PERCEPTIONS

UNDERSTAND THE IMPACT OF NOVEL TECHNOLOGIES, SOCIAL MEDIA, AND PERCEPTIONS IN COUNTRIES ABROAD ON MIGRATION FLOWS AND THE SECURITY OF THE EU & PROVIDE VALIDATED COUNTER APPROACHES, TOOLS AND PRACTICES

D2.2 Secondary analysis of studies, projects, and narratives

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Project

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Executive summary

This deliverable reports the results of the secondary analysis of studies, projects and narratives as part of *WP2 – RESEARCH: Literature, studies, projects, stakeholders, solutions, tools and practices*. The findings are based on the systematic literature review (SRL) of 221 documents including journals, book chapters, conference papers, working papers and project reports, provided by partners across the consortium.

The review is intended to provide conceptual foundations for the further empirical work within PERCEPTIONS and was guided by the following four research questions reflecting the project's work program:

1. What is known about the narratives (including misperceptions and 'myths') circulating about Europe and how these perceptions of Europe may act as an incentive for (potential) migrants to migrate to Europe?
2. What is known about the channels these narratives are transmitted through and how media – and especially social media – facilitate the flow of narratives through social networks or other channels?
3. What is known about potential links between narratives and (potential) security threats, including border issues?
4. What is known about European citizen's perceptions on external security, social resilience, and attitudes toward relevant technologies and organisational measures?

Our review illustrates several important issues in the current understanding of migration narratives. Firstly, collective the literature demonstrated the high complexity of migration narratives. Not only are migrants' perceptions of Europe highly varied, as were the sources of information on which they tend to be based. Motivations and aspirations to travel to Europe are often multifaceted and may change throughout the migratory process. Critically we also found that there is little consensus on the role of 'false narratives' and their impact on migrants within the literature.

Additionally, this review identified a wide range of platforms used for the transmission of narratives as well as alternative channels of information. However, it also illustrates that interpersonal networks and communication remain important means for the flow of information within migrant communities and vital sources to shape the perceptions migrants have of Europe. Social media and technologies such as smart phones have become essential tools during the migrants' journeys; yet, they have also been found to be potential sources of misinformation and disinformation.

Analysis of the literature further demonstrated that narratives play a complex role in the perception and experience of threats by both hosts communities and migrants. Narratives featured as a key reason for migrant's migration decisions, but also identified them as both the most threatened and the most threatening group as perceived by citizens in transit and hosts countries. Similarly, significant links were found between border issues and migration in a wide range of areas such as securitisation, legal issues, physical infrastructure, practices, EU border externalisation as well as symbolically.

Beyond concrete themes, this SLR moreover reveals issues in the current conceptualisations and methodologies to understand migration processes. The literature revealed the lack of consolidated definitions and concrete classifications of migrants and migration. This was found to be in large part due to the complexity of the migratory process as well as the high degree of politicisation of terms.

In addition, we identified a number of significant gaps in the current literature on migration and narratives. Firstly, there is a lack of knowledge about the effect of narratives on migration throughout the migration journey and for disparate migrant groups. Specific migrant demographics, especially vulnerable groups such as minors, people with disabilities or from LGBTQ+ communities, are severely under-researched. Additionally, literature that looks at the impact of countermeasures on changing perceptions and expectations of migrants is clearly underrepresented in the literature reviewed.

Our review unearthed rich insights into the perspectives of migrants. However, there were few studies that explored the challenges faced by first-line practitioners and policymakers. This is a clear gap in the current knowledge about migration movements that PERCEPTIONS explicitly address. Another significant gap in the reviewed data relevant to PERCEPTIONS was a dearth of research examining host attitudes towards the specific issue of border control. This is of particular relevance for partners from border agencies within the consortium.

Our review further highlights that there is considerable scope to introduce multidisciplinary and multi-method research. Much of the research found is qualitative, with a particular emphasis on ethnographic approaches. While the review offers important guidance on currently under-addressed issues and questions, which can be filled by PERCEPTIONS research, it also demonstrates that the quantitative empirical approach, specifically in Work Packages (WP) 3 and 4, has considerable potential to produce important innovative insights. The findings from this report will directly feed into the preparation of this quantitative phase by providing conceptual clarification and a better understanding of the role of media in the transmission of narratives.

Contents

Figures

Tables

Acronyms & Abbreviations

Term	Description
SLR	Systematic Literature Review
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
WP	Work Package

1 Introduction

This deliverable presents the results of the secondary analysis of studies, projects and narratives within Work Package 2 (WP2 – RESEARCH: Literature, studies, projects, stakeholders, solutions, tools and practices). The aim of this analysis is focused on reviewing an extensive body of scientific literature on migration research across multiple disciplines, in order to understand current debates in migration research and accumulate relevant project reports, secondary data of outcomes and research findings about migration and narratives within the EU and partner countries.

The review presents a wide range of literatures from over two hundred sources including journals, book chapters, working papers and project reports, collected from EU and non-EU partner countries (total of 221 documents). Using a robust methodology based on systematic literature review (SLR) procedures it examines literature that explores the core themes of the PERCEPTIONS project, namely: exploration of the different perceptions and images of the EU by migrants, to understand how these perceptions and narratives influence the migration process – and how they could lead to threats when expectation and reality do not match, as well as potential security problems that may arise from false narratives and misperceptions of the EU. This report further explores the constructed narratives and perceptions on a given country by migrants to understand how these may affect destination preferences and integration experiences and how these narratives are transmitted via social media, social networks and new communication networks.

The first part of the deliverable outlines how the systematic literature review was conducted including a detailed description of the methodology, elaborating data collection and data analysis (Sections 2), and a description of the documents analysed (Sections 3).

The first results section (Section 4) offers an ***overview of relevant concepts and definitions*** about migration found in the literature. This overview aims to guide the development of a project terminology shared across project partners and to support empirical efforts in conceptualising core variables and groups. For this purpose, the overview of definitions also examines group specific and regional differences in the narratives, looking at migrant phase and relevant themes found across the literature.

The main results of the secondary analysis are presented in Sections 5-8. Section 5 is organised around a detailed examination of the ***types of narratives*** found in the literature, including an explication of narratives from the perspective of host and migrant perceptions. This section also presents narratives transmitted in the mainstream media.

Section 6 examines the ***channels used to transmit the narratives*** reported in the reviewed literature, including technologies and social media. Section 7 looks at ***threats and security issues***. This analysis reveals a broad perspective on threats and security issues in the literature, addressing threats to migrants, host societies as well as super-national entities. Section 8 summaries the reported ***border issues***. The analysis identified five main aspects: borders discussed with respect to legal systems, securitisation, EU border externalisation, symbolic bordering and physical bordering.

Section 9 presents the ***relevant datasets and projects*** found during the systematic literature review. This information will serve as input for further analyses in the context of WP3 (INVESTIGATE: Methodological specification, quantitative online survey, qualitative interviews and focus groups).

The literature analysis revealed a detailed and very complex landscape about migration narratives. The research and knowledge about migration and how people talk about their aspirations and experiences is extensive, but – as our review shows – also highly fragmented. In the conclusions (Section 10), we highlight main gaps and inconsistencies in the current body of research. These concern methodological gaps, issues of reaching conceptual clarity – especially in terms of difficulties in forming succinct categorizations of migrants, countries of transit and destination – as well as prominent perspectives on migration issues. We further reflect on limitations in our own approach and methodology for this deliverable as well as further research requirements in connection with PERCEPTIONS' objectives and work programme.

2 Methodology

This section outlines the methodology used to collect, select and analyse the data on which the results of this deliverable are based.

2.1 Methodological approach

The approach chosen for the secondary analysis in D2.2 is based on Systematic Literature Review (SLR) procedures. SLR provides a robust approach to critically examining the current-state-of-the art in research on a given topic (Almeida, 2018). The SLR research design used for this deliverable was constructed to be methodical, replicable and enable both a broad overview of the literature as well as the identification of specific findings, trends and lines for further investigation.

The work on the secondary analysis was driven by the following general research questions, which form the foundation of the work program within PERCEPTIONS:

- What is known about the narratives (including misperceptions and 'myths') circulating about Europe and how these perceptions of Europe may act as an incentive for (potential) migrants to migrate to Europe?
- What is known about the channels these narratives are transmitted through and how media – and especially social media – facilitate the flow of narratives through social networks or other channels?
- What is known about potential links between narratives and (potential) security threats, including border issues?
- What is known about European citizen's perceptions on external security, social resilience, and attitudes toward relevant technologies and organisational measures?

2.2 Data collection and selection

A critical component of SLRs is applying a standardised and systematic approach to collecting the literature to be surveyed. In so doing, SLRs aim to avoid biases in sample selection as well as enhance transparency and replicability of findings to allow future researchers to trace how the findings were arrived at by using the same searching and selection protocols (Okoli & Schabram, 2010). Therefore, a standard protocol was developed and used by all partners to guide the data collection process (see Appendix A for the guidelines provided to partners).

To ensure a comprehensive view on existing literature we chose a broad approach for the selection of potential sources covering:

- ***Academic literature*** and the state-of-the-art research on narratives of migration;
- ***Grey literature*** produced by international organizations; governmental / policy making bodies; NGOs / civic organizations; think tanks / lobbies; legal bodies; security / LEAs / border agencies and the private sector;
- (***Auto-) Biographical accounts;***
- ***Media sources;***
- ***Empirical data*** from migration projects, including those funded by the EU;
- ***Electronic databases*** to 'collect practices, measures, tools, models and strategies for (counter) acting on threats and expectations caused by false narratives' and 'European citizen

perceptions on external security, social resilience, and attitudes toward relevant technologies and organisational measures'.

This broad approach seemed justified as migration is a complex phenomenon that is addressed across a wide range of disciplines (sociology, political sciences, law, communication and information science, public administration, psychology, security studies, etc.), each with their own publication tradition.

To guide the search process and ensure searches were systematic and replicable across countries and partners, pre-defined keywords were provided. The initial list of keywords used in the SLR protocol are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Search terms.

Primary Search Terms	Secondary Search Terms	Non-Exhaustive List
Migrants Narrative EU	Journeys Country of Origin Transit Destination Incentive Europe Africa Middle East Asia Information Systems ICT Social Media	Gender Identity Perception Misperceptions Myth Security Metanarrative Counternarrative Citizen Attitudes Resilience Toolkits

In order to allow scope for literature that may not have been found using the predetermined keywords, a snowball sampling method was included whereby researchers were permitted to use additional keywords provided they recorded the combinations of search terms used. This enabled a more exhaustive search to be conducted without detracting from the systemic methodology.

Boolean search strings were devised from the search terms. These combine keywords and phrases within the Boolean operators AND, OR, NOT, "speech marks" and (brackets). Using search strings allowed researchers to narrow the number of hits on search engines, indexes and databases to the topics of interest defined by the research questions. An example of a Boolean search string is provided below:

"Migrants" AND "Narrative" AND "EU" AND (Journeys AND/OR Country of Origin AND/OR Transit AND/OR Destination AND/OR Incentive)

The comprehensive list of all search strings used by partners is provided in Appendix B.

To ensure that our researchers were able to analyse documents in sufficient nuances, only documents in the following languages were accepted: English, French, Italian, German and Dutch. These languages are spoken by our researchers either as mother language or as second language with near-native proficiency. Documents in the other languages were accepted, if they had an extensive English summary (or any of the other languages above), so that content could be verified in sufficient detail.

The protocol further detailed specific document types for which to search (peer-reviewed articles, conference proceedings, book chapters, books) and offered examples of journals as possible starting points for academic literature, grey literature, media, biographical accounts, datasets and projects (e.g., The Oxford Journal of Refugee Studies, The Journal of Ethics and Migration Studies, The Journal of International Migration and Integration, etc. for academic sources; see Appendix A for details). In addition, partners were advised to use academic databases such as Web of Science, ProQuest, Scopus, etc., newspaper archives (e.g., LexisNexis) and governmental and project websites to identify relevant documents. As (examples) of relevant databases for pre-existing databases we named DIOC, DEMIG POLICY, Eurostat, EUMAGINE, European Social Survey, The Refugees Operational Portal, EU Open Data Portal, EU Knowledge Centre on Migration and Demography, IOM Migration Data Portal.

We further introduced a restriction on the publication date of documents to ensure that empirical information was relevant for recent migration experiences to and within Europe as indicated in the proposal call (often referred to as 'migration crisis of 2015'). The European migrant crisis, also known as the refugee crisis, was a period beginning in 2015 characterised by high numbers of people arriving in the European Union from across the Mediterranean Sea or overland through Southeast Europe following Turkey's migrant crisis. All documents had to be published in or after 2014.

Table 2. Criteria for the inclusion and exclusion of literature.

Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
1. Publications and sources that are topically relevant to migration, narratives and the EU. 2. Sources that use empirical data or are theoretical. 3. Grey literature (such as technical papers or government reports) are also to be accepted if relevant. 4. Literature is to be included if it is written the following languages: English, French, Italian, German and Dutch. 5. When several papers have reported the same study only the most recent paper is to be included. 6. Only publicly available material is to be included and material that is made public via agreement of a classified IPR.	1. Publications will be excluded if their focus is not on the topically relevant themes of migration narratives and the EU. 2. Academic literature published before 2014. 3. Literature will be excluded when only the abstract but not the full text is available online, as information cannot be verified.

For reporting, an Excel-template was provided requesting the following information for each entry:

- Publishing Organisation – type, level and name
- Publication Type
- Year
- Author(s)
- Title of the source/document
- Search Terms Used
- Language of the source/document
- Geographical Area(s) covered
- Methodological approach
- Short Description of Key Points
- DOI/Hyperlink

All partners in the PERCEPTION consortium were asked to provide sources, focusing especially on documents from and about their respective countries. No upper or lower limits with respect to the number of expected sources were provided. In total, partners collected a total of 856 entries (range: 5-239 sources per partner).

By predetermining inclusion and exclusion criteria, a documented and standardised approach was available to select which data would be included in the review. To ensure documents in the final review phase met these criteria, the original entries provided by all partners were screened in several steps (see also Figure 1):

1. Publications found during the initial search were assessed for their eligibility based upon the initial information provided by partners. Entries not meeting the inclusion criteria for language, geographic location or thematic relevance were excluded (n=225).
2. In the next step, titles and abstracts of the remaining entries were screened. Entries not meeting the inclusion criteria for source type and thematic relevance were excluded, as were duplicates. We further excluded documents we were unable to access in full (n=374).
3. The remaining publications (n=257) were then subjected to a thorough analysis (i.e., analysis of the full text). This was done to ensure that the publications contained information relevant to the research questions. 36 studies were excluded because they did not relate to the research questions or because of lacking quality.

In total, 221 documents were retained for the final sample. Documents covered 198 articles in 102 journals (see Appendix B for the list of journals), 4 books, 11 conference proceedings and 8 chapters.

Collectively, partners further identified 67 projects and 19 datasets (see Section 9). This information was not entered into the literature review but was collected as input for further analyses in Task 2.4.

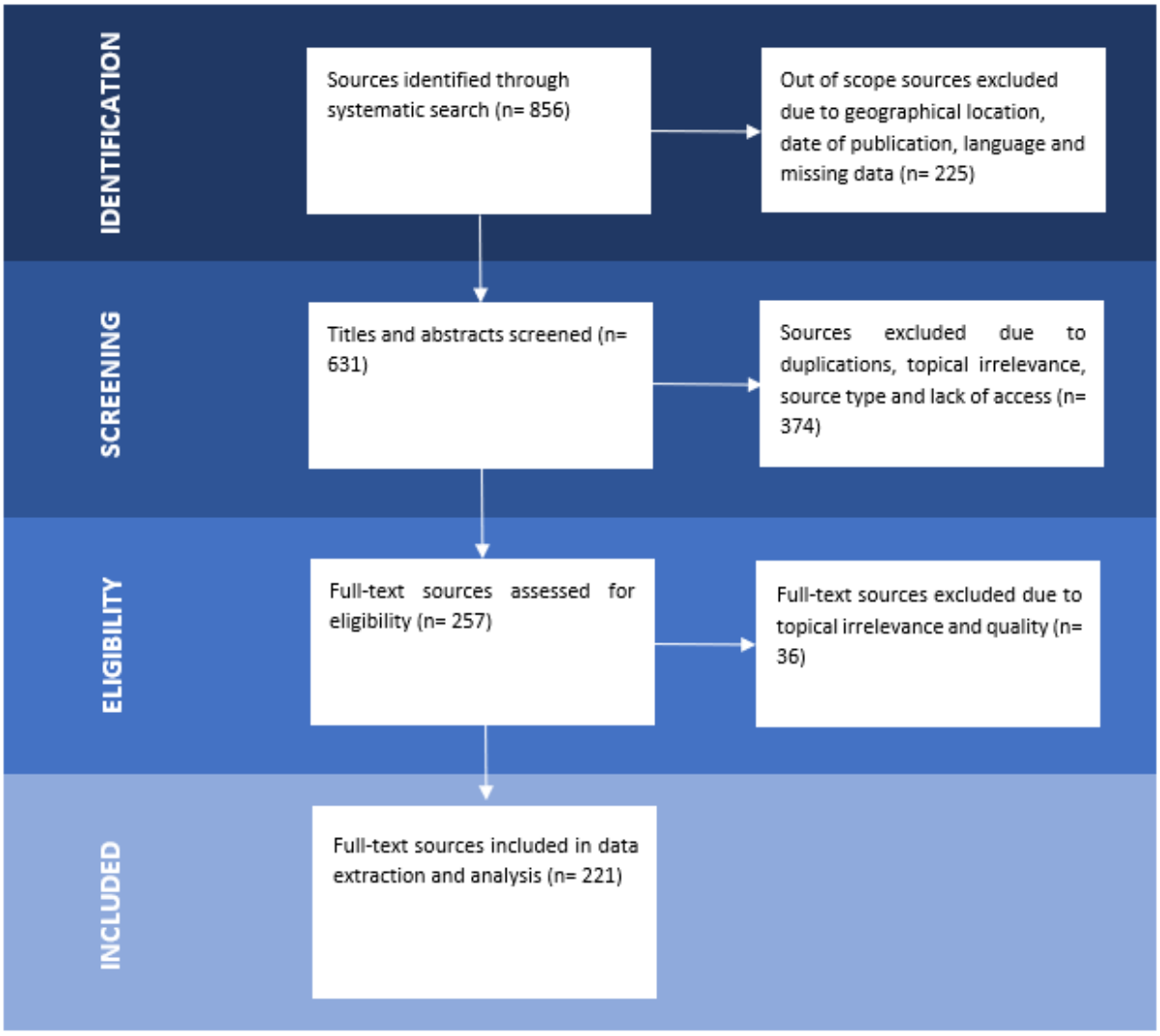

Figure 1. PRISMA diagram of the selection, inclusion and exclusion process.

2.3 Coding and data analysis

SLRs often use statistical methods to compare findings in the literature to provide an overview of agreements, disagreements and gaps (Okoli & Schabram, 2010). Due to the multidisciplinary and largely qualitative nature of the literature investigated in this review (cp. Section 3), a qualitative approach was chosen instead based on thematic content analysis (Thomas & Harden, 2008).

In order to systematically analyse the corpus of documents a coding scheme was created to identify themes and topics discussed in the literature. The creation of the coding frames was driven by a mixed (top-down and bottom-up) strategy. First, by adopting a deductive perspective, an overall and general frame of key general categories was proposed. This initial framework comprised the main themes addressed in the research questions listed in Section 2: content and features of narratives, sources and audiences of narratives, channels for transmission, motivations for migration and security issues including borders. This initial framework was tested in an analysis of 15 articles. Secondly, open coding was used to allow for additional themes to emerge inductively during the analysis. This enabled the researchers undertaking the coding to intensify the analysis and render it more valid by adding nodes in a bottom-up approach. The coding process led to two sets of information:

1. ***Classification*** of each document, describing the characteristics and features which applied to the document as a whole (e.g., year of publication, language of the publication, region(s) covered)
2. ***Content coding*** for the detailed annotation of information within each document

The classification sheet captured 15 features for each document (see Table 3). The content coding (see Table 4) led to 369 nodes, with 6.229 coded references in total. All coding was conducted in the software program NVivo 11.

To establish agreement amongst coders, the researchers simultaneously coded articles together in order to ensure that the codes were understood correctly and consistently by coders. The coding was carried out simultaneously by the three authors. Every time a new node or categorization was created, the validity of this code was-cross checked with the other coders. Furthermore, a description of the code was created in order to limit any subjective interpretation and enable a systematic replication of analysis.

After the coding of the literature was completed a second round of analysis was undertaken. This analysis consisted of reviewing the main themes elicited in the text to consolidate categories and themes. The themes were subsequently qualitatively examined and presented in tables with definitions along with the relevant bibliographic sources. Explanations and relevant quotations from the text were presented alongside the tables. Further comparisons of factors including, but not exhaustive to region, migrant phases, type of channels of narratives, type of migrant, were made using the classifications coded in NVIVO. This information is depicted in several diagrams and charts. The same researchers that coded the literature undertook this secondary analysis. A description of the data set is provided in Section 3. Sections 4-8 presents the findings.

Table 3. Classification categories for documents.

Classification	Values coded
Migrants' Perceptions of the EU	(positive, negative, mixed, neutral, not mentioned
Host perceptions of migrants	(not applicable, positive, negative, mixed, neutral, not mentioned)
Border security	(not applicable, addressed, not addressed)
Medium of the Narrative	(not applicable, textual, visual, audio, mixed, other, not mentioned)
Channel of the narrative	(not applicable, non-digital, interpersonal, not mentioned)
Migrant Type	(not applicable, asylum seeker, refugee, irregular migrant, regular migrant, diaspora, mixed)
Migrant Phase	(not applicable, pre-migration, transit, arrival first EU country, integration, arrival EU destination country, mixed)
Migrant demographics	(not applicable, male, female, LGBTQ+, children, mixed)
Research Methods	(not applicable, qualitative, quantitative, mixed, theoretical/conceptual, empirical qualitative)

Table 4. Categories for thematic coding.

First level themes	Second level themes	Third level categories
Border issues (open coding)	▪ Legal system ▪ Physical border ▪ Securitization of Migration ▪ Symbolic bordering	
Definitions	▪ DEF of migrant ▪ DEF of migration ▪ DEF of narrative ▪ DEF of transnationalism	
Meta-Information	▪ Findings ▪ Gaps, further research ▪ Keywords ▪ Methods – Data collection information ▪ Research purpose ▪ Research question	
Migrants	▪ Demographics	▪ Migrant type ▪ Sample composition
	▪ Geographical location	▪ Geographical location – Destination ▪ Geographical location – Origin ▪ Geographical location – Transit ▪ Geographical location – Landing
	▪ Journey	▪ Journey – Air ▪ Journey – Land ▪ Journey – Sea ▪ Journey – Timeline ▪ Journey – Alone, or with others ▪ Journey – Decision on destination ▪ Journey – Moving through different countries ▪ Journey – Role of intermediaries
	▪ Motivation push	▪ Motivation – Cultural ▪ Motivation – Economic ▪ Motivation – Environmental ▪ Motivation – Familial ▪ Motivation – Political ▪ Motivation – Social Improvement
	▪ Motivation pull	▪ Motivation – Cultural ▪ Motivation – Economic ▪ Motivation – Environmental ▪ Motivation – Familial ▪ Motivation – Political ▪ Motivation – Social Improvement
	▪ Route	▪ Route – Eastern ▪ Route – Mixed ▪ Route – Other ▪ Route – Southern ▪ Route - Western

	▪ Migration Planning	
Narrative	▪ Definition of Narrative	▪ Definition of Narrative - Audio ▪ Definition of Narrative – Image ▪ Definition of Narrative – mixed ▪ Definition of Narrative – Story
	▪ Effect of Narrative (open coding)	▪ Effect of Narrative – Decreased Migration ▪ Effect of Narrative – Decreased Security ▪ Effect of Narrative – Increased Migration ▪ Effect of Narrative – Increased Security ▪ Effect of Narrative - challenge to collective, national identity ▪ Effect of Narrative - zero refugee policy (host) ▪ Effect of Narrative - justice - prevent actions of some states impacting others ▪ Effect of Narrative - undermine credibility of international protection for migrants ▪ Effect of Narrative - increase migration-related fears ▪ Effect of Narrative - more restrictive approaches to migration ▪ Effect of Narrative - overemphasizing the negative consequences of migration to host country ▪ Effect of Narrative - shifts in narrative frames lead to rapid shifts in policies ▪ Effect of Narrative - elicit sympathy for migrants ▪ Effect of Narrative - call to action to help, support migrants ▪ Effect of Narrative - anti-EU stance ▪ Effect of Narrative - stabilising inequality of migrants ▪ Effect of Narrative - marginalisation from personal relationships ▪ Effect of Narrative - marginalisation
	▪ Media Representation	▪ Media Representation – Difficult conditions of refugees in Italy ▪ Media Representation – Crisis ▪ Media Representation – Solidarity ▪ Media Representation – Victimization ▪ Media Representation – Xenophobic
	▪ Narrative Content (open coding)	▪ Narrative Content – EU narratives of migration and policy making ▪ Narrative Content – Criminalization of migration ▪ Narrative Content – Migrants are perceived to be uneducated ▪ Narrative Content – Home ▪ Narrative Content – International Migration Narrative ▪ Narrative Content – Migrants feelings of marginalisation + lack of integration in host society ▪ Narrative Content – Migration success ▪ Narrative Content – Return Migration Narrative ▪ Narrative Content – Some countries are seen as stepping stones, rest countries ▪ Narrative Content – Migrants are vulnerable ▪ Narrative Content – Counter-migration campaigns

		▪ Narrative Content – Anxiety, ontological security in host countries ▪ Narrative Content – Managing securitization in EU ▪ Narrative Content – Empathy with migrants, desecuritization ▪ Narrative Content – Fear of diminished control to ensure national security against immigration ▪ Narrative Content – EU is responsible toward EU citizens for its survival ▪ Narrative Content – Humanitarian securitisation (migrants are both sufferers and threats) ▪ Narrative Content – Migration creates emergency situation for host country ▪ Narrative Content – Pen policies lead migrants towards illegality + marginalisation ▪ Narrative Content – Single country's actions reduce EU's choices ▪ Narrative Content – Critique of commodification of migrants ▪ Narrative Content – EU refugee crisis is not substantiated ▪ Narrative content – Activism with other migrants, peer-group, building trust ▪ Narrative content – Exclusion from political participation ▪ Narrative content – Migrants are prevented from forming social relationships ▪ Narrative content – Migrants are expected to have problems because they are from a different place ▪ Narrative content – Cultural identity is not fixed ▪ Narrative content – Helping migrants is about social justice ▪ Narrative content – Call for sympathy, empathy ▪ Narrative content – Reminding of (humanitarian, Christian) values-duty towards migrants ▪ Narrative content – There are not borders, boundaries between people ▪ Narrative content – Migrants plight is not their choice, fault ▪ Narrative content – Disparaging, criticising authorities ▪ Narrative content – Denouncing social injustice against migrants ▪ Narrative content – Appeal for inclusion of migrants ▪ Narrative content – EU policies fail to effectively address refugee, migrant crisis ▪ Narrative content – Migrants as victims ▪ Narrative content – Migrants as illegal entries ▪ Narrative content – Exclusion strategies
	▪ Narrative Perspective	▪ Narrative Perspective – Host (mis)perceptions of migrants ▪ Narrative Perspective – Migrant (mis)perceptions of EU ▪ Narrative Perspective – Migrant Experiences in EU ▪ Narrative Perspective – Migrant perceptions about themselves

		▪ Narrative Perspective – Migrants (mis-) perceptions of the journey
	▪ Perceived Validity of Narrative	▪ Perceived Validity of Narrative – False ▪ Perceived Validity of Narrative – Mixed ▪ Perceived Validity of Narrative – True
	▪ Source of Narrative	▪ Source of Narrative – Border Security & LEAs ▪ Source of Narrative – Civil Society ▪ Source of Narrative – Host Citizens ▪ Source of Narrative – International Organizations ▪ Source of Narrative – Media ▪ Source of Narrative – Migrants ▪ Source of Narrative – Online influencers ▪ Source of Narrative – Political groups and organizations ▪ Source of Narrative – Public bodies
	▪ Subject of Narrative	▪ Subject of Narrative – Border security ▪ Subject of Narrative – Conditions in host society ▪ Subject of Narrative – Conditions in origin ▪ Subject of Narrative – Conditions in country of transit ▪ Subject of Narrative – ICT ▪ Subject of Narrative – Journey
	▪ Target Audiences	▪ Target Audiences – Host Societies ▪ Target Audiences – Migrants ▪ Target Audiences – Policy Makers ▪ Target Audiences – Practitioners and LEAs
	▪ Transmission of Narratives (Channels)	▪ Transmission of Narratives – Interpersonal Communication ▪ Transmission of Narratives – Mainstream Media ▪ Transmission of Narratives – Social and Digital Media
Security	▪ Referent Objects	▪ Referent Object – Economy ▪ Referent Object – EU ▪ Referent Object – Hosts ▪ Referent Object – Integration ▪ Referent Object – Migrants ▪ Referent Object – Politics ▪ Referent Object – Society ▪ Referent Object - Sovereignty
	▪ Referent Subjects	▪ Referent Subject – Extremist Groups ▪ Referent Subject – Migrant Groups ▪ Referent Subject – State Agents ▪ Referent Subjects – Criminal Networks
	▪ Threat Type	▪ Threat Type – Detention, deportation ▪ Threat Type – Civil Unrest ▪ Threat Type – Corruption ▪ Threat Type – Death ▪ Threat Type – Domestic Violent Extremism ▪ Threat Type – Discrimination ▪ Threat Type – Terrorism ▪ Threat Type – Violence and abuse ▪ Threat Type – Drug Trafficking ▪ Threat Type – Modern Slavery

		▪ Threat Type – Weapons Smuggling ▪ Threat Type – Serious organised Crime ▪ Threat Type – Human trafficking ▪ Threat Type – Radicalisation ▪ Threat Type – Economic
Technologies and Communication	▪ Social and Digital Media	▪ Social & Digital Media – Facebook ▪ Social & Digital Media – Instagram ▪ Social & Digital Media – Telegram ▪ Social & Digital Media – Twitter ▪ Social & Digital Media – VOIP ▪ Social & Digital Media – WhatsApp ▪ Social & Digital Media – YouTube ▪ Social & Digital Media – Google+
	▪ Technologies Used	▪ Technologies Used – Border security systems ▪ Technologies Used – Computers ▪ Technologies Used – Drones ▪ Technologies Used – GPS ▪ Technologies Used – Radio ▪ Technologies Used – TV ▪ Technologies Used – Smart Mobile Phones

3 Description of the dataset

3.1 Meta information

Meta information about the 221 documents included in the final dataset can be found in Figure 2. As these analyses show, the number of publications addressing migration narratives increased continuously from 2014 (6% of documents) to 2019 (32% of documents). However, where indicated, data collection took place largely before the start of the 2015 'migrant crisis' (39% of documents). Only 35% of documents reported data from 2015 or later, with 26% missing any information about the time frame the study addressed. The large majority of the documents were written in English (98%), with a small number of documents in French and Italian (1% each). Qualitative methods represented the majority of approaches (45% of documents), while quantitative methods accounted for 13% and mixed methods for 14% of documents. Theoretical/conceptual papers represented 28% of documents.

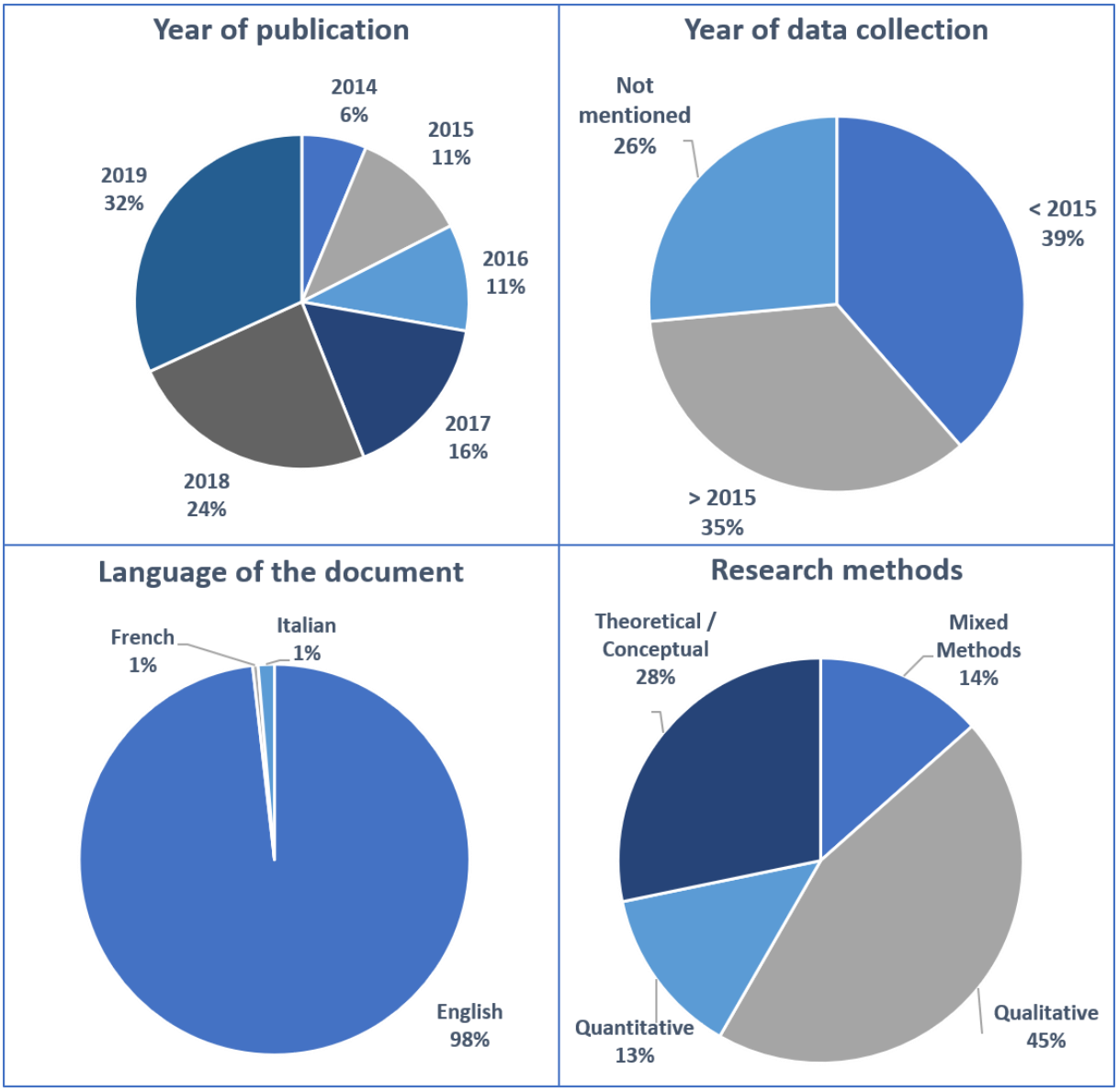

Figure 2. Description of documents in the dataset

3.2 Migrants and migration phases covered

Reviewing the way migrants were referred to, we found a wide range of labels from asylum seekers to irregular and regular migrants, refugees and diaspora. Most studies, however, addressed a combination of these groups accounting for the 58% in the 'mixed' category in Figure 3 (top left), while 4% did not describe the type of migration addressed. Noteworthy was the lack of studies addressing specific migrant demographics (Figure 3, bottom). Only 6% of studies focused specifically on migration experiences by men and 3% of documents on those of children or women, respectively. Even fewer studies (1%) addressed experiences of migrants from LGBTQ+ groups. The large majority included migrants with various backgrounds and diversity specifics, while 20% did not provide concrete demographics. We further coded documents for migration phase (Figure 3, top right). The majority of documents (35%) reported on experiences across various phases, suggesting a process perspective in which migration is a trajectory often with multiple steps and contemporary stages. 23% of documents addressed issues specific to migrant integration, i.e., the process of settling into a new country. This group of studies was highly diverse – ranging from migrant integration experiences directly after arrival to experiences after many years within the host society. Our review revealed, however, a relative lack of information about pre-migration and return.

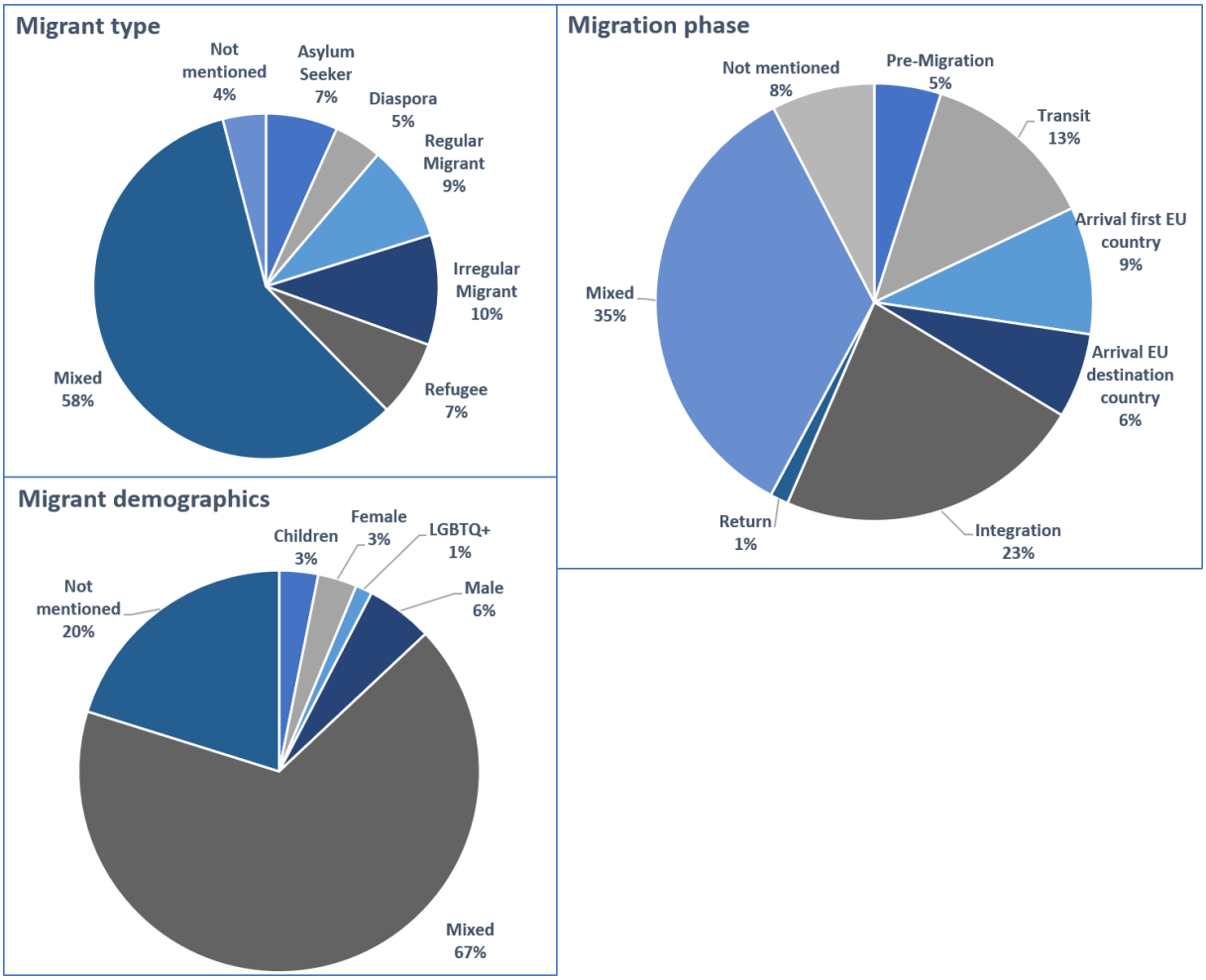

Figure 3. Information about migrant and migration characteristics addressed in the dataset.

3.3 Geographical regions covered

To understand for which geographical regions research on migration narratives is available we classified documents for (1) migrants' origin countries mentioned in the literature and (2) the geographical areas covered by the research. The systematic literature review included a wider range of geographical areas than initially specified in the inclusion criteria of the PERCEPTIONS project, due to the fact that a minority of the literature undertook a theoretical view of migration or presented datasets from global research projects such as THEMIS, which included EU- and non-EU countries. Other literature focused on studies of social media, including geolocated tweets. This means that countries such as the US, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada are also indicated on the figures below. We found mention of 88 countries and regions of origin, with a strong focus on Africa, Middle East and the Americas (Figure 4). 63 countries and regions were mentioned in the focus of the research (Figure 5). Interesting in this context is the dearth of studies on Russia, Asia and the Pacific Region.

Areas of origin identified in the sample

Afghanistan, Africa, Algeria, Australia, Balkans, Bangladesh, Belgium, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Canada, Caribbean, Chad, Chile, Côte d'Ivoire, Denmark, DRC, East Africa, Eastern Europe, Egypt, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, Intra-EU, Finland, France, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Guinea Conakry, Hungary, Iceland, India, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Ivory Coast, Japan, Jordan, Kenya, Kosovo, Latin America, Liberia, Libya, Mali, Mauritania, MENA, Mexico, Middle East, Morocco, Netherlands, New Zealand, Niger, Nigeria, North Africa, Norway, Pakistan, Palestinian Territories, Philippines, Portugal, Romania, Senegal, Serbia, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Korea, South Sudan, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Sweden, Switzerland, Syria, Togo, Tunisia, Turkey, UK, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, US, Uzbekistan, Vietnam, West Africa

Figure 4. Origin of migrations in the data sample.

Geographical areas covered in the sample

Algeria, Australia, Austria, Balkans, Bangladesh, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cameroon, Canary Islands, Czech Republic, Denmark, Egypt, Estonia, Ethiopia, EU, EU candidate countries, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Gibraltar, Global, Greece, Hungary, Iraq, Israel, Italy, Japan, Jordan, Kenya, Lampedusa, Lebanon, Libya, Lithuania, Mali, Melilla, MENA, Mexico, Morocco, Netherlands, Niger, Norway, Palestinian Territories, Philippines, Romania, Senegal, Serbia, Slovakia, Somalia, South Africa, South America, Spain, Sub-Saharan Africa, Sudan, Sweden, Switzerland, Syria, Tunisia, Turkey, UK, Ukraine, US

Figure 5. Geographical Areas covered in the research.

4 Definitions of relevant concepts

An important aim of the secondary analysis was to better understand how migration and migration narratives are understood conceptually across literatures. The following two tables provide an overview of definitions found in the dataset (Table 5) as well as variations in the way core concepts are presented or addressed across studies (Table 6). These two tables are not meant to be exhaustive (i.e., cover every single definition and concept coded in the dataset), but to present important disparities in the understanding of and approach to core concepts in PERCEPTIONS.

Table 5. Definitions for core concepts.

Concept	Definitions/Key words	Sources
Narrative	Unlike the optimistic local migration narratives in the South, however, the narratives in the North are often pessimistic, lean towards stricter border controls, and can be seen in the subjective labelling of immigrants from Asia and Africa. Such pessimistic international migration narratives are so potent and real that they now influence and determine election/political outcomes in the North, as witnessed in the United States in 2016.	Akanle, 2018, p. 166
	At the most basic level, narratives are stories that individuals and institutions tell themselves and others about the world they live in and their place within it. Narratives organise sequences of historical events and the relations of causality between them in particular ways (Sassatelli, 2002, p2). Narratives hence are the means through which individuals weave collective and public events into their personal existence and a tool through which their sense of belonging or membership to a group is expressed, assessed or contested.	Cited in Cantat, 2015 p. 6 Cantat, 2015, p. 7
	Narratives are considered cognitive devices which provide an interpretation of a complex event by making empirical claims of the causes and dynamics of the phenomenon in question and by pointing to causal relations between actions and events (D'Amato & Lucarelli 2019).	Cited in Ceccorrulli, 2019, p. 18
	Narratives are conceived as social constructions, in which the observed reality is interpreted and presented at once through series of stories that express knowledge and constitute the context for the production of knowledge, including knowledge about the self.	Farini, 2019, p. 1123
	Narratives are the stories we tell about ourselves, especially stories of belonging to something larger and more enduring, to communities and groups, whether national, religious, social or political.	Mitzen, 2018, p. 396
	Narrative is consensually understood as a sense-making tool which engages individuals and groups at different positions of time and space in the activity of storytelling (Bruner, 1990; Ochs & Capps, 2001; De Fina & Georgakopoulou, 2011), transcending the borderlines between social and individual landscapes.	cited in Macías-Gómez-Estern 2015, p. 169
	Narratives are therefore intimately linked to the concept of "imaginary", which refers to the symbolic patrimony that a social system uses to communicate (Abruzzese & Borrelli, 2000). Narratives and imageries are expressed in images (visual or symbolic), as well as in interpretative categories.	Cited in Musarò, & Moralli, 2019, p. 151

Counter-narrative	'Counter-narrative', i.e., a set of narratives aimed at changing the mainstream discourse, which is overwhelmingly negative	Baider & Constantinou 2018, p. 191
Stance	[…] a public act by a social actor, achieved dialogically through overt communicative means, of simultaneously evaluating objects, positioning subjects (self and others), and aligning with other subjects, with respect to any salient dimension of the sociocultural field (Du Bois 2007: 163). Stance can be approached as a "linguistically articulated form of social action" (Du Bois 2007), a positive stance can then be articulated with the aim of sustaining and legitimatizing positive alignment with the Other and opposition and resistance against domination and social inequality (Van Dijk 2000).	Cited in Baider & Constantinou, 2018, p. 194 Cited in Baider & Constantinou, 2018, p. 195
Ideology	ideology is defined in its positive sense, for example, anti-racist stances, "systems that sustain and legitimatize opposition and resistance against domination and social inequality" (Van Dijk 2000: 8). Ideology is to be understood as "an important means of establishing and maintaining unequal power relations" (Reisigl and Wodak 2001: 88), it can also function as "as a body of ideas and beliefs which help legitimate the interest of a ruling group or class by distortion or dissimulation" (Eagleton 1991: 30). In addition to their legitimatizing function, ideologies are also considered to be "unifying, action-oriented, rationalizing, universalizing and naturalizing" (ibid.: 5).	Cited in Baider & Constantinou 2018, p. 194 Cited in Baider & Constantinou, 2018, p. 193
Securitization	Kinnvall (Kinnvall 2004, Kinnvall & Nesbitt-Larking 2009, 2010, 2011) considers securitisation as a society's psychological response to ontological insecurity and existential anxiety due to globalisation. Accordingly, the adoption of the securitisation of the self's psychological defensive strategy involves essentializing perceptions of self and collective identity by social groups that construct all-encompassing, singular, contained, and inflexible biographical narratives that exclude and delegitimize others in order to re-establish ontological security.	Cited in Alkopher, 2018, p. 316
Justice	Justice is considered here in its 'political' dimension (Pettit 1997), with three possible understandings proposed as formulated in the broader Horizon 2020 project (GLOBUS-Reconsidering EU's contribution to Global Justice 2016) informing this article. Non-domination sees the centrality of states (and their societies) as the primary actors and referents in the governance of the phenomenon, reaffirming the need to eschew arbitrary interference (Sjursen 2017). Justice is seen as impartiality when migrants and their rights are at centre stage, while justice as mutual recognition shifts the attention to the voices of the actors (migrants and receiving societies), as they are the most affected. The press analysis shows that the non-domination justice claim largely outstripped impartiality and mutual recognition.	Cited in Ceccorulli 2019, p. 19
Asylum Seeker	Asylum seekers are often labelled as illegal immigrants. Asylum seekers labelled as 'bogus asylum seekers' and 'welfare scroungers' One of the drivers of this transformation was the ever-growing complexity of the distinction of who is a genuine asylum seeker and who is a deceiving asylum seeker.	Pogliano, 2017 Sarpong, 2019 Vollmer, 2016, p. 720

Refugee	Refugees are the people fleeing their homeland owing to serious human rights violations and seeking safe harbours by crossing their borders (Allen, Aina, & Hauff, 2006). While the use of 'refugee' portrays people fleeing armed conflict or persecution, 'migrant' describes people making a conscious choice to leave their country to seek a better life elsewhere International law defines a refugee as a person who has left their country of nationality as a result of a well-founded fear of persecution due to their race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion (OHCHR, no date). A refugee is defined as someone who flees his or her home and country owing to 'a well-founded fear' of persecution because of his/her race, religion, nationality, membership in a particular social group or political opinion' (UNHCR 2010).	Cited in Gursoy & Ertaşoğlu, 2019, p. 128 Lee & Nerghes, 2018, p. 1 McMahon & Sigona, 2018, p. 500
Migrant	The term 'migrant,' however, covers a broader population who may not qualify for the protections afforded by the 'refugee' category, but nevertheless often requires protection and urgent humanitarian attention.	Sarpong, 2019
Digital Migration	With the term digital migration, we refer to the expanding and intensifying roles digital technologies play in migration processes, ranging from top-down governmentality and bottom-up practices of everyday meaning-making.	Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018, p. 13
Irregular Migrant	Irregular migration often expresses the imbalance between the unlimited supply of emigration from the countries of origin and the limited reception capacities by the destination countries; reversing the trend should require legal opportunities to emigrate and legal opportunities for labour migration.	Ghio & Blangiardo, 2019, p. 15-16
Voluntary and Forced return	A further key distinction must be made between voluntary return and forced return: the former involves migrants who chose to return of their own accord, without any pressure or coercion, while the latter concerns those who return to their country of origin due to unfavorable circumstances and factors that brusquely interrupt the migration cycle (Cassarino, 2008).	Cited in Veronese et al., 2019, p. 2
Forced/Voluntary Migration	From a state-centric perspective there are two major categories of migratory movements: forced and voluntary departures. Forced migration caused by various kinds of serious human rights violations or armed conflicts may, however, overlap with other reasons for leaving a country such as poverty, environmental degradation, poor governance and increasing levels of corruption.	Vollmer, 2016, p. 719 Vollmer, 2016, p. 719
Co-ethnic Migration	refers to a type of migration that is made possible by a subset of diaspora management policies, used by states to 'attract back, or integrate diaspora members in their country of origin, allegiance, or citizenship' (Mylonas 2013, 175)	Cited in Zeveleva, 2019, p. 637
Trans-nationalism	Transnational migration connects two (or more) states through individuals (Hannerz 1996). These individuals' access to their new place of residence is shaped by both national and international politics and law, according to which state is one's origin and which state is one's destination.	Cited in Ramsoy, 2014, p. 51

	Transnationalism, defined as the process by which migrants forge and sustain multi-stranded relations and create transnational social fields, was described as a constant traversing of national boundaries by processes of communication and exchange, such as capital expansion, the Internet, and other telecommunications (see, e.g., Portes, Landolt, & Guarnizo, 1999). In "the second wave of transnationalism" (Rogers, 2005, p. 405) that appeared around 2005, advanced high-speed communication systems and the impacts of simultaneity and copresence were considered to be constitutive factors of the transnational terrain (Smith, 2005, pp. 239–240).	Cited in Andersson, 2019, p. 143
	Transnationalism is understood as "the processes by which immigrants forge and sustain multi-stranded social relationships that link together their societies of origin and settlement" (Basch, Glick Schiller, & Szanton Blanc, 1994, p. 7). I offer a more nuanced and updated consideration of such dynamic cross-border processes, in which a shared sense of collective identity (usually national, ethnic, or religious) and attachments to a particular ancestral homeland (real or imagined) connect across web-based technologies of presence.	Cited in Kumar, 2018, p. 2

Table 6. Conceptual variations found for core concepts.

Concept	Key term used	Sources
Narrative	Narrative and Memory	Kinnvall, Manners &Mitzen, 2018; Milivojevic, 2019
	Political narratives	Cantat, 2015
	Conceptualisation of narratives in different academic disciplines	De Fina & Tseng, 2017; Kinnvall, Manners & Mitzen, 2018; Macías-Gómez-Estern, 2015; Musarò & Moralli, 2019
	Functions of narratives as interpretative, instrumental, cognitive and ontological.	D'Amato & Lucarelli, 2019; Kinnvall, Manners & Mitzen, 2018
	Migration narratives-solidarity, responsibility, state-centred Westphalian, instrumental and humanitarian	Ceccorrulli, 2019
Transnationalism	E-Diaspora	Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Hintjens, 2019
	Digital diaspora	Andersson, 2019; Leurs, 2016
	Diaspora community	Ogunyemi, 2018
	Paradigm shifts in transnational studies	Pogliano, 2017
	Main sectors of transnational activity	Mapelli, 2019
	Transnational feminism	Goulahsen, 2017
	Function of concept of transnationalism	Papadopoulos & Fratsea, 2015
	Illegal	Casas-Cortes et al 2015;

Migrant		Pérez-Paredes, Aguado Jiménez & Sánchez Hernández, 2017
	Bad illegal immigrants	Hintjens, 2019
	Gender and asylum seekers	Belloni, et al, 2018
	Good refugees	Hintjens, 2019
	Real refugees Genuine refugees	Casas-Cortes et al 2015; Crawley & Skleparis, 2018; Lee & Nerghes, 2018
	Forced Migrants/voluntary migrants	Crawley & Skleparis, 2018; Dhoest, 2019; Leurs & Smets, 2018; Vollmer, 2016
	Economic refugees	Faist, 2017
	Undocumented immigrants	Dhoest, 2019
	Transit migrant	Kuschminder & Waidler, 2019; Mainwairing & Brigden, 2016
	Clandestine migrants	Kuschminder & Waidler, 2019
Migration	Digital migration	Leurs & Smets, 2018
	Circular migration	Maddaloni & Moffa, 2018; Kaytaz, 2016
	Illegal migration	Casas-Cortes et al., 2015
	Lifestyle migration	Maddaloni & Moffa, 2018
	Gendered migration	Belloni, et al, 2018; Goulahsen, 2017; Timmerman, Zümer Batur & Van Praag, 2018
	Mixed migration	Musaro, 2017
	Transit migration	De Clerk, 2015; Crawley & Skleparis, 2018; Coskun, 2018; Kuschminder & Waidler, 2019; Kuschminder, 2018
	Forced/Voluntary migration	Kurvet-Käosaar, Ojamaa, & Sakova, 2019
	Economic migration theory	Ramsoy, 2014; Strielkowski & Bilan, 2016
	Environmental	Benezer & Zetter, 2014; Geddes, 2015; Van Praag & Timmerman, 2019

4.1 Reflection on definitions and key terms

The most contentious definitions found in the literature related to those of migrants and migration. Multiple terms were used to describe migrants, for example voluntary, involuntary, forced, regular, irregular, illegal, economic, political, but more often than not the literature showed the difficulty of giving succinct definitions and categories for migrants; hence their absence in the table above. The reason for this conflict in usage and definition is due to the complexity of the migration process, since migrants often move through categories at different stages of the journey. Academics have stated that it is almost impossible to discern between voluntary and forced migration (Leurs & Smets, 2018; Kurvet-Käosaar, Ojamaa, & Sakova 2019). As a consequence, they argue it would be more adept to adopt non-linear, circular and relational approaches towards migration.

It is further important to understand that definitions are politically loaded terms. The actual narrative of crisis is often referred to as 'migration crisis' in some literatures and mainstream media sources and in others as a 'migrant and refugee' crisis. Lee and Nerghes (2018) explore the complexity of this stating:

> *"While the use of 'refugee' portrays people fleeing armed conflict or persecution, 'migrant' describes people making a conscious choice to leave their country to seek a better life elsewhere. These dichotomized characterizations can have serious consequences for the lives and safety of asylum seekers; they can undermine public support, steer public opinion, and frame the debate on how the world should react to this crisis."* (p. 1)

In the current 'migration crisis', the terms, 'migrant,' 'refugee' and the less commonly used term 'asylum seeker' are sometimes used to mean one and the same thing (Sarpong, 2019). The blurring of terms and the framing of migration as a crisis are hotly contested within academia, reflecting the politicised nature of defining migration issues.

Securitising migration has also been raised as problematic issue by Mazzucelli, Visvizi & Bee (2016) who state that "it is necessary to place migration in the broader context that cuts through time and space. This context transcends borders as well as b order controls and the delimitation of space, territory, loyalty, and affiliation" (p. 25).

The difficulty of defining migration relates also to the definition of transit and destination countries since often countries that were originally perceived to be transit countries (e.g., Turkey; Coskun, 2018) end up becoming destination countries, due to a multitude of factors including but not exhaustive to lack of money to move forward, social networks and integration progress made in the current host country, fears due to the need to resort to smugglers to move forward or an inability to move forward due to increased border controls. One interesting study is that of Carling and Schewel (2018) who conceptualise the difficulties of migration in their aspiration/ability model. This complexity also relates to the geographical origin of migrants as De Clerk (2015) raises the issue of a Eurocentric perspective on sub-Saharan Africans' presence in Turkey, stating the transit hypothesis on the presence of sub-Saharan Africans in Turkey is taken for granted in both academic and political discourses. Turkey used to be a country of origin, thus evidencing that perceptions of origin, transit and destination country change over time.

Specific definitions of narratives were ultimately lacking in the literature, thus showing that future research needs to address this. Narratives are subsequently dealt with on a multitude of levels in the

literature and are categorised in a number of ways including, personal, collective, macro and master. They are further delineated for their diverse forms as images, for example in the form of the 'migrant-related selfie' (Chouliarki, 2017) and as stories, transmitted verbally (Safouane, 2019; Zeveleva, 2019). A fuller explication of the narrative themes addressed in the literature can be found in Section 5 and channels for the transmission of narratives in Section 6.

5 Type of Narratives

5.1 Narratives relating to migrants' (mis)perceptions of the EU

The literature evidences that migrant's perceptions were sometimes based on only hopes and dreams, since migrants had little actual knowledge of the situation in EU countries (Mandic, 2017; Mc Mahon & Sigona, 2018). At other times, perceptions were based on what other people had told them (e.g., family members or other migrants via chance encounters; Boccagni, 2017; Crawley & Hagen-Zanker, 2018) or due to first-hand experience of seeing the effect that remittances had on the country of origin (Bakewell & Jolivet, 2015; Uberti, 2014).

Perceptions are also not fixed, and change based on the length of time that migrants spend in transit and/or on external events such as the economic crisis in the EU. A historical perceptive is thus important. Prothmann (2018), for instance, highlights that the narrative of "Barcelona or death" was common amongst Senegalese migrants and refers to the so-called clandestine migration of thousands of Senegalese who tried to migrate illegally, preferring to die rather than remaining in Senegal. However, due to the economic crisis in Europe this narrative was replaced, and the number of migrants dropped.

In terms of transit, the sources listed in Table 7 discuss how, on some occasions, migrants can use countries to work, rest, collect money and to move onwards to other EU-destinations. Other migrants may not consider the current host EU-country to be a final destination due to the actual living conditions there (Belloni, 2016; 2019a; Tuckett, 2016). Sometimes a destination is chosen not because a migrant holds a particularly positive perception of this country, but because as Ramsoy (2014) states, it is geographically close and easy to reach.

Different ethnic groups often have different perceptions of the EU, as explored in the work of Crawley and Hagen-Zanker (2018). Their research shows that many migrants never intended to continue onwards to Europe but decided to leave due to a combination of political and economic factors sometimes allied with severe discrimination and a lack of access to rights and/or citizenship. This is reaffirmed by McMahon and Sigona (2018, p. 506) who state that "the assumption that migrants are all intending to migrate straight from their place of origin to Europe to be misplaced."

Table 7. Narratives relating to migrants' perceptions/misperceptions of Europe.

Narrative	Description	Region/country	Sources
Some countries are perceived to be stepping-stones	Transit is a period in which migrants rest, work, and save up money to continue their onward journey. Some countries are not perceived to be final destinations due to poor economic opportunities and discrimination.	Greece/Turkey	Kuschminder & Jennifer Waidler, 2019
		Greece	Arvanitis & Yelland, 2019
		Italy	Tuckett, 2016; Albahari, 2018; Belloni, 2016; Belloni, 2019a
		Morocco	Alexander, 2019

Positive perceptions of EU	Syrians perceive that there will be better possibilities for integration due to the high presence of co-ethnics.	Germany	Arvanitis & Yelland, 2019
	Italian-Bangladeshis perceive better integration due to multi-culturalism, economic opportunities and presence of co-ethnics.	UK	Delle-Puppa & King, 2018
	Moroccans perceive better opportunities of obtaining money and status.	EU	Bakewell & Jolivet, 2015
	Eritreans perceive there to be more opportunities in US, Canada, Australia, Sweden and Norway than in Italy.	United States, Canada, Australia, Sweden, and Norway	Belloni, 2016
	Filipinos perceive Italy to be a good place due to weak immigration controls and job opportunities in domestic work.	Italy	Boccagni, 2017
	Syrians perceive it will be easier or quicker to secure protection and papers due to the presence of family members (family reunification policies).	Germany, followed by Sweden	Crawley & Hagen-Zanker, 2018
	Eritreans perceive that EU is a place of safety, security and hope for a better future.	EU	Crawley & Hagen-Zanker, 2018
	Syrians perceive that the people will be more 'welcoming' towards them than in other countries and that they will have a better life for their children and have good opportunities for work.	Germany	Crawley & Hagen-Zanker, 2018
	Migration as pathway for Bangladeshis to gaining long-term well-being, status, and success (Bangladeshis).	UK	Gardner, 2015
	Europe and the 'West' continue to be perceived as distant objects of desire (as seen through the eyes of refugees).	EU	Erensu & Kasili, 2016
	Iraqis believe they will be treated better in the West than in Arab countries.	EU	Kvittengen, Valenta, Talbara, Baslan & Berg, 2017
	Promised land for migrants. Place of tolerance.	Netherlands	Patterson & Leurs, 2019
	Economic opportunities for African migrants.	France	Thorsen, 2017
	Less corruption (Informants in Turkey, Senegal and Morocco).	EU	Timmerman et al., 2014
	EU as a place where migrants can improve their standard of living through employment or education and find security.	EU	Mc Mahon & Sigona, 2018
	Italy as welcoming, offering chances to achieve success in business for Latin	Italy	Mapelli, 2019

	Americans.		
	Africans perceive Europe to be a place of humanity, solidarity and humanitarianism.	EU	Loftsdóttir, 2019
	Young people from Senegal perceive Europe to be a beacon of fiscal, political, and moral security.	EU	Maher, 2017
	Global North as a place where Senegalese migrants can prosper and be productive. Representative of a place of development and modernity.	EU/America "Global North"	Prothmann, 2018; Uberti, 2014
Negative Perceptions of EU	EU is no longer perceived as 'Eldorado for Africans'.	EU	De Clerck, 2015
	"Fortress Europe" Border control - Difficulty of arriving and moving within EU.	EU	Burrell & Horschelmann, 2019; Cantat, 2016
	Moroccans have negative perceptions of the conditions of life in the EU as having, a cold climate, high housing costs, discrimination and a lack of solidarity between family members and fellow citizens.	EU	Jolivet, 2015 (EUMAGINE data)
	Difficulties with integration due to discrimination.	Sweden	Awori, 2019
	Economic crisis has scared many young Moroccans from migrating due to failure and homelessness in Europe.	EU	Bakewell & Jolivet, 2015
	Turkey provides more economic opportunities than Greece.	EU	De Clerck, 2015
Misperceptions of EU: People in the country of origin do not believe migrants' negative representations of EU	Negative stories assessed as being the 'bad luck' of that individual.	EU	Prothmann, 2018
	People in Africa believe life is great in the EU for young migrants who leave to become footballers.	EU/France	Esson, 2015
	Migrants were reproached with spreading misleading information on life in Europe or the USA or suspected of understating their wealth.	EU	Prothmann, 2018
	Residents in the country of origin needed to believe the positive stories. They would not accept Berlin was not a dream city.	Germany	Fiedler, 2019
	Filipinos in the country of origin think Italy is a paradise and will not believe otherwise.	Italy	Boccagni, 2017
	Kenyans in the country of origin believe that the streets are paved with gold and will not believe negative accounts.	Germany	Witteborn, 2015

5.2 Host (mis)perceptions of migrants and migration

Analysis of host perceptions centred on four themes: (1) negative perceptions of migrants, (2) positive perceptions of migrants, (3) mixed perceptions of migration and (4) the impact of host perceptions on migration (see Table 8). Reviewing the prevalence of views in the coding, 23% of sources classified perceptions as explicitly negative, while only 1% were reported as explicitly positive. However, 41% showed hosts had mixed perceptions, reflecting the high degree of nuance, complexity as well as divisions across the EU and within its Member States on the issue of migration.

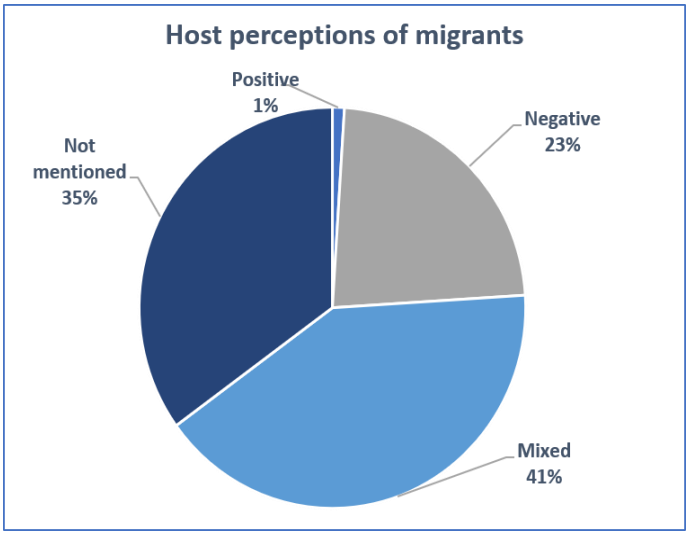

Figure 6. Sentiments of host perceptions reported in the literature.

We found a significant range of negative attitudes reported within the literature. The most prominent were grievances over the number of migrants, narratives that portray migrants as threats, prejudiced attitudes as well as concerns over stresses on host countries' economies and societies. Positive perceptions were primarily expressions of solidarity with migrants as well as support for their countries and the EU championing human rights. Mixed perceptions unpacked key areas of division as well as more subtle nuances in attitudes towards migrants, showing that there are considerable grey areas in public opinion on the polarising issue of migration. Finally, the analysis also coded for how host perceptions may in turn be perceived by migrants to the EU and affect their choices on destinations and interactions with hosts. These reports highlight the negative impact of perceived hostilities on migrants' integration into the host country and their potential to drive further migration movements.

Table 8. Host perceptions of migration issues and migrants in the dataset.

Narrative content	Description	Sources
Negative perceptions of migration	Hosts perceive and experience that they are unable to cope with the number of migrants.	Albahari, 2018; Bernardie-Tahir & Schmoll, 2014; Bokert et al; Erensu & Kasli, 2016; Sarpong, 2019
	Elite discourse frame migrants as economic, political, social and cultural threats to Europe.	Alkopher and Blanc, 2017; Sutkute, 2019; Fiedler, 2019; Kazharski, 2018; Krzyzanowski et al. 2018
	Hosts fear migrants are terrorist, criminal and economic threats (CF: 7.4 Threats to Host Countries and 8.1 Securitisation of EU Borders).	Amores & Arcila, 2019; Bokert et al., 2018; Akanle, 2018; Sutkute, 2019; Caviedes, 2015; Fina and Tseng, 2017; Jaskulowski, 2019; Kritchker & Sarma, 2019; Kubal, 2014; Leidig, 2019; Maher, 2018; Duru et

		al. 2016; Nishiyama, 2019; Ramsoy, 2014; Stansfield et al. 2018
	Hosts express stereotypic, racist, xenophobic narratives and attitudes towards migrants.	Blanco-Herrero & Calderon, 2019; Akanle, 2018; Ekman, 2015; Nishiyama, 2019; Sarpong, 2019; Jashari et al., 2019; Jaskulowski, 2019; Kritchker & Sarma, 2019; Krzyzanowski et al. 2018; Leurs and Pozanesi, 2018; Ossipow et al. 2019; Papadopoulos & Fratsea, 2015; Pogliano, 2016; Patterson, 2019; Ross, 2018; Sarpong, 2019; Sewart, 2019
	Migration is viewed as a 'wave', 'flood', 'invasion' and 'attack'.	Bourbeau, 2015; Ekman, 2018; Kazharski, 2018; Krzyzanowski et al. 2018; McMahon & Sigona, 2018; Milivojevic, 2018;
	Hosts perceive migrants as threatening their social and cultural identity.	Bourbeau, 2015; Erensu & Kasli, 2016; Jashari et al., 2019; Jaskulowski, 2019; Kazharski, 2018; Kries, 2017; Loftsdottir, 2019; Magazzini, 2018; Mazzucelli, 2016; Sewart, 2019
	Hosts view migrants as a burden on welfare systems.	Guðjónsdóttir & Loftsdottir, 2016; Erensu & Kasli, 2016; Faist, 2017; Kritchker & Sarma, 2019; Nancheva, 2016; Ramsoy, 2014; Sutkute, 2019
	Hosts believe migrants are better off remaining in countries of origin.	Esson, 2015
	Hosts believe that migrants are misinformed or uninformed about their choices due to 'third-person effects'	Fiedler, 2019
	Media framing of migrants spreads negative perceptions among host citizens.	Kazharski, 2018; Lee & Nerghes, 2017; Maher, 2018; Melloni, 2019; Momoc, 2016; Nancheva, 2016 Sutkute, 2019
	EU citizens may have negative perceptions of migrants even when immigration is low.	Kovář, 2019
	Greater contact with migrants does not lead to de facto positive correlation with better relations.	Siibak & Masso, 2018
	Host narratives of migration dehumanise migrants.	Moreno-Lax, 2018; Musaro & Moralli, 2019; Sutkute, 2019

	Many EU citizens are unhappy with their country's and the EU's handling of migration.	Pavlovich, 2018; Ross, 2018
Positive perceptions of migration	Host citizens express solidarity with migrants.	Albahari, 2018; Bokert et al., 2018; Musaro & Moralli, 2019; Duru et al. 2016; Ross, 2018; Sutkute, 2019; Triandaphylldiou, 2017
	EU citizens are supportive of upholding human rights.	Guðjónsdóttir & Loftsdottir, 2016; Ross, 2018
Mixed perceptions of migration	EU citizens are split between solidarity and antagonism towards migrants.	Albahari, 2018; Kazharski, 2018, Duru et al. 2016; Pavlovich, 2018
	Host receptivity of migrants is higher when they are encountered as individuals rather than abstract entities.	Ambrosini, 2017
	Hosts have better attitudes towards high skilled migrants than low skilled migrants.	Amores and Arcila, 2019; Guðjónsdóttir & Loftsdottir, 2016; Ramsoy, 2014
	Hosts are more receptive to migrants they believe are 'deserving' as opposed to 'undeserving'.	Crawley and Hagen-Zanker, 2018; Erensu & Kasli, 2016; Faist, 2017; Guðjónsdóttir & Loftsdottir, 2016; Hermanni & Neuman, 2019; Kuschminder, 2017; Leko, 2017; McMahon & Sigona, 2018; Patterson, 2019; Pogliano, 2017; Ramsoy, 2014
	Young people are more likely to be receptive to migrants than older generations.	Ross, 2018; Duru et al. 2016
	Migrants from wealthier EU countries are more accepted than migrants from poorer and non-EU countries.	Goulahsen, 2017; Guðjónsdóttir & Loftsdottir, 2016; Eberl et al., 2018
	Hosts are more welcoming of women and minors than adult male migrants.	Hermanni & Neuman, 2019
	The EU has significant divides between Member States who are more receptive to migrants and those who are not.	Kazharski, 2018, Eberl et al. 2018; Alkopher, 2018
	Discourse and narratives of migration are volatile in host countries and may oscillate between positive and negative portrayals.	Krzyzanowski et al. 2018; Orsini et al., 2019
Impact of Host Perceptions on Migrants	Migrants choose destination countries that have better perceptions of them.	Belloni, 2018
	Migrant choices on destinations may change through interactions with host citizens on arrival to the EU.	Crawley and Hagen-Zanker, 2018;
	Disappointed migrants may be perceived as ungrateful and lead to a sociocultural conflict spiral.	Fiedler, 2019
	Migrants perceive host attitudes towards them as being mostly hostile	Pérez-Paredes et al., 2017
	How migrants are labelled and treated may affect the success of their integration into host societies.	Scuzzarello, 2019

5.3 Narratives relating to push and pull factors for migration

Rationales for migration decisions were addressed in the reviewed literature in terms push and pull factors. ***Push factors*** refer to motivations mentioned as rationale to leave the home country or move on to further countries, while ***pull factors*** refer to rationales to choose Europe or specific EU-countries as destination. Push and pull factors were coded according to six categories:

- ***Cultural:*** migration to escape religious, sexually-based, ethnic-based threats; historical reasons to prefer certain regions; welcoming culture in the host country
- ***Economic:*** migration to escape poverty; to improve access to education/economic position for oneself or family members
- ***Environmental:*** migration to escape environmental threats and deterioration
- ***Familial:*** migration to protect own family/children or for family reunification
- ***Political/security-related:*** migration due to political persecution and war
- ***Social improvement:*** migration to increase social status; join own social group in other country

45.5% of all documents mentioned push and/or pull factors. 56 sources (25.1%) mentioned push factors, 44 sources (19.7%) pull factors, often as combination of both. Reasons why migrants leave their own country thus seemed to find slightly more attention in past research than why migrants are attracted to Europe or specific countries. Table 9 provides indicative examples of push factors, Table 10 examples of relevant pull factors. Figure 7 shows the distribution across different pull and push factors in the dataset.

Table 9. Narratives relating push factors for migration.

Push factors	Description/examples	Sources
Cultural	Migrants gain social recognition for their contributions to the household economy	Weldehaimanot, 2011
	Interviewees felt they had to escape their country of origin partly or mostly because of their sexual orientation. They came from different countries (alphabetically: Burundi, Chechnya/Russia, Iraq, Morocco, Nigeria, Russia, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Tibet/China), most of which, to different degrees, criminalise homosexuality	Dhoest, 2019
Economic	Difficulties of starting a new life in Italy due to the economic crisis and poor integration measures; Afghan respondents, almost all of whom described insecure working conditions and exploitation due to a lack of legal status as well as extensive experiences of discrimination and mistreatment, including physical violence	Belloni, 2016; Crawley & Skleparis, 2018
Environmental	Environmentally induced displacement (e.g. Bangladesh, Pacific Island states)	Benezer & Zetter, 2014;
	There appears to be a direct relationship between the type of environmental change or stressor and migration patterns	Van Praag & Timmerman, 2019

	Climate Change	Geddes, 2015
Familial	The remaining family make the perilous journey out of Syria, in the hope that they will be reunited with their family members and accorded refugee status.	Arvantis & Yelland, 2019
Political, security	Political persecution/ethnic cleansing or genocide journeys (e.g. Rwanda, Bosnia-Herzegovina) Conflict, most notably in Syria, was a major factor contributing to the significant increase in people arriving in Greece during 2015 Virtually all the refugees the author met in Italy during the past decade made clear that when ethno-religious discrimination (targeting Kurds, for example), armed conflict (in Syria), indefinite conscription (in Eritrea), or extremist recruitment (in Afghanistan) are the only certainties, the probability of dying in the desert or in the Mediterranean en route to a safe haven is a rational risk to take	Benezer & Zetter, 2014; Crawley & Skleparis, 2018; Albahari, 2018
Social improvement	"To have a diploma and remain five years without work, what a nightmare!" By realizing his impossibility to succeed, Médoune discusses with Diana the concrete possibility of migrating abroad.	Quote in Uberti, 2014

Table 10. Narratives relating pull factors for migration.

Pull factors	Description/examples	Example sources
Cultural	Germany's positive reputation amongst those originating from Syria clearly played a role in explaining why it was most likely to be mentioned as a preferred destination among our Syrian respondents, frequently being described as "welcoming" with no reference to specific policies or opportunities.	Crawley & Hagen-Zanker, 2018
Economic	Every time my friends from Turkey came back to Senegal for vacation they were very rich and could build a nice big house and buy nice cars. They also got all the beautiful girls of the town. Everyone was jealous.	Quote in De Clerk, 2015
Familial	For my daughter's future. If she will study and grow up in English she will be able to work here, in Bangladesh or all over the world. But if she stays in Italy she learns only Italian, just a little bit of English.	Quote in Delle Puppa & King, 2018
Political, security	they thought it was the only place to find safety, security and freedom Mary, a 21-year-old Somali working for a religious organization in Kenya, prefers Norway, 'because it is the most peaceful country in the world'.	McMahone et al., 2018 Fiedler, 2019

Social improvement	about half of the respondents originate from families whose father's occupation is middle or higher status, a fact which is congruent with the wider impression that many well educated African migrants were born in middle or higher status social strata and have left their countries because of their high aspirations for a better way of life in Europe	Papadopoulos & Fratsea, 2015

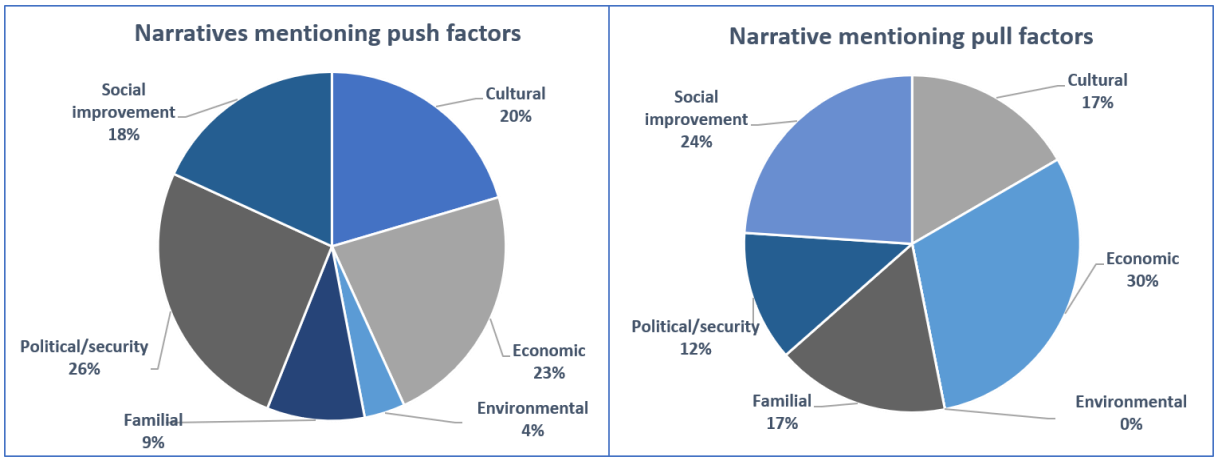

Figure 7. Motivations for migrating across different types of push and pull factors.

Although the coding suggests distinct reasons, narratives by migrants themselves make clear that decisions about destinations, routes and modalities – albeit influenced by external factors such as laws, cultures or economic chances – are often very strategic. If migrants have the choice, they would follow these pull factors. however, usually they cannot decide themselves but are limited by different circumstances (political, legal, etc.). thus, the pull (and push) factors have an influence on the decision where to go, but not always is this decision up to the migrants (Crawley and Hagen-Zanker (2018). For instance, countries are chosen based on future prospects for own children (e.g., Delle Puppa & King, 2018) or because of laws and/or cultures that are more permissive than at home (e.g., protection from religious-based violence or LGBTQ+ rights; Dhoest, 2019). Pull factors seem often formed through stories told by other migrants (cp. Mol et al., 2017) or by first-hand experiences, when people return for visits in their home communities:

> *"When I used to see my neighbours coming from abroad and giving such assistance to their families, I dreamt of migrating. I was still a little girl and heard them talking foreigner languages. I was fascinated by their capacity of switching from Arabic to another language and I hoped that I would, one day, talk other languages fluently. […] I admired the way they help their families especially their parents. I had a wish to migrate and support my family too." (quote in Bakewell & Jolivet, 2015)*

Whether these choices are based on realistic perceptions becomes often only clear once the person enters the country, and disappointment of expectations can lead to further migration decisions (e.g., Brewer & Yükseker, 2009). Also, push and pull factors as motivations for migration do not necessarily fall within the same category. For instance, while environmental factors were mentioned as push factor, it did not appear explicitly as a pull factor within migration narratives (Figure 7). The literature is further very clear that motivations are often interlinked and multi-faceted (Ferreira, 2016; Mainwaring, 2016). Complexity is further added by the fact that migration is not necessarily only about

making the own life better in another country. As studies in Eritrean communities demonstrate, migration can also be seen as a step to support the community at home. As Belloni (2019) states: "migration has become a legitimate and socially recognized means of attaining social mobility, supporting families from afar and becoming adults" (p. 6).

Other complexities in defining migrants as, for instance, 'economic' or 'political' relate to the fact that often migrants' motivations changed during the journey, which in some instances lasted several years. These complexities are explored quite eloquently in the work of Crawley and Skleparis (2018) who state that:

> *"This critique has been associated with the development of new concepts intended to help make better sense of the complexities of migration ('mixed flows', 'mixed motivations', 'transit migration') and new categories intended to bring into the purview of the international protection regime those trapped in the space between 'refugee' and 'migrant': examples include 'people in distress' (Goodwin-Gill 1986), 'distress migrants' (Collinson 1999) and 'survival migrants' (Betts 2013). Even these categories prove largely incapable of adequately explaining the complex experiences and back stories of those crossing the Mediterranean in 2015." (p. 51)*

Individuals may change status or simultaneously fit in two (sometimes more) pre-existing categories (Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016). This issue is closely related to decision making. As Crawley and Hagen-Zanker, (2018) state:

> *"Many refugees and other migrants crossing the Mediterranean in 2015 did not originally intend to travel to Europe. Rather they went to nearby countries primarily for safety and work and only left when they felt unsafe, when they could not access work, education and healthcare or believed their prospects for securing a better future for themselves and their families was poor." (p.32)*

Migrants thus took further risks, often resorting to smugglers to make these journeys to Europe, because the security situation changed in the current host country. Some migrants had not originally a 'perception' of EU as a preferred migration destination whilst in their country of origin.

5.4 Narratives transmitted in the mainstream media

One of the main themes that arises in the literature is the power that the mainstream media has in transmitting narratives and affecting host perceptions of migrants and migration. Arcimaviciene and Hamza Baglama (2018) state that:

> *"The negative offering of the Other, be it a migrant, a refugee, a female, a Muslim, or any other minority, further entrenches a competitive, hierarchical, and violent acceptance of life as a standard of morality and legitimacy, and it, for that reason, deepens the divide between various social and cultural groups. This sort of positioning actually becomes a fertile ground for creating and establishing stereotypical and xenophobic attitudes."* (p. 11)

Table 11 lists the different narrative types mentioned in the context of mainstream media. Four main types emerged: solidarity, xenophobia, crisis and victimisation. Of these crisis and xenophobia were most frequently addressed, while solidarity and victimisation appeared only sporadically (Figure 8). In

this context it is important to note that the ***humanitarian narrative*** depicted both solidarity towards migrants and refugees whereas the ***securitization narrative*** focused more on xenophobia. On some occasions the securitization narrative was used to justify humanitarian interventions, such as increasing military patrols and interceptions in the Mediterranean Sea to tackle migrant deaths. This contentious issue is explored in more detail in Sections 7 and 8.

Narratives transmitted are often politically motivated by the bias in the press itself. They often become part of dissemination campaigns against irregular migration via information offensives on traditional media channels, including TV ads, educational radio programs, newspaper campaigns, and cinema spots (Fiedler, 2019). Images transmitted via mainstream media have also been the focus of attention such as the high-profile case of Alan Kurdi (Lenette & Miskovic 2018).

Other authors as depicted in the table have examined the portrayal of migrants in relation to the wider representation of the 'migration and refugee crisis' of 2015 (Hintjens, 2019; Kovář, 2019; Krzyzanowski, Triandafyllidou & Wodak, 2018; Lee & Nerghes, 2018; Lenette & Miskovic, 2018; Leurs & Smets, 2018; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Maher, 2018). Crisis as a more general term features widely, since, as Caviedes (2015) states, "the more often the press mentions a particular issue and links it to a social ill, the more likely that issue is to be considered a 'crisis' meriting political action and resolution" (p. 900). They further explore economic and security narratives in the mainstream media.

The literature also looks at different national responses in the mass media. For instance, Bevitori and Zotti (2019) highlight that "despite the diminishing salience of migration-related concerns among the population, most national and foreign newspaper readers would probably get the impression that British people are intrinsically hostile to immigration, especially considering the way the issue was treated during the 2015 migration crisis" (p.72). An interesting comparison between social media and news media is provided by Lenette and Miskovic (2018) who state that social media societies provide more extensive access to images of death than news media. Different channels for the transmission of narratives are discussed in more detail in the following section 6.

Table 11. Narratives transmitted via the mainstream media.

Narrative content	Description	Sources
Solidarity	Emotional reaction/migrant rights and vulnerability/identification with migrant and refugees' suffering/discourses of aid and humanitarian intervention/ humanitarian narrative	Alinejad et al, 2019; Amores & Arcila, 2019; Arcimaviciene & Hamza Baglama, 2018; Bevitori & Zotti, 2019; Ceccorulli, 2019; Chouliaraki, 2017; D'Amato & Lucarelli, 2019; Guidry et al, 2018; Lenette & Miskovic, 2018; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Musarò & Parmiggiani, 2017; Musaro, 2018; Nerghes & Lee, 2019; Strbova, Puchovska & Balaziova, 2019; Triandafyllidou, 2018; Witteborn, 2015
Xenophobia	Right-wing media/migrant as burden or threat/racialised images/fusion of migrant and refugee crisis and terrorism/bogus refugees/securitisation/radicalisation/ sensationalism/ anti-immigrant media/hate speech/illegal immigrants	Amores & Arcila, 2019; Arcimaviciene & Hamza Baglama, 2018; Bleich, Bloemraad & De Graauw, 2015; Borkert, Fischer & Yafi, 2018; Burrell & Horschelmann, 2019; Ceccorulli, 2019; Chouliaraki, 2017; Crawley & Skleparis, 2018; Guðjónsdóttir & Loftsdóttir, 2017; Eberl et al, 2018; Krzyzanowski,

		Triandafyllidou & Wodak, 2018; Leko, 2017; Leurs & Smets, 2018; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Maddaloni & Moffa, 2018; Mazzara 2015; Musarò & Parmiggiani, 2017; Ogunyemi, 2018; Pogliano, 2017; Siibak & Masso, 2018; Stansfield & Stone, 2018; Strbova, Puchovska & Balaziova, 2019; Tuckett, 2016
Crisis	Migrant crisis, refugee crisis, humanitarian crisis/threat/influx/security threat/increase in surveillance and border control/policy interventions /problems for social cohesion and national security in host societies/April 2015/ shipwrecks/ migrants' reliance on digital technology/trafficking and smuggling networks/crisis mood and policy responses/humanitarian emergency/ Mediterranean Sea/Moral panic/ Greece/ Balkan Route/desert	Ambrosini, 2017; Arcimaviciene & Hamza Baglama, 2018; Battistelli, Farruggia, Galantino & Ricotta, 2016; Bevitori & Zotti, 2019; Boukalaa & Dimitrakopoulou, 2018; Bourbeau, 2015; Burrell & Horschelmann, 2019; Cantat, 2015, 2016; Caviedes, 2015; D'Amato & Lucarelli, 2019; Dhoest, 2019; Ferra & Nguyen, 2017; Guidry et al, 2018; Georgiou, 2018; Hintjens, 2019; Kovář, 2019; Krzyzanowski, Triandafyllidou & Wodak, 2018; Lee & Nerghes, 2018; Lenette & Miskovic, 2018; Leurs & Smets, 2018; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Maher, 2018; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; Mazzara, 2015; Mc Mahon & Sigona, 2018; Milivojevic, 2019; Momoc, 2016; Moreno, Lax, 2018; Musarò & Parmiggiani, 2017; Musaro, 2018; Musaro & Moralli, 2019; Nerghes & Lee, 2019; Pogliano, 2017; Sanchez, 2017; Triandafyllidou, 2018
Victimization	Migrants and refugees need saving/ tragic deaths/shipwrecks and drownings//humanitarian narrative/benevolence/charity/migrants as innocent victims/abuse by smugglers/migrants as deprived of agency	Amores & Arcila, 2019; Battistelli, Farruggia, Galantino & Ricotta, 2016; Bevitori & Zotti, 2019; D'Amato & Lucarelli, 2019; Georgiou, 2018; Eberl et al, 2018; Hintjens, 2019; Kovar, 2019; Leurs & Smets, 2018; Maher, 2018; Musaro, 2018; Nerghes & Lee, 2019; Pogliano, 2017; Triandafyllidou, 2018

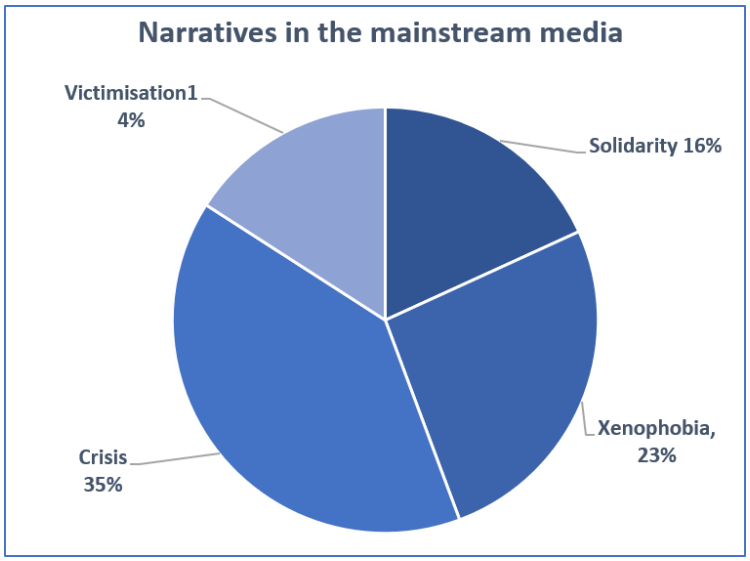

Figure 8. Distribution of narrative content in the mainstream media.

5.5 Reflection of narrative themes

The principle themes identified in the literature and represented in the tables in Section 5 concern push-pull incentives for migration, host (mis)perceptions of migrants, migrants (mis)perceptions of the EU and types of narratives transmitted in the mainstream media. However, some other narrative themes emerged from the literature. These include migrant experiences of living in host countries in the EU, migrant (mis)perceptions of the journey and narratives of home, which include literature that examines relationships between migrants and their countries of origin.

Overall, our review found narratives conceptualised on both an ***individual level***, relating largely to migrant perceptions and misperceptions of the EU and their experiences and perceptions of the journey and living in the EU, a ***collective level***, relating to host society perceptions and misperceptions of migrants and a ***macro level*** relating to push-pull factors and diverse narratives transmitted by the mainstream media, including those of solidarity, xenophobia, crisis and humanitarianism.

Literature that examined the ***lived experiences of migrants in the EU*** focused mostly upon narratives of negative experiences such as poverty, marginalisation, discrimination, and/or abuse (Belloni, 2016; 2019; Coskun, 2018; Delle Puppa & King, 2018; Esson, 2015; Innes, 2016; Kuschminder, 2018; Ossipow, Counilh & Chimienti, 2019; Pogliano, 2016; Patterson and Leurs, 2019; Tuckett, 2016; Sawert, 2019).

Migrants' ***perceptions and misperceptions of the journey*** is addressed in various ways in the literature. Several authors examine migrants' lived experience of the journey (Innes, 2016; Kaytaz, 2016; Kuschminder & Jennifer Waidler, 2019; Mainwairing & Brigden, 2016; Safounae, 2019). Other authors write of the various problems elicited in studying migrant journeys, such as the difficulty of defining a destination (Crawley & Schleparis, 2018; Crawley and Hagen-Zanker, 2018; Benezer & Zetter, 2014; Mc Mahon & Sigona, 2018; Papadopoulos & Fratsea, 2015). Migrants change ideas regarding routes and destinations during the journey due to a multitude of factors, including their positive and negative experiences en-route (Innes, 2016; De Clerck, 2015).

Other authors look at ***migrant networks, intermediaries and brokers*** including smuggling networks and their facilitation of the migrant journey (Ambrosini, 2017; Baird & van Liempt, 2016; Borkert, et al, 2018; Chuen, 2019; Coskun, 2018; Esson, 2015; Ferreira, 2016; Innes, 2016; Kaytaz, 2016; Krichker & Sarma, 2019; Thorsen, 2017; Uberti, 2014). Further studies remark on the ***resilience of migrants*** to undertake their journeys as they often have to repeatedly try to cross borders and gamble, try their luck (Belloni, 2016, Schapendonk, 2018; Alexander, 2019) and deal with the failures of not making it (Vives, 2017), including being deported or detained. Each time they are exposed to grave risks. In many cases migrants are fleeing violence and persecution and often do not have time to organise their journeys (see also Section 7 on threats to migrants on the journey and residing in host countries).

In terms of ***narratives of home***, authors have looked at how migrants remit funds to their countries of origin (Bakewell & Jolivet, 2015; Faist, 2017; Gryshova, Kofman, & Petrenko, 2019; Hawthorne, 2019; Karell, 2014; Prothmann, 2018; Ramsoy, 2014; Świerczyńska, & Kliber, 2018; Thorsen, 2017; Uberti, 2014). These remittances often lead to further migration. Another way that this theme has been addressed in the literature is through the narratives of 'return migration'. Return can be either forced or voluntary, positive or negative (Akanle, 2018), long term or solely intermittent for the summer holidays (Erensu and Kasli, 2016). Reasons for return vary. It could be caused by the fact that migrants have no choice due to economic and psychological hardships in the current host society (Kubal, 2014;

Kvittengen, et al., 2017; Tazzioli, 2015), a consequence of deportation (Korhonen & Siitonen, 2018) or due to reversed migration where they voluntarily return home to a higher standard of living (Świerczyńska & Kliber, 2018).

In conclusion we can state that one thing that is evident from the literature is that there is little consensus regarding the existence of 'false information flows' of false narratives, and their effect on migration in the literature. Sometimes migrants are perceived to be hindered and put at risk by false information (Mandic, 2017; Kaytaz, 2016), whereas at other times migrants are depicted as being well aware of the dangers due to social media (Fiedler, 2019).

Another theme that arose in the literature was the issue of ***migrant agency***. This was addressed in a number of ways including exploring how migrants navigate their journeys (Mainwairing & Brigden, 2016) and how they access social media to aid their migration journeys (see Section 6). Migrants who use social media are often criticised for this 'agency' (Chouliaraki, 2017). Photos of migrants using their smartphones to navigate routes, transmitted in the media, help to feed xenophobic narratives used against them.

6 Channels for the narration/transmission of narratives

This section provides a comprehensive overview of the channels discussed in the literature through which narratives are transmitted.

Mediums for narratives analysed by the literature were transmitted mainly either via interpersonal connections or digital channels. In some cases, a mixture of these channels was used. In some of the studies, the specific channel for which the narrative was transmitted was not mentioned or not relevant (39%; Figure 9). As Figure 9 shows, media were wide-ranging: textual, visual, audio channels and particularly mixtures therefore were reported consistently.

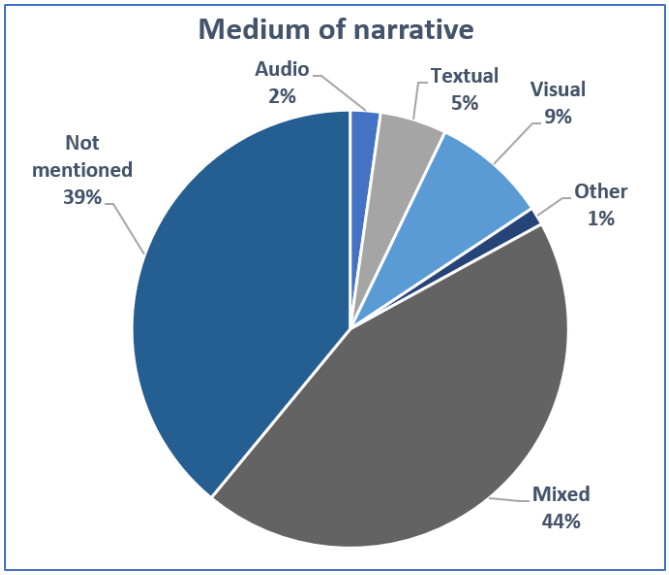

Figure 9. Type of medium used to transmit narratives.

Table 12 presents the key sources that deal with channelling narratives via social/digital media and mainstream media. Details of channel choices are discussed in the subsequent sections.

Table 12. Key sources discussing channels for transmitting narratives.

Transmission of Narratives	Sources
Social and Digital Media	Albahari, 2018; Alinejad et al 2019; Almenara-Niebla & Ascanio-Sánchez , 2019; Bakewell & Jolivet, 2015; Baran, 2018; Bayramoğlu & Lünenborg, 2018; Belloni, 2016, 2019a, 2019b; Blanco-Herrero & Arcila Calderón, 2019; Borkert, Fischer & Yafi, 2018; Chouliaraki, 2017; Crawley & Hagen-Zanker, 2018; Dekker, Engbersen & Faber, 2016; Dekker & Engbersen, 2014; Dhoest, 2019; Ekman, 2018; Ferra & Nguyen, 2017; Fiedler, 2019; Gardner, 2015; Georgiou, 2018; Gillespie, Osseiran & Cheesman, 2018; Guidry et al, 2018; Hunter, 2015; Kutscher & Kreß, 2018; Kreis, 2017; Krzyżanowski, Triandafyllidou & Wodak, 2018; Kumar, 2018; Latenero & Kift, 2018; Leidig, 2018; Lee & Nerghes, 2018; Leurs, 2016; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Leurs & Smets, 2018; Lenette & Miskovic, 2018; Loftsdóttir, 2019; Mansour & Olsen, 2017; Mappelli, 2019; Messias et al, 2016; Mendoza Perez & Morgade Salgado, 2019; Milivojevic, 2019; Nagy, 2018; Mitra and Evansluong, 2019;Nelimarkka, Laaksonen & Semaan, 2018; Nerghes & Lee, 2019; Patterson & Leurs, 2019; Pogliano, 2017; Prothmann, 2018; Ruokolainen & Widen, 2019; Siibak & Masso, 2018; Sutkute, 2019;Twigt, 2018; Urchs, Wendlinger, Mitrovic & Granitzer, 2019; Witteborn, 2015; Zagheni, Garimella & Weber, 2014.

Mainstream Media	Alinejad et al, 2019; Ambrosini, 2017; Amores & Arcila, 2019; Arcimaviciene & Hamza Baglama, 2018; Battistelli, Farruggia, Galantino & Ricotta, 2016; Bevitori & Zotti, 2019; Boukalaa & Dimitrakopoulou, 2018; Bleich, Bloemraad & De Graauw, 2015; Bourbeau, 2015; Burrell & Horschelmann, 2019; Cantat, 2015, 2016; Caviedes 2015; Ceccorulli, 2019; Chouliaraki, 2017; Crawley & Skleparis, 2018; D'Amato & Lucarelli, 2019; Dhoest, 2019; Eberl et al, 2018; Ferra & Nguyen, 2017; Guidry et al, 2018; Georgiou, 2018; Guðjónsdóttir & Loftsdóttir, 2017; Hintjens, 2019; Kovář, 2019; Krzyzanowski, Triandafyllidou & Wodak, 2018; Lee & Nerghes, 2018; Leko, 2017; Lenette & Miskovic, 2018; Leurs & Smets, 2018; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Maddaloni & Moffa, 2018; Maher, 2018; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; Mazzara, 2015; Mc mahon & Sigona, 2018; Milivojevic, 2019; Momoc, 2016; Moreno, Lax, 2018; Musarò & Parmiggiani, 2017; Musaro, 2017, 2018; Musaro & Moralli, 2019; Nerghes & Lee, 2019; Ogunyemi, 2018; Pogliano, 2017; Sanchez, 2017; Stansfield & Stone, 2018; Strbova, Puchovska & Balaziova, 2019; Siibak & Masso, 2018; Triandafyllidou, 2018; Tuckett, 2016; Witteborn, 2015

6.1 Interpersonal connections and social networks

Most of the literature focuses on the use of social/digital media and mainstream media as primary channels for transmitting narratives. This is most likely due to the fact that the sample for this systematic literature review commences in 2014, after the digital migration era. Some sources do, however, outline how important ***'word of mouth'*** can be in transmitting information (Kuschminder, 2017). Fiedler (2019), for instance, states that "Interpersonal communication can play an essential role in the process of imbuing meaning, particularly for refugees. Certain pieces of information can only ever be verified, or proved false, through interpersonal interaction" (p. 330). These interpersonal connections are also important for funding migration in the first place, as money is often raised via extended kinship networks (Vives, 2017) and/or discounts are obtained via friendships or acquaintance with the handlers (Maher, 2018).

Other authors explore how the migration decision is affected by interpersonal connections, since locating smugglers is rarely done using the Internet (Mandic, 2017). This is verified by Sanchez (2017) and Schapendonk (2018) who in their research report that migrants often meet with the smuggler or get information on smuggling routes via friends. Borkert, Fischer and Yafi, (2018) instead state that, whilst WhatsApp and Facebook are important for migration, the intrinsic value of other people and interpersonal connections are equally relevant. Due to the increase in technology, however, most interpersonal connections are managed digitally via social media, even within the residing host country.

6.2 Mainstream media

Different types of narratives are transmitted by mainstream media. Often mainstream media is used as a channel to transmit narratives about migration as a 'crisis'. This is explored in the literature in different national contexts; Borkert et al. (2018), for instance, look at Germany, whereas Caviedes (2015) looks at media representation and politicised immigration debates and security issues in France, UK and Italy. Themes explored in the literature in particular explore how media become a channel to transmit political opinion, as Bourbeau (2015) explores how "media agents of the time, and particularly those working for centre-right newspapers, were quick to present the surge in worldwide refugee

numbers and mass migration as a shock in the face of which France's social cohesion needed to be protected" (p. 1965).

This is supported by Mazzara (2015) who states that:

> *"the validation of the migrants' illegality finds a perfect stage in the mass-media account of immigration in Lampedusa that has a strong impact on the Italian collective imagination. The image of migrants as a problem and a threat is built up by the mass media through the constant use of catchy headlines" (p. 456).*

The use of language and metaphors is particularly important, and researchers have used a wide variety of methods to study this phenomenon, including content and discourse analysis. In Germany metaphors such as "waves" of migrants is often used to negatively refer to migrant flows. In this context, Pogliano (2017) confirms that:

> *"media discourses have been shown to be influential in constructing migrants as 'others', as 'criminals' or 'undesirables.'" A generalized trend is to overemphasize ethnic and immigrant crime. This means an overrepresentation of ethnic minority offenders in the news and, at the same time, a tendency to overlook the problems experienced by ethnic groups, including episodes of racist violence in which immigrants are the victims." (p.4)*

6.3 Social and digital media

The ***impact of digital technologies*** on forced migration processes has been a focus of scholarship in recent years (Leurs, & Smets, 2018; Witteborn, 2015). It came to the forefront particularly during the 2015 migrant and refugee crisis. According to Diminescu and Loveluck (2014), digital technologies affect all aspects of a migrant's experience both pre-entry and post-arrival. Much of the literature explored the role that social media had for migrants in developing and maintaining transnational networks via co-presence, in aiding their journey and/or in facilitating integration and forming individual and collective identity.

In particular through social media, migrants were able to compare their own migration experiences with other compatriots and maintain strong ties with family and friends in the country of origin and other host countries (Belloni, 2016, 2019a, 2019b; Mappelli, 2019; Kutscher & Kreß, 2018; Nagy, 2018; Twigt, 2018; Mitra & Evansluong, 2019). Social media is particularly important in enabling migrants to give personal testimonies about the conditions of life in the host country (Bakewell & Jolivet, 2015), thus affecting how 'destination' countries are perceived. Belloni (2016), in her rich ethnographic data, explores this theme in detail to show how "such a widespread flow of information and images via social media elicits a feeling of disparity between the unlucky ones in Italy and the lucky ones who live elsewhere" (p. 113).

Social media can also be used as means of empowerment as migrants use it to question culturally rooted gender norms. One example is how Sahrawi Facebook friends often post pictures of themselves living their everyday lives in Spain without traditional dress (Almenara-Niebla & Ascanio-Sánchez, 2019).

Social media can also help migrants gain information about routes and the dangers of the journey (Borkert, Fischer & Yafi, 2018; Fiedler, 2019; Mapelli, 2019; Gillespie, Osseiran & Cheesman, 2018; Latenero & Kift, 2018). Borkert, Fisher, and Yafi (2018, p. 8), state that "the overwhelming majority

(85.5%) of the refugees, in fact, learned their best route to Europe via Facebook, WhatsApp, or Viber. Literally, no one accessed book or library computers for this purpose" (p.8).

Social media has a considerable effect in empowering migrants. As Dekker and Engbersen (2014) argue: "social media thus offers a rich source of insider knowledge on migration that is discrete and unofficial. This makes potential migrants 'streetwise' when undertaking migration" (p. 401). Bayramoğlu and Lünenborg (2018) further observe that social and digital media thus not only embed refugees within transnational networks that offer interpersonal/emotional support, but also facilitate the possibility for activism. They show how Queer refugees in the Netherlands can help other refugees via online activism, showing that migrants are not just passive agents waiting for humanitarian intervention but can actively help other refugees by providing support via social media.

However, when discussing actual motivations for migration, the issue regarding the effects of social media on the migration decision is more complex, and it seems more appropriate to view the ***Internet as a facilitator***. Migration is driven by a combination of complex push-pull factors as explored in Section 5. Social media platforms, however, play a role in this facilitation, functioning as a place where smugglers seek to recruit migrants and advertise their services. For example, Fiedler, (2019, p.338) report in their research that NGO staff members informed them that many Facebook pages were run by people smugglers and that they made no attempt to hide this. Refugees stated that they only had to type in the words "smuggle" and "Europe" to gain information in Arabic.

Another important theme raised in the literature is that social media does not always aid migrant integration and general well-being. One important issue that arose is the issue of ***social media as a burden***. It can often have a negative impact on migrants' lives by creating stress, as migrants are constantly asked to provide remittances and be in contact with relatives in their country of origin (Hunter, 2015; Witteborn, 2015). Furthermore, not all migrants have equal access to social media. Factors such as digital literacy and limitations of digital connectivity are important. This is often referred to in the literature as the 'the digital divide' caused by inequality of access and use, which is related to socio-economic status, level of education and other contextual elements (Dekker & Engbersen, 2014; Dhoest 2019). Further related to this digital divide are issues of trust and the dangers and risks of using social media. This is particularly evident for certain groups of refugees, such as LGBTQ+ refugees, who risk further persecution if their sexual identities are revealed via social media. As a consequence, they do sometimes choose to remain disconnected to their compatriots in their countries of origin for fear of receiving homophobic verbal and physical abuse (Dhoest, 2019).

Another issue raised in the literature relates to the ***truthfulness of information*** available and transmitted on social media. Often, false information regarding the risks of the journey and life in Europe is transmitted (Fiedler, 2019; Burrell & Horscelmann, 2019; Kaytaz, 2016; Sutkute, 2019). However, Borkert et al. (2018) state that their research shows migrants and particularly refugees for whom false information can potentially lead to severe harm and even death are very well aware of false and misleading information circulating in social media. False information is also transmitted about refugees receiving free expensive smartphones from aid organizations, leading to negative representations of them in the media.

One research area that is evidently lacking in the literature are studies that compare the potency and popularity of different social media platforms. Further research in this area is much needed.

Issues of migrant agency is another area of importance. Georgiou (2018), states:

> *"It is important to further research and understand how digital representational spaces, which go beyond the interactive space of social media, become battlefields for visibility, voice, and recognition. This is an area of study that digital media research has often sidelined as it falls outside the binary of hegemonic mainstream media versus citizen-led social media. Yet it is precisely this space between the mainstream and the social media that needs to be further studied, most importantly because it constitutes a space where the subaltern might not just speak but might also occasionally be heard." (p. 56)*

Since narratives were predominantly transmitted via social and digital media, Table 13 provides a fuller description of the specific platforms, along with a description of their purpose, as far as specified in the literature.

Table 13. Key sources that outline the type of social and digital media used and its usage.

Type of social and digital media	Description	Source
Facebook	Form social relations/networking/forge community relations	Alinejad et al 2019; Mappelli, 2019; Baran, 2018; Ekman, 2018; Dekker& Engbersen, 2014; Mansour & Olsen, 2017
Facebook	Broadcast feedback, THEMIS project	Bakewell & Jolivet, 2015
Facebook	Debate culturally rooted gender norms/ politics of belonging	Almenara-Niebla & Ascanio-Sánchez, 2019
Facebook	Activism/political mobilisation	Ekman, 2018; Bayramoğlu & Lünenborg, 2018
Facebook Twitter Instagram	Self-empowering tools for queer refugees	Bayramoğlu & Lünenborg, 2018
Facebook	Preserve anonymity and remain unobservable when accessing information	Milivojevic, 2019
Facebook Messenger Viber Skype	Compare migration experience with other compatriots in other migration countries/keep in contact with relatives in country	Belloni,2016, 2019a, 2019b; Fiedler, 2019; Kutscher & Kreß, 2018; Latenero & Kift, 2018; Mappelli, 2019; Nagy, 2018; Twigt, 2018
Facebook Messenger Viber	Important role in their choices to leave the country	Belloni,2016, 2019a, 2019b; Fiedler, 2019; Mapelli, 2019
Facebook WhatsApp Viber	Aid migration journey/learn best route to Europe/dangers of journey/ share information with others regarding their journey once arrived in Europe	Albahari, 2018; Bayramoğlu & Lünenborg, 2018; Borkert, Fischer & Yafi, 2018; Fiedler, 2019; Mapell, 2019; Gillespie,

		Osseiran & Cheesman, 2018; Kutscher & Kreb, 2018; Latenero & Kift, 2018
Facebook Skype Viber WhatsApp or email	Internet dating/marriage (migration)	Dekker & Engbersen, 2014
Facebook WhatsApp Viber Skype	Essential for young people in insecure situations characterized by different migration experiences and challenges	Kutscher & Kreß, 2018
Facebook Skype	Dangers for LGBTQ refugees in connecting with compatriots in host and origin country	Dhoest, 2019
Facebook Viber	Find smuggler via encrypted groups/routes	Gillespie, Osseiran & Cheesman, 2018
Facebook	Services for refugees/tracking them for commercial purposes	Latonero & Kift, 2018
Facebook	Create ties between different communities/integrate/gain information on visas, citizenship, residence permits, working, renting/ psychological benefits, offering moral support	Mappelli, 2019
Facebook and Twitter	Engage in political discourse on various topics	Nelimarkka, Laaksonen & Semaan, 2018
WhatsApp Facebook Messenger Skype	Connect with gay community	Patterson & Leurs, 2019
Facebook	Comment on photos/migration success	Prothmann, 2018
Facebook	Transmitting (false) rumours concerning job opportunities social benefits	Ruokolainen & Widen, 2019
Facebook WhatsApp Viber	Gain information on entry and reception policies and new policy developments in various potential destinations from friends and family members	Crawley & Hagen-Zanker, 2018
Facebook	Form antiimmigration and anti-refugee groups and online communities to discuss public dialogue on the topic of migration	Siibak & Masso, 2018
Facebook	Facebook as most effective form of communication than other social media websites	Sutkute, 2019
Skype Facebook	Different social media had different functions. Skype, mainly used for family communication, Facebook was used to manage local and transnational contacts with friends and, to a lesser degree, family	Witteborn, 2015
Facebook	Respond to expectations from family back home	Witteborn, 2015
Facebook WhatsApp	Social media (WhatsApp and Facebook) and interpersonal connections are equally relevant and important to migrants	Borkert, Fischer & Yafi, 2018
Instagram	Instagram spreads information in a different way via hashtags and with a strong emphasis on photographs	Alinejad et al, 2019

Instagram	Migrant selfie as visual proofs/celebrity selfie	Chouliaraki, 2017
Instagram Pinterest	Communication of risks/ fear of refugees/refugees perceived as dangerous	Guidry et al, 2018
Twitter	Twitter as most popular media worldwide due to openness and clarity thanks to the retweet system and to the possibility of using the API (Application Programming Interface) to download contents/rich data	Blanco-Herrero & Arcila Calderón, 2019; Ferra & Nguyen, 2017
Twitter	Migrant crisis materialised on Twitter via different hashtags #migrantcrisis and #refugeecrisis	Ferra & Nguyen, 2017
Twitter	Popular tool for protestors to network and organise political activities/facilitate political mobilisation towards change in real time	Ferra & Nguyen, 2017
Twitter	Different attitudes/portrayal of refugees	Guidry et al, 2018
Twitter	Examination of Twitter accounts of key UK political actors/understand UK view of the migrant crisis	Krzyżanowski, Triandafyllidou & Wodak, 2018
Twitter	Examination of Pro Brexit/UKIP representations	Leidig, 2018
Twitter	Use of Twitter by the Indian Diaspora to emphasise a non-Muslim Indian identity in order to differentiate themselves from Muslims	Leidig, 2018
Twitter	Twitter Periscope app/literature dealing with #RefugeeCameras hashtag	Milivojevic, 2019
Twitter	Users introduce debates not covered in the mainstream news	Nerghes & Lee, 2019; Urchs, Wendlinger, Mitrovic & Granitzer, 2019
Twitter	Examination of right-wing movements against refugees	Kreis, 2017
Twitter	Geolocated Twitter /view internal and international mobility within one framework	Zagheni, Garimella & Weber, 2014
Skype	Engage in events in country of origin/co-presence	Dekker & Engbersen, 2014; Dhoest, 2019; Witteborn, 2015
Skype	Co-presence as a burden and stress	Witteborn, 2015; Hunter, 2015
Skype	Forge cultural communities	Pogliano, 2017
Skype	Check on/ask for Money transfers	Hunter, 2015
Skype	Skype implies closeness, while emails and texts are traceable yet considered as more distant	Twigt, 2018
WhatsApp Viber	Scan passport to aid money transfer	Fiedler, 2019
WhatsApp	Transmit a positive view of host country as economically rich	Gardner, 2015

WhatsApp	Stay in contact/ socially engaged with people in host and origin country/joint presence	Loftsdóttir, 2019; Mendoza Pérez & Morgade Salgado, 2019
WhatsApp	Grassroots WhatsApp groups enable refugee support groups to mobilize rescue missions	Gillespie, Osseiran & Cheesman, 2018
WhatsApp	Security/Give regular status updates to members in country of origin	Mendoza Pérez & Morgade Salgado, 2019
Youtube	Vloggers/Moroccan Diaspora	Leurs, 2016
Youtube	Implications for the lives and safety of refugees/undermine public support/steer public opinion/discuss uncomfortable topics	Lee & Nerghes, 2018
Google+	Geo-coding	Messias et al, 2016
Google apps	Google has created apps that purport to provide refugees with helpful information along their journey and in host countries	Latenero & Kift, 2018.
Blog	Explore democracy/reflections on gender issues	Almenara-Niebla & Ascanio-Sánchez, 2019
Blog	Feedback of testimonies of migrants in host country/aid the generation of networks where social networks are less accessible	Bakewell & Jolivet, 2015
World Wide Web	e-Diasporas Atlas project / role of the World Wide Web in supporting and enabling new types of diaspora identity politics	Kumar, 2018

6.4 Technology

Sources in our literature evidence the use of the smart phones and computers as major information communication technologies (ICT) used by both migrants and refugees and by people working with them. One interesting source is Maitland et al. (2018) who provocatively explored the importance of technology for refugees with the title “Digital Lifeline?” She and her contributors question the usage of technology to explore how refugee service organizations mediate refugee experiences. Authors in the book explore the technologies that refugees use via their interactions with service organizations.

Many migrants and refugees used computers and smartphones to access Skype, WhatsApp, Google translator and Facebook. Computers were accessed in Internet cafes or refugee centres. Belloni (2019a) in her research observes that:

> *“My informants in the Ethiopian camps used their phones to read the news, call relatives abroad, and communicate with friends in the city. Migrants in Addis Ababa spent long hours in Internet cafés, not only skyping their loved ones in Eritrea, but also trying to garner more information from friends travelling through Sudan before their own departures.”* (p. 8)

Other migrants and refugees used their smartphones for a variery of reasons from maintaining contact in the refugee camps (Almenara-Niebla & Ascanio-Sánchez, 2019) to accessing maps via GPS, (Fiedler, 2019), practicing sex work (Bayramoğlu & Lünenborg, 2018) or accessing news and participating in political protest (Leurs and Smets, 2018).

There is often a difference between the use of the mobile phones before and after arrival, with mobile phone usage 'before' and back home restricted to gaining information 'en-route', and to keep in touch with friends and family and 'on arrival', as a way to accessing information regarding services such as housing, social services, health, legal and language support (Gillespie et al. 2018).

Other authors remark on the lack of connectivity due to the lack of availability of computers (Kutcher & Kreb, 2018; Witteborn, 2015). Other problems relating to technology concern a lack of charging areas, Wi-Fi accessibility or access to SIM cards. Many migrants and refugees have restricted access to technology, while asylum seekers may also restrict their use of technology because they are afraid of digital surveillance (Dekker et al., 2016; Gillespie et al., 2018).

7 Threats and security issues addressed in the dataset

In order to provide a comprehensive overview of security issues addressed within the reviewed literature and clarify potential connections between physical security and the discursive role of narratives in shaping security issues, securitisation theory provided the foundation for the following analysis. Securitisation theory examines how security issues emerge and evolve by examining how such issues come to be framed through discourse (Buzan, Waever & De Wilde, 1998). According to securitisation theory, key issues to consider are ***referent objects*** (what is under threat), ***referent subjects*** (the source of the threat) and the ***type of threat*** (Balzaq, 2011). By using this model to guide the analysis of security issues in the literature, the review aimed to identify points of consensus and divergence in the literature of (1) what is being threatened by migration or related issues, (2) who or what is the cause of the threat and (3) what is the type of threat. In so doing, it aims to provide a comprehensive overview threats and security issues discussed within the academic literature sampled.

7.1 Referent objects

Within the literature reviewed, migrants, sovereignty, the EU, integration, society, economy and political stability were identified as key referent objects. Table 14 outlines the main issues and sub-themes related to these concepts.

Table 14. Referent objects discussed in review documents.

Referent Objects	Description	Sources
Migrants	Migrants are exploited by criminal networks and smugglers during transit to and at arrival in the EU.	Albahari, 2018; Ambrosini, 2017; Baird & Liempt, 2016; Brigden & Mainwairing, 2016; Coskun, 2018; Esson, 2015; Kaytaz, 2016; Maher, 2018; Thorsen, 2019
	Migrants are threatened with exploitation, discrimination and violence by state agents during transit and arrival.	Brigden & Mainwairing, 2016; Esson, 2015; Kaytaz, 2016; Thorsen, 2019
	Migrants are threatened by discrimination, exploitation and violence by host citizens	Kuschminder & Waidler, 2019; Lee & Nerghes, 2017; Sarpong, 2019
	Migrants are threatened by dangerous journeys and illegal border crossings.	Brigden & Mainwairing, 2016; Burrell & Horscelmann, 2019; Leurs & Smets, 2018; Chuen 2019
	Women are vulnerable to being exploited by human traffickers with false promises.	Bakewell & Jolivet, 2015; Coskun, 2018
	Unaccompanied minors are vulnerable to exploitation, abduction and disappearance during transit and arrival.	Barbulescu & Grugel, 2016; Burrell & Horscelmann, 2019; Esson, 2015; Melloni & Humphris, 2019; Chena, 2014

	LGBTQ+ migrants are vulnerable to exploitation, discrimination and violence during transit to and arrival in the EU.	Bayramoğlu & Lünenborg, 2018
	Migrants are faced with significant threats when trying to leave countries of origin	Belloni, 2016; Rodriguez, 2019
	Migrants are endangered by false information on conventional and digital media, as well as interpersonal communications.	Fiedler, 2019; Burrell and Horscelmann, 2019; Georgiou, 2018; Kaytaz, 2016; Sutkute, 2019; Musaro, 2018
	Migrants undertake dangerous illegal routes due to restricted channels for legal migration (CF: Threats to Migrants - Death)	Hintjens, 2019; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; Rodriguez, 2019
	Determining which categories of migrants are 'deserving' of protection is contested	Magazzini, 2018; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Williams, 2015; Musaro, 2018
	Digital media is critical for migrant survival during the journey to Europe	Gillespie, 2018
	Migrants are threatened with crime and violence from other migrants	Pogliano, 2016
Sovereignty	Perceptions of sovereignty and borders are intertwined. Border insecurity is considered a threat to sovereignty in hosting countries.	Boukala & Dimitrakopoulou, 2018; Cantat, 2016
	Migration is framed as a threat to sovereignty, the stability of the state system and international order.	Innes, 2016; Cantat 2016; Boukala & Dimitrakopoulou, 2018; Jaskulowski, 2019
	Concerns of sovereignty have led to EU border externalisation and the hardening of both the EU's external borders and those of 'transit' countries.	Leko, 2017; Mitzen, 2018
	Resurgent nationalism as a result of fears over sovereignty has led to the criminalisation of migration.	Sanchez, 2017
EU	'Migration crisis' has increased anti-EU sentiment and Euroscepticism.	Sperling & Webber, 2019; Mazzucelli, Visvizi & Bee, 2016; Leidig, 2019; Lechler, 2019
	Immigration-related threat perceptions resulting from securitisation of migration have destabilised Schengen Area as a security community.	Alkopher & Blanc, 2017
	Migration management poses a significant challenge to the stability of EU institutions.	Momoc, 2016; Nancheva, 2016; Hintjens, 2018; Albahari, 2018
	'Migration crisis' has caused divisions between the EU and its Member States.	Nancheva, 2016; Alkopher & Blanc, 2017
	'Migration crisis' has revealed a crisis in European identity.	Koen, 2016; Kinnvall, Manners and Mitzen, 2018
Integration	Failure to integrate migrants may cause economic, political and social instability in host countries.	Kotoyannos, Tzagkarakis, Kamekis, Dimari, Mavrozacharakis, 2019;

		Mattelart and d'Haenens, 2014
	Increased radicalisation and terrorism may result from failing to integrate migrants into host societies.	Mattelart & d'Haenens, 2014
	Successful migrant integration depends on employment, housing, education, health, citizenship pathways, civil rights, social / cultural connections within and between groups.	Patterson & Leurs, 2019
	Hosts may hinder immigrant integration based on political, economic and attitudinal factors when they are perceived as a threat.	Pérez-Paredes, 2017
Hosts	Muslim migrants are framed as terrorist a threat to host's security.	Abbas, 2019; Borkert, 2018; Bourbeau, 2015; Innes, 2016
	Migration threatens the ontological security (sense of security in one's identity) of host citizens.	Kinnvall et al., 2018; Siibak & Masso, 2018; Alkopher, 2018
	Migrant smuggling framed as a threat to regional security and stability of host countries.	Mandic, 2017
Society	Societal resilience is a countermeasure to threats to social stability as a result of issues arising from migration.	Bourbeau, 2015
	Conventional and social media in host countries are fora for framing migration as a threat to social cohesion and values.	Chouliaraki, 2017; Eberl et al. 2018; Siibak & Masso, 2018
	Migration is framed by political elites as a threat to Western societal and democratic values.	Hintjens, 2019; Kovář, 2019
	Host societies are threatened by culturally diverse migrants who are perceived as having failed to integrate.	Magazzini, 2018; Nishiyama, 2019; Ossipow et al., 2019
Economy	Political discourse by elites and media emphasises the threat of immigration to jobs and economic stability.	Alkopher & Blanc, 2017; Eberl et al., 2018; Kovář, 2019; Ossipow et al., 2019.
	Economic concerns constitute a major source of host threat perceptions of migrants as either an economic burden or job competition.	Amores & Arcil, 2019; Stansfield, 2018
	Global economic crisis and Eurozone crisis increased perceptions that migrants threatened the economy of EU host states.	Kinvall, 2018
	Influxes of migration are a threat to fragile economies.	Kuschminder, 2017
	Shortages of skilled and unskilled labour can threaten economic growth and require opened pathways for legal immigration.	Mattelart & d'Haenens, 2014
Political Stability	Host perceptions of 'migration crisis' may cause a surge in extremist politics.	Kotoyannos et al. 2019; Mattelart & d'Haenens, 2014

As demonstrated in Figure 10, the most frequently mentioned referent object within the literature are migrants, particularly refugees, asylum seekers and irregular migrants. Criminal networks, particularly human traffickers and smugglers are prominently discussed as posing a threat to migrants (Albahari, 2018; Ambrosini, 2017; Baird & Liempt, 2016; Brigden & Mainwairing, 2016; Coskun, 2018; Esson, 2015; Kaytaz, 2016; Maher, 2018). However, as will be demonstrated in greater detail in *Section 7.3 Threats to Migrants*, the literature also shows that the relationship between migrants and smugglers is complex. Additionally, discrimination, exploitation and violence by hosting state agents (Brigden & Mainwairing, 2016; Esson, 2015; Kaytaz, 2016), host citizens (Kuschminder & Waidler, 2019; Lee & Nerghes, 2017) and other migrants (Pastore and Ponzo, 2016) are discussed as threats to migrants.

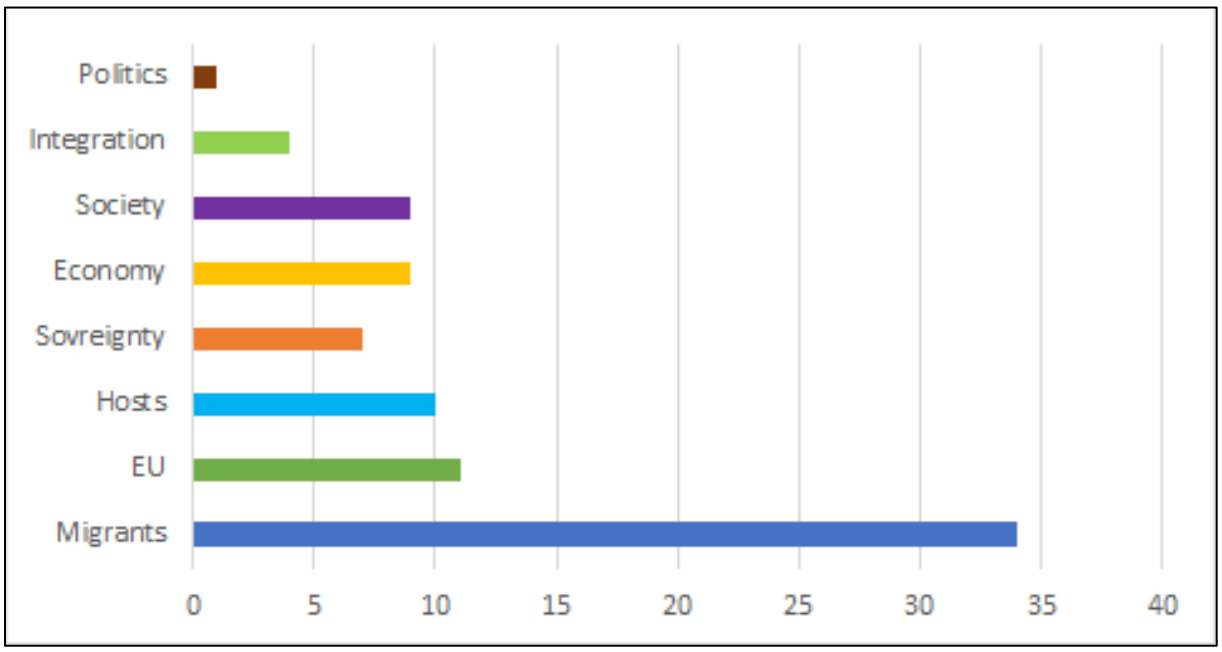

Figure 10. Aspects under threat as reported in the dataset.

The journey itself, particularly irregular sea crossings across the Mediterranean to EU landing countries, is frequently mentioned as the most lethal threat to migrants (Brigden & Mainwairing, 2016; Burrell & Horscelmann, 2019; Chuen 2019; Leurs & Smets, 2018). Leaving countries of origin at the start of the journey has been raised as perilous for many migrants, especially those escaping conflict and political persecution (Belloni, 2016; Rodriguez, 2019). However, some authors consider the restriction of legal channels of migration to the EU as a key issue resulting in large numbers of migrants undertaking highly dangerous routes with the aid of illegal smugglers and traffickers (Hintjens, 2019; Mainwaring & Brigden 2016; Rodriguez, 2019).

As a number of authors illustrate, the ***classification of the type of migrant*** by the EU and its Member States leads to differing perceptions of which groups, such as refugees versus 'illegal' or 'economic' migrants, are deserving of rescue and protection (Magazzini, 2018; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Williams, 2015). This in turn alters perceptions of which types of migrants are deemed to be legitimately under threat. Groups such as women (Bakewell & Jolivet, 2015; Coskun, 2018), minors (Barbulescu & Grugel, 2016; Burrell & Horscelmann, 2019; Chena, 2014; Esson, 2015; Melloni & Humphris, 2019) and LGBTQ+ (Bayramoğlu & Lünenborg, 2018) have been highlighted as being identified as vulnerable to these risks in the literature.

False information through digital media, conventional media and interpersonal networks has been highlighted by a number of publications as a hazard to migrants both in terms of fostering false expectations of the journey and life in Europe as well as spreading misinformation to host citizens and fuelling anti-immigrant sentiments (Burrell & Horscelmann, 2019; Fiedler, 2019; Georgiou, 2018; Kaytaz, 2016; Sutkute, 2019). Overall, the literature referring to migrants as a threatened group is rich and presents a nuanced picture of the ways in which these threats are perceived and experienced by migrants, migration management stakeholders and host populations.

An issue often perceived and experienced as being under threat in host countries was ***sovereignty***. As noted by Boukala and Dimitrakopoulou (2018) and Cantat (2016), sovereignty and border security are often interdependent, leading to border insecurity being perceived as a threat to national sovereignty. As a result, influxes of migrants, particularly those seen as irregular migrants, are portrayed and experienced as a threat to hosting states and international order (Cantat 2016; Boukala & Dimitrakopoulou, 2018; Innes, 2016; Jaskulowski, 2019). These threat perceptions and concerns over sovereignty have been argued to have contributed to the securitisation and criminalisation of migration (Leko, 2017; Mitzen, 2018) as well as the hardening of the EU's external borders (Sanchez, 2017).

The EU was also discussed as a referent object in terms of the ***stability and cohesion of the Union***, usually in reference to impacts on EU institutions and its Member States as a result of migration influxes. Numerous authors argued that the 'migration crisis' contributed to rising Euroscepticism in Member States (Sperling & Webber, 2019; Mazzucelli et al., 2016; Leidig, 2019; Lechler, 2019). Challenges of migration management were frequently argued to represent a significant challenge to the stability of EU-institutions on the one hand (Momoc, 2016; Nancheva, 2016; Hintjens, 2018; Albahari, 2018) and increased cleavages between the EU and EU Member States on the other (Nancheva, 2016; Alkopher & Blanc, 2017). Alkopher and Blanc (2017) argue that the securitisation of migration has ultimately undermined the cohesion of the Schengen Area as Member States are placed under greater pressures to secure their national borders. Meanwhile, Koen (2016) and Kinnvall et al. (2018) posit that the 'migration crisis' has revealed and exacerbated fundamental fractures in European identity.

Several ***threats to the integration of migrants*** as well as those resulting from failure to do so were identified within the studies reviewed. Patterson and Leurs (2019) contend that successful integration depends on ensuring adequate levels of employment, housing, education, health, citizenship pathways, civil rights, social/cultural connections within and between groups. Kotoyannos et al. (2019) and Mattelart and d'Haenens (2014) argue that failure to successfully integrate migrants may cause economic, political and social instability in host countries, such as increased violent radicalisation and terrorism. Although failure to integrate is also attributable to migrant groups, hosts may also act as a barrier to integration based on political, economic and attitudinal factors when migrants are perceived as a threat (Pérez-Paredes, 2017).

Host states and citizens were identified as a referent object that may be threatened by issues related to migration. For example, Muslim migrants are frequently framed by political elites, media and other opinion influencers as posing a terrorist threat to host security (Abbas, 2019; Borkert, 2018; Bourbeau, 2015; Innes, 2016). Moreover, the migrant smuggling economy is perceived to have become interconnected with illegal networks and channels for a host of threats to national and regional security such as human and drug trafficking (Mandic, 2017). On an ideational level, Kinnvall et al.

(2018), Alkopher (2018) and Siibak and Masso (2018) have argued that increased migration to homogenous societies within the EU has threatened host citizen's ontological security, or put differently, security in their own identity, place in the world and sense of purpose – particularly with respect to national identity.

Interrelated to host referent objects are society, economy and political stability. Migration is frequently framed as a threat to ***social cohesion and values*** (Chouliaraki, 2017; Eberl et al. 2018; Siibak & Masso, 2018; Hintjens, 2019; Kovář, 2019). Moreover, host societies may feel threatened as they become more diverse and migrants are perceived as having failed to integrate (Magazzini, 2018; Nishiyama, 2019; Ossipow et al., 2019). In terms of threats to the economy, numerous authors highlight that elite and media discourses emphasise the threat of immigration to ***jobs and economic stability*** (Alkopher & Blanc, 2017; Eberl et al., 2018; Kovář, 2019; Ossipow et al., 2019), particularly since the 2008 Global Economic Crisis and 2009 Eurozone Crisis (Kinvall, 2018). Key economic concerns tend to focus on either migrants as an economic burden or a competitor for jobs (Amores & Arcil, 2019; Stansfield, 2018). Kuschminder (2017) contends that these concerns are particularly salient in economically fragile countries. On the other hand, the lack of immigration may also pose a threat to the economy when there is a shortage of both skilled and unskilled labour combined with an aging population (Mattelart & d'Haenens, 2014). Very few sources dealt directly with ***political stability*** as a referent object. The most direct references examined how migration may lead to political instability through the rise of extremist politics when the issue is considered a crisis within host countries (Kotoyannos et al. 2019; Mattelart & d'Haenens, 2014).

7.2 Referent subjects

When considering the sources of threats – both perceived and experienced – the primary referent subjects identified within the dataset were migrant groups, criminal networks, extremist groups and state agents. Table 15 details the ways in which these referent subjects are perceived as sources of threats.

Table 15. Referent subjects discussed in review documents.

Referent Subjects	Description	Sources
Migrant Groups	Migrants are perceived to threaten social, political and economic stability and values in host countries	Alkopher and Blanc, 2017; Hinjens, 2019; Kovář, 2019; Leidig, 2019; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Milivojevic, 2018; Musaro, 2018; Nishiyama, 2019; Perez-Parades, 2017
	Migrants' use of digital technologies to facilitate journeys are interpreted as a threat to border and national security	Chouiaraki, 2017
	Migrant protests against living conditions, detention and deportation may cause harm to property and persons.	Cuttitta, 2014
	Host women are framed as being under sexual threat from migrant males.	Ekman, 2018; Borkert et al., 2018; Leidig, 2019; Strbova et al., 2019; Stutkute, 2019

	Overestimation of number of migrants by host citizens is an indicator of their perception of migrants as a threat.	Eberl et al., 2018
	Unaccompanied minors are represented as future threats to host countries.	Melloni & Humphris, 2019
	Migrants pose a threat to the ontological security and identity of host states.	Mitzen, 2018
	Border controls, migration management policies and rescue missions are increasingly portrayed as a 'war'	Musaro, 2017
	Host-migrant relations may deteriorate into cultural and social conflicts	Pastore and Ponzo, 2016; Pogliano, 2017; Sarpong, 2019
	Threat perceptions of migrants can be spread by host country diasporas living abroad.	Siibak & Masso, 2018
Criminal Networks	Migrants are perceived as exacerbating and increasing minor, serious and organised crime.	Albahari, 2018; Alkopher and Blanc, 2017; Baird and Van Liempt, 2016; Borkert et al., 2018; Jaskulowski, 2019; Kricher & Sarma, 2019; Leidig, 2019; Perez-Parades, 2017; Strbova et al., 2019; Stutkute, 2019
	Human smugglers and human traffickers use digital technologies to organise illegal border crossings.	Latonero and Kift, 2018; Lynch & Hadjimatheou, 2017
	Migrant smuggling networks are considered a threat to national and regional security and stability.	Mandic, 2017
	Human smugglers can pose a serious threat to the migrants they are transporting.	Mandic, 2017, Sanchez 2017
	Growth of smuggler and criminal networks are facilitated through globalisation and migration.	Sanchez, 2017
	Increased border controls increase demands for smuggler networks.	Schapendonk, 2017
Extremist Groups	Migrants are framed as being susceptible to radicalisation and increasing the threat of terrorism in host countries.	Abbas, 2019; Alkopher and Blanc, 2017; Burrell and Horschelmann, 2019; Cuttitta, 2014; Innes 2016; Jaskulowski, 2019; Leidig, 2019; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Mattelart & d'Haenens, 2014; Musaro & Parmiggiani, 2017; Strbova et al., 2019; Stutkute, 2019
	Extremist disinformation and hate speech on social media in host countries can pose a threat to migrant groups.	Blanco-Herrerro and Calderon, 2019
	Far-right groups can pose a threat to migrant groups through violence and discrimination.	Pavlovich, 2018, Siibak and Masso, 2018

State Agents	Border security forces may pose a threat to migrants with financial extortion, discrimination, detention, exploitation and violence.	Chena, 2014; Mandic, 2014; Milivojevic, 2018; Nanheva, 2015; Sanchez, 2017
	Corrupt border officials may work in partnership with criminal entities in human and drug trafficking.	Sanchez, 2017; Schapendonk, 2017

Migrants were frequently cited as referent subject. Within the literature reviewed, a large number of authors contended that host countries consider migrants to destabilise social, political and economic cohesion (Alkopher & Blanc, 2017; Hinjens, 2019; Kovář, 2019; Leidig, 2019; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Milivojevic, 2018; Musaro, 2018; Nishiyama, 2019; Perez-Parades, 2017). In terms of specific migrant groups considered to pose a threat by host citizens, migrant men were a prominent theme within the literature, particularly sexual harassment and assault of female host citizens (Borkert et al., 2018; Ekman, 2018; Leidig, 2019; Strbova et al., 2019; Stutkute, 2019). Other perceived referent subjects included migrants' use of ICT (Chouiaraki, 2017), young migrants being framed as potential threats within the context of terrorism, crime and the economy (Melloni & Humphris, 2019) and social disorder events caused by migrants, such as protests against living conditions, leading to harm to persons and property (Cuttitta, 2014). Reasons provided for the high levels of host threat perceptions of migrants as referent subjects varied. Mitzen (2018) argues that the threat to host identities posed by demographic, social, cultural, economic and political changes increases threat perceptions, while Siibak and Masso (2018) focus on how discriminatory ideas can spread through social networks online, including from host country diasporas living abroad. High levels of threat perceptions by host citizens of migration and migrants to the political, economic, social and cultural cohesion of their countries may increase the potential for sociocultural conflicts and an overall deterioration of host-migrant relations (Pastore & Ponzo, 2016; Pogliano, 2017; Sarpong, 2019).

Another major theme was ***criminal networks***. There was significant agreement within the literature that within host countries migrants are widely perceived as exacerbating and increasing minor, serious and organised crime (Albahari, 2018; Alkopher & Blanc, 2017; Baird & Van Liempt, 2016; Borkert et al., 2018; Jaskulowski, 2019; Kricher & Sarma, 2019; Leidig, 2019; Pérez-Parades, 2017; Strbova et al., 2019; Stutkute, 2019). Migrant smuggling networks were a prominent group that may be considered a threat to national and regional security and stability of the EU as well as to the wellbeing of migrants themselves (Mandic, 2017; Sanchez 2017). While Sanchez (2017) attributes the expansive growth of criminal networks to the phenomena of migration and globalisation, Schapendonk (2017) posits that border hardening since the 'migration crisis' has significantly increased the demand for smuggler services.

As migration sits at the confluence of a wide range of problematic socio-political issues, the threat posed by both ***migrant and host extremist groups*** was a major category. Numerous authors agreed that migrants are frequently framed as being susceptible to radicalisation and a source of terrorism in host countries (Abbas, 2019; Alkopher & Blanc, 2017; Burrell & Horschelmann, 2019; Cuttitta, 2014; Innes 2016; Jaskulowski, 2019; Leidig, 2019; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Mattelart & d'Haenens, 2014; Musaro & Parmiggiani, 2017; Strbova et al., 2019; Stutkute, 2019). Additionally, domestic extremism in host states, particularly from the far right, were identified as posing a threat to migrant groups and social order (Pavlovich, 2018, Siibak & Masso, 2018). Moreover, Blanco-Herrerro and Calderon (2019) demonstrate how social media can serve as a platform for extremist views against migrants to circulate within host countries.

State agents were also discussed within the literature as a potential source of threats. A number of authors contend that border security forces may pose a threat to migrants with financial extortion, discrimination, detention, exploitation and violence (Chena, 2014; Mandic, 2014; Milivojevic, 2018; Nanheva, 2015; Sanchez, 2017). Additionally, corrupt border officials may work in partnership with criminal entities in human and drug trafficking, threatening the stability of state institutions, host societies and the wellbeing of migrants (Sanchez, 2017; Schapendonk, 2017).

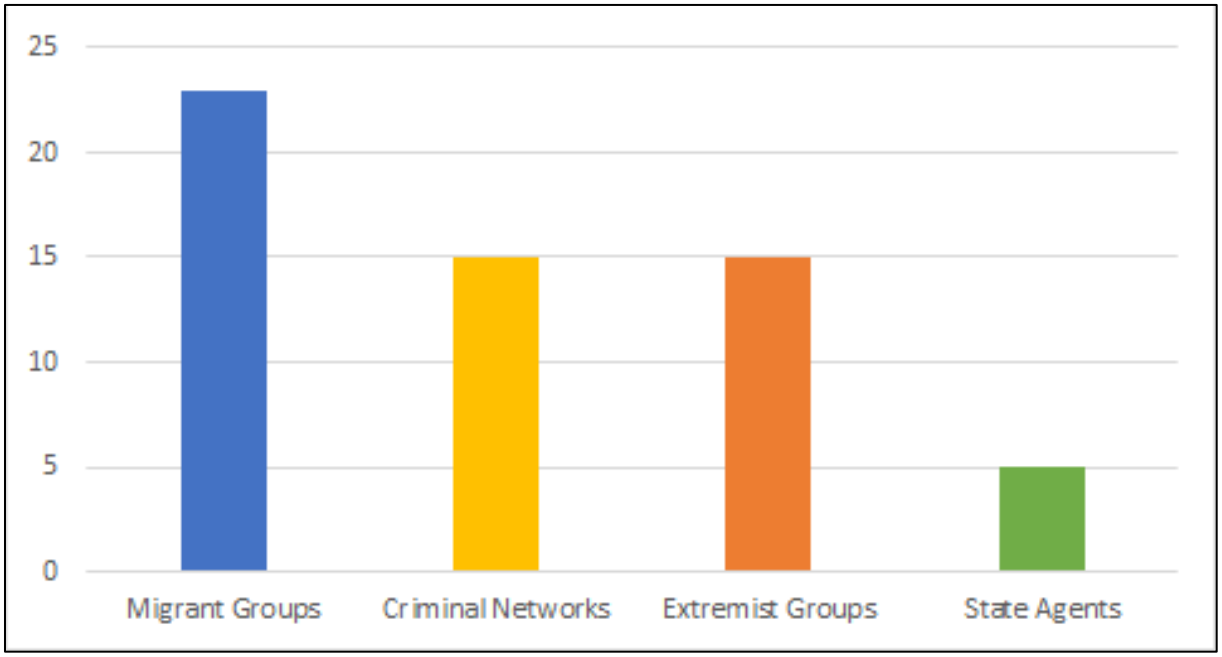

Figure 11. Source of threats as reported in the dataset.

As shown in Figure 11, migrant groups featured most prominently as a perceived source of threats. Moreover, extremist groups and criminal networks associated with migrants, namely smuggling and trafficking operations and terrorist organisations, were more frequently discussed than state agents and host extremist groups. However, as demonstrated further in the following analysis of types of threats, most of this literature does not consider migrants to be a source of threats in an objective sense, but rather as being perceived as such by members in host countries.

7.3 Threats to migrants

As the literature reviewed focused predominantly on the narratives and experiences of migrants, a significant number of threats to migrants were identified relative to hosts. The most prominent threats to migrants in the literature were death, detention and deportation, discrimination, modern slavery, violence and abuse, which are outlined in more detail in Table 16 below.

Table 16. Threats to migrants reported in review documents.

Threat to migrants	Description	Sources
Death	Illegal journeys across hazardous geographies are a threat to the lives of migrants.	Albahari, 2018; Brigden and Mainwairing, 2016; Burrell & Horschelmann, 2018; Chuen, 2019; Hinjens,

		2019; Johnson and Jones, 2019; Lennette and Miskovic, 2018; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; Robbins, 2019; Sanchez, 2017
	Migrants' lives and wellbeing are threeatened by human smugglers and traffickers (CF: Mutual Threats - Human Trafficking and Smuggling)	Albahari, 2018; Ambrossini, 2018; Sanchez; 2017; Kaytaz, 2016
	Border hardening increases incentives to undertake more perilous and illegal journeys to Europe.	Jaskulowski, 2019; Johnson and Jones, 2019; Maher, 2018; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; Rodriguez, 2019
	Sea journeys account for the largest proportion of migrant deaths crossing borders.	Leurs and Smets, 2018; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Lennette and Miskovic, 2018; Lennette and Miskovic, 2018; Hinjens, 2019; Chuen, 2019; Brigden and Mainwairing, 2016; Albahari, 2018; Mandic, 2017; McMahon and Sigona, 2018; Vives, 2017
	Migrants may be killed by border security during border crossings.	Belloni, 2016; Belloni, 2019; Jaskulowski, 2019; Nancheva, 2016; Robbins, 2019
	Asylum seekers and refugees may die during dangerous and illegal journeys in order to receive protection granted under international law.	Albahari, 2018
	Migrants choose to place their lives at risk in order to have the chance of a better life in Europe	Brigden and Mainwairing, 2016
	False narratives of the journey to and life in Europe pose a threat to the lives of migrants.	Fiedler, 2019; Georgiou, 2018
	Host citizens are often unaware of the high numbers of migrant deaths at the Mediterranean border.	Leurs & Smets, 2018
Detention and Deportation	Migrants may fall victim to indefinite imprisonment, exploitation, abuse and death during capture, detention and deportation.	Albahari, 2018; Brigden and Mainwairing, 2016; Coskun, 2018; Kuschminder, 2017; Nancheva, 2016; Schapendonk, 2017; Thorsen, 2017; Triandafyllidou, 2018; Williams, 2015

	Irregular migrants live with constant fear of detention and deportation in host countries.	Akanle, 2018; Alexander, 2019; Esson, 2015;
	Migrants may face persecution and death when deported to countries of origin.	Albahari, 2018
	Detention and deportation are perceived as being based on race and class rather than legal procedure.	Alexander, 2019; Magazzini, 2018
	Unaccompanied minors are at risk during detention and repatriation procedures.	Barbulescu and Grugel, 2016; Chenna, 2014
	Deportation procedures do not prevent deportees from reattempting entry into destination countries and have a cyclical effect.	Brigden and Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; Kaytaz, 2016; Mandic, 2017
	Migrants can experience long periods of uncertainty in detention centres.	Burrell & Horscelmann, 2019; Kubal, 2014; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; McMahon & Sigona, 2018; Schapendonk, 2017
	Detention and deportation procedures may use the threat of force to deter migrants.	Korhonen and Siitonen, 2018; Kubal, 2014; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; Musaro, 2018; Schapendonk, 2017; Thorsen, 2017; Williams, 2015.
	Countries of origin may lack the capacity to successfully reintegrate repatriated deportees.	Mouthaan, 2019; Veronesi, 2015
Discrimination	Discrimination is experienced in the forms of racism, sexual harassment, physical abuse and high levels of poverty.	Fiedler, 2017; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; Nancheva, 2016; Nishiyama, 2019; Ossipow et al., 2019
	Discrimination is a key barrier to employment and education opportunities in host countries.	Awori, 2019; Ossipow et al., 2019; Sewart, 2019; Sutkute, 2019
	Discrimination perceptions becomes a means by which migrants define themselves and other groups.	Fina and Tseng, 2017; Ossipow et al., 2019
	Legal migrants may have their civil rights infringed as a result of discrimination.	Leko, 2017, Stansfield and Stone, 2018; Tuckett, 2016
	Unaccompanied minors may be recipients of discriminatory rhetoric in public discourse.	Melloni & Humphris, 2019
	Perceptions of the degree of discrimination experienced by migrants is variable across the EU	Bian, 2017; Ross, 2018
	Hate speech often focuses on race, ethnicity, religion and class.	Blanco-Herrero and Calderon, 2019; Guðjónsdóttir & Loftsdóttir, 2017; Tuckett, 2016

	Discrimination is often gendered; experienced and perceived in different forms by men and women.	Faist, 2017; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016;
	Artificial intelligence and automated systems may reinforce discriminatory biases.	Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018
	Discrimination is a nuanced threat that is experienced and perceived in many different forms.	Ossipow et al., 2019
Violence and Abuse	Migrants can be recipients of physical violence and abuse by state officials.	Alexander, 2019; Innes, 2016; Kaytaz, 2016
	Criminal entities may prey on migrants and use violence to exploit them.	Alexander, 2019; Brigden & Mainwairing, 2016; Kaytaz, 2016
	Violence and physical abuse from host citizens can be experienced by migrants.	Bayramoğlu & Lunenborg, 2018; Coskun, 2018; Kuschminder & and Waidler, 2019
	Migrant experiences of violence from smugglers varies significantly.	Brigden & Mainwairing, 2016
	Violence is a common experience during the journey to Europe.	Alexander, 2019; Burrell and Horscelmann, 2019; Kaytaz, 2016
	Migrants may experience psychological trauma as a result of violence and abuse.	Burrell and Horscelmann, 2019; Kaytaz, 2016
	Many migrants are aware that they may experience significant hardships, including violence and abuse, on the journey to Europe before leaving countries of origin.	Musaro, 2018
Modern Slavery	Migrants may be forced into modern slavery in transit countries.	Triandaphylldiou, 2017
	Modern slavery and human trafficking are intertwined.	Esson, 2015, Lynch & Hadjimatheou, 2017
	The lack of legal status for many migrants makes them highly vulnerable to modern slavery.	Ambrosini, 2017

There were many and varied types of threats encountered by migrants at all stages of the journey to Europe as well as after their arrival in host states. ***Death*** was a primary threat discussed within our dataset. The main cause of death discussed across the literature were hazardous illegal journeys across dangerous geographies (Albahari, 2018; Brigden & Mainwairing, 2016; Burrell & Horschelmann, 2018; Chuen, 2019; Hinjens, 2019; Johnson & Jones, 2019; Lennette & Miskovic, 2018; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; Robbins, 2019; Sanchez, 2017). The greatest threat to life came from sea journeys across the Medditeranean (Leurs & Smets, 2018; Leurs, 2018; Lennette & Miskovic, 2018; Lennette & Miskovic, 2018; Hinjens, 2019; Chuen, 2019; Brigden & Mainwairing, 2016; Albahari, 2018; Mandic, 2017; McMahon & Sigona, 2018; Vives, 2017). Additionally, human smugglers and traffickers (Albahari, 2018; Ambrossini, 2018; Sanchez; 2017; Kaytaz, 2016) as well as border security (Belloni, 2016; Belloni, 2019; Jaskulowski, 2019; Nancheva, 2016; Robbins, 2019) were both identified as major threats to life.

Despite the perils faced during the journey, the literature identified several reasons why migrants undertake such risks. Brigden and Mainwairing (2016) report that migrants take informed risks when undertaking perilous journeys in order to have the opportunity of a better life in Europe. However, false narratives about and expectations of the journey to and life in Europe can pose a threat to the lives of migrants (Fiedler, 2019; Georgiou, 2018). The restriction of legal channels of migration across the EU was widely regarded as a major incentive for migrants to undertake increasingly risky illegal journeys (Jaskulowski, 2019; Johnson & Jones, 2019; Maher, 2018; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; Rodriguez, 2019). Asylum seekers and refugees may die during dangerous illegal journeys undertaken to receive protections granted under international law (Albahari, 2018). Leurs and Smets (2018) argue that despite occasional spikes in sympathetic reporting of the issue, host citizens are often unaware of the extent of the deadliness of the journey to Europe, which contributes to negative public opinion against migration and pressure for stronger controls.

Detention and deportation were prominent types of threat explored. Qualitative research shows that migrants may live with a fear of detention and deportation in host countries (Akanle, 2018; Alexander, 2019; Esson, 2015) and perceive decisions on deportation and their treatment in detention as being determined on the basis of race and class (Alexander, 2019; Magazzini, 2018). During the processes of capture, detention and deportation, migrants may fall victim to imprisonment, exploitation, abuse and death (Albahari, 2018; Brigden and Mainwairing, 2016; Coskun, 2018; Kuschminder, 2017; Nancheva, 2016; Schapendonk, 2017; Thorsen, 2017; Triandafyllidou, 2018; Williams, 2015). Unaccompanied minors have been identified as being particularly at risk during detention and repatriation procedures (Barbulescu and Grugel, 2016; Chenna, 2014). During detention, numerous studies show that migrants may face long periods of uncertainty (Burrell & Horscelmann, 2019; Kubal, 2014; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; McMahon & Sigona, 2018; Schapendonk, 2017). Processes of returning detained migrants to host countries may use or threaten violence in order to coerce compliance and deter further attempts to migrate (Korhonen and Siitonen, 2018; Kubal, 2014; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; Musaro, 2018; Schapendonk, 2017; Thorsen, 2017; Williams, 2015). However, it is noted in the literature that these measures are often insufficient to discourage reattempted entry, leading to a cycle of migration and deportation (Brigden & Mainwaring, 2016; Kaytaz, 2016; Mandic, 2017). Often countries of origin lack the capacity to successfully reintegrate migrants (Mouthaan, 2019; Veronesi, 2015) and refugees and asylum seekers may face these threats when expelled to the countries they fled from, even in cases where they are deemed 'safe' (Albahari, 2018).

Another common threat to migrants found in the literature was ***discrimination***. Discrimination is a complex and nuanced phenomenon that can be both perceived and experienced in overt and covert forms by migrants (Ossipow et al., 2019) as well as host citizens (Bian, 2017; Ross, 2018). Moreover, it is also experienced along dimensions such as gender (Faist, 2017; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016) and age (Melloni & Humphris, 2019). It is often experienced by migrants in the forms of racism, sexual harassment, physical abuse and high levels of poverty (Fiedler, 2017; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; Nancheva, 2016; Nishiyama, 2019; Ossipow et al., 2019). Migrants may have their civil and human rights infringed as a result of discrimination (Leko, 2017, Stansfield & Stone, 2018; Tuckett, 2016) or be excluded from opportunities to improve their social and economic status (Awori, 2019; Ossipow et al., 2019; Sewart, 2019; Sutkute, 2019). A prominent sub-theme of discrimination within the literature was concerned with hate speech within host societies (Blanco-Herrero & Calderon, 2019; Guðjónsdóttir & Loftsdóttir, 2017; Tuckett, 2016). Moreover, discrimination may have detrimental impacts for integration not only because it closes material opportunities for migrants to do so, but also

become a lens through which migrants come to perceive themselves vis-à-vis other migrant and host groups (Fina & Tseng, 2017; Ossipow et al., 2019).

The theme of ***violence and abuse*** often overlaps with death and discrimination and examined what forms of physical attacks migrants may experience as well as by whom. Violence and abuse are common experiences of the journey to Europe (Alexander, 2019; Burrell & Horscelmann, 2019; Kaytaz, 2016) and many migrants report being aware of this danger before leaving their countries of origin (Musaro, 2018). Criminal entities ranging from gangs to terrorists may prey on migrants and use violence to exploit them (Alexander, 2019; Brigden & Mainwairing, 2016; Kaytaz, 2016). However, it is noted by some that experiences of violence from smugglers vary widely based on research with migrant groups (Brigden & Mainwairing, 2016). State agents, such as border officials, may also perpetrate physical violence and abuse against migrants (Alexander, 2019; Innes, 2016; Kaytaz, 2016). Migrants may further experience violence and abuse from host citizens (Bayramoğlu & Lunenborg, 2018; Coskun, 2018; Kuschminder & Waidler, 2019). Migrants who have been victims of violence and abuse can suffer from psychological trauma as a result (Burrell & Horscelmann, 2019; Kaytaz, 2016).

Modern slavery was discussed to a lesser degree within the literature and was often associated as an issue intertwined with human trafficking (Esson, 2015; Lynch & Hadjimatheou, 2017). Transit countries, particularly in North Africa, were identified as key locations where migrants may be forced into modern slavery (Triandaphylldiou, 2017). Additionally, the lack of legal status for many migrants makes them highly vulnerable to modern slavery whether in transit or destination countries (Ambrossini, 2017).

7.4 Threats to host countries

Although the sample was primarily concerned with narratives and experiences of migrants, several key themes arose with regards to threats to host countries within the literature. Major issues included radicalisation and terrorism, crime, economic threats, civil unrest and disease. Details are provided in Table 17.

Table 17. Threats to host countries reported in review documents.

Threat to host country	Description	Sources
Violent Radicalisation and Terrorism	Host states and citizens widely perceive a positive correlation between increased migration and increased terrorism.	Abbas, 2019; Amores and Arcila, 2019; Battistelli, Galantino, Farruggia and Ricotta, 2016; Bokert et al., 2018; Borbeau, 2015; Burrell & Horscelmann, 2019; Cuttita, 2014; Guidry, 2018; Innes, 2016; Jaskulowski, 2019; Kinnvall et al., 2018; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Mattelart and d'Haenens, 2014; Mazzucelli et al., 2016; Musaro and Parmiggiani, 2017; Nishiyama, 2019; Pavlovich, 2018; Sarpong, 2019; Sutkute, 2019; Vives,

		2017; Vollmer, 2016; Abbas, 2019; Alkopher and Blanc, 2017; Zanfrini, 2017; Gazzotti, 2019
	Muslim migrants are primarily perceived and portrayed as being terrorist threats.	Abbas, 2019; Burrell & Horscelmann, 2019; Leidig, 2019; Nishiyama, 2019; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Pogliano, 2016; Sutkute, 2019
	Young migrants are perceived to be at risk of radicalisation.	Abbas, 2019; Gazzotti, 2019
	Media represents migration as a terrorist threat.	Battistelli et al. 2016; Borbeau, 2015; Caviedes, 2015; Ceccorulli, 2019; Chouliaraki, 2017; Kovář, 2019; Mattelart and d'Haenens, 2014; Pogliano, 2016; Sutkute, 2019
	Human trafficking and terrorism may be related threats with the former funding the latter.	Chuen, 2019; Sanchez, 2017
	Remittances may be a means of financing terrorist organizations.	Gryshova, Kofman and Petrenko, 2019
Minor, Serious and Organised Crime	Migrants are widely perceived by host states and citizens as increasing crime rates.	Alkopher & Blanc, 2017; Caviedes, 2015; Ceccorulli, 2019; Hermanni & Neumann, 2019; Kovář, 2019; Stansfield & Stone, 2018; Sutkute, 2019; Triandafyllidou, 2018
	Criminal actors capitalise on the aspirations of migrants to EU.	Ambrosini, 2017; Baird & van Liempt, 2016; Krichker & Sarma, 2019; Sanchez, 2017
	Social and cultural differences between migrants and hosts may lead to increased crime.	Strielkowski & Bilan, 2016
	Networks created by migration are linked to drug smuggling.	Vives, 2017; Sanchez, 2017
Economic	Migrants compete with host citizens for employment opportunities.	Amores & Arcila, 2019; Eberl et al., 2018; Kovář, 2019; Pavlovic, 2018; Pérez-Paredes et al. 2017; Sarpong, 2019; Scuzzarello, 2019; Stansfield & Stone, 2018; Strielkowski & Bilan, 2016
	Migration are perceived to place strains on welfare systems.	Alkopher & Blanc, 2017; Gryshova et al., 2019; Hawthorne, 2019; Kovář, 2019; Mazzucelli et al., 2016; Ossipow et al. 2019; Pavlovic, 2018

	Interventions to rescue, settle and integrate migrants are financially costly.	Ceccorulli, 2019; Kotoyannos et al., 2019; Sutkute, 2019
	Economically fragile states struggle to cope with the long-term and short-term impacts of migration.	Hawthorne, 2019; Innes, 2016; Sarpong, 2019
Civil Unrest	Misinformation and disinformation on social and conventional media regarding migration issues may fuel public disorder events in host states.	Blanco-Herrero & Calderon, 2019; Kotoyannos et al., 2019; Mazzucelli et al., 2016
	Migrants may engage in protests and riots in host countries.	Cuttitta, 2014
	Issues resulting from migration can fuel far-right extremism.	Ekman, 2018; Hermanni & Neumann, 2019
Disease	Perception that migrants carry and transmit infectious diseases within host countries.	Ceccorulli, 2019; Strbova et al., 2019
	Migrants may be unaware that they are carrying infectious diseases.	Innes, 2016

By far the most common threat to host countries associated with migration reported within our dataset was ***violent radicalisation and terrorism***. There is a general consensus that host states and citizens within the EU widely perceive a positive correlation between increased migration and increased threats of terrorism (Abbas, 2019; Amores & Arcila, 2019; Battistelli et al., Ricotta, 2016; Bokert et al., 2018; Borbeau, 2015; Burrell & Horscelmann, 2019; Cuttita, 2014; Guidry, 2018; Innes, 2016; Jaskulowski, 2019; Kinnvall et al., 2018; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Mattelart & d'Haenens, 2014; Mazzucelli et al., 2016; Musaro & Parmiggiani, 2017; Nishiyama, 2019; Pavlovich, 2018; Sarpong, 2019; Sutkute, 2019; Vives, 2017; Vollmer, 2016). Specifically, Muslims (Abbas, 2019; Burrell & Horscelmann, 2019; Leidig, 2019; Nishiyama, 2019; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Pogliano, 2016; Sutkute, 2019) and young migrants (Abbas, 2019; Gazzotti, 2019) are viewed by hosts as being at-risk groups. Chuen (2019) and Sanchez (2017) make links between terrorist and human trafficking networks, with the former funding the latter. Moreover, Gryshova et al. (2019) posit that remittances from migrants to countries of origin may finance terrorist organisations. Several sources argue that representations of migrants within the media and public discourse contributes significantly to the association of migration with terrorism (Battistelli et al. 2016; Borbeau, 2015; Caviedes, 2015; Ceccorulli, 2019; Chouliaraki, 2017; Kovář, 2019; Mattelart & d'Haenens, 2014; Pogliano, 2016; Sutkute, 2019). Although there is a strong agreement in the literature that migration and terrorism have become interlinked in host perceptions, most authors are cautious about the degree to which the issues are empirically tied. Authors that deal with the connections between migration and terrorism often address simultaneously that terrorist acts have been committed by migrants, but also that the correlation is highly overstated (Abbas, 2019; Alkopher & Blanc, 2017; Gazzotti, 2019; Zanfrini, 2017).

Another threat often associated with increased migration are ***minor, serious and organised crimes*** (Alkopher & Blanc, 2017; Caviedes, 2015; Ceccorulli, 2019; Hermanni & Neumann, 2019; Kovář, 2019; Stansfield & Stone, 2018; Sutkute, 2019; Triandafyllidou, 2018). Key concerns were criminal entities capitalising on the aspirations of migrants (Ambrosini, 2017; Baird & van Liempt, 2016; Krichker & Sarma, 2019; Sanchez, 2017) and establishing and consolidating their networks along migrant routes and destinations (Vives, 2017; Sanchez, 2017). Moreover, social and cultural differences are posited by Strielkowski and Bilan (2016) as a potential avenue for criminal activity when host-migrant relations deteriorate.

Economic threats were widely discussed. Migrants may threaten host perceptions of economic stability through increased competition for jobs (Amores & Arcila, 2019; Eberl et al., 2018; Kovář, 2019; Pavlovic, 2018; Pérez-Paredes et al. 2017; Sarpong, 2019; Scuzzarello, 2019; Stansfield & Stone, 2018; Strielkowski & Bilan, 2016). Additionally, migrants are often perceived as placing strains on social welfare provisions (Alkopher & Blanc, 2017; Gryshova et al., 2019; Hawthorne, 2019; Kovář, 2019; Mazzucelli et al., 2016; Ossipow et al. 2019; Pavlovic, 2018) and interventions to rescue and integrate migrants can be financially costly (Ceccorulli, 2019; Kotoyannos et al., 2019; Sutkute, 2019). Of the host countries most susceptible to economic problems resulting from migration, those undergoing financial crises or economic fragility are considered to be at risk (Hawthorne, 2019; Innes, 2016; Sarpong, 2019).

The literature also demonstrates that ***civil unrest*** may occur as a result of migration and threaten political stability. Misinformation and disinformation spread on social and conventional media regarding migration issues may fuel public disorder events in host states (Blanco-Herrero & Calderon, 2019; Kotoyannos et al., 2019; Mazzucelli et al., 2016). Increased migration may cause surges in far-right extremist activity (Ekman, 2018; Hermanni & Neumann, 2019) and migrants themselves may cause disorder through riots and protests (Cuttitta, 2014).

A final issue of concern discussed in the literature was pertaining to the ***spread of diseases***. On the one hand, host citizens may disproportionately believe migrants to be carriers of infectious diseases, particularly HIV/AIDS and Ebola (Ceccorulli, 2019; Strbova et al., 2019). While these fears may not always be objective, Innes (2016) raises that migrants may also be unaware that they are ill and require treatment.

7.5 Mutual threats to hosts and migrants

The above review shows that threats to hosts and migrants are not mutually exclusive and that there may be considerable overlaps in issues. Therefore, this SLR also took into consideration mutual threats that affect both host and migrant communities in order to ensure attention to the nuances of security issues surrounding migration (see Table 18 for details).

Table 18. Mutual threats to Hosts and Migrants reported in review documents.

Mutual Threats to Hosts and Migrants	Description	Sources
Human Smuggling and Trafficking	Human trafficking and human smuggling are often merged together in public discourse but are very distinct in practice.	Mandic, 2017; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; Maher, 2018; Latonero & Kift, 2018
	Risky smugglers threaten migrant lives and necessitate costly rescue operations.	Albahari, 2018; Kuschminder, 2017; Sanchez, 2017
	Migrants face higher chances of being exploited by smugglers and traffickers the further they are from their country of origin and personal networks.	Biard & van Liempt, 2016
	Digital media may be used by human traffickers to spread false information and lure victims (CF: Referent Subjects - Criminal Networks).	Bakewell & Jolivet, 2015; Latonero & Kift, 2018; Lynch & Hadjimatheou, 2017

	Migrants may be exploited and abused by human traffickers and smugglers (CF: Referent Objects - Migrants).	Sanchez, 2017
	Unaccompanied minors may fall victim to trafficking and various forms of labour and sex exploitation.	Esson, 2015
	False information from human smugglers can lead to physical and psychological distress for migrants.	Kayatz, 2016
	Increased issue salience has prioritised countermeasures against human trafficking in policy and practices.	Lynch & Hadjimatheou, 2017
	Poor migration management and policies can permit and exacerbate the operation of human trafficking and smuggling networks.	Maher, 2017; Maher, 2018; Mandic, 2017
	Migrants and migration management stakeholders / practitioners often have differing perceptions of human smugglers as journey facilitators and criminal threats, respectively.	Maher, 2018; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; Mandic, 2017; Sanchez, 2017
	Human trafficking and migrant smuggling have been securitised in Europe.	Moreno-Lax, 2018; Sanchez, 2017
Corruption	Border officials may allow smuggling operations to continue in return for bribes.	Mandic, 2017; Sarpong, 2019; Schapendonk, 2017
	Corruption through client-patron relationships arrangements can undermine the functioning of state institutions and enable criminal networks to operate freely.	Mandic, 2017; Schapendonk, 2017
Domestic Violent Extremism	Hate speech and incitements to violence on social media can lead to social disorder and violence.	Blanco-Herrero & Calderon, 2019
Environmental	Environmental threats in countries of origin may serve as a push factor that increases migration to the EU.	Geddes, 2015

By far the most discussed mutual threat was ***human smuggling and trafficking***. Although the literature agrees that these two types of criminal activity are often erroneously considered the same (see Mandic, 2017; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; Maher, 2018; Latonero & Kift, 2018), both can cause significant harm to migrants and host societies. Indeed, many of the authors state that these issues are key concerns on European policy agendas (Lynch & Hadjimatheou, 2017) and have become securitised as the 'war on smuggling' (Moreno-Lax, 2018; Sanchez, 2017). The literature also warns that poor migration management policies and practices may exacerbate the issue of trafficking and smuggling rather than resolving them (Maher, 2017; Maher, 2018; Mandic, 2017). As such, careful consideration of the issue and unintended consequences is advised.

In terms of the threats caused by trafficking and smuggling, unscrupulous smugglers may subject migrants to hazardous journeys that endanger their lives and require costly rescue operations (Albahari, 2018; Kuschminder, 2017; Sanchez, 2017). Migrants may be abused and exploited by traffickers and smugglers over the course of the journey and after arrival at destination countries (Sanchez, 2017), particularly minors (Esson, 2015). Additionally, smugglers and traffickers may exploit social and digital media to spread disinformation about Europe to target migrants (Bakewell & Jolivet, 2015; Latonero & Kift, 2018; Lynch & Hadjimatheou, 2017), which may lead to physical and

psychological distress to migrants (Kayatz, 2016). However, the literature also pointed out that migrants have diverging perceptions of smugglers compared to policymaker and practitioners, with the latter viewing them as a threat while the former view them as vital to their journey to the EU (Maher, 2018; Mainwaring & Brigden, 2016; Mandic, 2017; Sanchez, 2017).

Another mutual threat pertinent to migration is ***corruption*** of state officials, which may exploit migrants, allow criminals to operate freely and damage the functioning of state institutions (Mandic, 2017; Schapendonk, 2017; Sarpong, 2019). ***Domestic violent extremism*** may also harm both migrants and host societies as host citizens become radicalised over the issue of migration particularly through digital channels (Blanco-Herrero & Calderon, 2019). Finally, ***environmental threats***, particularly climate change, may act as a push factor for migrants to seek entry into the EU (Geddes, 2015; see also Section 5).

8 Border issues addressed in the data set

Of the final sample reviewed, 48% of the literature addressed border issues surrounding migration. Due to the multidisciplinary nature of the dataset, there was a significant degree in variation in how borders were conceptualised and analysed. In order to capture the rich diversity of research on border issues, the analysis of the dataset focused on four categories: (1) securitisation of EU borders, (2) legal borders, (3) physical borders/externalisation of EU Borders and (4) symbolic borders.

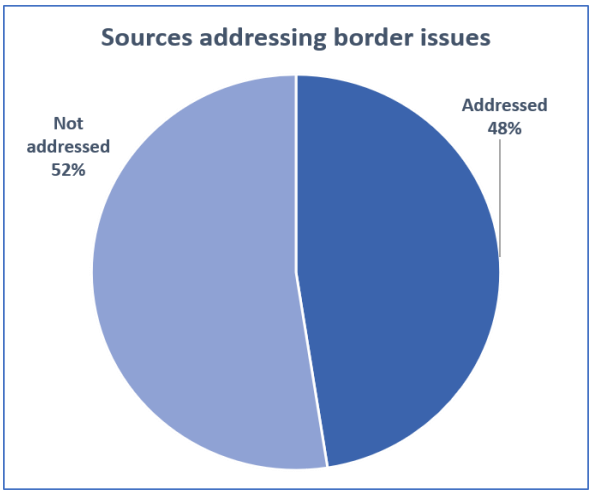

Figure 12. Sources addressing border issues in the dataset.

8.1 Securitisation of EU borders

A prominent framework for understanding border issues found within the literature was securitisation theory. As discussed in Section 7, securitisation is an appropriate means of understanding the processes through which narratives and discourse come to shape security practice. Buzan et al. (1997) formulate securitisation as taking place in the following phases: (1) an event occurs that raises the salience of an issue, (2) a securitising actor frames the issue as an existential threat, (3) an audience accepts or rejects the framing and (4) if successful, the issue is securitised and extraordinary measures are implemented.

To draw comparisons between how the literature understands securitisation of border issues in the context of migration to the EU, the literature was coded in order to identify:

1. Who are securitising actors?
2. What are the threat frames used to securitise the issue?
3. What are the securitised countermeasures implemented as a result?[1]

Ultimately, the securitisation of borders emerged as an overarching theme that impacts how the EU border regime has developed and is perceived by migrants and migration stakeholders. Table 19 provides an overview of securitisation issues addressed in the dataset.

[1] As noted above, audience receptivity to the securitisation of an issue is critical to its success. For fuller analysis of host perceptions of migration issues, see Section 5.

Table 19. Securitisation of border issues reported in review documents.

Themes	Description/Subthemes	Sources
Securitising Actors	Political Actors/Entities	Bourbeau, 2015; Cantat, 2015; D'Amato & Lucarelli, 2019; Hintjens, 2019; Jaskulowski, 2019; Kazharski, 2018; Kinnvall et al., 2018; Wonders, 2017; Zanfrini, 2017
	Practitioners	Bourbeau, 2015; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Musaro, 2018
	International and supranational organisations	Ceccorulli & Lucarelli, 2017; D'Amato & Lucarelli, 2019; Geddes, 2015; Hintjens, 2019; Jaskulowski, 2019; Kinnvall et al., 2018; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Musaro, 2018; Wonders, 2017
	Media	Caviedes, 2015; Ceccorulli, 2019; Lenette & Miskovic, 2018; Zanfrini, 2017
Migration Threat Frames	Migration framed as a 'crisis' with securitised implications for borders	Burrell and Horscelmann, 2019; Musaro & Parmiggiani, 2017; Vollmer, 2016
	Terrorism, crime and migration are framed as indistinct issues	Bourbeau, 2015; Casas-Cortez et al. 2015; Chuen, 2019; Gazzotti, 2019; Hintjens, 2019; Krichker & Sarma, 2019; Lenette & Miskovic, 2018; Mattelart and d'Haenens, 2014; Mazzucelli, 2016; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Sperling & Webber, 2019
	Migration management and rescue operations framed in 'war' terms	D'Appollonia, 2016; Hintjens, 2019; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Vives, 2017
	Migration framed both in humanitarian and security terms	Brigden and Mainwaring, 2016; Casas-Cortez et al. 2015, Cuttitta, 2014; Hintjens, 2019; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Musaro, 2018; Williams, 2015
Securitised Border Responses	Militarisation of EU border infrastructure and practices as a response to increased migration	Andersson, 2016; Bourbeau, 2015; Brigden and Mainwaring, 2016; Casas-Cortez et al. 2015; Cuttitta, 2014; Jaskulowski, 2019; Krichker & Sarma, 2019; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Vives, 2017 ; Wonders, 2017
	Merging of securitised and humanitarian border practices	Brigden and Mainwaring, 2016; Casas-Cortez et al. 2015; Cuttitta, 2014; Hintjens, 2019; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Musaro, 2018

	Securitisation of borders is facilitated by advanced technologies	Andersson, 2016; Cantat, 2015; Casas-Cortez et al. 2015
	Outsourcing of border controls	Brigden and Mainwaring, 2016; Cantat, 2015; Williams & Mountz., 2018
	'Collective' securitisation through harmonisation of border policies of EU Member States	Brigden and Mainwaring, 2016; D'Amato & Lucarelli, 2019; Ceccorulli, 2019; Kinnvall et al., 2018; Musaro, 2018; Sperling & Webber, 2019; Stutkute, 2019; Wonders, 2017

Determining who securitises an issue is an important step in determining what trajectory its securitisation will take. Of the literature reviewed, the most frequently referred to securitising actors were ***political actors and entities***, which include governments, political parties and politicians (Bourbeau, 2015; Cantat, 2015; D'Amato & Lucarelli, 2019; Hintjens, 2019; Jaskulowski, 2019; Kazharski, 2018; Kinnvall et al., 2018; Wonders, 2017; Zanfrini, 2017). ***International and supranational organisations***, such as the EU and UN, were also regularly referred to as securitising actors for border issues. The ***media*** is suggested to play a key role as a speech actor and especially in framing the issue of migration and border controls in security terms (Caviedes, 2015; Ceccorulli, 2019; Lenette & Miskovic, 2018; Zanfrini, 2017). Less mentioned were ***practitioners***, predominantly Frontex and other border agencies (Bourbeau, 2015; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Musaro, 2018). In sum, these actors are argued to play a key role in shaping debates in how borders are managed and moving border issues from a politicised matter to a security issue.

Several sub-themes were identified in the literature on what ***types of frames*** are used in the securitisation of borders. A major theme was issue interdependency driving the securitisation of borders and migration. Numerous authors agreed that migration is often treated as indistinct from terrorism and crime, which are already securitised, leading to borders being treated as a frontline (Bourbeau, 2015; Casas-Cortez et al. 2015; Chuen, 2019; Gazzotti, 2019; Hintjens, 2019; Krichker & Sarma, 2019; Lenette & Miskovic, 2018; Mattelart & d'Haenens, 2014; Mazzucelli, 2016; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Sperling & Webber, 2019). The 'crisis' framing (Burrell and Horscelmann, 2019; Musaro & Parmiggiani, 2017; Vollmer, 2016) and 'war' framing (D'Appollonia, 2016; Hintjens, 2019; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Vives, 2017) of border operations and migration management are also argued to contribute to securitisation. Interestingly, a relatively distinctive feature of the securitisation of migration and border issues is that they are often framed both as security threats as well as a humanitarian concern (Brigden and Mainwaring, 2016; Casas-Cortez et al. 2015, Cuttitta, 2014; Hintjens, 2019; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Musaro, 2018; Williams, 2015). This leads to unique responses that place practitioners into two roles as both security and humanitarian agents (CF: Section 5.4 Narratives transmitted in the mainstream media).

Several key ***types of border responses*** were identified. The most common agreement between the literature surveyed was that an outcome of the securitisation of migration was the militarisation of border infrastructure and practices (Andersson, 2016; Bourbeau, 2015; Brigden & Mainwaring, 2016; Casas-Cortez et al. 2015; Cuttitta, 2014; Jaskulowski, 2019; Krichker & Sarma, 2019; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Vives, 2017; Wonders, 2017). The framing of border issues as both a security threat and a humanitarian problem was argued to also be reflected in border security practices (e.g., Brigden and Mainwaring,

2016; Casas-Cortez et al. 2015; Cuttitta, 2014; Hintjens, 2019; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Musaro, 2018). Additionally, the high degree to which borders are becoming securitised is argued to be facilitated by the deployment of advanced technologies and surveillance systems (Andersson, 2016; Cantat, 2015; Casas-Cortez et al. 2015). The outsourcing of border security through privatisation (see Section 8. Physical Borders) and border externalisation to countries of origin and transit outside of the EU (see Section 8.4) was also contended to be an outcome of securitisation (Brigden & Mainwaring, 2016; Cantat, 2015; Williams & Mountz., 2018). A major sub-theme was that the harmonisation of Member State border policies through the EU's border regime has led to a 'collective securitisation' of borders due to issues such as the protection of the Schengen Area (Brigden & Mainwaring, 2016; D'Amato & Lucarelli, 2019; Ceccorulli, 2019; Kinnvall et al., 2018; Musaro, 2018; Sperling & Webber, 2019; Stutkute, 2019; Wonders, 2017).

8.2 Legal border issues

This category explores the key policy and legal instruments and issues discussed within the dataset. Additionally, it examines key issues and dilemmas raised in the literature regarding treaties, policies and regulations both at a micro and macro level. Some of the key issues raised are how border policies impact migration flows, migrant experiences and perceptions, and migration management practitioners, particularly border officials. It also looks at theme that emerged from the literature regarding the 'criminalisation of migration' and its impact on migration patterns and responses. The issue of the legal status of migrants was also analysed as well as the enforcement of migration laws. Finally, issues surrounding the treaties between EU Member States as well as non-EU member states are discussed with references to issues of collective action and international cooperation. Details of these discussions are given in Table 20.

Table 20. Legal border issues reported in the dataset.

Themes	Description/Subthemes	Sources
Border Policies	Closed-border policies encourage illegal migration and strengthen criminal networks.	Ambrosini, 2017; Chuen, 2019; De Clerck, 2015; Mandic, 2017
	Open-border policies may cause problems in host states and neighbouring countries.	Ceccorulli, 2019; Crawley & Hagen-Zanker, 2018;
	Migration policies do not sufficiently permit the right to seek asylum or ensure protection from refoulement.	Albahari, 2018; Belloni, 2016; Brigden & Mainwaring, 2016; Ferreira, 2016; Hintjens, 2019; Vollmer, 2016
	Legal restrictions on border officers restrict their ability to carry out their duties.	Lynch, 2017
	Border and migration policies are only as effective as the state's ability to enforce them.	Massey, 2015
	There is a disconnect between migration laws and their enforcement on the ground.	Moreno-Lax, 2018
Migration Criminalisation	Merging migration with criminal law as a tactic for reconstituting borders.	Andersson, 2016; Wonders, 2017; Chena, 2014; D'Amato, S & Lucarelli, 2019;
	'War on smuggling' laws and the criminalisation of migration introduces hard-line policies against migrants.	Albahari, 2018; Baird & van Liempt, 2016; Brigden &

		Mainwaring, 2016; D'Amato & Lucarelli, 2019; Matera & Tayor, 2014; Mazzara, 2015
Legal Status of Migrants	Insufficient legal protection of human and civil rights for migrants make them vulnerable to exploitation.	Albahari, 2018; Awori, 2019; Cantat, 2015; Esson, 2015; Ferreira, 2016; Tuckett, 2016
	Determining whether migrants are eligible for asylum based on current legal frameworks is ambiguous.	Albahari, 2018; Crawley & Hagen-Zanker, 2018; Kubal, 2014; Mainwaring, 2016; Nancheva, 2016; Tuckett, 2016; Witteborn, 2015
	Migrants can be stuck in legal limbo for lengthy periods of time.	Alexander, 2019; Brigden & Mainwaring, 2016; Cuttita, 2014; Kubal, 2014; Schapendonk, 2017
	Smugglers and migrants may exploit legal loopholes in order to enter the EU.	Ambrosini, 2017; Brigden & Mainwaring, 2016; Kubal, 2014; Matera & Tayor, 2014; Papadopoulos & Fratsea, 2015;
	Border officials may not adhere to national/international law when determining whether to allow migrants to cross borders or conducting rescue missions.	Alexander, 2019; Brigden & Mainwaring, 2016; Crawley & Hagen-Zanker, 2018; Ferreira, 2016; Jaskulowski, 2019; Krichker & Sarma, 2019; Matera & Tayor, 2014
	Decisions to return migrants are not always enforced.	Ambrosini, 2017; Belloni, 2016; Cuttita, 2014
	Better migration laws are needed to allow economic migrants access to where they are needed in the EU.	Pérez-Paredes, 2017
	Most irregular migrants in the EU arrived legally then fell into illegality.	Ferreira, 2016; Wonders, 2017
EU Treaties to Manage Migration	Problems of cooperation and developing common policies between EU Member States due to diverging national interests.	Alkopher & Blanc, 2017;Baird & van Liempt, 2016; Musaro & Parmiggiani, 2017; Nancheva, 2016; Bokert et al., 2018
	Domestic issues caused by migration may destabilise the Schengen Area and EU integration.	Alkopher & Blanc, 2017; Borkert et al. 2018; Kazharski, 2018
	Harmonisation of migration policies in the EU affects sovereignty to set migration policy.	Bourbeau, 2015; Kazharski, 2018
	EU role as a mediator, guarantor and enforcer of migration treaties.	Albahari, 2018; Cantat, 2016; Ceccorulli & Lucarelli, 2017; D'Amato, S & Lucarelli, 2019; Ferreira, 2016; Mattelart & d'Haenens, 2014
	EU migration policies are at times self-contradictory in their objectives.	Mattelart & d'Haenens, 2014
Treaties with Non-EU States to	The EU and its Member States extend border policies to transit countries and countries of origin.	Ceccorulli, 2019; Albahari, 2018; Bernardie-Tahir &

Manage Migration		Schmoll, 2014; Brigden & Mainwaring, 2016; Casas-Cortez et al. 2015; Cuttita, 2014; D'Amato, S. & Lucarelli, 2019; Erensu & Kaşli, 2016; Johnson & Jones, 2018; MacMahon & Sigona, 2018; Uberti, 2014; Vives, 2017; Leko, 2017
	Non-EU states use migration as leverage to pursue national interests.	Alexander, 2019; Chuen, 2019; Johnson & Jones, 2018
	Member States may turn to bilateral negotiations on migration policy with non-EU states.	Brigden & Mainwaring, 2016; Johnson & Jones, 2018; Musaro & Parmiggiani, 2017; Uberti, 2014
	Countries of origin emphasise the need for more pathways for legal migration in order to manage it.	Mouthaan, 2019

8.3 Physical borders

The category of physical borders focused on the tangible aspects of border issues, such as border infrastructure and practices. In addition to examining what the literature considered key contemporary trends, sub-themes also assessed the impact of responses such as border hardening, geography and the deployment of smart technologies on migration and border management. Moreover, problematised issues and border dilemmas emerged from the literature. Table 21 shows a summary of the issues.

Table 21. Physical border issues reported in review documents.

Themes	Description/Subthemes	Sources
Border Infrastructure	The hardening of land borders has made sea crossings more common.	Johnson & Jones, 2018
	Deploying smart technologies and enhanced barriers at borders may be considered a form of border militarisation.	Alkopher & Blanc, 2017; Casas-Cortez, 2015; Johnson & Jones, 2018
	Islands have become key strategic sites in maritime border management.	Bernardie-Tahir & Schmoll, 2014; Cuttitta, 2014; Orsini et al. 2019
	Despite innovation and investment in barriers and surveillance, border infrastructure remains vulnerable to penetration.	Andersson, 2016; Albahari, 2018; Alexander, 2019; Gazzotti, 2019
	Border infrastructure is framed by the media as sites of crisis.	Krichker & Sarma, 2019
	Border infrastructure alone is insufficient for dealing with a complex social, political, economic and cultural phenomenon as migration.	McMahon & Sigona, 2018
Border Practices	EU seeks to limit immigration through containment and deterrence.	Albahari, 2018; Hinjens, 2019

	Border security has been supra-nationalised through Frontex.	Albahari, 2018; Erensu & Kaşli, 2016; Maher, 2018; Nancheva, 2016
	Heightened border security as a result of the 'war on smuggling' is politically and legally palatable.	Albahari, 2018;
	EU has adapted its practices in order to mitigate loss of life in the Mediterranean.	Ferreira, 2016; Mazzara, 2015
	Border guards are often subjected to blame by the public for immigration.	Kovář, 2019
	Borders are a critical site to counter human trafficking.	Lynch, 2017
	Border operations are often militarised in practice and discourse.	Maher, 2018
	Private agencies are sub-contracted to carry out border security.	Andersson, 2016; MacKenzie & Lucio, 2019; Williams, 2015
	NGOs and Civil Society may work in tandem with border security.	Barbeulescu & Grugel, 2016; Vives, 2017
Border Dilemmas	Border hardening is positively correlated with high numbers of migrant casualties.	Albahari, 2018; Ambrosini, 2017; Brigden & Mainwairing, 2016; Cuttitta, 2014; Hinjens, 2019; Jaskulowski, 2019; Johnson & Jones, 2018; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Maher, 2018; Robins, 2019
	'Border crisis' is a self-perpetuating dilemma, whereby hardening of borders lead to innovation by criminal entrepreneurs and consolidation of their networks.	Andersson, 2016; Ambrosini, 2017; Chuen, 2019; Maher, 2017; Maher, 2018
	Security dilemmas cause divisions between Member States over border management.	Alkopher & Blanc, 2017;
	Securitisation of borders may lead to alienation among migrant communities and a sense of insecurity among host citizens.	D'Appollonia, 2016
	Enhanced border security does not deter migrants from attempting to cross.	Johnson & Jones, 2018; Maher, 2017; Thorsen, 2017; Williams & Mountz, 2018
	Intensified border practices brought about by 'war on smuggling' may cause more harm to migrants.	Moreno-Lax, 2018

8.4 Externalisation and internalisation of EU borders

Border ***externalisation*** refers to the transfer of border controls to non-EU countries and was a key theme in discussions on border issues within the literature (see Section 8.2). This sub-section presents the impacts of the externalisation strategy on the EU and its Member States, non-EU Member States (particularly countries of origin and 'transit') as well as on migrants. Another key issue that emerged from the literature is the ***internalisation*** of borders, which refers to practices that extend borders to within the territorial boundaries of the host state (cp. Ceccorulli & Lucarelli, 2017; Musaro, 2018; Nancheva, 2016). Taken together, the internalisation and externalisation of EU borders is argued by

Tazzoli (2015) to represent the 'deterritorialization' of the EU, as borders controls become both less visible within the EU and yet ubiquitous in Member State territories and far beyond EU boundaries (cp. Table 22).

Table 22. Externalisation and Internalisation of border issues reported in review documents.

Themes	Description/Subthemes	Sources
Impact of Externalisation on EU / Member States	Strengthening borders entails exportation of physical borders to neighbouring countries.	Alexander, 2019; Geddes, 2015; Heller, 2014; Johnson & Jones, 2018; Tazzoli, 2015
	Border externalisation leads to the deterritorialization of Europe and leads to ambiguities in where borders begin and end.	Tazzoli, 2015
	Border externalisation entails the transfer of sovereignty to areas outside of national boundaries and other states.	Barbulescu & Grugel, 2016; Geddes, 2015; Heller, 2014; Williams, 2015
	Border externalisation is a strategy to protect the survival of the Schengen Area.	Ceccorulli, 2019; Alkopher & Blanc, 2017
Impact of Externalisation on Non-EU States	Border cooperation is tied to aid and trade.	Alexander, 2019; Barbulescu & Grugel, 2016; De Clerck, 2015; Gazzotti, 2019; Johnson & Jones, 2018; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018
	Non-EU states have vested interests in managing migration flows on behalf of EU Member States.	Maher, 2017; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018
	The externalisation of EU borders intends to create a buffer zone between the EU and transit countries.	De Clerck, 2015; Kuschminder & Waidler, 2019; Erensu & Kaşli, 2016
	Transit countries en-route to the EU become responsible for protecting EU borders.	MacKenzie & Lucio, 2019; Rodriguez, 2019; Sarpong, 2019; Erensu & Kaşli, 2016; Leko, 2017; Williams, 2015
	Awareness campaigns are a means of preventing migration to the EU in countries of origin.	Alexander, 2019; Rodriguez, 2019
	EU and Member States fund detention centres in transit countries.	Schapendonk, 2017
Impact of Externalisation on Migrants	Border externalisation allows for the externalisation of legal responsibilities to international law and human rights to third parties.	Alexander, 2019; Barbulescu & Grugel, 2016; Johnson & Jones, 2018; Tazzoli, 2015; Williams & Mountz, 2018
	Border externalisation has made migrants more vulnerable to abuse, exploitation and violence in transit countries.	Cantat, 2015; Jashari et al. 2019; Johnson & Jones, 2018; Rodriguez, 2019; Tazzoli, 2015

	The externalisation of EU borders has entailed migrants being trapped in border zones.	Thorsen, 2017
Internalisation of EU Borders	Border control measures have spread across the EU and within Member States despite the Schengen Area.	Johnson & Jones, 2018; D'Amato & Lucarelli, 2019; Nancheva, 2016; Triandaphylldiou, 2017
	Some member states act unilaterally in order to secure their own borders.	Alkopher & Blanc, 2017; Cantat, 2016;
	EU migration policies blend internal and external security.	Ceccorulli & Lucarelli, 2017; Musaro, 2018; Nancheva, 2016

8.5 Symbolic bordering

Symbolic bordering is a frequent conceptual border issue discussed in the dataset that has a high degree of relevance to narratives of migration. ***Symbolic bordering*** is comprised of exclusionary practices, often discursive, that in effect keep migrants and refugees outside of symbolic spaces of representation and deliberation in EU host countries (Chouliaraki, 2017). In sum, symbolic borders are representations of borders rather than tangible boundaries that are found in society, culture, ideology, identity and cyberspace. The issue of symbolic borders was present in the literature in terms of their relevance, manifestations and effects on the EU and nation states, migrants, ideology, digital technology as well as psychological impacts. Table 23 presents an overview of the issues discussed in the dataset.

Table 23. Symbolic border issues reported in reviewed documents.

Themes	Description/Subthemes	Sources
EU and the Nation State	Borders are a representation of national identity and sovereignty.	Boukala & Dimitrakopoulou, 2018; Ceccorulli, 2019; Milivojevic, 2018; Robins, 2019; Cuttitta, 2014; Scuzzarello, 2019
	Designating countries of Origin, Landing, Transit and Destination creates hierarchies between EU Member States.	Cantat, 2015
	Borders have become de-territorialized in the sense that they do not only represent sovereign states but are also complex socio-political practices.	Milivojevic, 2018
	Border narratives and practices make it increasingly difficult to separate national and supranational borders in the EU.	Nancheva, 2016
	Narratives of border security reinforce symbolic borders between the EU and its external boundaries.	Vives, 2016
Migrants	Determining who are 'deserving' and 'undeserving' migrants is a means of establishing symbolic borders.	Nancheva, 2016; Chouliaraki et al., 2017; Georgiou, 2018; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Triandaphylldiou, 2017; Williams, 2015

	Race and ethnicity can become markers for symbolic borders of whether migrants are included or excluded in host societies.	Tucket, 2016; Vives, 2017
Ideology	Geographical locations take on symbolic and politicised meanings.	Bernardie-Tahir & Schmoll, 2014; Boukala & Dimitrakopoulou, 2018
	Establishing boundaries and maintaining borders is an exercise of power.	Casas-Cortes et al., 2015; Chouliaraki, 2017; Tarabusi, 2019
	Left-wing/cosmopolitan ideas of open borders vs. right-wing/ nationalist ideas of closed borders.	Constantinou, 2018
	Borders are ideological and political constructs.	Cuttitta, 2014; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018
Digital Borders	The politicisation of migrant uses of technology is a form of symbolic bordering.	Chouliaraki, 2017
	Cyberspace is a new frontier for establishing symbolic borders between states, migrants and host societies.	Georgiou, 2018; Rodima, 2019
Cognitive and emotional borders.	Borders are a means of *Othering*: positioning 'us' vs 'them'.	Boukala & Dimitrakopoulou, 2018; Nishiyama, 2019; Ceccorulli, 2019; Chouliaraki, 2017; Jashari et al., 2019; Mansour & Olson, 2017; Scuzzarello, 2019
	Physical borders are sites that stimulate strong emotional responses.	Nishiyama, 2019; Musaro, 2017; Moreno-Lax, 2018; Robins, 2019
	Images used to portray migration elicits emotional responses that can create symbolic borders between hosts and migrants.	Leurs & Smets, 2018; Leurs & Ponzanesi, 2018; Chouliaraki, 2017; Musaro, 2017

9 Conclusions

9.1 Summary of findings

This literature review aimed to synthesise and assess the current state-of-the art in research about migrant perceptions of the EU. To do so, a systematic approach was adopted to collect and analyse current research on issues of migration to answer the following research questions:

- What is known about the narratives (including misperceptions and 'myths') circulating about Europe and how these perceptions of Europe may act as an incentive for (potential) migrants to migrate to Europe?
- What is known about the channels these narratives are transmitted through and how media – and especially social media – facilitate the flow of narratives through social networks or other channels?
- What is known about potential links between narratives and (potential) security threats, including border issues?
- What is known about European citizen's perceptions on external security, social resilience, and attitudes toward relevant technologies and organisational measures?

With reference to the first research question, the literature on migration narratives illustrated several key issues. Migrants perceptions of Europe were highly varied, as were the sources of information on which they were based. Motivations and aspirations to travel to Europe were often multifaceted and prone to changes throughout the migratory process. For example, Hough (2017) found that changes in the political situation of destination countries such as 'Brexit' in the UK may alter migrant choices. Moreover, while 'false narratives' were variously addressed in migration decisions, there was little consensus on the role of 'false narratives' and their impact on migrants within the literature.

In terms of the channels used to transmit narratives, our review evidenced how social media and digital technologies may aid, but also hinder migrants' journeys. Although social media and technologies such as smart phones have become essential tools during the migrants' journey, they have also been found to be potential sources of misinformation and disinformation. Additionally, this review has identified research on the type of platforms used and for what purposes as well as unpacked alternative channels of information. However, it also demonstrates that interpersonal networks and communication remain an important channel for flows of information and a vital source of migrants' perceptions and decision making.

Links between narratives and security threats emerged as a contentious issue. Narratives were shown to play a complex role in the perception and experience of threats by both hosts and migrants. Narratives featured as a key reason for migrants, as both the most threatened and the most threatening group – the latter overwhelmingly considered to be the perceptions of hosts rather than a matter of fact. Moreover, a wide range of threats to hosts and migrants emerged such as economic, social and cultural threats to threat to life. The details of this analysis reveal a complex landscape of actors beyond migrants – from national and supranational organisations to border agencies, media as well as criminal networks – that that shape actual as well as perceived threats. Similarly, significant links were found between border issues and migration in a wide range of areas such as securitisation, legal issues, physical infrastructure, practices, EU border externalisation as well as 'symbolical bordering'.

While host perceptions of issues such as security, social resilience and policies pertaining to migration were explored, most literature treated these topics superficially and without sufficient specificity to reliably assess EU citizens' perceptions of these issues. Indeed, there was a noteworthy bias in how research addressed and presented host perceptions and experiences of migration and related issues compared to those of migrants, suggesting that researchers themselves may have a preference for certain narratives about migration. Such biases are problematic in creating a balanced picture of migration narratives and the effect of migrants' perceptions about the EU. While neutrality is often hard to achieve, we therefore recommend that PERCEPTIONS aims to guarantee that perspectives from multiple angles and actors are represented equally and appreciated in their own right.

Our review also made other noteworthy findings relevant to PERCEPTIONS and broader research on narratives of migration. Firstly, the literature revealed the lack of consolidated definitions and concrete classifications of migrants and migration. This was found to be in large part due to the complexity of the migratory process as well as the high degree of politicisation of terms. More fluid conceptions of 'circular journeys' that enable researchers to account for the broken, unplanned stages, periods of immobility and even failures are suggested by several authors (Kaytaz, 2016; Brigden & Mainwairing, 2016). Overall, the need for concepts and methodologies that enable these complexities to be explored emerged as an important recommendation from our findings. In our estimate, creating a taxonomy with agreed upon and shared definitions will be a vital step in guiding the further project work.

Another important finding were the ways in which hosting countries along the migrant journey are understood. Crawley and Hagen-Zanker (2018) conclude that caution is needed when classifying countries as destination or transit countries, since preferred destinations reflect the 'coming together' of a wide range of factors, including access to protection and family reunification, the availability/accuracy of information, the overall economic environment and social networks. Overall, these findings evidence the need to move away from simplistic push-pull models and classifications of arrival, transit and destination countries. Modifications of existing concepts and new frameworks may need to be created via the empirical research of the PERCEPTIONS project to accurately reflect and address these issues and dynamics.

Finally, we found sporadic coverage of information campaigns that inform migrants of the risks of migration. For example, IOM campaigns aim to dissuade potential migrants from coming to Europe through 'perception management'. But the effectiveness of these initiatives can be limited due to the continuing endemic social, economic and political challenges in the countries of origin, as well as the fact that this information is disseminated by mistrusted international organizations and governments (Heller, 2014). This suggests that the content and channels for disseminating effective countermeasures require careful consideration. Our review further revealed that migrants use multiple and varied channels for information and communication. This multiformity needs to be taken into account to ensure the development of effective measures and tools within PERCEPTIONS.

9.2 Gaps in the literature

Several significant gaps emerged during the review. Research examining the effects of narratives on migration – for instance, on increasing or decreasing migration flows or shaping migration decisions – is largely lacking. Additionally, literature that looks at the impact of countermeasures on changing the perceptions and expectations of migrants was clearly underrepresented.

Another gap are studies that look at policy makers' and political narratives of migration at the EU and national level by key global actors and institutions. Although our dataset provided rich insights into the perspectives of migrants, there were few studies that explored the challenges faced by first-line practitioners and policymakers. This limits the potential of the research to make a meaningful impact on the policy agenda, which was evidenced in the lack of viable countermeasures and toolkits within the dataset. It also emphasises again the need to systematically include multiple perspectives and actors from disparate levels into the empirical study of migration perceptions.

Moreover, there was little explicit research examining our research question 4, i.e., host attitudes towards specific issues of border controls/technologies and organisational measures. We were thus unable to conduct a meaningful review on host perceptions of external security, technologies used and social resilience. This gap presents a potential area for further empirical research by the PERCEPTIONS project and broader academia.

Research on the experiences of groups with specific protection needs such as unaccompanied minors, women trafficked into prostitution and LGBTQ+ refugees amongst others were under-represented in the literature review.

9.3 Limitations of this study

Our work is not without limitations. The first relates to the selection of sources as part of the systematic literature review protocol. SLR procedures intend to reduce bias and improve the validity of findings, yet, search terms themselves can result in systematic over- and under-presentation in results. This is best illustrated in Sections 7 and 8 on security and border issues, respectively. Due to the focus of PERCEPTIONS on narratives of migration, search terms were used to find literature often including terms such as 'narrative' and 'perceptions'. This in turn led to a larger number of studies informed by poststructural and critical theory traditions, which frequently explore the role of narratives in the security domain. While border and security issues are intrinsically contentious, the large representation of these sources in the dataset may have led to a more critical outlook on security and border issues in the findings than the fuller body of work in the security domain. In itself, this is an important observation, especially as our research strategy in terms of sources was explicitly and consciously broad. This finding may indicate that literature on perceptions and narratives may suffer from restrictions in terms of disciplines and fields that address this topic leading to an under-representation of alternative voices. It further may indicate that perceptions and narratives are either not be in the focus of security and border-related research or that these fields use different terms. Both would be of intrinsic value to PERCEPTIONS as it highlights either crucial differences in the way migration is discussed or mis-alignments in the relevant terminology. This issue should be investigated in more detail as part of the further conceptual project work to avoid perpetuating potential disciplinary biases and restrictions.

Another limitation in our work was the reliance on qualitative analysis strategies. This decision was due to the large number of qualitative studies and low number of quantitative studies in our dataset. Given the small set of quantitative data and the heterogeneity in measures, operationalisations and approaches, systematic quantitative strategies such as meta-analysis would not have been feasible. The qualitative approach using robust procedures for a thematic coding and analysis allowed us to capture the content across all methodologies. While we therefore cannot provide information on effect sizes, causal relations or group differences in any statistical sense, our findings provide an in-

depth picture of the research landscape about migration narratives and perceptions and the themes and issues addressed (or lacking).

9.4 Further research and ways forward

Overall, this deliverable offers numerous promising avenues as well as methodological recommendations for the further work in PERCEPTIONS, as well as the broader body of academic work on migrant perceptions and narratives of Europe. In addition to the recommendations above, there is considerable scope to introduce multidisciplinary and multi-method research to fill the gaps identified above. Although the rich data found in the literature gave unique insights into the migration journey and lived experiences of migrants in the EU, much of the research in this area was qualitative, especially ethnographic, which makes generalisations difficult. Therefore, research that use a combination of innovative quantitative and qualitative methods, as evidenced in THEMIS and EUMAGINE projects as well as the planned empirical research of PERCEPTIONS WP3 and WP4, will enable triangulated findings with higher validity and generalisability.

Further research needs to be undertaken on the importance and functionalities of different narrative channels, particularly social media platforms, for different migrant groups. Although there are a significant number of studies investigating uses of social media, these are rarely linked directly to how these technologies may affect migrants' perceptions of Europe and journey decisions. PERCEPTIONS WP4 may be able to address these issues through its analysis of social and conventional media.

Research examining the challenges faced by first-line practitioners and migration stakeholders, such as law enforcement agencies, border security organisations, civil society organisations, NGOs, political groups, public bodies and other intermediaries, are clearly under-represented. As such, further research involving these stakeholders can help to fill critical gaps in our understanding of the emergence, transmission and consequences of narratives and perceptions. Undertaking this research will support the development of policies and practices that address the needs of stakeholders across levels and professional roles. PERCEPTIONS WP3 and WP5 are well placed to address this gap. In sum, the synthesis of literature carried out in this report finds significant space and scope for PERCEPTIONS to make valuable contributions to the current knowledge on narratives of migration and go beyond the current state of the art. This report outlines various possible avenues as well as conceptual and methodological recommendations to guide this work.

10 Overview of identified projects and datasets

The following two sub-sections list the projects and datasets related to migration submitted by our partners. This list will be analysed a part of Task 2.4.

10.1 Projects

Table 24. List of migration related projects identified by partners.

Publishing Organisation - Level	Publishing Organisation - Type	Publishing Organisation - Name	Year	Author(s) (if applicable)	Title of the source/ document	Language of source/ document	Geographical Area(s) covered	Short Description of Key Points	DOI/Hyperlink
Global	Academic	International Organization for Migration (IOM)	2011	IOM	World migration report 2011 communicating effectively about migration	English	Global	The World Migration Report 2011 presents available evidence on public perceptions and attitudes regarding migration globally. It analyses the way in which they are shaped and how they can influence and be influenced by policy as well as the media. Furthermore, the media's role in communicating opinions, reporting trends and framing migration discourse is analysed. Examples of good practice in communicating a positive and balanced image of migrants among government, civil society and the media are also included. Finally, the report suggests several ways to improve communication about migration in order to promote a better understanding and recognition of the benefits of migration, more evidence based policymaking and effective engagement with migrants themselves	https://publications.iom.int/ system/files/pdf/ wmr2011_ english.pdf
Global	Academic	Journalism, Media and Culture	2016	Berry, M.; Garcia-Blanco, I.; Moore, K.	Press coverage of the refugee and migrant crisis in the EU: a content analysis of five European countries	English	Italy, UK, Germany, Spain and Sweden	UNHCR commissioned a report by the Cardiff School of Journalism to explore what was driving media coverage in five different European countries: Spain, Italy, Germany, the UK and Sweden. Researchers combed through thousands of articles written in 2014 and early 2015, revealing a number of important findings for future media advocacy campaigns. Most importantly, they found major differences between countries, in terms of the sources journalists used (domestic politicians, foreign politicians, citizens, or NGOs), the language they employed, the reasons they gave for the rise in refugee flows, and the solutions they suggested.	http://www.unhcr.org/ 56bb369c9.html

								Germany and Sweden, for example, overwhelmingly used the terms 'refugee' or 'asylum seeker', while Italy and the UK press preferred the word 'migrant'. In Spain, the dominant term was 'immigrant'. These terms had an important impact on the tenor of each country's debate.	
Global	Academic	International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies	2017	Saarikoski, T.	Revised Emergency Plan of Action (EPoA) Greece: Population Movement	English	Greece, Turkey	This revised plan of action continues to provide an emergency response in the Population Movement operation while at the same time moving towards sustaining long-term benefits through supporting integration of the migrant population into the Greek community and building on existing skills within the Hellenic Red Cross (HRC). From May 2017, interventions under this plan will be conducted through six building blocks: Accommodation/Reception Centres; Urban Approach; Building Bridges; Cash Transfer Programming; National Society Development; and other HRC programme areas - Disaster Management and Restoring Family Links.	http://adore.ifrc.org/Download.aspx?FileId=157931
Global	Academic	Center for Democracy and Reconciliation in Southeast Europe (CDRSEE)	2017	Manos, I.; Papadopoulou, D.; Makrygianni, V.; Kolovos, K.	Communities in Greece: Studying the Aspects of Albanian Migration to Greece	English	Greece	This text summarises the findings of the research programme titled 'Communities in Greece', which was funded by the Center for Democracy and Reconciliation in Southeast Europe (hereinafter referred to as CDRSEE), with the support of the Open Society Initiative in Europe. This is a research paper prepared by a group of four (4) researchers using data collection techniques based on qualitative social research methods. The main research question was the issue of integration and inclusion of Albanian immigrants who have been living in Greece since the early 1990s. The research programme explored aspects of the immigration experience, as reflected in issues of identity and integration, education, employment, housing, health and social welfare, on participation in social and political life, acquisition of citizenship and the reporting and presentation of Albanian immigrants by the mass media. The research is based on the recording and analysis of empirical data drawn from the narrations of immigrants themselves and of Greek citizens, and from interviews with individuals employed in public administration, state and local institutions and services (ministries and municipalities) and private agencies (NGOs, non-profit groups, cultural associations	http://cdrsee.org/sites/default/files/Communities%20in%20Greece_EN.pdf

								founded by Albanian immigrants), who handle issues of migration policy, integration and inclusion of immigrants, and organise relevant actions. The cities of Thessaloniki and Athens were set as the research sites. The examination of the research material showed significant progress with regard to the inclusion and social integration of Albanian immigrants in Greek society, and highlighted issues that, if resolved, could improve both the lives of immigrants themselves and Greek society. Their stay for over two decades, particularly those who came to Greece as adults, their long-term professional activity, the regulation of the processes for certifying their legal presence (residence permit, work permit, acquisition of Greek citizenship), and the act of starting a family and having children who attend or have attended all levels of the Greek education system were defined by the immigrants themselves and the people working in the relevant institutions as examples of integration and inclusion. At the same time, our interlocutors also highlighted issues/problems that, if managed, could improve their presence and living conditions in Greece.	
Global	Academic	Forschung Aktuell	2019	David, A.; Terstriep, J.; Sospiro, P.; Scibè, E.	Migrants' Digital Knowledge Flows: How Digital Transformation Shapes Social Behavior	English	Germany, Italy, Syria	Migration networks have a function of "door opener" in the receiving region by finding job opportunities for the new immigrants or helping them integrate socially. There also possible "influencers" when it comes to migration choices, migration routes, migration destinations and economic concerns, more than traditional migration networks. When groups of people meet in new places and situation, the amount of information exchange due to the new experiences increases. Narratives occur and are told in a way that myths are developed while occasionally are further transmitted to the countries of origin. Some of them are fake because the target group does not want to disappoint their families and friends in the home countries by storytelling on difficulties related to migration processes. In the survey, when asking about myth/narrative building, the question asked was Do you exchange realistic information on the receiving country, to which respondents replied yes. Followed by, do you "clean" your own situation in the arrival country via social media to which respondents also replied yes.	https://www.econstor.eu/bitstream/10419/197992/1/1666634328.pdf

Global	Civil Society / NGOs	Save the Children	2019	Balkans Migration and Displacement Hub	Balkans Migration and Displacement Hub Data and Trend Analysis: Regional overview (April-June 2019)	English	Balkans	Periodic review on the situation of refugees and migrants on the Balkan route that includes a chapter on testimonies of migrant children, and parents, expressing, among others, their perception and expectations of Europe.	https://resourcecentre. savethechildren.net/library/ balkans-migration-and-displacement-hub-data- and-trend-analysis-regional-overview-april-june
Global	Civil Society / NGOs	Mixed Migration Centre	2019	Frouws, B.; Brenner, Y.	Hype or Hope? Evidence on Use of Smartphones and Social Media in Mixed Migration	English	Syria, UK, Norway, Afghanistan, Germany, Austria, Denmark	Instances of social media used by authorities for migration control purposes. Legislations in Belgium, Norway, Austria, Denmark, UK, and more recently Germany make it legally possible for authorities to extract smartphone data for protection determination purposes. Smugglers advertising their business on social media tend to downplay the difficulties of the journey and create unrealistic and misleading rumours. Research shows migrants tend to be reluctant to turn to NGOs for migration related information. Majority of Arab and Afghan refugees and migrants ignore institutional websites unless links reach them through Facebook. A large proportion of social media users in mixed migration tend to be young, technologically connected and better educated people from urban areas. Social media is less important for smugglers to get in touch with clients, which is done mostly through referrals. Social media itself does not influence the decision to migrate. Usually, the sources of information to migrate are friends and families in countries of destination, smugglers, friends and family in countries of origin and social media is rather a channel to communicate with them. The sources commonly used by information campaigns are ranked the lowest among the first sources of information used by migrants.	http://www.mixedmigration.org/ articles/hype-or-hope-new- evidence-on-the-use-of-smartphones-and-social- media-in-mixed-migration/
Global	International Organisation	UNHCR	2016	UNHCR	From a Refugee Perspective. Discourse of Arabic speaking and Afghan refugees and migrants on social media from March to December 2016	English	EU	The publication depicts how potential migrants in Afghanistan trust smugglers narratives (mainly coming from Facebook) of getting a safe and better life in Europe and downplaying the dangers of the trip, while they are usually not trusting Government and media trying to dissuade migration through stories and images of unsuccessful migrations. Qualitative data provide an explanatory matrix, against which migration and population data can be evaluated in their social and cultural context. This report is based on a	https://www.unhcr.org/ 5909af4d4.pdf

								summary of 10 months of social media monitoring; focus group discussions with several hundreds of people in four European countries (Belgium, France, Germany and Austria) in early 2016, numerous discussions with transiting refugees and migrants in former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Serbia and Croatia during the author's field work in 2015; information obtained indirectly by the tow of the researchers when working with Afghan and Arabic speaking migrants and refugees from 18 October to 5 November 2016 in Calais.	
Global	International Organisation	UNHRC-UN Global Pulse	2017	UNHCR-UN Global Pulse	Understanding perceptions of migrants and refugees in Europe with social media	English	EU including Greece		https://www.unglobalpulse.org/sites/default/files/Social%20Media%20Forced%20Displacement%20Europe%20Refugee%20Crises %20.pdf
Global	International Organisation	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development	2018	OECD	Working Together for Local Integration of Migrants and Refugees	English	Global	Over 5 million people migrated permanently to OECD countries in 2016. Following the 2015/16 peak of refugee arrivals in Europe, attention has now shifted towards effectively integrating migrants into their new societies. While migration policy remains a national responsibility, central and local authorities recognise that integration needs to happen where people are, in their workplaces, in their neighbourhoods, and in the schools where they send their children. Behind every migration statistic, there are individuals or families starting a new life in a new place. Local authorities, while coordinating with all levels of government and other local partners, play a key role in integrating newcomers and empowering them to contribute to their new communities.	
EU	Academic	EUMAGINE Imagining Europe from the outside	2012	Hemmerechts, K.; De Clerck, H.; Willems, R.; Timmerman, C.	Project Paper 14: Eumagine final report with policy considerations	English	Europe	The EUMAGINE project involves more than thirty researchers in seven countries who work to understand how people in Morocco, Senegal, Turkey and Ukraine relate to the possibility of migration. We specifically explore how perceptions of human rights and democracy affect migration aspirations.	http://www.eumagine.org/outputs/Project%20paper%2014%20-%20Final%20report%20with%20policy%20considerations.pdf

EU	Academic	Delegates of REMINDER EU project	2018	Meltzer, C.E.; Eberl, J.-M.; Theorin, N.; Lind, F.; Schemer, C.; Strömbäck, J.; Boomgaarden, H.; Heidenreich, T.	Perceptions of the Impact of Immigration and Attitudes Towards Free Movement Within the EU: A Cross-National Study	English	Europe	The present study analyses public opinion on free movement in Europe, specifically looking at geographical differences between EU countries. Additionally, we want to assess how attitudes toward free movement are linked to attitudes toward migration and migrants. We assume that immigration is perceived as a threat toward the host nation, which in turn leads to less favourable attitudes toward free movement.	https://ec.europa.eu/research/participants/documents/downloadPublic?documentIds=080166e5ba453a74&appId=PPGMS
EU	Civil Society / NGOs	Amnesty International Ltd.	2015	Amnistia Internacional	Fear and fences (*Miedo y vallas*)	Spanish	Europe	This report shows that preventing the arrival of irregular migrants to EU countries only serve to force them to take more clandestine and dangerous routes. Migrants are increasingly dependent on traffickers. Border control measures must safeguard the security of migrants.	https://www.amnesty.org/download/Documents/EUR0325442015SPANISH.PDF
EU	Civil Society / NGOs	Platform for International Cooperation on Undocumented Migrants (PICUM)	2016		Hear your voices. Undocumented children and young people share their stories	English	Europe	This document includes the voices and stories of children and young undocumented migrants in Europe.	https://picum.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/11/Children-Testimonies_EN.pdf
EU	Civil Society / NGOs	REACH	2017		Youth on the Move. Investigating decision-making, migration trajectories and expectations of young people on the way to Italy	English	Italy	Most young people intending to move chose their destinations after gathering information about the place and the means to reach it. Generally, the young people interviewed for this study did not struggle to find information about the migration process. However, the information received often proved to be general and not always fully representative of the difficulties they could meet along the way. Word of mouth, the experiences of returnees and family members on the move or abroad, social media channels such as Facebook and YouTube, traditional media such as radio and TV, and dedicated websites and documentaries were reported as the most common sources of information used by young people to acquire information about the journey.	https://reliefweb.int/report/ italy/youth-move-investigating-decision-making-migration-trajectories- and-expectations-young

EU	Governmental /Policymaking Bodies	Fundamental Rights Agency	2019	FRA	Protecting migrant workers from explotation in the EU: workers'perspec tives	English	Europe	This report shows how exploitation often starts with false promises and fraud, describes the extreme conditions the exploited workers endure, and identifies the factors that facilitate exploitation. But it also outlines what can be done to help exploited workers access justice. We hope that our focus on this issue encourages the responsible national authorities, as well as social partners, to recognise the reality of severe labour exploitation, and to take the steps necessary to create a climate of 'zero tolerance'.	
EU	Governmental /Policymaking Body	European Commission/E uropean University Institute	2018	Sanchez, G.; Hoxhak, R.; Nardin, S.; Geddes. A.; Achilli, A.; Kalantaryan, R.	A Study of the Communication Channels Used by Migrants and Asylum Seekers in Italy, with a Particular Focus on Online and Social Media	English	Europe, Italy, Nigeria, Banglades h, Libya, Morocco, Cote d'Ivoire, Mali, Senegal, Gambia, Ghana, Sudan, Eritrea, Guinea, Syria	Migrant posts on social media are carefully curated representations, shame and fear of stigma may prevent diffusion of images of distress, or unhappiness. Use of social media varies across the nationalities and is secondary in informing decision making about migration. Diasporas are often a source of misinformation.	http://missingchildre neurope.eu/ Portals/0/Docs/publi cation %20hub/Comm%20c hannels %20used%20by%20 migrants %20in%20Italy.en.pd f
EU	International Organisation	Hommes et migrations [En ligne], 1298 | 2012, mis en ligne le 31 décembre 2014, consulté le 21 mars 2016. URL	2016	Hocine, L.	Algeria facing the emigration evolution to France and in the world	French	Algeria		http://hommesmigra tions. revues.org/1872
EU	International Organisation	International Centre for Migration Policy Development	2016	Ethical Journalism Network commission ed in the framework of EUROMED Migration IV	How does the media on both sides of the Mediterranean report on migration? - A study by journalists, for	English	Austria, France, Gemrany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Malta, Spain, Sweden,	This study is the first element of a broader investigation into how individual journalists and, more generally, mainstream media report – and do not report - on migration, and how such reporting influences public opinion in the Euro-Mediterranean region.	http://www.media-diversity.org/en/addi tional-files/Media_Migratio n_17_ country_chapters.pdf

				(EMM4, 2016-2019).	journalists and policy-makers		Algeria, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Palestine, Tunisia		
EU	International Organisation	EUROMED Migration	2016	International Centre for Migration Policy Development	How does the media on both sides of the Mediterranean report on Migration?	English	Europe	This study is the first element of a broader investigation into how individual journalists and, more generally, mainstream media report – and do not report - on migration, and how such reporting influences public opinion in the Euro-Mediterranean region.	https://www.icmpd.org/fileadmin/user_upload/Media_Migration_Exec_ Summary.pdf
EU	International Organisation	European Migrant Advisory Board (EMAB)	2019	Elsod, A.; Marques, M.	Ask the people. A consultation of migrants and refugees	English	Europe	"Ask the People" is a consultation organized by the European Migrant Advisory Board (EMAB) to gain first-hand insights from migrants and refugees about the impact that migration policies have on them. The survey involved over 500 migrants and refugees across seven EU countries (Finland, Germany, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal and Spain) and focused on eight areas: integration, labour market access, housing, higher education, participation in decision-making, the situation of unaccompanied minors, access to microcredit, and the EU Action Plan on Return	https://ec.europa.eu/futurium/en/system/files/ged/ask_the_people_european_migrant_advisory_board_report_final.pdf
National	Academic	Paul Hamlyn Foundation	2010	Bloch, A.; Sigona, N.; Zetter, R.	No right to dream: The social and economical lives of young undocumented migrants in Britain	English	United Kingdom	The data from the interviews and testimonies suggests that for most young undocumented migrants, coming to the UK was a deliberate choice and a targeted destination. The main reasons for migrating were perceptions of the economic opportunities available, because friends were going, family members were already in the UK, or because it had always been an aspiration to come to the UK to experience the language and culture. For some, perceptions about cultural freedom, the asylum system and human rights were motivating factors. A minority would have preferred a different destination and the UK was their second choice or the UK was just more feasible to get to, or it was the destination selected by smugglers, so it was just where they happened to end up.	https://www.phf.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2014/10/Young-Undocumented-Migrants-report.pdf
National	Academic	University of Antwerp	2010	Timmerman, C.; Heyse, P.; Van Mol, C.; Duvell, F.; Icduygu,	EUMAGINE Project Paper 1.Conceptual and Theoretical Framework	English		The paper presents the theoretical and conceptual framework of the EUMAGINE- Imagining Europe from the Outsie project. The ultimate goal of the project is to study the relation between perceptions of migrant and non-migrant individuals from source countries on	http://www.eumagine.org/outputs/PP1%20-%20Conceptual%20a

				A.; Lodewyckx, I.	EUMAGINE Research Project.			human rights and democracy at the local, regional, national and international level on the one hand and migration aspirations and migration decision-making on the other.	nd%20Theoretical%20Framework.pdf
National	Academic	International Migration Institute	2012	Ersanilli, E.	EUMAGINE Project Paper 7. Survey report	English	Morocco, Ukraine, Turkey, Sengal - EU	The EUMAGINE project focuses on four countries; Morocco, Turkey, Senegal and the Ukraine. Within these countries four research areas have been selected for data collection. A survey was conducted in the first half of 2011. The aim was to survey a representative random sample of 500 members of the population aged 18-39 in each research area.	http://www.eumagine.org/outputs/PP7%20-%20survey%20report%20-%2020121001.pdf
National	Academic	University of Antwerp	2012	De Clerck, H. M. L	EUMAGINE Project Paper 8. First qualitative data analysis	English	Morocco, Ukraine, Turkey, Sengal - EU	The Project Paper presents the qualitative data collection process and qualitative descriptive data. It starts with a brief description of the qualitative data collection process from the development of the research instruments –observations and interviews, over the training sessions in qualitative research techniques, to the fieldwork itself presented per country.	http://www.eumagine.org/outputs/Project%20Paper%208%20-%20First%20qualitative%20data%20analysis.pdf
National	Academic	University of Antwerp	2012	Hemmerechts, K.; De Clerck, H. M. L.; Willems, R.; Timmerman, C.	EUMAGINE Project Paper 14. EUMAGINE final report with policy considerations.	English	Morocco, Ukraine, Turkey, Sengal - EU	This project paper synthesizes the EUMAGINE research and reflects on policy considerations.	http://www.eumagine.org/outputs/Project%20paper%2014%20-%20Final%20report%20with%20policy%20considerations.pdf
National	Academic	Economics Research Center for Applied Development, CREAD, Sahwa project, 1st semester 2019	2019	Benhaddad, N.A.; Boucharf, K.; Hammouda, N.E. ; Souaber, H. (eds)	lived the Algerian youth, representation and aspiration	French	Mediterranean Arab country: Algeria, Egypt, Lebanon, Morocco, Tunisia	Youth perspectives, trends, and identification	www.cread.dz
National	Academic	University of Münster: WP6 Comparative Analysis Skills Supply and Demand	2019	Parreira do Amaral, M.	WP6 International Report Comparative Analysis Skills Supply and Demand	English	Global	Lifelong Learning (LLL) policies are characterised by a high fragmentation and inconsistencies in terms of target audience, measures of implementation as well as intended and unintended effects, even though designed to create economic growth and guarantee social inclusion. In particular regarding measures aimed at young adults a lack of coordinated policy-making can be observed. The project YOUNG_ADULLLT aims to identify parameters for future decision-making support systems by understanding LLL policies for	

								young adults in their interplay between economy, society, labour market and education and training systems at regional and local levels, including discussing issues of fragmentation and discrepancies, but also identifying best practices.	
National	Academic	Universitá Cattolica del Sacro Cuore di Milano	2019	Visconti, R.M.	Microfintech: outreaching financial inclusion with cost-cutting innovation	English	Global	Microfinance is a renowned albeit controversial solution for giving financial access to the unbanked, even if micro-transactions increase costs, limiting outreach potential. Economic and financial sustainability of Microfinance Institutions (MFIs) is a prerequisite for widening a potentially unlimited clients base. Automation decreases costs, expanding the outreach potential and improving transparency and efficiency. Technological solutions range from branchless mobile banking to geo-localization of customers, digital/social networking for group lending, blockchain validation, big data, and artificial intelligence, up to "MicroFinTech" - FinTech applications adapted to microfinance. This study examines these trendy solutions comprehensively, going beyond the existing literature and showing potential applications to the traditional sustainability versus outreach trade-off.	
National	Academic	ELIAMEP	2019	Dimitriadi, A.; Sarantaki, A.-M.	Borders and the mobility of migrants in Greece	English	Greece	The research seeks to show how bordering processes are implemented when confronted with the mobility of migrants at different stages, with a particular focus due to Greece's position at the external border, on interception on entry, and transit or secondary movement from Greece. The report documents the experiences and perceptions of border agents and actors involved in bordering processes, at the external border but also within Greece and of migrants arriving in Greece post 2015; their interaction with the border, their inclusion and/or exclusion in Greece legally and socially and whether and how this impacts their decision to continue their journey onwards or perhaps remain in Greece.	http://ceaseval.eu/publications/28_WP4_Greece.pdf
National	Civil Society / NGOs	Asylum Protection Center	2013	Maric, S.; Đurovic, R.	Asylum seekers and irregular migrants in Serbia, phenomenon, needs, problems,	English	Serbia	Report on the overall situation of refugees and asylum seekers in Serbia. They also conceive Serbia as a transit country and are heading to Scandinavian countries or Germany following stories and rumours heard from relatives and friends, that say these are rich countries with opportunities and without racism in the case of Scandinavia. The ones that have already been to Europe have more realistic expectations.	https://www.azilsrbija.rs/wp-content/uploads/2013/04/APCCZA-brochure-asylum-seekers-and-migrants-in-Serbia-2012-2013.pdf

					expectations, profile				
National	Civil Society / NGOs	Institut für Auslandsbeziehungen	2017	Fielder, A.	Migration from Sub-Saharan Africa to Europe: Reasons, Sources of Information and Perception of German Engagement	English	Guinea, Mali, Côte d'Ivoire, Senegal, Eritrea, Somalia, Sudan, South Sudan, Democratic Republic of the Congo	In Senegal, the unsatisfactory social and economic situation, the aspiration for a better life for themselves and their families and the multitude of education and training opportunities are named as the main reasons for emigration. Beyond the socio-economic reasons, "migration" was considered by participants from West Africa as a success story and a way to gain respect and standing in their social milieu and many young people felt forced to leave their country for Europe, although they may not want to at all. If you emigrate, you are socially well regarded. People who return home empty handed have a very difficult position in their community. Whether return is an expression of success or failure depends on the original migration motives. Those who return are perceived as failures and lazy in both Eastern and Western African communities. They are no longer accepted in their communities; they are seen as outsiders who haven't suffered like those who stayed at home. All participants named personal contacts as the most important source of information. In some groups, social media was met with great distrust, including glorification of Europe, lies and deception of the situation there. There is also an awareness among migrants about the poor prospects of a legal residence status and the current situation of the European refugee camps. Participants also vocalised the poor employment prospects for migrants in Europe. "Africans in Europe have to do work that they would not do in Africa". "Migrants abroad do not want to admit that they have to do inferior jobs. Those that come home from Europe are thrifty because it's hard to make ends meet and therefore, they don't want to spend any money". "Europe is not heaven on Earth. There are also problems there. If I leave Africa, then I know that it is perfectly possible that I will have to live there the same as I do here". "The white people's media is full of propaganda. They are good at communicating an image of beauty and power and presenting Africa as a continent full of conflict, war, death, hunger and corruption. They are in heaven and Africa is in hell. Yet, there are still homeless people in Europe. Why do they pretend this only happens in Africa?" "Living conditions are too hard. As if you would change your mind regarding migration just	https://www.ifa.de/wp-content/uploads/2019/05/ifa_study_Fiedler_Migration-Subsahara-Europa_en.pdf

							because of a few stories from other people. On the contrary, it is good hear such stories from other people. Then, you don't make the same mistakes. "The attempt to have more luck than the others were a reoccurring theme in all focus groups. The study participants also have a deep faith in God that leads to "rational" information about migration also being blocked out. Refugees and migrants feel like they are better informed than the people who produce such campaigns. Some people limit the negative effects they hear from a person about Europe are only down to the individual behaviour of this person. They think that they will fit into the new society. All you have to do is to behave like the members of society. That is why some migrants think they will manage better than the people from whom they heard the negative stories, Cognitive dissonance reduction. Selective choice and fading out of information serve to preserve the capacity to act in difficult and complex situations. "Everyone who tells you that Europe is expensive is lying. If you made an offer to this person to exchange identity papers and to go to Europe in their place, this person would never in their life accept". One exception to possible deterrents is the loss of a friend, family member, or acquaintance on the journey. Third person effect is when people generally consider other people to be more susceptible to attempts to influence them by commercial or political advertising in the media than they are themselves. "Social media is not a means of information, it is rather an instrument to entice young people to Europe. "Information in Facebook an cause problems. A friend, who is currently in Libya or Algeria can send photos and claim he is in Italy. Local networks provide incorrect information" "Many friends live in refugee camps but the send deceptive images to the home country. of cities, restaurants. They spread them via social networks and deceive people about their real living conditions.
National	Civil Society / NGOs	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH	2018	Gemeinschaftszentren für den Zusammenhalt	German	Turkey	The Project Atlas gives you a current overview of Germany and region specifics with background information about the places where measures for social and social integration are currently being promoted by the Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (BAMF).

National	Civil Society / NGOs	Sachverständigenrat deutscher Stiftungen für Integration und Migration (SVR) GmbH	2018		SVR-Integrationsbarometer 2018	German	Germany	Migration & Integration: Theoretical explanatory approaches and exemplary research results	
National	Civil Society / NGOs	Sarajevo: Media and Civil Society Development Foundation "Mediacentar"	2019	Petković, B.; Bašić Hrvatin, S.	Media and Information Literacy in the Western Balkans: Unrealized Emancipatory Potential.	English	Europe	Almost two decades of the regional network of media centres and institutes in South East Europe – the South East European Network for Professionalisation of Media (SEENPM) – have been spent in attempts to intervene through regional cooperation to make the media in these countries serve democracy. Since 2000, when our network was established, dozens of regional actions have been carried out – from training and exchange of journalists, editors and media managers, the promotion of media ethics and self-regulation, mapping media ownership and its impact on media pluralism and independence, to examining labour relations in the media, developing a regional award scheme for investigative journalism, empowering journalists and activists for fact-checking and countering disinformation, and finally addressing corrupt policies and practices in the media systems and advocating for media integrity as a guiding principle of media reforms.	
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge)	2015		Willkommen in Deutschland - Zusatzinformationen für Spätaussiedler, Добро пожаловать в Германию – Дополнительная информация для поздних переселенцев	German, Russian	Germany	Review of the influx and departure of third-country nationals to and from Germany (focus on educational and economic migration)	
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Policy Research & Statistics Branch Department of Immigration and Border	2016	Koser, K.; Kuschminder, K.	Research Programme – Occasional Paper Series: Understanding irregular migrants'	English	Greece and Turkey	The purpose of this Occasional Paper is to better understand how migrants in transit make decisions about whether to stay, move onwards or return. The term 'transit' is ill-defined in the academic literature. In this study, it refers to Greece and Turkey as countries from which the potential for onward migration is significant. This is relevant for three reasons. First, it	https://www.homeaffairs.gov.au/research-and-stats/files/occasional-paper-21.pdf

		Protection in Australia		decision making factors in transit			can help inform policies intended to support populations in transit including their eventual settlement in transit countries or facilitate return. Second, it can help understand the experiences of migrants in transit: their number is growing worldwide but they represent a significant gap in knowledge. Third, at a more conceptual level, it is worthwhile to elicit differences between migrant decision making in countries of origin, destination, and transit
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Federal Ministry of the Interior, Building and Community (German: Bundesministerium des Innern, für Bau und Heimat; Heimat also translates to "homeland"); Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge)	2016	Migrationsbericht 2015	German	Germany	Statistical dataset (N=1006; CATI, German population aged 18 years and older)
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Cabinet of Germany (German: Bundeskabinett or Bundesregierung); Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge)	2016	Bericht der Beauftragten der Bundesregierung für Migration, Flüchtlinge und Integration – Teilhabe, Chancengleichheit und Rechtsentwicklung in der Einwanderungsgesellschaft Deutschland, Dezember 2016	German	Germany	Information brochure for Russian Germans

National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Federal Antidiscrimination Authority (Antidiskriminierungsstelle des Bundes)	2016		Diskriminierungsrisiken für Geflüchtete in Deutschland: Eine Bestandsaufnahme der Antidiskriminierungsstelle des Bundes	German	Germany	Report regarding an overview of the most notable national discussions and policy changes concerning migration, integration and asylum	
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Cabinet of Germany (German: Bundeskabinett or Bundesregierung); Deutschen Jugendinstituts	2017		Kinder- und Jugendbericht (2017)	German	Germany	White paper on the German national security agenda and future of the German armed forces	
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Foundation for political innovation (Fondation pour l'innovation polique)	2018	Leschi, D.	Migrations: la France singulière	Français	France	Migration issue in France	http://www.fondapol.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/11/133-FRANCE-IMMIGRATION_2018-10-10_w2.pdf
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Federal Antidiscrimination Authority (Antidiskriminierungsstelle des Bundes)	2018		Diskriminierungserfahrungen von Migrant_innen	German, English	Germany	Migration report	
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Federal Antidiscrimination Authority (Antidiskriminierungsstelle des Bundes)	2018		Between indifference and rejection – Population's attitudes towards Sinti and Roma	English	Germany	Migration report	
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Federal Antidiscrimination Authority (Antidiskriminierungsstelle des Bundes)	2018		Protection against Discrimination in Germany. A Guide for Refugees and	German, English	Germany	Does migration affect the health of actors? Explanatory approaches and reasons. Political context	

					New Immigrants (Broschüre Diskriminierungs schutz in Deutschland. Ein Ratgeber für Geflüchtete und Neuzugewander te)				
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge)	2018		Projektatlas 2. Quartal 2018	German	Germany	Migration and integration reporting	
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Institutt For Samfunnsforsk ning	2019	Brekke, J.P.; Beyer, A.	"Everyone wants to Leave" Transit Migration from Khartoum-The Role of Information and Social Media Campaigns	English	Sudan, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Egypt, Libya, Norway, Italy, Germany	Study looks at the role of information and information campaigns in migrants' decisions in transit. A key finding is that all informants had access to smartphones and were active users of social media. Regarding the campaigns, although the migrants were sympathetic to the framing of the content, they felt that they already had the information they needed. The lack of perceived need reduced the potential for government-sponsored campaigns to change the migrants' attitudes and behaviours. The study looks at the perception of 3 campaigns, one from the Norwegian government, another from UNHCR and the last from IOM Italy. The study conducts single, group and serial interviews with 56 respondents. One key topic is how one can assess the outcomes of campaigns or the effects of media exposure in general. The first is the need for orientation, the second is the relevance of the information, then the level of certainty of what they already knew. In this framework, campaigns would be most effective if the information is highly relevant and migrant were unsure whether the information held was correct. Timing of campaigns is also crucial. context-specific information is another requirement. Informants with networks and family in particular countries had more detailed information about the asylum regimes there. Transit migrants trusted smugglers from their own nationalities the most. Transit migrants have already invested in the process (sunk cost bias). The pull factors in Europe	https://www.udi.no/globalassets/global/forskning-fou_i/rapport_11_19_web.pdf

							include getting asylum, jobs and receiving integration support. Informants did not see the campaigns as providing new information, which did not make a lasting impression on them. They also expressed little need for orientation. Social media provides platforms where information can spread from one person to the next, picking up sender-legitimacy on the way. The informants saw the content of the campaigns as truthful and accurate, some saw it as manipulative. They tend to be less knowledgeable about what to expect once they reach Europe, but they don't feel like there is a need for that information while in transit. To change this, it is recommended to highlight the relevance of this information both on social media and on the ground, including group specific and contextual factors in the campaigns. Overly dramatic campaigns can create the opposite effect among individuals in vulnerable situations. On the use of social media, services providing encryption such as WhatsApp were preferred.
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Federal Ministry of the Interior, Building and Community (German: Bundesministerium des Innern, für Bau und Heimat; Heimat also translates to "homeland"); Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge)	2019	Migrationsbericht 2016/2017	German	Germany	The Housing of Immigrants in Germany / how housing and home ownership can be qualified as fields of action for municipal integration policy
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (Bundesamt für Migration	2019	Länderreport 18: Syrien - Lage der Christen	German	Syria	Rich insights into the digital literacy, information needs and strategies of Syrian and Iraqi refugees who arrived in Europe in 2015.

		und Flüchtlinge)					
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge)	2019	"SoKo"-Daten: Bericht für das Jahr 2018	German	Germany	statistical dataset (N=9.298; CATI, German population with and without Migration background aged 14 years and older)
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge)	2019	Freizügigkeitsmonitoring: Bericht für das Jahr 2018	German	Germany	short analysis focussing on the social inclusion and contacts of refugees into the German society
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge)	2019	Wanderungsmonitoring: Bericht für das Jahr 2018	German	Germany	Advancement of knowledge on social media use by refugees
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge)	2019	Kinder und Jugendliche nach der Flucht	German	Germany	Research Study: Social Media Use By Migrants in Ireland
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge)	2019	Soziale Kontakte von Geflüchteten	German	Germany	Comment regarding change in the asylum law
National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Federal Police (Bundespolizei (BPOL))	2019	Jahresbericht der Bundespolizei 2018	German	Germany	The Myths of EU Competition Policy / EU Competition Policy: Myth-Making Imperative and Response

National	Governmental /Policymaking Body	Federal Employment Agency (Bundesagentur für Arbeit)	2019		Auswirkungen der Migration auf den deutschen Arbeitsmarkt Deutschland (Monatszahlen)	German	Germany	Descriptive findings on migration-specific educational inequalities in the German higher education sector	
National	Think Tank/Lobby	Overseas Development Institute	2015	Cummings, C.; Pacitto, J.; Lauro, D.; Foresti, M.	Why people move: understanding the drivers and trends of migration to Europe.	English	Syria, Afghanistan, Eritrea, Somalia, Ethiopia	Review on trends and factors affecting irregular migration to Europe- including the role of social media.	https://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/publications-opinion-files/10157.pdf
Regional	Academic	University of Antwerp / International Migration Institute	2012	De Clerck, H. M. L.; Willems, R.; Jolivet, D.; de Haas, H.I.; Timmerman, C.U.; Hemmerechts, K.U.	EUMAGINE Project Paper 13. Cross-country analyses and theoretical conclusions.	English	Morocco, Ukraine, Turkey, Sengal - EU	The objective of this Project Paper is to make comparisons between countries on the various links of the theoretical framework. Hereby, research findings for special cases are lifted from a national level to an international and higher level of generalisation. This process further enhances understanding the role of perceptions on human rights and democracy in shaping migration aspirations and decision-making, and of the way in which macro, meso and micro factors influence this process.	http://www.eumagine.org/outputs/Project%20Paper%2013%20-%20Cross-country%20analyses%20and%20theoretical%20conslusions.pdf
Regional	Academic	Finnish Institute in the Middle East	2015	Järvi, T.	Seeking better life: Palestinian refugees' narratives on emigration	English	Lebanon	Paper gathering some perceptions Palestinian refugees living in Lebanon have about Europe. They say high prices and the weather in Europe are deterrents to them, while having access to better services and to employment are great incentives.	http://www.fime.fi/en/seekingbetterlife-palestinianrefugees-narrativeson-emigration/
Regional	Academic	Demos & Pi, Osservatorio di Pavia, Fondazione Unipolis	2016	Diamanti, I.	9th Report on security and social insecurity in Italy and Europe	Italian	Europe	The Report is directed by Ilvo Diamanti and is based on two distinct researches on the perception of security and insecurity in Italy and Europe. The first, aimed at detecting the social perception of security, was created by Demos & Pi through two surveys. The second, produced by the Pavia Observatory, reports the analysis of Italian and European newscasts. Among the various results emerged, in Italy and Spain crime continues to be a subject of television information particularly frequented by the media. Often linked to immigration. Better, to foreigners, authors and responsible for crimes. Furthermore, Italy and Spain are also the countries where Islam provokes an attitude more negative.	https://www.fondazioneunipolis.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/02/RAPPORTO-SICUREZZA2016B.pdf

								Where migrations give the image of the "world that moves", too quickly, according to some it "Invades us".	
Regional	Academic	European University Institute	2017	Hoxhaj, R.	Do Immigrants Overestimate Wages Abroad? New Research Evidence	English	Italy, Albania, North Africa	Migrants have over optimistic expectation about life conditions and job opportunities in the destination country. Facing high financial and psychological costs of migration may lead to frustration and failure when getting unexpectedly low returns. Information sources involve the behaviour of visiting immigrants, return migrants and their status consumption, media, network of family and relatives living in the destination country. The better the integration of migration networks in local contexts, the more accurate the information conveyed is. High expectations particularly among low skilled workers. relatives abroad through status consumption and wealth signal high returns. Return migrants may have more information on job opportunities but inaccurate wage expectations, often transmitted as excessive optimism to aspiring migrants.	https://blogs.eui.eu/migrationpolicycentre/immigrants-overestimate-wages-abroad-new-research-evidence/
Regional	Academic	Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.	2018	Hatayama, M.	ICTs and livelihood supports of refugees and IDPs. K4D Helpdesk Report 504	English	Global	Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) have great potential to address the urgent needs in enhancing self-reliance of refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs). This review looks at examples of approaches that use ICTs to improve livelihoods and employability of refugees and IDPs within the camp. Overall, digital tools and technologies could enhance five areas of livelihood supports: finding employment opportunities, skills development, entrepreneurship supports, access to market and finance. This report includes evidence and case studies from peer-reviewed articles, evaluations and grey literature. It primarily focuses on livelihood support initiatives of those within the refugee and IDP camps but also draws some examples of interventions outside refugee camps. Key findings include: · Mobile and digital based work opportunities, such as online language teaching, enable refugees to work remotely without entering local labour markets. · Mobile devices, apps and online platforms help them find local employment opportunities and information regarding local regulations and laws. · Online learning and mobile content for higher education, vocational and skills development allow them to access resources and teachers at anytime and	

from anywhere while creating new networks in learning communities.
· The most prominent trend is the provision of coding and IT skills to refugees using onsite and blended learning courses to equip them with skills demanded by the international labour market.
· While not focused on those within the camps specifically, comprehensive entrepreneurship programmes targeting refugees also employ many ICTs such as online marketing and digital communication.
· Workspaces and access to infrastructure such as the Internet, mobile phones and electricity can be an effective means of enhancing entrepreneurship and business development.
· E-commerce platforms help expand market opportunities for refugees and connect them to international markets even from restricted refugee camps.
· Online crowdfunding, peer-to-peer lending and mobile money expand access to financial resources for their livelihoods enhancement.
· Fintech and biometric solutions allow them to overcome the issues of identification and documentation in accessing financial and basic services.
A number of studies addressed the policy implications of ICT approaches for livelihoods support for refugees. These include the need to:
· Understand legal and regulatory environments;
· Tailor to available resources and infrastructure;
· Conduct cost-benefit analysis and ensure financial sustainability;
· Invest in ICT related infrastructure;
· Mitigate digital divide across different groups of refugees;· Sustain digital technology interventions;
· Set long-term vision;
· Create partnerships and collaboration;
· Understand local cultural attitudes towards technology and learning;
· Conduct evaluation and share lessons learned;
· Overcome security and privacy issues.
This review found very few ICT approaches for livelihoods enhancement of refugees within camps; more initiatives emerged from the European context, outside camps or in urban settings. Most evidence exists in anecdotal case studies or grey literature; there

								are limited impact studies on ICT approaches in conflict and displaced settings. In addition, the impact on refugees with different abilities are not discussed in the identified studies. For instance, there is limited literature on the use of technology for refugees with disabilities.	
Regional	International Organisation	Mhub trend Bulletin	2018	Mixed Migration Hub	Mixed Migration Hub	English	Africa	This bulletin covers mixed migration trends in Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Mali, Morocco, Niger, Sudan, Tunisia, Greece and Italy.	www.mixedmigrationhub.org
Regional	Private Sector	Project	2018		Bamako Social: Migration narratives in Europe 2017-2018	English	EU	Bakamo social has analysed millions of public social media comments between 2017.07.31 - 2018.08.01 to map out how people online talk about migration. They classified the conversation into five narratives: security, humanitarianism, demographics, economy, identity	https://www.bakamosocial.com/2018-eu-migration-study

10.2 Datasets

Table 25. List of migration related datasets identified by partners.

Publishing Organisation - Level	Publishing Organisation - Type	Publishing Organisation - Name	Year	Geographical Area(s) covered	Title of Source/ Document	Search Terms Used	Language of Source/ Document	Short Description of Key Points	DOI/Hyperlink
Global	International Organisation	IOM	2015	Global	Emigration plans	Migration perception	English	Percentage of adult respondents who reported plans to move permanently to another country in the next 12 months (estimate) 2015	https://migrationdataportal.org/data?i=co_emigperm_yr&t=2015&cm49=368
Global	International Organisation	IOM	2015	Global	Migrant acceptance	Migration perception	English	Percentage of adult respondents who reported that the city or area where they live is a good place to live for immigrants from other countries (estimate) 2015	https://migrationdataportal.org/data?i=co_diversity_yr&t=2015
Global	International Organisation	IOM	2016	Global	Attitudes towards increasing diversity	Migration perception	English	Percentage of people who think that having an increasing number of people of different races, ethnic groups and nationalities in their country makes it a better place to live (2016)	https://migrationdataportal.org/data?i=betterplace&t=2016
EU	Governmental /Policymaking Body	EU Open Data Portal	2016	EU	Standard Eurobarometer 85	Migration perception	English	2016 survey of Eu and five candidate countries which also captures the attitude of EU citizens to migration issues	https://data.europa.eu/euodp/en/data/dataset/S2130_85_2_STD85_ENG
EU	Governmental /Policymaking Body	EU Open Data Portal	2017	EU	Standard Eurobarometer 88	Migration perception	English	2017 survey of Eu and five candidate countries which also captures the attitude of EU citizens to migration issues (5-19 November)	https://data.europa.eu/euodp/en/data/dataset/S2143_88_3_STD88_ENG
EU	Governmental /Policymaking Body	EU Open Data Portal	2017	EU	Standard Eurobarometer 87	Migration perception	English	2017 survey of Eu and five candidate countries which also captures the attitude of	https://data.europa.eu/euodp/en/data/dataset/S2142_87_3_STD87_ENG

								EU citizens to migration issues (20-30 May)	
EU	Governmental /Policymaking Body	EU Open Data Portal	2015	EU	Standard Eurobarometer 84	Migration perception	English	2015 survey of Eu and five candidate countries which also captures the attitude of EU citizens to migration issues (7-17 November)	https://data.europa.eu/euodp/en/data/dataset/S2098_84_3_STD84_ENG
EU	Governmental /Policymaking Body	EU Open Data Portal	2015	EU	Quality of life in EU cities	Migration perception	English	One key question for this survey was: do EU citizens considered migration an asset to their cities?	https://data.europa.eu/euodp/en/data/dataset/S1035_366
EU	Governmental /Policymaking Body	EU Open Data Portal	2016	EU	Standard Eurobarometer 86	Migration perception	English	2016 survey of Eu and five candidate countries which also captures the attitude of EU citizens to migration issues (2-16 November)	https://data.europa.eu/euodp/en/data/dataset/S2137_86_2_STD86_ENG
EU	Governmental /Policymaking Body	EU Open Data Portal	2018	EU	Special Eurobarometer 469 Integration of immigrants in the EU	Migration perception	English	Public opinion on the integration of immigrants in the EU	http://data.europa.eu/euodp/en/data/dataset/S2169_88_2_469_ENG
EU	Governmental /Policymaking Body	European commission	2019	EU	Migration in EU rural areas	Migration perception	English	A report with quantitative overview of migration in rural areas.	https://publications.jrc.ec.europa.eu/repository/bitstream/JRC116919/migration_in_eu_rural_areas.pdf
EU	Governmental /Policymaking Body	FRA	Multi years	EU	Regular overviews of migration-related fundamental rights concerns	Migration perception	English	Datasets about the situation with migrants arriving into the EU's fundamental rights	https://fra.europa.eu/en/theme/asylum-migration-borders/overviews
National	Civil Society / NGOs	Sachverständigenrat deutscher Stiftungen für Integration	2018	Germany	SVR-Integrationsbarometer 2018	Datensatz Stata Migration Integration	German	Explanatory and analytical model of migration and health	

		und Migration (SVR) GmbH						
National	Civil Society / NGOs	TNS Emnid, Bielefeld; GESIS Datenarchiv, Köln	2015	Germany	ZA6609: Meinungen zur aktuellen Flüchtlingssituation in Europa und Deutschland	Datensatz Stata Migration Integration	German	Interaction between Social Status, Migration & Health. "Migration affects health and health affects who migrates"
National	Civil Society / NGOs	Kantar Emnid, Bielefeld; GESIS Datenarchiv, Köln	2019	Germany	ZA6726: Fragen zur Flüchtlingssituation in Deutschland 2019 (Kumulierter Datensatz, 1. Quartal)	Datensatz Stata Migration Integration	German	Self-selection, discrimination, educational preferences/abilities
National	Civil Society / NGOs	various; GESIS Datenarchiv	2019	various	EVS (2019): European Values Study 2017: Integrated Dataset (EVS 2017)	Datensatz Stata Migration Integration	various (e.g. German, English)	Issue 18 of the periodically published report on countries influenced by migration flows, such as in this case Syria. The present issue addresses Christians living in Syria. Other issues touch on countries like Libya (issue 19: overview of the general, such as conflict situation, political & ethnic groups), Eritrea (issue 9: influence of social status on genital mutilation) or the Ukraine (issue 14: safety situation of Roma in Ukraine and governmental actions in this regard)
National	Civil Society / NGOs	Infrastest dimap, Berlin; GESIS	2019	Germany	Fachkräfte-einwanderung	Datensatz Stata Migration Integration	German	Short analysis focussing on the living environment of refugee children and youth, such as their families

		Datenarchiv, Köln						
National	Civil Society / NGOs	Infratest dimap, Bonn (2000 bis einschließlich 2008); aproxima, Weimar (2010); Forschungsgruppe Wahlen Telefonfeld, Mannheim (2011); Institut für Soziologie, Friedrich-Schiller-Universität Jena (seit 2012)	2000-2018	Germany	Thüringen-Monitor 2000-2018	Datensatz Stata Migration Integration	German	Child and youth report, also including chapters on pre-adult refugees and addressing (general) migration background as one analysis perspective
National	Civil Society / NGOs	Mannheimer Zentrum für Europäische Sozialforschung (MZES)	2014-2018	Germany	Children of Immigrants Longitudinal Survey in Four European Countries - Germany (CILS4EU-DE)	Datensatz Stata Migration Integration	German	Annual report of the German Federal Police, covering the operational areas and major developments within the departments

References

The bibliography is divided into three parts. The first list includes the literature included in the systematic literature review. The second set of references includes literature, sources and citations referenced in the original dataset with additional information relevant for the secondary analysis. The final list contains references that are unconnected to the dataset, such as references about the SLR methodology.

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Appendix A. Guidance for WP2 Data Collection and Explanations of Templates

Introduction

The purpose of this guide is to provide detailed instructions to the participating consortium members of WP2 - **RESEARCH: Literature, studies, projects, stakeholders, solutions, tools and practices** - to complete the templates provided by the Task Leaders.

Why the data is collected:

- The data collection provides crucial input for the research in T2.1-T2.5 to ensure we have a well-rounded and comprehensive picture of migration narratives, policies, practices, etc. within your countries and on an international/cross-national level.
- The research in WP2 provides the foundation for the further work in other work packages, such as WP3 (empirical research), WP4 (social media analysis), WP8 (dissemination), amongst others.

What data is collected:

- Please focus primarily on information about **your own country** (e.g., national/regional stakeholders, policies, threats, practices, links to datasets).
- However, if you know of international projects or documents that you think are relevant, please enter them as well, so we don't miss out on potentially important information.
- Details about how to enter the information is provided in the Excel spreadsheets as well as in this document.
- **Please read the instructions in this document carefully**, as it provides a step-by-step guide of what information is required and how to fill out the template for each respective task.

How data is collected:

- We collect data using **Excel spreadsheets**.
- The spreadsheets for all 5 tasks are integrated into one file. That is, you will receive **1 Excel file** in which to collect information for all 5 tasks. The spreadsheets are clearly marked to which task they belong.
- Please provide information on all 5 tasks.

Timeline:

- **Information for T2.1 and T2.2:** these two tasks have very tight deadlines for their deliverables (Dec 19/Jan 20); therefore, please send your completed templates within 1 month – i.e., by **7th November 2019** [there is no need to extract the 2 sheets from the overall Excel file; just send the complete file as is]

- **Information for T2.3-T2.5:** partners have 2 months to complete the templates; final submission by **6th December 2019** [you probably will have some information for these tasks

in the Excel spreadsheet that you sent on 7th November; just leave it in the spreadsheets so you can continue without interruption]

Where to send the Excel file to:

- Please send your completed Excel file to CENTRIC (*email*[2]). We will forward them to respective partners.

In case you have questions about a specific task:

Please contact the task leader for the respective task, so they can provide you with the necessary information or assistance.

- **T2.1:** *name: email*[3]
- **T2.2:** *name: email*
- **T2.3:** *name: email*
- **T2.4:** *name: email*
- **T2.5:** *name: email*

Lastly: thank you for your hard work.

Secondary analysis of studies, projects, and narratives

Purpose

Task 2.2 will use a **Systematic Literature Review** (SLR) to approach Deliverable 2.2 (D2.2: 'Secondary analysis of studies, projects, and narratives'). Systematic Literature Reviews are a means of identifying, evaluating and interpreting all available research relevant to a particular research question or questions, topic area or phenomenon of interest. The SLR for T2.2 will synthesise available knowledge pertinent to PERCEPTIONS, identify any gaps in current research for further investigation and provide a framework to appropriately position new research activities in the context of other work packages.

The subsequent sections provide guidance on how to identify and screen relevant research, reports and secondary data for D2.2.

Questions guiding the review

To ensure the collection of **relevant information**, we are guided by several research questions. These questions help to ensure that the study will be comprehensive in its nature, whilst providing an in-depth analysis into the existing literature on migrant perceptions and narratives of the EU. These research questions are formulated to create relevant input for subsequent work packages.

The research questions are:

- What narratives and myths are circulating about the EU and how do these perceptions of Europe abroad act as an incentive for other potential migrants to migrate to Europe?

[2] Email address was removed in this deliverable for privacy considerations.

[3] Task leader names and contact information were removed in this deliverable for privacy considerations.

- How and in what ways do ICT and social media facilitate the flow of narratives images, and rumours through social networks or other channels?
- Which narratives could lead to problems, false expectations, security threats or even radicalisation?
- What are European citizen's perceptions on external security, social resilience, and attitudes toward relevant technologies and organisational measures?

Review Strategy

This section outlines the strategy that will be used to search for resources. The search strategy is intended to identify and collect relevant academic and grey literature as well as secondary data that meets the inclusion and exclusion criteria detailed below. We advocate a mixed search strategy to includes both automatic searches of electronic databases and manual searches of conference and journal proceedings.

Language requirements for sources/documents

For the review in T2.2, we can work with documents in the following languages:

- English
- French
- Italian
- German
- Dutch

If you have documents in the other languages, please make sure they have an (extensive) English summary (or any of the other languages above), so we can verify the information.

Resources to be Searched

To ensure a comprehensive view on migration narratives, we aim to collect knowledge from a broad range of sources. These are:

- **Academic literature** and the state-of-the-art research on migration narratives
- **Empirical data** from migration projects, including those funded by the EU
- **Electronic databases**, such as Eurostat and EUMAGINE to "collect practices, measures, tools, models and strategies for (counter-) acting on threats and expectations caused by false narratives" and "European citizen perceptions on external security, social resilience, and attitudes toward relevant technologies and organisational measures"
- **Grey literature** produced by international organizations; governmental / policymaking bodies; NGOs / civic organizations; think tanks / lobbies; legal bodies; security / LEAs / border agencies, and the private sector
- **Media and (auto-) biographical accounts**

Possible sources for the above types are:

Academic literature [only consider literature published in the year 2000 or later]

- Peer-Reviewed Journal Articles
- Conference Proceedings
- Book Chapters

- Books

In order to maximise the reach of the search, the following academic databases are helpful:

- Google Scholar
- Web of Science
- ProQuest
- Scopus
- EBSCO
- IEEE Xplore
- ACM Digital Library

Another good source are topic specific journals such as:

- The Oxford Journal of Refugee Studies
- The Journal of Ethics and Migration Studies
- The Journal of International Migration and Integration
- International Migration
- Crossings
- Journal of Migration & Culture
- European Journal of Migration and Law
- Journal of Immigrant and Refugees Studies
- … plus: national journals published in your own country (language)

Existing Data Sets [only provide information about data sets published 2015 or later]

To allow the identification of data sets that we can review and re-analyse, the following databases can be useful:

- DIOC
- DEMIG POLICY
- Eurostat
- EUMAGINE
- European Social Survey
- The Refugees Operational Portal
- EU Open Data Portal
- EU Knowledge Centre on Migration and Demography
- IOM Migration Data Portal

Grey Literature [only consider if published 2015 or later]

Grey literature includes project and policy reports, briefs and presentations from various bodies (see Table 1).

Grey Literature Sources:

Organisation Type	Level of Operations
Governmental / Policymaking Bodies International Organisations Security / LEA / Border Agency Civil Society / NGOs Private Sector Think Tanks / Lobby's Legal Bodies	Global EU National Regional

Projects [only consider if started 2015 or later]

Please also provide information of migration projects that may have published relevant publications or data sets. Such projects can be regional, national or international from any of the organisation types and levels identified in table 1, such EU projects and those carried out by other organisations, such as the IOM's I am a Migrant project and Missing Migrants Project (MaM).

Media and Biographical Accounts [only consider if from 2015 or later]

Due to the narrative focus of PERCEPTIONS, migration perceptions contained within published (auto-) biographical accounts and media (including social media) are to be searched to ensure thoroughness. These will be searched using the search terms in:

- Search engines: Google, Bing, Twitter, etc.
- Newspaper databases / archives: e.g. LexisNexis, The European Library, etc.

Search Words and Search Strings

We suggest the following search terms to ensure the results are relevant for T2.2:

Primary Search Terms	Secondary Search Terms	(non-exhaustive list)
Migrants Narrative EU	Journeys Country of Origin Transit Destination Incentive Europe Africa Middle East Asia Information Systems ICT Social Media	Gender Identity Perception Misperceptions Myth Security Metanarrative Counternarrative Citizen Attitudes Resilience Toolkits

A Boolean search string can be devised by combining these search terms together into topics of interest[4]:

- "Migrants" AND "Narrative" AND/OR "EU" AND (Journeys AND/OR Country of Origin AND/OR Transit AND/OR Destination AND/OR Incentive)
- "Migrants" AND "Narrative" AND/OR "EU" AND (Europe AND/OR EU AND/OR Africa AND/OR Middle East AND/OR Asia).
- "Migrants" AND "Narrative" AND/OR "EU" AND (Information Systems AND/OR Information and Communication Technology AND/OR Social Media)
- "Migrants" AND "Narrative" AND/OR "EU" AND (Gender)
- Migrants" AND "Misperception" AND/OR "EU" AND (Security Risks)

[4] The University of London has a concise guide on why and how to use Boolean search strings in searching for literature that can be found here.

These search strings may be combined into other combinations, to check for overlaps between topics, such as intersections between migration, narratives and ICT. You can also use additional search strings, e.g., to accommodate national/regional variations or special topics. However, **all search terms and search strings used must be recorded** in the T2.2 Template to ensure we can replicate the findings (to ensure transparency of our methods towards the EU).

Inclusion and Exclusion Selection Criteria

Selection criteria ensure that only relevant literature is included and that results can be tested and verified against consistent inclusion and exclusion criteria.

The **inclusion criteria** for the publications and examined studies are:

- Publications and sources that are topically relevant to migration, narratives and the EU.
- Sources that use empirical data or are theoretical.
- Grey literature, (such as technical papers or government reports), are also to be accepted if relevant.
- Literature is to be included if it is written the following languages: English, French, Italian, German and Dutch (see also section 3.3.1).
- Only publicly available material is to be included and material that is made public via agreement of a classified IPR.

The **exclusion criteria** for the publications and examined studies are:

- Publications will be excluded if their focus is not on the above mentioned topically relevant themes of migration narratives and the EU.
- Sources that lack empirical data and/or theoretical foundation are to be excluded.
- **Academic literature published before 2000**, and **grey literature and secondary data published before 2014**.
- Literature will be excluded when only the abstract but not the full text is available online.
- When several papers have reported the same study only the most recent paper is to be included.

Entering Results in the T2.2 template

We require the following information from the sources you found:

- Publishing Organisation – type, level and name
- Publication Type
- Year
- Author(s)
- Title of the source/document
- Search Terms Used
- Language of the source/document
- Geographical Area(s) covered
- Methodological approach
- Short Description of Key Points
- DOI/Hyperlink

The sources provided for T2.2 will be reviewed by us (CENTRIC) to create a systematic overview of existing literature and knowledge. The result of this review and analysis will be reported in D2.2 (deadline January 2020).

Appendix B. List of search terms and search strings

"Immigrants" AND "Perception" OR "Security"
"Migrants" AND "Narrative" AND "EU"
"Migrants" AND "Narrative" AND "EU" AND "Social media"
"Migrants" AND "Misperception" OR "EU" AND "Ελλάδα"
'Migrant Aspirations' AND 'Environmental Migration' OR 'Culture of Migration'
"Immigration" AND "Security" OR "Europe" OR Italy
"Migrants" AND "Misperception" OR "EU" OR "Security Risks"
"Migrants" AND "Narrative"
"Migrants" AND "Narrative" AND "EU"
"Migrants" AND "Narrative" AND "EU" AND Security
"Migration Factors"
"Percezione" AND "Migrazione" AND "Europa"
Asylum Seekers AND Refugees AND Misinformation
Borders AND narratives AND Europe
Depression AND epidemiology AND mental health AND multicultural AND post-traumatic stress disorder
ethnic discrimination AND integration AND migration
EU AND migration AND narratives AND counter-narratives
EU AND mobility AND migrant AND struggles AND borders AND solidarity
EUMAGINE AND Perceptions AND EU AND Migrant Aspirations
Europe, cultural diversity policies, security
Europe, migration, perceptions, social media
European Union AND Smart cities AND Policy making AND ICTs AND Migration AND Refugee Crises AND Policy Instruments
Gender AND Migration AND Mediterranean AND Asylum Seekers
Immigrant AND Facebook
Immigration
Irregular migrants AND Asylum seekers
Migrant AND Digital
Migrant AND narrative
Migrant AND Narrative AND EU
Migrant AND Narrative AND EU AND Security
Migrant AND Narrative AND Social media
Migrant AND Perceptions AND EU
Migrant AND Threat
Migrants AND Borders
Migrants AND Digital
Migrants AND Europe AND "Security Risk"
Migrants AND Europe AND Expectations
Migrants AND Europe AND ICT
Migrants AND Host Country AND Narrative
Migrants AND Incentives AND Europe

Migrants AND Narrative AND (Africa OR “middle east” or Asia). Refine search results with additional term Europe
Migrants AND Narrative AND (EU OR Europe OR “European Union”) AND (journey OR “country of origin” OR transit OR destination OR incentive)
Migrants AND Narrative AND (EU or Europe) AND (“information systems” OR “information and communication technology” OR ICT OR social media)
Migrants AND Narrative AND EU
Migrants AND Narrative AND Spain OR Senegal
Migrants AND narrative* AND (EU or Europe) AND (gender OR male OR female)
Migrants AND Narrative* AND (EU OR Europe* OR “European Union) AND (Africa OR “middle east” OR Asia)
Migrants AND Narratives AND Spain
Migrants AND Narratives AND Spain AND Senegal
Migrants AND Perceptions AND EU
Migrants AND Perceptions AND Europe
Migrants AND Social Media
Migrants AND Social Media AND Africa
Migrants AND Social Media AND EU
Migrants AND Social Media AND Europe
Migrants AND Turkey AND Myth
Migrants OR Immigrants AND “narrative” AND “EU”
Migration AND International Trade
Migration AND Narrative AND Destination
Migration AND Narrative AND EU AND Country of Origin
Migration AND Narrative AND EU AND Journey
Migration AND Narrative AND Security
Migration AND Narrative AND Social Media
Migration AND Narratives AND Destination AND Social Media
Migration AND Narratives AND Incentive
Migration AND Narratives AND Incentive AND EU
Migration AND Narratives AND Social Media AND Security
Migration AND North Africa AND Melilla
Migration AND Refugees AND Ethnicity AND Social instincts hypothesis AND Entrepreneurial spirit
Migration AND Social Media
Migration AND 'Social Media' AND Information Systems
Migration AND 'Social Media' AND Middle East
Migration AND Twitter
Morocco AND Irregular Migration AND Perceptions AND Radicalisation
Narratives AND Europe AND Italy
Perceptions AND EU AND migrant aspirations
Refugees
Refugees AND Immigration AND Social Inclusion AND Socio-Economic Integration AND Human Capital
Refugees AND Risks
Refugees AND Social Media
Refugees AND Social Media AND Threat
Second Generation AND Migration AND Refugees AND Racism OR Racialization

Social Media AND Migration AND Narratives
Social Media AND Narratives AND Destination Countries
Social Media AND Narratives AND Europe AND “migrant aspirations”
Sub-Sahara Africa AND EU AND (migrant aspirations OR perceptions) AND migration management
Unaccompanied Minors

Appendix C. List of journals covered in the review

- ACME: An International E-Journal for Critical Geographies
- Africa
- American Behavioral Scientist
- Antipode
- Anti-trafficking Review
- Cahiers d'Études africaines
- Cahiers memoire et politique
- Comparative Migration Studies
- Crime Law Social Change
- Crime Media Culture
- Crossings
- Cultural Studies
- Discourse & Communication
- Discourse & Society
- Economics and Sociology
- Ethnic and Racial Studies
- European Quarterly of Political Attitudes and Mentalities
- European Security
- European Journal of Criminology
- Environmental Sociology
- European Journal of Cultural Studies
- European Journal of Migration and Law
- European Journal of Women's Studies
- European Journal of Political Economy
- Europolity
- Epidemiology and Psychiatric Sciences
- Focaal
- Geopolitics
- Global Networks, a journal of transnational affairs
- Global Media and Communication
- Human Arenas
- Human technology
- Hommes & Migrations
- International Review of Education
- International Journal of Comparative Sociology
- International Migration
- International Political Science Review
- International Review of Sociology
- International Sociology Review
- Intersections
- International Social Science Review
- International Journal of E-Politics
- Italian Studies
- Italian Journal of Sociology and Education
- Int. Migration & Integration
- Information Processing and Management
- Intellectual Economics
- Journal of Common Market Studies
- Journal of Communication Management
- Journal of Ethnographic Theory
- Journal für kritische Migrations- und Grenzregimeforschung
- Journal of International Relations and Development
- Journal of Migration & Culture
- Journal of Borderland Studies

- Journal of Family Issues
- Journal of Industrial Relations
- Journal of Immigrant and Refugees Studies
- Journal on Migration and Human Security
- Journal of Science and Technology Policy Management
- Journal of security and sustainability issues
- Journal of strategic security
- Languages
- Language in Society
- Mass Communication and Society
- Media, Culture and Society
- Media and Communication
- Migration Letters
- Migration and Development
- Nations and Nationalism, Journal of the Association for the study of Ethnicity and Nationalism
- Nordic Journal of Migration Research
- Nordic Psychology
- Oxford development Studies
- Patterns of Prejudice
- Popular Communication, The International Journal of Media and Culture
- Population, Space and Place
- Political Geography
- Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences
- Sage open
- Sexuality and Culture
- Sicurezza e scienze sociali
- Social and Cultural Geography
- Social Inclusion
- Social identities Journal for the Study of Race, Nation and Culture
- Sociology
- Sociologica
- Societies
- Social Media and Society
- Stability: International Journal of Security & Development
- Studii de lingvistica
- Studi Emigrazione
- Technological Forecasting & Social Change
- The International Spectator, Italian Journal of International Affairs
- The Journal of Development Studies
- The Journal of Ethics and Migration Studies
- The Journal of International Migration and Integration
- The Journal of North African Studies
- The Oxford Journal of Refugee Studies
- Theoretical Criminology
- The International Communication Gazette
- Territory, Politics, Governance
- Trames
- Women's Studies International Forum