential in identifying the migrants who can be evacuated and the available evacuation options, and in ensuring that vessels and vehicles transporting evacuees can leave the country. This coordination includes dealing with legal and administrative aspects of movement in the country affected by the emergency, in migrants’ countries of destination and in the countries through which they will pass.

Having functioning local transportation and assistance networks, as well as effective local evacuation procedures, is vital in international evacuations.
TOPIC 3: RAISING AWARENESS ABOUT EVACUATION ARRANGEMENTS

The success of evacuations is strictly dependent on the degree to which potential evacuees are aware of and involved in evacuation planning. This influences their ability to interpret messages correctly, to trust orders and to react consistently with the expectations of emergency management actors. Evacuation options and behaviours should therefore be well known to the community, and ideally should be tested. Tests help expose potential obstacles to effective responses and make emergency management actors’ actions and coordination smoother.

Involving at-risk people in the development of evacuation plans is important both for raising their awareness and ability to act, and for improving the emergency management actors’ understanding of the community’s characteristics and capacities. Adopting a participatory approach to evacuation and contingency planning is particularly important when working with migrant communities, which may present features (which may not be as well known, understood or taken into account) that are different from those of the native population.

Awareness-raising activities

Understanding evacuation options, being aware of local hazards and the local context, and having trust in local institutions and the capacity to act help migrants face obstacles in emergencies (as discussed in Topic 1 of this chapter and in Chapter 2). Raising migrants’ awareness about what to do in an evacuation is most effective if done prior to the impact of a hazard. Emergency preparedness and evacuation planning should therefore include details on how to disseminate information, raise awareness and educate the public on such elements. As stated in Chapter 6, information on evacuation options and procedures should be:

- Clear, and translated into the languages understood by the migrants (if needed) and otherwise well understood by the migrants;
- Relevant, as it needs to contain any details the migrants might need;
- Accurate and timely;
- Conveyed through the media that the migrants actually use;
- Credible – emergency management actors should make extra efforts to ensure the information is validated or conveyed by actors that the migrants trust.

This information can be packaged in a variety of forms, including multimedia materials, signs and maps. Key messages should, however, include information on:

- Types of hazards;
- Different threat levels and corresponding actions to take, including individual-level and family-level preparedness and response measures;
- Routes, sites and available options for assistance.

Awareness-raising campaigns can also include information to encourage evacuations, addressing in particular the potential obstacles that migrants may face (such as administrative barriers, fear of arrest and loss of income).
Drills and exercises

Practice drills and trainings in normal times are fundamental for people to learn to evacuate properly and in a timely manner in emergencies. These efforts can also improve the competency of the local response bodies to deal with migrant groups, as they highlight potential problems in the way they operate. They can also have the added benefit of showing that emergency management actors care about migrant groups within their community, which can help increase migrants’ trust in the relevant authorities and in the local institutional system overall.

In order to involve migrants in drills and exercises, it is important to keep in mind that:

- Public drills can be held in high-immigration areas, which may be underserved or considered less in preparedness efforts;
- The exercises can be organized to correspond with particular events likely to draw migrants’ attention or to be attended by large numbers of migrants (for example, at a specific time of the year for seasonal workers, or during specific celebrations or holidays);
- The exercise might need to be scheduled for a specific day of the week or time of the day to ensure that migrants are able to attend;
- Specific incentives may be needed to ensure the participation of all migrant groups, including poorer migrants, undocumented or irregular migrants and other migrants who have reasons to fear contact with host institutions and communities;
- Dedicated drills can be organized to involve selected representatives from specific communities or from institutions that are particularly relevant to a given migrant group: key individuals include leaders and gatekeepers, as well as students;
- Preparedness exercises in the workplace might not effectively include undocumented workers, who might hide (or who might be forced to hide by their employers) during drills.
- Dedicated, regular drills and training series can be set up to target newcomers, migrants in transit, seasonal migrants and other groups who may change on a regular basis;
- Coordinating the organization and advertisement of the preparedness activities with institutions that are important to migrant communities (such as cultural centres, consulates and embassies, and migrant organizations) can help in improving outreach and involvement and in addressing migrants’ fear of authorities and host communities;
- Involving cultural mediators, bilingual staff, trained migrant volunteers and migrant staff, is key to delivering information effectively and can increase the involvement of migrants.

**KEY LEARNING POINTS**

- Potential evacuees’ awareness of and participation in evacuation operations are key to the success of the operations. Devising targeted communications and awareness-raising efforts, drills and practices, is essential for migrants’ emergency preparedness.
CHAPTER 8

Delivering appropriate relief and recovery assistance
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AIM OF THE CHAPTER

Participants are aware of the need to adapt assistance during and after emergencies to provide migrants with adequate goods and services. They are able to recognize measures that can improve the appropriateness of the services they provide.

Participants are aware of the need to implement specific measures to prevent trafficking and exploitation of migrants.

INTRODUCTION

Providing relief and recovery assistance is one of the main responsibilities of emergency management actors. They reduce suffering and save lives during emergencies, and minimize negative short-term and long-lasting impacts on affected persons in the aftermath of emergencies. Providing at-risk and affected persons with goods and services such as food, water, shelter and housing reconstruction assistance, basic items, health and psychosocial care, and livelihood support is a core element of the mandate of many such actors, whether governmental or not. In order to fulfil their mandate effectively, they need to provide assistance that is both sufficient (quantitatively) and appropriate (qualitatively) to address the basic needs of the communities they serve.

In diverse communities, and especially in areas where significant numbers of migrants live and work, this means including in planning and assistance people who will likely have capacities, needs and priorities that are different from those of natives. Adapting the delivery of relief and recovery services is often key to ensuring that these groups, which are an integral part of the community that the emergency management actors are mandated to serve, receive adequate assistance.

This is a complex endeavour that requires on the one hand tailoring the emergency response actors’ direct assistance to migrants’ specific needs and capacities, and on the other hand removing the obstacles that migrants might face during and after emergencies (such as reduced access to information, or legal and administrative barriers to accessing support). Having a one-size-fits-all approach, which is aimed at providing all groups of people with the same forms of assistance, while formally non-discriminatory, is often not enough to allow diverse groups (and migrants, in particular) to access adequate support during and after emergencies – not even basic, life-saving assistance.

Creating the conditions for migrants to suffer limited immediate and longer-term impacts in emergencies is often a responsibility of a variety of institutions (governmental and non-governmental, based in the migrants’ countries of origin and destination, as well as in third countries). As it is the case with emergency response efforts in general, however, the local institutions in charge of coordinating and managing emergency response and recovery play a key role in creating the conditions for this to happen. It is therefore particularly important that these institutions commit to taking into account the characteristics of the groups they serve (and adapting the way they work accordingly), instead of planning and working in an “automatic” manner.
Removing barriers and tailoring assistance can be particularly challenging (and especially important) after emergencies. While relief assistance in most countries of the world is provided (at least formally) in a non-discriminatory manner, with most life-saving services being theoretically available to all affected persons, recovery assistance (usually involving long-term, costly official housing reconstruction and livelihood support) is likely not to be fully accessible to the various migrant groups, and in particular undocumented ones. However, making recovery assistance more inclusive often requires changes in the local legal and administrative framework that go well beyond the mandate and responsibility of emergency management actors.

Insufficient or inadequate post-emergency assistance can result in slower, less effective recovery and in chronic impacts on migrants’ well-being, progressively eroding their assets and resources and reducing their capacity to cope with the impacts of future emergencies. Migrants’ recovery, however, is key to the overall community’s recovery – in particular for high-immigration communities in which migrants’ presence is sizeable. Migrants’ presence is often necessary for the functioning of many economic sectors, including some that are crucial to reconstruction and recovery efforts.

Inclusive reconstruction and recovery actions can also help support societal change and resilience, improving the well-being of migrants and their families, and thereby enhancing the resilience of the communities in which they live. Adapting the way traditional services are provided is an increasingly important way to reduce the impacts of emergencies in societies that grow ever more diverse, and of which ever more diverse and sizable migrant groups represent a component that is impossible not to consider.
TOPIC 1: PROVIDING CULTURALLY APPROPRIATE RELIEF AND RECOVERY ASSISTANCE

In order to cope with and recover from the impacts of emergencies successfully, people must be able to have a range of basic needs met. The provision of food, water, clothing, shelter and other relief goods and services is essential to meet such needs, to ensure the victims’ survival and to restore their psychological well-being and security. It is therefore important that emergency management actors recognize how even the most basic needs can be directly affected by people’s backgrounds, including their nationality, ethnicity and migration status.

Supporting and restoring access to the resources and services that are key to meeting such needs is an important element of the work of emergency management actors. This requires providing a variety of forms of support before, during and after emergencies for periods of time ranging from a few days to many years. Worldwide, emergency management actors are likely to be mandated to provide this kind of assistance on a non-discriminatory basis, regardless of the individual characteristics of the at-risk and affected people. However, since needs (and as a consequence the support required) are determined by people’s background, in order to fulfil this mandate, the assistance they provide needs to be appropriate for the needs of the different beneficiaries. The principle of non-discrimination must therefore not only be stated in legal and administrative provisions regulating the work of emergency management actors, but also enacted through a variety of concrete measures that recognize and address people’s specificities. The type of measures that will be needed depends on the features of the emergency situation and the cultural specificities, actual needs and capacities of the affected people.

The absence of discrimination in emergency service provision based on origin, race and legal status is key to ensuring that migrants have access to appropriate support to cope with the impacts of emergencies. However, it is also important to have targeted, proactive efforts to be able to meet their particular needs, as well as to overcome the barriers that make them less willing or less able to access services and resources. Overlooking these specific needs and barriers results in slower, less effective response and recovery and more significant short-term and long-lasting impacts, which can further exacerbate migrants’ vulnerability.

Chile hosts a sizable migrant population – in 2013, there were some 132,100 migrant residents, along with an undetermined number of undocumented migrants. The vast majority were labour migrants from neighbouring countries, particularly Peru, living in large cities, with 65 per cent residing in the capital, Santiago. During the 2010 earthquake, migrants were reportedly discriminated against by a number of municipal authorities, which did not include migrants in emergency sheltering plans or in municipal post-disaster assessments. Irregular migrants were even less able to access basic assistance as they were lacking a valid national identification number, which is essential to be entitled to basic services in the country.
Non-discriminatory legal and regulatory frameworks

Enshrining the principle of non-discrimination in the fundamental legal and organizational frameworks that underpin relief, response and recovery work (such as national and local-level legislation, administrative documents, and statutes and policies of the relevant organizations) can provide a solid foundation for including migrants in the basic assistance provided in emergencies, thereby contributing to reducing their vulnerability.

Emergency management actors may have little power to modify the relevant legal and administrative context, but their policy and operational frameworks play an important role in determining who is entitled to receive emergency assistance and under which conditions. Having internal policies that call for the non-discrimination or the integration of migrants (including as part of a wider array of potentially marginalized groups) can effectively lead to more inclusive provision of emergency services. In addition, in cases in which a general legal or regulatory framework is missing, ad hoc orders, communications or directives set by institutionally mandated agencies can help create conditions for more inclusive assistance (including on a temporary basis).

The civil defence and emergency management systems of Australia and New Zealand have issued guidelines for including members of culturally and linguistically diverse communities in their disaster preparedness, response and recovery efforts. Recognizing the need to build the capacity of communities (including migrants) in order to build collective resilience, these guidelines support, among other things, the establishment of forums and mechanisms for dialogue among migrant communities, local authorities and disaster risk management actors.

In order to create an emergency management system that includes migrants, it is particularly important that relief and recovery services and assistance be provided without discrimination based on:

- Place of origin or nationality (foreigners are explicitly entitled to the same opportunities for assistance as natives);
- Race or ethnicity (membership in a ethnic or racial group is irrelevant for the purpose of emergency assistance provision);
- Migration status (foreigners can access assistance regardless of whether they are regular or documented);
- Language (people’s ability to speak the local language should not affect their capacity to receive assistance).
Colombia’s disaster response law recognizes the principle of equality, stating that all persons are entitled to the same assistance in emergencies. However, it also establishes that authorities are mandated to protect the life, integrity, property and (some) collective rights of residents. It is not clear whether this distinction is designed to exclude non-resident foreigners from this form of protection or whether this was a legislative oversight.

In Mexico, since 2010, non-nationals, regardless of their immigration status, are entitled to assistance in the event of a disaster and to health care in the event of an illness or accident that puts their life in peril. Moreover, the country’s earthquake and tsunami preparedness and response strategy specifically provides for cooperation among local institutions and foreign actors to identify and assist foreigners (tourists in particular).

In the United States, the Robert T. Stafford Disaster Relief and Emergency Assistance Act, which guides federal work on disaster response, calls for regulations to ensure that disaster relief and assistance are provided without discrimination on the grounds of race, colour, religion, nationality, sex, age, disability, proficiency in the English language or economic status. As a consequence, all immigrants, regardless of their immigration status, qualify for non-cash, short-term disaster relief from government agencies. The Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) in particular provides all disaster victims with a range of services in an unrestricted manner, including transportation, emergency medical care, counselling and emergency shelters. In addition, an August 2000 Executive Order of the President of the United States directs each federal agency to work to ensure that the programmes and activities they normally provide in English are accessible to people with limited English proficiency and thus do not discriminate on the basis of national origin in violation of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

The principle of non-discrimination should be applicable to life-saving services (such as search and rescue, emergency medical care, and the provision of food and emergency sheltering), as well as to basic services that are not exclusively relevant during or after emergency situations (such as urgent and preventive health care, education and basic welfare assistance). In fact, the adoption of a non-discriminatory approach to the provision of non-emergency services can greatly improve the availability of key services to migrants in emergencies.

In addition, the principle of non-discrimination can be extended to (some forms of) recovery assistance in order to ensure that migrants have access to longer-term support. Although recovery assistance is unlikely to be accessible without discrimination to all migrant groups
(and especially to undocumented migrants) in all of its forms, as a minimum all regularly registered migrants who contribute to the local welfare and fiscal system should be explicitly entitled to receive reconstruction and recovery assistance.

The principle of non-discrimination should apply to officially mandated agencies as well as to civil society organizations and other response and recovery actors that work to deliver emergency assistance.

In the United States, the Individuals and Households Program was established to provide people affected by disasters with resources and services to partially compensate for property losses not covered by insurance. Qualified groups of foreigners are entitled to receive assistance under the same conditions as citizens of the United States. Information on the programme is available in multiple languages from www.fema.gov/help-after-disaster.

Whatever the content of the relevant legal and organizational provisions, all other actors (such as civil society organizations, representatives of the migrants’ countries of origin and employers) should be left free to provide services to migrants, whatever their status, and especially if they do not qualify for official assistance. Law enforcement actors should not target migrants because of the assistance they are receiving, nor should they aid actors based on the assistance they are providing.

Emergency management actors should raise migrants’ awareness about their entitlement to the diverse forms of assistance (whether provided through official or non-official channels) and about how to apply for assistance. They should do this by developing and disseminating targeted, simple materials – including by collaborating with the institutions that migrants know well and trust. Targeted awareness-raising is particularly important in complex situations, such as cases in which not all members of a migrant household have the same status (for example, a national child born of two undocumented migrants) or qualify for the same kind of assistance.

To clarify migrants’ entitlement to relief and recovery assistance, FEMA in the United States has published a targeted reminder, which is available from www.fema.gov/faq-details/FEMA-Citizenship-Immigration-requirements-1370032118159. A document with similar content has been also published by a group of non-governmental organizations (which are potentially a more trusted source with greater penetration in the migrant community) and is available from www.nilc.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/11/disasterassist_immeligibility_2007-06.pdf.
Separating relief and recovery assistance from enforcement of immigration regulations

Ensuring that the provision of emergency services and assistance is decoupled from the enforcement of immigration regulations can help increase migrants’ ability and willingness to access emergency assistance, thereby reducing potential discrimination linked with nationality and legal status. This is particularly the case for irregular and undocumented migrants or migrants who have reasons to fear or mistrust local authorities, service providers and host communities. A variety of measures can be useful to this end.

Emergency management actors and other service providers should require no proof of identity as a precondition to receiving basic services and assistance (involving the provision of, for example, emergency medical care, emergency shelter, food, water and basic items) or any other service that is key to emergency response and recovery (such as complaint mechanisms and rights protection mechanisms). In no case should inquiries about a person’s immigration status be a precondition for receiving assistance. Information on a person’s legal status should only be collected with the purpose of providing more targeted and adequate services. Such practices benefit all groups of migrants (whether they have lost their documentation in the emergency or they did not have it in the first place), as well as nationals who have lost their documents in the emergency.

New York City has a “sanctuary city” policy that prohibits city services, including the police, from asking immigrants for their status when they try to access services that they are entitled to receive. As a consequence, officials ask only for migration status when it is required by law or when it is necessary to determine eligibility for the service.

In addition, police and armed forces involved in emergency response should refrain from enforcing immigration regulations (including by not arresting or deporting migrants and their family members) in emergency-affected areas or in conjunction with emergency management efforts. Similarly, emergency management actors and other service providers should refrain from referring undocumented or irregular migrants to immigration enforcement authorities in emergency-affected areas or in conjunction with emergency management efforts.

If officers normally in charge of enforcing immigration regulations (such as border police) are supporting the emergency management operations, they should not be deployed to areas or sites (such as shelters or hospitals) with a significant presence of migrants in order to avoid discouraging migrants from accessing assistance.

Furthermore, emergency management actors and other service providers should adopt strict policies on data collection in an attempt to prevent personal information collected as part of impact and needs assessments and evacuation tracking from being shared with immigration enforcement actors. Likewise, immigration institutions should refrain from asking for and using this kind of information for enforcement purposes.
During Hurricane Katrina, the Department of Homeland Security encouraged unauthorized immigrants affected by the hurricane to come forward and seek assistance, but it did not promise that victims would not be reported to immigration authorities. A spokesperson from the Department stated that rescuers were instructed not to ask people whether they were in the country legally. However, several victims were questioned by immigration authorities and three were ordered to appear for deportation hearings.

All of the measures described above should be adequately advertised – migrants should know what to expect from the different actors involved in relief and recovery efforts and should be informed about any change in the relevant regulations. However, a lack of awareness about existing opportunities might not be the main reason migrants are unwilling or unable to access emergency assistance, especially those who have reasons to fear contact with authorities, service providers or even host communities. In these cases, in addition to engaging in longer-term trust building efforts, it may be useful to collaborate with the organizations, institutions, media and individuals that migrants trust in order to communicate with them and inform them about any relevant developments.

At the same time, the adoption of these measures and their implications for emergency management practice need to be communicated to the staff and volunteers working for all of the relevant actors, in order to ensure that the measures are applied and respected in the field.

**Flexibility of immigration regulations**

The migrants’ host (and home) States’ capacity to process immigration formalities and to issue and renew documentation, including visas and permits, may be greatly affected in emergencies – a time when these services are likely to be greatly needed, as documents are often lost or destroyed. The latter is especially critical for migrants, for whom documentation may be essential for accessing basic emergency services, and who may be more likely than natives not to have access to documentation in the first place (for example, because their documents are being withheld by employers or recruiters). As a consequence, improving the flexibility of immigration regulations can be a key measure to improve migrants’ resilience in emergencies. This may include:

- Setting up expedited procedures for issuing and replacing documents that are needed to access assistance;
- Extending deadlines for migrants’ regularization or registration (for example, allowing migrants to apply for an extension of legal immigration status even if the application was filed after the status had expired, and tolerating delays in submission of documentation or evidence needed for regularization), and rescheduling planned appointments;
- Extending humanitarian status to migrants affected by the emergency;
- Setting up joint facilities with representatives from the foreign services of the migrants’ home countries for issuing and renewing (temporary) documentation in key sites (such as emergency shelters and evacuation sites);
• Suspending regulations prohibiting migrants from moving around in the country, and waiving requirements for the fees and documentation needed to leave (and later re-enter) the country;
• Lifting enforcement of sanctions for employers who are unable to produce work permits or other documents, or for those who hire migrants who are otherwise eligible for employment but who are unable to provide the required documents as a result of the crisis;
• Ensuring that whenever violations of labour regulations are reported that involve undocumented or irregular migrant workers, they do not lead to immigration enforcement;
• Issuing work authorizations for student visa holders experiencing severe economic hardship.

After Hurricane Sandy, the United States Citizenship and Immigration Services set up a variety of temporary measures available to affected migrants, including:

• Extending the period for submitting a request for temporary residence in the country;
• Renewing temporary stays based on humanitarian grounds;
• Expediting applications for employment;
• Providing flexibility to allow for storm-induced delays in the application process (for example, delays in meeting deadlines, submitting evidence or appearing for interviews).

In Libya, many African migrants were detained during and after the conflict due to allegations of involvement in confrontations among factions; however, the detentions were related more to lingering racism and anti-African sentiment within Libyan society. With about 11 per cent of Libya’s pre-crisis population comprised of documented foreign workers (and many more undocumented workers and workers not appearing in statistics), their freedom of movement and capacity to work were key to the country’s recovery, especially in specific sectors (such as construction, debris removal and agriculture).

While emergency management actors have no mandate to take such measures directly, they can help raise awareness about the measures among migrants (and staff and volunteers of emergency management/armed forces). They can also help support the dissemination of information on migrants (such as information needed to renew a visa) with the relevant authorities and the management of the facilities that can be allocated for processing immigration and documentation formalities.
Understanding migrants’ conditions in order to deliver appropriate assistance

A lack of knowledge and incorrect assumptions about the culturally specific needs of migrant groups and individuals can reduce the ability of first responders and service providers to assist them effectively before, during and after emergencies. This includes reducing their capacity to deliver successfully the most basic forms of life-saving relief assistance. Understanding the needs, capacities and priorities of different migrant groups (and of the different individuals they comprise) is a precondition for delivering targeted, adequate assistance.

Information that can help emergency management actors identify and understand these conditions and specificities can be collected through:

- Community profiling exercises rolled out before an emergency takes place (refer to Chapter 4 for more details), which can inform contingency planning, emergency stockpiling and all other relevant preparedness measures;
- Targeted, rapid profiling exercises rolled out in the immediate aftermath of the emergency;
- Focus groups and consultative meetings with representatives from, or advisers for, the different migrant groups;
- Impact and needs assessments carried out as part of routine emergency response and recovery actions;
- Registration procedures in evacuation sites and emergency shelters.

The last two ways listed above for collecting information are often carried out at regular intervals in order to capture the evolving composition of the community of affected persons and their needs. In addition to the data these methods are usually designed to gather (such as demographics, impacts suffered, disability status, health status, current access to shelter, livelihood opportunities and basic services, and unmet needs), they can help collect information on a variety of specific topics (covered in greater detail in Chapter 4 and in the following sections of this chapter).

After the Christchurch earthquakes, ethnic/cultural advisers established in the City Council, Partnership Health Canterbury, Office of Ethnic Affairs and the New Zealand Police helped these agencies deliver more targeted support to affected minorities.

The following sections highlight a number of elements that often need to be taken into account when working with migrants. However, every context is likely to be different, and different groups will likely have specific needs. Collecting and compiling information on the specific needs and requirements of the different migrant groups helps emergency management actors better understand how migrants’ presence affects how assistance should be provided. Compiling this information in documents to help guide concrete actions can be an effective way to disseminate this information to the relevant service providers.
The tool “M8_template” contains two tables, originally developed by the Government of the United States, that highlight how membership in a particular group affects requirements for food and basic relief items, as well as stances towards health-care provision. For more information about the relevant programme, see https://cccdpcr.thinkculturalhealth.hhs.gov.

It should be stressed once again that migration status is just one of the elements determining people’s specificities and needs in emergencies. Service provision efforts cannot ignore people’s age, gender, ethnicity, health status, disability, family composition and so forth. Therefore, no assumption should be made about people’s conditions or preferences based on their membership in a specific migrant group alone. (Refer to Chapter 2 for a more detailed discussion of this subject, and to the “M2_elements of diversity” graph.)

**Adapting the delivery of basic goods and services**

Serving at-risk and affected migrants requires emergency management actors both to adapt the provision of traditional emergency services and to plan for the delivery of additional services for which migrants might have a specific need, and which may not be traditionally considered to be part of their core responsibilities. The following sections outline some of the most relevant elements that should be kept in mind in order to provide appropriate assistance.

**Providing shelter in emergencies**

Providing people who have been affected by an emergency with sheltering options is a key responsibility of the emergency management system. Adequate sheltering helps minimize the risk that affected people face in the aftermath of the event and is a precondition for the effective delivery of a variety of other types of assistance (such as the distribution of food and non-food items). The need to assist a diverse group of affected persons, including migrants, bears significant consequences for the identification, planning and management of such facilities. An inability to meet such requirements can result in the migrants being less willing to use shelters at all, which would be a failure of the emergency management system to fulfil a key responsibility.

The Maribyrnong City Council in Australia has a set of guidelines to assist staff in the management of emergency relief centres in culturally and linguistically diverse communities. The guidelines provide concrete instructions on setting up and managing registration facilities, sleeping areas, washroom facilities, dietary requirements, personal support, clothing requirements and prayer rooms. Further information is available from www.maribyrnong.vic.gov.au/Page/Download.aspx?c=9335.
Identification of appropriate facilities

Migrants should be able to access all official shelters and evacuation sites and be assisted in the same way natives would be. However, they will probably be more willing to look for assistance in places they know and trust, and some migrants might even be reluctant to move to specific emergency facilities, which may result in their not being able to access assistance. When identifying facilities that could become places for sheltering affected persons in emergencies, these specificities need to be kept in mind.

It should be expected, for instance, that some migrants would not be willing to be located in police or military barracks, or in fenced-off sites, for sheltering. Open spaces such as public parks, or facilities managed by institutions they trust (such as churches, community centres, NGO offices or consulates) may be more suitable. These sites can be included in evacuation planning and potentially supported as dedicated shelters.

Registration

Registration is usually the first step for people to access emergency shelters, and migrants’ presence often means that registration methods require adaptation.

Avoiding the presence of uniformed officers in shelters, and in particular at the registration desks, can make migrants more likely to seek assistance.

Linguistic diversity also needs to be taken into account. It can be useful for evacuation site and emergency shelter managers to assign bilingual staff and volunteers to the registration desk and to create a list of other relevant personnel, interpreters and migrants (available on site or by telephone) who can be of assistance with regard to the specific language needs of incoming migrants. In addition, personnel can receive basic phrasebook or pictorial communication tools, or registration forms can be translated into the main languages of the migrants. At the very minimum, a list of flags or languages (written in both the local and the original spelling) should be displayed in order for individuals to identify their own language so shelter staff can locate an appropriate interpreter to assist in direct service provision and referrals to the relevant service providers.

The government of the state of Victoria, Australia, has an online tool to automatically produce customized “find your language” posters and leaflets. The tool consists of a simple form in which the user can input the languages that are likely to be spoken by those seeking assistance. The tool produces a formatted list of sentences (“I speak...”) translated into all of the languages that had been selected. These statements can be printed as a poster or a leaflet and used by staff at the emergency shelters’ registration desks or at other facilities where identifying a person’s language might be required (such as a hospital). The tool is available from www.healthtranslations.vic.gov.au/bhcv2/bhcht.nsf/pages/find_your_language.
Registration forms or interview questions (registration clerks may need to interview incoming individuals to collect basic information) may need to be adapted so that the facility managers can collect information on:

- Migrants’ membership in a specific group (if applicable and acceptable to the individual), which can help connect the migrant to representatives or other members of their communities;
- Language proficiency;
- Dietary specificities;
- Needs linked to religious or community practices;
- Privacy or etiquette;
- Preferred communication channels;
- Specific stances towards health care, psychosocial support, treatment of the dead;
- Contact persons in the local community and in the country of origin.

The information collected through forms or interviews can be compiled and analysed in order to determine the requirements for resources, interpreters and cultural mediators, and for liaising with (and informing) other key service providers, migrant representatives, associations and home governments.

Registration forms or interview questions should clearly convey that the information provided by the migrants would be used only for emergency management purposes (including, if needed, in aggregate forms for the evaluation of emergency management activities) and would not be shared with other authorities who do not respect the same confidentiality standards, and that, in particular, the information would not be used for informing immigration enforcement activities. This would especially be the case if it were necessary to collect information on people’s migration status.

If welcome letters or handouts with the rules, plan or schedule of the facility are distributed to registered evacuees, they can be translated into the languages that are the most common among the migrants.

**Signage**

Signage is needed to help migrants identify the different services and facilities within the shelter (such as toilets, sleeping areas and common spaces) and to direct people accordingly. Using pictorials and multilingual signs can help address language barriers. While the use of standard international signs is a possibility, it should be kept in mind that the interpretation of signs and pictures depends on people’s cultural background, and that signs should be validated not unlike any other piece of communication material.
The Japanese Council of Local Authorities for International Relations has produced a free toolkit that can be used by local disaster managers to produce information products (such as signs and boards, and audio and text communications) in 10 languages during disasters. Specific attention is paid to signage, directions and information in emergency shelters. Further information is available from www.sic-info.org/en/support/prepare-disaster/multilingual-tool/.

Privacy and sleeping arrangements

Site planning is also key to meeting the basic needs of migrant evacuees. For instance, some groups may require completely segregated sleeping arrangements (such as separate sleeping areas for males and females). Others will prefer to stay together with their family, kin or neighbours – in units much larger than those that may be common for natives. If no separate spaces are available, screens, tents, bed sheets or towels can be used to create separations.

If there are tensions between specific ethnic groups, they can be taken into account in the spatial planning of the shelter, and separating the relevant groups can help address them.

Toilets and services

Some migrant groups may have specific personal hygiene habits, which may require adapting toilets and showers in the shelters. These habits can include, for instance, using water instead of toilet paper, ritual hand washing, prohibiting use of alcohol-based hand wash, or using a bucket of water instead of a shower.

Common spaces

In addition to having requirements that are common among all evacuees (such as recreation areas and spaces allocated for children), migrant groups may have specific needs for spaces for socialization, individual prayer or performing collective religious or traditional rituals. Providing for such spaces as part of evacuation site planning is key for migrant groups to retain their identities, to adjust to the new situation and to cope with the impacts of the emergency.

Different ethnic or religious groups could require different spaces (such as a quiet area for meditation, contemplation or prayer, or a common space for collective celebrations) or specific items (such as water containers for ablutions, prayer mats, signs and religious symbols). If the facility has only one common room for all the groups, it may be necessary to outline a timetable for its preparation and use. Alternatively, external spaces or facilities can be identified.

If planning includes specific spaces for smokers, they should be located outdoors, and always away from prayer or other religious spaces and from kitchens or eating areas.

All national, ethnic and religious groups are likely to follow specific calendars for celebrations, festivals and social events, which they may want to respect while in shelters. Such calendars and their implications should be taken into account in terms of use of space and the additional resources that may be needed.
Safety and security

The presence of uniformed officers to ensure the safety and security of evacuees can discourage migrants from using the shelter facilities. However, migrants might need specific protection, especially if they have been, or there is a fear they could be, the target of xenophobic acts. Assigning officers of a migrant background, community police officers and other trusted personnel of the relevant forces to such duties can help address these trust issues.

Communications

As migrants’ families are often split across sites and countries, setting up basic facilities to support communications (including long-distance communications) enables migrants to communicate with family and kin back home, as well as with other members of their community on site and in other places in the country. In addition to establishing mobile telephone recharging areas (which are likely to be needed by all users of shelters and evacuation sites), this might require:

- Setting up a cybercafe-style area with computers with an Internet connection and the relevant software;
- Providing people staying at the shelter with access to Wi-Fi;
- Allowing guests to use the site’s landline telephones, including for long-distance calls;
- Having a few mobile telephones with credit or international flat rates available to those staying at the shelter.

Providing food and other basic supplies

Migrants’ specific preferences, requirements and restrictions need to be taken into account when stockpiling, procuring and providing food and other basic relief items, such as clothing and household items.

Food and drinks

Eating and drinking have implications for people’s nutrition and health status, as well as for the cohesiveness of families and communities. Providing diverse communities, including migrants, with food assistance in times of emergency (when access to a variety of options might be restricted) can be challenging, but it is crucial to people’s well-being.

Each migrant group is likely to have specific dietary habits, requirements or restrictions, and having precise information on the groups that are represented in the affected community is therefore essential for the planning and delivery of this kind of assistance. These may include:

- Preference for some types of meals (such as those with specific cereals, a lot of meat, a lot of vegetables, or very spicy or not);
- Prohibited from eating or drinking specific products (such as pork, beef or all meat, shellfish, non-halal or non-kosher products, or alcohol);
- Expectation to drink or eat specific products at specific times (such as warm beverages any time during the day, or milk with all meals);
(Not) eating at specific times of the day, week or year, or during festivals (for example, no meat on Fridays, no eating or drinking between sunrise and sunset during Ramadan, or having meals significantly later or earlier than other groups).

In order to meet these specificities, it may be necessary for emergency response coordinators or emergency shelter personnel to identify (better if in advance) food providers, markets and stockpiles, caterers and cooks.

**Clothes and other relief items**

Many migrant groups have specific clothing requirements linked with culture or religion, such as wearing specific head coverings (such as hijabs or turbans) or particular clothing. A sufficient number of such clothing items should be made available in order to meet the needs of affected migrants whenever distributions take place.

Migrants coming from different climates or environments may also need different types of clothing or items (such as warmer clothing or extra blankets). In addition, due to reduced awareness and limited income, migrants have often been found to be less likely than natives to have their own reserves of important relief items.

To be able to accommodate the need for different items, as well as the increased demand for standard relief commodities, the key items that are procured and stockpiled should reflect such specificities.

In a study conducted in Los Angeles, fewer than half of the respondents from low-income Latino communities correctly understood the terms disaster kit or emergency kit. However, they correctly identified items needed in times of crisis. Stockpiling supplies was mentioned as a challenge, due to their inability to allocate resources for planning, especially in specific conditions (such as unemployment or illness).

If migrants’ home countries send resources to assist their nationals directly or to contribute to overall relief efforts, specific coordination and distribution mechanisms may need to be established to ensure the appropriate delivery of such items.

**Providing health care and psychosocial support**

Evidence shows that mortality and morbidity in emergencies are generally higher among marginalized minority groups. They are more likely to live and work in unsafe locations and to have limited access to the resources, information and assistance that are vital to protecting their physical and mental health in emergencies. This in turn further affects all dimensions of their capacity (individual and household-level) to cope and to recover, including their ability to work and to earn an income. Ensuring that such groups receive timely and appropriate health care and psychosocial support is therefore key to addressing acute and long-lasting impacts of emergencies.
Migrants, and particularly the most marginalized among them, are more likely to suffer disproportionately from the impacts of an emergency. Migration status is a key health determinant: risky travel, marginalization, anti-migrant sentiments, exploitative living and working conditions, limited access to health care and social services, and language barriers define the physical, mental and psychosocial vulnerability of migrants. Migration can be directly linked to stressful experiences, especially in the case of people who have been forced to migrate due to disasters, violence or conflict. However, migration in itself can be distressing, as it may require major adaptations to a new individual, collective and societal context and the redefinition of value systems, or it may result in daily stresses linked with racism and discrimination, family separation, cultural and linguistic diversity, economic insecurity and a lack of legal status. Migrants can therefore be exposed to various stress factors that influence their mental well-being.

All of these factors of vulnerability are likely to be especially relevant to migrants who might have a reduced pool of resources upon which to draw (within their social support networks, as well as through official channels) and who might be less able or willing to access assistance, services and opportunities. Additional factors of fragility might include gender, age, level of education, coping styles and previous health status.

In addition, migrants’ willingness and capacity to access health care and psychosocial support might be different from those of natives due to cultural or religious reasons. Such elements may include, for instance:

- Reluctance to look for (specific kinds of) professional medical and psychosocial support;
- Inability to access the relevant care and in particular psychosocial support due to language barriers;
- Unwillingness to be treated by specific individuals (such as women or men, or younger people);
- Incompatibility of specific treatments for specific individuals or in specific settings (such as first aid or decontamination procedures on veiled women)
- Perception and expression of pain;
- Attitudes towards organ donation, blood donation and transfusions;
- Participation in body identification procedures;
- Attitudes towards performing an autopsy on a relative or community member;
- Loss and grief, and treatment of the dead.

Research in Australia shows that some migrant communities associate a clear stigma with the act of referring to counsellors and professionals to receive psychosocial assistance. In order to increase their willingness to use the services available, it may be necessary to clearly advertise their availability, the benefits linked with this type of support, and the confidentiality obligations by which all of the professionals involved abide.

As a consequence, efforts to provide health care and psychosocial support should be informed by targeted assessments that identify migrants’ specific requirements and needs.
An effective way to provide more appropriate services is to deploy trained professional staff and staff with migrant backgrounds, as well as interpreters and cultural mediators in key locations (such as shelters, hospitals and clinics, and community centres). They can help identify and address any problems linked with language, culture, ethnicity or religion. However, it is often difficult to have access to a sufficient number of qualified professionals, especially during emergencies or if no roster or contact list of the relevant professionals has been compiled in advance. In such cases, working with untrained members of the migrant community can be an option, keeping in mind that they may lack the knowledge and sensitivity to perform interpretation or mediation work to a high standard.

Establishing additional options and venues to deliver health care and psychosocial support can help in overcoming migrants’ reluctance to access such services. Such efforts can include door-to-door and community-based targeted information dissemination and awareness-raising, as well as direct service delivery. The spaces chosen for the delivery of assistance should be safe (that is, the venues should be well-know to and trusted by the migrants, and should guarantee safety, protection and privacy, including from other members of the migrant community). It is important for emergency management actors to coordinate with the relevant actors (such as NGOs and community groups) in order to be able to provide good coverage of the appropriate services and to avoid a duplication of efforts.

In addition to dedicated care provision efforts, a variety of measures are likely to heavily affect migrants’ psychosocial well-being in emergencies, and should be taken into account in planning.

Keeping families and kin groups together is key to allowing people to employ collective self-protection and coping strategies, and especially to address the needs of their most vulnerable individuals. This requires keeping people together as much as possible throughout the evacuation and emergency management efforts, setting up (or referring to) systems for family reunification, and ensuring that communications and contacts with family and kin, both in the area affected by the emergency and back home, can take place regularly.

Specific attention also needs to be given to people with specific needs and to children, particularly those who are unaccompanied or who have been separated from their families or caregivers. This can be done through dedicated identification, registration and referral mechanisms and targeted assistance (such as family reunification, legal advice, opportunities for rest and play, and appropriate nutrition).

Giving migrant groups the opportunity to commemorate the disaster adequately and to celebrate collective events and festivals is important for their individual and collective coping and recovery. These can include religious and national celebrations, grieving and funerary
ceremonies and commemorations, storytelling, recreational activities and sports, and meditation. Such events require the allocation of spaces and resources in evacuation sites, shelters, open spaces or other public facilities. In addition, it is often necessary to take into account migrants’ presence in official celebrations or memorials related to the emergency, which tend to be strongly focused on the affected majority groups (involving their language, food, most suitable time of day or day of week, customs and religious authorities). Engaging representatives and religious leaders from the migrant communities in the organization of such events (exclusively for the migrants or not) is vital in supporting migrants’ well-being and recovery.

Providing documentation

Having valid identification and immigration documentation enables migrants to access more readily a range of assistance (including international evacuations or longer-term reconstruction support). Issuing documentation in emergencies is a key function to support their capacity to cope with and recover from emergencies, and setting up facilities and defining expedited procedures to renew and reissue lost documentation are essential relief and recovery measures.

Emergency management actors can support this function in a number of ways, including by:

- Facilitating communications and coordination with the relevant institutional actors in the country of destination (such as the ministry of foreign affairs, ministry of labour and immigration authorities) and in the countries of origin (such as ministries of the interior and the consular corps) and with non-institutional actors (such as employers and recruitment agencies) that might have records of migrants’ identities, status and permits.
- Setting up and equipping document-issuing facilities in the main locations where assistance is provided (such as evacuation sites and checkpoints) with the participation of the relevant institutions.

During the floods in Thailand in 2011, the Government, in collaboration with members of foreign consular corps, set up systems to reissue permits to migrants who had lost their original documentation. Such emergency documentation centres were established within dedicated evacuation shelters for migrants.

Providing legal assistance

Legal assistance for migrants can be an essential part of improving their access to a variety of relief and recovery measures. Such assistance may, for instance:

- Improve migrants’ awareness of their rights and their entitlement to assistance, including local service provision and international evacuations;
- Support migrants in accessing the assistance options to which they are entitled (including by navigating bureaucracy, completing forms and obtaining documentation);
- Access complaint mechanisms to obtain protection against, and redressal of, discrimination in service provision, exploitation and abuse by employers, acts of xenophobic violence and trafficking.

Legal advice should be considered a key relief and recovery service for migrant groups, and plans should be made (ideally before the emergency) to provide it, and especially to deploy trained advisers to key locations (such as shelters, border points and community centres). Often, this service can be provided only on a part-time basis due to limited available resources; hence, it is essential for emergency management actors to include updated, precise information on how to access this service in communications and information materials (such as posters in shelters and community centres, leaflets, websites and social media profiles).

Legal professionals are likely to face language and trust barriers when working with migrants. Therefore, it is often necessary to ensure that they are accompanied by professional or volunteer interpreters and cultural mediators or by well-known, trusted members of the migrants’ community. Extra efforts should be devoted to making sure that the space in which the legal advisers work offers privacy and feels safe for the migrants, and that the obligation of confidentiality by which such professionals must abide is understood by the migrants they are serving.

Providing family tracing and reunification services

People affected by crises are often separated from their families, and providing reunification services is an important measure to support their short-term well-being and their capacity to recover from the impacts of the emergency. This is particularly the case for migrants, who are often members of households that are split across different countries or locations and who often have few local kin or ethnic-based social support networks. Reconnecting with migrant family members who have been affected by emergencies abroad is also extremely important for family and community members back home. Family tracing and reunification services therefore have a particular value for migrants.

This is especially the case for migrant children who were not accompanied by, or who have been separated from, their parents or caregivers. They are among the individuals the most vulnerable to violence, abuse, sexual exploitation and human trafficking.

Tracing services are usually provided through specialized information management systems (such as online databases, call centres and hotlines). Such systems enable the gathering of information on people’s identity, health status, location and contact details of contact persons.
(both local and back home). They can be complemented with data gathered through targeted collection efforts or as part of evacuation or shelter registration and tracking. In all cases, the data should be made accessible exclusively to the relevant institutions for the purposes of family tracing and be based on the individual’s prior, informed consent.

Data collection efforts on the ground can be performed by specialized teams (particularly in cases in which unaccompanied minors are affected) and by personnel working with any other emergency response actor (ideally they would receive targeted training). Specific training is also needed to help personnel from the relevant institutions identify adults accompanying minors and verify the relationships. Having a network of actors to whom these minors can be referred (for example, for specialized protection, education, health care and psychosocial support, and assignment to specialized shelters or foster families) is vital to meeting their needs effectively.

Tracing migrants’ families often requires working with authorities and communities of the migrants’ countries of origin. Hence, close communication and cooperation with consular staff, the personnel of dedicated emergency management units and governmental counterparts based in the home country is essential. In addition, it is often useful for emergency management actors to collaborate with specialized organizations (including NGOs, such as the Red Cross) that provide family tracing services.

**Identification and repatriation of human remains**

Should migrants die in emergencies abroad, their bodies or mortal remains might need to be repatriated to their country of origin.

Identification of the migrants’ bodies or remains can be extremely challenging, particularly if their documentation has been lost or destroyed and if they had not communicated their presence to authorities or families. Direct collaboration with family members living in the area or arriving after the emergency, or with employers, personnel from hotels and tour operators, people from migrant communities, and consular staff might be essential to this end. Specific personnel may be deployed from countries of origin (such as forensic experts and specialized units), which can perform advanced analyses (such as DNA or dental recognition). Planning for physical access to the remains of these various groups of people can greatly facilitate the identification process. In addition or alternatively, a database can be created with photo evidence of the deceased.

Repatriating bodies and mortal remains might also entail a complicated and costly procedure. In order to smoothen it, emergency management actors should be sure to collect data on the identity of the deceased, the date and cause of death and their location. This can help in obtaining more readily a death certificate, export certificates and customs declarations and permits from the country of origin. Bodies might need to be embalmed and sealed in specific coffins for international transportation. In case public health risks are associated with the emergency (for example, migrants affected by a pandemic, or the potential spread of an epidemic following a flood), additional security requirements may need to be respected for storing and transporting the remains.
It should be noted that employers, travel agents and tour operators, States and specific insurance schemes often cover the costs linked with the repatriation of human remains.

**Physical reconstruction**

The process of rebuilding housing and physical infrastructure is a major effort in the aftermath of destructive events and processes. Reconstruction efforts are financed mostly through public funds, often in conjunction with international financial institutions and organizations. The responsible State authorities often provide their citizens with options for temporary housing, loans, and housing replacement and reconstruction services. These services might be available to migrant residents, too – in particular those who are documented and who are long-term or permanent residents (and specifically homeowners). Information on entitlements and procedures to apply for assistance, as well as the relevant forms and documents, should be made available in all of the main languages of the migrants.

**Providing transitional and permanent housing**

Availability and affordability of housing opportunities before emergencies represent two of the main factors shaping people’s risk. Migrants, especially those who are newcomers, poor and marginalized, are often more likely than the local population to live in underserved, spatially and socially segregated neighbourhoods, usually in locations that are more exposed to natural and social hazards. They are also more likely to live in conditions of informal tenure and in unsafe and unprotected buildings, to be renters rather than homeowners, and to lack insurance coverage.

Access to decent housing was an issue for migrant families well before the 2007 San Diego fires. With the fire heavily affecting the local housing stock, however, this become even more of a challenge. The fires were more likely to affect migrants’ houses, mainly due to their location and the lack of fire protection measures or access by firefighters (8% of the surveyed migrants had lost their houses in the fires). In addition, they resulted in reduced overall availability and affordability of housing options. With isolated communities struggling to recover, many migrants also faced difficulties accessing food, water and other items due to their inability to reach distribution points and functioning markets.

Physical reconstruction efforts that do not identify and address these factors not only leave unaddressed the needs that are key to people’s recovery, but also contribute to recreating or even exacerbating the underlying conditions of vulnerability. Instead, taking these conditions into account is necessary for the successful recovery of the whole community.

Migrants are likely to benefit especially from reconstruction measures that assist low-income areas, that cater to the needs of middle- and low-income renters, and that are aimed at ensuring that an adequate supply of affordable housing units is a priority throughout the process.
Landlords who receive funds through insurance or public support should quickly repair and restore their property and make it available again for rent, and avoid holding tenants responsible for repairs. Remedies should be rapidly and inexpensively actionable and accessible if abuses take place.

Rental subsidies are a way to provide tenants with direct support and can target the most vulnerable among them. They should be accompanied by measures to prevent speculation linked with soaring rental prices due to reduced availability of housing options, as well as sanctions for speculative behaviours. As xenophobic stances might result in homeowners being less likely to rent houses to migrants or trying to rent their properties at higher prices, public or collective systems for negotiating rental prices can be set up to increase migrants’ ability to access available housing. Specific awareness-raising activities can be rolled out in support of migrants, including on tenants’ rights, application processes for temporary housing solutions, existing rental opportunities, and acceptable prices for different houses in different neighbourhoods.

Measures to encourage the intended primary beneficiaries to remain at a given site can also be beneficial to migrants, who might otherwise suffer disproportionately from the gentrification processes induced by the reconstruction investments. However, migrants are often actors of gentrification processes themselves, as they often move into emergency-affected areas in order to contribute to and benefit from the reconstruction process. It is important for emergency management actors to keep these dynamics in mind for reconstruction efforts.

Migrants, mainly Latinos, often move to disaster-affected areas in the United States to work on debris removal, demolitions and home repair, moving somewhere else when the local reconstruction process no longer creates sufficient income opportunities. Since Hurricane Katrina struck in 2005, the Latino population of New Orleans has grown by 57 per cent, fuelled by the inflow of (mostly) undocumented migrants arriving to work in post-disaster reconstruction.

Throughout the reconstruction process, migrants’ properties should be protected and migrants should be compensated for damage to their properties without discrimination. Targeted awareness-raising and support for migrant homeowners can improve their understanding of quality standards and costs of (re)building, so they can avoid being cheated by reconstruction contractors. In cases where reconstruction and recovery result in the regularization and reform of land and property titles and systems, migrants should be entitled to take part in the process and adequately informed of their options and rights.

**Restoration of infrastructure and basic services**

Physical reconstruction is also key to ensuring the restoration of basic service provision. This process often lags behind in affected areas with high immigration, which may be regarded as low priority for reconstruction and recovery efforts. This in turn affects local communities’
access to basic services, and it is therefore necessary to allocate sufficient resources to the reconstruction and improvement of marginalized areas. To do so, emergency management actors might need to understand and take into account the various groups’ spatial and infrastructural requirements (such as the need for communal spaces, religious buildings or specific recreational activities). Sites and locations that are important to their community life should be identified and reconstructed. This is particularly important as such structures can act as relief and recovery centres, thereby supporting the overall recovery of the local community from the very early stages.

It is important that migrant groups and their representatives be involved throughout the planning and reconstruction process. Their participation should be supported through adequate dissemination of updated, comprehensive information, as well as the establishment of dedicated channels through which migrants, regardless of their legal status, can receive appropriate, affordable legal assistance (whether they are owners or tenants, in formal or informal tenure situations).

The continuity of service provision also requires the allocation of dedicated resources and personnel. In the education sector, continuity of service provision is key to ensuring that migrant students (especially those who do not live with their families) are taken into account. Their presence might also require that personnel in charge of linguistic support be allocated (temporarily) to school facilities.

**Restoring livelihoods and income capacity**

The income capacity of migrant households is likely to be heavily affected in emergencies. Migrants are more likely than natives to suffer physical losses in emergencies through death and injury, as they tend to live and work in risky areas and sites, and to have reduced access to health care. Their jobs are often informal and inadequately protected by unemployment and welfare assistance, and they are more likely than natives to have limited or no savings or insurance coverage to help them cope with negative impacts and provide them with the financial means to recover. They are therefore also more likely to be forced to contract debts, which further hinders their recovery.

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**Over the last three decades, hundreds of immigrants from South-East Asia have settled along the United States coasts of the Gulf of Mexico and started a variety of businesses in shrimp, crab and oyster farming. They mostly employ members of their national groups (Lao, Cambodians and Vietnamese). In 2005, Hurricanes Denis and Katrina affected the area. In the first case, the hurricane had few consequences; however, the evacuation resulted in the interruption of business and financial losses. Instead, Hurricane Katrina devastated the area, destroying homes and assets. Underassisted over the years following these events, and still struggling to recover, these communities were affected again in 2010 by the British Petroleum oil spill.**
This is particularly the case for specific categories of migrant workers, such as those whose employers are more heavily affected by the emergency (for example, rural labourers following destructive fires or domestic workers following the displacement of the families for whom they work). In addition, language proficiency, legal status and length of time in the host community (and related access to social networks) are important factors in determining people’s access to livelihood opportunities.

Migrants, and especially rural labourers, encountered severe obstacles when looking for jobs after the 2007 San Diego fires. Their previous employers had suffered significantly in the fires, and this added to the difficulties the migrant families encountered in trying to find jobs throughout the following period of economic downturn. Ninety-nine per cent of the migrants interviewed in a post-event survey reported having lost their income or their job.

Migrant domestic workers were among the worst affected in the 2012 earthquake in the Emilia-Romagna region in Italy. Before the earthquake, migrant women in the area were overwhelming employed either as caregivers to elderly or disabled family members, or as domestic workers. However, as the families and individuals they worked for were displaced to evacuation sites, and – in the case of elderly or disabled members – professional caregiving residences, many of the migrant domestic workers were forced to access unemployment benefits or, more often, take unpaid leave or look for other jobs. As a consequence, many decided to return home, which eventually created a shortage of assistance workers, and which in turn impacted the capacity of elderly and disabled persons to leave their temporary accommodation.

It is therefore essential that post-emergency livelihood and income support schemes include migrants. Nevertheless, this is often not the case, and exceptions mostly involve documented, long-term and permanent residents.

Many migrant groups were actively involved in the response following the events of 11 September 2001 in New York. In particular, Fujianese street food vendors directly assisted relief workers, victims and their relatives in the aftermath of the event. However, many of the vendors who had worked in the area of the Twin Towers were killed or injured in the attack, with their deaths and economic losses unlikely to be included in official statistics. As a consequence, their families were mostly ineligible for the benefits extended to the families of other victims.
Migrants can be directly involved in reconstruction and recovery efforts. In fact, the presence (and the new arrival) of migrant workers is often essential to an effective reconstruction and recovery process.

Formal employment opportunities can exist throughout the reconstruction process (for instance, through targeted recruitment schemes based on the assessment of migrants’ specific skills and capacities). Vocational trainings carried out by recovery authorities, labour authorities, the private sector or sometimes home country institutions can also help increase the availability of qualified individuals in sectors in demand throughout the recovery process or just afterwards (for example, construction, assistance and caregiving, and repair and restoration of basic infrastructure such as roads, communications, water and sanitation). Specifically targeting migrants through such “up-skilling” initiatives may be particularly important, as they are likely to represent a disproportionate share of the workers in these sectors. Experienced migrants can be directly involved in the delivery of trainings.

After Hurricane Stan hit Mexico in 2005, a number of community service organizations, having observed the problems the migrant communities were encountering in accessing recovery assistance, proposed that the Governments of Guatemala and Mexico create a special migrant assistance and protection programme. The programme would include such measures as: (a) the temporary suspension of deportations; (b) the issuance of special permits; and (c) access to employment opportunities throughout the reconstruction process. While deportations were not officially suspended, government institutions in Mexico did take measures to expedite the issuance of work permits to transboundary workers and to include Guatemalans in shelter and infrastructure reconstruction work. However, the work was carried out mostly through private employers who seized the opportunity to make greater profits by exploiting migrants, and very few migrants ended up participating in official efforts. In addition, most programmes for the distribution of resources and materials, as well as a variety of other forms of assistance, excluded migrants – only 1 per cent of the migrants received support through these targeted programmes in the areas affected by the hurricane, namely the Chiapas, Oaxaca, Quintana Roo and Veracruz regions.

Migrants should have access to support schemes specifically targeting unemployed and underemployed workers, as well as those working informally (who might be excluded by formal unemployment schemes). For example, government institutions responsible for recovery and reconstruction might develop cash-for-work or other similar schemes to support rubble removal or infrastructure and housing reconstruction programmes. It should be kept in mind, however, that many recently arrived migrants deal with banks rarely or never, using cash (mostly paid daily) to meet their needs (including often by accessing informal services that charge high fees).
At the same time, specific consideration should be given to migrant business owners. They may be supported through measures to improve or complement insurance coverage, facilitate the import and export of goods, and provide protection from violent, xenophobic acts.

Supporting migrants’ access to such schemes may also require a range of legal and administrative measures, including:

- Granting flexibility to employers by waiving or reducing the penalties associated with hiring employees lacking updated identity or immigration documentation;
- Establishing expedited procedures for the renewal of immigration documentation (including automatic, temporary renewal of expired or soon-to-be expired visas), as well as preferential channels for (temporary) regularization;
- Creating preferential channels for international students to apply for work visas;
- Allowing migrants who have left the country to return, and offering them expedited procedures to apply for and obtain visas, or issuing multiple-entry visas, as well as promoting remigration schemes.

After the death of Gaddafi, the Government of Bangladesh established contacts in Libya in order to facilitate the migration of Bangladeshis back to Libya to aid in reconstruction efforts. This was deemed to be vital to filling post-conflict work shortages in the country, but the migration of the Bangladeshis ended up being hindered by prevailing anti-migrant sentiment.

Addressing exploitation, abuse and xenophobia

The conditions of post-emergency reconstruction, however, are often conducive to abuse and exploitation of migrant workers. The lack of enforcement of labour regulations and the presence of a large number of disenfranchised workers often result in workers having to accept risky jobs (for example, working with toxic materials or exposed power lines) under dangerous conditions (for example, without safety equipment) and with employers who underpay or refuse to pay workers, or do not cover insurance or welfare benefits. Migrants, and in particular undocumented workers, are likely to be disproportionately affected by such occurrences and to be less able and less willing to use judicial channels to obtain respectful working conditions and payment of wages.

In New York, after Hurricane Sandy, migrants (often undocumented) took on a number of informal, unsafe jobs in reconstruction (such as rubble removal, restoration of utility networks and construction). While they performed low-cost, expedited reconstruction and recovery work for their employers, the migrants ended up being exposed to a number of secondary risk factors (due to structural collapse, contamination and electrocution) for underpaid jobs that did not offer welfare benefits.
To address these situations, those responsible for recovery and reconstruction might define the minimum standards to be respected by companies contracted by public institutions as part of reconstruction efforts, as well as by private individuals rebuilding with public money. From the early stages of the reconstruction process, labour authorities or reconstruction coordinators should monitor whether the regulations are being respected and enforce sanctions whenever needed. Such measures can, however, result in reduced access to income opportunities, especially for the most vulnerable migrants. The government agency responsible for recovery and reconstruction should also use incentives to encourage employers to adopt virtuous practices, including by waiving sanctions for those employing undocumented and irregular migrants in formal, safe occupations.

Complaint mechanisms should be made more accessible to migrant workers, including by granting anonymity throughout the inspections and regulation enforcement process and by reducing the costs associated with complaints. It should also be ensured that there are no immigration enforcement implications whenever violations of labour regulations are reported or discovered when undocumented or irregular migrant workers submit a complaint.

Specific judicial and administrative mechanisms may also be set up in order to allow migrants (and their families) to recoup, or be compensated for, unpaid salaries or any other asset lost in an emergency. This may require labour, reconstruction or other relevant agencies of the host government to work directly with employers, recruiters, insurance companies and home government institutions in order to transfer the relevant sums. Such mechanisms should also be accessible remotely, in particular to migrants who have evacuated internationally or to family members of a deceased migrant.

All such measures should be supported through targeted awareness-raising campaigns that would have migrant-specific “know your rights” components, as well as through adequate legal assistance. These would help migrants recognize abuses and exploitation, as well as access and navigate complaint systems.

However, migrants (including newcomers drawn to the affected area by opportunities in reconstruction) can saturate the labour market, which can often result in resentment in the local community, especially among the groups that are the most likely to compete with migrant workers for low-cost housing, services and low-paying jobs. The fact that migrants receive public livelihood support or financial benefits may also result in tensions with host communities and in xenophobic acts. Awareness campaigns targeting host communities, including awareness about migrants’ entitlement to assistance and their contributions to the host community’s economy, fiscal system and recovery, can help in preventing such occurrences. If laws against violent xenophobic acts cannot be enforced in the aftermath of the emergency, their occurrence should be documented for follow-up at a later stage.
Combating human trafficking

Trafficking of persons includes three main elements:

- An act (recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons);
- Use of means such as deception, coercion or threats to have control over a person;
- For the purpose of exploitation in any of its forms (sexual exploitation, forced labour or begging, organ removal, and slavery or slavery-like practices).

Exposure to human trafficking is particularly acute for migrants, especially in the context of conflicts and disasters, which create situations in which the institutional capacity of a country to prevent and respond to crime may be greatly hampered. Weaker rule of law and law enforcement capacities on the part of the mandated actors can allow traffickers to act with impunity and diverse forms of trafficking to flourish. Moreover, increased requirements for basic needs can result in the affected population’s increased willingness to undertake risky strategies, thereby allowing traffickers easier access to vulnerable populations. Trafficking might even be a core component (or a precondition for the continuation) of the crisis itself, as in the case of the forced recruitment of fighters in conflicts.

Hence, while the risks of human trafficking are not exclusively linked with post-crisis factors and conditions, the impacts of emergencies increase the potential for such practices to take place.

Among the migrant groups that may be the most vulnerable to the risks of trafficking are:

- Unaccompanied and separated children, including those on the move prior to, during and following a crisis;
- Single-headed households, particularly those headed by women;
- Women and girl victims of domestic violence;
- Refugees and asylum seekers;
- Ethnic, racial, religious, social and gender minorities;
- Victims of discrimination;
- Other marginalized migrants, including those who are marginalized due to status and ethnic factors.

Increasing the options available to migrants, particularly the most vulnerable ones, during and after crises is essential to address the preconditions for trafficking. This includes promoting formal, safe opportunities for international evacuation and remigration back into the country once the crisis is over. It also includes preventing and addressing the withholding of salaries and documents, and employers’ and recruiters’ exploitation of migrant labourers during the reconstruction and recovery process.

Targeted efforts to prevent and combat trafficking should be considered a priority in response and recovery assistance, especially in emergencies affecting a significant number of (vulnerable) migrants. Emergency management actors can actively raise migrants’ awareness about the risks of trafficking and exploitation, as part of the emergency communications and information products disseminated at key locations (such as shelters and border points).
During the Lebanon crisis, the Ministry of Justice and Caritas Lebanon produced a trilingual booklet in Sinhalese, Amharic and Tagalog to caution domestic workers against possible traffickers. These booklets were distributed to migrant workers at the borders as they left Lebanon.

At the same time, emergency response workers should be made aware of trafficking issues and of the fact that their behaviours (including in particular their sexual behaviours) can have a direct impact on encouraging trafficking. Training these workers would include sensitizing them to the following:

- Conditions conducive to heightened vulnerability (for example, unmet needs of affected persons, and their limited access to basic services, housing and income opportunities).
- Activities that involve higher risk (such as sex work), and locations where risk is higher. These locations would include evacuation shelters and sites, especially if they are specific to migrants, as traffickers may be particularly active there.
- Occurrences of trafficking.

Emergency management actors should also identify safe sites and actors, both governmental and non-governmental, that can provide (suspected) victims of trafficking with assistance and support and set up referral systems to facilitate migrants’ access to support. Such actors can also establish, manage or participate in mechanisms to identify cases of trafficking, refer them to the relevant authorities, and facilitate access to justice for victims and the prosecution of traffickers according to national laws. Should the prosecution of trafficking-related crimes be impossible during the emergency or in its immediate aftermath, mechanisms to document abuses should be set up to support investigations and the enforcement of counter-trafficking regulations and related sanctions at a later stage.

**Enhancing migrants’ ability and willingness to access assistance**

**Maintaining community ties and community identity**

Migrants often rely much more significantly than natives on other members of their communities for well-being and support. Preserving such ties is even more important in emergencies, during which they are likely to be the most needed and more easily disrupted. This requires emergency management actors to plan for:

- Keeping kin and community members together as much as possible (particularly when they are involved in evacuations) and ensuring they have sufficient contact with representatives from their home government or community;
- Ensuring that migrants can speak their own languages freely in shelters and other key facilities, and that (at least some) assistance is delivered, and activities rolled out, in their mother tongue (including, crucially, education for children);
- Creating spaces and opportunities for migrants to preserve and perpetuate their traditions and customs, collective rituals and celebrations, including religious and non-religious activities.
It should be noted that membership in a group should not be imposed upon individual migrants by reason of their ethnicity, race or origin and that it should always depend on the individuals’ free choice.

**Addressing language barriers**

A lack of language proficiency can greatly affect migrants’ ability to access services; hence, linguistic diversity should be a main consideration for emergency assistance planning and delivery.

Bilingual staff members and volunteers should be deployed in key locations (such as evacuation sites, hospitals and registration desks in high immigration areas). Interpreters or other identified bilingual individuals, including representatives from the migrant community, can accompany and support key staff members (such as registration clerks in evacuation facilities, health-care or psychosocial support providers and legal advisers). Ideally, these people should be identified before the emergency (for example, through the development of a dedicated contact directory – see Chapter 3 for more information on this) and assigned to specific areas or sites as part of preparedness planning. They should also be trained in the specificities and jargon of emergency situations (such as hazards, the assistance available and how to apply for it). In addition, non-professional interpreters should be trained in the specificities of the interpreter’s function and made aware of their role in facilitating mutual understanding and accurate communications, as well as the implications of their role for communications (related to ethical issues and facilitation). These interpreters should receive guidance on the techniques used to carry out their role effectively.

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**During the Christchurch earthquakes in New Zealand, communications were quite effective with Chinese, Korean and Pacific island communities, but less so with other groups. In all instances, however, bilingual service providers were described as being key to helping bridge gaps between ethnic communities and agencies, and were seen as having played a vital role in information-sharing in the response stage.**

**In Truckee, California, emergency dispatchers have been using NetworkOmni for interpretation services in times of emergency. With the majority of residents being able to speak only Spanish, interpreters were seen as a useful way to prevent any miscommunication of information. Operators helped police and emergency medical services prepare themselves before they arrived at the location of the emergency. See [www.networkomni.com/](http://www.networkomni.com/).**
If such measures cannot be effectively taken, the development and use of a variety of products can help address language barriers. These include:

- Pictorial tools to facilitate communications by pointing at pictures and signs;
- Basic phrasebooks that provide translations of the most commonly needed questions and answers from or into the main languages used by the migrants;
- Forms and leaflets translated into different languages, or versions with multiple translations (such as registration forms and leaflets with information on an emergency shelter’s rules, information on options for assistance and contact information of the relevant assistance providers), including, crucially, the forms that need to be completed so that migrants can access emergency and recovery assistance, also if they are online;
- Pictorial or translated signage in shelters and other key locations such as clinics and hospitals.


For an example of a multilingual emergency phrase book for the health sector, see www.nhsconfed.org/resources/multilingual-emergency-phrasebook.

The Government of the United States has developed a website to mainstream the procedures for applying for recovery aid after disasters. It provides information on and resources for post-disaster assistance (such as financial and reconstruction assistance), information on the options available to apply for assistance, online forms, as well as clarifications on, prerequisites for and practicalities of the process. The content is also available in Spanish.

**Addressing cultural barriers**

Migrants’ cultural stances may result in reduced willingness to access assistance. Migrant groups, for instance, may be reluctant to seek help outside their kin or community, and may therefore avoid official shelters, health-care providers and so on. They may also be less aware of how the local administrative and legal context works, and may need dedicated assistance in understanding the details of emergency grant eligibility and provision, the support options available and how to access them.
After Hurricane Andrew in the United States, it was documented that all ethnic groups reported feeling more comfortable requesting help from family, somewhat less comfortable seeking help from friends, and the least comfortable seeking help from outsiders, including formal sources of assistance.

In yet other cases, people’s culture will affect their reactions and behaviours that are relevant to the provision of assistance. This is the case, for instance, regarding:

- Eye contact and touch (handshakes and hugs, but also physical contact for body searches and health-care reasons);
- Expressions of joy, grief and pain;
- Greeting codes and etiquette, including acceptability of behaviours depending on gender and age.

Resorting to the assistance of professional cultural mediators (or, alternatively, trained staff members and volunteers or members of the relevant migrant groups) can be useful in addressing these barriers. Working jointly with these individuals (for example, in shelters, clinics and community kitchens) can help emergency management staff and volunteers better identify people’s needs and provide assistance in a more culturally appropriate manner.

**Addressing mistrust, fear and discrimination**

Discriminatory and openly xenophobic stances of individuals in host communities and institutions are common in the aftermath of emergency situations. In normal times, migrants tend to have limited political representation and visibility, and in general they rank low on the authorities’ list of priorities. In emergencies, however, when resources are likely to be strained and scarce, migrants are often stigmatized as “freeloaders”, who are unduly benefitting from costly assistance and benefits, or stealing precious reconstruction jobs, or even as responsible of the emergency. Discrimination can be apparent in the action of individuals or groups in the migrants’ host communities and of individual staff members of emergency management institutions (who may adopt a “take care of your own first” approach, or show open prejudice towards migrant minorities), as well as in the work of emergency management institutions (for example, the way in which they set priorities and allocate resources, and the areas and groups they decide to serve). In addition, discrimination may also take place between different migrant groups (for example, between better established communities and newcomers, or between specific ethnic groups).

Many sub-Saharan migrants who were trapped in Libya during the conflict in 2011 were being detained by the then opposition forces, who claimed that the migrants were in fact mercenaries or foreign fighters who had been hired by Gaddafi.
In South Africa in 2008, response actors were reluctant to provide violence-affected migrants with assistance due to fears that this might fuel further anti-migrant resentment among South African nationals. This reportedly affected government actors, the police and elected local officers, all of whom were concerned about their legitimacy with voters if they were seen to be championing the rights of foreign nationals and spending resources on providing them with assistance. Outright xenophobic stances, however, also existed among government and civil society actors – civil society actors who were unwilling to assist the migrants stayed away, and governmental officials were required to provide services that they did not personally agree with doing.

To have non-discriminatory interventions, it is necessary to have a strong political commitment. There must be a clear legal and operational framework requiring that assistance be granted regardless of race, ethnicity, language proficiency and legal status. In addition, raising awareness among host community members, staff and volunteers about migrants’ rights, capacities and needs, and more generally about their contribution to the local economy and society, can help prevent or address these kinds of tension within a community.

Acts of xenophobic violence, as well as discriminatory behaviours on the part of staff members and volunteers in emergency situations, should be documented and reported. Conversely, examples of virtuous behaviours by emergency management staff and volunteers should be noted and officially rewarded.

Even when it is not motivated by actual episodes of discrimination and xenophobia, mistrust in local institutions and host communities can discourage migrants (particularly those who are undocumented or irregular, or those who have reasons linked to their status or origin to fear contact with authorities) from looking for assistance, and should be adequately taken into account and addressed in emergency assistance delivery and planning. While these issues are likely to be deeply rooted in migrants’ experiences and living conditions, emergency management actors can take measures to address them during and after emergencies. These measures include:

- Collaborating with the institutions that migrants trust for the delivery of assistance and the dissemination of information on emergency situations and on the available forms of support;
- Directly involving migrants as staff members and volunteers deployed on the ground, and to accompany service providers;
- Hiring cultural mediators and establishing “migrants’ ombudsperson” figures in order to help better identify and meet migrants’ needs through appropriate assistance;
- Setting up information dissemination and service provision hubs in well-known, trusted locations that are key to the migrants’ community life (such as community centres, and the offices of migrant organizations and community service organizations), where first aid can be provided and food and basic items can be distributed, and which can be equipped to act also as international communication centres;
Developing targeted outreach efforts and communication campaigns, covering such topics as the options available for assistance, rights of migrants, flexibility in immigration regulations and separation of emergency assistance from immigration enforcement.

After the 1989 Loma Prieta earthquake, the city of Watsonville in California appointed an ombudsperson to improve Latin American groups’ access to shelter and longer-term housing options.

Communicating with and about migrants

All assistance efforts should also be supported through an appropriate communication strategy, which should take into account migrants’ linguistic specificities, their preferred communication channels, and the information that they specifically need (for more details, refer to Chapter 6).

After the Christchurch earthquakes, translated messages were disseminated through one-stop websites in Korean, Chinese and Japanese. These websites also had a mechanism to allow people seeking support to contact institutions providing assistance. Translated messages were also communicated through community-based systems, such as bilingual health promoters, churches and local service providers, as well as telephone trees for people to check on each other and to circulate information (which took place in the Bhutanese community).

It is essential that emergency management actors deliver timely, comprehensive information on the evolution of the situation and on the options available for relief and recovery assistance. Community-based channels (such as word-of-mouth and door-to-door channels, telephone chains, and social media profiles and groups) can deliver information to migrants effectively. In addition, if relief and recovery information and service provision centres are established to support the delivery of assistance, they can also be located in sites or structures that are key to migrants’ community life (such as community centres and migrant organizations’ offices).

Specific communication efforts should target representatives and leaders of the migrant community, the main community media and representatives from the migrants’ home governments (such as consular staff, staff of the country’s emergency unit and governmental counterparts in the home country) at all stages of the emergency management process. Working closely with these actors allows emergency management actors to effectively disseminate and gather information on:

- Evolution of the situation;
- Existing capacities and skills of migrant individuals and organizations;
- Unmet needs or conditions of insecurity of migrant individuals and communities;
- Options and eligibility criteria for accessing relief and recovery assistance;
- Options and eligibility criteria for international evacuation.
This in turn is key to delivering services effectively and to avoiding duplication of efforts.

Multilingual emergency hotlines can also be a valuable way to disseminate information. Bilingual staff members and volunteers should be identified and assigned to operating them. Priority should be given to the languages that most of the affected migrants are more likely to speak. If non-stop coverage for all linguistic groups is not an option, hotlines can also offer part-time multilingual services, or their operators can be linked to a network of contacts who are proficient in the relevant languages and who can be contacted whenever needed. In addition, operators should receive basic information or a list of questions and answers to be able to provide migrants with the information that may be especially relevant to them.

**Setting up feedback and complaint mechanisms**

All reconstruction and recovery efforts can be further supported by systems through which migrants can flag:

- Unmet needs;
- Discrimination on the part of service providers throughout the relief and recovery phase;
- Acts of xenophobia, abuse and exploitation on the part of employers and recruiters, as well as members of the host community or of other migrant groups.

Information can be collected through specific offices, telephone numbers or online tools. If there is a physical complaint desk, choosing a non-threatening location (as well as assigning trusted individuals to manage the desk) can help migrants feel at ease when visiting the desk.

Moreover, migrants should be granted anonymity, and the information they provide should not be circulated to other actors who do not comply with the same confidentiality standards or for reasons other than to address the underlying complaint. However, referral mechanisms should be set up to ensure that the relevant institutions (including those based in the home country or in a third country) can follow up on the requests and complaints.

Complaints should be redressed effectively and based on a fair, transparent evaluation. If it is not possible to do so promptly because of the emergency situation, they should be recorded and addressed at a later stage. Follow-up mechanisms should be established to monitor how the complaints are actually addressed.

**Addressing economic barriers**

Low incomes, reduced savings, a lack of insurance or coverage by welfare schemes, an increased likelihood of being unemployed or having unprotected jobs, and an increased likelihood of living in informal arrangements often mean that migrants have a reduced coping and recovery capacity and rely disproportionately on public assistance. Hence, ensuring that basic forms of assistance (such as shelter, health and psychosocial care, and education) are accessible at no or a very low cost is likely to be particularly important for migrants, and especially the most vulnerable among them. This should be the case for all measures supporting the income capacities of low-income affected persons after emergencies.
If needed, dedicated funding can be allocated, including in coordination with home country institutions, to cover part or all of the expenses that service providers might incur when providing migrants with support.

In the United States, the federal reimbursement mechanism for Emergency Health Services Furnished to Undocumented Aliens was established to reimburse health service providers who assist undocumented migrant who are not covered by insurance schemes. Through the programme, funds are set aside for each state, to be paid directly to hospitals, certain types of physicians and ambulance providers.

**KEY LEARNING POINTS**

- Migrants’ legal status, nationality and ethnicity may affect all facets of the provision of relief and recovery assistance.
- Having formal non-discrimination policies in the provision of relief and recovery assistance does not guarantee that migrants will not have reduced (and potentially insufficient) access to life-saving assistance or support for maintaining well-being.
- A range of (context-dependent) proactive measures are needed to ensure that assistance provision is adapted in a way that makes goods and services more appropriate to migrants’ specificities.
TOPIC 2: IMPROVING CAPACITY TO DELIVER TARGETED ASSISTANCE

Providing assistance that is tailored to diverse groups of beneficiaries can be highly challenging for emergency management authorities. Personnel and resources are often limited or it may be difficult to allocate them effectively. As a consequence, it is often impossible to provide all migrant groups with sufficient, appropriate assistance. While in such cases it is necessary to acknowledge what assistance can realistically be provided and to communicate clearly the limitations emergency management institutions are encountering, a range of measures can be taken to strengthen the system’s capacity to serve, in an adequate manner, diverse affected groups and individuals.

Collaborating with other actors

National and international NGOs, civil society (including community-based organizations), migrant groups and associations, ethnic media, migrants’ home governments and international organizations are all likely to be involved in emergency response – whether by directly providing food, shelter, goods and other services, or by supporting tailored service provision (for example, through information dissemination and awareness-raising, or legal or administrative support). In fact, many of these actors are fundamental service providers for migrants in non-emergency times, and are likely to represent their first or preferred point of contact in emergencies, too. Coordinating with these actors therefore presents an array of advantages for institutional emergency management actors, including the ability to:

- Mobilize additional, diverse resources (likely to be already allocated to key sites or areas) that can be useful in supporting more tailored assistance provision;
- Mobilize bilingual, culturally competent, trusted staff to provide services;
- Host distributions and service provision efforts, as well as meetings and consultations, at these bodies’ venues or structures, which are likely to be well known to and trusted by migrants;
- Leverage these organizations’ field presence, networks, channels and personnel to reach out to, and involve, migrants.

After the Tohoku triple disaster in Japan, there were a number of foreign-led relief initiatives. For example, the Pakistani, Filipino and Chinese communities managed shelters, community centres and food distribution facilities.

These actors can, to different extents, be included in the command structures and coordination and consultation mechanisms through which relief and recovery assistance are delivered.
In the Pico Union district of Los Angeles, low-income Hispanic immigrants, many of whom were undocumented, grouped together to support the common efforts of more than 30 NGOs to deliver assistance (food and medical aid) after the Northridge earthquake in 1994. Pico Union, well off the radar of the media, had been severely damaged, and appeals by local NGOs and churches were not immediately heeded by officials. This self-help process assisted NGOs in improving the quality and comprehensiveness of their response efforts, and ultimately led to the creation of an independent disaster preparedness programme called the Pico Union Cluster. Eventually, the Cluster joined the official body that the city and county of Los Angeles uses for coordinating NGO response, preparedness and mitigation: the Emergency Network Los Angeles.

These actors are unlikely to be bound by specific regulations that may reduce the ability of mandated governmental agencies to assist migrants. For example, they are not required to verify the identity or immigration status of migrants in order to provide them with services. Therefore, they can be in a good position to assist migrants even when enlarging the boundaries of the mandates of the key authorities is not an option.

**Mapping available assets**

As part of contingency planning or emergency response, emergency management coordinators can conduct an assessment and mapping of the available actors and assets. This allows emergency management actors to identify:

- Which resources are available to meet the affected persons’ needs during the relief and recovery phases;
- Where they are located;
- Which resources may be missing (in different areas).

Involving a variety of actors in such mapping efforts is key to improving their participation in planning arrangements and in relief and recovery efforts.

Mapping exercises can assist actors in identifying and localizing:

- Stocks of appropriate relief goods (such as food, tents, search and rescue tools, generators and community kitchens);
- Potential evacuation sites, shelters and key locations for the distribution of relief goods and the provision of basic services (such as open spaces and safe locations, including churches, mosques, offices of community organizations and NGOs, schools and government offices);
- Personnel, resources and locations to support the provision of health care (such as doctors and nurses, clinics, medical supplies and equipment) and psychosocial support (qualified professionals);
- Personnel and equipment to support search and rescue or rubble removal (such as trained professionals and equipment);
Vehicles and drivers, gasoline stocks and stations;
Communication equipment and personnel;
Legal professionals and advisers;
Translators, interpreters and cultural mediators;
Volunteers who can be mobilized to support all of the above functions;
Financial resources (accessible through different levels of government, international funds and foreign States, and non-governmental actors).

This kind of information can inform acquisition and procurement efforts in times of need, as well as the placement of provisions and the deployment of personnel, depending on the concrete needs of the different affected locations. It may also be of help in creating contact directories of organizations, professionals and volunteers for effective mobilization in emergencies. Such efforts tend to be more effective when they are carried out before disasters – in fact, assessments or directories may already exist for some of the people and items listed above (such as medical professionals, interpreters and translators). However, these efforts need to be complemented through the monitoring of stocks and personnel available at different locations and of people’s needs once the emergency takes place.

**Setting up referral mechanisms**

Emergency management actors can set up, manage or contribute to systems that refer migrants in need of assistance to specific service providers who may be particularly qualified to assist them. For instance, service providers may be selected because they employ bilingual workers, skilled professionals, cultural mediators and advisers trained in issues of particular relevance to migrants, or because they provide services free of charge or without a prior identification, or immigration status, check. Institutions that people could be referred to may include:

- Public institutions in the country of destination (such as hospitals and specialized shelters);
- Governmental representatives from the host country (such as consular staff, and personnel of emergency units);
- NGOs and community-based organizations;
- Migrant leaders and representatives;
- Relevant professionals and professional associations (such as lawyers);
- International organizations.

In addition, certain groups of migrants may require tailored assistance, and referral systems can provide the right kind of support and protection. Such migrant groups include:

- Minors, in particular if unaccompanied or separated from their family or caregivers, who can be referred to specialized shelters, actors dealing with child protection, and family tracing and reunification experts;
- Victims of violence, abuse and exploitation, who can be referred to legal advisers and to actors that can ensure their protection;
- Victims of trafficking, who can be referred to organizations that are familiar with their protection and assistance needs;
• Ethnic, racial, religious and other marginalized minorities, who can be referred to organizations that have appropriate knowledge of their culture and the capacity to serve them in a safe environment;
• Irregular or undocumented migrants, who can be referred to service providers that are able to serve migrants regardless of their legal status, and whom migrants do not fear;
• Disabled migrants, who can be referred to specific shelters or organizations that provide adequate forms of support;
• Elderly migrants, who can be referred to organizations that are able to provide them with adequate care and assistance;
• Detained migrants, who should be referred to organizations that are able to assist them while ensuring their surveillance;
• Asylum seekers, refugees and stateless persons, who may need to be referred to UNHCR or other organizations able to guarantee them protection and adequate support.

Through such systems, emergency management actors mobilize the most appropriate available resources in an attempt to provide the most adequate assistance possible. Their effective activation relies on:

• The ability of emergency management personnel (or of additional expert professionals) to identify cases that may need to be referred to other actors (for example, actors deployed in key locations such as checkpoints, shelters, evacuation sites and service provision hubs);
• The existence of clear lists of institutions and their focal points, the services they provide and the groups they are able to serve – ideally identified through a comprehensive asset mapping process;
• The existence of prearranged service agreements (see Chapter 3 for more information);
• The existence of clear procedures to follow for contacting and referring cases to the different actors (that is, under which conditions referral is advised, and which steps need to be followed);
• The respect of the migrant’s prior, informed consent and of minimum standards of confidentiality for the actors involved in the referral process.

Prearranged service agreements

Service agreements can be arranged in advance of emergencies in order to make cooperation among the relevant actors more effective. They can cover any aspect of emergency and recovery service provision (such as health care, shelter, food provision, transportation and evacuations, and documentation) and define in advance roles and responsibilities, conditions for mutual engagement, respective commitment of resources and so forth. (For more details on this subject, refer to Chapter 3.)

Consulting the relevant actors

Consultative processes that engage representatives from the different migrant groups or from the relevant migrant organizations can help better target relief and recovery work. These processes help emergency management actors understand and take into account migrants’ capacities, unmet needs and priorities.
These processes can also be used to disseminate updated, validated information on the assistance process, the obstacles it is facing and the priorities it follows, thereby helping to reduce tensions related to the (insufficient) provision of assistance. Jointly engaging migrant groups and host communities can be particularly useful to this end. The representation of particularly marginalized individuals should be ensured, including vulnerable migrants within their groups and communities.

While such participatory processes may be difficult to establish during an emergency, especially if no network or roster of contacts had been set up in advance, they can be effectively set up and regularly consulted in order to inform the recovery process from the very early stages after the emergency. Physical gatherings and virtual consultations (by telephone or online conferencing) can be effective. (For more information on this subject, refer to Chapter 3.)

**Migrant support centres in host States**

Relief and recovery assistance is often provided through physical or virtual hubs that allow for the provision of information and the delivery of services to the affected persons. Collaborating with the relevant actors (such as NGOs, consular corps, migrant representatives and professionals) can help strengthen the existing hubs by ensuring they can provide more adapted services, or can help create dedicated migrant assistance and support centres. Such centres can represent safe spaces for the provision of translated and appropriate:

- Information about the assistance available (including for evacuation) and the conditions to apply for it;
- Direct distribution of relief goods and recovery support;
- Translation and interpretation services, as well as cultural mediation;
- Health care and psychosocial support;
- Legal assistance and documentation services;
- Advice on applying for assistance;
- Family tracing;
- Affordable long-distance communication options (such as telephones and the Internet).

It can be useful to set up such centres in locations that migrants know and trust (such as community centres, churches, temples, mosques and local schools), as well as close to, or at, the shelters and evacuation sites the migrants use.

Manning such centres with bilingual and culturally competent staff and volunteers, including personnel of key NGOs or members of migrant organizations and communities, is key to ensuring their actual use.

**Improving the competence of emergency management personnel**

Personnel in charge of the actual delivery of services, including staff members and volunteers of emergency management agencies and other relevant actors (both governmental and non-governmental), play a key role in ensuring that migrant groups are provided with assistance
in an appropriate manner. Building individual and organizational capacity to understand, take into account and address migrants’ specific conditions is crucial to making emergency and recovery assistance more inclusive.

In order to do so, the relevant elements can be integrated into pre-emergency training programmes for staff and volunteers, including on:

- Migrants’ presence;
- Obligation of the emergency management system to assist migrants;
- Migrants’ rights and contributions to the community;
- Assessment of one’s own cultural bias;
- Foreign languages;
- Cultural awareness;
- Specific procedures that may help in adapting assistance when delivering services to migrants.

If such programmes exist, they would ideally be extended to the personnel of all of the relevant emergency management partners, including in particular civil society organizations and migrant groups. In addition, joint programmes with other foreign emergency management bodies and programmes that are aimed at recruiting staff and volunteers with a migration background can be also extremely effective to this end. (Refer to Chapter 5 for more information on the latter.)

However, both of these kinds of programmes may require a significant commitment of time and financial and human resources, which is not always possible. Whether longer-term capacity-building activities are possible or not, emergency management actors can take a variety of measures to help improve the delivery of appropriate emergency assistance to migrant groups.

Emergency management actors should gather information on the skills and characteristics (such as language proficiency, country of origin and specific trainings received) of their staff members and volunteers in order to be able to make the best of their capacities through targeted deployment. This should include understanding potential limitations of individual workers (for example, they are not trusted by the migrants because of their profession or ethnicity, or they do not work well in a multicultural environment). Such information should be taken into consideration in planning and response measures.

Emergency management actors can improve their staff’s awareness (as well as the staff of partners) by gathering and publishing information on the various migrant groups (such as their needs, conditions, location and features), including advice on how to best approach them and interact with them (relating to, for example, privacy, trust issues, or need to refer to a mediator or a representative). This kind of information can also be conveyed to personnel being deployed in the relevant field locations in the immediacy of the emergency, through so-called “just-in-time” trainings and briefings.

Even very concise information on the different migrant groups’ relevant characteristics (such as food preferences and restrictions, stances towards health care and psychosocial support, clothing preferences, privacy requirements and etiquette, and dos and don’ts when providing
assistance) can help to raise the workers’ awareness of the diversity they will be facing and to improve their capacity to address it through targeted interventions.

The training package includes a template that can be completed to create a concise table, both for pre-emergency communications and just-in-time awareness-raising (“M8_template”).

This kind of information is particularly relevant for specific categories of emergency workers who are likely to work on the most culturally sensitive aspects of relief and recovery assistance (such as health practitioners, providers of psychosocial support, school staff, bilingual staff and interpreters). However, all of the relevant response actors may need to receive this kind of information (or to have such knowledge) to perform their duties efficiently in diverse communities.

In addition, it is also important to ensure that volunteers, including untrained volunteers that are only mobilized for the emergency situation, are able to provide adequate services.

### Evaluating the delivery of targeted assistance

Learning from past emergencies can lead to long-term improvements in preparedness, response and recovery systems. In particular, collecting information on the effectiveness and inclusiveness of past emergency interventions is key to understanding what can be improved in order to reduce migrants’ vulnerability in emergencies. Setting up mechanisms to consult with the relevant informants on what worked and what did not work throughout the relief and recovery process should be considered a fundamental part of post-emergency work. Information and data can be collected as part of direct feedback on preparedness, relief and recovery activities, as well as later on, through ex post facto reflection and discussion.

Such data collection efforts can help shed light on:

- Access to information (including level of satisfaction with or usefulness of official warnings and communication, effectiveness of and preference for the various available channels and media, and level of trust and actions taken in response);
- Access to services by migrants, satisfaction with the services received, main gaps and barriers preventing them from accessing adequate assistance;
- Active involvement of migrants in emergency management arrangements alongside institutional and community-based actors (including through formal reporting and coordination and informal assistance);
- Effectiveness and use of pre-disaster arrangements (community profiling, coordination mechanisms among institutions or with community-based bodies);
- Episodes of abuse, exploitation or discrimination witnessed;
- Overall levels of trust of migrants in local institutions and communities;
- Short- and long-term impacts on migrants’ well-being and on their further decisions to stay, leave and return at a later stage.
Information on the effectiveness of relief and recovery efforts can be derived from:

- Analyses of data on people’s access to and use of key services;
- Service users’ direct feedback and complaints, collected through dedicated mechanisms (such as a complaint box);
- Targeted face-to-face or virtual interviews with main informants (both users and service providers);
- Surveys of a given population or group;
- Committees and focus groups composed of users or service providers;
- Meetings of the relevant institutions and actors (including regular coordination events).

Relevant information includes:

- Number of users recoded for the relevant service providers;
- Time needed to access services;
- Unmet needs;
- Overall user satisfaction;
- Specific complaints and feedback;
- Census data and well-being indicators.

Such information can be disaggregated by nationality or migration status (in addition to age and gender) and compared with overall demographic trends and numbers to provide more in-depth insights on existing patterns of discrimination and vulnerability. In order to have a better picture of the migrants’ situation, however, it can be useful to oversample them in evaluation efforts to ensure that a large enough number is included in any survey.

Actors that should be involved in this process include:

- Response and recovery workers (including practitioners in health care and psychosocial support and managers of evacuation sites);
- Senior management of main emergency management actors;
- Representatives from the main migrant groups, including members of the various components of the migrant groups;
- Representatives from civil society organizations that work closely with migrant populations, including direct service providers and migrant advocacy groups;
- Interpreters, translators and language instructors;
- Cultural mediators;
- Representatives from ethnic media;
- Representatives from the affected community at large.

Performance indicators can be developed to help quantify these variables and possibly measure achievements against the overall objectives of strategies and policies (if they exist), as well as to ensure that data and indicators are being monitored and compared over time and in different emergency contexts.

Mechanisms should also be put in place to make sure that the feedback collected is formalized in targeted guidance, used to improve existing practices and arrangements and especially
integrated into the relevant preparedness efforts. This requires, for instance, the revision of existing plans and early warning systems, as well as the establishment or modification of mechanisms to involve migrants in risk management systems and to develop the cultural competencies of host institutions. This should also extend to other, non-directly affected areas that might face similar risks.

If such evaluations and lessons learned are being compiled to inform institutional learning on the overall response effort, it can be useful to articulate specific ones for migrant groups. In all cases, such efforts should encompass short-term and long-term impacts of the emergency.

For an example of an evaluation exercise, refer to the lessons learned of the Christchurch Migrant Inter-Agency Group. The Group involved local government ministers and representatives from civil societies and migrant groups in their assessments. The report is available from https://docs.google.com/file/d/0BxbzKqZEYFI-allyVXFNamZnM00/preview.

**KEY LEARNING POINTS**

- Emergency management actors can take a range of measures to improve their own capacity to deliver appropriate assistance to migrant groups and to diverse communities in general, including continuous training and just-in-time capacity-building of emergency personnel.
- Emergency management actors are likely to be able to count on pre-existing networks of governmental and non-governmental actors that may have better-established capacity to reach out effectively to migrant groups. Coordinating preparedness and response with such actors is key to effectively creating an inclusive emergency management system.
- Learning from past experiences is vital to identifying what works and what can be improved when assisting migrants at risk or affected by emergencies.
ANNEX

Glossary

Actor: see stakeholder.

Asylum seeker: any person who is seeking international protection, but whose claim for refugee status has not yet been finally decided by the competent authorities of the country of destination.

Citizen: a native or legally recognized subject or national of a State.

Civil society: international, regional, national and local non-governmental organizations; migrant and diaspora networks, organizations and groups; religious and faith-based organizations; workers’ and employers’ organizations; think tanks; academics and researchers and their institutions, whether based in countries of origin, countries of destination or third countries.

Conflict: situations in which there is a resort to armed force between two or more States, or in which protracted armed confrontations occur between governmental armed forces and the forces of one or more armed groups, or between such groups arising in the territory of a State.

Consular staff: any official representative of a State and its Government in the territory of a different State.

Contingency plan: a document that analyses potential crises threatening a community, business or society and establishes arrangements in advance to enable timely, effective and appropriate responses to such events and situations. It provides for organized and coordinated courses of action with clearly identified institutional roles and resources, information processes and operational arrangements for specific actors in times of need.

Country experiencing a conflict or disaster: see country of destination; also referred to as “country experiencing a crisis” or “country experiencing an emergency”.

Country of destination: the State at risk of, or experiencing, a conflict or disaster in the whole or part of its territory.

Country of origin: the State of citizenship of a migrant.

Crisis: a conflict, or natural or man-made disaster of a magnitude that demands a significant humanitarian response by authorities of the country of origin or of the country of destination or by the international community.

Diaspora: persons from the same country of origin as migrants who are in States other than the State of origin. When a distinction is made between migrants and diaspora (and their groups), migrant refers to the individuals living, working or staying in an area affected by a conflict or a disaster, while diaspora refers all persons from the same country of origin living outside the affected area, including in a third country.
**Disaster**: a serious disruption to the functioning of a community or society involving widespread human, material, economic or environmental losses and impacts, which exceeds the ability of the affected community or society to cope using its own resources. A disaster is natural when it is triggered by a *natural hazard* and man-made when it is triggered by a *man-made hazard*.

**Disaster risk**: the potential losses in lives, health status, livelihoods, assets and services that could occur in a particular community or society over a specified future time period as a consequence of *disasters*.

**Disaster risk management**: the process of using administrative directives, organizations, and operational skills and capacities to implement strategies, policies and improved coping capacities in order to lessen the adverse impacts of *hazards* and the possibility of *disaster*.

**Disaster risk reduction**: the concept and practice of reducing *disaster risks* through systematic efforts to analyse and manage the causal factors of *disasters*, including through reduced exposure to *hazards*, lessened vulnerability of people and property, wise management of land and the environment, and improved preparedness for adverse events.

**Displaced person**: a person who is forced to leave his or her usual place of residence or work as a consequence of a *crisis*. It can equally refer to a *migrant* or a *citizen* in any given *country of destination*.

**Domestic worker**: a *migrant* working within the employer’s household, performing services for individuals or their families, such as providing care for children and elderly dependents, housekeeping and household maintenance.

**Documented migrant**: any *migrant* who has the documentation required to enter and stay (and work or study) in a *country of destination*.

**Early warning system**: the system needed to generate and disseminate timely and meaningful warning information to enable individuals, communities and organizations threatened by a *hazard* to prepare and to act appropriately and in sufficient time to reduce the possibility of harm or loss.

**Emergency**: see *crisis*.

**Emergency actor**: a specialized or non-specialized *stakeholder* that has responsibilities and objectives in serving and protecting people and property in *emergency* situations.

**Emergency management**: the organization and management of resources and responsibilities for addressing all aspects of emergencies, in particular *preparedness, response* and initial *recovery* steps.

**Employer**: a person or organization that employs one or more *migrants*.

**Evacuation**: the planned or unplanned, assisted or spontaneous movement of people or assets from an area at risk of, or affected by, a *crisis*, on a temporary basis and for reasons of safety and protection.
Evacuation route: any land, air or sea route, whether identified or not in a contingency plan, people can take in order to evacuate.

Evacuation site: any place, whether planned or unplanned, managed by governmental or non-governmental emergency actors, to which people and assets evacuate or are evacuated, in order to ensure their safety in the face of a crisis.

Exit point: any site through which people affected by a crisis can leave a country.

Hazard: a dangerous phenomenon, substance, human activity or condition that may cause loss of life, injury or other health impacts, property damage, loss of livelihoods and services, social and economic disruption, or environmental damage.

Host State: see country of destination.

Human trafficking or trafficking in persons: the act of recruiting, harbouring, transporting, providing or obtaining a person for compelled labour or commercial sex acts through the use of force, fraud or coercion. Human trafficking can occur within a country or between countries. The United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and its Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (known as the Palermo Protocol) establishes a global legal framework that criminalizes all forms of trafficking in persons, prescribes serious penalties, describes specific victim protections, and outlines the roles and responsibilities of governments.

International organization: an intergovernmental organization.

Man-made hazard: a hazard originating from technological or industrial conditions, including accidents, dangerous procedures, infrastructure failures or specific human activities, that may cause loss of life, injury, illness or other health impacts, property damage, loss of livelihoods and services, social and economic disruption, or environmental damage.

Migrant: a non-citizen who is present in a country other than his or her country of origin.

Natural hazard: a natural process or phenomenon that may cause loss of life, injury or other health impacts, property damage, loss of livelihoods and services, social and economic disruption, or environmental damage.

Preparedness: the knowledge and capacities developed by governments, professional response and recovery organizations, communities and individuals to effectively anticipate, respond to and recover from potential crises.

Private sector actor: an employer, recruiter or service provider, regardless of size. A private sector actor may be, for example, a multinational corporation, medium or small company, or an individual employer. A private sector service provider may be a company providing, for example, telecommunications, transportation or financial services.

Receiving country: see country of destination.

Recovery: the restoration, and improvement where appropriate, of facilities, livelihoods and living conditions of communities and individuals affected by a crisis.
Recruiter: a professional who looks for, or solicits, migrants to work for an employer. They may or may not work through a recruitment agency.

Refugee: a person who meets the eligibility criteria in the refugee definition provided by the relevant international or regional refugee instruments, the mandate of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees and/or national legislation. According to the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, a refugee is a person who is unwilling to return to his or her country of origin owing to a well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership in a particular social group or political opinion. Other international instruments or domestic laws may broaden this definition, for example to include threats to life, safety or freedom resulting from indiscriminate violence or other events seriously disturbing public order.

Relief: see response.

Resilience: the ability of an individual, community or society exposed to hazards to resist, absorb, adapt to and recover from the effects of a hazard in a timely and efficient manner.

Response: the provision of emergency services and public assistance during or immediately after a crisis in order to save lives, reduce health impacts, ensure public safety and meet the basic subsistence needs of the people affected.

Sending country: see country of origin.

Stakeholder: any State of origin, host State or State of transit or any of their institutions, or private sector actor, international organization or civil society.

Stateless person: a person who is not considered to be a national by any State under operation of its law.

State of origin: the State of citizenship of a migrant.

State of transit: a State through which migrants may flee other than the State of origin.

Third country: any State different from the State of origin and the host State.

Unaccompanied or separated child: a minor who has been separated from both parents and other relatives and is not being cared for by an adult who, by law or custom, is responsible for doing so.

Undocumented migrant: a migrant who does not have the documentation required to lawfully enter or stay in a country of destination – whether he or she has entered the country without documentation, has entered lawfully and has subsequently lost his or her rights to stay in the country, or has overstayed the period for which his or her visa had been issued.

Vulnerability: the likelihood of an individual, community or system to be negatively affected by a hazard.
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