GENDER ON THE MOVE
Working on the Migration-Development Nexus from a Gender perspective

2nd Edition

UN Women Training Centre
GENDER ON THE MOVE

WORKING ON THE MIGRATION-DEVELOPMENT NEXUS FROM A GENDER PERSPECTIVE

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UN Women Training Centre
Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic, 2016

2nd Edition
UN Women is the United Nations organization dedicated to gender equality and the empowerment of women. A global champion for women and girls, UN Women was established to accelerate progress on meeting their needs worldwide.

UN Women supports UN Member States as they set global standards for achieving gender equality, and works with governments and civil society to design laws, policies, programmes, and services needed to implement these standards. It stands behind women’s equal participation in all aspects of life, focusing on six priority areas: increasing women’s leadership and participation; ending violence against women; engaging women in all aspects of peace and security processes; enhancing women’s economic empowerment; making gender equality central to national development planning and budgeting; and increasing coordination and accountability across the UN system for gender equality.

*Gender on the Move: Working on the Migration-Development Nexus from a Gender Perspective*

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This manual was validated through a series of pilot workshops in Santo Domingo with representatives of the United Nations system (UN Women, UNDP, and IOM), the government of the Dominican Republic (Ministry of Women and Ministry of the Economy), NGOs and civil society in December 2010, and with graduate students in Colombia in 2011. However, the manual, like all training processes, is conceived of as a dynamic and adaptable tool. In order to continue learning and improving the tool presented herein, you are welcome to submit comments and suggestions through the Gender Training community of practice of UN Women, in the forum dedicated to this topic.
“In effect, we migrant women are women who in one way or another are changing the world. We do not come to solve anything, or to do miracles; we come to change the world based on the goals we propose for ourselves, based on what we want to carry out, and based on what one day we will be able to say we have achieved.”

– Beatriz Vahos, Association of Active Domestic Service (SEDOAC), Spain
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This publication is an updated edition of the manual “Gender on the move: working the migration-development nexus from a gender perspective,” which was based on research conducted by UN Women (then UN INSTRAW*) between 2004 and 2010. This new version is enriched with content, references and activities that are the result of the experiences of training, research and projects implemented globally by UN Women in the period 2013-2016.

With this new version we address different aspects of the link between migration, gender equality and human development. One of these aspects are the sectoral public policies at the national and local levels, which should take into account the needs of migrants and their potential as agents of development. The role of financial remittances is discussed as an engine of development and clues offered to open the debate in terms of human development. Another aspect is the culture, and the need to combat stereotypes about migrants and the role of women and men in our societies. A third aspect is political, migratory agreements and practices, which should include the human rights approach and gender equality.

Thus, the manual in its new edition, aims to promote reflection on femininity and masculinity in the immigration context. It also includes an analysis from a gender perspective, migration tools such as binational agreements, contracts for domestic work and training for migrants before they take their departure. The manual provides an update on the global processes for advocacy and presents some guidelines for action. Finally, it ventures into emerging issues such as LGTBI migrant population, climate change, and the new sexual division of labor.

The purpose of this manual is to develop the capacities of actors whose work relates to migration and human development. Gender equality is not only a specific goal (goal 5) of the new Sustainable Development Agenda 2030, but also has been incorporated into all 16 additional targets. As for the immigration issue is more important in this agenda, but in a partial and fragmented way. The challenge is to articulate the different goals for real change in the lives of migrants and their families. This manual aims to contribute to this effort.

Clemencia Muñoz-Tamayo
UN Women Training Centre Chief

*As of July 2010, UN-INSTRAW (the United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women) became part of the new agency UN WOMEN (United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women).
Facilitator’s Guide
This manual is designed to be used in two ways: as a self-didactic learning guide, and as support material to carry out in-person training workshops on migration and development with government workers, NGO technical personnel, or other organizations who work on issues related to migration, development and/or gender equality.

How is the manual structured?

The manual is made up of four learning guides:

1. **Introduction to Gender, Migration, and Development**

2. **Impact of Remittances on Local Economies in Origin Countries from a Gender Perspective (focus on origin countries)**

3. **Global Care Chains**

4. **Migration Policies and Migrant Women’s Rights (focus on destination, origin, and transit countries)**

5. **Emerging Issues in Gender, Migration, and Development**

The first four guides have two parts: a reading section with reflection questions, followed by a section with various exercises designed to reinforce the knowledge acquired and to achieve the learning objectives laid out at the beginning of each guide. Most of the material derives directly from the conceptual framework *Crossing Borders II: Migration and Development from a Gender Perspective*, where additional bibliographic references and information can be found.*

**Guide 1** provides an introduction to the concepts of gender and human development as they relate to migration and development. It also proposes new axes of analysis to help readers and workshop participants re-orient future interventions on the migration-development nexus. This guide must be used in any training or self-didactic learning process on gender and migration, since it aims to build participants’ analytical capacity on these topics. Guide 1 is recommended as a foundation before delving into the specific topics covered in guides 2, 3, 4 and 5.

*See Pérez Orozco, Amaia, Denise Paiewonsky and Mar García Domínguez. 2008. Crossing Borders II: Migration and Development from a Gender Perspective. UN INSTRAW (now part of UN WOMEN): Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic.
Guide 2 explores the topic of remittances from a gender perspective and proposes alternatives for promoting gender-sensitive local development in areas of high emigration and remittance receipt. The facilitator can choose a sub-topic and exercise to introduce the phenomenon of remittances or, if it is of interest to the group, may choose to design an entire training based on this guide, always in combination with the concepts and at least one exercise from guide 1.

Guide 3 introduces the debate surrounding global care chains. An entire workshop can be designed on this topic in combination with the sub-topic of domestic workers’ rights from guide 4. As always, it is important to use guide 1 as a starting point to provide the theoretical foundation regarding feminization of migration, etc.

Guide 4 discusses migration policies and migrant women’s rights, putting emphasis on two types of rights that are especially important for migrant women: labor rights of domestic workers and the right to sexual and reproductive health. It also provides advocacy strategies and best practices to protect the rights of women migrant workers through gender-sensitive training programs, standard contracts in bilateral agreements, and global processes on migration and development. In order to fully address this topic, the activities from this guide should be combined with pertinent activities from other guides of this manual.

Finally, guide 5 offers a state of the art of three emerging topics: human rights of LBTI migrant women workers, gender and climate migration and the international sexual division of labor, as well as recommendations on possible actions and useful resources. This guide does not include training activities but the resources provided can be used to develop specific sessions.

Each activity includes an instruction sheet for the facilitator with objectives, materials/preparation, time, facilitation tips, and key lessons. The latter are the conclusions to which participants should arrive, and that should help keep the facilitator on track throughout the activity. The work sheets following each activity are designed to be photocopied and handed to the participants.

At the end of each guide there is a list of references which includes both the materials used in the development of the manual as well as additional resources for further reference. At the end of the manual there is a glossary of terms used throughout the publication as well as a table of intervention ideas that can be used as a tool for participants to brainstorm ideas on how to apply what they have learned to their area of work.

The manual comes with a USB that contains: the electronic version of this publication; the publications of the Gender, Migration, and Development research and training program of UN Women; and supporting materials for certain activities (videos, multimedia files, etc.).
How Can I Use This Manual?

**Self-didactic learning.** Individual learners should read each guide slowly, pausing to reflect on how what s/he is reading relates to her/his area of work. This reflection can be guided by the questions under the heading “Stop & Reflect” in each section, as well as through the videos and case studies used in the activities section.

**In-person training workshops.** The design of individual training workshops will depend on who is participating, what their learning objectives are, and the level at which the knowledge will be applied, among other factors. While the facilitator is free to design the training as s/he pleases, the following guidelines should always be taken into account:

- Guide 1 should be used as an introduction to every workshop in order to establish a common theoretical foundation.
- Depending on the interests of the training participants, workshops can be designed to work only with guides 2, 3 or 4, but always in combination with guide 1.
- It is useful to prepare a PowerPoint presentation including the main points from each reading section, and to alternate between presenting the material and facilitating interactive activities.
- Choose some questions from the “Stop & Reflect” sections in order to open up debate following your theoretical presentations.
- A complete training workshop is estimated to last 2-4 days. If you have enough time to carry out a complete workshop, consider assigning readings to the participants prior to each session, in order to save time on the presentation of concepts and be able to dedicate more time to activities and discussion.
Who should facilitate the workshop?

The person in charge of facilitating the workshop should have prior experience facilitating trainings and a solid command of the gender perspective, especially as it applies to processes of migration and development.

Who should you invite to the workshop?

The intended audience of this manual includes professionals with experience or knowledge related to the design and implementation of migration and development programs and policies. The training may also be useful for people whose work is related to the topics of remittances, care work, gender, and human rights. The target population for trainings using this manual includes various institutions and organizations, such as:

1. Agencies pertaining to the United Nations system (e.g. UNDP, UNHCR, UNFPA, ILO, IOM)
2. Technical personnel from NGOs and civil society organizations (e.g. migrant associations, women’s organizations, etc.)
3. Donor organizations who are interested in the topic (e.g. the Joint Migration and Development Initiative of the European Commission and various UN agencies, GTZ, SIDA)
4. Representatives of official organisms or public institutions (e.g. Ministries or Secretariats of Women’s Affairs, the Interior, Foreign Relations, Economy, Labor, etc.)

Depending on the objective of the workshop, the facilitator may decide whether to invite participants from only one type or field of work or to invite a more diverse group. There are advantages and disadvantages to each arrangement. For example, if the training includes colleagues from the same organization, it could provide a space to discuss certain topics in greater depth and to do some strategic planning for the medium term. On the other hand, if the objective is to generate dialogue between different stakeholders, it may make sense to diversify the participants by type of organization.
How should the workshop be carried out?

It is important to establish a positive and participatory tone from the very beginning of the workshop, while also encouraging participants to get to know one another and establishing some minimum norms and expectations. For example, the facilitator could begin by following these steps:

1. **Introduce yourself as facilitator and the theme of the workshop.**

2. **Ask the participants to introduce themselves and to say their name, institution or organization and position, interest in the topic/how it is related to their work, and expectations for the workshop.**

   Write their expectations on flip chart paper and go over them at the end of the introductions, distinguishing between those that will be met in the workshop and those that are beyond the reach of the chosen objectives.

3. **If you think it will be useful, collectively come up with some basic norms to facilitate mutual respect and dialogue among participants.**

4. **Present the objectives and workshop agenda, as well as any logistical information about breaks, bathroom location, parking, etc.**

This manual is conceived as a tool to help men and women to build gender competence and acquire the knowledge and skills necessary for advancing gender equality in their daily lives and work. In that sense, the methodologies used in the training preparation, delivery and evaluation should follow feminist and participatory principles. We highly recommend to the persons who will facilitate the sessions to read the “Typology in Training for Gender Equality” developed by UN Women Training Centre, or any other reference on this topic.
How to present the theoretical component?

The facilitator should consider preparing a presentation based on the contents of the reading section of each guide that s/he has chosen to present. A good presentation will include only the most important points, without overwhelming participants with text-heavy slides, and will alternate informative slides with examples of good practices that appear throughout the text or discussion questions taken from the “Stop & Reflect” section in order to stimulate debate. If possible, the theoretical presentations should not last more than one hour per topic, before doing an interactive activity from the second section of the guide.

How to choose the activities?

Some activities are designed to be rather simple, debate-openers, while others require certain background information or prior knowledge (the facilitation tips at the beginning of the activities describe what kind of activity it is). In general, the order in which the activities appear goes from simple to more complex. It is important to follow a similar progression when selecting and deciding upon the order of activities, in order to build upon the knowledge acquired without overwhelming participants.

In line with principles of adult education, the guides include a variety of activities such as case studies, videos, radio clips, debates, etc. that task the participants with reading, watching, discussing, listening, debating, etc. There are individual activities, as well as activities designed for participants to work in pairs, small groups, or all together in a plenary session. In this way, participants can build their own learning process through activities that appeal to different capacities and skills. In order to preserve this model, it is best to choose a good mix of activities that require dialogue, analysis, individual reading and/or use of multimedia materials.

Finally, the activities you choose should follow a logical order that will depend on the workshop objectives. If the objective is the raise awareness, the facilitator might choose activities that seek to develop participants’ analytical capacity (case studies, videos or radio clips). Alternatively, if the objective is for participants to apply what they have learned to their area of work, it would make sense to design a longer workshop (2-4 days) with activities that range from awareness raising to more complex activities that task them with designing their own intervention.
INTRODUCTION

TO GENDER, MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT
Goal of this Guide

Demonstrate the relationship between gender and the migration-development nexus; propose new axes of analysis regarding this nexus; and present strategic topics that aim to reorient future migration-development interventions to include a comprehensive gender perspective that goes beyond the focus on women only.

Learning Objectives

1. Recognize the basic tenets, strengths, and weaknesses of the “remittances for development” model.

2. Explore the relationship between the gender perspective and the migration process, and understand the basis for the application of gender analysis that includes shifting gender roles in the migration process.

3. Be able to apply the gender perspective in the context of participants’ work on issues of migration and development, including engaging both women and men to transform gender relations.

4. Become familiar with the concepts of human development; the spatial dimensions of development; and migrants’ agency in development initiatives.

5. Understand the phenomenon of feminization of migration.

6. Understand gender analysis beyond the focus on women to the changing ideas of ‘masculinities’ and ‘femininities’ in the migration cycle.
1.1 What is our point of departure?  
The Dominant Model of “Remittances for Development”

Ever since the World Bank began to keep track and publish data on global remittance flows, there has been a growing interest in the potential of remittances to reduce poverty and solve development problems. Various actors have begun to explore this potential: multilateral development banks, aid organizations, United Nations agencies, governments of origin and destination countries, NGOs and civil society organizations, banks and microfinance institutions, etc. Each one of these actors emphasizes different aspects of the relationship between migration and development, but all of them seem to focus in large part on diverse aspects of remittances: how to lower transfer costs, how to promote savings and the “banking of the unbanked,” how to create projects that stimulate collective remittance investments, etc. The majority of these initiatives is designed based on a dominant model that has come to be called “remittances for development” (Pérez Orozco et al 2008).

What is the “remittances for development” model?  
This model or paradigm consists of the following characteristics:

- It is centered around the effects of migration on origin countries, much more than destination countries.
- It considers remittances the most important component of the migration-development nexus.
- The primary tool it uses to increase the positive effects of remittances for development is the promotion of an “inclusive financial democracy” through:
  - The channeling of remittances through formal transfer systems
  - The lowering of transfer costs
  - “Banking the unbanked”: Helping those who do not have bank accounts to open one, designing new financial services, and facilitating access to these services
  - Promoting an entrepreneurial spirit among remitters and remittance recipients so that they save and invest.
- It departs from an economistic vision of development that is centered on individual access to goods and services in the market.
The “Remittances for Development” Paradigm

Mechanisms

- Promotion of an entrepreneurial spirit among migrants and remittance recipients
- **FORMAL BANKING OF REMITTANCES**
  - Must reduce costs and increase competition
  - Must build a “financial democracy”
  - Must channel remittances through formal services and promote access to related services

Protagonist

- Entrepreneurial migrant and his/her family (a harmonious, cooperative unit)
- Must promote appropriate management of their resources (remittances) to achieve a sustainable livelihood
- Largely ignores need to intervene on structural level
- Individual/family acting in the realm of the market. Absence of institutions.

Cornerstone: Remittances

- Positive macroeconomic impact
- Positive impact on local economy
- Direct impact on recipient households
- Indirect impact on entire community

Source: Pérez Orozco et al (UN-INSTRAW, now part of UN Women) 2008
HOW DOES THIS MODEL WORK?

According to this model, remittance flows have great potential to contribute to the development of so-called developing countries. At a macro level, remittances contribute to stabilize the balance of payments in recipient countries, while also serving as an important financing source for poverty reduction. At a micro level, remittances go directly to poor households and stimulate the local economy by increasing the resources that are circulating in the community. Proponents of the dominant model suggest that if this increase in available resources were accompanied by the abovementioned changes in the banking system, a “financial democracy” would come about, in which everyone could theoretically participate. At the same time, this would improve access to financial services not only for migrants and remittance recipient households, but also for the entire community. Having access to credit would encourage people to undertake entrepreneurial activities which, within this model, represent the main pillar of local development. (For more information on this “virtuous circle,” see guide 2).

WHAT DO YOU THINK?

“According to this approach [remittances for development], the poor can become leaders of the development process because they already have the necessary resources to do so, including remittances. All they need to do is learn to use and manage them correctly” (Canales 2006: 175, our translation).
1. According to the remittances for development model, what do the following people/entities have to do in order for remittances to contribute to development?
   - Migrants and their families in origin countries
   - Banks
   - Public institutions

2. Do you think that this model works? What are its pros and cons? What elements and stakeholders are key for this model to work?
1.2 Why is a gender perspective necessary? What is the value added?

This perspective is necessary because gender affects all aspects of the migration experience of both women and men. Gender affects reasons for migrating, the decision of who will migrate, the social networks migrants use to move, experiences of integration and labor insertion in the destination country, and relations with one’s country of origin. Gender also influences the quantity and frequency of remittances that are sent, transfer mechanisms, and the general impact that remittances have on the origin country.

In many sectors of development, it has been shown that working from a gender perspective increases the efficacy of policies and programs. Adopting a gender perspective means that programs should take into account the specific needs of women and men, and should aim to shift unequal power relations to enable the full enjoyment of human rights for both sexes. Plenty of evidence and lessons learned have emerged from more established development sectors (e.g. health, education), showing that “if development is not engendered, it is endangered. And if poverty reduction strategies fail to empower women, they will fail to empower society” (UNDP 1997: 7). However, the primary reason why we must work from a gender perspective is not only to increase program efficacy, though this is certainly important; we have also come to understand that without gender equality, we cannot speak of there being development. In other words, gender equality should be a central objective to any model that aspires to bring about development.

Despite there being a general consensus on the importance of including gender considerations, many organizations working on migration and development issues still do not recognize the relationship between gender and their field of work. This oversight has serious consequences. Ignoring gender relations not only leads to the design of policies and programs that are ineffective or respond poorly to men and women’s lived reality; it also fails to work toward the third Millennium Development Goal, “Promote gender equality and empower women.”

This manual seeks to strengthen the capacity of those who are working on migration and development so that they come to a better understanding of how gender relates to their work and, above all, so that they can design policies and programs that are gender sensitive.

Stop & Reflect

1. Do you know of any migration-development initiatives that do a good job of incorporating the gender perspective?
1.3 Re-directing the Focus of our Work: Four Axes of Analysis

Migration is a complex process that cannot be understood without accepting that migrants are social beings, not only remittance senders. In other words, one cannot isolate remittances from the people who send and manage them. Seen in this light, the dominant model is extremely limited, since its only protagonist is the individual remitter operating in the realm of the market.

Remittances are not the only link between migration and development, but rather the most tangible economic result of a much broader phenomenon.

In order to broaden our field of vision and gain a better understanding of the complexity of the migration process and its impact on development, we propose the following axes of analysis:

1. Gender as a central analytical category.
2. The right to human development
3. The spatial dimension of development – from the transnational to the local
4. Migrants as protagonists of development

1.3.1 Gender as a Central Analytical Category

What exactly does ‘gender’ mean?

While sex refers to the biological characteristics that distinguish male, female, intersex, and/or transgender individuals, the term gender refers to the set of characteristics, values, beliefs, qualities and behaviors that societies assign to individuals. This definition of gender goes beyond the ‘gender binary system’ that identifies only two sexes or genders – male and female. Gender binaries of male and female are the narrower way most gender perspectives are thought of, including migration and development. In most parts of the world, the male/female binary is the dominant way that sex and gender are still viewed.¹

This is why gender is called a social construction – it is an idea built by the people, groups, and institutions that make up society. Gender differences are not neutral, since they are often constructed in opposition to one another, sharply contrasting the binary view of male/female (e.g. notions of men being strong and women weak). This creates power relations that result
in inequalities among men, women, intersex, and transgender individuals. These relations can change over time and vary according to the sociocultural context. Gender also intersects with other identity and power dynamics such as social class, ethnicity, nationality, sexual orientation, migratory status, etc. Gender relations, then, are constructed (and challenged) at various levels: micro (individual, household, community), meso (labor market, social networks, religious and cultural institutions), and macro (international division of labor).

In this manual, although most examples and analysis will be presented by referring to ‘women’ and ‘men’ migrants, emerging gender analysis calls us to think more broadly. Thus, the terms ‘women’ and ‘men’ are used to refer to an individual’s self-determined gender identity rather than a biological definition. We also should consider non-binary identities including intersex, transgender, and various other sex and gender identities. Guide 5 in the manual on Emerging Topics includes a section further defining and analyzing the intersection of migration and diverse gender and sexual identities as well as relevant human rights instruments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>□ Biologically determined</td>
<td>□ Is learned, not “natural”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Refers to physical, chromosomal, and physiological characteristics</td>
<td>□ Socially assigned behaviors, beliefs, and attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ One is born male, female, or intersex</td>
<td>□ What is considered appropriate for men and women can change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ It can be changed only with external intervention</td>
<td>□ over time and according to the sociocultural context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Same in all cultures; independent of social factors. However,</td>
<td>□ Intersects with other social variables that also generate inequalities:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intersex people are often under-recognized or misidentified as</td>
<td>social class, ethnicity, nationality, sexual orientation, migratory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>either male or female at birth</td>
<td>status, disability, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>□ Generates different identities, expectations, and opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>□ Creates power relations and inequalities between genders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>□ Inequalities operate at multiple levels: micro (individual, family),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>meso (interpersonal), macro (institutional)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>□ Assumptions about, recognition of, and inequalities faced by intersex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>or transgender individuals are often more pronounced due to the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>gender binary system of male/female</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1.
Basic Gender Concepts and their Link with Migration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Example from the migration process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender roles</strong>: Activities, tasks, and responsibilities assigned to men and women according to the social construction of gender in a given context. Roles do not necessarily correspond with the capacity, potential, or wishes of individual persons. These roles are performed in professional, domestic, and organizational spheres, in public space and private.</td>
<td>Jobs that are considered “masculine” are often assigned more importance and are therefore better paid than “feminine” jobs. A male migrant working in construction earns much more than a female migrant working as a domestic and/or caretaker.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inequality</strong>: Biological differences alone do not create inequality. Rather, inequality comes about when society assigns greater value to one gender over others (normally the masculine over feminine and over gender non-conforming). This attitude creates a power imbalance among the genders and prevents them from enjoying the same opportunities for their personal development. Gender inequalities can also be aggravated by other inequalities based on social class, ethnicity, sexuality, etc.</td>
<td>Gender inequality in the country of origin can be a motivating factor behind women’s migration, including lack of employment opportunities for women, or lack of protection from gender-based violence. Intersex, transgender, and gender non-conforming people face particular forms of gender-based violence and lack of opportunities that can be strong factors for migrating as well. They may also choose to migrate to societies that are more tolerant and open to diverse expressions of gender.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sexual division of labor</strong>: The sex-gender system associates certain kinds of work with women and other kinds of work with men. In the traditional division of labor, men are assigned the primary responsibility for carrying out productive labor (paid work) while women are considered responsible for reproductive labor (unpaid or underpaid care work). Both men and women engage in community labor (volunteer work), although it is more common for men to be in leadership roles while women are in supportive roles.</td>
<td>When a woman emigrates and leaves her children under the care of family members in her country of origin, the reproductive labor of caring for them often falls on the shoulders of her mother, sister, or oldest daughter rather than her husband. It is common for migrant associations in destination countries to be led by men, who determine which needs and projects are to be given priority, while women support their initiatives through administrative tasks, fundraising or event organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>New sexual division of labor</strong>: Not only does the sexual division of labor organize households and national labor markets; it has also become internationalized. Thus, the global labor market has generated niches of labor insertion for women (i.e. factory assembly work in export processing zones, domestic work) which increasingly rely upon migrant women’s labor.</td>
<td>Bilateral agreements negotiated between States regarding the recruitment of foreign labor generally uphold the sexual division of labor, recruiting men to work in certain sectors (e.g. construction) and women (sometimes of a certain ethnicity or place of origin) to work in entertainment, health, cleaning, or care of children, the elderly and/or persons with disabilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concept</td>
<td>Example from the migration process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender stereotype:</strong> conventional, preconceived, exaggerated, or oversimplified idea, opinion, or image of a social group based on their gender identity.</td>
<td>In some contexts, families prefer to send their “good daughter” abroad instead of their son, since they believe that daughters are more likely to remit a greater percentage of their income to support their birth family. Conversely, many families traditionally have sent their sons or male members abroad in order to assume the masculine roles as the economic ‘provider’ or global ‘heroes’ of development for their families and nations.²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Empowerment:</strong> basic concept of women’s rights and human development that refers to the process through which people individually and collectively become conscious of how power relations operate in their lives and gain the necessary confidence and strength to change inequalities and strengthen their economic, political, and social position.</td>
<td>The migration experience can be empowering for women, as it affords them the opportunity to earn their own income, start a business and/or improve their standing within the household. At the same time, migration can also be disempowering, due to the double discrimination for being women and foreigners, isolated working conditions in sectors such as domestic work, stigma for having “abandoned” their children, etc. Women who receive remittances from their migrant husbands are not necessarily empowered since many of them continue to control household decision-making, sometimes by proxy through other family members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender equity:</strong> The formal declaration of gender equality is not enough to create a more just and equal society; no law declaring equal conditions can effectively create an equitable situation from one day to the next.</td>
<td>Lack of access to health care services for migrants in their host country may have more serious consequences for women than for men. Women tend to use the health system more for both biological and social reasons. To correct the social exclusion of migrants from health services, measures must be taken to promote equal conditions for all migrants to be able to access the health care system, while also taking special measures to increase migrant women’s access to sexual and reproductive health services.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

² Note: This citation is not visible in the image, but it is implied in the text. The number ² is used to denote a footnote or reference that is not visible in the image.
Gender...

...is not the same thing as sex! It is not simply another variable to take into account such as age or education level, but a hierarchical system that creates inequalities affecting all aspects of migration and development processes.

...does not refer only to women, but to power relations between women and men.

...is also a men’s issue! Masculinities (ideas regarding “how a man should be”) are socially constructed just like ideas regarding femininity, with their own advantages and disadvantages.

...intersects with other axes of social hierarchy – ethnic origin, migratory status, sexual orientation, etc. – to produce diverse groups of women and men. Just as there are migrants who are heterosexual fathers and mothers, there are also migrants of diverse sexual identities and civil statuses, whose migratory experiences differ according to these social markers.

...changes and produces different forms of identity throughout the migratory process.

**How do we do gender analysis?**

Gender analysis is the primary tool needed in order to adopt a gender perspective. It allows us to identify how gender influences people, families, institutions, and society at large. From there, we are able to observe what may be causing inequalities as well as potential obstacles to equitable development. Table 2 clarifies what adopting a gender perspective does and does not involve.
Table 2. Adopting a Gender Perspective

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DOES NOT INVOLVE...</th>
<th>DOES INVOLVE...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Focusing exclusively on women.</td>
<td>Focusing on inequalities and differences between and among men and women. If you do decide to work with women due to the discrimination they face, initiatives should be based on analysis of gender roles and relationships. Initiatives could also consider the shifting roles of men in migration processes and work with men and boys for greater gender equality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treating women only as a ‘vulnerable or minority group.’</td>
<td>Recognizing that both women and men are actors. Not identifying women as victims, but recognizing their agency and significant roles in their communities. In addition, train male participants and staff on gender equality and transforming masculinities so that they can pro-actively work on the empowerment of migrant women.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| The same treatment of women and men in all situations regardless of context. | Design of interventions that take into account inequalities and differences between men and women. Structure resources so that programs recognize inequalities and attempt to rectify them.  
For example, joint campaigns or programs between migrant women and men’s groups can address rights violations that affect both, such as abuse by employers. These programs should then examine further how this might function differently, where men may face more public harassment whereas women may face abuse privately and compounded with sexual harassment or violence. |
| Efforts to attain only or always equal participation (50/50 men and women) in projects or staff employed within organizations. | A move beyond counting the number of participants to look at the quality of their participation and the desired impacts of initiatives on each sex. Recognition that equal opportunities for women within organizations is only one aspect of gender equality.  
Beyond representation by numbers, programs can shift the roles assigned to women and men. Affirmative action practices should be used to promote women’s leadership roles in organizations as decision-makers, team leaders, and in traditionally ‘male’ roles. This also means men can assume roles of support work build new skills and thinking. |
### DOES NOT INVOLVE...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assumption that all women (or all men) will have the same interests.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### DOES INVOLVE...

| Understanding the differences among different groups of women (and men) based on other criteria such as social class, ethnicity, religion, age, etc. For example, consider how social class shapes traditional gender and masculinities. These may, in turn, be challenged in the migration cycle. Many international migrants experience a changing class position where they face being in a lower social class in receiving countries, but are elevated in social class and status upon return. The similar and contrasting vulnerabilities of migrant men should also be identified, including challenges of men acknowledging when they experience rights violations (for example, on labor or physical abuse faced by employers). |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assumption regarding who does what work and who has which responsibilities.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

| Understanding the specific situation and documenting actual conditions and priorities. Carrying out context-specific analysis and consultations. Actively challenge the fixed thinking of what is defined as ‘women’s’ work versus ‘men’s’ work. Innovate new ways to empower women into jobs or roles traditionally reserved for men and vice versa. |

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For more information on gender concepts and how to do gender analysis, consult the following manuals on gender and development:


Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC), Gender and Training: Mainstreaming gender equality and the planning, realisation, and evaluation of training programmes, [http://www.siyanda.org/docs/sdc_toolkitenglish.pdf](http://www.siyanda.org/docs/sdc_toolkitenglish.pdf)
**Gender Analysis of the Migration-Development Relationship**

Many different variables come to play and to a large extent determine the links between migration and development, both in origin and destination, many of which are affected by gender relations. The most common unit of analysis used when conducting gender analysis is the household and intrafamily relationships within it; however, gender relations also operate within the community, labor markets, and international relations. Graphic 2 illustrates some gender aspects that are present at micro, meso, and macro levels.

**Graphic 2.**
Phenomena related to Gender, Migration and Development at the Micro, Meso, and Macro Levels

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**An alternative proposal:** Working from a gender perspective involves more than simply disaggregating data by sex, or considering sex as just another variable in the equation, similar to age or education level. If we understand that gender relations affect (and are affected by) each step in the migration cycle, then it is necessary to incorporate gender as a central analytical category. This analysis should be conducted not only at the household level, but also at the community, institutional, national, and transnational levels, taking into account the diversity of men and women and the ways in which gender identities are constructed and reconstructed throughout the migratory process. At the same time, it is important to consider the expectations, behaviors and identities of men – or what is collectively referred to as masculinities – as they relate to the migratory process.
Graphic 3. Elements involved in the Adoption of a Gender Perspective

- Macro-Meso-Micro Analysis
- Adoption of a gender perspective
- Gender Identities (re) constructed by the migratory process
- Analysis of masculinities
- Avoid heteronormative assumptions
- Women as a heterogeneous group: Do impacts differ between diverse groups of women?

Source: Pérez Orozco et al (UN-INSTRAW, now part of UN Women) 2008
Masculinities and the Migration Process

What do ‘masculinities’ and ‘femininities’ mean?

The term “masculinities” refers to the multiple conceptions of what it means to be male that are also socially constructed. Masculinities, like gender, are constantly formed, challenged, and re-constructed, such as in the migration process. Since all social contexts are gendered at different levels, as we have seen (labor markets, development impacts, etc.), male, female, and gender non-conforming individuals’ equality and power should analyzed in relation to one another rather than in isolation. Looking at gender in a more fluid way not only raises the status of diverse women, but also challenges the dominant values about manhood. This works to empower and include all those, of any gender, who do not fit the dominant norms. In addition, the term ‘masculinities’, rather than ‘masculinity’ suggests that there are various and changing ways of being a ‘man’.

Masculinity is also perceived as the binary opposite of “femininity.” In this regard, men and women’s qualities and abilities are seen as inherent or biologically pre-determined. Patriarchal cultures view masculinity as superior to femininity allowing society to rationalize men’s greater practice of power and decision-making in most spheres. As femininity, then, is constructed as ‘weaker’ or ‘fragile’, restrictions are placed on women’s economic autonomy, movement, and education. For instance, studies in the Philippines indicate that the dominant idea of masculinity confers greater respect for men who migrate as seafarers because this enhances their ‘manly’ qualities as risk-takers and economic providers. By contrast, women who work abroad may face stigma for doing so, particularly casting doubt as to whether they have compromised the sexual ‘purity’ required of ‘good’ women. This results in very different access to marriage and support upon their return.

How masculinities are embodied at the three levels of analysis within the migration cycle:

[See Graphic 2]

**Micro level**

- **Migration decisions**: In some societies, men may be encouraged to migrate as the income earners whereas women are required to stay behind to care for the family. Men may also have greater decision-making power about who migrates in the household and how.
- **Mobility**: Men often have greater freedom to move around publically without some of the restrictions women face (such as considering safety or appropriate dress). This can grant men greater access to migration opportunities, information, and resources.
- **Entrepreneurial capacity**: Men usually have less household work obligations, freeing their time for opportunities.
- **Remittances**: Men may be excused more so than women for sending less remittances. Men tend to spend more for personal needs whereas women are expected to sacrifice for the family.
Meso level

- Gender segregated labor markets: Jobs available in the societies of origin may be restricted by what is considered ‘appropriate’ to men and women, such as construction jobs recruiting men and garment industry jobs recruiting women only.

- Social networks: Men usually have greater expectations and opportunities for roles in the public sphere giving them greater power, such as leadership roles in local decision-making processes or political offices.

- Services offered (or not): Customary laws and regulations as well as institutions in country of origin and destination (religious, educational, and the media) can be gender-blind or biased, making services more accessible by men.

Macro level:

- Structural adjustment programs: Impacts of structural adjustment and development policies can lead to greater gender inequalities, such as cuts to education and health services.

- Bilateral migration agreements: Labor mobility programs in bilateral migration agreements offer more options for regular temporary migration channels in masculinized employment sectors such as construction work and agricultural labor.

- Feminization of migration: Conversely, restrictions or bans placed on feminized labor migration channels such as domestic work are adopted by sending countries as so-called ‘protective’ measures for women pushing them into irregular channels.

- New sexual division of labor: Masculinities can be reinforced in the migration process where labor migration restricts men and women to traditional gender roles, such as women private workplaces (care work) and men in public workplaces (agricultural companies).

- Care crisis: Role of men and gender non-conforming individuals in the global care crisis and reproductive work can be less available or recognized.

- Conflict and violence: Gender-based violence in conflict situations sharpens patriarchal masculinities in society and can increase the forced migration of women.

- Global migration policies and governance: Conceptions of migrant men in destination regions, including masculinized xenophobia can focus on migrant men as security threats and make them more vulnerable to enforcement and detention policies.
1. Within the migrant population that you know or with which you work, what aspects of gender relations are evident? Have there been any changes in gender relations that can be attributed to migration?

2. What gender inequalities exist at the micro level (household, community) within the migrant population that you know or with which you work?

3. What differences and inequalities can be seen in the labor market for male and female migrants in the destination country (meso level)?

4. How are macro level factors (bilateral migration agreements, structural adjustment programs) affecting women and men?

5. Do you consider gender inequalities in the origin country a motivating factor behind women’s migration? Why or why not? What kinds of inequalities are there?

1.3.2 The Right to Development

A second axis of analysis of great importance to the emerging field of migration for development is the “right to development.” This right was recognized by governments around the world in 1986 as an inalienable human right. However, it is worth considering what kind of development we want, and by extension, what kind of development people have a right to. The model of development that has been most widely accepted at a global level, at least in theory, is human development.

Human development, according to its originator, renowned economist Amartya Sen, can be defined as follows:

*The expansion of real liberties enjoyed by individuals, which involves shifting attention from the means which allow for the expansion of liberties, such as economic growth, increases in personal income, technological advances or social modernization, to the ends, which are liberties* (1999, our translation).

In this sense, development should be understood as the **comprehensive right to enjoy the full range of human rights.** But, how would such a model work in practice? According to the United Nations Development Program (UNDP):

*If human development is the expansion of opportunities so that people can choose what they would like to be or do in life, then the development process should consist of the elimination of deprivations, and in dismantling all restrictions on human liberties that limit people’s choices and that impede improvement in their standard of living* (2006:3, our translation).
The deprivations that must be eliminated include, among others: economic poverty, lack of public services (water, education, health), inefficiency of public institutions, and the lack of political and civil liberties, including women’s human rights.

While this model of development may be the most widely accepted, many difficulties have arisen in the application of its principles. In other words, there is a yawning gap between theory and practice. In practice, the dominant model being used to formulate programs and policies is not human development, but rather economic development. In fact, a progressive reductionism is evident in many “remittances for development” programs, which goes through various stages: Human development → Focus on well-being → Economic development → Economistic development.
From theory to practice: Progressive reductionism from human development to economistic development

From human development to a focus on well-being: Instead of working toward the goal of expanding human capacities and liberties, interventions frequently work from a narrower focus on well-being centered on access to health, education, and above all, availability of income. This focus tends to prioritize modernization, and to conceive of women as the target of assistentialist programs (family gardens, maternal-child health services) that aim to guarantee family survival. The exclusive focus on well-being leaves aside other aspects such as the impact of migration on gender equality or how migration impacts the (dis)empowerment of people and communities of origin beyond entrepreneurial empowerment (that is, increasing their possibilities of being able to start a business).

From well-being to economic development: Instead of well-being, this model focuses on levels of income. Education and health are considered means for economic growth, which require an investment in human capital, more than as development goals in and of themselves. Levels of development are understood primarily as individualized access to income, and emphasis on sustainable livelihoods ultimately refers to sustained sources of income generation. A classic example of this model is microfinance, in which increased income in the hands of the borrower is thought to automatically translate into improved levels of development for the entire family.

From economic development to economistic development: This approach considers individual access to goods and services in the marketplace to be the only way to provide the necessary resources for development. Development policies based upon this thinking seek to incorporate all people – including the poor and marginalized – into, for example, production for export. This model situates the development potential of migration in the hands of the entrepreneurial migrant who is expected to invest remittances in the creation of a business or financing public works in his or her country of origin. It emphasizes market mechanisms and tends to disregard the role of public institutions. Economistic development is wholly consistent with neoliberal globalization, which promotes policies such as financial deregulation and free trade.
Graphic 4:
Progressive Reductionism of the Vision of Development

- Concept of human development
  - Holistic view of capacities and freedom
  - Health, education and income
  - Diresgard for social and political factors
  - No analysis of empowerment (beyond “entrepreneurial empowerment”)
  - Little attention paid to gender

- Focus on well-being
  - Access to resources necessary to fulfil capacity is a fundamental aspect of development, but not the only one
  - Health and education as an investment in human capital to increase income
  - Development as means of providing sustainable livelihoods

- Economic development
  - Buying and selling in the market as the only way of accessing resources > free-market economy
  - Little attention paid to the role of institutions
  - Individualized analysis > capacities are not rights
  - Concealing the value of unpaid labor

- Economistic development
  - Little attention paid to the need to intervene on a structural level (which itself conditions what is possible at the local level)
  - Local level cannot compensate for systemic deficiencies

Source: Pérez Orozco et al (UN-INSTRAW, now part of UN Women) 2008
ALIGNMENT OF THE DOMINANT MODEL OF “REMITTANCES FOR DEVELOPMENT” WITH THE ECONOMISTIC APPROACH TO DEVELOPMENT

At the local level, it is most common to employ a well-being or economic development approach, ignoring the fact that the negation of social and political rights—including women’s human rights—is a key driver behind migration. At the macro level, economistic notions of development are often employed. The “remitances for development” model promotes this last approach, which is the most limited of all of these, through its emphasis on remittances as a tool to promote economic development, as if this were an end in itself. Specifically, the dominant model has the following characteristics:

1. Focus on the individual: it emphasizes the leadership of migrants as entrepreneurs operating within the marketplace as the primary link between migration and development.
2. Ignores inequalities, which are perpetuated and deepened between those with access to remittances and those without.
3. Emphasizes the use of market mechanisms and not the strengthening of public institutions as guarantors of the well-being of the population.
4. Perfectly coherent with neoliberal policies, especially regarding financial deregulation. In many places, such policies have led to the feminization of poverty, which is a key driver behind the feminization of migration.

An alternative proposal: This critique of the dominant model does not intend to downplay the importance of economic development, but to expand the way it is understood. Economic development provides the resources necessary for human development and is therefore a key dimension of a broader process. In addition to the economic dimension, the process of human development should also include the dimensions of equity and social integration, harmony with the environment, and participatory democracy. This process is necessarily social and collective, as it seeks to guarantee capacities and liberties by turning them into rights that are both recognized and exercised by the citizenry.

Since all approaches to the migration-development nexus should depart from a holistic vision of development, this manual seeks to expand our vision to include the rights of migrants and their families in origin, transit, and destination.
1.3.3 The Spatial Dimension of Development: From Transnational to Local

A third axis which should inform any analysis of migration and development is what we call the spatial dimension of development. Where should we focus? On origin or destination countries? On cities or rural communities?

Despite recognizing that “what happens there affects us here” (and vice versa), most migration and development programs focus exclusively on origin countries. They also focus more on the nation-state than the system of global capitalism which drives the continuous demand for cheap, often imported labor. This imbalanced vision tends to ignore several important aspects of the migration-development nexus:

- **Destination countries are experiencing their own development challenges**, such as the crisis facing the welfare state, aging populations, and the social organization of care. Instead of questioning the sustainability of systems of production and social provision in so-called “developed” countries, many governments simply opt to import a migrant labor force, whether as an official government strategy or the de facto result of an absence of functional migration policies. While migrant labor can certainly help to alleviate some of the systemic deficiencies, such as the provision of care work, it cannot totally compensate for them or resolve the underlying issue. In sum, development is not only a challenge facing countries of the global South; analyzing the migration-development nexus from a transnational perspective helps us to detect development problems in the North as well.

- When examining push-pull factors affecting migration, the most relevant actor is no longer the nation-state, but rather the **international capitalist system**. Migration, or the free movement of people, plays an important role in the maintenance of the global system. In addition to labor, the current system of globalization requires the free movement of capital and goods in order to sustain the flexible accumulation of capital. Despite this demand, free trade agreements seek to facilitate free movement but not people, whose movement continues to be restricted by States. This creates an

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**Stop & Reflect**

1. In your own words, how would you define the concept of human development?
2. Which vision of development is most prominent in your area of work (human development, well-being, economic development, or economistic development)? Why? Can you identify aspects of more than one of these approaches in your area of work?
Another trend among interventions promoting the “productive use of remittances” is that they tend to focus on local development as the preferred point of intervention. From a neoliberal perspective, local development is seen as a key element for localities to be able to participate and compete in global markets. The solution, according to the dominant model, is to promote economic development through remittances, incentivizing employment generation and especially the creation of micro and small businesses.

Here let us take as an example a pilot project of migration and development in Honduras. The donor agency, which had been promoting local economic development for years, began to notice the volume of remittances flowing into the department of Intibucá, sent by a significant segment of that locality’s population which had migrated to the United States. In order to harness the potential of this influx of resources, they decided to begin promoting migrants’ investment in business creation, as well as production of “nostalgic goods” for export such as locally-produced cheeses, for which there is high demand among the migrant population abroad. However, implementation challenges did abound. The majority of migrants were undocumented and considered low income; without legally being able to leave the U.S. in order to visit Honduras, and without a sufficient margin to be able to save, it would be quite difficult for any of the migrants to invest in their country of origin. Secondly, the free trade agreement currently in effect favors the U.S. more than Honduras, among other reasons because it includes strict requirements for the export of dairy products which are beyond the reach of local producers. Third, the global economic crisis led many migrant men who were working in construction in the U.S. to lose their jobs, reducing even further their ability to invest.

This example helps us to see the importance of considering factors at the national and international levels when promoting local development. If we narrow our vision to focus only on the local, we lose sight of at least two fundamental issues:

Many challenges facing local development derive from the failure of structural adjustment and commercial deregulation policies promoted by the very institutions that today are praising the potential of remittances to finance development.

Intervention at the structural or macro level is necessary in order to create the minimum conditions for human development at the local level.

An alternative proposal: Local development is an important area of intervention, but local processes do not exist in a vacuum. Practitioners should look for ways to take advantage of available opportunities in the community while also seeking to intervene at the political and
structural levels. For example, it is not sufficient to train local producers; we must also work to ensure that free trade agreements include favorable and equitable terms for all signatory countries, and take into account human mobility, as well as that of goods and capital. Instead of analyzing only local dynamics, the alternative proposal is to place those dynamics within the context of various levels and spaces, recognizing the connections between “what is happening there and what is happening here,” in order to identify the most strategic points of intervention. In this way, projects can work on basic needs identified at the local level (e.g. guaranteeing economic sustenance) while also forming alliances to work on strategic issues at a larger scale (e.g. promoting policies that are more favorable to human mobility).

1.3.4 Migrants as Protagonists of Development

A final axis to take into account is the way in which we conceive of migrants. Traditionally, the migrant has been characterized as an individual agent, implicitly masculine, who, responding to internal and external economic factors, makes the decision to “set out in search of greener pastures.” It is recognized that this “neoliberal subject” has agency – the capacity to decide over his/her own life – but this agency is only recognized in mercantile terms.

This conception runs the risk of using or instrumentalizing migrants in interventions designed to foment development in origin countries. In other words, if we value migrants only in their role as remittance senders, they end up being used as “peons of global development” instead of becoming its protagonists and beneficiaries. Many interventions are not concerned with the living conditions

Stop & Reflect

1. From a gender perspective, what phenomena in destination countries are creating demand for immigration? What development challenges are destination countries facing?

2. In your work, if you only look at the origin country, what is left out?

3. In your work, if you only focus on the local level, what factors are not being taken into consideration?
or well-being of migrants in destination countries, nor do they create effective mechanisms through which to consult or involve them in the undertaking in origin.

There may be an even greater risk of instrumentalization when women are the protagonists of the migration project. In large part, women have been invisible, or when they are recognized, they have been seen as dependents in the decision-making and plans of their migrant husbands. Today, women’s agency in migration processes is beginning to be recognized, whether as migrants, remittance managers, or caretakers of the migrant’s family. However, conceptions of migrant women continue to suffer from various stereotypes and distortions.

**Graphic 5.**
**Erroneous Perceptions of Migrant Women and Rectifications**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DISTORTION 1</th>
<th>RECTIFICATION 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Agency:</strong> Women’s capacity to make decisions (for example, about whether to migrate) is valued only in economic terms and not in relationship to their social position in the household, labor market, or other spaces.</td>
<td>Interventions must go beyond incentivizing women’s participation in the market. They should also intervene at the structural level in order to address the conditions that limit their participation, such as the distribution of unpaid work, sex segregation of labor markets, and political representation (in the broadest sense).</td>
</tr>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DISTORTION 2</th>
<th>RECTIFICATION 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Individualism:</strong> Migration is still considered in largely individual terms. When migration is recognized as a broader household strategy, the notion of the household imposed on this analysis is of the mythical harmonious household made up of the traditional nuclear family, ignoring other family models, such as extended families or homosexual couples.</td>
<td>Migrants belong to diverse types of families and extensive social networks, which have their own power relations. Therefore, not everyone has the same opportunities or benefits in the same ways from migration. It is important to question the position that men and women occupy within the household and other social networks and spaces of civic participation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>DISTORTION 3</th>
<th>RECTIFICATION 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>“Victims and bad mothers”:</strong> Migrant women are often presented only as victims (for example, of trafficking) lacking their own agency. Sometimes they are also cast as bad mothers for having “abandoned” their children in their country of origin.</td>
<td>It is important to recognize and promote migrant women’s capacity and agency, by creating possibilities for them to decide over development processes and duly benefit from them. In doing so, avoid taking a moral stance; instead, depart from practical concerns.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An alternative proposal: In order to convert the “victims” and “peons” into true protagonists of development, channels must be opened through which they can decide over development processes, including the content and objectives of the interventions themselves. Likewise, it is necessary to recognize them as beneficiaries of development, such that migrants’ living and working conditions are also issues of concern in the development process.

Stop & Reflect

1. In your experience, what are some prejudiced perceptions or stereotypes about migrant women (“victims,” “bad mothers,” etc.)? What effects do these stereotypes have on the design of migration and development programs? (For example, available financing, identification of “problems” to address, etc.)

2. In practice, what are some obstacles to the full participation of the migration population in development projects?

3. Where migrant associations exist, what obstacles might there be to the full participation of migrant women in the definition of development priorities?

4. What measures can be taken to promote the active participation of migrants – women and men – in migration and development programs?
What does ‘feminization’ of migration mean?

Choose one or more of the following:

a. A slight increase in the percentage of women migrating

b. Today there are more migrant women than men in the world

c. More and more women are migrating independently and/or as economic providers

d. There is greater recognition of the relevance of women’s migration and of gender within the migratory process

Answer: a, c, d
Migration occurs within the context of globalization, which has different effects on “developed” countries and “developing” countries (see graphic 7). In recent decades, many impoverished countries have suffered the effects of neoliberal policies and structural adjustment programs, such as increases in poverty, inequalities, marginalization, unemployment, and the informal economy. At the same time, these policies have led to major cuts in social spending and the privatization of public services such as health and education. The consequences in terms of gender inequalities have been well documented: when men have trouble fulfilling their gender role as economic providers, there is greater pressure on women to find alternative strategies to support the family. At the same time, there is often an increase in female-headed households, leading to higher levels of women’s poverty or what has been called the “feminization of poverty.”

Richer countries have also been experiencing structural changes which in some ways have also led to the feminization of migration. Economic restructuring, including the de-territorialization of production, creation of export processing zones, and re-orientation of economies away from manufacturing and toward services, requires a flexible and cheap labor force. Within this new arrangement, gender is a key organizing principle of labor markets, leading to what has been called the new, international sexual division of labor. This consists of the reproduction and exploitation of inequalities – based on gender, social class, ethnic origin, etc. – by the global capitalist system. As a result, there has been an upsurge in the demand for migrant women’s labor, which is often channeled into poorly paid labor sectors with dismal working conditions, few legal protections, and even less social recognition.

“Developed” countries are also experiencing their own crises, which have presented serious challenges to the welfare state and the traditional family-based model of care. The mass insertion of women into the paid labor force, together with the aging of the population, have brought about a crisis in the provision of care for children, the elderly, the sick and/or disabled. Most States have not adequately addressed this crisis, leaving households to continue assuming most of the responsibility. One of the most accessible options for middle-class and upper-class households has been to hire a domestic worker to provide care services, who often is a migrant herself who has left her own children under the care of another woman. This process in which reproductive labor is transferred from one woman to another forms what has come to be called a global care chain, a phenomenon explored in greater detail in guide 3 of this manual.
Graphic 7.

Relationship between Globalization and the Feminization of Migration

DEMAND FOR FEMALE LABOR

Segmentation labor market by gender
Crisis of family reproductive model
More care work assumed in private sphere

Flexible & more precarious work
Participation in workforce
Demographic e.g. Ageing
Crisis of the welfare State

Economic restructuring
Neoliberal Policies e.g. FTAs
Structural Adjustment Programs

Economic
Poverty & Inequalities
Unemployment Provider
Informal Sector

Structural change
Privateization of Services (health, education...)
Social Spending

Social
Crisis of family reproductive model

MIGRATION OF WOMEN

↑ Increase  ↓ Decrease  ♀ Women  ♂ Men  △ Change  FTAs Free Trade Agreements
The regulatory frameworks of destination countries tend to promote the migration of certain groups of women, whether directly or indirectly. There has been direct recruitment of nurses and cabaret dancers, for example. Indirect “recruitment” happens through non-regulation of certain sectors where there is growing demand, such as domestic work, which ends up becoming a default option for migrant women workers. Due to the crisis of the traditional model of family care, aging of the population and other factors, the demand in feminized labor sectors like care work continues to rise. However, since States often do not assume responsibility for the provision of care, they do not recognize the need to actively recruit migrant laborers for this sector. Hence, the demand for their labor keeps rising, while their possibilities of acquiring a regular migratory status and being able to enjoy all of their social and labor rights continue to fall.

In origin countries, gender inequalities and other factors such as discrimination based on sexual orientation may be important drivers of women’s migration. Sometimes, families choose to send a female family member abroad due to the idealized conception of women as more likely to sacrifice their own well-being for that of their family. Other women emigrate to escape domestic violence, unhappy marriages or pressure to marry, or to seek out opportunities for new relationships.

Mixed Impact of Migration on Women’s Empowerment

The effects of migration on women’s empowerment are mixed and sometimes contradictory. On the positive side, migration affords women the opportunity to become the primary economic providers for themselves and/or their families, increasing their self-esteem, autonomy, and standing within their families and communities. Through migration, some women are able to acquire property or start a business, which also strengthens their position within their families and communities. Others value the experience because it has allowed them to seek out new opportunities, and to learn new customs, values, and skills.

On the negative side, migration often occurs within contexts that are shot through with gender ideologies and inequalities. Migrant women often experience double discrimination for being women and foreigners, and as such, they are channeled into the worst-paying jobs. They often suffer isolation, exploitation, and sexual harassment. Years may go by before they are able to see the children and loved ones they have left behind in their country of origin, while at the same time they face stigma and a sense of guilt for having “abandoned” them.
Graphic 8:
Empowerment in the Balance: Weighing the Impact of Women’s Migration on Gender Equity

Empowerment

- Decision-making Power in Household
- Purchase of Home or Business
- Earning Capacity
- Status in Community

Disempowerment

- Poorly Paid Work
- Double Discrimination: Female and Foreign
- Abuse & Exploitation
- “De-skilling”
- Isolation
- Double Burden of Productive & Reproductive Work

- Improved Quality of Life in Origin
- Self-Esteem
- Autonomy
- Access to Education for Children

- Difficult to Save Money / Self-Sacrifice to remit
- Stigma of “bad mother” for “abandoning” children in origin
- Frustration
- Invisibility / Voice not Heard

Renegotiation of Gender Roles

"De-skilling"
Impact of Migration and Transforming Masculinities

Comparative Impact of Migration for Women and Men

The impacts of migration on men show a difference in the values placed and societal judgments made according to one’s identified gender. Whereas, for many migrant women, the choice to leave the family and live alone abroad is not typically a celebrated one, the contrary is often true for men. Men tend to enjoy much more on the positive side of gaining social status and economic power through migration. In most contexts, men enjoy relatively greater encouragement, praise, and support in the decision to migrate. Unlike women, men are largely free of the stigma that women face if they are leaving behind children, spouses, parents, or other family members. Also, men return to greater opportunities for marriage with their experience abroad and greater access to wealth, whereas women often face an interrogation of their time abroad in terms of new non-traditional behaviors, dress, and experiences of sexual activity.

On the negative side, men also face certain detrimental impacts of migration that often remain invisible because of cultural expectations that men not show their weaknesses. For instance, low-wage or ‘unskilled’ men migrant workers also face exploitative working conditions including dangerous work, long hours, physical abuse, discrimination, and poor living conditions. In addition, some find work for the first time in feminized sectors, such as janitorial or domestic services (cleaning, driving). In fact, in many countries in Asia and Africa, this has been common both historically and at present. However, global processes have increased the feminization of domestic work, particularly in the linkages of development and migration between wealthy and developing nations (see further analysis of global care chains in Guide 3). Male migrant domestic workers experience a challenge to their masculinity and, for both women and men, domestic work is seen as stigmatized work that reduces their social status. Additionally, men face stigma in exposing vulnerabilities or abuses they may have faced in the migration cycle. For example, Vietnamese low-wage migrant workers reveal that they make large sacrifices in their lives in order to meet gendered obligations of sending remittances to provide for their families, yet are unable to express their suffering abroad. This can also make it more difficult to organize men migrant workers individually or collectively to claim their rights.

Traditional and Shifting Masculinities in Migration Cycles

Views on masculinities vary not only by country, social class, religion, and ethnicity, but also change over generations. Migration offers a particular vantage point of ‘double-consciousness’ of all of these identities, including gender and masculinities, given its spatial dimension spanning origin and destination societies. Traditional and new customs and roles for women, men, and gender non-conforming people are learned and renegotiated when a migrant lives and works in a destination country with different norms or expectations of masculinities. For example, many migrant men learn and do household reproductive work, such as cooking and cleaning, for the first time while working abroad. These new skills and responsibilities may or may not be applied upon return to their households in countries of origin.
As studies with migrant seafarer men demonstrate, men migrants formulate a ‘double masculine consciousness’. This happens with a dual process of facing racial and class subordination as migrants but increased hyper-traditional masculinities in their origin country upon return. As described in the previous section, this new consciousness that migrant men develop, along with the empowering aspects of migration for women, makes migration a powerful transformative process for gender norms and equality. This is true in countries of origin where migrants return or reshape familial relations towards greater decision-making or autonomy for women or gender non-conforming people and greater roles of reproductive care for men. Migrants, regardless of gender identity, may or may not return with potentially progressive notions of gender equality depending on the destination country’s social norms and policies and the migration experience. For those who migrate to experience greater gender equality, this adds value to human development and democratic inclusion in their origin societies. In destination countries, also depending on the specific social and political conditions, migrants can contribute to more or less empowering perceptions about immigrant women and shape policies on gender, labor, and development.
In recent years, working with men and boys has evolved into an effective and necessary strategy in achieving gender equality in social, economic, political arenas. Migration is an ideal process wherein engaging men and boys can transform masculinities and enhance gender equality, particularly in labor migration and human rights. For example, the “Partners for Prevention: Working with Boys and Men to Prevent Gender-based Violence” (http://www.partners4prevention.org), a UN regional program for Asia and the Pacific, developed an online portal for best practices and research for programs and policies. Although much of the work on engaging men and boys to date has focused on ending violence against women, some similar strategies and principles apply to engagement for gender equality and rights in labor migration:

**Strategies for Engaging Men and Boys in Gender Equality in Migration and Development**:

**Achieving greater gender equality**
- Women’s rights, gender, and masculinities training and capacity building for men’s groups, such as organizations working with male migrant workers
- Promoting public media and awareness campaigns to highlight men’s potential and good practices in adopting care providing roles in migrant families

**Addressing vulnerabilities and rights**
- Identifying roles men can play in advocating for greater rights protections and gender equality for women migrant workers
- Joining advocacy campaigns for both men and women migrant workers on shared issues of rights violations and for labor and social protections

**Increasing positive benefits of migration for human development**
- Ensuring development programs on maximizing the development potential of remittances also engage men in equitable practices of financial management and decision making at the micro and meso levels
- Ensuring local development interventions throughout the cycle of migration, which challenge conventional gender norms but are also culturally appropriate and effective in the economic and social realities within their communities
  - Example: Reintegration program that hire women rather than men to recognize women’s leadership roles in migration and in communities of origin with newly developed skills in negotiating for employment rights, financial management, or foreign language skills
**Good Practice #1**

**MenEngage: Engaging boys and men for gender equality**

**Delhi Declaration and Call to Action**

MenEngage is a global alliance made up of dozens of country networks spread across many regions of the world, hundreds of non-governmental organizations, and UN partners. MenEngage Alliance members work collectively and individually toward advancing gender justice, human rights and social justice to achieve a world in which all can enjoy healthy, fulfilling and equitable relationships and their full potential. Through country-level and regional networks, the MenEngage Alliance provides a collective voice on the need to engage men and boys in gender equality, to build and improve the field of practice around engaging men in achieving gender justice, and advocating before policymakers at the local, national, regional and international levels.

At the 2nd MenEngage Global Symposium in November 2014, the Delhi Declaration and Call to Action was articulated and endorsed by UN Women. Some of the recommended policy areas and actions that can be utilized as strategies to implement gender equality in migration and development programs include:

- Promote gender-equitable socialization
- Engage men as fathers and caregivers and in taking equal responsibility for unpaid care work
- Promote gender justice strategies in all development programs

Full Text of the Delhi Declaration:  
http://menengage.org/resources/delhi-declaration-call-action/

See Also:
UN Women “In Brief: UN Women’s Work with Men and Boys: 2nd MenEngage Global Symposium”

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**Stop & Reflect**

1. How do ideas of what is ‘masculine’ and what is ‘feminine’ transform or become more fixed in the migration process at the micro level (within communities and households)?

2. In your context, are there groups, particularly those who are migrating, who fall outside of the gender binaries of female or male? How are they recognized (or not) and impacted differently in the migration process?

3. How can the migration cycle challenge gender roles and increase equality in both origin and destination countries?
The Transnational Family

Instead of regrouping in the destination country, today many families choose to maintain family members in two (or more) countries, thus forming a transnational family. Usually this arrangement emerges out of a lack of other options, either because migration policies tend to promote temporary migration of individual migrants, or because a lack of legal migration options leaves others to migrate irregularly. In addition, the nature of the immigrant labor market, with employment options such as agriculture or domestic service, does not facilitate family cohabitation. At the same time, new communications technologies and transportation options facilitate more frequent contact and the ability to manage family matters despite the distance inherent to transnational family life.

Some families have the option of regrouping in the destination country, but choose not to for different reasons: they make regular visits to their country of origin, they plan to migrate cyclically, they want to save more money, or they eventually plan to send a “replacement migrant” from the same household.

Although men also migrate as part of family migration projects, concerns about the transnational family tend to come up only in relation to migrant women. This is due to the characterization of the migrant woman as the person with primary responsibility for the children, among other gender stereotypes. The representation of migrant women as constantly sacrificing for the well-being of their families not only perpetuates gender stereotypes about women. It can also lead those designing development interventions to focus on women only in their reproductive role, which tends to increase their workload without improving their position or condition within their families or communities.

The transnational family model presents several difficulties which require attention: separation of families, provision of care, transnational parenting, and the tensions and conflicts that derive from power inequalities.
1. Have you noticed a tendency toward feminization of migration in the population with which you work? If so, what factors – in both origin and destination – might be causing women’s migration?

2. Mention some aspects of globalization that are leading to women’s migration in the migratory corridor with which you are most familiar.

3. In what ways is migration empowering the migrant women that you know? What factors might be limiting their empowerment?

4. Can you think of some advantages of the transnational family model? What might be some difficulties or disadvantages?
Social Construction of the Idealized Male Migrant

Decision maker for the Transnational Family

Adventurer, Provider, and Independent

Reliable bread-winner

Independent from family responsibilities

Works hard but picks up bad habits

Spends for himself and remits less to family

One foot there

Increasing wealth and status here
1.5 Strategic Topics to Re-orient Thinking on Migration and Development

This guide has sought to familiarize readers with the dominant model of “remittances for development” and some of its deficiencies in order to encourage analysis from other perspectives. The first, called a gender perspective, helps us to see and act upon the inequalities present at different levels, which structure the experiences and migration opportunities of both men and women. The second, which focuses on human development, reorients our notion of development toward an expansion of liberties and capacities, rather than simply encouraging participation in the marketplace. Third, paying attention to the spatial dimension of development allows us to analyze the connections between local, national, and international spaces, in order to intervene at both structural and local levels. Lastly, recognizing the agency of migrants allows us to think about ways of promoting their leadership within development processes not only as the “builders” of the migration-development nexus, but also as subjects with the right to decide over and benefit from development interventions themselves.

Given that any and all migration-development initiatives should depart from a holistic vision of development, this manual seeks to broaden the field of debate in order to include several strategic issues which aim to make our initiatives more equitable and therefore, more sustainable. The strategic issues include the following:

- **The Impact of Remittances on Local Economies in Origin Countries from a Gender Perspective (focus on origin countries).** This guide proposes an alternative vision of remittances based on the four axes of analysis mentioned above, so that interventions can strengthen not only the economic impact of remittances, but also the impact in terms of equity, expansion of rights, consolidation of democracy, and sustainability.

- **Global Care Chains.** This guide explores the topic of care work, conceived of as the invisible, but unsustainable base of the economic system. It proposes that the right to care (including the right to receive adequate care and to decide freely about providing care) be included in the development agendas of both origin and destination countries.

- **Migration Policies and Migrant Women’s Rights.** This guide explores issues related to the protection of migrant women’s rights in destination countries, with emphasis on two rights of particular interest to migrant women: labor rights for domestic workers and the right to sexual and reproductive health.
ACTIVITIES

1.1 Connect the Concepts “Development – Gender Equity – Migration”
1.2 Quiz on Women’s Migration
1.3 Gender Concept Review
1.4 Video: Feminization of Migration in Vicente Noble
1.5 Case Study: Gender Analysis of a Life Story
1.6 Empowerment in the Balance
1.7 Mapping of Female and Male Labor Migration Flows
1.8 Men Care Video and Discussion: “Steven’s Story” (Sri Lanka)
1.9 ‘Traditional’ and ‘New’ Conceptions of the Female and Male Migrants
1.1 Connect the Concepts “Development - Gender Equity - Migration”

**Objectives:** Establish a conceptual link between gender equity, migration and development. Assess participants’ prior knowledge on these topics.

**Materials:** Cards (can be cut-outs from posterboard) of three different colors, flip chart paper, markers (enough for each group), tape.

**Estimated Time:** 25 minutes

**Facilitation**

1. Divide participants into three groups and hand out a set of cards of only one color to each group.

2. Ask the first group to reflect on the concept of “development” and to write the first words that come to mind on the cards (one idea per card). Prompt them by asking: “What do we mean by ‘development’? What minimum conditions must exist for there to be development? What elements must be present? What do you associate the concept of development with?” Clarify that they need not come up with a complete definition, only write one or two words that they associate with the concept on the cards.

3. Ask the second group to do the same with a set of cards of a different color, but with the concept of “gender equity.” Prompt them to define in their own words: “What does ‘gender equity’ mean? What do we need in order for there to be gender equity? What do you associate the concept of gender equity with?”

4. Ask the third group to do the same with their set of cards of a third color, except with the concept “migration.” Prompt them by asking: “How might we define migration? What are the primary reasons people migrate?” Again, clarify that it is not necessary to generate a comprehensive list or definition.

5. As the groups begin to finish, invite them to stick their cards on a sheet of flip chart paper under the title of the concept that they have defined. As participants are taping their cards, the facilitator should group together similar responses, underline important points and repeated words between the three separate concepts.

6. Close the activity with a plenary session, in which the facilitator reads some of the responses or common categories out loud. Ask participants to point out the connections they see between the concepts or repeated words.

7. There will be a strong relationship between all three concepts, including repeated words or ideas. Either write down these words on a separate sheet of flip chart paper, or draw arrows between them. Some of the conceptual links may be: that all three are processes, they aim
to expand liberties, they all require resources, training/education, access, opportunities, information, holistic approach/integration, leadership/human capacity, etc.

8. Ask participants if they can think of any other similarity (for example, all three are slow processes that involve both women and men, they require the involvement of many actors, they occur at multiple levels – family, community, society, etc.).

9. At the end, ask if it is possible to promote migration for development without promoting gender equity. The idea is to arrive at the conclusion that yes, it is possible to work toward economic development without taking into account gender equity, but that this type of development is neither holistic nor sustainable. One measuring stick of the quality of development should be how well it works toward equity.

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**Key Lessons**

- **Gender equity** is a perspective or lens that helps us to see issues of inclusion and equality that may facilitate or block development.

- Likewise, migration can also be a lens through which we can see more clearly where development and gender equity are lacking, insofar as migration is the result of the denial of rights. Additionally, the items on which the bulk of remittances are spent can point out which rights are being neglected in origin countries (education, health, decent work, etc.).

- Promoting gender equity always leads us to a more comprehensive model of development, both in origin and destination. However, this is not true in the opposite direction: promoting development without considering gender will not necessarily lead to equity. Therefore, it is necessary to work from a gender perspective in order to ensure that our efforts contribute to development with equity.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Development</th>
<th>Gender Equity</th>
<th>Migration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Improvement in living conditions of the whole population</td>
<td>Women’s empowerment</td>
<td>Movement of people/change of residency in search of greater opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holistic process</td>
<td>Equal opportunities/access to health, education, employment, political participation, free time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expansion of capacities and liberties</td>
<td>Redistribution of domestic and care work</td>
<td>Push factors: poverty, unemployment, climate change, war, social inequality, gender inequality, lack of freedom of expression and respect for diversity, family or personal problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expanding opportunities for education, health, access to resources</td>
<td>Equal participation in decision-making</td>
<td>Pull factors: job opportunities, family reunification, stability, security, access to rights and liberties, greater gender equity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion, empowerment of the poor</td>
<td>Recognition of sexual diversity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social change</td>
<td>Integration of women and men in development process</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainability</td>
<td>Equal rights and responsibilities between men and women</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development “of, for, and with people”</td>
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<tr>
<td>Better infrastructure and services</td>
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<td>Improved social organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>Respect for human rights</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strengthening institutions and the rule of law</td>
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1.2 Quiz on Women’s Migration

**Objectives:** Assess participants’ ideas and knowledge on the topic of women’s migration. If necessary, clarify any gender stereotypes participants may hold.

**Materials/Preparation:** Photocopies of the quiz, pens, or slides with the quiz questions, and blank sheets of paper

**Estimated Time:** 25 minutes

**Facilitation**

1. This activity is recommended for the beginning of the workshop, in order to assess how familiar participants are with the topic at hand so that the facilitator can adjust subsequent activities accordingly.

2. Hand the quiz out to participants.

3. Ask them to respond to the questions by circling the best answer(s). Tell them that there may be more than one correct answer to each question.

4. In a brief plenary discussion, go over the answers by asking participants to raise their hands to indicate who responded A, B, etc. Ask for someone to give their response and justify why s/he chose that answer. Share the correct answer and ask if they agree or if they can think of another example.

5. **Variation 1:** Go over the responses in a plenary session as an introduction to the topic.

6. **Variation 2:** Collect the quizzes and, during a break, quickly create a slide or two showing the results of the quiz, i.e. X number or percentage responded YES or NO. Present the responses and correct answers following the break in order to get into the topic at hand again.

7. **Variation 3:** Instead of handing out the quiz, create slides with the quiz questions and answer them collectively. This variation is recommended if you are short on time or could like to do a faster version of the activity.
Key Lessons

The feminization of migration does not only refer to the progressive numeric increase in the proportion of women within migratory flows, but also to the ways in which women are migrating and the roles they are performing (independent migrants or pioneers in the family migration project, primary economic providers).

This feminization is happening within the framework of other globalization processes which are creating demand for migrant women’s labor in destination countries, especially in the sector of domestic work and care work.

Migration can bring about both positive and negative changes in gender roles and in the organization of the household. Women’s migration does not necessarily cause or resolve problems, but instead reveals existing inequalities.
1. **What does the term ‘feminization of migration’ refer to?**
   
   A. Currently there are more women migrating than men.
   B. More women are migrating autonomously, as economic providers.
   C. In some migration corridors, the percentage of women migrating has increased.

2. **What are the two most common jobs performed by migrant women in destination countries?**
   
   A. Sex work
   B. Domestic work
   C. Employment in the hotel or tourism industry
   D. Care of dependent persons (children, disabled, etc.)
   E. Industrial or farm workers

3. **Women’s migration leads to family disintegration and an increase in adolescent delinquency in origin countries.**
   
   A. False
   B. True

4. **Women’s migration...**
   
   A. Reinforces gender roles
   B. Changes gender relations
   C. Changes gender relations while also reinforcing gender roles

5. **Women migrate due to...**
   
   A. Economic necessity
   B. Gender discrimination in the labor market
   C. Gender-based violence
   D. Search for other relationship options
   E. Seeking out greater educational opportunities
1. B and C. The number of male and female migrants worldwide has increased, as has the proportion of women in migration flows (from 47% in 1960 to 49% today, with variations according to country and region\(^2\)), but what has changed the most in the last 40 years is the fact that more and more women are migrating independently and/or as the leader of family migration projects, instead of family “dependents” traveling with their husbands or reuniting with their family abroad.

2. B and D. The neoliberal structural reforms imposed upon developing countries have resulted in an increase in poverty, pushing women as the ultimate guarantors of household well-being, to seek out alternative income sources and to participate in the paid labor force, whether locally or internationally. At the same time, developed countries are experiencing a crisis in the provision of care for their citizens as a consequence of a series of factors (changes in women’s expectations, as they no longer want to be the only persons responsible for care work; aging of the population, which involves greater need and demand for care of elderly citizens; and massive incorporation of women into the paid labor force without re-distributing domestic labor between men and women or creating adequate public services to cover care needs). This care crisis is a key driver behind the demand for migrant women to work as domestic workers.

3. A. Migration involves a process of family reorganization that does not necessarily lead to the destruction or disintegration of the family. Many households figure out innovative ways to reorganize roles and responsibilities while sending family members to live in different geographic locations. We must question the tendency to blame migrant mothers for the impact (assumed or real) that their migration has upon their children and families. This blaming and stigmatizing comes from traditional gender ideologies which assign mothers the primary responsibility for childcare and family well-being. Where relationships end in separation or divorce, it is important to consider that many of these ended as a cause – not a consequence – of migration (women often migrate to escape unhappy relationships or violent partners).

4. C. The growing importance of women’s role as economic providers through remittances tends to increase their negotiating and decision-making power within the household. However, this positive effect is not automatic and is often attenuated by other factors. In many cases, the social perceptions surrounding women’s migration in origin areas are often ambivalent, oscillating between valuing their role as guarantors of family well-being which would not have been possible otherwise, and blaming them for “abandoning” their children and for the possible negative consequences that their absence may have on them. In some cases, migrant women have been hailed as “saviors” of the household, which feeds into the vision that migrant women themselves have regarding their migratory project, conceived of in terms of self-sacrifice and self-exploitation, which upholds the gender ideology according to which women are to put
their families’ interests above their own. While women and men migrants tend to remit a similar quantity, that amount represents a greater proportion of women’s salary, given the wage discrimination that they often suffer in destination countries. To be able to send remittances, migrant women often exert strict control over their spending (while many men reserve larger quantities of their earnings for personal expenses), and may choose to stay as live-in domestics in order to save a greater percentage of their salary. These strategies may help their families “get ahead,” but often come at the detriment to their own personal projects such as advancing in their career, investing in their own training in order to enter other sectors beyond domestic service, or building relationships in order to improve integration in the host society. In sum, women’s migration often comes at a high cost to their personal well-being.

5. A, B, C, D and E. Women are a diverse group of people with different motives for migrating. Economic need, which is cited as the most widespread motive for migration for both men and women, arises from many different factors. At a global level, there has been a tendency toward “the growing material impoverishment of women, worsening of their living conditions, and violation of their fundamental rights.” This trend has been called the “feminization of poverty.” It refers to a cycle of poverty, in which poor women do not have access to the resources or services needed to change their condition. Among other factors, they face (B) gender discrimination in the labor market. In many countries, even when there has been a notable increase in women’s education levels, this does not necessarily translate into greater job opportunities for women, and when they do exist, there is often a significant gap between women’s earnings and men’s. Women also migrate in order to (C) escape a violent relationship, or when the father of their children refuses to pay child support (often considered “economic violence”). Other women migrate in order to (D) expand the possibility of their finding a new partner after divorce or becoming widowed, or in order to openly live their sexual orientation. Finally, some migrate to (E) seek other educational opportunities that may not be available in their country of origin.
1.3 Gender Concept Review

**Objective:** Review gender concepts from section 1.3.1 and recognize how they relate to labor migration.

**Materials/Preparation:** Photocopies of the work sheet and pens; or markers and cards.

**Estimated Time:** 25 minutes

**Facilitation**

1. Hand out photocopies of the work sheet and ask participants to match the example in the right-hand column with the concept from the left-hand column that best describes it.

2. Explain that although this exercise is designed for each concept to have one example, there may be a relationship between an example and more than one concept. If they believe that the example can be matched with more than one term, they can do so and justify why they believe that is the case.

3. When they have finished completing the work sheet, facilitate a group discussion based on their answers. As you discuss each concept, ask the following questions:
   a. Do you agree with the answer? Why or why not?
   b. Explain why some examples illustrate more than one concept.
   c. What other examples can you think of to illustrate this concept?

4. **Variation 1:** Write the concepts with marker on 9 posterboard cards and hand them to 9 pairs of participants, or distribute in groups. The facilitator or a volunteer reads the examples out loud and the person with the corresponding concept raises her/his card and explains why they believe that that example illustrates their concept. If the answer is incorrect, ask the others if they agree or not. Use the same facilitation questions (3a, b and c) to guide the discussion.

5. **Answers:** 1 C, 2 G, 3 A, 4 H, 5 E, 6 I, 7 B, 8 F, 9 D.

**Key Lessons**

- Gender influences all aspects of the migration process, from the decision of who in the family should migrate to the employment options available in destination countries to migrant men and women.

- Sometimes gender roles and inequalities remain the same following migration, and sometimes they change. In general, the results in terms of women’s empowerment are mixed.
The concepts and examples in each column are mixed up / out of order. Match the example from the right-hand column with the concept from the left-hand column that best describes it. If you think that the example illustrates more than one concept, please be prepared to justify your reasoning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concepts</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Gender</td>
<td>A. The woman should tend to the household while the man goes out to work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Sex</td>
<td>B. More and more women are migrating autonomously and as economic providers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Gender roles</td>
<td>C. Men are considered stronger while women are considered to be more docile.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Empowerment</td>
<td>D. In factories, the tasks of heavy lifting and transport are reserved for male workers, while assembly work is reserved for female workers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Power relations</td>
<td>E. Because he is a man, he is considered better suited for the position of president of the migrant association.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Inequality</td>
<td>F. The sectors of highest labor insertion for migrant women are those related to domestic work, sex work, and/or care work while migrant men tend to work in construction or agriculture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Feminization of migration</td>
<td>G. People are born with different biological characteristics that make them male and female.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Segmentation of the labor market</td>
<td>H. In the best case scenario, migration helps women to improve their social and economic standing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Sexual división de labor</td>
<td>I. A family decides to send their son to school instead of their daughter, since they believe the son will be the future provider for the family.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.4 Video: Feminization of Migration in Vicente Noble

**Objectives:** Understand the phenomenon of feminization of migration. Recognize the relationship between gender and the migration process.

**Materials/Preparation:** Photocopies of the reflection questions, computer, projector, speakers, video “Remittances in Vicente Noble” http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3eIQfTwtsgw

**Estimated Time:** 45 minutes

**Facilitation**

1. Double check that you are able to show the video without any problems. Watch it at least twice before the training session in order to familiarize yourself with the topics that it covers (you can also consult the documentary script in the following pages).

2. Go over the reflection questions.

3. While preparing the video, hand out the work sheet with reflection questions so that participants can look them over.

4. Project the video (duration: 9 minutes).

5. Have participants work in pairs in order to answer the questions, applying what they have learned about feminization of migration and gender in the conceptual section of this guide.

6. Ask different pairs to share their answers in a plenary discussion.

7. **Variation 1:** On flip chart paper, write the levels MICRO, MESO and MACRO, and take note of the gender factors that participants mention under the appropriate level (see graphic #2 earlier in this guide for reference).

8. **Variation 2:** Pause the video periodically as you are watching it, to allow participants to reflect collectively on what they are seeing.
Key Lessons

- The gender perspective helps us to identify gender inequalities that operate on the micro, meso, and macro levels throughout the migratory trajectory, which can present significant obstacles to development.

- It is indispensable for any and every development intervention to take into account the different needs of women and men from the start.

- Since gender inequalities operate at different levels, interventions should consider accompanying work at the micro (household/community) level with broader actions at the meso and macro levels, in order to increase impact.
Documentary Script: “Remittances in Vicente Noble”

Narrator: Years ago, when she was still very young, Doña Cachita arrived with her husband to this little town, Vicente Noble. They were drawn there by a promise of jobs and better conditions for raising their family. Back then, the town was something else entirely.

Doña Cachita: ...this street here was the only one that was paved... all the rest were dirt roads... over there were pens that held donkeys... People used to get around a lot by donkey. When people went to the slaughterhouse, I’d even see women barefoot... people walked around barefoot.

Narrator: But since the early 1980s, Vicente Noble, this small town in the southwest of the Dominican Republic, has been undergoing profound change brought about by massive emigration of the town’s women to Spain and other countries and the savings they send in the form of remittances.

Olga Ramírez: ...the town has changed a lot, too...before there were a lot of houses made from mud or slabs of coconut trunks. Lately what you see are mansions.

Narrator: From almost every household on any one of these streets a woman has emigrated abroad.

Doña Cachita: So many left, and their mothers and fathers rented out their houses, leased out whatever they had...

Olga Ramírez: She left first. She rented out the house and was away a year or two. When she got her papers straightened out, she brought him with her.

Narrator: The increase in women emigrating from the least developed countries is related to changes in the labor market both nationally and internationally.

Mar García, UN-INSTRAW: This is due to the social changes that have occurred in Europe throughout the last decades, that is, on the one hand European women have been incorporated into the workforce. You could say they have stopped doing all the work in the home that they used to do for free. And this need still exists: houses need to be cleaned, children need to be taken care of.

Narrator: In fact, 85% of work permits issued by Spain to Dominican immigrants go to women, and 95% of these are concentrated in domestic service.

Libbys Agramonte: Every since I left, I’ve worked in family homes.

Narrator: The agricultural crisis of the last decades has increased male unemployment, also reducing the men’s role as economic provider in the household. As a result, women saw themselves in the position of having to look for income to maintain their households while still doing all the housework.

Doña Cachita: ...here the women in town would sell beans in punchbowls, on their heads. They’d sell corn...candy sticks...coconut sweets.
**Narrator:** The opportunities offered women in the job market don’t allow them to meet the needs of their households. To these precarious salaries, another burden is added: a high percentage of these women function as heads of household.

**Celeni Payano:** It’s very hard; I’ve got four kids, and I’ve raised all four of them by myself...

**Narrator:** Hard pressed by their situation, more and more women from the poorest regions have come to see emigration as a strategy to ensure their families’ survival and progress.

**Leidy Romero:** She went for our future.

**Celeni Payano:** I went to Spain, I lasted three years, and I don’t know anything about the place. I didn’t ever go out there so I could save. The whole month’s pay, I’d send it all. My mom kept it in the bank for me.

**Narrator:** In the middle of rural Vicente Noble, cement and metal rods soon became the most obvious sign of progress. The reward for these countless sacrifices must be put on display. And this demonstration serves as a stimulus for many other women – and men too – to go on the same adventure.

**Olga Ramírez:** The wife goes, then after that the kids go, too. And those kids have had a real change, because here they lived like...well, just imagine.

**Saturnino Cespedes:** She would send me 10,000 pesos. I kept saving it up, and when I had a certain amount, that’s when we started this house...

**Narrator:** Today, almost all of the economic activity in Vicente Noble revolves around the considerable flow of remittances sent by those working abroad, the grand majority of them women.

**Vianeta Mercedes:** ...emigration is what has raised up this town...there are months that millions of pesos, 20 million get sent...

**Narrator:** For these women travelers, family responsibility comes first. Helping to meet the basic needs of their loved ones remains the most important, and sometimes only, goal and possibility.

**Ramona Martilla:** My sister has three children, and I’m the one who takes care of them. We use the money to buy food for them and for my mother, and besides that we’ve bought a little land.

**Migrant woman:** ...for my kids, the first thing I did was buy them a computer because they started studying...and then I’d treat the kids to things, like a moped...and then after that I started to build my house.

**Narrator:** But despite the fact that their families’ welfare is the main reason for the migrant women’s efforts and sacrifices, it is precisely within the family that the negative side effects of this process are felt first.

**Olga Ramírez:** ...a lot of families have fallen apart, because the children are left when they’re small, the grandmothers raise them, the mothers send them some amount of money...as they get a bit bigger, they want to be their own boss and ride around God knows where on their mopeds...
**Dominga Ramírez:** ...there are many broken homes here, a lot of young people who’ve gone bad because their mother and father weren’t there.

**Narrator:** To date, it all appears as though migration and remittance money have contributed little to achieving substantial change in women’s condition.

**Mar García, UN-INSTRAW:** These women have migrated and have become economic providers that sustain their households economically. In many cases that has allowed them to acquire a certain status. That is, once they become the main breadwinner, in many cases they also gain a wider margin to negotiate or to make decisions or attain other goals. Now then, whether there will be other changes, beyond the ones we are seeing right now, which are a bit limited, that’s what’s not so clearly happening yet.

**Leonardo Santana:** I didn’t want him to leave because he was studying at the university, he was close to finishing...

**Narrator:** Still, the dream of those who have left is to be able to return one day and live with dignity in their home community.

**Celeni Payano:** ...to come back and stay for good. Yes, because here I have my house, my kids, my business...and because I’ve always had this dream...you know, to work there, so I could live here.

**Migrant woman:** I’d like to save some money up to come and set up a business, or something. My world is here.

**Narrator:** Remittances represent a significant part of the region’s gross domestic product, and it is fair to expect that they should contribute to improving the quality of life of the women who generate them, as well as of the community as a whole.

**Carmen Moreno, UN-INSTRAW:** I believe that remittances can play a very important role in the development of countries and in meeting the Millennium [Development] Goals, by that I mean reducing poverty, IF the gender perspective is taken into account. Men and women have different needs and they should be considered differently when policies are developed and when programs are created to support these policies. And in the case of remittances this is not happening. These women have additional responsibilities. They are the ones who are supporting their households and their roles don’t change at all. They are still discriminated against both inside and outside the home.

**Narrator:** The fight for a better life brought Dona Cachita once before to Vicente Noble, and the same fight spurred her daughters, granddaughters and grandsons to travel to Spain. Today, international emigration generates billions of dollars in remittances for developing countries, and more than 50% of this money is produced by women. Therefore, it is only from a gender perspective that development policies can be viable and create true progress for women, their families, and society as a whole.
1. What are some of the reasons why women are migrating from Vicente Noble? What do these reasons have to do with gender?

2. What are some of the changes that are happening in Spain that are attracting migrant women? What do these changes have to do with gender?

3. Among the families that were interviewed, what positive changes have there been for women? For their children? What are the negative effects of migration that they mention?

4. What does Carmen Moreno suggest in order for remittances to have a greater impact on development? What type of intervention could contribute to gender equity in Vicente Noble?
1.5 Case Study: Gender Analysis of a Life Story

**Objectives:** Recognize the relationship between gender and the migration process. Learn to apply gender analysis.

**Materials/Preparation:** Photocopies of the life stories and reflection questions, pens, flip chart paper and markers for each group.

**Estimated Time:** 45 minutes

**Facilitation**

1. Familiarize yourself with the life stories and reflection questions.
2. Divide the participants into pairs or small groups, and give a case study to each group (with copies for each participant), flip chart paper and markers.
3. Ask them to read the story, select a note taker, and respond to the questions together.
4. In plenary discussion, go over each question. Ask a group to share its response, and then ask other groups to add to what has been said if they have any other ideas to share.

**Variation 1:** If there is not enough time to hold a plenary discussion, hand flip chart paper and markers to each group for them to write their answers there. Have them tape their sheets to the wall for everyone to see. That way, participants can read the responses of other groups during a break and/or the facilitator can quickly put together a slide with the most important points in order to recapitulate them before beginning another session.

**Key Lessons**

- Employing a gender perspective helps to understand what is happening in the migration process, in order to intervene in a way that strengthens development.
- The three levels on which gender operates are interrelated. Therefore, it is strategic to think of interventions on the meso and macro levels that can create the conditions for a micro-level intervention to have better results.
Senegal

Kadia: “Migrants should wake up and remember their origins”

Kadia joined her husband in 1970 in Belfort, northeastern France, an area deemed dangerous; she has yet to adapt to this new life. Previously, she spent 5 years alone with her children in Senegal, unable to migrate, since the migration policy between France and Senegal only allowed for the recruitment of male laborers to work in the automotive industry.

A time came when she asked her husband to stay with their three children in France so that she could return to Senegal with her youngest child, then two years old. She told him: “Stay with your children. They will not come with me because every time I go to Dakar you never send me enough money, and it is too little to live off of. So, I will not bring the children.” When her children went to Senegal for the holidays, she asked them to bring some administrative papers with them that enabled her to return to France after resting in her parents’ home.

A social worker praised Kadia’s courage and encouraged her to get involved in the defense of her community’s rights. She found work in the city of Tourcoing, in the north of France, but later left that job in order to start an association to help all migrants, regardless of their nationality. Three years ago, Kadia became ill and one of her sons asked her to move to Paris so that he could take care of her. She is proud that all of her children are employed and none has run into problems with the law.

Kadia travels to Senegal every year, but has never invested there. She has never considered permanently moving back to Senegal, but the current conditions in France, including the high cost of living and strict immigration policy, are pushing her in that direction. She belongs to a group of migrant women and some of their children who plan to invest in housing in Dakar that they will rent out in order to cover the monthly loan payments. “We have to let go of the custom of staying in our father or mother’s house. You have to have your own house where you can stay when you return. This is what we all want – to have our own house with our children.”

“In 1971-2 up until 1980, there were no women working here. Women began to work after 1992-1995. A woman then didn’t even have 100 francs to send to her mother. Men had everything. Now, we women born in Dakar have rejected this situation. We have shown them that we are educated, we have our degrees…Now, they send the social welfare payments for our children directly to us. We have to feed them, dress them, and furnish their rooms. Now women have their own bank accounts, and polygamy has been prohibited.”

Kadia’s husband never wanted her to work, but she has always braided people’s hair in her home. For women over 50 years of age, it is impossible to find work. Their children have grown up and they no longer receive the child subsidies once provided by the State, so they rely primarily on the solidarity of their children. Their husbands, who are often much older, receive pensions from the formal employment they have done over the years. When they retire, many return to their home village, where they often seek out a young wife. “They spend 6 months in Senegal and the wife in France has to figure out how to find enough money to eat. You are the one who pays the bills, and if you do not pay the rent, they will throw you out.”

This life story was published in March 2010 and pertains to the project “Gender and Remittances: Constructing Gender-Sensitive Development,” implemented by UN-INSTRAW and UNDP, with funding from Japan WID.


In 2004, the migrant population was estimated to represent 3% of the Senegalese population, among which only 16% are women. Remittances reached 3% of national GDP (500 billion CFA francs, or US$ 1.1 billion, according to the IMF). In a country that is overwhelmingly rural (59% of the population), and weakened by poverty and drought, the organizing and solidarity efforts of all emigrants and local people, together with the individual and collective remittances, are key factors in the development of the fragile communities of origin.*
Dominican Republic

Berky: “We women are more intelligent, if you know what I mean!”

Berky lives with 10 family members in her house in the community of Las Placetas, near the city of Santiago in the Dominican Republic. Like other Dominicans, her family is quite extended. Berky has raised her 7 children, as well as one granddaughter (the child of her daughter who lives in the United States), and one daughter of a friend. There used to be a public service called a ‘homework room’ where the children could be cared for after school, but it was canceled following the latest round of budget cuts that the government has implemented to comply with the requirements of structural adjustment. Now Berky no longer has any programmatic support to help with the care of her grandchildren. “What are you gonna do?” Berky says.

In addition to domestic work such as washing and ironing, gathering coffee and cooking for pay, Berky also had two small businesses going for a few years: buying clothing in the city to re-sell in the community and making popcorn to sell to school children. Now, many people in Las Placetas have relatives abroad who send clothing, so Berky decided to close the business in order to dedicate her time to caring for children at home.

Her daughter, Margarita, left for the United States ten years ago. She works in a factory, and now she runs a beauty salon as well. Margarita has two daughters, one in the U.S. and another who lives with her mother in Las Placetas.

“I took care of Margarita’s first child. She sent her back with a cousin of hers. I took care of her and then, when the girl was two years old, Margarita came and took her with her again because she had managed to organize her life a little better. She didn’t want to give her to just anyone to watch, because she was always very affectionate with her children. So she thought, ‘I’ll bring her to Mami, so she can take care of her and I can work.’”

Berky agreed with this arrangement: “If she is going to pay $100 a week for someone to watch her baby, that is how much she could send me in one month. It’s better this way!”

Margarita’s other daughter, who is now 14 years old, lives in Las Placetas with Berky. Her mother is making arrangements for her to travel to the U.S.

Margarita always sends remittances, usually through an agency to one of Berky’s other daughters who lives in Santiago. Berky doesn’t know exactly how much she sends, but she thinks it is about $75 per month, and perhaps double at Christmas time. Berky’s daughter in Santiago receives the money, and shops for provisions to send to Berky. Her other daughters also contribute food, medicine, and school supplies for the children.

“When I had her other daughter here, she used to send more because she had fewer expenses there. For a time, both of her daughters were here. You know how many babies need — medicine, milk, pampers. Now, when her daughter is here, she sends money to buy her things.”

Berky dreams of setting up a small business again, perhaps a little store or some land to work. “We don’t have land because there isn’t any money to buy it. With land we would be able to plant vegetables like cilantro, peppers, eggplant, yucca, and then we could sell some. It’s a good business, but if you don’t have land, you can’t do anything!”

Berky would like there to be a program to provide credit for women to work in small businesses, and if remittances could serve as a guarantee to back up the loan, even better! “Sometimes we women are better about taking risks. But it is difficult for us, with children and a husband. If your husband works, you need to prepare his food at lunch time. Children must have their food as well, and sometimes some of them go to school in the morning and others in the afternoon, so lunch has to be ready for those who are coming and those who are going. It’s much more difficult for women than men here in the countryside. Men go about their business and that’s it. They return at lunch time, eat, and then leave.”

Berky says that women are the ones who organize everything, including administering the household budget, both in the U.S. and in the Dominican Republic. “Let’s say you have 100 pesos, and you need two or three things. You have to figure out how to divide up the money to get a little bit of this, and a little bit of that, and be able to cook what you would like with 100 pesos. But with men, they just get upset and don’t know what to do. We are more intelligent, if you know what I mean!”

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Albania

Dorina: “It’s possible for women to make progress and do more with their own lives, but it will take time.”

Dorina is 38 years old. She has three daughters and a son, ranging from 7 to 19 years of age. They live together in the family’s home in Pojan in southeast Albania, which is the largest village in a commune of approximately 4,000 inhabitants, where it is estimated that one-third of families have at least one member, usually a man, who has emigrated to Greece. The village is located near the main road to Thessaloniki, where Dorina’s husband Urim went for the first time when the border opened in 1992 following the fall of the Communist regime. Urim has returned on multiple visits, especially for the birth of their children. Dorina explains her husband’s migration: “We did not receive any help. They did not give us any more land for our children...only one plot for two people and a single cow. Urim had no other option but to leave.”

Urim began sending remittances, instructing Dorina to invest them in cattle and to tend to them on the 8,000 m² plot of land they obtained through a government land distribution. But Dorina had to abandon this activity for health reasons. Moreover, the revenue from agriculture was not sufficient, so they decided to rent out the land in 2001. Dorina identifies several grave obstacles for agricultural development: lack of a market, lack of availability of attractive loan offerings or State assistance, and the macho mentality. “I am a woman and I have to tend to my children. I don’t have time to do everything on the land.”

Now, the only income sustaining the household comes from emigration. In Greece, Urim works at any job he can find: construction, agriculture, or manual labor. He has a residence permit for two years, but cannot apply for family reunification because he does not earn the minimum income required. Urim sends money, but the amount varies according to what he has been able to earn. His work is quite irregular, with summer being the high season when he is able to send greater amounts of remittances (500-1000 Euros). He carries the remittances home himself or sends them through a friend or brother with whom he lives in Greece, because bank transfers cost too much.

Urim gives Dorina total freedom to administer the remittances. She spends the money primarily on food, education, and health. She considers the task of having to administer the household finances additional work, and prefers to delegate this responsibility to Urim when he comes home for a few days in the summer and a month in the winter. Dorina feels pressured to be strict with her children in terms of economizing the family budget, since they are completely dependent on what her husband sends them. “Nowadays, status and money are what matters. Everything you do these days requires money.”

Dorina has been saving money, because she does not want to have to ask anyone for help in case her husband runs out of work. She hopes to use her savings on a good education for her children. However, what she wants the most is to no longer be dependent, which would mean leaving the country to earn her own money and help her family. Unfortunately, to date she has not managed to qualify to migrate legally.

This life story was published in March 2010 and pertains to the project “Gender and Remittances: Constructing Gender-Sensitive Development,” implemented by UN-INSTRAW and UNDP, with funding from Japan WID.

1. What gender roles are present in the case study?

2. What gender inequalities and/or power relations are evident at each level?
   - Micro (personal, family and community):
   - Meso (national):
   - Macro (international):

3. Is there any evidence of changes in gender equity that can be attributed to migration?

4. What challenges or obstacles to development are present in the case study, especially in terms of gender equality? What might an intervention designed to overcome such obstacles look like?
1.6 Empowerment in the Balance

**Objectives:** Evaluate to what extent migration is contributing to the empowerment of women and identify what factors may be disempowering. Identify possible points of intervention in both origin and destination.

**Materials/Preparation:** Flip chart paper and markers, or slide with a drawing of a balance with the word “Empowerment” on one side and “Disempowerment” on the other. Separate slide with the table “Points of intervention.”

**Estimated Time:** 30-40 minutes (20-30 for the activity and 10 to discuss key lessons learned)

**Facilitation**

1. Section 1.4 of this guide mentions some of the ways in which migration contributes to both the empowerment and disempowerment of women. Prior to this activity, be sure to explain the different types of empowerment that appear in the definition of the concept in section 1.3.1

2. This activity is best done together in a plenary session, and should be led by the workshop facilitator.

3. Draw a balance on a sheet of flip chart paper and write the word EMPOWERMENT on one side and the word DISEMPOWERMENT on the other.

4. For about 10 minutes, identify and discuss different factors from participants’ own experience that they consider should appear on one side or the other of the balance (empowerment-disempowerment). First, ask: In what ways do you think that migration is empowering for women? Then, ask: What factors limit their empowerment or are disempowering for migrant women? Abbreviate each factor into a word or two and put them on the balance. The “factors” should be causes of empowerment and not effects. If participants are slow to jump in, begin by offering an example such as “isolation in the workplace” or “increase in purchasing power.”

5. Use the last 20 minutes to discuss potential points of intervention in order to empower women both in origin and destination. These can be interventions at the community, national, or international levels, and should be designed to alter the factors that are disempowering women. To guide the brainstorm, you may wish to take note of participants’ ideas on a flip chart paper divided up as follows:
**Key Lessons**

- Migration tends to have mixed and sometimes contradictory effects in terms of the empowerment of migrant women.
- Sometimes factors can be both empowering and disempowering, depending on the circumstances.
- Important considerations: At what costs does empowerment come? How can we mitigate the factors that are disempowering migrant women?

### Points of Intervention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points of Intervention</th>
<th>In origin</th>
<th>In destination</th>
<th>Responsible Party</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.7 Mapping of Female and Male Labor Migration Flows

**Objectives:** Identify the gendered dimensions of labor migration from and within a defined region. Examine and compare the specific benefits and challenges faced by women and men migrant workers in origin, transit, and destination phases.

**Materials/Preparation:** 2 Large maps (covering the area of countries of origin and destination, depending on the location and interest of members of the training), flip chart paper, post it notes in two colors, markers.

**Estimated Time:** 60 minutes

**Facilitation**

1. Divide the participants into two groups and give each group one map, markers, and post it notes in both colors.

2. Ask the first group to map female labor migration and second group to map on male labor migration. Each group should choose two people to report their discussions. Remind the groups of creating a gender balance for reporting and other roles.

3. Prompt the two groups to collectively draw arrows on the map and for each arrow, ask them to specify aspects of that migrant flow: Which women/men emigrate (socio-economic class, rural versus urban, education levels)? From where and to where? What kinds of work are they migrating to do? How are they migrating- regular or irregular channels, temporary contracts, through recruiters)? Ask the groups to write these answers on a flip chart paper to create the profile of the migrants they are discussing.

4. Tell each group to then place one sticker labeling difficulties (in one color) and advantages (in a different color) migrants face in four phases of the process: origin, transit, destination, and return. Ask the groups to discuss and write down these experiences, both positive and negative, with concrete examples when possible. Encourage participants to share stories or case studies of migrant workers with each other.

5. Invite one reporter per group to explain what they have written on their flip chart paper as an introduction. Prompt them to explain the general migration flow and profile of who migrates, to and from where, for what jobs, and in what circumstances.

6. Then invite the second reporter to describe the main difficulties and advantages faced by women and men migrants in the four phases.

7. Close the activity with a plenary discussion to draw out the differences and similarities between men’s and women’s labor migration patterns for the region. Begin by asking how the profiles of migrants, jobs, and conditions are similar or different between
women and men? There may be some general overlap from particular countries or regions of origin, so draw out details of how they differ. Women migrant workers, for instance, may have lower educational levels or other inequalities in origin countries than men that prompt them to migrate.

8. Ask the groups about the gender characteristics of the labor market options that women have compared to men? How does this relate to access to regular migration channels? Women will tend to migrate irregularly more than men and be more vulnerable to exploitation by recruiters, abuse in transit, or poor conditions in destination. Examine how this operates with the sexual division of labor migration for the region.

9. To conclude the discussion, ask how men migrants from the region enjoy greater advantages from the migration process? In what ways and why are barriers to women benefiting in these ways?

**Key Lessons**

- Gender shapes every stage and the overall experience of migration in terms of empowerment or disempowerment. Using a broader gender lens, we can see how empowerment works distinctly for women and men migrants. Even regional differences globally, in general, women migrants face a double burden of gender inequality in origin and destination countries in addition to the general experiences of low-wage labor migrants.

- Inequalities between men and women that already exist in origin communities, such as education and employment opportunities, may determine what prompts each group to migrate, who has access to migration as an option, and how gender can shape the profile of who migrates.

- The sexual division of labor migration means that women are channeled more often into informal work and through irregular channels that exposes them to more vulnerabilities in the overall migration process. Thus, it is necessary to understand the gender perspective of regional labor migration policies and programs to create more recognition, training, and opportunities for women migrant workers to allow for migration to be an empowering process.
1.8 Men Care Video and Discussion: “Steven’s Story” (Sri Lanka)

**Objectives:** Understand migration stories that challenge traditional gender roles and masculinities, particularly for men as caregivers. Consider the transformative potential of migration in gender relations and roles in communities of origin and interventions to support changed behaviors.


**Estimated Time:** 30 minutes

**Facilitation**

1. Introduce the short film by MenEngage as an alternative perspective of the role of men as caretakers after the migration of their wives abroad. Although much research shows that men are not the primary caregivers in these situations, this film presents an alternative model and shifting gender norms that transform roles in the household and community, even upon the women’s return.

2. Screen the video. Allow a few minutes for participants to share immediate reactions informally with each other or with the person sitting next to them. The tone of the video allows for a more personal reflection than some of the more theoretical discussions or activities on the issue of masculinities in migration that may be new or unfamiliar for participants.

3. Gauge the mood among the group and ask questions that first evoke personal reactions. Start by asking: What is your initial reaction to the video? How does this relate to your own context or experiences?

4. Then move the discussion to reflect on how Steven’s actions began a change process in his family and community: How did Steven evaluate his conception of his roles versus his wife’s prior to and after her migrating abroad for work? What were his reasons for changing his ideas and behaviors? How did women and men in Steven’s community react to his changed behaviors? How did this support or hinder Steven’s ability to carry out his new care-giving roles?

5. Pause for a moment here by asking participants to consider if they know of similar choices made by men when women migrate. Ask one person to share a story or example.

6. Conclude the discussion of practical initial actions that can be taken to consider masculinities in migration programs and policies: What are possible interventions in communities of origin that can encourage men to assume responsibility as caregivers? What are potential ways in which existing state initiatives to provide care services can better engage men to sustain care work?
Key Lessons

Considering masculinities is important to gaining a more comprehensive view of how migration affects and is affected by gender roles. Considering the ‘masculine’ in itself involves considering how society construct the ‘feminine’ (and vice versa), such as what are the different expectations and outcomes assigned to each.

Masculinities and femininities are not fixed. They are constantly shifting and can be re-shaped by actions of individuals, communities, and institutions in the migration process. In this way, migration can be used as a positive force in transforming gender relations towards more gender equality beginning with micro level interventions with men and boys.
1.9 ‘Traditional’ and ‘New’ Conceptions of the Female and Male Migrants

**Objectives:** To identify the traditional and gendered ways in which women and men migrants are characterized and valued in societies. To envision new ways of conceiving of women and men migrants to challenge gender stereotypes and achieve greater gender equality.

**Materials/Preparation:** Four flip chart papers and markers

**Estimated Time:** 70 minutes

**Facilitation**

1. Ask participants to form two large groups and identify 2-3 reporters within each group. Instruct one group to draw a female migrant and write down traditional conceptions associated with her. The other does the same for a male migrant.

2. Walk to each group as they discuss and write to encourage them to reflect honestly and openly. Participants may want to identify mainly positive characteristics or stereotypes. In addition, they may want to reflect how society ‘should’ be viewing women and men migrants. Explain that in this first part, we are reflecting about the reality of gender stereotypes as they exist in society today. Later, we will discuss new or ideal conceptions of how women and male migrants should be viewed.

3. Facilitate a plenary discussion where each group reports on the characteristics they identified and receives questions or comments from the other group. The facilitator asks both groups the following questions and encourages debate and dialogue between the two groups:

   - What are the positive and negative conceptions of the female and male migrant? *Are men seen as having more positive labels? Why?*
   - How do ‘strengths’ and ‘weaknesses’ of women verses men migrants relate to the overall way women and men are valued in your country?
   - What are some hidden characteristics for both that society does not consider? For example, Vulnerability faced by men, Independence attained by women?

4. Encourage the groups to dialogue directly with each other assuming the values assigned to either men or women. Allow the groups to defend, question, or debate whether these values are fair, where do they come from, and the impacts on people. Draw out initial thinking about how these values are biased and disempower migrant women.
5. Now ask each group to re-draw on a new chart paper the “new” conceptions of female and male migrants. Explain that we will now return to these drawings considering what the characteristics could be within a more ideal gender equal society. This can mean exploring what are alternative ways of conceiving the roles and characteristics of women and men migrants for more gender equality.

6. Facilitate a final plenary discussion. Ask each group again to report on the characteristics they identified and receive questions or comments from the other group.

7. Encourage direct dialogue and debate between the two groups again:
   - What are the primary ways in which women migrants should be valued differently? Men migrants?
   - Do any of these ‘new’ conceptions reproduce or create additional stereotypes of gender?
   - What would be different in household (micro) level if women and men migrants were conceived of in this way? In relation to care and family duties? In relation to decisions to migrate?
   - What would be different at the national (meso) level in terms of pre-departure training or reintegration programs, or other policies?
Key Lessons

Inequalities in how men and women are valued in societies (in origin and destination) shapes how women are exposed often to greater social, material, and psychological disempowerment in the migration process.

However, men are also burdened in living up to the expectations of them, causing them also to feel isolated or unable to reveal negative experiences they face in migration.

Migration can both strengthen and transform gender conceptions and roles. Migrants, communities they come from, and stakeholders (including policy-makers) should be encouraged to critically examine their assumptions about migrant women and men in shaping policy interventions and programs. Public education and other methods can be used to support transformed roles and values of greater gender equality through migration.
ENDNOTES

1. Tumursukh, Undarya et. al., “Transforming Masculinities Towards Gender Justice, Foundational Knowledge for Action”, Regional Learning Community for East and Southeast Asia (RLC)
3. Adapted from “Gender and Peacekeeping” course, DFID, 2006.
8. Ibid.
15. “IV. Migration, Families, and Men in Families” in Men in Families and Family Policy in a Changing World, UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2011
18. UN Women “In Brief: UN Women’s Work with Men and Boys: 2nd MenEngage Global Symposium”
20. Activity adapted from quiz by Elisabeth Robert of UN-INSTRAW (now part of UN Women).
References


Resources for Further Consultation


Migration Information Source. Women and Migration: Incorporating Gender into International Migration Theory: http://www.migrationinformation.org/Feature/display.cfm?id=106


GLOBAL RESOURCES ON MASCULINITIES

**MenEngage: Engaging boys and men for gender equality**

**Delhi Declaration and Call to Action**

“IV. Migration, Families, and Men in Families” in *Men in Families and Family Policy in a Changing World*, UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2011


In Brief: UN Women’s Work with Men and Boys - 2nd MenEngage Global Symposium, UN Women


**ONLINE RESOURCES**

EngagingMen.net

MenCare

XY: Men, Masculinities, & Gender Politics

Journals

*Culture, Society & Masculinities*

*Journal of Gender Studies*

*Journal of Men, Masculinities, and Spirituality*

*Masculinities & Social Change*

*Masculinities: A Journal of Identity & Culture*

*Men and Masculinities*

NORMA: International Journal for Masculinity Studies

**RESOURCES ON MASCULINITIES IN ASIA**

**Partners for Prevention:**

http://www.partners4prevention.org

UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women & UNV regional joint program for the prevention of violence against women and girls in Asia and the Pacific

Transforming Masculinities towards Gender Justice- East and Southeast Asia Regional Curriculum

The Regional Learning Community (RLC) for Transforming Masculinities and Gendered Power Relations to Promote Gender Justice for East and Southeast Asia (ESEA)

Study Guide - Understanding Masculinities: Culture, Politics, and Social Change

South Asian Network to Address Masculinities

(http://www.chsj.org/film-gallery.html)
BY COUNTRY

Bangladesh
Center for Men and Masculinities Studies (CMMS)

India
Centre for Health and Social Justice (CHSJ)
www.chsj.org

Indonesia
Rutgers WPF Indonesia
www.rutgerswpfindo.org and www.lakilakipeduli.org

Nepal

Pakistan
AMAL Human Development Network
www.amal-hdn.org.pk

Sri Lanka
World Vision Sri Lanka
www.wvi.org/srilanka

Vietnam
Center for Studies and Applied Sciences in Gender, Family, Women and Adolescents (CSAGA)
www.csaga.org.vn
IMPACT OF REMITTANCES ON LOCAL ECONOMIES IN ORIGIN COUNTRIES FROM A GENDER PERSPECTIVE
GOALS OF THIS GUIDE

1. Examine the phenomenon of remittances from a gender perspective
2. Introduce new elements to the debate on remittances for development
3. Raise new questions and consider different measures to promote a model of local development that is gender-sensitive

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

1. Understand the relationship between gender and remittances, and recognize some common gender patterns in the sending, receiving, and usage of remittances
2. Learn the logic of the “virtuous circle” of remittances and development and identify some of its weak points
3. Identify specific problems women are facing in order to make productive investments or use banking services
4. Identify elements and actions needed to promote gender-sensitive local development
2.1 Introduction

Remittances – the money migrants send to their families in their country of origin – make up the most tangible aspect of the migration-development nexus. In the last decade, remittances have emerged as one of the most voluminous sources of external financing for developing countries. These financial flows have caught the eye of governments, financial institutions, and development organizations, many of whom have begun to identify and implement initiatives that aim to maximize the impact of remittances on poverty reduction and local development.

Graphic 9.
Estimates and projections for remittance flows to developing countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Developing countries</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015f</th>
<th>2016f</th>
<th>2017f</th>
<th>2018f</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Growth rate, percent)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>East Asia and Pacific</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.7</td>
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<td>Europe and Central Asia</td>
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<td>10.3</td>
<td>-6.6</td>
<td>-18.3</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and Caribbean</td>
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<td>1.7</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-East and North Africa</td>
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<td>0.0</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Asia</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>($) billions</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Developing countries</td>
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<td>Europe and Central Asia</td>
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<td>113</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>141</td>
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<td>Latin America and Caribbean</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>39</td>
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<td>Middle-East and North Africa</td>
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<td>61</td>
<td>64</td>
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<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low-income countries</td>
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<td>560</td>
<td>580</td>
<td>588</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>635</td>
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<tr>
<td>Middle-income</td>
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<td>14</td>
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<td>18</td>
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<td>High income</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>436</td>
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<td>175</td>
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<tr>
<td>High income</td>
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<td>154</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Memo: Developing countries (2010-2015 income classification)

|                    | 346  | 428  | 443  | 451  | 469  | 488  | 511  |
|                    |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
Many studies have focused on the effects of remittances in terms of poverty reduction.24 Most families use remittances to cover basic household needs, such as food, housing, clothing, health, and education, in order to guarantee family survival.

However, the impact of remittances on development in origin countries leaves much room for debate. Remittances appear to have both positive and negative effects, as illustrated in Table 3.

**Table 3.**
**Positive and Negative Effects of Remittances**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive Effects</th>
<th>Negative Effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increase in income at the national level</td>
<td>Greater demand for import of consumer goods (due to changes in dietary preferences and desire for acquisition of technological goods)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribution to foreign exchange reserves and to the balance of payments</td>
<td>Rise in inflation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential resource for the financing of entrepreneurial initiatives</td>
<td>Creation or further entrenchment of inequalities between recipient and non-recipient households</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in local demand for goods and services</td>
<td>Rise in land and housing costs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource for reconstruction following natural disaster or civil conflict, given that remittances to origin countries often increase in times of crisis</td>
<td>May lead to dependency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>May discourage recipients (especially youth) from seeking out other income generation activities at the local level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most common model used to analyze and work on increasing the impact of remittances for local development has come to be called “remittances for development.” This model, which is also explained in Guide 1, section 1.1 of this manual, departs from an economistic vision of development that seeks to incorporate remittance recipients into the formal marketplace (which is considered the only means to development) through the saving and investment of remittances. 25
When considered from the axes of analysis discussed in Guide 1, this model presents several deficiencies which end up limiting its efficacy. Among others, the dominant model:

- Follows an individualist perspective, which does little to take into account the role of families and social networks in migration and remittance management.
- Does not consider gender, or when it does, confuses it with sex – as if it were just another variable such as age or education level – instead of a factor that determines the power relations at play throughout the migratory process.
- Only focuses on economic aspects and not on the multiple dimensions that comprise human development.
- Instrumentalizes migrants and their families as “peonos of global development” instead of creating real opportunities for them to decide on or benefit from development processes.
- Is not sustainable, since it only benefits some households, and the economic improvement of those households depends on the continuous receipt of monies from abroad.
- Focuses mostly on the local level, without considering the structural conditions which limit the potential of remittances to contribute to a more equitable and sustainable form of development.

This guide examines the impact of remittances on local economies, with a specific aim of helping those who are designing development interventions at that level. The goal is to provide practitioners with tools to incorporate a gender and rights perspective in the design of such interventions and to contextualize and link local development with national and international development.

Stop & Reflect

1. Please mention two positive effects and two negative effects of remittances on local development.
2. Choose one of the five deficiencies of the “remittances for development” model and name some consequences or limitations that may result from it in terms of local development.
2.2 What does gender have to do with remittances?

Remittances are more than sums of money sent from one person to another. They represent links of solidarity, reciprocity, and obligation that connect migrants with their loved ones across national borders. People who send remittances are positioned by a variety of factors – gender, social class, ethnic origin – and act within families and social networks that are transnational. In turn, families and social networks are situated within other social, economic, and political processes that are strongly affected by the current model of globalization. (For more information on the relationship between globalization and women’s migration, see Guide 1, section 1.4). In addition to monetary remittances, there are also social remittances, which can be understood as “ideas, behaviors, identities, and social capital that flow from receiving- to sending-country communities” (Levitt 1999: 927). Graphic 9 summarizes this conception of remittances.

In this complex map of interacting actors and factors, developing countries send labor to developed countries which, in turn, have high demand for migrant labor due to the deregulation of labor markets, the massive participation of women in the workforce, an aging population, etc. The sex/gender system is a cross-cutting vector operating in all of these processes, both in origin and destination.

The household is the preferred unit of analysis for understanding the phenomena of migration and remittances. In it, gendered power relations affect decisions such as which household member will migrate, how remittances will be used, and who will benefit from them. While gender relations to some extent determine the patterns of sending and spending remittances within households, it has also been noted that migration and remittance management bring about changes in the system of power and authority within the family. The economic and social roles that women acquire upon sending or managing remittances can transform gender relations and promote broader social, cultural, economic and political changes.
Graphic 10.
Conception of Remittances

Globalization
Monetary and Social Remittances

- Crisis of the reproductive model: transfer of care work to migrant women
- Labor market segregated by gender and ethnicity
- Deregulation of labor market
- Ageing of the population
- Increase in women’s participation in the labor market
- Migration policies
- Foreign aid and co-development policies
- Social agents

- Structural adjustment policies
- Feminization of poverty
- Migration as household survival strategy
- Political, social and economic crises
- Imbalance in the workforce (male unemployment)
- Productive and reproductive relationships marked by gender
- Gender relations in the household

Source: UN-INSTRAW (now part of UN Women) 2005
In short, remittances are transfers sent by individuals who belong to households and transnational networks. All of these units – individual, household, and social network – are marked by power relations that derive from gender and other factors such as age, social class, etc. At the same time, these units are circumscribed by macro-level processes such as globalization, which is bringing about social and economic changes in both origin and destination. To a large extent, gender affects the possibilities and patterns of sending, receipt, and usage of remittances, while at the same time, the very act of sending or managing remittances may cause changes in gender relations.

Stop & Reflect

1. Why do you think it is necessary to situate remittances within the family and broader social context? What does this perspective allow us to see?
2. What might be an example of a “social remittance”?
3. Choose a “macro”-level factor listed in graphic 9 from either destination or origin, and explain how it might affect women and men’s employment opportunities and/or ability to send remittances.

2.2.1. Gender Patterns in Remittance Flows

We have seen that gender affects the migration decision, social networks and job placement in destination countries, among other aspects. When it comes to remittances, several questions arise: How is the growing feminization of migration affecting remittance flows? How do gender roles influence the patterns of sending and spending remittances? And in the opposite direction, how are the sending and management of remittances affecting gender roles?

It is not easy to determine if there are important differences between men and women, due to lack of sex-disaggregated data and other analytical challenges such as distinguishing between management of remittances and decision-making power over their usage, ambiguity in the category “head of household,” or considering other intersecting determinants such as social class, ethnicity, or household structure. Nevertheless, some general patterns related to women’s and men’s relationships to remittance flows have emerged.
Differentiated Patterns of Sending Remittances

- The sex of the remittance sender influences the **volume, frequency, and persistence** of remittance sending over time.
- Male and female remitters tend to send **similar quantities**, although this usually represents a **larger proportion of women’s earnings**, due to salary discrimination in destination countries and gender-segregated labor markets.
- Having to remit this high percentage of their earnings involves great effort and **sacrifice** on the part of female remitters, which may affect their personal level of well-being in the destination country, ability to progress in their career or to save for their own future.
- In general, men tend to reserve more money for personal expenses while women tend to sacrifice such expenses in order to send more money home, thus reinforcing **gender roles** which assign women the responsibility of being the ultimate guarantor of family well-being.
- Men tend to send money to a more concentrated **number of family members**, while women support a broader array of extended family members. This responsibility may lead to the extension of their stay abroad, or even to women having to abandon the original objectives of their migratory project.

### Gender and Remittance Flows in Asia

**Patterns of Sending:**
- A Bangladeshi woman working in the Middle East sends 77% of her income on average.
- In Lao PDR, women migrants remit once sixth more than men.²⁶
- On average, each Sri Lankan migrant woman supports a family of five. This totals 4 million (20% of the population).²⁷

**Patterns of Receiving:**
- In Thailand, 67% of receivers are women (who comprise 57% of the population). 71% of these women live in rural areas who may be directly caring for children or family members left behind.²⁸

**Patterns of Usage:**
- A study in Sri Lanka showed that children’s health and education in families receiving remittances only improved when the head of the household is a woman.²⁹
Of 29.6 million women in Thailand, 6.2 million are migrant women who send remittances.

- Migrant women tend to be younger and are from or working in urban areas.
- Migrant women tend to earn more than the national average of women’s income ($540 versus $338 per month).
- 9.5 million women who receive remittances earn even less ($294 per month), are older, and one-third live in rural areas.
- Remittances are likely a means for alleviating poverty, particularly for older women and those living in areas with limited opportunities for work.

**Differentiated Patterns of Receiving Remittances**

- **Women make up a large majority of remittance recipients and administrators**, regardless of whether the sender is a man or a woman. Migrant men tend to remit to their wives and/or mothers, while migrant women send money to the woman in their family who is taking care of her children (less frequently, women may send remittances to their husbands, especially when they remain in charge of the household and children).

- **Women tend to send remittances slightly more frequently** than men, and are more likely to respond to **unexpected expenses** that arise in the household in origin, acting as a sort of insurance policy or shock absorber in times of crisis.
It is important to distinguish between receiving the remittance and having decision-making power over how it is used, since the recipient is not always the one who decides over how to use the money or who benefits from it. Oftentimes, the sender decides how it will be used; in other cases, the remitter, especially if male, may maintain contact with other family members (for example, his mother) in order to ensure that his wife spends the money according to his instructions.

Differentiated Patterns of Remittance Usage

- A large majority of those receiving and managing remittances is made up of women. In their role as caretakers of the family, they tend to invest remittances in the well-being of the household. This supports the observation which has been made in other areas such as food security or microfinance, which holds that the greater control women have over the monetary resources of the household (whether as remitters who closely monitor how their remittances are spent, or as managers of remittances), the greater the tendency to invest in the well-being of its members.

- In a majority of households, remittances are used to cover basic needs such as food, housing, and clothing, and to increase access to consumer goods. This leaves a very slim margin, if any, for “productive investment,” casting doubt on one of the central assumptions of the dominant model. Remittances have been shown to function as a salary, not as capital.

- In addition to the ongoing household expenses, recipients use remittances for expenses related to the health and education of household members. Such investments tend to compensate for the deficient health care coverage and poor quality of education available in many countries of origin. When households have to pay for (often private) health and education services, this reduces the amount of money available for other activities.

- Remittances also serve as a substitute for social protection policies that many States fail to provide. That is, remittances are used in lieu of a pension for migrants’ retired parents.

Who decides how remittances will be used?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex of recipient</th>
<th>Recipient decides</th>
<th>Remitter decides</th>
<th>Other person decides</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In a case study in Senegal, only 50% of the female remittance recipients have the power to decide over how the remittances will be used, whereas the remitter continues to decide over their use for 30% of the women. When the recipient is male, in 67% of the cases he is the one who decides over remittances usage, whereas only 16% report that the sender retains control over the decision-making. This example illustrates that male remittance recipients are more likely to retain decision-making power over remittances than female recipients. In addition, when male migrants send remittances to their wives, a power relationship is formed between the wife and her husband’s family, who often live in the same household, wherein each party struggles for control over the remittances, which can lead to conflict (Sarr 2010).
unemployment or disability insurance for siblings, subsidy for widowed or single mothers, etc. Women tend to be the primary beneficiaries of this kind of remittances, insofar as they are vulnerable to widowhood, family workloads that are not equitably distributed, etc.

- In some particular cases, such as in the Dominican Republic, it has been observed that many male remittance managers consider the remittances a private good, and therefore spend a part of the money on personal expenses, such as entertainment or alcohol. This type of behavior has led many women to start sending remittances to their mothers or sisters instead, as a way to ensure that remittances are spent exclusively on the well-being of the whole household.

These trends show that women are key actors in the remittances for development paradigm. Therefore, in order to be successful, local development programs that seek to increase the impact of remittances must depart from a clear comprehension of the different gender patterns in remittance usage, savings and investment.

**An alternative proposal:** A first, necessary step to understanding these characteristics is to always **disaggregate data by sex**, in censuses, household surveys, etc., in order to create a solid foundation of both documentation and statistics. Only by disaggregating the information gathered can we begin to see different patterns in sending, receiving, spending, etc. Then, this information can be used as a starting point to understanding the power relations behind such patterns. Ultimately, the goal is for practitioners and policymakers to be able to adjust initiatives and policy responses accordingly in order to make transforming gender inequities an objective in and of itself.

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**Stop & Reflect**

1. Which of the general patterns mentioned regarding the sending, receiving, and usage of remittances most reflects the migratory context that you know? Which of the patterns does not?

2. Choose one of the bullet points from this section and explain the impact that this pattern has in terms of human development.
2.2.2. Maximizing the Potential for Economic, Social, and Political Remittances and Women’s Empowerment

In addition to reducing the cost of remittances and enhancing the women’s access to financial services, women’s participation in local development processes should also build their full range of human development potentials. In this approach, the contributions of women migrant workers extend beyond economic to also recognize social and political remittances from migration. Applying this broader definition of ‘remittances’ facilitates greater economic, social, and political empowerment not only for migrant women, but also to societies at large in sending and receiving countries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Remittances</th>
<th>Political Remittances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ideas, behaviors, identities, and social capital that flow from receiving- to sending- country communities³⁶</td>
<td>Attitudes, values, and skills gained in the migration process that can social and political transformation or democratization in both sending and receiving countries³²</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example**

- **New transnational social networks that can provide information to other potential migrants**
- **Changed attitudes of migrant women and men towards gender roles and equality**
- **Transforming identities, particularly for women migrant workers, as economic providers, bearing greater social status, or making more decisions at the family and community levels**

- **Leadership and advocacy skills, particularly those gained by women migrant workers in terms of negotiating for their rights**
- **Greater participation upon return and while abroad in political processes in the sending country**
- **Experience in organizing with broader social and political movements on labor rights, ethnic and minority rights, or women’s rights issues as women migrant workers**

**Stop & Reflect**

1. When considering social and political remittances, how have returnee migrant women contributed to development in their countries and communities of origin? What are some examples of the positive impacts of these remittances?
2.3 Questioning the “Virtuous Circle” of Remittances at the Local Level

Migration and development interventions at the local level tend to be based on a rather euphoric discourse about the positive impact of remittances on development. This discourse holds that the impact is both direct and indirect, on remittance recipient households and the entire community, respectively. The dominant model of “remittances for development” seeks to maximize this impact at the community level, by activating what we call the “virtuous circle” of remittances at the local level.

Graphic 12. Virtuous Circle of Remittances for Local Economic Development

Source: Author
In theory, the **virtuous circle** works like this: if remittances are channeled through formal transfer mechanisms and there is a corresponding improvement in financial services and markets, recipient households will be able to access related financial services, especially credit (with remittance flows serving as a guarantee) and different insurance products (life insurance, health insurance, retirement insurance, etc.). In other words, increasing the resources available in the community and implementing changes in the banking system will give way to the creation of an “inclusive financial democracy” in which everyone can (and should) participate. Having access to credit would encourage people to take up **entrepreneurial activities and productive investment**, which are the cornerstone of this model of local development. The objective is to generate **economic development** through job creation, which would increase access to income and purchasing power, thereby making it possible for more people to purchase goods and services in the market.

In order to promote this circle of events, the **most common measures** aim to: reduce transfer costs; channel remittances through formal services; extend banking services to the poor or others who are outside of the formal system; promote investments in entrepreneurial activities in origin and transnationally; promote the purchase of other financial products such as health insurance or housing loans; and to build the capacity of migrant associations to participate in development projects in their country of origin.

Many interventions are oriented toward **women as their target population**, for various reasons, many of which have to do with the differential patterns mentioned in section 3.2.1 (for example, because women remit a higher proportion of their salary over a longer period of time; and because the majority of remittance recipients are women). As in microfinance programs, a certain **vision of women** exists in which they are depicted as more responsible and therefore better borrowers. This vision can easily lead to the instrumentalization of women instead of their empowerment.

**Some Deficiencies of the Virtuous Circle**

1. The vision of development underlying this model is **neoliberal and economistic**. The solution to poverty, according to this model, is to incorporate the poor into formal markets, while ignoring inequalities and structural conditions which make them highly vulnerable.

2. One hypothesis of this circle is that by increasing economic development in origin, destination countries will be able to bring migration to a halt and encourage migrants to return to their home countries. These two objectives are clearly **aligned with destination countries’ interests** in creating policies to control migration.
3. Though remittances may have a direct impact in terms of poverty reduction for households, this impact must be evaluated at different levels: the household as a whole, individual household members, and the community at large.

- **Households** are not homogenous and harmonious units. They are made up of different members who each have distinct interests. The power relations between them determine which benefits each will receive from remittances.

- In the **community**, impacts may vary according to social class, gender, and ethnicity. Also, inequalities between recipient and non-recipient households may deepen.

- In the **destination country**, it would seem important to ask “what are [remittances] not spent on in order that they might be sent abroad and who is affected by this lack of spending” (Pessar 2005: 5).

4. In many places, remittances barely manage to reduce **vulnerability** for households in crisis, such as providing food security in southern Africa.

5. Remittances function more like a salary than capital, leaving a very low percentage left over for savings or investment (see, for example, table 5 on savings and investment in the Philippines). The idea is that by “banking the unbanked,” remittance recipients will be able to save, thus converting their remittances into capital. However, this process is very limited, due to the small margin available for savings, as well as the structural

---

Table 4.
Savings and Investment of Remittances in a community in the Philippines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Financial Service Used</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Savings account in a bank</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>93.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proportion of Household Income from Remittances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 25 and 50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 51 and 75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monthly Household Income without Remittances (Philippine pesos)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000 – 2,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,000 – 5,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6,000 – 10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15,000 and above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plans to Start a Business with Remittances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Guerrero and Sobritschea, UN-INSTRAW (now UN Women) 2010
deficiencies in origin, which make individual entrepreneurial initiatives more of a survival strategy within the informal sector than a viable means to get ahead.

In sum, efforts to lower transfer costs and to “bank” the remittance market may be positive elements to help families make the most of remittances. However, such measures will not be sufficient without designing a strategy of human development – not just financial development – that is oriented toward sustainability, including the promotion of gender equity.

Alternative Proposals

☑️ Research women’s access to financial services in both origin and destination (migrant women and remittance recipients).

☑️ Work with financial institutions to develop specific services targeted toward migrant women/remitters and remittance recipients (e.g. savings, credit, and other services related to investment).

Stop & Reflect

1. Some people have compared the remittance phenomenon to the microfinance phenomenon based on their potential to reduce poverty and vision of development. What do you think remittances and microfinance have in common in terms of their concept of development? In what ways do they differ? What are the similarities between the remittance and microfinance paradigms in terms of their vision of women?

2. The model of “remittances for local development” assumes that there is a virtuous and automatic circle between banking mechanisms and entrepreneurship. Do you agree? What obstacles to women’s participation and investment might be left out of this picture?

3. How do women figure within the “remittances for local development” paradigm? Is there any risk to considering them in this way?
2.4 Virtuous circle or vicious cycle? Other Impacts of Migration and Remittances at the Local Level

In addition to assuming that there is a virtuous and automatic circle between “banking the unbanked” and increasing investment, the “remittances for development” paradigm also holds that remittances benefit the whole community in various ways:

1. **The multiplier effect:** It is assumed that an increase in consumption will translate into increased commercial activity and job creation.

2. **Alleviation of social inequalities:** Since many remittances are sent to poor households, it is assumed that they will decrease levels of poverty throughout the population.

3. **Greater productivity:** Since a good part of remittances is spent on education and health, improvements in these areas will presumably result in higher levels of “human capital,” and therefore, greater productivity.

4. **Financial democracy:** Supposedly, when financial institutions have more resources coming in, they will be able to circulate them throughout the community by offering credit. This will open up more opportunities to create sustainable livelihoods for remittance recipient and non-recipient households.

As for the **multiplier effect**, it is worth looking into its actual magnitude, and seeing who actually benefits from it. The effects may be diverted to certain social groups which are better positioned in the markets, creating only certain kinds of employment (e.g. male-dominated activities such as construction). Likewise, gains from the increase in consumption may translate into higher corporate profits (e.g. capital intensive industries), but not necessarily into job creation. In the absence of comprehensive development plans, there is no guarantee that quality employment will be generated or that the playing field will be level enough for women to access it.

The multiplier effect may also be **diverted to other regions** outside migrants’ communities of origin. There is a tendency to invest remittances in cities or other areas with fewer structural problems, which contributes to internal migration and the relocation of returning migrants.
to urban areas. Similarly, increases in consumption may benefit other countries more than the origin country, insofar as the increase in demand is for imported products rather than locally-made goods.

With regard to social inequalities, the phenomenon of remittances may actually exacerbate them. First, those who migrate abroad do not usually belong to the poorest of the poor, so the incoming resources do not necessarily reach the most vulnerable. Table 6 shows that in countries like Colombia and the Dominican Republic, remittances are sent mostly to middle-class families living in urban areas, not to the poorest families who live in rural areas, as in the case of Guatemala. Second, as mentioned above, remittances can also create new inequalities between recipient and non-recipient households. The problem is not only that recipient households enjoy a higher standard of living while other households remain poor. Rather, when there is an increase in purchasing power and consumption of some, this can drive up costs of housing, agricultural land, building materials, and other goods and services, which negatively affects the consumption of non-recipient households. In Lesotho, for example, where there is a long-standing tradition of men migrating to work in South African mines, migrants’ families have come to represent a rural elite, theirs being the only households with a small surplus available to save and invest.

Regarding the alleged increase in productivity, it has been observed that even when there are marked improvements in public health indicators and education levels, these are not necessarily accompanied by higher or better employment offerings at the local level. In other words, improvements in the availability of human capital run up against local job markets that are incapable of fulfilling new professional and personal aspirations, especially for women, who often
find even fewer job offerings due to gender discrimination and sex-segregated labor markets. This clash adds to the trend of internal migration and what has been called the “brain drain,” wherein the educated leave their home towns in search of greater opportunities in the cities and sometimes abroad.

This is particularly true in many rural areas, where structural problems and power imbalances between urban and rural areas lead many to see the countryside as a place with no future.

**Table 5.**
Comparison of Remittance Recipient Profiles in Colombia, Dominican Republic and Guatemala

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Colombia</th>
<th>Dominican Republic</th>
<th>Guatemala</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>70.7%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Region</td>
<td>Mostly urban</td>
<td>Mostly urban</td>
<td>Mostly rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Class</td>
<td>Middle and upper</td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>Middle and poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Robert, Elisabeth, 2009
**How does the State fit into the picture?**

The so-called “financial democracy” – or the incorporation of millions of new customers into the global banking system – is not necessarily “inclusive.” In fact, it leaves out several important elements, such as the role of **public institutions** (central, regional, and local) in the provision of State assistance and as a duty bearer responsible for **guaranteeing rights** such as education, health, and social protection. A large part of many families’ remittances goes toward covering these expenses, due to the inexistence or inadequacy of the public system. This has at least two negative effects:

- When private citizens have to cover expenses that should be guaranteed through public expenditure, little is left over for households to save and/or invest.
- When these services are subsidized through private remittance flows, the population is less likely to demand that the government take public responsibility for improving services.

If progress is not made toward the guarantee of these rights, households that do not receive remittances will continue to face the same problems in terms of access to health and education services. Similarly, collective remittances (for example, migrant associations making donations for public works) tend to compensate for the lack of public services (cemetery repair, bridge and road construction, etc.), absolving the State from responsibility toward its citizens.

Remittances may also function as a substitute for **social protection** systems. That is, sometimes they are sent to support aging parents who do not receive pensions or to help siblings who are unemployed. Instead of pressuring States to assume responsibility for such public expenditure, the remittance for development model proposes that banking institutions offer private insurance products as part of a package of financial services linked to remittance transfers.

“The emphasis on the role of remittances to meet education, health and social protection needs can be seen as a step towards the **privatization of development strategies**. This minimizes the importance of macro-level intervention, leaving it up to...”

**Democracy cannot be built through access to finance.**

*Although remittances can selectively relieve the poverty of recipients and enable household (and sometimes wider community) consumption and saving, they do not automatically generate development, and should not be regarded as a substitute for policies that do so* (New Economics Foundation, Mitchell 2006:16).
to the individual to find her way out of poverty and to compensate for structural deficiencies in her community.

In short, if remittances are to have a greater impact on local development, they should not have to replace State investment. Remittances will only be able to bring about sustainable development within the framework of **broader policies** that tackle the structural problems of migrants’ communities of origin.

**An alternative proposal:** Strengthening citizen participation at the local level, especially women's citizen participation, is key so that they can pressure public institutions to fulfill their duty as guarantor of human rights. This process should take place in both origin and destination countries.

Rather than limiting our understanding of **democracy** to its financial element, it should be seen as “a form of political and social organization that responds to collective interests, where men and women of different groups and sectors have a voice and decision-making capacity. Democracy is a form of governance designed to **promote economic and social structures that allow for the well-being of each and every person with justice and equity**” (Rodríguez Fernández and Trehella 2009, our translation). A basic condition of democracy is the opportunity for women to participate on equal terms in political, economic, social and cultural development and to benefit equitably from the outcome.

Within the democratic system, both **political** and economic transformations must take place in order for there to be development, especially when we are working toward a model of development based on all people being able to access and exercise their human rights in equal conditions.

For example, such political transformations might include the creation of public services to complement and encourage the redistribution of unpaid domestic work that has been traditionally done by women. At the same time, this creation of public services would lead to the creation of employment for women, thus reinforcing the role of public institutions as guarantor of decent work for women (Pérez Orozco 2007).
Organize public hearings, dialogues, seminars, etc. on the topic of remittances and development. Promote the participation of a wide variety of stakeholders (migrants and their households, government representatives and politicians, international development agencies, financial institutions, migrant associations, NGOs, etc.), ensuring women’s full participation.

Strengthen the capacity of migrant associations and other relevant organizations, especially women’s groups, to participate in policy dialogues and other events on migration and development, and to include a gender perspective in their approach to these issues.

Include both recipient and non-recipient households in interventions in origin communities in order to avoid further entrenchment of inequalities in areas of high emigration.

Alternative Proposals

Stop & Reflect

1. In your experience, in what ways are communities benefiting from remittance inflows? Are these benefits distributed equally within the community? Who benefits the most?

2. When remittances are invested in health, education, or social protection, in what ways is this beneficial for community development? Might this investment have any negative consequences at the community or national levels?

3. In what ways does the alternative proposal of democracy outlined above differ from the concept of “financial democracy”?
2.5 Investment and “Banking the Unbanked” from a Gender Perspective

Without a doubt, remittances can play a key role in the promotion of micro- and small-scale productive investment, especially through the availability of microcredit and other financial services. However, several considerations must be made in order to promote investment and the use of banking services from a gender perspective:

How do we define what is considered a productive investment? Are women and men benefiting equally from these investments? Should the formal banking of remittances complement or substitute public policies? Should the guiding principle be social equality or market efficiency?

In the minority of cases where there is a portion of remittance money available to start a microenterprise (with or without additional credit), such activities face severe limitations, which may be even greater for female entrepreneurs. The following are some specific problems facing women's microenterprises:

If women have lower education levels = fewer entrepreneurial skills and increased barriers to accessing credit.

Greater investment in the household (especially health and education) and less access to credit = smaller investment.

Smaller amount invested = business highly dependent on unpaid family labor (often women’s unpaid labor), with little capacity to generate employment.

Following gender norms, women often invest in businesses considered “appropriate” for them (e.g. beauty salons, and small food, clothing, and accessory shops), which are often not as lucrative as other types of businesses.

Gender inequalities in access to land, credit, education, etc. also present challenges to women’s investments.

End result: micro businesses that are not profitable and difficult to sustain over the medium and long term (similar to small businesses in general).
In order to overcome these challenges, initiatives should include technical assistance, support, and accompaniment for entrepreneurs, so that their businesses yield results that go beyond simply producing enough income for women to sustain their households.

Examples of Public Interventions to Overcome the Limitations of Micro-Enterprise

1. Provide investment guidelines and counseling to help channel investment toward diverse market niches.
2. Help to change the structural conditions which impede or hurt investments (chronic rural problems such as lack of irrigation, roads in poor condition, lack of reliable electricity, etc.).
3. Promote comprehensive local development plans, so that migrants and remittance recipients who wish to invest can integrate their efforts within a larger community framework.
4. Create alternatives that allow for stable labor force participation and decent pay, in order to counteract the dependency on remittances that comes from a lack of other opportunities.

In order for the remittance circle to be “virtuous” at the local level, the financial institutions promoting this growth must be committed to the community. This means that they strive to keep resources within the region, such that migrants’ families’ savings can allow for the

First, it is important to consider what type of financial institution (bank, cooperative, microfinance institution) is the best choice for promoting a model of local development that is equitable and sustainable. The microfinance market has been evolving from small, socially-oriented institutions toward “financial inclusion” programs offered by larger institutions such as national banks. Many smaller organizations, which sometimes receive external or public financing, aim to work from a democratic and/or cooperative perspective, and tend to show greater commitment to goals such as social (and not just financial) returns.

On the other hand, banks tend to have more resources and therefore are more likely to be viable. Most operate from a mercantilist logic which values profitability over broader development goals such as social equity. Many initiatives continue to focus on inclusion of remittance recipients into the formal banking system as a key element to promoting local development. However, evidence shows that migrants tend to invest in urban areas, which means that their resources do not necessarily remain within the community of origin. Instead of promoting local development, this ends up increasing regional inequalities.

Toward a “Genuine” Financial Infrastructure That is Democratic, Cooperative, and Committed to Local Development

1. Provide investment guidelines and counseling to help channel investment toward diverse market niches.
2. Help to change the structural conditions which impede or hurt investments (chronic rural problems such as lack of irrigation, roads in poor condition, lack of reliable electricity, etc.).
3. Promote comprehensive local development plans, so that migrants and remittance recipients who wish to invest can integrate their efforts within a larger community framework.
4. Create alternatives that allow for stable labor force participation and decent pay, in order to counteract the dependency on remittances that comes from a lack of other opportunities.

Examples of Public Interventions to Overcome the Limitations of Micro-Enterprise

In order to overcome these challenges, initiatives should include technical assistance, support, and accompaniment for entrepreneurs, so that their businesses yield results that go beyond simply producing enough income for women to sustain their households.

In order for the remittance circle to be “virtuous” at the local level, the financial institutions promoting this growth must be committed to the community. This means that they strive to keep resources within the region, such that migrants’ families’ savings can allow for the
For many migrant women, the monthly remittance is life’s sole purpose. Certainly, the remittance is a central focus of new students enrolling at aidha, a Singapore-based micro-business school. Aidha’s students are domestic workers – women from the Philippines, Indonesia, India, or Sri Lanka who leave their families behind to find the employment income that might end their family’s poverty. For them, the remittance offers hope, but it is also a filial duty. And, as budgeted, it can consume more than half the woman’s monthly income.

But the ‘budgeted’ remittance represents only a portion of the total monies sent home. Each month, there are also remittances for ‘exceptional’ costs: a sister is to be married, a cousin needs medicine, an uncle’s debt must be repaid...Requests might come with explanation but often they are simply ‘instructions’ from husbands or fathers to ‘send more.’

Remit, remit remit...Saving is rarely possible. But without saving, there can be no return. What begins as a two- or four-year work experience ends up becoming a ten- to twenty-year hard labor sentence. There is no ‘partnership’ between migrant and family, no shared commitment to the migration ‘plan.’ In line with her gender role, the migrant woman serves as the much-praised but still subservient daughter or wife, providing income as needed, on demand.

Aidha’s unique Compass Club program was designed to respond to this complex financial and empowerment challenge. Structured as small, peer support groups, our clubs provide a structured, educational environment in which, with the support of peers and a dedicated mentor, participants acquire practical financial skills and a new sense of self worth. With monthly meetings, recognition for their savings, and the pride of accomplishment, our students emerge from the clubs with empowered identities. No longer just dutiful daughters, they recognize themselves as primary breadwinners and as family leaders who have both the right and the responsibility to influence consumption and investment activities.

Along with this new identity come other positive changes such as banked savings, investment in income generating activities, and a new family contract detailing the shared plans for family progress. The results are impressive: savings grow from meager under-the-mattress amounts of S$10-20/month to banked sums averaging S$250/month. The productive investments are equally impressive: Compass Club graduates describe with pride their new livestock, homes or land, and the small eateries or taxi services they have financed.

These investments are made possible through connections aidha has made with microfinance institutions in their participants’ countries of origin. The model follows a philosophy of “education with credit” in order to create synergies and opportunities that help migrant women and their families end poverty in their lives.

For more information, visit www.aidha.org.

Submitted by Dr. Sarah Mavrinac, President, aidha

A financial institution that seeks to increase the impact of remittances on local development should...

1. Be committed to the community
2. Offer flexible operating procedures (interest rates, payment schedules, collateral required, size of loans) that respond to the needs of both male and female beneficiaries
3. Integrate financial and non-financial services (such as training, investment advice, etc.)
**How do we define productive investment?**

According to the “remittances for development” model, **productive investment** is defined as the “the establishment of small businesses that then provide a continued source of income and generate benefits that allow the business to grow” (Pérez Orozco et al 2008:83). This vision focuses exclusively on the capacity for growth, and is therefore quite limited. It does not recognize the **many kinds of initiatives** that women and men establish, nor the **diverse motives** that drive them, nor the **non-financial assets** that they bring to the table (e.g. experience, traditional knowledge, or social capital). As a result, their viability is undervalued, making it difficult for female micro-entrepreneurs to access credit offered through the formal banking system.

An **alternative conception of what constitutes productive investment** could include “any type of economic initiative with the potential to become a means of empowerment and/or autonomy for those undertaking it, whether individually or collectively, and initially on a relatively small scale” (Martínez 2007: 2). This definition allows us to reconsider what is seen as productive. From this perspective, we may also include subsistence initiatives, child-dependent care cooperatives and other types of services for individual and collective well-being, as perfectly “productive” in terms of human development.

Let us consider the following **alternative criteria to evaluate what is considered productive investment:**

1. **Sustainability:** the enterprise’s existence does not rely on the continuous consumption of resources. Sustainability should be measured from a multidimensional perspective: environmentally (destruction of natural resources is usually an invisible cost); socially (activities that are not reliant on public resources like subsidies, fiscal benefits, etc., or unpaid work and/or social networks); and financially (sustainability implies lack of dependence on constant flows of external income like remittances, and does not necessarily have to involve increasing profit margins, given that profitability does not equal sustainability).

2. **Degree of democratization:** To what degree does the initiative promote collective decision-making processes and equitable distribution of tasks and profits?
Synergy: capacity of the activity to create horizontal and vertical linkages (including both economic activities and social networks)

An alternative proposal: In sum, in order for formal banking and investment to be gender-sensitive and effective in terms of local development, a different kind of financial infrastructure is needed – one that is committed to the community, has accessible interest rates and operating procedures, and includes support services that go beyond assessing financial feasibility. Likewise, we must transform our notion of productivity to include other activities which contribute to well-being, empowerment and/or personal and collective autonomy.

The guiding principle behind such initiatives – that is, if we would like to promote a holistic and sustainable model of local development – should be social equality, not just market efficiency. Formal banking of remittances should be a complement to – not a private substitute for – public policies promoting development and equality. These policies should be directed toward

Good Practice #2: Colombia/España

Multiservice Care Cooperative, an initiative of Colombian migrant women in Valencia, Spain, with support of SISMA Mujer

Through a project entitled “Gender and Remittances,” the Colombian feminist organization SISMA Mujer has created a transnational initiative that aims to “consolidate the role of Colombian migrant women as development actors in their country, through strengthening their organizational capacity in Valencia (Spain) and establishing a multiservice care cooperative as a development tool in the Department of Risaralda (Colombia).” This initiative has a number of innovative elements:

- Built around more than just the economic aspect of migration; seeks to build many different capacities, including participants’ empowerment within their families and societies
- It is an association, which will allow it to go beyond the micro level and become a medium-sized business (at least in the Colombian context), which makes it more likely to be sustainable
- Process of organization and group formation, respectful of women’s autonomy
- Training women on the subject of rights, cooperatives, entrepreneurship
- Implementation by phases, allowing for improvisation and motivating the women to be creative, while also recognizing that this has discouraged some members who want “things to happen now,” which is characteristic of the people in the region where the project is being implemented
- Builds upon women’s existing knowledge and expertise, which they have learned while participating in global care chains, elevating it from the domestic sphere to the social and entrepreneurial sphere, and divesting it of negative connotations associated with the domestic sphere
- Transnational project, linking women remitters or migrant women who plan to return with other recipient women (pairing up peers here and there, to the extent possible)
- Role of the NGO as facilitator, resource administrator, and promoter of institutional partnerships for the project, but with a clear understanding that the idea and management are theirs, but the project belongs to the women
- Process of defining and delimiting the project carried out with the women themselves, based on their desires and interests
- Feasibility studies (financial, commercial, legal) carried out with the accompaniment of an expert in the subject

Submitted by William Mejía, Research Group on Human Mobility, Red de Universidades Públicas del Eje Cafetero ALMA MATER, Colombia
human development, which involves expanding people’s capacity to enjoy the right to education, health, decent work, and improved infrastructure.

2.6 What can be done? Some Alternatives to Consider

In order to dynamize the local development process, the phenomena of migration and remittances should be included within a comprehensive strategy. Remittances are not a magic ingredient to simply “add to the pot and stir”! Rather, remittances are a family strategy to compensate for non-existent or ineffective development policies and programs: housing, education, health, social protection, employment generation and in the case of collective remittances, infrastructure.

By analyzing the actual usage of remittances and recognizing the limitations of their potential for local development mentioned in this guide, we have come to the conclusion that migration should be considered as a phenomenon that reveals needs and deficiencies at the local level. In other words,

When the resources the diaspora sends to their families and home communities are used to cover expenses that should be included within public budgets such as health or education, this points to the shortcomings of national and local public policies and the inability to guarantee citizen rights throughout their territory (Fundación Carolina and UN-INSTRAW, now part of UN Women, 2010, our translation).

In this sense, the phenomena of migration and remittances also point to persistent gender equalities. For example, migration exposes many obstacles facing women – especially poor women in rural areas – in terms of their access to formal banking services, land and property; excessive work load; labor market insertion and other income generating activities. In one way or another, all of these obstacles limit their ability to benefit from the influx of remittances in their communities.

### Table 6. Remittance Use in Recipient Households in Rural Lesotho

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>% of households that use remittances for...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>89.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td>76.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>56.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funeral and burial costs</td>
<td>28.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeds</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savings</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fertilizer</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Celebrations</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cattle purchase</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wedding</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal investment</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If remittance usage reveals needs and lacks at the local level – and therefore, points out where local development priorities should lie – this table shows us that there are problems related to food security, access to education, high transportation costs, etc.

Source: Household survey, South African Migration Project, cited in Crush, Dodson et al (UN-INSTRAW, now part of UN Women 2010)
Once we have identified the structural problems and deprivations which are preventing the realization of equity and human development, we can design appropriate initiatives that go beyond “banking the unbanked.” Again, any attempt to “maximize the development potential of remittances” must be situated within a broader strategy that takes as its starting point the existing gaps and needs.

**Alternative Proposals to the Dominant Model**

1. **Strengthen public institutions** so they can fulfill their role as guarantor of people’s well-being.

   Migration has a significant impact on life in origin countries: people, and therefore human resources, leave; families are divided; remittances are sent back, etc. Therefore, it is important to take this phenomenon into account within State, regional and local social and economic development policies and plans that regulate employment, education, social protection, and support families. These policies should be based on internationally recognized principles of human development, including strong emphasis on distributive justice (a just allocation of resources in society) and equity in the broadest possible sense.

2. **Create local development plans with a holistic – not economistic – vision**, so that there is a framework to guide individual and collective initiatives of recipient households, migrant returnees, and citizens at large.

   In the absence of a comprehensive development plan, nothing guarantees that there will be job creation, much less the equitable distribution of opportunities among men and women, both of which are key drivers of emigration from many places. When developing such a plan, it is important to ensure the equal and effective participation of men and women.

   The unit of analysis of the development plan should be neither the individual nor the household, but the territory\(^{34}\), since progress cannot be made on an individual basis alone. State and local governments should consider offering targeted technical and financial assistance to promote women’s associations and cooperatives, as well as their participation in wider initiatives that go beyond “traditionally feminine” activities. Likewise, efforts should be made to link up women’s initiatives with others, including horizontal and vertical linkages to strengthen their ability to participate in value chains.

3. **Promote dialogue and collaboration** between local, national and transnational stakeholders in the identification and implementation of migration and development initiatives, including women’s groups and migrant associations.
Some initiatives require the participation of public entities and the contribution of additional resources (financial, human, informational, etc.). An important first step is to hold dialogues and coordination meetings involving different stakeholders – primarily government representatives from origin and destination countries (national and local), along with migrant and migrant women’s associations in destination countries, migrants’ families in origin, international development organizations, and NGOs that work on related topics, among others.

4. Develop remittance- and publicly-funded initiatives related to **reproductive activities**, such as child care cooperatives.

Care work, which continues to be seen as women’s responsibility, is the invisible base of the economy (being fed, clothed and kept healthy are what allows the beneficiaries of care to go out and be productive members of society). As such, care has high economic and social value. Therefore, it is important to consider reproductive work within comprehensive development planning processes. It would be strategic to promote initiatives such as care cooperatives (see Good Practice #2, SISMA Mujer) for several reasons: 1) it is a way to value reproductive work while generating employment for women; 2) such cooperatives offer women a quality service that they can count on, so they can go out to work or take up other activities for their own personal development; 3) they allow for a more equitable distribution of care work. (See guide 3 for more information on care work and migration).

5. Design and implement interventions to secure as rights two items on which a large part of remittances are spent: **health and education**.

It is impossible for microcredit and micro-businesses to become a motor of local development if the population does not have access to quality health care and education. People must be considered first and foremost as social subjects, before being able to become entrepreneurs (Garay 2010).

6. **Promote local financing schemes** that are capable of funding medium-sized initiatives and are committed to local development.

Financing for local development should come from a variety of sources, including small- and medium-scale programs which are as concerned about social equality as they are market efficiency. These programs should integrate non-financial services such as training and technical assistance, alongside financial offerings.

7. Direct State investment to **medium-scale job creation**, in order to move beyond micro-entrepreneurship and promote a more sustainable model of economic development.

In order for local development to be sustainable, the State should take measures to generate employment opportunities that go beyond individual micro-enterprise.
Such medium-scale initiatives could include the formation of new types of productive associations, starting with habitat construction and infrastructure improvement (Garay 2010).

8. Promote women’s political participation so normal their needs and interests are represented when identifying priorities at the local and national levels.
ACTIVITIES

2.1 Quiz on Gender and Remittances
2.2 Video: Interview with Carmen Moreno on CNN
2.3 Case Study: Lorna’s Life Story
2.4 Debate “What do we mean by ‘productive use’ of remittances?”
2.5 Analysis and Reformulation of a “Remittances for Development” Project
2.1 **Quiz on Gender and Remittances**

**Objective:** Survey the group’s prior knowledge of gender and remittances, and dispel some related gender stereotypes.

**Materials/Preparation:** Photocopies of the quiz and pens, or slides with the quiz questions

**Estimated Time:** 25 minutes

**Facilitation**

1. This activity is suitable as an opener toward the beginning of the unit on remittances. It will help the facilitator to assess how familiar participants are with the topic, and to adapt subsequent activities accordingly.

2. Hand the quiz out to participants as they arrive, and ask them to complete it individually.

3. In a short plenary session, ask those who answered A to raise their hands, then those who answered B, etc. Ask one person who answered each one to explain why s/he chose that answer. Share the correct answer with them and ask if they agree, or if they can think of another example.

4. **Variation 1:** Go over the responses in a plenary session at the beginning of the workshop as an introduction to the topic.

5. **Variation 2:** Instead of going over the answers in a plenary session, collect the quizzes and, during a break, quickly create a slide or two showing the results of the quiz, i.e. X number or percentage responded YES or NO. Present the responses and correct answers following the break in order to get into the topic at hand again.

6. **Variation 3:** Instead of handing out the quiz, create slides with the quiz questions and answer them collectively. This variation is recommended if you are short on time or would like to do a faster version of the activity.
Key Lessons

- Inequalities in the labor market in destination countries channel migrant women into sectors that are less valued by society and therefore paid less. This translates into migrant women’s average salary being less than men’s; however, women often send a greater percentage of their income home in the form of remittances.

- A majority of remittance recipients is made up of women, who have their own patterns of remittance usage. The money they receive is usually not enough to start a business. Those who do attempt to start a micro-business face particular obstacles that derive from gender inequalities.

- Interventions must focus not only at the local level, but also at the structural level in order to overcome some of the challenges to development or at least to level the playing field.
1. Migrant women’s average earned income tends to be _____________ migrant men’s income.
   A. Equal to
   B. Greater than
   C. Inferior to

2. Most remittances are received by:
   A. Women
   B. Men

3. Micro-businesses created by women using remittances:
   A. Face the same difficulties as micro-businesses created by men.
   B. Face additional difficulties that derive from gender inequalities.

4. Remittances sent by women make up a proportion of their monthly income that is...
   A. Less than the proportion of monthly income sent by men
   B. Greater than the proportion of monthly income sent by men

5. Promoting gender-sensitive development through migration and remittances involves:
   A. Focusing on local development and increasing women’s access to financial systems so that they can generate their own employment.
   B. Considering local, national, and international factors that may encourage (or block) gender equality, especially throughout the migratory process.
1. C. Migrant women’s average monthly income tends to be less than migrant men’s monthly income, due to the little value assigned to the jobs that they do (cleaning, washing, taking care of children and the elderly, etc.). Regulatory frameworks, laws, and policies (or sometimes the lack thereof), channel migrant men and women into different kinds of work. “Men’s work,” especially in construction, tends to be better paid than “women’s work” in domestic work and care work, or other services. This is aggravated by restrictions upon migrant workers’ (especially domestic workers’) ability to change jobs, limited access to information, and little public recognition of their basic labor and social rights.

2. A. Women are the primary recipients and administrators of remittances, regardless of the sex of the person sending remittances. This means that in order for local development programs based on remittances to be successful, they must have a clear understanding of the differential gender characteristics in remittance use, savings and investment. At the same time, such programs must work toward gender equality and avoid the tendency to instrumentalize women for others’ well-being.

3. B. Given that women invest more in basic household needs, little, if any, money is left over for other kinds of investments. Other issues such as lower educational levels also make it difficult for them to access credit. As a result, their initiatives tend to be small, highly dependent on family members’ unpaid labor, concentrated in traditionally feminine activities that are less profitable than other sectors, and unlikely to be sustainable over the medium term.

4. B. Although migrant women tend to have lower average monthly income than migrant men, they tend to send a higher proportion of their income. In other words, men tend to earn more, and may send a similar or slightly higher monthly remittance than women, but that amount makes up a greater percentage of women’s earnings. Many migrant women place extreme limits on their personal spending in the destination country, as well as investments in their own well-being or entertainment, and may even go into debt to be able to send remittances.

5. B. Without modifying structural conditions, small, individual, remittance-based investments will do little to bring about development or women’s empowerment. The limitations facing such initiatives cannot be overcome at the individual level alone. UN-INSTRAW (now part of UN Women) case studies, as well as those carried out by other researchers, show that remittance-backed investments in such circumstances will have little to no impact on development. Interventions must be made through public institutions in order to improve overall conditions and overcome such limitations.
2.2 **Video: Interview with Carmen Moreno on CNN**

**Objective:** Reflect on the relationship between feminization of migration and the sending of remittances.

**Materials/Preparation:** Photocopies of the reflection questions, computer, projector, speakers, reliable internet connection if you do not have the video, “Carmen Moreno CNN Interview” video available on CD and at the following link: [http://www.dailymotion.com/video/x2xjnka](http://www.dailymotion.com/video/x2xjnka)

Click on CC to turn on English subtitles.

**Estimated Time:** 30 minutes

**Facilitation**

1. This activity is simple and appropriate for any audience. It is ideal for opening up discussion on gender and remittances.

2. Preparation: make sure you can project the video and that the sound works properly. Watch it at least twice before the session to familiarize yourself with the topics it covers. Go over the reflection questions as well.

3. During the session, hand out the reflection questions for participants to look over. Explain that they are to take notes during the video, and will have time afterward to organize their responses.

4. Clarify that the video commentary only refers to the case of Dominican women in Spain, not to all migrant women.

5. Start the video. Duration: 8:37 minutes.

6. Have participants respond to the reflection questions individually, applying what they have learned about feminization of migration and remittances from the conceptual part of this guide, or in earlier presentations.

7. Discuss their responses in a plenary session, while taking notes on flip chart paper. Ask the group: How does gender influence the sending of remittances?

8. **Optional topic: return.** The topic of migrants’ return to their country of origin is mentioned. Specifically, all of the migrant women in the case study wish to return to their home country, but in reality not all of them will be able to. Ask: In your experience, what obstacles do migrant women face to being able to return home? Why might they choose not to?
Key Lessons

Remittances sent by women have the potential to mitigate poverty in their families and may also be used to create small businesses.

However, migrant women and their families continue to face problems that remittances alone cannot resolve. Public policies are needed to promote local economic development, while also working toward gender equality.
1. **What remittance sending patterns does Carmen Moreno mention?**
   
   A. From whom to whom?
   
   B. For what uses?

2. **Is what we have seen in the video similar to the migration context that you know/work with? In what ways is it different?**

3. **What surprises you or catches your attention in this interview? Why?**

4. **Of the women who have returned to their home country, 100% of them in this study started a small business, such as small food or clothing shops, or a gelatin-making operation. In your opinion, what is the potential of these kinds of micro-enterprises? What pitfalls or limitations do they face?**

5. **At the end of the interview, Ms. Moreno mentions the importance of public policies in order to find solutions and improve the situation of migrant women and their families. Can you think of any examples of public policies that are needed?**
2.3 **Case Study: Lorna’s Life Story**

**Objective:** Identify the productive potential of remittances, as well as obstacles to investment and possible interventions from a gender perspective.

**Materials/Preparation:** Photocopies of the life story and reflection questions, pens

**Estimated Time:** 45 minutes

**Facilitation**

1. Familiarize yourself with the life story and reflection questions. Try doing the exercise yourself first.
2. Divide participants into pairs or small groups by counting off (1-2-3-4), and hand out the case study to each group (with enough copies for each participant).
3. Ask them to read the story, select a note taker, and to discuss and respond to the questions together.
4. In a plenary discussion, go over each question. Ask one group to share its answers and the other groups to add to what has been said if they have any additional ideas to share.

**Key Lessons**

- Using remittances for education can be considered “productive” in terms of human development.
- Interventions that aim to increase the impact of remittances run the risk of using or instrumentalizing migrants, especially if special efforts are not made to create mechanisms for migrants to participate and decide over development processes.
- Initiatives to promote remittance investment should be accompanied by public policies that aim to create hospitable conditions for investment, to promote gender equality, and to meet people’s basic needs (access to housing, education, health, employment, etc.).
In the early 1980s, Lorna left her home town of Lemery in the Philippines for Italy in order to leave her husband, who was having an extramarital affair. Since her siblings and cousins were already working in Italy, it was an opportunity for her to get away and to earn enough money to put their five children through school. Divorce is illegal in the Philippines and the social stigma of separation led Lorna to migrate. She wanted to leave her relationship, and thought that her absence might help to resolve things.

After 5 years of working in Italy as a nanny, Lorna returned to find that her husband had fathered 5 children while she was gone. She then returned to Italy to continue working to pay for her children’s university. After 10 years of working abroad, her children called her to come home because their father was sick and needed someone to take care of him. “Of course I took care of him. I was his wife. I just sacrificed myself for the sake of my children, because they didn’t want me to separate from him. They never wanted me to leave.” She took care of her husband for a year and a half before he passed away from diabetes complications.

Today, Lorna is 55 years old. She never returned to Italy. Instead, her children went abroad to continue a cycle of migration that many families from Lemery experience. Three of her five children moved to Rome after she returned. Her first daughter went in 1990 and currently works as a nanny, followed by her son in 1992 who is a chef at a popular restaurant, and more recently, her youngest daughter who left in 2006 and works as a domestic worker. Lorna took care of her son’s 4 children in the Philippines for 7 years before they were reunited in Italy. Her oldest and youngest sons who remained in the Philippines worked as fishermen before recently migrating to work in a factory in Korea.

Lorna maintains several business ventures. Initially, her family had a fishing business which employed about 20 men, but when her husband died she no longer wanted to manage it. Lorna’s main business is her sari sari (small goods) store. She also sells rice, which brings her more customers because she has the support of local leaders. Lorna also rents out a videoke machine (karaoke with a small monitor).

As the remittance manager for her family, Lorna is in charge of purchasing property for her children abroad, and supervising the homes they are building. “The remittances they have sent over the past year and a half were used for my husband’s medicine and hospitalization, but after that I used the money for land. My children were not really involved. They just told me to tell them how much to send because I’m their manager and I make the decisions. They have no idea what the houses they are having built look like.” Her children in Italy have no other investments aside from property.

Migration and remittances are permanent fixtures in the lives of people in Lemery. As a former migrant and mother of migrants, Lorna understands the sacrifices and benefits of having a transnational family. So far, her family has been quite fortunate, as it was not difficult for them to migrate to Italy, and today they are able to purchase land and make small investments. The social networks and connections they had in Italy and among their community in Lemery played a significant role in facilitating migration and influencing their personal drive to contribute to their family and community.

This life story was published in March 2010 and pertains to the project “Gender and Remittances: Constructing Gender-Sensitive Development,” implemented by UN-INSTRAW and UNDP, with funding from Japan WID.

1. How do Lorna and her family spend the remittances? In what ways might these expenditures be considered “productive” and/or as contributing to human development?

2. In what ways have migration and/or remittances contributed to the empowerment of Lorna? In what ways have traditional gender roles been upheld through Lorna’s migration story?

3. From a gender perspective, what are some of the obstacles to further investment in Lorna’s story?

4. Is there potential for productive investment in the life story? What can government institutions do to increase that potential?

5. Can you think of an intervention or program that could increase the impact of remittances in this case? How might such an intervention promote gender equality?
2.4 **DEBATE “WHAT DO WE MEAN BY ‘PRODUCTIVE USE’ OF REMITTANCES?”**

**Objective:** Understand the difference between the human development approach and the economistic approach to development through a debate on the concept of ‘productive use’ of remittances.

**Materials/Preparation:** Photocopies of the arguments for each group, podium (or chairs) from which each group will present its arguments, watch or clock to keep track of time, card with the words “1 minute”

**Estimated Time:** 1 hour

**Facilitation**

1. This is a slightly more complicated activity recommended for use further along into the workshop when participants have a solid understanding of the foundational concepts from guides 1 and 2. Before beginning this activity, you will have to have explained the concepts of human development and economistic development, as well as the progressive reductionism evident in the “remittances for development” approach which is explained in Guide 1, section 1.3.2 “The right to development.” It is also recommended to have presented information from Guide 2, especially sections 2.3 “Questioning the ‘Virtuous Circle’ of Remittances at the Local Level” and 2.4 “Virtuous circle or vicious cycle? Other Impacts of Migration at the Local Level.”

2. The activity consists of setting up a debate between two groups who will argue from two distinct positions. Each group will defend differing notions of what constitutes “productive” use of remittances in development terms.

3. Divide participants into two groups by counting off 1-2-1-2. They will not necessarily agree with the position that they will have to defend; the exercise requires that they try to understand and take up the logic of one argument or the other. Another option is to explain the two positions and allow participants to choose the group of their preference. Then, if one group is much bigger than the other, you can ask some people to switch to the other group.

4. Explain the basic tenets of “economistic development” to Group 1: According to the dominant paradigm, if more remittances are channeled through formal banks and there is more “productive” investment of remittances, then remittances will increase local economic development. In addition, this approach considers one of the main obstacles to productive investment to be the fact that recipient households use remittances to cover basic needs instead of saving and investing. Group 1 will defend this dominant paradigm, arguing that the current use of remittances is not productive enough in terms of (economic) development, and will offer some ideas as to how remittances can be made more productive.
5. Next, explain the basic tenets of the “human development paradigm” to Group 2: This guide discusses different limitations of the dominant paradigm from a human development perspective, such as an increase in social inequalities and the absence of the State in this model. The human development approach does not believe that development challenges can be resolved in the marketplace alone, and argues that it is necessary to strengthen the capacity of the State to guarantee human rights, in order to expand people’s capacities and liberties. Group 2 will defend this position, arguing that investing remittances in education and health is indeed productive in terms of human development, but that remittances alone cannot be the motor of an entire development strategy. This group will also offer alternative ideas as to how to implement their approach.

6. Hand out the work sheets with the outline of arguments for each group, “Economistic development” for Group 1 and “Human development” for Group 2.

7. Explain that participants will have 15-20 minutes to organize their arguments. They should review the list of arguments and “make them their own” by thinking of examples, additional points, and one or two ideas of possible interventions based on this approach. Each debate team should choose a speaker, and the rest of the team will take notes on the arguments of the other team.

8. The debate will be structured as follows:
   - **Opening argument:** Each team will have 5-7 minutes for the speaker to present their vision of remittances and development and to propose their ideas of interventions. If the team prefers, other members will also be able to add to the speaker’s arguments (the speaker may choose to yield remaining time to other team members).
   - **Notes for rebuttals:** When a team is presenting, members of the opposite team should take notes on their arguments in order to respond and refute their points following the opening arguments.
   - **Rebuttals:** Those who have taken notes will have the opportunity to briefly explain why they think the other team’s proposals will not work, or to point out flaws in their approach. Each team will have 3-5 minutes.
   - **Closing argument:** Each speaker will sum up his/her team’s position and response to the rebuttals in a closing argument of no longer than 2 minutes.

9. During the debate, keep a stop watch close at hand to keep track of time, as well as a card announcing “1 minute” to hold up when the speaker has 1 minute remaining. Take note of the most controversial or debatable points, as well as any argument or topic in common that comes up in both groups.

10. **Variation:** If you are short on time, you can cut back the time allotted for each phase of the debate, or you can limit the debate only to the presentation of opening arguments.
Key Lessons

By asking the question “What do we mean by ‘productive use’ of remittances?”, we are questioning the notion of what is needed in order to “produce.” Do we only need remittances? Or also infrastructure, solid institutions, comprehensive policies, etc.?

This debate leads us to question the model of development itself, and to champion the human development paradigm based on its holistic perspective. The human development approach understands economic development not as an end in and of itself, but rather as part of a social and collective process that seeks to expand people’s liberties and capacities.
SUGGESTED ARGUMENTS:

- Migrants are rational economic actors whose remittances contribute to the development of their home countries.
- The problem is that their families use the remittances mostly on consumption. They neither save nor invest. This is a missed opportunity. If remittances are not being used productively, their impact on economic development will be limited.
- What we need to do is promote the inclusion of remittance recipients into formal banking services, especially designed for women. If they open a bank account and start saving, banks will amass more capital and will be able to extend credit to both remittance recipients and non-recipients in the community at large.
- We should also promote the productive investment of remittances, especially in micro-businesses, in order to create more jobs in the community.
- With remittances coming into the community, people using banking services, and greater productive investment, there will be more money circulating in general.
- Thus, families will be able to purchase the services they need through the market, including health care, education, care services, cleaning service, etc. This will generate more employment in other sectors as well.

WRITE DOWN ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES AND ARGUMENTS HERE:

INTERVENTIONS:

- Therefore, we think that the following must be done...
Suggested argument:

- The use of remittances for food, housing, health, education, etc. is “productive” indeed in terms of human development. Remittances help some families to overcome the deprivations (poverty, lack of services) that restrict their liberties, and they also increase access to basic rights such as health and education.

- Although the effects of remittances on human development are generally positive, remittances cannot serve as the cornerstone of any development strategy for a number of reasons:
  - Not all households receive remittances. In this sense, the “remittances for development” approach is too individualist, as it focuses on the capacity of individuals to resolve their problems through private means, instead of bringing about improvements that will benefit all community members.
  - This runs the risk of increasing inequalities between people who receive remittances and those who do not.
  - Market mechanisms alone cannot bring about human development. Other dimensions must be considered, including equality, empowerment, social integration, and democracy.
  - This leaves out the role of public institutions, which are ultimately responsible for guaranteeing the well-being of all residents within their jurisdiction.
  - If families must send someone abroad in order to earn a decent salary in order to cover costs of services that should be paid for by the State, the impact of remittances on local economic development will always be limited.
  - In order for remittances to have a greater impact on development, interventions have to go beyond formal banking and productive investment. Before encouraging investment, we should analyze how remittances are actually used in order to determine which services they are subsidizing and therefore, where the deficits lie in governments’ provisions for citizens’ basic needs.

Write down additional examples and arguments here:

Interventions:

- Therefore, we think that the following must be done...
2.5 Analysis and reformulation of a “Remittances for Development” Project

Objective: Develop participants’ analytical capacity through the analysis and reformulation of a typical initiative from a gender and rights-based perspective.

Materials/preparation: Photocopies of the project descriptions and work sheets, pens, flip chart paper, and markers for each group

Estimated Time: 1 hour (25 minutes for analysis, 25 minutes for alternatives, 10 minutes to discuss conclusions)

Facilitation

1. This exercise is best suited for development practitioners to help them apply their knowledge to project design. It is a slightly longer activity that would make sense toward the end of the workshop.

2. The primary argument of the exercise is that before becoming entrepreneurs, people first must be considered (1) rights holders who enjoy (2) conditions of social equality or a somewhat “level playing field.” This exercise gathers several examples of projects that are typical of the “remittances for development” paradigm. The idea is that participants identify what is missing from these projects in terms of gender, human development, the transnational dimension, and migrants’ participation.

3. Before beginning, you will have to have explained these four concepts, drawing upon the explanations in Guide 1, sections 1.3.1 “Gender as a central analytical category,” 1.3.2 “The right to development,” 1.3.3 “The spatial dimension of development: From transnational to local” and 1.3.4 “Migrants as protagonists of development.”

4. Familiarize yourself with the two different project examples and the work sheets that follow.

5. Divide participants into work groups of no more than 4 persons each.

6. Explain the objective of the activity and hand out the materials. Go over the prompt questions together to ensure that everyone understands the four columns on the work sheet.

7. Ask each group to select a note taker who will be in charge of reading their ideas out loud / presenting them later on.

8. They will have 1 hour to complete two tasks: 1) analyze their case study using the Analysis matrix and 2) come up with ideas to modify and/or reformulate the project from a gender and rights-based perspective using the Alternatives matrix.
9. During the working period, the facilitator should circulate among the groups to make sure that they understand the activity and are on the right track. The exercise is somewhat complex, and participants will not have all the information they need to do a complete analysis. The idea is for them to analyze the case study to see what elements are present and what is missing, in order to fill in the gaps or reformulate it using the second matrix. Encourage participants not to get bogged down trying to answer all of the prompt questions, but rather to use them to launch into a brainstorm regarding the category they fall under.

10. Participants should write down their ideas on two sheets of flip chart paper replicating the table from their work sheets ANALYSIS and ALTERNATIVES.

11. Groups will have the opportunity to present their analysis and ideas during a plenary session. If there is more than one group with the same case study, they should present one after the other in order to allow for discussion after all groups have presented.

12. Be careful to allow roughly the same amount of time to discuss alternative ideas as you do analysis of what is missing.

13. If you have an assistant facilitator, ask him/her to type up observations and main ideas in a Word file and/or directly onto PowerPoint slides with some preliminary “conclusions.” This will be useful both to sum up main ideas at the end of the session or workshop, and to include in the workshop report.

14. Variation 1: Have the groups only do the critical analysis of their project, and leave the brainstorm of alternatives for larger group discussion in the plenary session.

15. Variation 2: If you have plenty of time and all participants have good internet access, you could give them an assignment prior to the session of looking for their own example of a “typical” project to analyze. The quantity and quality of available information varies by web page and project, but they could begin a general search at the following sites:

   **Inter-American Development Bank , Multilateral Investment Fund:**

   **International Fund for Agricultural Development, Financing Facility for Remittances:**
   http://www.ifad.org/remittances/index.htm

   **Joint Migration and Development Initiative:**
   http://www.migration4development.org/search/project_search/results/field_project_thematic_areas%253A784%2B
A majority of “remittances for development” projects, if they consider women at all, often do so in a way that seeks to take advantage of their managerial capacity and reproductive role as household administrators without necessarily considering their specific needs or strategic measures that could lead to their empowerment. In so doing, they run the risk of instrumentalizing women instead of empowering them.

Currently, a large part of family remittances is being used to cover basic household needs: food, housing, education, and health. Not all families receive remittances, meaning that remittance-based development initiatives could actually worsen inequalities between households. Alternative ways of guaranteeing basic rights for all people must be sought, such as through public policies or comprehensive development planning processes.

Many “remittances for development” projects focus on the origin country as the only place in need of development, while many destination countries are also facing serious development challenges. In addition, possibilities for local development in origin are largely determined by structural factors, such as participation in markets, neoliberal policies, etc. Interventions must take place at several levels in order to achieve the desired impact.

Migrants’ involvement in such projects tends to be limited to sending resources. Practitioners and policymakers must seek out new ways to involve the migrant population in decision-making processes about migration- and remittance-based initiatives so that they are able to participate not only as investors but also as beneficiaries of development.
**Project:** “Remittances and emigrants as resources for development”

**Countries:** Cape Verde and Italy

**Implemented by:** a local NGO. The project draws on the broad geographic coverage of the NGO and its experience in microfinance and microcredit, including enhancing beneficiaries’ administrative capacities, promoting business creation, and reproductive health services.

**Duration:** 18 months

**Budget:** €200,000

**General Objectives:** Reduce poverty and guarantee food security for the most vulnerable families and individuals of Cape Verde through better use of migrant remittances through microcredit.

**Specific Objectives:**

- Generate detailed information, gathered in participatory fashion, on the rates of family emigration from Santiago, as well as specific problems regarding remittance flows, costs and usage, and short and medium term needs.
- Implement a pilot microcredit system, using emigrants’ resources and external funds to encourage savings and the partial use of remittances in productive activities.
- Inform women throughout the country on the rules of emigration, in order to reduce their vulnerability.
- Strengthen the role of the emigrant community to get involved as decentralized development actors.

**Target population:** approximately 6,000 female heads of household and their families (who have migrant family members abroad and receive remittances) on the island of Santiago, Cape Verde and diaspora groups in Italy.

**Main activities:**

- Preliminary, participatory survey to identify the typology and usage of remittances, associated costs and transfer mechanisms.
- Define strategies to use remittances to finance productive activities.
- Disseminate information among families of migrants, especially women, on the different possible uses for remittances for income generation activities instead of consumption.
Establish a pilot fund to finance entrepreneurial activities started by migrant-sending families.
Establish credit guidelines, offer technical assistance, and finance pilot projects.
Train diaspora groups in northern Italy on project management and small business administration.

According to the NGO: “The Project will help the population, especially women who are the most vulnerable in our country, in the fight to eliminate poverty and to guarantee food security. It is innovative because it will help women remittance recipients realize the fragility of using remittances only for consumption and will encourage them to use remittances for income generation activities. In this way, it aims to improve the use of migrants’ remittances in order to contribute to social development and raise the incomes of women heads of households in Cape Verde. The remittances will be used through the establishment of a micro-finance circuit to invest in productive activities. In addition to creating a fund, our organization will act as intermediary in the sending of remittances by offering lower costs than banks.”
**Case 2: Peru**

**Project:** “Entrepreneurial leadership pilot program focused on migrant families’ transnational networks”

**Countries:** Peru, and diaspora organizations in Italy, Spain, U.S. and Japan

**Implemented by:** NGO focused on women’s rights

**Duration:** 24 months

**Budget €160,000**

**General objective:** Strengthen the links between migrant organizations and migrants’ families’ organizations in Peru in order to increase productivity through investment of remittances.

**Target population:** Transnational families from the Junin region in Peru and Peruvian migrant organizations abroad

**Context:** Migrants from Peru send around US$424 million to their families in Junin. These remittances are used primarily on consumption and education, with only 8% being invested in development or the management of small businesses. Migration is also creating transnational communities that contribute to the economic development of Peru through new ideas and resources for investment. However, the Junin region has not exploited the full potential of remittances; 57% of Junin’s population continues to live below the poverty line, and 24% live in extreme poverty. Some of the challenges to poverty reduction are the high unemployment rate and the lack of public policies that promote employment and migrants’ resources.

**Activities:**

1. Strengthen the capacities of the target population through training on entrepreneurship and international trade
2. Encourage the target population to undertake entrepreneurial projects by supporting 20 family businesses and promoting migrant investment in these businesses
3. Update available information on transnational families
4. Implement a regional governmental strategy for Junin to promote investment of remittances
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CRITICAL ANALYSIS</th>
<th>Gender as an analytical category</th>
<th>Human development</th>
<th>Transnational dimension</th>
<th>Migrants as protagonists of development</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What information are we missing in order to carry out a proper gender analysis?</td>
<td>What are remittances currently spent on? What needs are they covering?</td>
<td>What role do public institutions play in this initiative, if any?</td>
<td>What kind of vision does this initiative have of migrants? (a. Subjects who are creating development, b. Subjects who decide over development, or c. Beneficiaries of development).</td>
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<td>What inequalities might there be at the micro level (individual/household), meso level (social networks, labor market) and macro level (bilateral agreements, globalization processes) that could affect the success of the project?</td>
<td>What rights are not being guaranteed by governments?</td>
<td>How sustainable is this model of development for the origin country? For groups in the destination country?</td>
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<td>Is there any risk of instrumentalizing or using women?</td>
<td>Is there any risk of this project increasing or deepening inequalities?</td>
<td>What structural problems could be contributing to the problems that the project is trying to solve? Could any of these problems affect the success of the project?</td>
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<td>What possibilities are there for empowering women through this initiative?</td>
<td>What is considered “productive” use of remittances according to this project?</td>
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**Activity 2.5 Prompt Questions**
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<td><strong>Alternatives</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>How can the <strong>empowerment</strong> component be strengthened?</td>
<td>What other alternatives are there in order to guarantee the fulfillment of these <strong>rights</strong> (aside from micro-entrepreneurship)?</td>
<td>What kinds of <strong>public policies</strong> could complement this initiative in order to guarantee people’s <strong>rights</strong>?</td>
<td>What adjustments could be made to <strong>avoid the instrumentalization</strong> of migrants?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Is there room to promote the more <strong>equitable distribution</strong> of family work? Or to improve women’s negotiating <strong>power</strong> within households?</td>
<td>What kinds of <strong>public policies</strong> are needed in destination countries in order to <strong>protect the rights</strong> of the migrant population?</td>
<td>What political measures must be taken to address the <strong>structural problems</strong> you have identified (at the national or international level)?</td>
<td>How can migrants’ <strong>participation</strong> be encouraged in a meaningful way so that they can be decision-makers and beneficiaries (not just investors)?</td>
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<tr>
<td>How could the objectives be reformulated from a rights-based perspective? (Remember to consider both origin and destination)</td>
<td>How might we broaden the notion of what is considered productive?</td>
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### Analysis Matrix

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<th>Gender as an analytical category</th>
<th>Human development</th>
<th>Transnational dimension</th>
<th>Migrants as protagonists of development</th>
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<td><strong>Critical Analysis</strong></td>
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## Alternatives Matrix

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ENDNOTES

25. For a look at the latest thinking on remittances from this perspective, see Dilip Ratha’s blog “People Move: A blog about migration, remittances, and development,” World Bank, https://blogs.worldbank.org/peoplemove/team/dilip-ratha
27. Gamburd, Michele Ruth, “Sri Lankan Migration to the Gulf: Female Breadwinners- Domestic Workers”, Portland State University, 2010
33. During the field work for the study cited, the exchange rate was approximately US$ 1 = 46.9 Philippine pesos.
34. The territory is conceived of not only as an economic entity with comparative advantages that can be strengthened so communities can compete in global markets, but rather as a space which synthesizes economic, political and cultural/ideological processes with environmental conditions and other external factors such as neoliberal economic restructuring.
35. Activity adapted from quiz developed by Elisabeth Robert for UN-INSTRAW (now part of UN Women).
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Crush, Jonathan, Belinda Dodson, John Gay and Clement Leduka, Southern African Migration Programme (SAMP). 2010. Migration, remittances and gender-responsive local development: The case of Lesotho. Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic: UN-INSTRAW (now part of UN Women) and UNDP.


Guerrero, Sylvia H. and Carolyn Sobritchea. 2010. Migration, remittances and gender-responsive local development: The case of Philippines. Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic: UN-INSTRAW (now part of UN Women) and UNDP.


Robert, Elisabeth, UN-INSTRAW (now part of UN Women). 2009. “Mirada global sobre el nexo entre migración, remesas y desarrollo, desde una perspectiva de género”. Presentation at the 1st Century, organized by the Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (UNAM), Instituto de Investigaciones Económicas (IIEc) and the Dirección General de Asuntos del Personal Académico (SGAPA) México DF, México. Available at: http://www.un-instraw.org/data/media/documents/Remittances/Ponencia%20Mexico.doc


This guide explores the topic of global care chains, a phenomenon which is taking place within the context of globalization, feminization of migration, and the transformation of social welfare states. Chains are formed when women migrate to work in the care sector (domestic work, personal healthcare services, etc.), while transferring care work in their own households in origin and sometimes in destination to other women. Considering the global aspects of care chains affords us a broader perspective on the migration-development link, and allows us to publicly debate issues that tend to fall outside the political agendas for development in origin and destination countries alike. Above all, analysis of care chains enables us to: 1) re-value women’s economic contribution and recognize the role gender plays in the organization of our socioeconomic systems; and 2) expose the (low) priority given to the daily maintenance of society (caregiving) within socioeconomic systems and the policies that shape them. In a context in which many countries are facing “care crises,” it is argued that migration neither causes the problems in origin countries nor does it resolve them in destination countries; rather, it reveals existing problems and the urgency of finding solutions from a transnational perspective.
3.1 What are global care chains?

Care work is the name given to all the daily activities that sustain our lives and health, such as domestic work (food preparation, cleaning, laundry) and personal care (of children, the elderly, people who are sick or have a disability). These activities are most commonly performed by women within the household for free. This derives from the traditional sexual division of labor, in which women have been assigned the role of unpaid care giver and men have been assigned the role of provider/paid worker. There are also paid care services, such as domestic work, child care, elder care, etc., which are also considered “feminized jobs” based on their association with women’s traditional gender role.

In recent decades, the traditional system of care provision has become unsustainable, even entering into crisis, in countries of the global North and South alike. In the North, social changes – including the mass integration of women into the paid work force, the transformation of family structures, aging of the population, and changes in women’s expectations for their lives – have pushed the traditional model to its breaking point. However, neither governments (nor the private sector nor male partners) have assumed care as a social responsibility and therefore public issue, which means that the primary responsibility for providing care continues to fall on the private household, and especially women. The welfare state has gone into crisis. In the absence of public solutions, individual women are devising diverse strategies to cover household care needs, including hiring a domestic worker or nanny, who is quite often a migrant woman.

Countries of the global South are also experiencing a “crisis of social reproduction” (Herrera 2006), due to the difficulties households are facing in the guarantee of daily life-sustaining processes. Structural adjustment plans and subsequent neoliberal reform packages have had a disproportionate impact on women who, like their counterparts in the North, are also assigned primary responsibility for family well-being. As a consequence, and in response to the demand for female labor to provide care services in the North,
many women are emigrating to work in this sector in many different destination countries, thus contributing to the growing feminization of migration. The women migrating are often mothers who then must leave their own children under the care of their mother or sister, thereby transferring care work to yet another woman in their country of origin. (For more information on the relationship between globalization and feminization of migration, which is the context within which the phenomenon of global care chains occurs, see guide 1, section 1.4).

Women Domestic Workers by Country of Birth, 2000

Within Asia:
“For instance, in Indonesia, the percent of women migrant workers increased from 75% in 2006 to 83% in 2009 (ILO & UN Women, 2015). 90% of this increase was accounted for in domestic work (ILO & UN Women, 2015). In the Philippines women migrant workers outnumbered men at 217,830 to 181,145 in 2011 (UN Women, 2015).”
Global care chains exist transnationally, arising out of the need to sustain daily life. They form when households transfer care work from one home to another, based on power hierarchies such as gender, ethnicity, social class, and place of origin (Pérez Orozco et al 2008:88). In its simplest form, a care chain might materialize like this: in the destination country, a woman who has been struggling to reconcile her professional life with the care needs of her family decides to hire a migrant woman to take care of the housework. At the same time, the migrant woman worker has to devise a way to cover the care needs of her own family, which is a task that often falls on the shoulders of other female family members, whether in origin or destination. In the lowest links of the chain, the value ascribed to care work is even lower, and this work is often performed without pay at all (Yeates 2005). Thus, at the end of the chain we often find that the migrant’s eldest daughter, sister or mother has taken over the care work that she used to perform before migrating abroad to care for someone else’s family.

Men and women perform different roles in care chains, with men generally being the beneficiaries of care while women are the providers and/or managers of care. Women who give care are motivated by different factors; some do it for a salary, while others provide care out of affection, a sense of responsibility, coercion or guilt. There are also men who provide care, but this tends to happen either to cover a temporary need or when it is a paid job, such as caring for the elderly.

Example of a global care chain

A Spanish family decides to hire a Dominican woman named Cristal to look after their grandfather, who requires constant care. The family initially assumed that one of the daughters-in-law, Carmen, could take on this task, leaving the job she took up when her children had grown up and left home. However, Carmen did not wish to return to full-time caregiving, and it turns out that sharing the costs of hiring a migrant woman between all of the grandfather’s children is not that expensive. In turn, Cristal (the worker they hired) migrated in order to earn enough income to sustain her family; she left her own children in her mother’s care in the Dominican Republic. Cristal, who has become a transnational mother, monitors from afar the quality of care that her children are receiving, and eventually decides that they will receive better care in the hands of her sister-in-law, who is a teacher. Her children go to live with her sister-in-law for a time, until she too decides to emigrate. Thus, the responsibility for caregiving is transferred again, this time to Cristal’s oldest daughter, who ends up quitting school in order to fulfill this responsibility.

Source: Adapted from Pérez Orozco et al 2008
Do men participate in global care chains?

- There are indeed men who perform care work. In origin countries, when women migrate, men often increase the time they spend on unpaid caregiving, especially when they are in charge of young children. However, this arrangement tends to be transitional and temporary, often relying on the support of a wide circle of women (that is, care is dispersed). In destination countries, men are increasingly performing paid care work, especially for elderly men. However, when a man migrates, his departure does not usually involve a significant reorganization of the household in the country of origin. Most men do not assume the responsibility of being primary caregivers, neither before nor after migration. Therefore, men’s migration does not bring about the formation of care chains.

- Although the protagonists of care chains are women, we must consider the ways in which other actors are involved, especially men, public institutions, and businesses. In this way, we can come to see the absence of these actors in terms of assuming responsibility for caregiving, as well as their presence as those benefiting from the care provided through the private, women-led global care chains.

Source: Orozco et al, 2009

Moving beyond the level of the individuals involved, we see that the form that care chains take depends on several factors that pertain to the micro, meso, and macro levels:
Taken together, this arrangement or model is what we call the **social organization of care**.

The model of social organization of care typical in countries of the global North has come to depend on the **externalization** (outsourcing or commoditization) of domestic work and caregiving. This involves a process of mobilizing labor through family and social networks as well market mechanisms. This mobilization oftentimes requires that workers migrate, whether internally (from rural to urban areas), just across the border (for example, Guatemalan women crossing into Mexico), or internationally/transregionally (for example, Filipina women in Italy). The ways in which families externalize caregiving vary according to the families’ position in the care chain: for poorer households in origin countries, the strategy is for mothers to emigrate in order to perform care work abroad, which requires a reorganization of their own household; for households with more resources in destination countries, the strategy is to employ feminized, imported labor (Yeates 2005).

Instead of correcting the inequitable distribution of reproductive labor, care chains depend on and perpetuate **inequalities**, transferring caregiving tasks to women of another social class, migratory status, or ethnic origin. With domestic work, employer households tend to reproduce gender dynamics by undervaluing the work of the woman they have hired, just as they have traditionally undervalued work performed by housewives. It is not surprising, then, that this work tends to be precarious and poorly paid, with less than desirable working conditions.

**Graphic 13. Care Diamond**

![Care Diamond Diagram](Source: UNRISD 2010)
In short, what the different models of the organization of care have in common among countries is that: 1) caregiving is undervalued if not invisible, and is not counted as an economic element; 2) in large part, the system continues to depend on the unpaid or underpaid work performed by women; 3) public institutions do not assume caregiving as a social responsibility (or they take up a complementary role to households); 4) households are still left to figure out their own solutions, which often involve externalization and/or women's migration; and 5) as women are migrating globally, solutions to the care crisis have come to rely on their migration.

Stop & Reflect

1. Are global care chains forming within the migration context that you are most familiar with? Who is migrating and who is providing care? Why do you think it is like that?

2. What existing inequalities lead to or are present in the formation of care chains? What inequalities are perpetuated through the care chains?

3. What shape does the social organization of care take in your country? Who/which entities are involved? Do you believe that caregiving is considered a political and social issue of concern?
3.2 Care as an Element of Development

When seen from an economistic perspective, it would seem that global care chains are evidence of the functioning of the marketplace, since they facilitate the movement of the feminized labor force to work in this sector (see Guide 1, section 1.3.2 for more information on the economistic vision of development). In addition, the volume of remittances sent by migrant women and their impact on home communities may also be seen as positive aspects of the phenomenon of care chains (see Guide 2 for analysis of remittances from a gender perspective). However, these observations only capture the monetary exchanges in care markets, and thus have limited explanatory power to understand the relationship between caregiving and development.

From a rights-based perspective, care is a key dimension of human development, which is understood as the capacity to live a life worth living. This approach sees the economy as encompassing more than just the functioning of market. Rather, the economy is understood as the multi-faceted process of sustaining life, or the satisfaction of human needs and provision of resources needed for people to acquire capacities and liberties. The most urgent and daily need of all people throughout their lives is care. In addition to providing material needs (cleanliness, food, physical assistance) and emotional needs (recognition, accompaniment), caregiving reproduces the labor force by preparing its participants to go out and earn income. In this way, the daily provision of well-being can be seen as forming the invisible base of the entire socioeconomic system, like the submerged part of an iceberg. As such, care directly affects possibilities for development.

Despite its importance, caregiving continues to be rendered invisible in public accounts, political agendas, and society at large. In large part, this is due to the fact that caregiving has traditionally been provided for free by women within the private sphere of the household and as such, it has not been considered work. The invisibility of caregiving has several dimensions:
1. What role does care play in socioeconomic systems?

2. Why is caregiving “invisible”? What are some of the consequences of its being invisible?

3. What is the relationship between global care chains and human development?

Care work does not necessarily become visible when some of the tasks are transformed into paid domestic work. The invisibility simply takes on a different shape. Now the invisible woman working is no longer the housewife without access to her own income or rights to retirement or vacation...but a migrant domestic worker with no contract and an irregular migratory status.

In summary, if we understand that care forms the invisible base of the socioeconomic structure, with a clear social and economic value, then we should consider caregiving as part of the process of creating sustainable livelihoods that provide the resources needed for human development. So, the questions we must ask regarding development are not about the effects of care chains on the labor market or remittances, but rather: **What impact do care chains have on the social provision of care in origin and destination countries? What problems are made more visible in origin and destination countries when women migrate to work as caregivers?**

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**Stop & Reflect**

1. **No pay** for many caregiving jobs
2. Absence of **data** to measure caregiving and **concepts** to capture care
3. **Lack of social rights** associated with caregiving
4. **Inexistence of regulations** establishing minimum labor conditions and required qualifications
5. **Lack of social value** assigned to care work

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**Without care, there is neither economy nor development, much less economic development.**
3.3 Care is already Global

Care work, like almost all aspects of socioeconomic systems, is affected by globalization. Within this process, migration is transforming modes of caregiving, resources available for providing care, ways of managing and understanding the family, motherhood and fatherhood, and the very concept of what constitutes “good care.” In this sense, the capacity to meet daily needs on either extreme of the care chains depends on what happens in other countries, at both the macro and micro levels: changes in employer households affect the people they hire; changes may occur in origin that lead to family reunification either in the destination country or back home; social, migration, and labor policies affect the growth of the care sector, conditioning job opportunities for migrant women as well as their ability to remit. For all of these reasons, we must consider the demand for and provision of care from a transnational perspective.

3.3.1 Problems in Origin Countries

In origin countries, the phenomena of feminization of migration and the formation of care chains present several challenges, including: the redistribution and constant readjustment of care work within the household; transnational motherhood and the impact of migration on children who remain in origin; and the possible export of the care crisis.

Following the migration of a woman, the household must redistribute the care work that she used to perform among the remaining family members. The most common arrangement is for other women (mother, sister, oldest daughter) to assume this responsibility, which leaves them with less time to dedicate to other activities such as education, personal improvement, or paid work. This increases their dependency on remittances. Sometimes, the household may resort to hiring a domestic worker, who is often another migrant from the countryside or from a neighboring country. This solution is also private, which follows the pattern of absolving the State from its responsibility to guarantee social reproduction. In this way, internal migration processes link up with transnational migration, and the chains get longer and more complicated, with governments continuing to abnegate their responsibility to respond to the care needs of their constituents.

It is common for migrant women to stay involved in the management of care in their transnational households, especially since constant adjustments must be made to the original care arrangement. These changes depend on the willingness and availability of substitute caregivers, the changing needs of children and the elderly, the participation (or not) of male members of the household, especially husbands when the migrant women have children. The selection of who will be in charge tends to follow a hierarchical pattern based on gender and generation, with the first option being the husband if there is one, though it is not common for the husband to assume the full management of all care work. In the absence of a willing/available husband,
caregiving responsibilities will be left to the migrant’s mother or mother-in-law, sister, or in the absence of these options, the oldest child. Each arrangement has its own complications; however, it is worth pointing out the particular difficulties facing the eldest children when they are left in charge. For some young men, having to care for younger siblings involves a shift in their gender role, which can lead to their suffering rejection or harassment by their peers for being “effeminate.” In other cases, the distinction between caregiver and the person being cared for may become blurry, whether because there is little age difference between siblings or because the grandmother who is in theory caring for her grandchildren is also a person in need of care.

Another challenge for households with migrant mothers abroad is having to invent new forms of providing care despite physical distance (Salazar Parreñas 2001 y 2005). This phenomenon has come to be called transnational motherhood. Even though migrant mothers are not

Criteria for choosing a family caregiver in Bolivia: Gender, generation and “temporary availability”

For mothers, the decision to migrate involves securing the support of a close and trusted family member who will provide the best possible care for her children. In the case of Bolivian women who are migrating to Spain, there appears to be a hierarchy of criteria for choosing who will substitute their care work, based on the gender and generational position of possible caregivers. Following these criteria, a first option is their husbands, when they have one, although the migrating mothers generally take the precaution of having a woman take the reins on the bulk of the work. The people who are assumed to be available are the migrant women’s mothers or mothers-in-law because they presumably do not have activities outside the home and may already know the children’s routine if they have been living together. When neither grandmothers nor aunts are available, the substitution is transferred to the older siblings.

In this sense, the selection is linked to the “temporary availability” of whoever is to replace the migrant mother. In the case of the grandmothers, this comes at a time when they have already completed a cycle of domestic work and possibly work outside the home. For the oldest children of the migrant, it involves not having work responsibilities beyond the time required for organizing household work. In these cases, it is assumed that the family’s material needs will be covered by the migrant parents’ remittances, which unfortunately is not always the case.

Source: Jiménez Zamora et al, UN-INSTRAW (now UN Women), 2010
involved in the physical work of caring for their children, this does not mean that they abandon parenting altogether. Instead, they often seek out new ways of caring despite the distance, such as telephone or internet communications, household management from afar, emotional support, visits, and sending remittances. These transnational forms of caregiving show that the affective and management components of this work can transcend the physical presence of the responsible party. They also involve an expansion of traditional notions of motherhood to also include economic provisioning. (For more information on the transnational family, see Guide 1, section 1.4).

One issue that has become quite controversial is the impact of migration on the children who remain behind in origin countries. Since care is a valuable resource, it is argued that children from poor countries are paying the highest price for this transfer of caregiving abroad, after the women themselves. There is a tendency to blame migrant mothers – much more so than migrant

Transnational Families: Philippines-Germany and Philippines-Singapore

Tracie and Freddie, irregular Filipino domestic workers in a German city, entrusted their stranger compatriot to take their eight-month old daughter with her back to the Philippines. She will soon join her older sister living with Tracie’s parents. She will probably get to see her brother every now and then, who is being raised by Freddie’s parents in another barrio. Why does this couple live apart from their children? Precarious life conditions, long working hours and a constant fear of deportation have led them to practice transnational parenting. Germany has no labor recruitment scheme for ‘less-skilled’ sectors, including domestic and care work, from non-European countries. Combined with a non-existent amnesty, many migrants from ‘third countries,’ like Tracie and Freddie, are thus compelled to live and work without a positive migration status for an extended period of time.

But is it any better if an official channel for labor migration exists? On the other side of the globe, we find Linda, a 34-year old single mother, one of the 60,000 Indonesian domestic workers in Singapore under a two-year contract. Fifteen years have lapsed since she took up her first job in Singapore, leaving her then-six-month old baby girl, Dewi, in the care of her parents. While Linda is a regular migrant, in Singapore there is no route open for family re-unification for ‘low-skilled’ workers like her. Consequently, she visits her daughter every second year during her holiday, which has made Dewi come to believe that her grandparents are her ‘biological’ parents.

Material security and a good quality of education for their children are the common tangible gains in the stories of Tracie, Freddie, and Linda. Their labor migration is predicated on the hope for intergenerational social mobility. In addition, they both had no choice but to arrange childcare across nation-state borders, relying on extended families. They live in a land of work, not a land for family life. This has given rise to a generation who is ‘in touch’ with their parents via mobile phone and the Internet. For some parents these modern communication technologies are an essential means of everyday parenting. Moreover, transnational parenting tends to be gendered. It is usually migrant mothers who are in charge of virtual bonding at a distance.

What about fathers? Dewi’s father left the family before she was born. Freddie, who had initially looked after the couple’s two children in the Philippines, could not cope with the childcare responsibilities and followed Tracie to Germany. An increasing number of women independently migrate for work, yet the ‘feminization of migration’ alone has not transformed the deep-seated gender bias in transnational care and bonding.

Submitted by Kyoko Shinozaki and Yvonne Bach, Mainz University, Germany
fathers – for many different problems facing children and youth in origin, from cognitive and emotional difficulties in small children, to early pregnancy, drug use, and gang activity among adolescents (Paiewonsky 2007).

Separation certainly comes at a high emotional and affective cost for children and mothers alike. However, there is very little empirical evidence that demonstrates that women’s migration is the cause of behavioral problems, and where evidence does exist, results have been mixed at best. Such criticism also tends to ignore the important role of extended family networks in providing care and guidance.

Instead of simply blaming mothers for the problems facing youth, more analysis is needed which takes into account many different factors together, such as the role of fathers, public resources available for children and youth, affection and care provided by family and community networks, etc. It is very likely that the migration of mothers is not the cause of these problems, but an attempt to resolve or compensate for existing problems. In this sense, their migration may mitigate some problems, highlight other existing problems and/or worsen others. More studies are needed to ascertain the real impact of migration on families in order to come to a better understanding of the issue and to be able to design interventions that contribute to the well-being of the children involved and their migrant parents. Migration policies must also be modified to allow for mother-child visits and/or family reunification, and to place paternal responsibility for raising children on the public agenda.

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### Migration and care in a context of HIV/AIDS: Case study from Lesotho

The HIV/AIDS epidemic is generating high demand for care work. In highly affected countries, the epidemic is shifting the configuration of households and the organization of care work therein. In Lesotho, for example, the epidemic has had the following impacts (Magrath 2004:18): increase in household dependency ratios; increase in the number of widows and female-headed households; incomplete households (missing one parent or entire generation); households with additional orphan in the care of next of kin (often elderly women); orphan-headed households; defunct households (when both parents die, the children are dispersed to live with relatives). In all of these configurations, pressure falls on other household members, especially women, to care for the sick and others they have inherited as dependents. Likewise, the loss of income that the affected persons used to bring in, together with the costs of caring for the sick, leave many women with few options but to migrate themselves in search of paid employment. In a vicious cycle, migration exposes migrants and their families to HIV, increasing women’s care load and leading more women to migrate.

Source: Crush et al, UN-INSTRAW (now part of UN Women) 2010
Beyond the impact on households in origin, concerns also arise regarding the overall effect of women’s migration on society. Might their migration bring about an “exportation of the care crisis” from destination countries to origin countries? Put another way, is the same care crisis being replicated in origin, as caregivers migrate to care for other people in far away homes? Given the lack of rigorous studies on the topic, we cannot know for sure whether women’s migration itself is leading to a similar crisis in origin. We do know, however, that origin countries are also facing major challenges to social reproduction – availability of employment, budget cuts to health and education, etc. – which are leading many women to migrate in the first place. Likewise, origin countries are also facing some of the same problems related to the social organization of care that exist in destination countries: daily difficulties reconciling paid and unpaid work for women involved in caregiving, insufficient or low quality of available care, and little coverage of care needs in general (these are even more grave in areas with high incidence of HIV/AIDS – see the example of Lesotho in text box). Lastly, origin countries may also face the potential challenge of having to provide care for their elderly, especially when there are high rates of net emigration in combination with a growing proportion of elderly among those left behind.

1. In your experience or knowledge, what are some problems facing households that have migrants abroad in terms of...
   a. The distribution of care work
   b. The care and raising of children
   c. The care of aging persons

2. Do you think that women’s migration is the cause of these problems, or that it is the result of existing problems? Or both? Why?

3. Do you know of any program or initiative that seeks to address the problems described in this section?
3.3.2 Problems in Destination Countries

In destination countries, migrant women’s contributions are crucial in order to at least partially cover the care deficit that has come out of the care crisis. The impact on households in destination countries is undoubtedly positive, since the availability of domestic workers or the purchase of other types of services in the marketplace responds to urgent needs: covering a gap that no one else is available to cover; freeing up time for greater quality of life or to dedicate more time to one’s professional career. It may also respond to expectations associated with social class. However, the purchase of care services in the market represents a privatized solution to the crisis, which is not a complete solution to the problem at hand and may even present new social challenges, such as “social dualization” (inequality) and a lack of sustainability.

The first problem, “social dualization,” refers to the inequality which is growing between households with enough purchasing power to buy the services they need, and households that are not so fortunate, which will receive inadequate or low quality care services. The danger of leaving the responsibility for caregiving exclusively up to the private sphere is that not all households will be able to purchase care. This goes against the right to care, which is a multidimensional right that includes the right to receive adequate care throughout the life cycle, the right to provide care, the right to decide whether to provide care or not, and labor rights in the care sector (see section 3.3.3 for more information on the right to care). It also contradicts the notion of human development.

Therefore, and secondly, global care chains are not a sustainable or equitable solution. The responsibility for providing care has still not been assumed as a social obligation which must involve men, the State, and the private sector. Care chains also tend to further entrench inequalities among women. Instead of altering the sexual division of labor, a new stratification of care work is emerging which is divided not only by sex, but also by other axes of inequality such as social class, ethnicity, and migratory status. So, the formation of care chains neither helps society progress toward a more equitable distribution of care responsibilities nor does it increase the social value assigned to this work. Instead, care chains may be a provisional but unsustainable solution to the care crisis, insofar as they are based on the expansion of the market and perpetuate the same conditions of invisibility, lack of social responsibility,
and distribution of tasks along the same power hierarchy as the previous model (unpaid/underpaid work performed by women within households).

Migrant women also tend to face several problems in the destination country, such as lack of regulation or discriminatory regulations in domestic work sector and the subsequent violation of their labor rights (see Guide 4 for more information), as well as enormous difficulties to exercise their own right to receive care and right to give care (especially due to problems reconciling work and family life). Regarding the latter, the reconciliation of paid work with care obligations may be even more complicated when they have children in the destination country or when they manage to reunify the family, due to the working conditions (long work days), low pay (which makes it difficult for them to purchase care services in the market) and thinner social and family networks. Some strategies that migrant women employ in order to resolve these issues include recruiting their mothers to migrate in order to take care of their children in destination, paying other migrant women by the hour, resorting to the help of neighbor women, or even leaving their children by themselves. These informal care arrangements are sometimes against the law in the destination country, which puts them in danger of being reported for negligence or neglect. On a whole, migrant households in destination countries face major challenges to being able to provide care (intensified in the case of domestic workers), and do not usually receive adequate support from public institutions. Nor are their care rights respected, which constitutes a first order problem for destination countries.

An alternative proposal: The care crisis could present an opportunity to restructure the system of care provision, which is currently not being taken advantage of. To make headway, the root causes of the problem must be addressed, including the invisibility of care in the economic system as it is currently structured, the limited participation of men in housework, the lack of social value assigned to women’s work, etc.
Despite its importance in sustaining daily life, well-being and the socioeconomic system itself, caregiving is generally left out of development policy agendas. This is due to the “naturalization” of the sexual division of labor, which has designated care work as a “women’s issue” that can be resolved in private homes. However, it is clear that the care crisis cannot be resolved by households or by the invisible hand of the market through economic development. “We cannot assume a priori that the processes of growth and economic development will bring about an improvement in the provision of care and human well-being,” says the researcher Shahra Razavi (UNRISD 2009:5). She explains that care is not a sector per se, but rather a set of material resources, time, aptitudes, and policies. This set requires certain conditions in order to be performed, including infrastructure, technology, and the availability of paid work in order to acquire the goods needed to provide care (food, transport money, etc.).

In order to create these conditions, we must engage our societies in a broad ranging public debate on the social organization of care as part of our models of local, national, and global development. Who should provide care? For whom? How?
Where? In exchange for what? How do migrant women fit into this equation? Are their care rights being respected? This debate should revalue care work and ensure that those responsible for caregiving have full access to citizen rights. Women, who have historically been responsible for providing care, should be heard in this debate, especially those who are participating in global care chains in both destination and origin countries.

In order to make care a firm part of citizenship and development processes, there has been a proposal to create and uphold a **universal right to care**. This right has at least three components:

- **The right to receive** the care one needs throughout the different moments and circumstances of the life cycle
- **The right to choose** whether or not one wishes to provide care, including a right to care in decent conditions and the right not to have to provide care
- **The right to decent working conditions** in the care sector

Several intergovernmental agreements recognize the importance of including care within political agendas, including the Quito Consensus and the Brasilia Consensus. The Quito Consensus, signed on August 9, 2007 by the governments of 33 participating countries in the Tenth Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, is an example of progress in this regard. The document includes the intergovernmental recognition of...

the social and economic value of the unpaid domestic work performed by women, caregiving as a public matter which falls within the purview of States, local governments, organizations, companies and families, and the need to promote shared responsibility by women and men within the family.

It also establishes commitments, such as: “To adopt the necessary measures, especially of an economic, social and cultural nature, to ensure that States assume social reproduction, caregiving and the well-being of the population as an objective for the economy and as a public responsibility that cannot be delegated.”

The Brasilia Consensus, which was signed by the governments of participating countries in the 11th Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, lays out several measures toward the accomplishment of this objective, including the following excerpts:

**Attain greater economic autonomy and equality in the workplace**

- **To adopt** all the social and economic policy measures required to advance towards the attribution of social value to the unpaid domestic and care work performed by women and recognition of its economic value
b. **To foster** the development and strengthening of universal care policies and services based on the recognition of the right to care for all and on the notion of sharing the provision of care between the State, the private sector, civil society and households, as well as between men and women, and of strengthening dialogue and coordination between all stakeholders.

c. **To adopt** policies conducive to establishing or broadening parental leave and other childcare leave in order to help distribute care duties between men and women, including inalienable and non-transferable paternity leave with a view to furthering progress towards coresponsibility.

d. **To encourage** the establishment, in national accounts, of a satellite account for unpaid domestic and care work performed by women.

e. **To promote** changes in the legal and programmatic framework aimed at achieving recognition in the national accounts of the productive value of unpaid work, with a view to the formulation and implementation of cross-cutting policies.

**Enhance the citizenship of women**

f. **To increase** public investment in social security, so as to comprehensively address the specific care and social protection needs of women that arise in situations related to ill health, disability, unemployment and life cycles, especially childhood and old age.

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**Stop & Reflect**

1. In your country, is caregiving on the political agenda? Why do you think that governments are not assuming social responsibility for guaranteeing the provision of care?

2. What do you think about the proposal to create a “universal right to care”? What advantages are there to achieving the recognition and respect of this right? What interests might be blocking the recognition and upholding of this right?

3. In your country or professional context, are there any efforts underway to implement provisions similar to those listed in the Quito or Brasilia Consensus? How might the intersection with women’s migration be taken into consideration in these efforts?
3.4 Transforming the Social Organization of Care from a Migration Perspective

This guide has explored how women’s migration has become a private solution for a public problem, and has pointed out the urgent need to transform the social organization of care in both origin and destination countries. But how might we consider care in the debate on the migration-development nexus? Considering the intersection between migration and care allows us to reflect on important challenges facing global development, such as:

1. **Inequalities in the migration process.** How are migration policies in destination countries affecting inequalities in the migration process? How are these inequalities deepened by existing social inequalities in origin and destination?

2. **The sustainability of the current model of development and of women’s liberation in destination countries.** Is it possible to resolve the care crisis through migrant labor, without attending to the underlying issues (limited male participation, lack of social responsibility of the State and the private sector)?

3. **The right to care as an element of human development.** This refers to the aforementioned right to receive adequate care (especially for those in situations of dependence), and the right to freely decide over care (e.g. whether or not one would like to provide care).

In previous sections, we have seen that the provision of care is a key pillar of development, since it secures the preconditions for there to be progress in health, education, security, economic development, etc. Care should also be a central topic of debate on the relationship between migration and development, given that the demand for care in destination countries and the challenges to social reproduction in origin countries (privatization of health services and education, economic crisis) are key drivers of women’s migration. We have also seen that there are care crises on both ends of the chains, and that women’s participation can only partly mitigate these larger structural challenges. The serious problems associated with denial of care rights in countries of origin are not created by migration, nor does migration resolve these problems in destination countries. In both cases, however, it can reveal the existence of these problems. In other words, the phenomenon of global care chains, similarly to that of remittances in this regard, makes visible existing deficiencies.
Who is responsible for identifying the gaps revealed by global care chains and intervening? An important first step in the transformation of the unjust system within which global care chains operate is to promote **dialogue and cooperation** among diverse actors and sectors which may not normally interact, despite the interests they may have in common. These include groups and institutions working on the issues of **gender equality, caregiving, and migration**. Examples of those who should be involved include:

- **Governments** – national, district and/or municipal. For example, ministries of foreign relations (and consulates), migration, labor, women/gender, social welfare
- **NGOs** – working on human development, migrant rights, feminism and women’s rights
- **Churches and social service agencies** – involved in providing care services and/or assisting migrants and their families
- **Grassroots organizations** – associations of migrants, families of migrants, and migrant women (where they exist)
- **Labor unions** – domestic workers’ unions and associations
- **Civil society networks** – for example, migration and development networks, or feminist organization networks
- **Universities and research institutes** working on issues related to migration, gender, care and/or development.

Intervening to create a more equitable distribution of care work from a gender and migration perspective can be complex but also stimulating, since it affords us the opportunity to transform
Why should stakeholders working on MIGRATION consider the issue of care?

- The most common sector of labor insertion for migrant women is care work.
- Due to the care crisis in destination countries, there is likely to be growing demand for female immigrant labor.
- However, care is barely on the policy agenda, and so migration policies do not usually take into account this demand, meaning that few formal channels of labor migration have been established for women to work in the care sector.
- Care work tends to be informal or very poorly regulated, making migrant women caregivers vulnerable to exploitation.
- Unregulated migrant labor may be a temporary solution to the care crisis, but it is not sustainable.
- Migrants’ families’ right to care is often left out of the picture, leaving them to negotiate major difficulties in terms of reconciling work and care responsibilities, family reunification, etc.
- Women’s migration exposes gaps and deficiencies in the social provision of care, both in origin and destination.

Why should stakeholders working on CARE consider migration?

- A large proportion of care workers are migrant women.
- In addition to difficulties associated with the informality of the sector (low pay, little free time, isolation, and vulnerability to abuse), migrant women have specific needs in terms of their:
  - Access to documentation
  - Ability to validate their degrees/exercise their profession
  - Access to health and care services for themselves and their families
  - Participation in spaces and social organizations that could defend their rights (labor unions, migrant associations)
- In origin, it is common to blame migrant women for social problems facing youth, instead of recognizing that their migration is often caused by difficulties providing care for their family in the first place.
- In this way, women’s migration points to deficiencies in the care system in origin, and to possible points of intervention: lack of paternal responsibility; lack of social protection policies for the aging, sick or disabled; lack of investment in primary education, health, child care centers, or other services.
societies from their very foundation. Such an undertaking must involve creating strategic alliances among diverse interests, proposals, sectors, and movements. Many times, this requires helping stakeholders to overcome apparent contradictions or differences in order to see common interests over the long term in terms of gender equality, migrants’ rights, and the specific needs of migrant women. Sometimes groups working on migration face similar challenges to those working on gender and care, though oftentimes the two have barely entered into dialogue with one another. Graphic 13 shows several overlapping points, which are ripe for discussion between the two.

**Transformation over the Short and Long Term**

When we consider the topics of migration and care together, we can clearly see that the current model of global care chains is not sustainable, since it depends on the import and export of migrant women who work in this informal, poorly regulated sector with minimal protections. (For a broader discussion of domestic workers’ labor rights, see Guide 4). To transform this model, we must begin to effect at least two types of changes:

1. **Short term:** immediate reform to improve the management of migration in terms of the provision of care, minimize exploitation, and protect the rights of migrant women and their families in origin and destination.
   
   - **Improve migratory conditions:** rights to family reunification, annual visits, residency permit not conditioned upon maintaining same job; expand formal migration channels for migrant women care workers. It is also worth debating the possibility of creating policies that go beyond the nation-state, such as migrants being able to pay in contributions toward their own retirement in the destination country and then receive the benefits in their origin country.
   
   - **Improve working conditions:** more and better regulation of the domestic work and care work sectors in general (see Guide 4 for more discussion of this topic), following the stipulations of the ILO Convention 189 concerning decent work for domestic workers.
   
   - **Improve living conditions:** guarantee access to health care, and promote policies on work-life balance that include the migrant population. Such policies should include measures such as maternity and paternity leave, subsidies for the elderly, and well-functioning social security systems that alleviate the care work load, whether by providing resources for care beneficiaries or lowering the costs of those providing care.

2. **Long term:** transformation of the social system of care provision, in origin and destination countries.

   - **Rethink what services should be provided by the welfare state,** placing care in the center of the socioeconomic model as a highly important item on the development policy agenda.
Generate a model of shared responsibility for care provision between the State, private sector, family (with shared participation of both men and women), and the non-profit sector. Provide or create incentives for the establishment of a variety of services and subsidies for children, the sick, elderly, disabled, etc.

Improve State provision of basic social and physical infrastructure. Efforts must be made to guarantee at least minimum levels of health care services (including prevention), education, child and elder care, transportation, water and sanitation, before initiating talks about shared responsibility between State, private sector, family, and non-profits (Esquivel 2008).

Improve macroeconomic policies. Macroeconomic regimes that focus on job creation and minimum wage tend to yield better results in terms of reducing general inequalities. Fiscal policy, especially tax systems and public expenditure, can be directed to balance out gender inequalities (Esquivel 2008).

Create and implement universal policies designed to resolve critical problems linked to the life cycle and intervene directly to provide for care needs in different phases of life.

For youth: policies focused on facilitating the transition toward adult life in adequate conditions, with a decent education, adequate labor force preparation, job placement, and ability to form a new household in secure conditions.

For adults: job creation policies, particularly in sectors that will reduce the burden of unpaid care work on women, thus reducing the care deficit while providing income for those employed in this sector (Antonopoulous 2008).

For the elderly: retirement pensions, in order to eliminate elderly parents’ reliance on their children for material and economic support; subsidies for elder care.

What can be done?

- Encourage debate within society. Make a special effort to ensure that the debate is not limited to the situation of domestic workers, but rather, that domestic work is seen as one piece within a portfolio of options that societies have to satisfy care needs. It is likely that a preferred solution will be the creation of care services with State backing and accountability, where the workers will enjoy better working conditions than they would through the expansion of domestic service.

- Promote the organization of domestic workers while taking into account the particularities of this group which may present challenges to their organizing and articulating demands collectively.

- Lobby existing labor unions to take up the demands of domestic workers.
ACTIVITIES

3.1 Video: “Global Care Chains”

3.2 Radio clip: “Women in Global Care Chains”

3.3 Video: “Women who Migrate, Women who Care: The New Sexual Division of Labor”

3.4 Case Study: Maribel’s Care Chain
3.1 **VIDEO: “GLOBAL CARE CHAINS”**

**OBJECTIVE:** Introduce the concept of global care chains.

**MATERIALS/PREPARATION:** Notebooks or sheets of paper and pens, flip chart paper or whiteboard and markers, computer, projector, speakers, video “Global Care Chains” available on CD and on YouTube: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SkHq_XIzf00.

**ESTIMATED TIME:** 25 minutes

**FACILITATION**

1. Set up the video and double check that the projector and sound work properly. Watch it at least twice to familiarize yourself with the topics it covers and what is missing.

2. Draw a table similar to the following on a piece of flip chart paper or on the board, and ask the participants to do the same in their notebooks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I noticed that...</th>
<th>This makes me think that...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Explain that they should take notes in the left-hand column on the things that call their attention from the video. After watching it, they will have time to reflect on their observations and jot them down in the right-hand column.

4. Start the video. Duration: 3:41 minutes.

5. After watching the video, have participants work individually to fill out their table (approximately 10 minutes).

6. In a group, ask them to share some of their observations, and note them down in your own table.

7. If the topics mentioned below under Key Lessons do not come up, ask about them. Some suggested discussion questions could include the following:

   - Why are care chains forming? What consequences do they have?
   - Who is at either end of the global care chain? Who benefits from this situation? Who gets the least quality care/lowest amount of support?
   - Who is sacrificing? What is she sacrificing?
   - In the video, they say that “the market value of caring for children and the overall status of women both remain low.” What do they mean by this? Do you agree? Why is that the case?
   - What solutions does the filmmaker put forth? What other solutions can you think of based on what we have seen in the workshop/what you have read?

---

**Key Lessons**

- The persisting ideology still assigns care work to women, as if it were their exclusive responsibility.

- Migration often involves “de-skilling” of migrant women. This is a process through which women are channeled toward certain sectors which require fewer qualifications, regardless of their education or previous experience.

- By paying attention to whom is at either end of the chain, we can see who is benefiting from the transfer of care work, and at whose expense (who is receiving the least quality care).

- While men’s sharing in care responsibilities and workers receiving a living wage are laudable measures, broader discussions must take place on the responsibility of governments, the private sector, and the non-profit sector in order to transform the social organization of care.
3.2 **Radio clip: “Women in Global Care Chains”**

**Objective:** Deepen our understanding of global care chains by analyzing the injustices at work and possible solutions.

**Materials/Preparation:** Photocopies of the work sheet, computer, speakers, MP3 file on CD “Women in Global Care Chains” (radio clip produced by Valentina Longo, Laura Schettino and Amaia P. Orozco)

**Estimated Time:** 45 minutes

**Facilitation**

1. Make sure you can open the sound file and listen to it with no problem. Listen to the clip at least twice before the session in order to familiarize yourself with the topics it covers.

2. Go over the facilitation questions and possible responses below.

3. During the session, hand the work sheet out while you are preparing the radio clip. Instruct participants that they are to take notes on each segment as they listen to the clip.

4. Start the radio clip. Duration: 13:14 minutes. You may wish to pause it between each segment to allow participants time to jot down notes on each segment. At the end, allow a few minutes for people to complete their notes.

5. Facilitate a group discussion based on the following questions. Write down the most important ideas on flip chart paper or a whiteboard.

   a. **What is a global care chain? Why is the metaphor of a chain used?**

      - Networks of households which transfer their caregiving tasks from one household to another on the basis of power axes (gender, social class, ethnicity, place of origin). Globalization of care is one of the most relevant, yet invisible dimensions of globalization.

   b. **What is the relationship between public services and global care chains?**

      - Chains are linked to a lack of public care services. Women’s care work often makes up for the deficiencies in public systems (e.g. health care and education).
c. Where are men in global care chains?
   - Beneficiaries of women’s care work, more than participants.

d. What are the aspects of the so-called “unfair care regimes”?
   - Lack of social responsibility for care and social reproduction in general
   - Economic systems pay more attention to businesses’ needs than to people’s care needs
   - Men’s lack of participation
   - The link between care and inequality. Some groups can access what we call decent care, while other social groups have precarious or vulnerable care arrangements.
   - Some people can choose whether or not they wish to provide care, while others do not have that choice.

e. What stigma surrounds the transnational family?
   - Mothers are frequently blamed for “abandoning” their children, which supposedly causes problems in their lives.

f. What difficulties do migrant women have in providing care for their own families?
   - Migrants tend to be considered as labor, rather than as people with their own lives and family obligations.
   - Difficult to reconcile paid and unpaid care work, and/or to achieve family reunification.

g. What is suggested in order to transform the system of the social provision of care?
   - Recognize that care should be a social and political priority.
   - Foster social responsibility toward care among public authorities, men, and society as a whole
   - Guarantee a universal and multidimensional right to care.

h. What are the different aspects of the right to care?
   - The right to receive appropriate care, the right to choose whether to care or not, and decent working conditions when care is performed for pay.
6. To conclude, ask the group: What is the function of the concept of “global care chains”? What do they allow us to see?

**Key Lessons**

The current system of social provision of care is not sustainable in origin or destination countries, since it depends on poorly paid or unpaid women’s labor to compensate for a lack of public services and lack of government responsibility for providing care.

In order to transform this situation, care must be taken up within the policy agenda, as a shared social responsibility between the State, private sector, and households (and within them, between men and women).

One proposal that has been put forth is to consolidate and promote a “universal right to care,” which consists of all people being able to receive the care they need, choose whether or not to provide care, and to have decent working conditions when care is performed for pay.
Write down some key points after listening to each segment of the radio clip.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Global care chains</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public services</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men’s participation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social inequalities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diverse families, transnational families</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor or people?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An apocalyptic scenario?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.3 Conference: “Women who Migrate, Women who Care: The New Sexual Division of Labor”

Objectives

1. Engage in the debate on global care chains and the social organization of care.

2. Understand the role of migration in relation to care and development.

Materials/Preparation:
Photocopies of the work sheet, computer, projector, speakers, video “Women who Migrate, Women who Care: The New Sexual Division of Labor” available on the accompanying CD and with English subtitles at the following link: http://youtu.be/p-fWUGmDFqY

Estimated Time: 1 hour

Facilitation

1. Make sure you can show the video and that the sound works properly. Watch it at least twice before the session to familiarize yourself with the topics it covers: global care chains, the role of the State, transnational families, and rights and demands.

2. Look over the work sheet that follows and familiarize yourself with possible answers under the Key Lessons section.

3. During the session, while you are preparing the video, hand out the work sheet with reflection questions for participants to look over. Indicate that they should take notes during the video and that they will have time to organize their answers following the video.


5. Have participants work in pairs to answer the questions, applying their knowledge about global care chains from the conceptual part of this guide.

6. Discuss answers in a group, and take notes of key ideas on flip chart paper.
**Key Lessons**

“Global care chains exist transnationally, and have been established with the aim of sustaining daily life. Within them, households transfer care work from one home to another, based on power axes like gender, ethnicity, social class and place of origin” (Pérez Orozco et al 2008:88)

The forming of care chains reveals many different problems with the current social organization of care, such as:

- Exploitation of care workers
- Care deficit
- The State neither assumes care as a social responsibility nor values it as work.
- Migration policies often make it difficult for domestic workers to regularize their situation
- Management of transnational families
- Lack of respect for labor rights

Some proposals to resolve the problems revealed by care chains include:

- Encouraging debate within society on the social reorganization of care
- Insist on respect for and implementation of existing regulations and laws
- Encourage domestic workers to get organized, while also recognizing the difficulties facing this particular group to articulate themselves collectively
- Lobby labor unions to include domestic workers’ demands within their agenda
1. What is a global care chain?

2. What problems do care chains reveal?

3. What proposals are put forth to begin resolving these problems?
3.4 Case Study: Maribel’s Care Chain

Objectives

1. Understand how a global care chain works.

2. Identify problems in origin and destination countries, as well as potential points of intervention, and key stakeholders in order to bring about changes.

Materials/Preparation: Flip chart paper and markers, Photocopies of the case study and the work sheet

Estimated Time: 45 minutes

Facilitation

1. Familiarize yourself with the case study and the possible answers to the work sheet.

2. Hand out copies of the case study and work sheet. It is up to you whether they should work individually, in pairs, or in small groups.

3. Explain the objectives of the activity, and go over the work sheet together before having them read the case study.

4. If they work in groups, it is best for one person to read the case study out loud while the rest follow along on their sheet.

5. Allow about 25 minutes for them to complete the exercise, and 20 minutes for group discussion.

6. In a plenary session, instead of simply having groups present their responses, ask the following questions in order to generate debate:

   - What difficulties is Maribel facing in terms of meeting care needs?
   - What are the potential difficulties facing employer families in Spain? What difficulties does the grandmother, Dina, face in Peru?
   - What actors are involved in the provision of care in this case study, in both origin and destination? Who is absent from the provision of care?
   - What are some potential points of intervention in terms of migration that could improve the living and working conditions of Maribel?
   - What are some potential points of intervention that could alleviate the women’s work load in this case study?
The care sector is the most convenient labor insertion niche for migrant women lacking a work permit, due to the informality and poor regulation of care work.

Migrant women sometimes face difficulties reconciling paid work and their own family’s care needs.

The social organization of care involves a variety of actors: State, private sector, non-profit sector, and individual households.
Before migration: At the age of 25, Maribel was living in her neighborhood, San Martin de Porres in Lima, Peru. She had finished high school, gotten married, had a daughter, and moved with her husband to the second floor of her parents-in-law’s home, two blocks from her childhood home. She remained in that house when her husband migrated to Madrid, Spain. Before she herself migrated, her job was to take care of the household and the baby. Her mother-in-law, Dina, would share guidance and advice with her, and occasionally they would share meals and help each other out. However, the remittances Maribel was receiving from her husband were not enough to cover their expenses, so she made the decision to migrate in order to work alongside her husband, while leaving her daughter in Dina’s care.

The migration process: Maribel’s husband is a dental technician by profession, but neither certificates nor training had managed to land him a stable job with enough income to live off of in Peru. Several of Maribel’s brothers had already gone to work in Spain. The women in the neighborhood would share information, which is how Dina was able to secure employment contracts for her sons (including Maribel’s husband) and several other young people, who all migrated legally to work in Madrid. Not long thereafter, Maribel’s husband sent for her under the family reunification policy. Once reunited with her husband in Madrid, they had another daughter, who is now six years old.

Care work in destination: Maribel cannot hold a formal job, as a condition of her migration status under family reunification. So, she has found work in the informal market, combining three jobs: child care, ticket taker in a small amusement park, and preparation of typical foods. In her apartment, which she shares with her brother-in-law, brother, and sometimes other recent arrivals from Peru, she cares for four children during the day. The composition of the group varies, but they tend to be children of other Latin Americans and occasionally Spaniards, who have to work and cannot find another affordable child care option. She knows that it is an irregular activity and that in case of an accident, the children’s parents could report her. Her mother-in-law in Peru has experience working in the national Wawa Wasi program, caring for children in her home. Maribel calls her mother-in-law to consult with her while she tends to her own wawa wasi in her home. Dina says that she can hear the children screaming and asking for things in the background. She tells Maribel to hang up and to avoid accidents with the children at all costs.

After the parents have picked up their kids, and Maribel or her husband has picked up their own daughter from day care, she goes to her second job as a ticket taker in an amusement park. There, she supervises kids’ entrance and watches the children as they go on different rides. She also earns some side income preparing Peruvian foods and selling them within her community.

Reconciling work and care responsibilities in destination: Maribel is able to work because her own daughter, who was born in Madrid 6 years ago, attends a day care with an extended daily schedule. However, she complains of practical scheduling problems (between the departure of her own charges and the pick-up of her daughter), and is always running between her informal daycare and her daughter’s pre-school. She and her husband did not realize how difficult it would
be to care for their daughter in Madrid, both due to the high cost of living and the demanding work schedule. Lately they have been debating whether or not they should keep her with them or send her to live with her grandmother in Peru, where she would be together with her sister, who is now 10 years old. On the other hand, for Maribel and her husband, a strong argument for keeping their daughter with them is having access to a high quality pre-school; whereas, were she to return to Peru, they recognize with a heavy heart for their older daughter, even if she were in a private school, she would not receive the same quality of instruction. In Spain they have gotten used to the exceptional service of their daughter’s school: extended hours, good service, excellent materials.

Care work in origin: Dina says that she would be happy to receive her other granddaughter, if Maribel decides to send her. She has many years of experience as a micro-entrepreneur and social leader in Peru. She says she would barely notice the additional burden, given that she currently cares for Maribel’s other daughter, three grandchildren of other children who have migrated, as well as the children in her wawa wasi which is subsidized by the State. Besides, she thinks that it would be better for her Spanish-born granddaughter to be with her sister and other cousins, instead of playing on her laptop all day in the day care center in Madrid. At the same time, although she doesn’t admit it to Maribel, Dina is growing tired of the constant attention that her grandchildren and other children require, but she is resigned to caring for them, because she sees no other option.

Future plans: Maribel and her husband are determined to save all the money they can in order to return to Peru to live. However, they have had to face several setbacks to their plan: Maribel’s husband not being able to have his credentials validated in order to practice his profession in Spain; the relegation of Maribel to the informal sector, and the low pay and long hours typical of informal work, due to her lack of access to a work permit; the high cost of living in Madrid; and the difficulties Maribel has had reconciling work and family obligations, which have cost her several job opportunities. So, when they go back to Peru for a visit next summer, they plan to ask Dina to look after her other granddaughter, despite the decline they feel that this would cause in the quality of her education.

### Facets of the Social Organization of Care

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The (in)visibility of different kinds of care work</th>
<th>The distribution of tasks and responsibilities among different groups in society</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Who is performing &quot;visible&quot; (paid) care work?</td>
<td>Who does what throughout the global care chain?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where are the men?</td>
<td>Who don't we see in this case?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who takes ultimate responsibility for providing care?</td>
<td>Who are the men?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Activity 3.4

**Work Sheet**

**Notes from the case study**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facets of the social organization of care</th>
<th>Care chains</th>
<th>Notes from the case study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The presence of diverse stakeholders in the provision of care</td>
<td>What stakeholders are present? (public services, private sector, non-profit, households, other social networks)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What type of care services does each provide?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Who uses each type of care, and how do they combine services?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social rights and labor rights associated with care work</td>
<td>Are the migrant care worker’s labor rights being respected?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The right to give and receive care</td>
<td>Does the migrant woman’s family benefit from the right to receive care?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The underlying ideology</td>
<td>In what ways is the sexual division of labor being reinforced, despite changes introduced by migration?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In what ways are gender roles changing in the social organization of care?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
37. Ibid.
38. For example, studies in the Philippines found that the educational performance of migrants’ children was lower than that of children of non-migrants (Battistella and Conaco 1996) while other studies show no significant difference or even that migrants’ children have better performance (for example, University of the Philippines et al 2002 and Scalabrini Migration Center 2003).
41. The national program called Wawa Wasi, which means “house of the babies” in Quechua, is a day care program created in 1994. The wawa wasi are neighborhood homes where children of up to 4 years of age are cared for. The caretakers are mothers who agree to watch a group of up to 8 children who range from infants to pre-school age. For their services, they receive a monthly stipend from the program, and a small daily fee from the families. By calling the care workers “volunteers,” the State has been relieved of its obligation to recognize their labor rights.
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MIGRATION POLICIES AND MIGRANT WOMEN’S RIGHTS
Goals of this Guide

1. Reinforce the human development/right to development approach and its implications for understanding migration from a gender perspective.

2. Expose the consequences of violations of migrant women’s rights, especially in terms of the right to sexual and reproductive health and domestic workers’ labor rights.

3. Become acquainted with the most relevant international instruments related to migration from a gender perspective: International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (ICRMW), CEDAW General Recommendation 26, and Convention 189 concerning Decent Work for Domestic Workers.

4. Apply advocacy strategies and best practices to protect the rights of women migrant workers through gender-sensitive training programs, standard contracts in bilateral agreements, and global processes on migration and development.

Learning Objectives

1. Recognize two of the most important violations of migrant women’s rights: access to sexual and reproductive health and domestic workers’ labor rights.

2. Generate ideas on how to make respect for migrants’ rights an integral component of the migration-development nexus.

3. Be able to assess and craft gender-sensitive pre-departure, post-arrival, and reintegration programs that incorporate rights based strategies for migrant domestic workers.
4.1 Human Development Approach: The Negation of Rights as an Obstacle to Development in Origin and Destination

The human development approach is closely linked to human rights, in that it understands development as the comprehensive right to fully enjoy all human rights. This approach has been adopted by all United Nations agencies, as well as a majority of international development organizations. However, in practice, and in line with the neoliberal and economistic vision that underlies many development programs and policies, more emphasis tends to be placed on economic development than on the expansion of people’s liberties and capacities.

The almost exclusive focus on the effects of remittances on improving families’ well-being in origin ignores the fact that this improvement is often the result of the negation of migrants’ rights in origin, transit, and destination. In origin, the negation of the right to development is often what leads people to migrate in the first place. For example, Guide 2 argues that we can identify which rights are not being fulfilled (e.g. right to education, health, or social protection) by analyzing the items on which households spend the remittances they receive. For women, gender discrimination in the labor market, gender-based violence, control over young women, etc. are also important drivers behind women’s migration.

When in transit, migrant women often encounter many affronts to their human rights. Those who travel with a smuggler may be abandoned along the way if they run into problems while in transit or upon arrival to the destination country. Migrant women are also vulnerable to physical and sexual abuse at the hands of smugglers, authorities, or others along their trajectory through transit countries (CEDAW GR 26, Article 12). Those who work as cross-border traders, for example, may be especially vulnerable to abuse by smugglers, traffickers, delinquents, and even the same border authorities who are supposed to be protecting them.

In destination countries, migrant women oftentimes are not able to fully enjoy their human rights either. Deficient migration policies end up contributing to situations of irregularity and victimization, which may be even graver in the case of women. At the same time, the lack of regulation of the most common sector of female migrants’ labor participation – care work – leads to violations of their labor rights and right to care. Lastly, their access to health services, particularly sexual and reproductive health, is often blocked or limited by a variety of factors, to be explored in this guide.
4.2 Migration Policies that Aggravate Inequalities

In recent decades, the migration policies of the primary destination countries have become much more restrictive, especially following the terrorist attacks of the early 2000s. When developing and refining migration policies, destination countries face the challenging task of balancing two major factors: the interests of the free market and border control/national security. Within the context of globalization, there is increasing market demand for cheap and unregulated labor; at the same time, migration policies are ever more focused on border control and the expulsion of undocumented migrants. Millions of migrants find ways to navigate these apparently contradictory circumstances, attracted by employment opportunities in destination countries, but with few regular channels through which to access them. The resultant enormous increase in irregular migration has been beneficial for multiple sectors of the economy of destination countries, which have come to rely on the availability of cheap and ‘flexible’ labor, easily exploitable and deprived of legal protection.

Despite the apparent demand for this type of labor, many migration policies continue to follow a model of “stratified entry.” This model is characterized by the exclusion or expulsion of broad categories of “undesirable” (generally low-skilled) migrants; admission or active recruitment of other categories of migrants (according to quotas or professional qualifications); and the imposition of greater restrictions on family migration, family reunification, and granting of asylum to refugees (Jolly and Reeves 2005).

In 2003, with the support of former UNIFEM (now UN Women), the first organization for and by migrant women returnees was established in Nepal. Pourakhi works to guarantee migrant women workers’ rights throughout the labor migration cycle through information, guidance, political advocacy, and empowerment.

The objectives of the organization are:

1. To advocate the rights of women migrant workers with Nepal Government and other concerned stakeholders to develop and implement plans and policies for creating an enabling environment for safe migration and empowerment of women migrant workers.

2. To provide information on foreign employment to migrant women workers and their families.

3. To act as a pressure group for the implementation of existing domestic laws and the ratification and implementation of international instruments concerned with the protection and promotion of the rights of migrant women workers.

4. To raise awareness on safe migration and the rights of migrant women workers and to advocate with different stakeholders.

For more information, visit www.pourakhi.org.np.
Graphic 15. Hierarchy of “stratified entry”

- Highly Qualified Migrants
- Recruited Professionals
- Low-skilled Migrants
- Undocumented Migrants
This system creates a hierarchy among different kinds of migrants, which has serious consequences in terms of their capacity to exercise their rights. At the top of the pyramid are highly qualified professionals in the sciences, business management, and information technologies, who are actively recruited and enjoy many privileges. The second group, which is much more feminized than the first, includes professionals who are recruited especially to work in nursing and health care; these migrants do not enjoy the same privileges in terms of length of stay, accompaniment or family reunification, or the right to opt for citizenship. Below this group are the least qualified migrants who enter through a quota system or as labor contingents for certain sectors; they have temporary work permits and enjoy even fewer rights. The lowest group in the pyramid, and the largest in size, is made up of undocumented migrants, who are the most vulnerable in terms of protection of human rights.

In practice, this stratification is quite harmful to women, due to the gender segregation in labor markets, differences in qualification levels, and gender roles in countries of origin and destination (Piper 2005). In spite of the feminization of migration, destination countries tend to assign quotas for recruitment in male-dominated sectors, such as agriculture or construction. As a result, many countries have more migrant women workers with irregular migration status than men, despite there being obvious demand for their labor, mostly in the care industry and other services. Lacking other options, many women resort to the only means of entry available to them: as a family dependent, with no work permit and restricted or non-existent options to obtain one, much less a residency permit independent of the family reunification visa through which they were able to migrate. These determinants push many women toward informal sectors with lower pay and less than desirable working conditions, especially domestic work (see the case study of Maribel’s care chain, exercise 3.4 of Guide 3).

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**Foreign Employment Information Booth**

The Foreign Employment Information Booth project gives easily accessible, on-the-spot information and assistance to departing and returning migrants. Migrant workers often do not follow legal procedures when migrating abroad for work. Even if they do, they may be unaware of even basic information about their destination countries and/or how to get support if they face problems abroad. Most Nepali migrants are not aware of their rights and duties regarding the labor laws of their destination country. The root of this problem is lack of access to information about the migration cycle and about destination countries.

Upon return, many migrants do not know the process to seek redress and justice if they have faced exploitation in their destination countries. They do not know the mechanisms of lodging a complaint or where to seek help. Likewise, Women migrant returnees that are deported and are in urgent need of support also where to get help, especially for gender-based concerns.

To address these problems the Ministry of Labor has setup an information booth at Tribhuvan International Airport in Kathmandu. The information booth is operated by Department of Foreign Employment (DoFE) while Pourakhi provides human resources in the form of Information officers that staff the booth. The main work of the booth is:

- To distribute material about safe migration to departing and returning migrants.
- To refer returning migrants to relevant support structures in Nepal.
- To identify women in need of shelter and other support and direct them to Pourakhi shelter.
- To coordinate with airport authorities, police and DoFE to assist migrant workers in need.

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**Good Practice #5: Nepal**

The Foreign Employment Information Booth project gives easily accessible, on-the-spot information and assistance to departing and returning migrants.
4.3 Living and Working Conditions of Migrant in Domestic Work

As we have seen, migrant women face multiple rights violations in origin, transit, and destination. This guide presents two key rights which are continuously denied to migrant women. The first refers to labor rights in domestic work, which is the most common labor insertion niche for migrant women throughout the world. The second is the right to health, particularly sexual and reproductive health, an area in which migrant women face particular obstacles when attempting to access services. These two rights, among others, tend to fall outside the priorities of public policymakers in destination countries. This reflects the precarious and vulnerable situation in which migrant women find themselves, due to the double discrimination they face for being women and foreign.

4.3.1 Working Conditions for Domestic Workers

As we have seen in Guide 3, domestic work and paid care work are examples of the gender segregation of labor markets and the reproduction of the sexual division of labor on an international scale. These trends, together with the growing demand for care services, channel a majority of migrant women toward this sector, even if they have professional qualifications in other fields. The low social value assigned to this work, the private sphere in which it is carried out, and the informality that characterizes this sector create conditions for all kinds of abuse to take place.

Domestic Workers Action Group: Participation, empowerment and collective action

In 2004, the Migrant Rights Centre Ireland (MRCI) established the Domestic Workers Action Group (DWAG), as a result of the increasing numbers of domestic workers calling the MRCI drop-in centre with employment-related complaints which the government was not addressing. DWAG is a Dublin-based initiative with 200 members, mostly migrant women employed in private homes. DWAG seeks to respond to the exploitation that many domestic workers experience in Ireland by empowering them to campaign for improved protections and standards.

DWAG takes a holistic approach which includes informing all domestic workers of their rights and entitlements, assisting domestic workers to seek compensation and to change their situation by seeking out new opportunities, such as training in childcare. DWAG ultimately seeks to build a strong organisation representing the voices of domestic workers while working towards better enforcement of existing laws and the introduction of new laws to improve conditions for domestic workers.

The core principles of DWAG are participation, empowerment and collective action. Participation is promoted by providing a safe sharing space and offering relevant information to domestic workers about workplace and immigration issues. Members participate in planning sessions, leadership development courses, social and fundraising events, and media training, film and photography workshops. This allows them to get to know one another, build confidence, and come to solidify as a group, all of which lead to their empowerment and collective action. The process of empowerment begins with sharing stories, enabling domestic workers to identify common problems and thus feel less isolated and divided from others. Sharing stories also facilitates the shift of focus from individual problems to collective issues.

One project that built upon these three principles was the quilt and multimedia installation “Blurred Boundaries.” The title is a reference to the blurred boundaries between the private and working lives of domestic workers. The project was a creative way for 45 of the group’s members to explore social and economic issues. It was used as an awareness-raising tool to aid DWAG’s campaign for improved working conditions for domestic workers and resulted in engagement with the trade union movement to develop a “Code of Practice for Protecting Persons Employed in Other People’s Homes”.

For more information, visit: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LZOIpPBl77c

Founded in 2000, Domestic Workers United (DWU) is an organization of Caribbean, Latina and African nannies, housekeepers, and elderly caregivers in New York. According to their website, they are “organizing for power, respect, fair labor standards and to help build a movement to end exploitation and oppression for all.”

In August 2010, DWU achieved a major milestone. The group got a bill signed that has come to be called the “Domestic Workers’ Bill of Rights,” which reforms New York State law to guarantee basic work standards and protections for the nannies, caregivers, and housekeepers who keep New York families functioning and make all other work possible. The Bill of Rights, which went into effect on 29 November 2010, is a comprehensive response to domestic workers’ vulnerability to abuse and mistreatment, and works to counter domestic workers’ exclusion from most labor protections. It includes provisions on work hours, day of rest, paid days off, workplace protection, and the right to organize.

For more information on DWU’s campaign, see: http://domesticworkersunited.org.

According to the International Labor Organization (ILO 2004: 59):

Working conditions of domestic workers vary enormously. Some are treated as members of their employer’s family, while others are exploited and subjected to conditions which in some cases amount to virtual slavery and forced labour. Domestic workers often have to work long or even excessive hours of work (on average, 15-16 hours per day), with no rest days or compensation for overtime; they generally receive low wages, and have inadequate health insurance coverage. Domestic workers are also exposed to physical and sexual harassment and violence and abuse, and are in some cases trapped in situations in which they are physically or legally restrained from leaving the employer’s home by means of threats or actual violence, or by withholding of pay or identity documents.

Several factors contribute to the particular vulnerabilities of workers in this sector:

Absence or inadequacy of legal regulations. In many destination countries, domestic work is not regulated, or is subject to “special regulations” that do not extend the same rights and protections awarded to other labor sectors. This means that domestic workers often lack decent working conditions in terms of salaries, work schedules, health insurance, arbitrary termination, unionization, etc.
Absence of residency permit and/or work permit. Many migrants who do not have a work permit find that the informality of domestic work makes it a relatively easy employment option to access; among all domestic workers, those who are in an irregular migration situation are the most vulnerable to exploitation. Some countries offer temporary permits for migrant domestic workers, which does tend to improve working conditions, but only in cases in which the permit allows the worker to change employers. On the contrary, when residency permits are tied to work permits, and loss of employment implies loss of legal residency, workers are in a much more vulnerable position.

Social invisibility of domestic workers. Domestic and care work is performed within the private sphere of the home, which makes it largely invisible to society, including public decision-makers. Since domestic work is characterized by the dispersion and social isolation of its workers, in particular when they reside in their employers’ houses, abuse and poor labor practices are less visible and not as well documented as abuses of migrant men who work in other sectors – also characterized by exploitation, but more visible – such as agriculture or construction. This invisibility is also an important obstacle to their being able to establish connections with other domestic workers, participate in migrant social networks, and organize to demand their rights.

Low levels of education among women domestic workers. Although some women with high education levels find employment as domestics for lack of other options, a large majority of domestic workers have low educational levels. (The proportion of skilled vs. low-skilled migrant women working as domestics varies by country. In Spain, for example, a significant proportion of Latin American migrant domestic workers has secondary and university education levels). Those who do have lower education levels are more vulnerable for a variety of reasons: they present the highest levels of poverty and highest levels of irregularity; have fewer chances of obtaining other employment; and tend to have less knowledge of host society legislation, protections, and services to which, in theory, they have access. Thus, they are less likely to claim their rights, report abuse or make use of social and community organizations that support migrants.

Poor pay for domestic work. Poor pay obliges many domestic workers to stay put, even when suffering exploitation or abuse. First, the low income level of their households in origin drives them to continue sending regular remittances home to pay off debts and support the family. Second, a change of employment may involve a period of
How many migrant domestic workers are there?

Women make up approximately half of the estimated 213 million migrant workers worldwide and an important part are women and girl domestic workers.

- Asia is a large source of international migrants working as domestics both within Asia and beyond.
- Arab countries employ millions of migrant domestic workers. In Saudi Arabia, for example, there are approximately 1.5 million domestic workers, primarily from Indonesia, the Philippines and Sri Lanka.
- In Latin America, domestic workers make up to 60 per cent of internal and cross-border migrants. Migrant women from Mexico and other parts of Latin America make up most of the domestic worker labor force in the U.S.
- In France, more than 50 per cent of migrant women are employed in domestic work.
- In Italy, some 600,000 people are registered as domestic workers, the majority of whom are non-EU nationals. There are also many who are undocumented, not having a work permit, making an estimated total of 1.2 million workers providing domestic services to individuals.

Source: WIEGO (no date)
lose their job to keep making contributions of their own accord or through irregular means in order to renew their work permit, since one of the requirements is to demonstrate availability of employment. Another specific vulnerability has to do with fear of deportation. Irregular migrants may be loathe to report labor rights violations in their workplace, where labor inspections rarely occur, for this reason. Finally, it is often legal for employers to withhold high percentages of workers’ pay for room and board, which prevents many migrants from meeting the minimum income required for reunification of their husbands and/or children.

Many of the obstacles to guaranteeing domestic workers’ rights have to do with the fact that the job is performed within the private sphere of the household. However, the legal regulations and labor inspection mechanisms were designed for the public sphere, traditionally associated with men’s work. Historically, family homes have been exempt from government inspection, meaning that the establishment of labor protections for domestic workers would necessitate inspections or other forms of supervision which could be perceived as an “invasion” of employers’ privacy (Anderson 2006).

The massive insertion of migrant women in domestic work and care services challenges the division between public and private, as well as the relationship between the private sector and the State in the provision of care. Several countries, including Great Britain and France, have created State subsidies for households to hire caregivers, especially for the elderly or disabled. This could be considered progress toward social and collective responsibility in the social provision of care, since it allows households to hire outside help and/or pay the women who had been performing this work for free. However, this type of measure can be a double-edged sword for several reasons: it reinforces the notion that care work is a women’s issue in the private sphere,
Salud y Familia

The Association Salud y Familia (Health and Family) is implementing several programs with the aim to improve access to all health services for undocumented migrants in the Barcelona region. The association combines policy advocacy with ongoing contact with service providers and the government to guarantee undocumented persons’ access to a health card.

In collaboration with the public hospitals of Cataluña, the “Mothers between two cultures” program aims to design and pilot test intercultural education activities targeted toward immigrant mothers of diverse origins who have children of three years or younger. The objective is to improve coverage and reduce unmet needs in the area of maternal and child health prevention and promotion, by strengthening knowledge, capacity and social support networks. This program has been particularly effective in providing orientation for recent arrivals, who do not know many people and often live in isolated situations. The Association also offers a program called “Assistance for At-Risk Maternity” which provides partial assistance for pregnant women to receive pre-natal care and psychosocial support.

In Spain, there are different rules regarding foreigners’ access to the health system in each region of the country. In Barcelona, foreigners must have a passport, but do not need to have Spanish residency in order to access health care. Nor is it necessary to have a mailing address in order to register oneself with local authorities. In theory, access to health care for migrants should be possible; however, practitioners often request more documentation than the legally established minimum, creating more bureaucratic hassle than necessary.

In order to correct this problem, Salud y Familia began to document each incident in which a migrant was denied access to a health card. Incidents were compiled in a report which was sent to the government agency responsible for supervising the health system. The agency requested a meeting with the association, which has resulted in closer collaboration and the development of an action guide.

For more information, visit http://www.saludyfamilia.es/eng/home.htm

Source: Eve Geddie, Platform for International Cooperation on Undocumented Migrants (PICUM), picum.org/en

Legitimizes low pay, and resolves care needs through the exploitation of women’s poorly paid work (whether through hiring a woman from outside the household or through paying the woman who has been caring for dependents within the household for free).

One example of this reinforcement of low pay for care work is that of Spain, where the Dependency Law recognizes that citizens in a situation of dependency have a right to access care services (in-home assistance, residential care, or day care centers). The law establishes the exceptional option of being able to receive an economic subsidy of 300-500 Euros for non-professional care services at home. However, as of 1 December 2009, 51% of the subsidies were of this type. This subsidy is not a worker’s salary, but is rather a subsidy for the beneficiary, which means that the amount varies according to his/her level of dependency. Nor does it allow the care worker access to sufficient social protection – care workers are not eligible for maternity leave or unemployment, and are not able to pay contributions toward their retirement, etc. In addition, there are no supporting mechanisms to prevent this formula from becoming the primary means of meeting continuous care needs of dependent persons, instead of being combined with day care assistance, temporary residence, etc.
4.3.2 What Can Be Done?

- Promote the organization of domestic workers, in order to receive training on their rights and to build their capacity to negotiate with key stakeholders to improve labor conditions while paying attention to the specific needs of migrant domestic workers.

- Hold dialogues between labor unions, women’s/feminists organizations, migrant associations (especially women migrant associations), Ministries of Women’s Affairs and Labor, with an aim to regulate domestic work, give domestic workers the same rights as workers in other sectors, and establish mechanisms to monitor compliance.

- Encourage public and democratic debate on how to build a more just model of the social organization of care, where there is an equitable distribution of care work among diverse actors (households – and within them, equal distribution between men and women, the State, and the private sector). Within this debate, clarify the role of domestic work within the social model of care that is desired.

Gender-Sensitive Training Programs

Maximizing the Potential for Economic, Social, and Political Remittances and Women’s Empowerment

Disseminating information and skills for women migrant workers, their families, as well as for recruiters and employers is critical to preventing exploitation and enhancing the positive benefits of migration.

Trainings women migrant workers before, during, and after migration is a way to ensure access to information and skills, strategies to protect their rights, and mechanisms to seek redress in case of violations. This is particularly true for a large portion of women who lack opportunities for legal migration channels or work in unregulated sectors such as domestic work or the entertainment industry. Trainings combined with support services can reduce unsafe migration and prevent common abuses faced by women migrant workers such as underpayment of wages, contract substitution, overcharging of fees, physical or sexual violence, and withholding of travel documents. Labor migration policies should include “providing information to migrant workers on their rights and assisting them with defending their rights” (ILO 2006).

As temporary and circular migration schemes become more prominent, it is important to consider the entire migration cycle as a circular and sometimes repeated process. For example, many Asian domestic workers to the Gulf region migrate on two-year contracts, returning to their local communities of origin with positive benefits, negative experiences, and new skills requiring reintegration support to ensure enhancing their economic opportunities in the country of origin. Intra-Asian flows for care workers such as for Vietnam, Cambodia, and Myanmar can also be circular with repeated migration patterns across porous borders. This is why groups such as the Asian Forum on Migrant Labour recommend conducting pre-employment, pre-departure, and post-arrival orientation programs for women and men migrant workers, free of charge.
Training potential, current, and returning women migrants is an essential element towards fulfilling the positive benefits of migration. Offering trainings for women throughout the migration cycle should enhance their social and political empowerment, beyond maximizing their potential for economic remittances (See Guide 2).

**Stages of Training and Support**:  

1. **Pre-Departure**

   Pre-departure Orientation Trainings (PDOTs) allow access to information for women at all stages prior to migration, including the pre-decision phase for aspiring migrants. PDOT’s offer critical information on safe migration channels, rights and protection mechanisms, accreditation and regulations of recruitment agencies, and where women migrant workers can seek support services in origin, transit, and destination countries. In countries where recruiter and broker abuse is prevalent, PDOT’s provide an official source of support outside of relying on brokers and social networks. This is particularly critical for potential migrant women with less education or from rural areas. PDOT’s are most effective when combined with community outreach, media awareness campaigns, and partnerships with local NGOs and government agencies.
2. Post-Arrival

Post-arrival orientation programs serve to reinforce important components from PDOT’s as well as concretely build links between migrant workers with migration associations, relevant government agencies, and service providers in destination countries. Currently, few origin and destination countries conduct such programs in destination\(^{18}\). Post arrival programs can also facilitate relationship building between local civil society and migrant workers’ associations who can offer help services, advocacy, and organizing networks to improve rights and conditions within the destination country.

*Migrant-Rights.org* launched by the Arab Migrant Rights Network, is an online advocacy forum that advances the rights of migrant workers in the Middle East. As migrant workers comprise nearly 85% of the population in some states, the website and network builds awareness and offer support services to this “invisible majority”, particularly in Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries. Local citizens and expatriate professionals, often from Asian countries, provide advocacy to end abuses faced by workers, raise awareness through media and public education, and lobby their governments for greater rights for migrant workers.

The Migrant-Rights.org website is an interactive online advocacy tool providing resources and information for migrant workers, advocates, citizens of destination countries, employers, and media professionals. Online campaigns include “Formalize Rights for Domestic Workers” and “End the Kafala System” among others. The website also offers:

- An interactive map of the region citing cases and media report related to categories of labor and rights violations and changes relevant for law on migrant workers (https://www.migrant-rights.org/expose-rights-abuses/report-an-incident/)
- Videos and education infographics of the scale of common labor abuses in the region
- Resources and statistics by country, country type (destination, origin, international), and by purpose (advocacy, cultural, domestic worker aid)
- A contact list of migrant worker aid organizations and hotlines in Bahrain, India, Kuwait, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, UAE, Lebanon, and the Philippines
3. Return and Reintegration

Women migrant workers often face particular challenges upon return to the origin country. Reintegration programs for returnee migrants offer similar supports and services as in the other stages of migration. However, reintegration needs involve more focus on coping with the consequences of migration, both positive and negative, rather than continued rights protection training. Some of the training elements would include:

- **Psychosocial counseling and rehabilitation** - Returnee women migrants may bear psychological stresses from the migration experience, particularly if they have faced abuse, sexual violence, or discrimination abroad. In addition, social supports are needed to readjust into the family, community, and former life experiences after having lived independently.

- **Community education to destigmatize returnee women migrants** - Women return to higher levels of stigma from the migration experience often as compared to men, who tend more to be praised. Some of these stigmas (reflected in the Guide 1) include resentment of a women's decision to leave her family or questioning whether she had been engaged in sexual relationships abroad.

- **Legal services** - Such services can include pending issues of contract violations or unpaid wages from employment during migration. Also, legal services can address local needs of importance to secure women's empowerment and opportunities such as property and land rights, divorce or family law situations, or inheritance rights.

- **Financial training** - Women can utilize new skills developed through microenterprise and financial skills trainings. Small-scale local microenterprise projects from income saved through migration can offer a means for sustaining economic empowerment for women in their local communities without re-migration. Given various challenges faced by women to the success of such ventures, innovative and human development strategies to financial and small business success are critical. [See Section 2.5-2.6]

For all stages of migration, two core elements to ensure protection and promotion of the welfare of women migrant workers throughout the cycle are **rights-based and gender sensitive training**.
## Components of Rights-Based Trainings

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<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Examples for the Asia-Pacific Region</th>
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| **INNOVATIVE AND RIGHTS-BASED CURRICULA** | • Awareness of rights, redress mechanisms, legal fees of migration, what to demand from an agent, risks, and safe migration strategies  
• Introduction of new skills training to ensure access to new labor markets  
• Common syllabi and curriculum, including quality monitoring  
• Participation of returnees to provide first-hand experience and knowledge | ILO Greater Mekong Sub region (GMS Triangle Project) Pre-departure Training Curriculum for Vietnam to Malaysia. |
| **INVOLVE LOCAL GOVERNMENTS AS PARTNERS** | • Develop partnerships between labor ministries, embassies, overseas workers, and related ministries in both origin and receiving countries to develop and conduct trainings  
• Designate and train specific Labor Attachés in based in embassies in countries of destination  
• Require gender sensitivities and human rights based trainings  
• Require training for border officials, immigration authorities, police, judicial and health personnel, and other relevant worker | Memorandum of agreement between Philippines Overseas Employment Administration allows closer links between communities and national migration policies. |
| **INVOLVE CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANIZATIONS AND THE PRIVATE SECTOR** | • NGO’s have developed materials, resources, and strategies for awareness raising campaigns for migrant workers for rights protection  
• Allows greater access to numbers of migrants  
• Ensures the inclusion of business and human rights issues relating to labor migration  
• NGO’s can tailor to the language and context needs of local communities as well as priority needs for women migrant workers and their families | BOMSA (Bangladesh Overseas Women Workers’ Association), founded by returnee migrant women, runs trainings for potential and returnee women migrans in eight districts on access to justice, capacity building of local government, and advocacy. |
| **CREATE ORIENTATION PROGRAMS AIMED AT RECRUITMENT AGENCIES** | • Require training on gender sensitivities and human rights  
• Train in the definition and indicators of ethical recruitment, including relevant ILO standards  
• Develop operation models for monitoring and implementation | The Philippine government offers orientation for management and staff at recruitment agencies to promote ethical practices and protect the rights of migrant workers. |
### Components of Rights-Based Trainings

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<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Examples for the Asia-Pacific Region</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Establish migration information centers and engage media in local communities</strong></td>
<td>• Migration information centers or Migration Resource Centers (MRC) offer direct counseling, information, and support services and are best place in rural women migrant sending areas as well as places of transit  &lt;br&gt; • Regular programs in local media including radio stations and newspapers, such as radio call in shows  &lt;br&gt; • Education and awareness campaigns utilizing locally relevant methods such as community theater on challenges faced by and rights strategies for women migrants, as well as social stigmas and transformation of gender relations</td>
<td>Newspapers, media, and popular culture in the Philippines emphasize migration themes, including dedicated columns such as “Pinoy Worldwide” in the Philippine Star.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Supplement trainings with other information on services and self-advocacy strategies</strong></td>
<td>• Awareness on rights and legal environment at destination, including sources of assistance  &lt;br&gt; • Offer embassy and consular services upon arrival in destination countries  &lt;br&gt; • Provide information and support allowing migrant workers to defend and demand respect for their rights  &lt;br&gt; • Information on private and NGO sources of support in the event of violation of rights, including handbooks and resource materials  &lt;br&gt; • Awareness on the risks of informal transfer of remittances and skills in using the regular means of remittance transfer</td>
<td>Women’s Rehabilitation Centre (WOREC) and Youth Action Nepal provide community based advice networks in a number of districts.</td>
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## Gender Sensitive Components and Steps of Implementation

**The Four Stages of Crafting Gender-Sensitive Trainings:**

**Rights Based + Gender Sensitive**

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<th>PRIOR TO TRAININGS</th>
<th>GENDER ANALYSIS</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consider gender as part of social, economic, and cultural factors while planning training programs. This can include engagement of men and boys, particularly the family members of women migrant workers.</td>
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<tr>
<th>2. DESIGN &amp; DEVELOPMENT</th>
<th>Rights and Employment Contracts</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Rights and responsibilities of the migrant worker and employer</td>
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<td>• Clear definition of duties, hours, and expectations as per the employment contract</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• For women migrant workers outside of formal employment sectors such as domestic workers, basic rights afforded under national laws as well as standards for basic labor rights</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Timings, rest hours and days, overtime, and holidays</td>
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<td>• Salary and increases</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Return paid vacation: annual roundtrip ticket</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Medical insurance and access to health services, particularly for reproductive and sexual health</td>
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<td>• Safety and security in the job</td>
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<td>• Living accommodations and safety</td>
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<td>• Communication tools: mobile phone</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• How to negotiate with the employer and recruiters</td>
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**Destination country information and training**

- Procedures: immigration and medical
- Country knowledge and laws
- Information on resource centers through embassies and consular services, including potentially an officer specifically responsible for women migrants
- Social, cultural, and professional expectations, from a framework of protecting rights and empowerment of women migrant workers
- Rights: at destination, contract, labor laws
- Government and embassy services and helplines
- NGO and civil society services and contact list
- Safe and legal banking and remittance transfer
- Rights and information on health (particularly sexual and reproductive health for women)
- Safe lodging, and general safety
- Language learning needs
### During the Training Programs

#### 3. Implementation

Incorporate training methodologies and facilitation that empower women

- Run trainings to maximize women’s participation and leadership, including interactive activities and role plays
- Ensure gender balance in all activities
- Facilitate to empower women to lead activities and be able to speak in a safe environment
- Hire woman trainers, particularly returnee migrant women
- Ensure regular monitoring of trainings
- Take feedback and ideas from participants

#### 4. Evaluation and Analysis

Conduct participatory assessments and improve programs accordingly

- Evaluate to consider what worked well and what did not, from the perspective particularly of women
- Conduct anonymous and open answer evaluations
- Ensure evaluation method is accessible for women participants based on language and education level
- Revise training design and workshops accordingly

### Stop & Reflect

1. What is one specific way in which required pre-departure programs can empower migrant domestic workers economically? How can it empower them socially and politically?

2. Why is it important to have gender-sensitive trainings for migrant domestic workers that do not simply teach work skills that replicate feminized notions of labor or behavior? How can you include strategies for women to claim their rights in a safe and an effective manner?
Standard Contracts for Migrant Domestic Workers

‘Standard Terms of Employment Contracts (STOE’s) or Standard Employment Contracts are an important tool for claiming rights for migrant domestic workers (See template here http://asiapacific.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2016/12/template-on-standard-terms-of-employment-for-women-migrant--domestic-workers). Countries that have introduced standards or model contracts for domestic workers are Jordan, Lebanon, Malaysia, Singapore, Philippines, Hong Kong, and the UAE.

A “Standardized Employment Contract” or “Model Employment Contract” (MEC) is a model or benchmark contract against which to evaluate and improve existing contracts. It is aspirational to set a standard for rights rather than something to be implemented immediately in all cases. ILO recommendation 201 concerning Decent Work for Domestic Workers (2011) states the need to establish model contracts for domestic workers. Countries of origin could utilize these as a template when negotiating bilateral labour agreements (see section 4.6.1 on Bilateral Agreements and Women Migrant Workers) or writing nationally based contracts. They can be used along with ILO Convention 189 concerning Decent Work for Domestic Workers.

Model contracts offer several benefits that can be exercised by domestic workers, their families, advocates, trade unions, and governments. Most importantly, they represent a vehicle for protection for migrant domestic workers excluded from national labour laws in destination countries. First, they preserve a migrant domestic workers right to receive a written employment contract that is legally binding and enforceable in the destination country. ILO Convention 189 and Recommendation 201 on Decent Work have established such a standard for domestic workers. Secondly, they recognize domestic work as employee-employer relationship rather than an informal one. This entitles domestic workers to the same rights and labor standards as other workers and defines responsibilities of the domestic worker and employer, which is often missing in most contracts. Also unlike most contracts, model contracts would define minimum labor standards. For example, a standardized contract would affirm the basic principle of 8-hour working day unlike most contracts with unregulated working hours.51

Other Benefits:

- Universalizes the right to fair conditions for all migrant workers, regardless of country of origin. Origin countries often negotiate different minimum wages and standards in bilateral agreements with destination countries. Destination countries can exploit this to drive down wages and the granting of rights (see section 4.6.1 on Bilateral Agreements and Women Migrant Workers)
- Could build consensus among countries of origin to negotiate for similar minimum wages, labor standards and standards set forth in ILO Convention 189.
- May help prevent exploitative recruitment practices, such as contract substitution, which is rife in certain regions. It empowers migrant domestic workers and stakeholders with an accessible tool to know their rights.52
Would reduce vulnerabilities faced by migrant women falling out of legal status in destination countries when they are informed of their rights about termination of their employment contracts.53-54

Serves as a basis for legal recognition and allow workers to bring complaints to judicial authorities in destination countries.

Would standardize the need to translate the contract into languages understood by domestic workers.

**Good Practice: Working Contract for Non-Jordanian Domestic Workers (2003)**

The Special Working Contract for Non-Jordanian Domestic Workers established in 2003 was the first of its kind in the Middle East setting a precedent as a gender-sensitive and rights based good practice.

Although Jordan’s amendments to Labour Law No. 8 which went into force in 2010 brought national law into greater compliance with international labor standards for migrant workers, not all applied to migrant domestic workers.

For this reason the Special Working Contract for Non-Jordanian Domestic Workers serves as the only binding document that allows domestic workers to obtain work and residency permits. The special working contract was drawn up in a multi-stakeholder process including Jordanian Ministry of Labour, UNIFEM (UN Women), embassies of sending countries (Sri Lanka and Philippines), and women’s NGO’s. It must be signed by all employers, agents, and domestic workers and lasts for two years with the possibility of extension.

**Key Gender Sensitive Elements in the Contract Stipulate:**
- The rights and responsibilities of domestic workers, employers, and recruitment agencies
- The necessity of a signed contract
- Employers obligations to provide meals, clothing, accommodation, and medical care
- Provision of agreeable salary, residency permit, and round trip ticket by the employer and recruitment agency
- Weekly day of rest
- The employee’s rights to possession of passport and correspondence
- Protection from the employer requiring the worker to work anywhere else other than the agreed employer’s home
- A hotline for reporting violations with translation services in Indonesian, Sinhalese, Tagalog, Chinese, and Hindi.56
Although standard contracts present good models, gaps also exist currently in some key areas. For Jordan, the contract does not make explicit the hours of work. Also, it guarantees a day or rest each week, but requires the domestic worker to seek the employer’s permission to leave the house. For Lebanon, contracts do not deal with the issue of employers confiscating passports and travel documents. For the United Arab Emirates, they do not provide for rights to any rest days, limits to hours of work, or overtime pay. In Malaysia, contracts do not include the employer’s details, absolving the employer of responsibility to provide minimum labour standards. They also contain no provision for daily or weekly rest, nor defined rights to accommodation.  

### Table 8.
**Recommendations on Standardized Contracts for Migrant Domestic Workers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AREA</th>
<th>RECOMMENDATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Process and Negotiations</td>
<td><strong>BA’s and MOU’s</strong> should include standardized contracts that are enforceable and recognized in both countries, along with effective monitoring mechanisms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The standardized contract could be used by countries of origin as a multilateral advocacy tool to negotiate with destination countries and in drawing up national contracts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility</td>
<td>The model contract should be made available to domestic workers, employers, representative organizations, and the general public. (ILO Recommendation 201, para. 6 no. 4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The model contract could be explained in pre-departure training programs that are gender-sensitive and rights based.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>Recruiters and subagents should be regulated through regular and spot inspections as well as incentive mechanisms for employers and recruitment agencies to ensure compliance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Countries of origin can assure legal assistance and temporary shelters as part of accessible dispute resolution mechanisms.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4 The Right to Health, Including Sexual and Reproductive Health

Migrants’ access to health care is generally limited and deficient, even in destination countries that offer relatively broad coverage and public access to services. On one hand, a majority of migrants are relatively young, so they tend to have fewer health problems in some regards. On the other hand, it is unfortunately common, especially for women, to have had traumatic experiences during the migration journey, such as sexual violence. This risk, together with their low socioeconomic and educational levels, increases migrant women’s vulnerability in terms of health. Other studies show that migrants present relatively higher incidence of illness and work accidents, due to the unprotected sectors where they find work, as well as high rates of mental health problems, including depression, suicide, drug and alcohol abuse, anxiety and stress.

A series of factors tend to block migrants’ access to health care, including: migration laws and social policies in the destination country; migrants’ labor conditions and low income; sociocultural background and experiences with health care system (or lack thereof) in origin; and racial/ethnic discrimination that migrants often face in the host society.

○ Social policies. Despite the fact that health is a human right upheld in several international conventions, access to services is not always possible, especially for migrants with an irregular migratory status. In most destination countries, a common belief is that guaranteeing migrants’ access to health care is not an obligation, but an act of generosity paid for by the

Most people who migrate to Malta arrive on boats traveling from North Africa across the Mediterranean Sea. Boats are regularly intercepted and all irregularly-arriving migrants are automatically placed in detention centers for 18 months. Migrants are often unable to communicate with the doctor or with the administrative personnel in the health centers. There are very few organizations providing interpretation assistance to migrants. Cultural barriers further hinder the communication between migrants and health service providers. For some newly arrived migrants some aspects of health care services, such as surgical interventions and check-ups by doctors of the opposite sex, especially regarding sexual and reproductive health, may cause fears and misconceptions.

To address this gap, a special unit has been established within the Department of Primary Health to attend migrants. It is staffed with several ‘cultural mediators’ from the various migrant communities (Somali, Ethiopian, Eritrean, Congolese, and Nigerian). Despite their irregular migration status, these cultural mediators have been trained and are now employed by the Maltese health authority. Half of these are women, who provide assistance at the “women’s clinic” in the health centers for prenatal & gynecological appointments.

In cooperation with these cultural mediators, the unit’s founder, Marika Poddor Connor, began an awareness raising initiative about female genital mutilation (FGM). In 2008 alone, Malta received 242 women from countries with high prevalence of FGM. Marika has worked closely with the cultural mediators to educate herself about FGM, and has carried out focus groups on the practice among migrant women; in turn, she uses this information to raise awareness within migrant communities and among Maltese health professionals.

In addition to direct assistance and cultural sensitivity training for staff, the Unit has also conducted community outreach on sexual health, how to navigate the health system, mental health, etc. They have materials in many languages, including Somali, Tigrinya, French and Arabic.

For more information, visit: https://ehealth.gov.mt/HealthPortal/health_institutions/primary_healthcare/migrant_healthunit.aspx

Source: Eve Geddie, Platform for International Cooperation on Documented Migrants (PICUM), picum.org/
Radio Program Gente sin Fronteras (People without Borders)

For 9 years, the Foundation Género y Sociedad produced a radio program for Costa Rican and migrant women and men, with the aim of strengthening their capacity as citizens and encouraging peaceful coexistence of both populations in Costa Rica, while applying the gender perspective. This program on migration and citizenship operated based on the understanding that in order to exercise one’s human rights, every immigrant should not only have the basic elements to access them (e.g., identity documents, etc.), but should also have the effective capacity to exercise them, including: being equipped with accurate and timely information; knowing requirements, procedures, etc., to regularize one’s situation in the country of residence; knowing how to read and write.

The radio program began as “Women without Borders,” and after 3 years it was expanded to become “People without Borders.” It continued focusing on women’s situation, but broadened its coverage to include male listeners as well, who also have gender-related needs resulting from their migratory condition.

The program connected Costa Rican public institutions and the Nicaraguan consulate with immigrants, especially those who preferred to remain anonymous when consulting on procedures to regularize their situation, determining if their employers’ treatment is legal (apart from being just, humane, etc.), communicating their situations or raising complaints.

From the beginning, the program enjoyed the continuous support of government representatives and NGOs working on immigration-related issues. This has enabled frank and open discussion with Costa Rican institutions and service providers (education, health, labor, etc.) who have the mandate of protecting the human rights of all persons who reside in the country.

The production and broadcasting costs were quite low (approximately US $2,000/month) for such a high-impact initiative. It is estimated that for every listener, 5 other people receive the information indirectly. For “People without Borders,” an average of 450 people benefited directly every day from the information broadcast on their rights and responsibilities as immigrants, making the cost per direct beneficiary US $22 per person per month; indirectly, with only US $4 per month, the program was able to inform an average of 450 people. Communication initiatives like this one are an effective way to maximize impact for relatively little money, rather than financing, for example, the production of expensive awareness-raising documentaries or trainings that reach a reduced number of people.

Submitted by Ana Isabel García, Director Fundación Género y Sociedad (GESO), Costa Rica

Good Practice #10: Costa Rica

State. On the other hand, the informality of migrants’ employment sectors, particularly domestic work, facilitates the hiring of undocumented workers and allows employers to hire them without having to contribute the corresponding taxes and other withholdings. In effect, most destination countries only guarantee access to emergency health care, which is what is stipulated in the Convention on Migrant Workers and their Families. In those countries that do offer access to services beyond emergency care, there are often other insurmountable obstacles for the migrant population, such as lack of sufficient information, not enough time off to attend appointments and receive services, and bureaucratic barriers to access services.

- **Migration policies.** As migration policies become stricter and the threat of being detained or deported increases, migrants become more reluctant to utilize health services. The lack of opportunities for regular migration has significant consequences on migrant health: an increase in irregular migration, human smuggling and trafficking places women at serious risk of abuse and sexual exploitation, both within the migration process and in their workplaces in the host country. Limitations on access to mental health and sexual and reproductive health services therefore affect women in particular.

- **Linguistic and cultural barriers between migrants and health care personnel.** Language and cultural differences may present significant challenges to communication and treatment of
migrants. Health care personnel are often unfamiliar with the particular needs of their migrant patients who, due to their own health background, migration experiences, and living and working conditions in the destination country, may present a different clinical picture than they are used to treating. All of this is aggravated by discriminatory attitudes on the part of some health personnel, out of racial-ethnic prejudice or discrimination based on the patients’ migratory status. In terms of reproductive health, prenatal, childbirth and post-partum care vary significantly according to the cultural context, and these differences may result in uncomfortable situations for both patient and health care provider.

- **Lack of information.** Many migrants simply do not understand how the health system works in the destination country, much less how to access it or how to find a health care provider. Many migrants also come from countries with deficient health systems, and therefore may have little experience dealing with them – especially poor women or those from rural areas.

- **Costs.** Given that in the majority of destination countries, the health care services provided free of charge to migrants (particularly irregular migrants) are limited to emergency situations, the direct costs of services and medications and indirect costs of transportation and time lost at work can pose a significant obstacle. Migrants who are under an obligation to remit regularly to their home country may have a hard time justifying this “personal expenditure,” even when it has to do with their own health. This may affect women even more, given that they tend to earn less but remit a greater proportion of their income, and are socialized to sacrifice themselves for their family’s well-being.

- **Bureaucratic barriers.** The process of accessing health services is sometimes long and complicated, not only for migrants, but also for providers, who are oftentimes unfamiliar with their migrant patients’ rights and corresponding procedures to uphold these rights.

The exclusion resulting from the abovementioned difficulties affects **migrant women’s health** in particular. Women tend to make more use of the health system, for both biological (pregnancy and childbirth) and social reasons (as those assigned responsibility for keeping the family healthy). It follows, then, that lack of access to services has a significant impact on women, for reasons that
derive from gender inequalities: risk of suffering domestic violence and sexual assault (especially for live-in domestic workers), greater indices of poverty and unemployment, lower educational levels, etc.

The consequences in terms of migrant women’s sexual and reproductive health are quite serious. Although statistics vary according to population and context, there is a generalized tendency for migrant women to present higher levels than the local population of cervical cancer, adolescent pregnancy, HIV/AIDS, maternal mortality, babies with low birth weight, domestic violence, infant mortality, childbirth complications, premature births, etc.

Let us consider, for example, some indicators of the situation of Latina migrants and their descendants in the U.S., where access to health care is a major public problem that is even more serious in the case of the migrant population.59

Latinas have the lowest indices of access to health insurance of all population groups. 56% of migrant women do not have any kind of health insurance, with even higher percentages among undocumented Latina migrants.

Rates of cervical cancer are more than double that of white women (15.8 vs. 7.1) and maternal mortality rates are also higher (8.0 per thousand vs. 5.8)

Rates of adolescent pregnancy among Latinas are the highest in the country (83.4), almost triple that of white teenage girls (28.5).

At the same time, Latina adolescents present the lowest rates of legal abortion (27.5) compared with white adolescent girls (32.0) and Afro-American (40.8).

Rates of HIV/AIDS among Latina women are 7 times higher than among white women.

Although studies show that migrant women are especially vulnerable to domestic violence, Latina migrants/descendants present lower rates of reporting to police and use of victim services. Government statistics indicate that only 30% of migrants who have suffered violence report it, which is even lower for undocumented migrant women (15%), versus 55% among the native population (Jolly and Reeves 2005).
Lack of access to contraceptives also raises levels of unwanted pregnancy and, as a result, the demand for abortion services. Returning to the example of Latina migrants and their descendants in the U.S., we see that their abortion rate is more than double that of white women (28 abortions per 1000 Latina women vs. 11 abortions per 1000 white women) (Henshaw and Kost 2008). This difference can be attributed in part to a chain of “lacks”: lack of health insurance and low income, which leads to lack of access to contraceptives, which results in more unwanted pregnancies (Fuentes 2010). Similarly, in European countries where abortion is legal and can be obtained through public health services, migrant women present abortion rates two and four times higher than native-born women (UNFPA 2007; Carballo 2007).

Even in countries where the right to freely choose whether or not to interrupt a pregnancy is respected, migrant women do not always have access to such services, leading many to resort to self-induced abortions, without medical assistance. Among poor migrant women in Europe and Latina and Caribbean migrants in the U.S., reports have shown that there is a subculture of using Cytotec (brand name of misoprostol) to self-induce abortions. In the case of Latinas and migrants of Caribbean origin in New York, both the practice and the drug itself are imported from their places of origin through migratory networks. In 2000, a study carried out in three reproductive health clinics in the state of New York found that many low-income migrant women used misoprostol to self-induce, since that alternative was easier and more affordable (Leland 2005). Since then, several migrant women have been taken to court for this, including a Mexican woman charged with homicide in South Carolina in 2005 and a Dominican woman in Massachusetts in 2007, both of whom self-induced abortions in the second trimester of pregnancy. In sum, the practice of illegal abortion not only exposes migrant women to prosecution before the law; it can also result in disastrous consequences for their health and personal and professional projects.

Recommendations to improve migrant women’s access to health care

- Train health service providers on their patients’ cultural backgrounds. Encourage their collaboration with migrant women’s organizations to tailor their services and/or make them culturally sensitive.
- Implement projects that aim to improve undocumented migrant women’s quality of life, ensuring that budgetary resources are made available for such initiatives.
- Make the criteria for accessing health care more flexible for irregular migrants: health is not an emergency, but a fundamental right that should be respected at all times.
- Guarantee security and protection for women and children without documentation.

Source: Virginia Wangare Greiner, Maisha e.V. African Women in Germany and European Network of Migrant Women (2010)
The CEDAW General Recommendation 26 recognizes inequalities that put migrant women’s health, and especially their sexual and reproductive health, in danger. It also encourages States to develop policies that improve their access to health care. (See section 4.4.2 for more information).

Stop & Reflect

1. In your country, do domestic workers have access to the same labor rights and protections as workers in other sectors? If not, what obstacles are there to guaranteeing the labor rights of domestic workers, especially migrants?

2. In your country, what problems do migrant women have in order to access sexual and reproductive health services? Do you know of any program or policy that aims to improve this situation?
4.5 International Instruments: ICRMW, CEDAW GR 26 and ILO Convention 189 on Domestic Work

4.5.1 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (ICRMW)

The principal international instrument that guarantees migrant persons’ rights is the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (ICRMW)\(^{60}\). It was approved unanimously by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1990, although 13 years would pass before it was ratified by the minimum number of Member States (20) in order to enter into force. The main problem facing the ICRMW is the low number of governments that have ratified it: as of March 2012, only 34 Member States were signatories and 45 parties to the Convention, the majority of which are migration countries of origin.

The Convention does not invent new rights. Instead, it gathers the general principles of human rights upheld by the six fundamental international instruments, and applies them directly to migrants and their families. In other words, instead of pronouncing new rights, the Convention lists those that already exist and extends them to migrants based on the principle of equality between all people. A key aspect – which could explain the reticence of destination countries to ratify the ICRMW – is the recognition of the rights of migrants whose residency status is irregular. The Convention does this by declaring that the basic principle of legal equality will be recognized for all persons, regardless of their migratory status. This does not mean that irregular migrants enjoy all the same rights as those who have the necessary work and/or residency permits in the destination country; nor does it mean that States are obligated to regularize their situation. The only thing it guarantees is access to basic rights, regardless of one’s migratory status.

Regarding migrant women, the Convention is the only instrument of its kind to use non-sexist language, explicitly specifying that each right applies to both women and men. However, the
ICRMW does not take into account the specific gender needs of migrant women, such as recognition of their greater vulnerability to various forms of sexual violence or special protections for domestic workers or sex workers (Jolly and Reeves 2005). This gap can be compensated for at least partially by appealing to other instruments, especially the CEDAW General Recommendation 26.

4.5.2 CEDAW General Recommendation 26

Unlike the ICRMW, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) is the second most ratified convention in the world (187 Member States), following the Declaration of the Rights of the Child. In the framework of CEDAW, a series of general recommendations have been launched in order to clarify certain aspects of women’s rights that warrant special consideration. Among these recommendations is the General Recommendation (GR 26) on women migrant workers, which was adopted in the 42nd session of the CEDAW Committee in November 2008.61

Key Protections of the Convention on Migrant Workers Applicable to both Regular and Irregular Migrants

- Reaffirmation of the principle of non-discrimination
- Right to equal pay and working conditions
- Right to emergency medical attention
- Right to education for their children
- Right to cultural identity
- Right to effective protection of the State against intimidation and violence
- Diplomatic protection

Protections Applicable only to Regular Migrants

- Same labor rights as national workers (including unemployment insurance, social security, and the right to unionize)
- Right to receive social services, health care, education and training
- Recognition of the right to family reunification (although the language is ambiguous: “States Parties shall take measures that they deem appropriate and that fall within their competence to facilitate the reunification”)
United African Women Association

Greece is a country that has recently become an immigration host country; hence, it is slowly and hesitantly developing its policies for migration management and migrant integration. African women are a numerically tiny part of the approximately 1 million immigrants who live in the country today. However, they are a population that suffers from the so-called double disadvantage of being a migrant and a woman. The United African Women Association (www.africanwomen.gr) is a small but very active NGO that was created in 2005 by the single initiative of a woman from Sierra Leone, who had realized how helpless she was in acting only on her own when she was made unemployed after 11 years of work without compensation.

The United African Women Association is a trans-national and inter-ethnic association that brings together women from a large number of African countries. The aim of the association is to create awareness on various issues concerning the African women and their children living in Greece, to support and fight for their rights and in particular for the rights of the second generation; to create mutual bonds of solidarity between Africans and Greeks; to explore and incorporate the rich African woman heritage into the rich Greek heritage; to work hand in hand with other NGOs and associations that stand for justice and combat racism.

The work of the association has been crucial in campaigning for the naturalization of second generation African children born in Greece (see www.kounia.org), contributing thus to the recent change in Greek law (March 2010). It has also made visible and respectable the different and rich cultural traditions of African women in migration festivals and fairs, organized in and around Athens. It has worked together with local authorities (e.g. the Municipality of Kesariani, the Municipality of Athens) and with migrant organisations’ networks (the Hellenic Forum of Migrants) providing a contact point for African women to receive information and participate in wider social and cultural activities concerning migration in Greece. The association also provides a friendly and welcoming place for women who suffer from domestic violence.

This association is an excellent example of women migrants’ transnational political and social activism in that it brings together women from different African countries who are united by their migration experiences and problems in Greece and also by their wish to make Greece a better home for them and their children.

Submitted by Anna Trandafyllidou, Hellenic Foundation for European and Foreign Policy (ELIAMEP), Greece

Good Practice #11: Greece

The CR 26 recognizes the importance of the increasing feminization of migration flows and identifies three categories of immigrant workers that require protection: (1) Women migrant workers who migrate independently; (2) Women migrant workers who join their spouses or other members of their families who are also workers; and/or (3) Undocumented women migrant workers who may fall into any of the above categories. The Recommendation encourages States to develop laws and policies to protect their rights as women, as workers, and as migrants.

In terms of the specific vulnerabilities of migrant women vs. those of migrant men, the CEDAW Committee recognizes that:

Although both men and women migrate, migration is not a gender-neutral phenomenon. The position of female migrants is different from that of male migrants in terms of legal migration channels, the sectors into which they migrate, the forms of abuse they suffer and the consequences thereof. To understand the specific ways in which women are impacted, female migration should be studied from the perspective of gender inequality, traditional female roles, a gendered labour market, the universal prevalence of gender-based violence and the worldwide feminization of poverty and labour migration. The integration of a gender perspective is, therefore, essential to the analysis of the position of female migrants and the development of policies to counter discrimination, exploitation and abuse (Paragraph 5).

General Recommendation 26 is an important instrument not only because of its broad geographic reach, but also because of the wide array of considerations it covers. It includes the different situations that foster discrimination against migrant women throughout the labor migration process, in origin, transit, and destination countries.
In **origin**, for example, GR 26 indicates that women may lack “reliable information on migration, which may lead to increased vulnerability in relation to employers” (Paragraph 10) or upon their return they may suffer stigma associated with women’s migration or gender-based discrimination, such as compulsory HIV and AIDS testing for women returnees (Paragraph 11).

GR 26 also recognizes that while migrant women are in **transit**, they are often more vulnerable to sexual and physical violence and abandonment of their escort (Paragraph 12), among other risks.

In **destination** countries, migrant women may be subject to multiple forms of discrimination. GR 26 recognizes, among others, that:

- Migrant women tend to be channeled toward “job opportunities that reflect familial and service functions ascribed to women or that are in the informal sector,” such as domestic work or certain forms of entertainment (Paragraph 13).
- Informality – and the corresponding difficulty of obtaining a binding contract – exposes women migrant workers to various types of exploitation (Paragraph 14).
- Visa terms often prohibit the woman migrant worker from changing employers even when suffering abusive treatment, lest she “become undocumented the minute she leaves her job” (Paragraph 15).
- Working conditions (for example, in factory, farm, or domestic work) may have negative effects on their health, while inequalities obstruct their access to health care services, especially reproductive health services (Paragraph 17).
- Women migrant workers may face dismissal from their job if they become pregnant, sometimes resulting in irregular immigration status and deportation (Paragraph 18).
- They are more vulnerable to sexual abuse, sexual harassment, and physical violence in their workplace, especially in domestic work (Paragraph 20).
- Their access to justice is limited by formal barriers (gaps in legal protection of women migrant workers) and practical barriers (language, not knowing rights, restrictions on mobility and telephone use) (Paragraph 21).
- Undocumented migrant women are especially vulnerable to exploitation, for example as forced labor, and their access to minimum labor rights may be limited by fear of denouncement (Paragraph 22).
After identifying these vulnerabilities, GR 26 emphasizes **measures that States should take** – whether they are origin, transit or destination countries – in order to uphold their responsibilities toward women migrant workers.

In origin, it recommends measures that include, for example, training for potential migrants, legal services, procedures and supervision of recruitment agencies, services for women who wish to return or who have already done so.

**Graphic 17.**
CEDAW General Recommendation 26

In transit countries, GR 26 recommends training, monitoring and supervising border police and immigration officials for gender-sensitivity and non-discriminatory practices when dealing with women migrants (Paragraph 25 a). It also encourages Member States that are transit countries to prevent, prosecute and punish all migration-related human rights violations that occur under their jurisdiction, whether perpetrated by public authorities or private actors (Paragraph 25 b).

The recommendations for destination countries include, among others: lifting of discriminatory bans or restrictions on immigration; legal protection for the rights of women migrant workers, including the freedom of movement and association; non-discriminatory family reunification schemes; monitoring systems of recruiting agents and employers; social inclusion, integration and protection policies for undocumented migrant women workers (Paragraph 26).
Despite the advances that GR 26 achieves, it is important to remember that it is a recommendation, which means that it acts as a non-binding set of guidelines. On the contrary, a convention, such as the recently approved ILO convention on domestic work, is an international treaty that is legally binding, whose basic principles must be applied in countries that ratify it.

4.5.3 ILO Convention 189 concerning Decent Work for Domestic Workers

In March 2008, following an international campaign spearheaded by global unions, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) made the historic move of placing the question of decent work for domestic workers on the agenda of the 2010 International Labour Conference. Since then, the ILO, in partnership with labor unions and organizations from many countries, worked to develop international standards to improve the legal framework regulating domestic work. That global campaign culminated in the approval of the Convention on Decent Work for Domestic Workers in the 100th International Labor Conference of the ILO in June 2011.62

The instrument, which now has to be ratified by the different Member States, seeks to guarantee domestic workers’ full enjoyment of fair pay, social security, equal treatment, right to organize and negotiate collectively, and the right to enjoy a life of dignity. When it is ratified by the minimum number of Member States and enters into force, it will be an important instrument that signatory governments can use to bring their national legislation into line with international standards of protection for domestic workers, including migrant domestic workers. The existence of this convention reinforces the efforts underway by many labor unions and civil society organizations to organize domestic workers and regulate their working conditions.63

Article 8 of Convention 189 draws attention to the particular situation of domestic workers who are migrants, stipulating that they be offered a written contract or job offer before migrating and that they enjoy the same rights as non-migrant domestic workers. Table 8 presents a summary of the protections included in the Convention.
Domestic Workers Recommendation 201, which accompanies Convention 189, establishes much more specific measures to ensure compliance with the provisions of the Convention. In addition, it goes into further detail on the measures that Member States should consider in order to guarantee women migrant workers’ rights. For example, it suggests “concluding bilateral, regional or multilateral agreements to provide, for migrant domestic workers covered by such agreements, equality of treatment in respect of social security, as well as access to and preservation or portability of social security entitlements” (Paragraph 20.2). It also encourages the adoption of additional measures to ensure their protection, such as:

Table 9. Summary of ILO Convention 189

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article</th>
<th>Topic</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1,2</td>
<td>Definitions, scope, flexibility clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,4</td>
<td>Human rights, fundamental principles and rights at work (freedom of association and right to collective bargaining, non-discrimination, prohibition of forced labor and ending child labor)</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Protection from abuse, harassment and violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Terms and conditions of employment, decent working and living conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Information on terms and conditions of work, written contracts where possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Protection of migrant domestic workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Entitlements of domestic workers who reside in the employer household, identity and travel documents, privacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Hours of work, overtime compensation, periods of daily and weekly rest, paid annual leave, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Minimum wage coverage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Salary protection, limit on in-kind payment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13,14</td>
<td>Occupational safety and health, social security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Protection against abusive practices of employment agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Access to courts and dispute resolution mechanisms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Access to complaint mechanisms and means of ensuring compliance with national laws</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Implementation of Convention</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Establishing a national hotline with interpretation services (21. 1. a)

Providing for a system of pre-placement visits to households in which migrant domestic workers are to be employed (21.1, b)

Developing a network of emergency housing (21. 1. c)

Raising employers’ awareness of their obligations (21. 1. d)

Securing access of domestic workers to complaint mechanisms and their ability to pursue legal civil and criminal remedies (21. 1. e)

Providing for a public outreach service to inform domestic workers, in languages understood by them, of their rights, relevant laws and regulations, available complaint mechanisms and legal remedies, concerning both employment and immigration law, as well as legal protection against crimes such as violence, trafficking in persons and deprivation of liberty (21. 1. f).

Table 10.
Summary of ILO Domestic Workers Recommendation 201

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article</th>
<th>Topic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Freedom of association and the right to collective bargaining</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3:4</td>
<td>Non-discrimination, medical testing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Identification and prohibition of dangerous domestic work for girls/children; protection for adolescent domestic workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Information on terms and conditions of employment, model contract of employment for domestic work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-13</td>
<td>Hours of work, including overtime, periods of standby, night work, periods of rest, paid annual leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14-15</td>
<td>Limits on in-kind payment, salary protection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Accommodation and food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Termination of employment for live-in domestic workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19, 20</td>
<td>Occupational safety and health, social security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21, 22, 23</td>
<td>Additional protections for migrant domestic workers, private employment agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Continuing development of competencies and qualifications, including literacy training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Work life balance needs, right to reconcile work and family responsibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collect data necessary to support effective policy-making regarding domestic work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>International cooperation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Importantly, Recommendation 201, like CEDAW GR 26, recognizes that countries of origin also play a key role as guarantors of the rights of their citizens abroad. In the case of domestic workers, Recommendation 201 exhorts them to inform workers on their rights prior to departure and to create legal assistance funds, social services, and specialized consular services.

Stop & Reflect

1. Do you know if your country has ratified the Convention on Migrant Workers and their Families? If not, why do you think it has not?
2. Do you know of any measures your government has taken to guarantee the rights of women migrant workers, as stipulated by CEDAW GR 26?
3. In your country, is there currently a campaign underway to ratify the ILO Convention 189? Currently, what national legislation exists to protect the labor rights of domestic workers?
4.6 Including Migrant Women’s Rights in the Migration-Development Agenda

In order to avoid the instrumentalization of migrants, we must not consider them as victims or “peons of global development” but rather as rights holders and agents of development. This involves the creation of mechanisms through which they can decide over development processes, including the content and objectives of interventions themselves, both in destination and origin countries. Likewise, migrants must be recognized as beneficiaries of development, which means ensuring that their living and working conditions are included as development concerns in countries of the global North as well.

Governments of origin countries are becoming more aware of the need to conduct outreach to their citizens abroad in order to guarantee the protection of their rights, which is extending the notion of citizenship as something that can be exercised beyond national borders. For this to be possible, it is important for migrants to be organized and informed, while also being able to count on the support of their own government institutions while residing abroad.

Toward this end, the following recommendations are offered:

- Promote the organization of migrant women in social and civic groups and strengthen existing groups, especially migrant associations, so that women can claim their rights within and from these spaces.
- Promote the right to political representation of migrants living abroad in their home country, with equal access, participation and representation of women and men.
- Carry out policy advocacy so that States modify and standardize their national legislation in accordance with the treaties they have signed, especially those that are relevant to migrant women’s rights, such as CEDAW GR 26, the ICRMW, and ILO Convention 189. Create policies and programs that enable migrant women to exercise their rights in origin, transit, and destination countries.
- Facilitate civic education for migrants so they know their rights and come to recognize themselves as rights holders.

Similarly, efforts must be made to ensure that migration policies are gender sensitive. The Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), which recently published a Guide on Gender-Sensitive Labour Migration Policies (2009), offers the following recommendations (paraphrased here):

- In order to assess the need for foreign labor, generate data on gender and more detailed information on specific labor market sectors where women are concentrated. Include domestic work and private care-related services so that labor recruitment and admission
policies can better reflect current demand. Such measures would also help reduce the number of female migrants working in irregular employment situations.

- Develop permanent and temporary migration channels that offer equal access to women. Non-recognition of the demand for care workers as well as the lack of social value placed on this work means that women generally do not receive many points in the recruitment systems based on the assignment of points according to qualifications. Some measures to be considered for these point-based systems are the recognition of women’s role as primary caregivers and the relaxation of strict age and work experience thresholds.

- The validity of a work visa should not be limited to a specific employer and migrant workers should be allowed to change their place of employment to reduce dependency on a particular employer and enable workers to escape situations of abuse should they arise.

- Offer services to female migrant workers, such as special assistance with administrative processes, access to integration services, language and skills upgrading courses, and civil and legal services. These services should be sensitive to the reality of the labor sectors in which migrant women work (for example, by opening on Sundays, which tends to be the day of rest for domestic workers).

**Good Practice #12: Ecuador**

**Political Representation of Migrants in their Home Country**

The 2008 Constitution of Ecuador made significant strides on topics related to human mobility, by addressing needs of transnational families and rights of its citizens who reside abroad. Among other rights, it advocates for the principle of universal citizenship and the free movement of all its residents. In this way, the Constitution obliges the State to develop actions through the relevant entities that make it possible for Ecuadorians living abroad to exercise their rights, regardless of their migratory status, and to provide assistance for them and their families.

This recognition of the political right of migrants to political representation paved the way for Linda Machuca Moscoso, representative of the Ecuadorian diaspora in the U.S. and Canada, to be able to work with her counterparts in Ecuador to incorporate a gender perspective into the Human Mobility Law in her country, while also working to address problems facing the Ecuadorian immigrant community in the U.S. Among other initiatives, she is promoting the migrant community’s exercise of their right to vote and access to higher education distance learning. She also uses her voice to denounce abuse against Ecuadorians living in the U.S. and Canada.
Bilateral labor migration agreements should include two different types of provisions which can benefit female migrant workers: (a) general **good practices** that have a positive impact on women, such as protective provisions in sectors not covered by national labor law, e.g., domestic work; and (b) **gender-specific measures** such as gender impact assessments of the agreements; including gender advisers with expertise on migration at all stages, from creation to implementation of such agreements; and gender sensitivity training for all staff involved in the process.

Develop **ethical recruitment codes**, such as government-to-government agreements on recruitment of nurses and other health care professionals in order to avoid the negative effects such as “brain drain” in this sector, which may have particular consequences for women’s health in countries of origin (especially in contexts of high prevalence of HIV, high maternal mortality, etc.).

State agencies and non-state organizations in countries of origin should provide **pre-employment and pre-departure orientation** to prospective women labor migrants, possibly through embassies and consulates, taking into account women’s greater vulnerability and risk of suffering sexual abuse while in transit, and of being trafficked or otherwise exploited in destination countries.

### 4.6.1 Advocacy Approaches: Bilateral Agreements and Women Migrant Workers

**Background: Bilateral Agreements as Macro Level Policies Impacting Gender and Labor Migration**

As mentioned in the previous sections on the need to develop gender sensitive migration policies on multiple levels, bilateral labor migration agreements can be used as a tool, amongst others, to advocate for rights protections for women migrant workers. Yet the trend towards ‘managing’ labor migration through private agreements and labor market needs also threatens to undermine international human and labor rights standards. The growing reliance on often non-transparent bilateral cooperation for women’s labor migration is part of the privatization of migration aimed at maximizing economic benefits from migrant workers. In countries where migrants are being seen as a threat, the securitization of migration combines with this drive for labor market demands to override the human rights of migrant women.64 Currently, very few bilateral agreements include gender-sensitive elements and are not necessarily within frameworks to protect rights.65,66 Many agreements are also informal Memoranda of Understanding (see Box below), which lack ways to operationalize and implement them. In practice, the gender-blind nature and lack of implementation of agreements can reproduce gender stereotypes and vulnerabilities in several ways:
By limiting agreements for migrant women to domestic work

Not addressing changes needed in national labor laws of destination countries that exclude domestic workers

Neglecting measures and redress for specific challenges that women face: Needs for gender-sensitive standard contracts, discrimination, personal safety, access to sexual and reproductive health, sexual harassment or abuse, and living and working conditions inside an employer’s home

In terms of development, there is little clear relation of bilateral agreements to development outcomes, particularly long-term human development (see Guide 1). The nature and impacts of bilateral agreements vary highly by the macro level conditions such as degree of dependency or economic disparity between the sending and receiving country. For many developed countries, particularly, bilateral agreements may play a greater role in meeting security and trade cooperation goals rather than achieving sustainable development. Promoting the rights of migrant workers can be traded off for short-term labor channels among sending countries in competition with one another. This might prevent states from signing or implementing relevant human and labor rights conventions (including ILO Convention 189 on Domestic Workers and the Migrant Workers Convention) in return for labor market access.

The Special Rapporteur for the human rights of migrants notes the “challenges in ensuring transparency and the human rights dimensions in bilateral agreements and in monitoring their human rights impact, as they are forms of private agreement between States and subject to the aforementioned power asymmetries between negotiating States.”

Deciding to engage bilateral agreements as an advocacy strategy, then, requires analyzing gender, labor rights and human rights outcomes at a macro-level as discussed in Guide One of this manual. To analyze the ways that bilateral negotiations between sending and receiving governments impact women migrant workers means considering:

- Analysis of national labor markets trends- including disaggregated data by age and sex
- Changing demographics of labor market participation- disaggregated by age and sex
- The social organization of care and human rights impacts- by State, market, non-profit sector and households
Advocating for Normative Frameworks for Gender Sensitive Bilateral Labor Migration Agreements

Convention on the Elimination of All Form Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) 1979

International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (ICMW) 1990

The ILO Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97) recommends bilateral labor arrangements as good practice to govern labor migration between countries and to protect the rights of migrant workers.

The accompanying ILO Recommendation, 1949 (No. 86) includes a Model Agreement of Temporary and Permanent Employment with provisions including employment contracts reducing remittance costs, and equal treatment.

ILO Migrant Workers Convention, 1975 (No. 143)

ILO Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189)

ILO Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 (No. 181)

ILO Multilateral Framework on Labour: non-binding principles and guidelines for a rights-based approach to labour migration

Agreements between states on the coordination of labor migration take several forms, of which bilateral agreements are the most detailed and legally binding form. The table below outlines the distinction between the two main agreement types, bilateral agreements and Memoranda of Understanding, as well as other mechanisms of cooperation.

Table 10.
Types of Agreements on Labor Migration Cooperation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bilateral Agreement (BA)</th>
<th>Memorandum of Understanding (MOU)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Treaty between states, under the 1969 Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties</td>
<td>Less formal international instrument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legally binding, defining rights and obligations of each party</td>
<td>Not legally binding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Requires ratification by states</td>
<td>Does not require ratification by states</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Details specific responsibilities and actions for each party</td>
<td>Draws general principles of mutual cooperation, goals, and plans shared by parties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expires after a time period</td>
<td>Often used to set regulation of technical matters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent on national legislation and legal frameworks for protection of rights(^\text{77})</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
OTHER TYPES OF AGREEMENTS/COOPERATION MECHANISMS:

- Framework agreements
- Inter-Agency Understanding (IAU)
- Protocols- amend existing agreements
- Seasonal worker agreements
- Statements of mutual labor cooperation
- Anti-trafficking agreements
- Trainee schemes
- Multilateral agreements- Mode 4 on Movement of natural person of GATT (General Agreement on Trade in Services)

Some of the above forms of bilateral cooperation can often normalize gendered labor roles, provide inadequate access to social protection, offer minimal access to residency, and heighten remittance dependency.

Overall Trends

In 2010, there were 105.4 million labor migrants worldwide, many of whom fall under bilateral agreements as temporary migrants. As mentioned earlier, bilateral agreements need to be assessed for their capacity to protect or further hinder gender-sensitive and rights protections for women migrant workers. There is a need for more research of the long-term impacts of agreements, particularly from a gender perspective.

Graphic 18.
Total Bilateral Labor Migration Agreements in Force, 1960-2010
Through 2015, there are 317 known bilateral agreements, including 112 by the US, Canada, Australia and 177 by countries now part of the EU. Agreements are thus concentrated among developed countries.

The period of 1990-2009 saw the greatest numbers of agreements signed at approximately 216

However, countries are 17 times more likely on average to participate in bilateral trade agreements than in labor migration agreements.

### Table 11.
**Global Overview of Good Practices in Study of 147 Bilateral Labor Migration Agreements and Memoranda of Understanding**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Good Practice</th>
<th>Agreements for Africa</th>
<th>Agreements for Asia-Pacific</th>
<th>Agreements for Europe &amp; the Americas</th>
<th>Total Global Agreements [Total=147]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Transparency and publicity, awareness creation about provisions</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Reference to international human rights instruments and normative foundations</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Provisions to protect migrant workers from recruitment malpractices, in origin and destination</td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Address gender concerns, particularly for those not covered by labor laws in destination</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Coverage of wage protection measures; ex. timely payment, allowable deductions, overtime</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Concrete and enforceable provisions relating to employment contracts and protections</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Provision for skills development</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Concrete implementation, monitoring and evaluation procedures</td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Prohibition of confiscation of travel and identity documents</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Provide social security and health care benefits</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Incorporation of concrete mechanisms for complaints and dispute resolution procedures, and access to justice</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Provision for free transfer of savings and remittances</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Good practice

**The Philippines-Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Bilateral Agreement on Migrant Domestic Workers**

The 2013 Agreement on Domestic Worker Recruitment between the Philippines and the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) is a ground-breaking agreement for the protection of migrant workers, particularly domestic workers. It promotes long-term human development goals by upholding the rights of migrant domestic workers. The agreement promotes cooperation to:

1. Regulate recruitment
2. Provide standardized contracts
3. Ensure recruiters are licensed
4. Reduce recruitment costs
5. Require that employers pay recruitment costs
6. Establish appeal measures for domestic workers
7. Promote legal action against violations
8. Resolve issues in enforcement of agreement

A key factor in the effectiveness of the rights protection elements is the management and implementation of the agreement by the government of the Philippines. At the structural level of actors, inter-ministerial sub-committees were created. At the substantive level of outcomes, activities include cross-agency data harmonization as well as training and recruitment with NGO’s and partners.  

**Recommendations for Bilateral Agreements and Memoranda of Understanding**

1. **Normative human and labor rights frameworks**
   - Clearly defined human and labor rights provisions or reference to existing international standards and normative frameworks, particularly CEDAW General Recommendation 26 on women migrant workers, ILO Convention 189, and the Migrant Workers Convention
   - In accordance with CEDAW GR 26, states should share best practices to protect the rights of women migrant workers and provide information about and prosecute perpetrators who violate the rights of women migrant workers
   - Fair work and wage conditions
   - Monitoring of human rights impacts
   - Information for migrant workers and employers of their rights and obligations

2. **Greater transparency of negotiations**
   - Broader consultative processes with stakeholders, including civil society, migrant workers and their families, and trade unions in development, implementation, and evaluation.
   - Agreements made available online
4. Gender sensitive provisions

- Equal access gender policy extending labor migration channels for women outside feminized sectors such as construction, agriculture, and manufacturing.
- Promoting the trend in developing domestic worker-specific agreements.
- Countries of destination extend labour laws to domestic workers with provisions from the ILO Convention on Domestic Work (C.189).
- Attention to specific problems women migrant workers face should be included even in agreements covering all workers, including gender aspects of:
  - Working and Living Conditions:
    - Sexual harassment
    - Night work
    - Access to health services, including sexual and reproductive health
    - Social protections
  - Policies and Practices:
    - Model standard contracts in agreements
    - Non-discrimination clauses
    - Redress mechanisms
    - Gender sensitive training for staff carrying out implementation of agreements

5. Implementing guidelines and monitoring mechanisms of bilateral agreements

- Detailed guidelines that expound on specific provisions to better address the vulnerabilities of women migrant workers.
- Explicitly prescribe joint monitoring by the two parties on compliance to the implementing guidelines.

Stop & Reflect

1. In your context, what are some of the challenges and opportunities in utilizing bilateral agreements and memoranda of understanding as an advocacy strategy to promote the rights of migrant women workers?

2. What are the long-term and short-term gender impacts and human rights outcomes of this approach?
4.6.2 Advocacy Approaches: Global Processes

Background

Since the ratification of the Migrant Workers Convention in 2003, numerous forums have emerged highlighting the need for greater global governance of migration. In addition to bilateral processes, there has been a drive towards broader global and regional cooperation on migration. International migration in these global convergences is often framed as a vehicle for development, but is increasingly recognized also as a result of ineffective development policies. The adoption of the Sustainable Development Goals in 2015 amplifies this link between migration and development with SDG Goal 10.7 calling for orderly migration through well-managed policies. Given that there is no formal institutional framework to regulate state’s responses to international migration, global processes on migration and development can be a means to advocate for more coherent policies that center human rights and gender perspectives and action.

However, there has been inadequate attention to addressing the rights of women migrant workers in key global and regional intergovernmental processes. The Global Forum on Migration and Development, the key intergovernmental forum on migration and development has only since 2010 begun to address the issue of care workers, and has called for mainstreaming gender equality and women’s rights in migration into all its round tables, which has not occurred to date. The 2030 agenda for Sustainable Development under goal five on gender equality limits its focus to the trafficking of women and girls. The International Conference on Population and Development Beyond 2014 process is a clear opportunity to address migration as a distinct issue, but there is a need to address gender equality and women’s rights outside the mainstream discourse on migration. Trends in regional intergovernmental processes such as ASEAN, Mercosur and the Interstate institution EurAsEC (Eurasian Economic Community) are similar. Marginalizing the gender dimensions of migration is rooted in a lack of understanding of the significance of addressing the issue as well as the capacity on how to address it concretely in policy formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

Nevertheless, processes such as the annual Global Forum on Migration and Development have opened up some space for participation by civil society networks, migrant women’s organization and trade unions to influence the agenda in an otherwise state-led and closed process. This growing advocacy has resulted in some important achievements in the last years. The original framework of many global and regional processes, like bilateral processes, relies on ‘migration for development’ (see Guide 2 on the ‘remittances for development’ model), ‘circular’ (temporary) migration, and ‘managed migration’ approaches. This model led to limited focus on migrant and diaspora women as entrepreneurs and agents of development. Organized advocacy has shifted this in recent years towards raising the human and labor rights, social protections, and the agency of migrant women. Within parallel civil society processes, gender is also increasingly highlighted into the dialogues as a crosscutting issue across thematic areas.
In 2016, with the convergence of the UN General Assembly High Level Summit to Address Large Movements of Refugees and Migrants, global governance of migration will likely undergo significant changes in the coming years. In particular, if economic or labor migration is to be governed by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and with the development of a Global Compact on Migration Governance, the Special Rapporteur on the human rights of migrants and advocates have called for migration governance to entail “a solid basis in the international human rights framework.”

As the future of the governance of migration evolves, global processes can be important vehicles to exchange good practices and develop concrete policy platforms to protect and secure women migrant workers’ rights. Continued advocacy is needed to make these processes transparent and participatory, to monitor their outcomes from both gender and rights perspective and support the participation of migrant women’s organizations. An ongoing challenge and task will be to advocate for processes that are fully rights-centered, transparent, hold binding outcomes, and have mechanisms for accountability. This section presents an overview of some of the key global and regional processes, along with gaps and opportunities to continue to strengthen advocacy for gender equality within migration and development.

Stop & Reflect

1. In your context, what is the level of engagement of migrant rights organizations, states and private sector actors in global and regional processes?

2. Considering the possibilities of how women’s labor migration is currently or should be governed more coherently globally, what are ways to strengthen gender and rights based outcomes?
   a. Institutionally- what governance should look like and who is responsible?
   b. Normatively- what are the relevant human rights frameworks and conventions?
   c. Politically- what are the challenges and opportunities to mobilize political will?
Overview of global processes on migration and development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Year Initiated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UN High Level Dialogue on Migration and Development</td>
<td>The Secretary General established the Global Migration Group (GMG) as an interagency coordination mechanism among 15 entities of the UN system and the IOM</td>
<td>2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Forum on Migration and Development</td>
<td>Voluntary, State-led and non-binding</td>
<td>2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable Development Goals</td>
<td>Follow from the Millennium Development Goals (2000) and not legally binding</td>
<td>2015</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

UN High Level Dialogue on Migration and Development

In advancing the Rio+20 Conference on Sustainable Development, the first High Level Dialogue on Migration and Development was held in September 2006. An outcome of the 2006 HLD was the creation of the voluntary, state-led and non-binding Global Forum on Migration and Development (GMFD) and the creation of the Global Migration Group (GMG) by the Secretary-General to promote the wider application of international and regional instruments and norms to encourage better coordinated inter-agency approaches. The second HLD was held in 2013 during the 68th Session of the General Assembly.

The proceedings generated two main outcome documents: the Secretary-General’s Report including the ‘Eight Point Agenda for Action’ and the resolution of a ‘Declaration of the HLD on International Migration and Development’ adopted by the General Assembly. The SG report provides several opportunities to mainstream gender across migration and development issues. First, it calls for ensuring “an age and gender-sensitive and rights-based approach to international migration.” Second, it recognizes migration as a potential source of empowerment and greater gender equality in countries of origin. While the Eight Point Agenda makes no specific mention of gender aspects of migration, it highlights areas for action that can be used to advocate for the specific issues of women migrant workers related to: reducing recruitment and other costs for migrants, integrating migration into development, and strengthening data collection which can include sex disaggregated migration data. The Declaration adopted by the General Assembly does raise specific gender perspectives in sections 10, 11, and 12.
Key Opportunities to Advocate for Women Migrant Workers\textsuperscript{81,82,83}

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY-GENERAL INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT\textsuperscript{92}

Recommendations:
- States to reaffirm the protection of the human rights of all migrants, particularly considering gender and its vulnerabilities;
- Protect female migrants from gender-based discrimination and violence at each stage of the migration process and at the workplace, particularly related to access to sexual and reproductive health.

Eight-Point Agenda for Action:
1. Protect the human rights of all migrants
2. Reduce the costs of labor migration
3. Eliminate migrant exploitation, including human trafficking
4. Address the plight of stranded migrants
5. Improve public perceptions of migrants
6. Integrate migration into the development agenda
7. Strengthen the migration evidence base
8. Enhance migration partnerships and cooperation

DECLARATION OF THE HIGH LEVEL DIALOGUE ON INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT\textsuperscript{93}

General points of relevance to women migrant workers:
- Recognize the Important role of migrants as partners in development
- Respect and promote international labor standards
- To adopt a comprehensive approach on migration issues in the post-2015 development agenda

Specific reference to gender and migration:
- \#10. Promote and protect the human rights of all migrant, regardless of their migration status, especially those of women and children. Address solutions through international, regional, and bilateral coordination, avoiding approaches that may aggravate vulnerabilities.
- \#11. Incorporate a gender perspective into policies bolstering national laws that address gender-based violence and discrimination and human trafficking.
- \#12. Establish measures to protect women migrant workers in all sectors, including domestic work

Gaps to Address

While the 2013 HLD outcomes address gender equality and protections for women migrant workers in a general way, it is vague regarding short and long term priority human and labor rights measures that should be addressed through national policies and coordination (bilateral, regional, and global). The promotion of bilateral coordination, specifically, can be inconsistent as a rights promotion process for migrant women without clearly calling for rights and gender-sensitive frameworks and accountability systems within them. In addition, much of the reference to gender perspectives is within a limited framework of ‘vulnerabilities’, trafficking, sexual and reproductive health, and gender-based violence. The gender approach should be more broadly defined, particularly for developing national policies across social, economic, and political outcomes. This can include clear labor protection for informal and feminized work sectors, social protections, removing gendered barriers to accessing justice, raising political agency, and addressing the criminalization of migrant women in both regular and irregular channels.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ADVOCACY STRATEGIES and RECOMMENDATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Engage in ongoing preparatory events</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and processes to raise gender and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rights issues to shape the agenda and</td>
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<td>thematic roundtables.</td>
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<td>In regional and global preparatory meetings by member states, UN agencies or civil society organizations</td>
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<td>In Regional Consultative Process (RCP’s)</td>
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<tr>
<td>During and after the Civil Society Days- Informal, interactive hearings with NGO’s, civil society, and the private sector</td>
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<td><strong>Monitor and utilize reports and</strong></td>
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<td>statements as advocacy tools.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Report of the Secretary-General on International Migration and Development (Sept. 2014)</td>
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<td>Statements of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Engage in efforts to implement the Civil</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Society 5-Year 8-Point Plan of Action</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Launched at UN HLD in 2013 and welcomed by many governments and the UN in debates framing the future of a number of global policies and national initiatives on migration and development:</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>On Human Development</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Ensuring migrants’ and migration’s rightful place on the post-2015 development agenda</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Engaging migrants and diaspora as entrepreneurs, social investors and policy advocates in development</td>
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<td><strong>On the Rights of Migrants</strong></td>
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<td>3. Addressing protection needs of migrants stranded in distress and transit</td>
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<td>4. Addressing vulnerabilities, rights and empowerment of women and children in the context of human mobility</td>
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<td><strong>On Migration Governance and Partnerships</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Promoting the implementation of national legislation reflecting international standards regarding migrants and their families (in particular with regards to enforcement policies, social protection and due process)</td>
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<td>6. Redefining the interactions of international mechanisms for migrants’ rights protection</td>
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<td><strong>On Labor Mobility and Recruitment</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Regulating the migrant labor recruitment industry and labor mobility mechanisms</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Guaranteeing the labor rights of migrants</td>
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The Global Forum on Migration and Development (GFMD)

The GFMD is an initiative of UN Member States to address the migration and development interconnections in practical and action-oriented ways. It operates as an informal, non-binding, voluntary and government-led process. The GFMD builds upon international dialogue including through the Global Commission on International Migration (2003-2005) and the UN HLD in 2006 where the creation of the GFMD was endorsed by a majority of the General Assembly. The GFMD describes itself as a more flexible space that understands the limits of a strictly national approach to migration questions. While its non-binding and informal draw greater participation by states, particularly from migrant-receiving states, it also creates major gaps in securing outcomes and accountability to commitments. Organizations, trade unions, and researchers for the rights of migrant workers and women have played an increasing role, including participating in the Civil Society Days (CSD) and its ‘Common Space’ interaction with governments. In 2015 at the CSD of the GFMD in Istanbul, a special role for a Rapporteur on Women was established and chosen among civil society delegates. This has been a significant development by migrant women’s organizations that have advocated for a crosscutting analysis of migration and development throughout the GFMD to add to the earlier format wherein ‘women and children’ were discussed typically as a stand-alone thematic area. The Women Rapporteur and accompanying outcome paper ‘bridging’ gender across migration will be incorporated in the ninth GFMD in Bangladesh in 2016 with intentions to remain a permanent modality of the Civil Society Days.

Key Opportunities to Advocate for Women Migrant Workers95,96,97

GFMD ANNUAL OUTCOME DOCUMENTS98
[Documents Library which may be filtered by gender and other themes: http://www.gfmd.org/docs]

2007: the 1st GFMD in Belgium- “Migration and Socioeconomic Development”
- Promote gender-based development policies and practices
- Protect mainly female, but also male, migrants

2008: The 2nd GFMD in the Philippines- “Protecting and Empowering Migrants for Development”
- Issues raised by the trafficking of women
- Need to expand research on women’s migration

2009: The 3rd GFMD in Greece- “The Integration of Migration Policies into Development Strategies for the Benefit of All”
- A mandate to prevent the exploitation of migrant women and combat multiple discrimination
- Promote cooperation with gender focused NGOs on migration and development in sending and receiving countries
Key Opportunities to Advocate for Women Migrant Workers

2010: The 4th GFMD in Mexico- “Partnerships for Migration and Human Development- Shared Prosperity- Shared Responsibility”

- Needs of women victims of human trafficking
- Challenges in gender aspects of migration related to preventing the breakdown of families and vulnerabilities of women and child migrants
- A pre-GFMD High-level consultation on “Protecting and Promoting the Rights of Women Migrant Workers” that recommended:
  - Recognizing domestic work as work and providing labor and social protections
  - Protections for women migrant workers in bilateral and multilateral agreements
  - Strengthening the capacity of women migrant workers’ associations

2011: The 5th GFMD in Switzerland- “Taking Action on Migration and Development- Coherence, Capacity, and Cooperation”

- In cluster 1 on “Labour Mobility and Development”, call to focus on global care workers at the interface of migration and development
- Two regional meetings in Africa and the Caribbean on domestic workers to expanding good practices and complementing debates at the International Labour Conference on social security benefits and national networks of domestic worker representatives

2012: The 6th GFMD in Mauritius- “Enhancing the Human Development of Migrants and their Contribution to the Development of Communities and States”

- Need for gender-disaggregated data to counter discrimination
- Focus attention on gender aspects of migration, including removing bans on women (based on age, occupation, and pregnancy) and information for ‘women-friendly’ migration channels
- Give special attention to lower-skilled women migrant women, particularly domestic workers
- Roundtable 3.3: Protecting Migrant Domestic Workers: Enhancing their Development Potential
  - Countries to adopt action plans to ratify ILO Convention 189
  - Gender equality as a theme for the 2013 UN High Level Dialogue
  - Launching a gender responsive checklist on the GFMD website as a guide for governments

2013-2014: The 7th GFMD in Sweden- “Unlocking the Potential of Migration for Inclusive Development”

- The importance for gender-sensitive policies that allow diaspora and migrants to organize themselves and set their own advocacy goals
- The need to take into account gender equality outcomes when assessing the impacts of financial and social remittances on health and education
- Enhancing labor and skills matching for women and men migrants
- Engaging women as major recipients of remittances to invest in health and education


- The need for tools and capacity building for governments, employers, unions, civil society and law enforcement for gender sensitive policies and implementation to protect women migrant workers
- The implementation and follow-up process for the 2030 agenda should look beyond targets directly mentioning migration to those across the agenda that affect migration, including gender
Key Opportunities to Advocate for Women Migrant Workers

- Importance to raise migrant women’s economic participation, particularly the role of women diaspora entrepreneurship
- On human mobility: to develop proper pre-departure awareness training for migrants on the rights they are entitled to, provide access to health care, to negotiate bilateral labor migration agreements that incorporate human and labor rights and establish mechanisms to monitor them and to raise best practices on fair recruitment initiatives and monitoring
- A third thematic meeting prior to the GFMD on “Recognizing the Contributions of Women Migrants to Economic and Social Development in Countries of Origin and Destination and Dressing their Specific Needs” that discussed:
  - Acknowledging the economic, social, and political contributions of women migrant workers in countries of origin, transit and destination
  - Addressing the structural barriers faced by women migrant workers including labor abuses, lack of health and educational services, and violence (physical, psychological, and sexual)
  - Ensuring women migrant workers have access to legal mechanisms to claim rights
  - The need for standard employment contracts to meet the minimum standards of ILO Convention 189 and include social protections and enforcement mechanisms

2016: The 9th GFDM in Bangladesh- “Migration that works for Sustainable Development for All: Towards a Transformative Migration Agenda” plans to address:

- Gender norms along with political, economic, environmental, and cultural factors as drivers of migration
- Need for greater gender sensitivity in laws, policies, and institutions due to the increased migration of women in all skill levels
- Defining migration’s specific contribution to SDGs so as to form human rights based and gender-sensitive policies to realize these
- Addressing gender-specific vulnerabilities of migrant women across all relevant SDG targets beyond those with migration components
- Reducing gender disparities by lowering financial and remittance transfer costs of migration as women migrant workers tend to be paid less
- Tackling xenophobia and the added gender-stereotype discrimination women migrants face
- How Regional Economic Communities (RECs) and Regional Trade Agreements (RTAs) can advance the mobility of women and men

8th GFMD in Turkey: Civil Society Days-GFMD Rapporteur on Women Report

1. Comprehensiveness of a gender analysis of migration and women in migration, not only migrant women. A gender perspective should explore differential roles and power of women and men in societies that intersect with religion, race, ethnicity, age, national status, sexual orientation, gender identity and other factors.
2. The centrality of the crisis of reproduction wherein the social reproduction of the family and global care chains rely on the unpaid and underpaid labor of women which require solutions beyond the circular migration programs for care workers that can be highly exploitative.
3. The need to address the concerns of domestic workers and trafficked women and girls, and challenges governments to address policies beyond these sectors and those that do not see women as only ‘victims’, at times leading to policies such as gender and age restrictions that create greater barriers.
4. Migrant women as bearers of rights and not simply “agents of development”, including recognizing migrant women’s political and social agency as well.
5. Makes specific recommendations cutting across all thematic sessions:
Key Opportunities to Advocate for Women Migrant Workers

6. The expansion of safe channels of migration and respect rights at borders
7. Labor rights and decent work
8. Recognition of women in the informal economy as legitimate work with labor rights
9. The ability of women to claim status independently from spouses and employers
10. State’s obligations to prevent, promote, and protect women’s right to freedom from violence
11. Freedom of women as leaders to speak out, organize, and defend their rights, highlighting particular penalties faced by domestic workers who organize in Gulf countries and calling for measures to defend women human rights defenders
12. Access to sexual and reproductive health
13. Access to social services and justice regardless of status

Additional recommendations are specific to each thematic area: The SDG’s, Forced and Dangerous Migration, reforming Migrant Labor Practices, and Migrant Empowerment.

Gaps to Address:

A significant challenge with the GFMD process is its mandate as a state-led process outside of the UN system with no binding outcomes. In addition, no clear mechanisms are outlined on commitments to hold states accountable on rights protections for women migrant workers. A fundamental concern in such a state-driven model with the private sector is the GFMD’s overarching market-driven and neoliberal model of development that frames the approach to migration. Conceptually, the GFMD since its origins has centered an instrumental approach of migration as a tool for development. For example, increasing economic remittance potentials of women migrant workers has remained a primary focus throughout. In this regard, gender equality for women migrant workers who tend to earn less than men is limited to reducing remittance and recruitment costs rather than raising the responsibilities of states and the private sector to increase wages and protections through national policies or rights-based standards contracts. This reliance on the remittances for development model (see Guide 1) is amplified in the growing attention given to the empowerment of migrant women through promoting entrepreneurship and investments by diaspora women. While this can be one avenue for economic autonomy, the remittance model and aim to highlight the ‘wins’ of migration undermines the need to center migrant women as bearers of rights first and foremost.

Gender-specific forms of discrimination and exploitation women migrant workers face must be addressed more centrally with measures for accountability as well as the fundamental responsibilities of states to ensure migrant women enjoy the benefits of sustainable development. In recent years civil society and UN agencies in particular have been somewhat successful in shifting the GFMD's framework from a market-driven to more of a human rights approach. In this regard, the first thematic discussions on protecting and promoting the rights and agency of migrant women workers began in 2010 and have remained with some consistency in annual discussions. While significant progress has been made to complement the ratification of ILO Convention 189 on domestic workers within GFMD processes since 2010-2011, there has tended to be a focus solely on domestic workers over many other labor sectors and channels that women migrate for, such as agricultural work, processing, manufacturing, and entertainment, including sex work. The continued role of the private sector and emphasis on ‘migration management’, including labor and skills matching, means that discussion of a rights-based perspective in labor migration is not guaranteed.

Finally, the more visible and organized presence of migrant rights organizations and trade unions driving advocacy within the GFMD has led to greater recognition of the agency of migrant women and their organizations beyond economic remittances to social and political contributions. Given this and the fact the GFMD has been the primary global space for formulation of migration policies and practices, civil society, trade unions, and human rights actors need to consistently advocate for a paradigm shift to address root causes, apply a human development rather than neoliberal framework, and center the promotion and protection of genuinely gender-responsive and rights-based policies for women migrant workers.
**ADVOCACY STRATEGIES and RECOMMENDATIONS**

**Utilize the Platform for Partnership (PfP) that highlights government policies and programs influenced by GFMD discussions:**

The platform includes links to migration and development policy tools, calls for action and project ideas, migration profiles of countries, a networking directory and a "Migration and Development Policy and Practice Database".

The interactive map showcases hundreds of migration & development policies and best practices by over 170 governments by region. The map can be filtered by 'gender' as a thematic area among others highlighting gender-sensitive migration policies at national and local levels:

- Ex. Greece: The General Secretariat for Gender Equality (Ministry of Interior) produced a guide for migrant women on rights at work, to health, and to social security.
- Ex. Sri Lanka: the Ministry of Foreign Employment Promotion and Welfare launched required trainings for women domestic workers that upgrade their skills and recognition leading to higher minimum wages.

Link: http://www.gfmd.org/pfp/ppd

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**Engage in ongoing preparatory events and processes to raise gender and rights issues to shape the agenda and thematic roundtables:**

- In regional and global GFMD preparatory meetings held by member states, UN agencies, or civil society organizations.
- In Regional Consultative Process (RCP)’s.
- Within in the Civil Society Days and ‘Common Space’ with governments:
  - Hold side events on migrant women’s rights.
  - Promote gender analysis and outcomes as a cross-cutting approach and the permanent creation of a gender rapporteur and outcome reports.
  - Build capacity for migrant women’s organizations to engage and present on substantive issues, models of local campaigns, and strategies for rights promotion.
Collaborate with migrant rights civil society networks and movements engaged in campaigns at local, national, and global levels:

- The People’s Global Action on Migration, Development, and Human Rights (PGA)- An independent civil society event parallel to the states-led Global Forum on Migration and Development process
- The 2016 People’s Global Action in Dhaka includes a thematic track on gender and migration
- The Global Coalition on Migration, including networks from all regions engaged in migrant women’s rights campaigns
- International Network on Migration and Development
- Migrant Forum in Asia
- The Pan-African Network in Defense of Migrant Rights
- Allianzas Americas (North and Latin America)
- Platform for the International Cooperation on Undocumented Migrants (Europe)
- Transnational Migrant Platform (Europe)
- Solidarity Center (U.S.)
- Global Migration Policy Associates
- Women in Migration Network (WIMN)

Engage diverse actors in partnerships and action for decent migrant labor recruitment and employment

- Fair Recruitment Initiative launched by International Labour Organization, International Trade Union Council- Research in action, reports on regulatory approaches, building good practices in line with international standards, and empowering and protecting workers
- Video: Fair Recruitment Matters, ILO
- **Open Working Group on Labor Migration and Recruitment**- for ongoing civil society and private sector action including trainings on ethical recruitment, front-line services, and resources

Migrants in Countries in Crisis Initiative (MICIC)

In 2016, the MICIC Guidelines to Protect Migrants in Countries Experiencing Conflict or Natural Disaster was released presenting fifteen guidelines with concrete practices and identification of actors for each.

Recommendations include targeted interventions for vulnerable migrants, including women and domestic workers, and gender-sensitive procedures in reception centers, camps, and in service delivery programs.
Migration and the Sustainable Development Goals

With the adoption of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in September 2015, migration was included for the first time in global development agenda. Under the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDG’s) and 169 targets, migrants are explicitly mentioned in 8 targets as well as in paragraph 29 of the political declaration of the document:

“We recognize the positive contribution of migrants for inclusive growth and sustainable development. We also recognize that international migration is a multi-dimensional reality of major relevance for the development of countries of origin, transit and destination, which requires coherent and comprehensive responses. We will cooperate internationally to ensure safe, orderly and regular migration involving full respect for human rights and the humane treatment of migrants regardless of migration status, of refugees and of displaced persons.”

At the 2014 Global Forum on Migration and Development, a set of global civil society organizations converged on the “Stockholm Agenda” towards the 2030 Agenda which included calls for decent work, universal social protections, and legal protections for all migrants regardless of status and particularly migrant women and girls. While it is significant that the advocacy of migration and development groups succeeded in having migration included in the 2030 Agenda, challenges exist in that migration is reduced within certain goals and targets thus overlooking the broader relation between migration and development and the particular role of migrant women workers in contributing to development in countries of origin and destination. While this limits the engagement with SDGs to those clearly referencing migrants and migration, it is important to broaden the analysis to look at how gender and migration can be found across the 17 goals and 169 targets. Development policies and practices that shape women’s access to education, decent work, land, health, and resources are root causes of migration, impact future migrations, and should include current migrant women within all societies.
For a more expansive matrix of migrants and migration across fourteen of the SDGs and targets, see:

The Sustainable Development Goals and Migrants/Migration: Regarding the UN 2030 Sustainable Development Goal Agenda: Relevant SDGs, Implementation Actions, Realization Measurement Indicators and Rationales for Inclusion.

(GLOBAL MIGRATION POLICY ASSOCIATES, 2016)
Key Goals and Targets directly addressing Migrant and Women Migrant Workers:

**Goal 8. Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all**

**Target 8.7:** Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labor, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labor, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labor in all its forms

**Target 8.8:** Protect labor rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment

**Goal 10. Reduce inequality within and among countries**

**Target 10.7:** Facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies

**Target 10.c:** By 2030, reduce to less than 3 per cent the transaction costs of migrant remittances and eliminate remittance corridors with costs higher than 5 per cent

**Gaps to Address:**

In order to maximize the full development potential and benefits for women migrant workers, it will be critical to center their access to rights and protections first. While the SDGs go further than the Millennium Development Goals in addressing the structural basis for poverty and inequality, the SDGs still rely on a neo-liberal and market driven path to development. In this sense, the drive for ‘cheap, flexible, and docile’ labor of women migrant workers is based in the structural competition for greater economic gains in certain labor sectors and in destination countries. The overarching migration framework of the SDGs in target 10.7 reflects this chief concern for state controls to serve labor market needs in the call for ‘orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration’. Migration management, rather than migrant rights (outside of employers bearing recruitment costs), narrows the view on women and migration and lacks international standards on what defines ‘well-managed migration policy’. While target 8.8 does address protecting labor rights, particularly for women migrants, the scope of such protections will be key and, for instance, should not be limited to occupational safety and health concerns within the indicators.

Another overarching challenge will be how to realize the SDGs without a clear mechanism for implementation and accountability on goals, targets, and indicators. For organizations and stakeholders advocating for women migrant workers, it will be important to shape how migration-specific indicators are developed effectively at the country level, particularly with the growth of privatized women’s labor migration. In addition to the global review process in the High Level Political Forum on Sustainable Development, migrant rights actors can utilize the Global Forum on Migration and Development as a platform for sharing lessons and best practices. However, given that the GFMD is outside of the UN system, it would not be the primary space to promote accountability on migration and SDGs towards regular review and implementation.

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ADVOCACY STRATEGIES and RECOMMENDATIONS

Engage in networks and campaigns linking gender, migration and development:

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cross-movement collaborations on gender and migration with feminist networks on development:</th>
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<tr>
<td>• DAWN- Development Alternatives with Women for a New Era</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Women in Migration Network (WIMN)</td>
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<td>• Association for Women’s Rights in Development (AWID)</td>
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MADE- Migration and Development Civil Society Network

| Working Groups: Labor Migration and Recruitment, Global Governance of Migration and Development, and Diaspora and Migrants in Development |
| Regional Networks for information-sharing and joint action: Africa, Americas, Asia, Europe |
ACTIVITIES

4.1 Moving from the International to National Arena: implementing CEDAW General Recommendation 26

4.2 Case Study: Defending Migrant Women's Rights from the Origin Country

4.3 Design your own Intervention

4.4 Crafting Pre-Departure Orientation Change Projects

4.5 Panel with Returnee Migrant Women Workers: Crafting Training Programs to Claim Rights

4.6 Gender Assessment of a Model Contract and Memorandum of Understanding

4.7 Engaging in Global and Regional Processes with a Gender Perspective
4.1 Moving from the International to National Arena: Implementing CEDAW General Recommendation 26

**Objective:** Get to know the primary instrument for guaranteeing women migrant workers’ rights, CEDAW General Recommendation 26. Identify actions to advance its implementation in participants’ home countries.

**Materials/Preparation:** Flip chart paper and markers, photocopies of CEDAW General Recommendation 26, available on the CD or on the following web page: http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/cedaw/docs/GR_26_on_women_migrant_workers_en.pdf

**Estimated Time:** 1 hour

**Facilitation**

1. **Explain:** CEDAW is the second most ratified convention in the world, and as such, it is a powerful instrument to guarantee women’s rights. In November 2008, the CEDAW Committee adopted the General Recommendation 26 on women migrant workers. The GR 26 focuses on the relationship between gender and migration, particularly in six areas: work, health, education, residence, justice, and access to information. At the end, it includes Recommendations to Member States, which are divided into seven categories:

   a. Common responsibilities of countries of origin and destination
   b. Responsibilities specific to countries of origin
   c. Responsibilities specific to countries of transit
   d. Responsibilities specific to countries of destination
   e. Bilateral and regional cooperation
   f. Recommendations concerning monitoring and reporting
   g. Ratification or accession to relevant human rights treaties

2. Divide participants into small groups, preferably homogenous groups according to place of origin or area of work (government/service provider/NGO or origin/transit/destination, etc.).

3. Hand out copies of CEDAW GR26 and ask them to take half an hour to go over the Recommendations at the end that pertain to their type of country (origin, transit or destination). These begin on page 8.
4. Each group should select a note taker and a presenter who will share the group’s ideas with everyone following the exercise. They should select 2 recommendations (the facilitator should try to prompt the groups to choose different recommendations from one another), and then discuss the following:

a. *Do you know of any measures, laws or bills that are implementing the suggestions included in the recommendation you have chosen? What kind of measure is it? Who is implementing it?*

b. *What new programs or laws could be promoted to implement the recommendations you have chosen?*

5. Emphasize that they should spend more time on part b of the exercise, generating ideas on what kinds of projects could be designed to advance in the implementation of the recommendations.

6. Leave half an hour for groups to present their ideas in a plenary session.

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**Key Lesson**

“While States are entitled to control their borders and regulate migration, they must do so in full compliance with their obligations as parties to the human rights treaties they have ratified or acceded to. That includes the promotion of safe migration procedures and the obligation to respect, protect and fulfill the human rights of women throughout the migration cycle. Those obligations must be undertaken in recognition of the social and economic contributions of women migrant workers to their own countries and countries of destination, including through caregiving and domestic work” (Article 3, CEDAW GR 26).
4.2 Case Study: Defending Migrant Women’s Rights from the Origin Country

Objective: Identify innovative elements and generate one’s own ideas on how to defend migrant women’s rights transnationally.

Materials/Preparation: Photocopies of the case study and work sheet

Estimated Time: 45 minutes

Facilitation

1. Familiarize yourself with the case study and questions that follow. You have the option of substituting this good practice with another that appears in this guide, if you prefer.

2. Divide participants into pairs or small groups. If possible, try to keep those working on the same migration corridor together, and include participants from different organizations in each group.

3. Ask the groups to choose a note taker, and read the case together.

4. Explain that the case study will serve as a starting point in order for them to come up with their own ideas on which of migrant women’s rights are being violated in participants’ home countries and what can be done about it. Ask them to spend the bulk of their time on questions 2 and 3.

5. Emphasize that they should make an effort to consider the transnational dimension of the problem – the “here” and “there” – as well as migrant women’s participation in the intervention in defense of their rights. They will have 25 minutes for this part.

6. Groups will have the opportunity to present their ideas in a plenary session. The facilitator should take note of innovative and/or repeated ideas between the groups on flip chart paper or on the board.

Key Lesson

The country of origin can and should play an important role protecting the rights of its citizens who reside abroad. Governments and organizations in origin countries are finding ever more innovative ways to remain connected with their migration population, through ministries of migration, the diplomatic system and coordination with civil society, both in origin and destination.
**Transnational cooperation in defense of Ecuadorian mothers’ rights in Italy**

In Italy, a large number of Ecuadorian women who have had children with Italian men were losing custody of their children. Supposedly, this was due to their not being considered “good mothers” by the authorities, and because the judges consistently ruled in favor of the Italian fathers. This problem was exposed in a report entitled “State Abductions” published in the Italian magazine *Panorama*, which drew attention to 30,000 complaints of discriminatory treatment against Ecuadorian women, as evidenced by biased reports of social workers, psychologists who certified mental disorders in the mothers, and judges who deemed them unfit to raise their children based on unsubstantiated reports and without hearing the children’s testimony. The article notes that in many cases, once the Italian fathers obtained custody of the children, they often sent them to State-run schools or intended to give them up for adoption.

In response, the National Secretariat for Migrants in Ecuador (SENAMI) took the following actions. In June 2009, SENAMI met with a group of Ecuadorian mothers in Genoa who had lost or were about to lose custody of their children. During the meeting, they evaluated the work of the Inter-institutional Commission which had pledged to provide legal advice and counseling to the migrant mothers, through alliances with strategic sectors of Italian civil society. One such alliance took the form of an agreement between the Ecuadorian government and the “Movimiento Bambino” Foundation, an Italian non-profit organization that provides legal, social and psychological support in such cases.

It also issued a memorandum of cooperation with the Legal Group of the Union of Italian Women (UDI, in Italian) to provide free legal assistance in the Consulate of Ecuador in Genoa and to conduct training courses for personnel of the Ecuadorian embassy and consulates on Italian laws regarding women and children’s issues (family relations, domestic violence and immigration). With the support of the University of Genoa and various civil society organizations working for women’s rights, Ecuadorian government officials in Italy are conducting further research on this issue.

These collaborations have enabled the mothers to obtain a response to their complaints of what was identified as an unfavorable attitude of judges and courts. It is suspected that they have been acting based on discriminatory and racist reasoning, which is socially discrediting Ecuadorian women by separating them from their children; however, this situation was being ignored by both Italian and Ecuadorian authorities.

In 2010, the Ecuadorian migrant women facing this or similar problems came together to form the Brave Mothers of Ecuador Association, in order to collectively address their legal position in the country. In collaboration with SENAMI and other advisor organizations, they managed to send their cases to the European Court in Strasbourg, a body designed to uphold human rights in Europe.
1. Which of the elements in the case study make it a good practice in the defense of migrant women’s rights? What do you find innovative about it?

2. Now, turning to the migration corridor in which you work, what are the most common violations of migrant women’s rights?

3. What ideas does the case study give you in order to address the rights violation you identified in question 2? (Be sure to consider the transnational dimension of the problem — the “here” and “there” — as well as migrant women’s participation in the action).

Who are the responsible parties for carrying out this work?

What might be some first steps to begin carrying out this work?
4.3 Design your own Intervention

**Objective:** Have each participant identify, from their own position (Ministry representative, NGO personnel, association member, etc.) and perspective, what type of project s/he would be able to carry out in order to promote respect for migrant women’s labor rights and right to sexual and reproductive health.

**Materials/Preparation:** Photocopy of the matrix of proposals for action (following guide 4) and work sheet

**Estimated Time:** 1 hour

**Facilitation**

1. Use this activity at the end of the workshop so that participants have a chance to think of how they might put into practice what they have learned in their own work.

2. Divide participants into groups of no more than 3 or 4 people. They can also work in pairs, if they prefer.

3. Explain the objective of the activity and hand out the materials.

4. Ask them to go over the proposals for action, paying particular attention to the ideas in the third column. Explain that they should choose one of the recommendations and/or generate their own intervention idea, and then develop a project outline that meets the criteria on the work sheet. They can do this in broad brush strokes, without going into too much detail. What is important is that they start thinking about how to advance in the guarantee of migrant women’s rights, especially labor rights in domestic work and the right to sexual and reproductive health.

5. They can fill out the work sheet or write down their ideas on flip chart paper, depending on the facilitator’s preference.

6. Groups will have the opportunity to present their project ideas in a closing plenary session.

**Key Lesson**

There are many points throughout the migration cycle at which to intervene in order to guarantee migrant women’s ability to exercise their rights and governments’ accountability to upholding those rights. Oftentimes, putting such interventions into practice requires creativity, collaboration among a wide array of actors, and a transnational perspective to consider the program from both origin and destination.
Look over the matrix of proposed interventions that follows Guide 4 at the end of this manual in order to come up with ideas. Select a proposal from any column (especially the 3rd) – or generate your own idea – in order to develop the outline of your own intervention. Make sure that your project:

1. Strengthens migrants and their families’ ability to exercise their human rights in origin and destination countries
2. Includes a vision of gender equality and empowerment of migrant women
3. Integrates various stakeholders (migrant population, family members, civil society, governments, private sector, etc.)
4. Has both policy and programmatic components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is the primary need or problem you will address?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Over the long term, what impact will your project have/contribute to achieving?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specific Objectives</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Over the medium term, what will this project specifically achieve?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Location/Target Area**
- Local or national?
- Origin, transit, destination country, or transnational project?

**Activities**
- What must be done in order to achieve your objectives?
- What services, initiatives, campaigns, etc. will we carry out?

**Stakeholders**
- Who are the duty bearers/guarantors of rights of this population? (origin, destination or both)
- Who will be involved in the implementation of the project?

**Beneficiaries**
- Who are the rights holders whose situation we aim to improve?
- Who will benefit indirectly?

**Results**
- What changes do we hope to produce in the lives of the beneficiaries and/or in the exercise of their rights?
4.4 Crafting Pre-Departure Orientation Change Projects

**Objective:** To practice the steps of crafting gender sensitive and rights-based trainings for women migrant workers in local level settings. To create change projects that incorporate best practices, broader stakeholder engagement, and implementation plans.

**Materials/Preparation:** Handouts or relevant documents of model training curriculum and best practices (see Sample handout below), Change Project worksheet (see below), chart paper and markers

**Estimated Time:** 1 hour 20 minutes

**Facilitation**

1. Review best practices with participants and draws questions and ideas from previous discussions. Explain that the objective of this group exercise is to apply as best as possible the learning on best practices of crafting training programs to each group's local context.

2. Ask participants to small groups by country or local region/district to bring together participants working in similar local regions as best as possible. If this is not possible, ask participants to group together based on similar patterns of women's migration flows considering:

   1. What are the kinds of women's labor migration flows by sector?
   2. What are the time frames, particularly of temporary migration programs?
   3. Are most women migrating through formal channels of irregularly?
   4. Are they migrating on state-to-state or business-to-business recruitment programs?

3. Instruct groups to choose one key area of gender sensitivity and rights training to outline a module, for example “Your Rights in the Employment Contract” or “Communicating with Employers and Family Members”. The groups should write their training module outline of contents, timeframe, and outcomes.

4. Ask the groups to be ready to present their outline and also create a short role-play that demonstrates a ‘classroom’ or ‘community training’ setting. The setting should include trainers and migrant women trainees in interaction. The role-play should show a training scenario that shows the challenges, strategies for learning, and discussions that would emerge. Groups present their outlines and role-plays.
5. Engage the full group either after each presentation or at the end of all presentations to draw out some key points, including:

1. **What were similarities or differences in the training modules prioritized by groups? How do these reflect the needs of the migrant women in their region? Are there any gaps, particularly in including clear gender-sensitive and rights curriculum components?**

2. **What were key challenges posed in the role-plays in terms of interactions with migrant women trainees and their needs? What were innovative and participatory facilitation methods used to address these?**

6. Now, ask the groups to re-form to create plans for ‘Field Demonstration Labs’. Explain that this will be their action plan to develop an effective program of trainings in their region or locality. These action plans should include:

   - Who runs and funds the program?
   - What partnerships are needed?
   - How to engage and follow-up from trainings with potential migrant women?
   - How to support advocacy or communication strategies after women have migrated?
   - What tools, outreach, or public education campaigns can be employed?

7. Walk around as groups create action plans to guide groups to include: Engagement in training implementation of grassroots groups with frontline knowledge (labor unions, CSO’s, local government). Remind participants about sample activities: Community outreach, transparency in public decision-making for women migrant workers, needs assessment of migrant workers in Gulf states, research of returnee migrant workers from overseas.

8. Ask 1-2 reporters from each group to present their action plans and describe the reason for each activity. Facilitate questions and concrete feedback from other groups towards a dialogue. Give another few minutes after discussions for each group to write down any changes to incorporate.

9. End the sessions in a go-around where each participant and/or group expresses their ongoing commitment and ability to implement the action plans, and ongoing group communication upon return to local regions.
KEY LESSON

Gender and rights empowerment should shape every stage of conceiving, planning, and implementing training programs for women migrant workers.

The local and regional context of migration is central to crafting relevant programs that meet the needs of women based on labor migration channels, types of recruitment, countries of destination, and timeframes of migration. These structural factors should be understood with support from both research partners and civil society organizations of migrant women along with local cultural, social, and political contexts.

Gender-sensitivity should not recreate inequalities by looking only at women or ‘feminized’ assumptions of skills and behaviors. Traditional training programs for migrant women should be challenged to empower women’s agency and go beyond simply teaching domestic work skills.

Rights-based trainings go hand in hand with gender sensitivity. Contract, labor, recruitment, and negotiation issues are themselves gender components of work based on how women and men experience them and can change them differently.
Crafting Pre-Departure, Post-Arrival, and Re-integration Programs for Women Migrants

3. Identifying challenges

What?
Who?
Why?

4. Addressing challenges

Objective 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target audience</th>
<th>Actors involved</th>
<th>Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Objective 2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target audience</th>
<th>Actors involved</th>
<th>Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Check list of principles to take into account

1. Human Rights and Gender Based approach: power relations, engaging men, equal rights, diversity, no discrimination
2. Sustainable and human development
3. Qualitative and quantitative dimensions
4. Social and individual dimensions
5. Spatial dimension
6. Inclusive and participatory: Migrants as protagonists, empowerment as a goal in itself
7. Micro, meso, macro level
### Table 2. Adopting a Gender Perspective

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DOES NOT INVOLVE...</th>
<th>DOES INVOLVE...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Focusing exclusively on women.</td>
<td>Focusing on inequalities and differences between and among men and women. If you do decide to work with women due to the discrimination they face, initiatives should be based on analysis of gender roles and relationships.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treating women only as a 'vulnerable or minority group.'</td>
<td>Recognizing that both women and men are actors. Not identifying women as victims, but recognizing their agency and significant roles in their communities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The same treatment of women and men in all situations regardless of context.</td>
<td>Design of interventions that take into account inequalities and differences between men and women. Structure resources so that programs recognize inequalities and attempt to rectify them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efforts to attain only or always equal participation (50/50 men and women) in projects or staff employed within organizations.</td>
<td>A move beyond counting the number of participants to look at the quality of their participation and the desired impacts of initiatives on each sex. Recognition that equal opportunities for women within organizations is only one aspect of gender equality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumption that all women (or all men) will have the same interests.</td>
<td>Understanding the differences among different groups of women (and men) based on other criteria such as social class, ethnicity, religion, age, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumption regarding who does what work and who has which responsibilities.</td>
<td>Understanding the specific situation and documenting actual conditions and priorities. Carrying out context-specific analysis and consultations.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Optional Handout: Sample of Pre-Departure Orientation Training (PDOT) and Post-Arrival Programs in the Asia-Pacific Region**

1. Three Models of Pre-departure Orientation Trainings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Target audience</th>
<th>Involved</th>
<th>Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-departure orientation seminar (PDOS)</td>
<td>Pre-departure briefing (PAP)</td>
<td>Pre-departure orientation training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-departure briefing (PAP)</td>
<td>Pre-departure briefing (PAP)</td>
<td>Pre-departure orientation training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-departure orientation training</td>
<td>Pre-departure orientation training</td>
<td>Pre-departure orientation training</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Launch</th>
<th>1983</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initiated by</td>
<td>NGO’s; migrant workers do not pay</td>
<td>Recruitment agencies, migrant workers pay</td>
<td>No known</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementing Agency</td>
<td>Overseas Workers Welfare Administration (OWWA)</td>
<td>National Board for the Placement and Protection of Indonesian Overseas Workers (BNP2TKI)</td>
<td>Foreign Employment Promotion Board (FEPB)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provider(s)</td>
<td>OWWA, Philippines Overseas Employment Administration (POEA), NGO’s, recruitment agencies, industry associations</td>
<td>BNP2TKI and Agency for the Service, Placement, and Protection of Indonesian Overseas Workers (BP3TKI)</td>
<td>Recruitment agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fee</td>
<td>Government: none; others- PHP 100 (USD 2.30)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>NR 700 (USD 10); reimbursable for women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Program</td>
<td>6 hours</td>
<td>8 hours</td>
<td>12.5 hours for women, 11.5 hours for men</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. Three Sample Pre-Departure Orientation Training (PDOT) Curricula

### Basic modules for PDOS run private agencies, The Philippines

**Module A - Realities and Coping**
1. Rights based on the employment contract
2. Obligations based on the Code of Discipline of OFWs
3. Grounds and penalties for breach of discipline
4. Country profile
5. Do's and Don'ts in dealing with the employers
6. Coping mechanisms
7. Duties and responsibilities of a household worker
8. Values clarification

**Module B - GO/NGO Services and Benefits to OFWs and their kin**
1. Governamental organizations' services (including the new medicare programme for OFWs)
2. NGO services
3. Banking services and remittance requirements and procedures

**Module C - Other relevant topics**
1. Airport procedures and handling of travel documents
2. Travel tips
3. HIV-AIDS awareness
4. Reintegration programme
5. Significance of the “New Hero” Role

Apart from the official modules, some NGOs have issue-specific for PDOS

### Training of the Trainer Course for Community Volunteers, Migrant Peer Educators and Community Workers, Bangladesh

The manual was developed with the support of UNAIDS, IOM and ILO. It contains four chapters and was field tested by Daudkandi Upzilla (third last tier of local government) in Comilla District.

**Content of the Manual**

**Chapter I**
- Basic facts of AIDS/STD
- Transmission & Prevention of AIDS & STD
- Human Rights of PLWHA

**Chapter II**
- Migration and Present Scenario
- Problems of Migrant Workers
- Migrant Workers and their Community
- Human Right of Migrant Workers

**Chapter III**
- Sexual Health
- Gender
- Sexuality

**Chapter IV**
- Community Mobilization on HIV/AIDS & Migration
- Peer Education
### Example of PDOS Course Structure, Sri Larika

**Duration:** The Middle East: 120 hours or 12 days of residential training  
Other countries: 210 hours or 22 days of residential training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Area</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Time (hours)</th>
<th>Total (hours)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Counseling and Guidance**   | • Analysis of needs  
• Suitable state to undertake overseas employment  
• Mental preparation  
• Family responsibilities  
• Social ethics  
• Differential cultures  
• Success and failure  
• Locally available occupation and business opportunities  
• Proper avenues to foreign employment  
• Realities of foreign employment | Sub total          | 20            |
| **Vocational training**       | • Preparation of food  
• Serving food and drinks at meals  
• Cleaning up services  
• Laundering  
• Home decor  
• Gardening  
• Precautions again accident at home  
• Child care  
• Looking after the sick and aged  
• Fist aid | 8  
4  
8  
8  
5  
2  
2  
4  
2  
2 | Sub total          | 45            |
| **Travel documents and procedures** | • Obtaining a passport  
• Obtaining visa  
• Medical reports  
• Air tickets  
• Employment contracts  
• Registration at SLBEFE  
• Airport and its vicinity | Sub total          | 10            |
| **Personal Development**      | • Need for health and well-being  
• Health and body energy  
• Personal development and sexuality STD  
• Personal characteristic development  
• Laws of host country | 2  
2  
2  
2  
2 | Sub total          | 12            |
| **Management of finances and banking** | • Training before leaving  
• Activities in foreign land  
• Facilities available after return  
• Financial management  
• Bank services for migrant workers | 2  
2  
2  
1  
1 | Sub total          | 8             |
### Cultural problems and solving them

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Time (hours)</th>
<th>Total (hours)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Values linked with everyday life and elements of indigenous culture</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Foreign cultures features</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Conflicts likely emerge</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reorientation of one’s local lifestyle after return</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Eating and drinking patterns</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub total</strong></td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Social relations and family welfare

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Time (hours)</th>
<th>Total (hours)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Family unit: temporary separation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Providing shelter and protection to family</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Dangers likely to result from not making arrangements</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Foreign language training [options: 8.1 Arabic; 8.2 English]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Time (hours)</th>
<th>Total (hours)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comunication in the language chosen in the following situations:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Formal presentation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Face to face with somebody</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Household activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Kitchen work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Culinary work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Shopping marketing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Travel</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sickness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Asking for directions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Banks, post offices</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Times, dates, periods</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Using numerals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub total</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Grand Total

|                           |               | 90            |

### 3. Sample: Structure of Induction course for foreign workers working in Malaysia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module No.</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Module No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Workplace communication proficiency in English/Malay for foreign workers working in Malaysia</td>
<td>9 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Malaysian Culture for foreign workers working in Malaysia</td>
<td>3 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Awareness of Malaysian laws for foreign workers working in Malaysia</td>
<td>8 hours</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total Hours**

|                      | 20 hours |

Source: Ministry of Human Resources, Malaysia.
4.5 Panel with Returnee Migrant Women Workers:

Crafting Training Programs to Claim Rights

Objective: To understand the personal narratives of returnee women migrant workers about their labor migration experiences, rights violations they faced, and strategies for claiming their rights. Through discussion led by women migrant workers and members of domestic worker associations, identify best practices to include in pre-departure, post-arrival and reintegration programs.

Materials/Preparation: Prior arrangement with a local domestic workers network or civil society organization to host 3-5 returnee migrant women domestic workers, arrangement for translation (if required), Worksheet of matrix of issues and needs (see below), Sample document of issues and strategies of domestic workers (see below), chart paper and markers.

Estimated Time: 2 hours

Facilitation

1. Before members of the migrant workers association arrive, prepare the participants for this unique live case study by collectively establishing some ground rules. Explain that the underlying objective here is to learn concrete strategies for protecting the rights of migrant domestic workers from women workers themselves. This session aims to generate practice in engaging and empowering women migrants in developing and implementing training programs. Describe the context for the women who may be recent returnees, may not have shared their stories openly with others in this way (particularly to a new group), and may be struggling with traumas or re-adjustment. Encourage creating a safe space and give appreciation to their willingness to share.

2. Some ground rules can include: creating a safe and positive environment, respecting their privacy, not asking questions that may be too personal or sensitive (such as issues of violence, sexual violence, or their personal lives).

3. Introduce the guest speakers of returnee migrant women workers and any other representatives of their association. Facilitator and participants thank the women and recognize the courage to be able to share their stories. Ask each participant to briefly introduce their name, organization, and intention for hearing the stories. Then ask each women migrant worker to present her story and gives the following guidance. These questions should be written up on chart paper or given to the women in their language(s):

   1. What is your name, age, and where did you migrate from?
2. What compelled you to migrate internationally? Did you have any contract and if so, was this the same as when you arrived in the destination country?

3. Where did you work abroad, in what kind of jobs, and for how long?

4. How were your experiences in regards to your job, employer, treatment, living in the destination country, wages, and work hours?

5. As a women migrant, how was your experience empowering and not empowering?

4. After allowing enough time for each speaker, thank them again and explain that participants and speakers will now interact in a discussion. Participants can ask the guest speakers further general questions about their experiences. Guide the session to ensure that questions are focused on the learning objectives of understanding the needs and rights violations of migrant women and respect the ground rules established.

5. Guide this exchange so that participants’ questions seek to give them concrete ideas of what to include in migrant women's programs and reflect on their assumptions. For example, what were the biggest challenges women faced in their workplaces or upon returning? Where did they receive support or did not? What were the best tools they felt that helped or could have helped them to promote their safety and rights?

6. Create three charts and have three participants write up a running list of ideas for best practices in pre-departure, post-arrival, and reintegration trainings and support systems. Encourage participants to reflect on:

   1. Gender-sensitive and rights-based specific strategies
   2. Issues of the recruitment and the decision-making process?
   3. What information women needed before they left to know the process, expectations of their job, the rights they have in employment and the journey?
   4. Needs in adjusting to language and culture in ways that empower women?
   5. Transit and post-arrival needs- the process of getting documents and arriving safely
   6. Whether they had employment contracts or knew its contents? What should such a contract include? What are the needs in the home and work setting to protect their safety and rights?
   7. Did they face contract substitution? How can they communicate or gain support to negotiate with their employers?
   8. How should consular support work? What other actors could be involved- civil society networks, women’s social networks and families?
   9. What are their greatest needs upon returning? What do they think empowers migrant women through the whole cycle?
7. Summarizes the best practices list, drawing out points that have been discussed in learning sessions or new ideas that have emerged. Ask the participants to close and give appreciation to the migrant women. Ensure that the participants can contact the organization in the future.

8. An optional section to add is to have a go-around reflection among the participants only of how this session gave new insights and strategies they learned for gender-sensitivity and rights protection.

---

**Key Lesson**

- Migrant women themselves are experts and should be included in leadership roles to inform how organizations and agencies develop training programs and consider elements of standard contracts. The organization of migrant women workers are central partners to learn ways to connect individual empowerment from trainings to collective action where women can join organizations or advocate can continue to communicate with these organizations.

- Migrant domestic workers can best identify their most challenging experiences and priorities for training and claiming rights. Supporting their efforts to claim rights should be done in a way that is balanced with understanding the risks and consequences they face in doing so. Facilitators and advocates should promote strategies to claim rights such as negotiating skills with employers or ways to access justice. These can be refined with important guidance from migrant women about how to safely and most effectively exercise these strategies and rights.

- The labor migration experience for migrant domestic workers involves a network of actors - family members, recruiters at different stages, agencies, employers, consular officials, local authorities, other domestic workers, and border officials amongst others. It is important to understand the complexity of relations between these players and how women can best navigate identifying support options.

- Employment contracts are critical to increasing awareness of rights and exercising them. Key provisions to look at with a gender perspective are: national labor laws in the destination country, occupational health and safety issues, health access (including reproductive and sexual health), conditions of work and living in the employer’s home, communication, privacy, safety, violence (physical, sexual, and emotional), negotiating tactics, dealing with recruitment agencies, accessing support and justice, and role of consulates.
Identify the specific issues and strategies of domestic workers at each stage of the migration cycle:

1) Pre-departure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Choice</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment process</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-departure orientation needs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2) Transit and Post-arrival

| International travel and on arrival |   |   |
| Rules and terms of employment contracts |   |   |
| Length of program                 |   |   |
| At the home                        |   |   |
| Skills, knowledge, and information |   |   |

2) Return and reintegration

| On return                       |   |   |
| Reintegration needs             |   |   |
“From an Indian Village to Kuwait”
CASE STUDIES from the National Domestic Workers Movement, India
http://www.ndwm.org

1. Nathiya, aged 35, from Thenkarimalur village in Thirvanamalai District lost both her parents during childhood. Her husband Mr. Palani was an alcoholic and had extramarital affairs. Her daughter had committed suicide when she was 13 years old. As a single parent, she was troubled by extreme poverty, unemployment and her daughter’s death. Though life for her was challenging, living hand to mouth every day, she dreamed and decided to provide a happy childhood and a good education and future for her son. She then met Mr. Navabshan (the agent), who seemed to her like a Good Samaritan. He promised her a monthly salary of Rs 20,000 for 8 hours of work per day. She was told that she would be given a separate room and food three times a day, among other things. She was asked to pay Rs 87,000 as migration cost so the agent could start all the formalities needed to send her to Kuwait. She leased her house to pay the amount. Before departure in the Chennai Airport, the agent made her sign on a blank white paper.

CHALLENGES IN KUWAIT

Upon reaching Kuwait, Mr. Fausil (the Kuwaiti agent) picked her up and dropped her off at her employer’s home where she was not given any food. One day, the employer’s wife drove her to a distant house and took nude photos of her by force. She was so troubled that she could not work. The employer sent her back to Fausil because she could no longer work. At his house, there were more than 15 women from different parts of the India. He was trafficking girls/women from different parts of India to Kuwait with the help of Mr. Navab John.

Upon quickly assessing the situation, she asked Fausil to make arrangements for her return to India. He said that her only option is to work in Kuwait as a prostitute for three months in order to cover for her return expenses which she promptly refused. She was beaten until she was unconscious. She was admitted in a remote hospital since she was not issued an anakkamma (local civil ID) card. In the hospital, she came in contact with Ms. Kasturi, a fellow victim, from whom she got the contact number of NDWM Chennai. Faisul was angry with Nadhiya after he found out that she contacted the organization. He was suspicious that Nadhiya would influence other women so he kept her all day in a car and was forced into sex trade.
Sr. Valarmathi, the state coordinator, regularly sent petitions to the Protector of Emigrants of Chennai and the Indian Embassy in Kuwait. NDWM contacted both the agents in India and Kuwait and demanded her repatriation. With NDWM’s intervention, she was repatriated to India. Victimized, Nadhiya wanted justice and filed a case. The agent, Mr. Navabshan, threatened to kill her. Fearing for her life, she, along with her son, moved to Chennai and there she continued to work as a domestic helper. Now she is convinced that women migrants need their rights ensured for there to be safe migration. She participates in meeting, speaks about her own experience and demand for the rights of migrant women. She spoke in the consultation organized by the National Commission for Women on “Problems and Issues Faced by Migrant Domestic Workers Overseas” in Chennai. UN Women organized a meeting on the “Issues of Migrant Domestic Workers Overseas” organized in Hyderabad participated by high officials.

2. **Ramani**, aged 50, lives with her husband, Venugopal, in Melakottaiyur, Chennai. Venugopal was suffering from hematemesis (hepatic failure) so Ramani decided to work overseas as a domestic worker to pay for her husband’s medical expenses. She got the job from Ms. Preman and Ms. Philomina through M/S MAN POWER SERVICES. She was promised a monthly salary of Rs 20,000 for 9 hours of work (cooking) per day. She went to Kuwait on 21st of July 2013 with the hope of paying for her husband’s medical treatment.

In Kuwait, other than cooking, she was made to wash clothes and utensils, clean the house, care for the children, and she had to work more than 15 hours a day. After 3 months, she could no longer continue to work. When she broached the subject to the Kuwaiti agent, Saidha, he responded by beating her. She then pleaded to the employer to send her back to India as she was no longer able to work. The employer sent her back to Saidha and the latter placed her in another house where she was locked in a small room after working and was given one meal a day. After working for 25 days, Ramani pleaded on her knees to her employer to send her back to India. Once again she was sent to the Saidha and the latter placed her in another house. Here, the employer verbally abused her. She stayed for 6 months. She took advantage of an opportunity to escape with the help of a taxi driver reaching the Indian Embassy where she filed a complaint. Even then, Saidha phoned Ramani and asked her to escape from Embassy promising her a good job otherwise he would report her to the police. Ramani was paid only Rs 12,000 for 8 months of work. Without a passport, Ramani was not able to go back to India.
The family of Ramani issued the petition to NDWM requesting her safe repatriation to India. NDWM on behalf of Ramani and her family members regularly sent petitions to the Indian Embassy in Kuwait and PoE in Chennai, at the same time also contacting the local agents and the Kuwaiti agent. They provided the doctor’s certificate of her husband and demanded for early repatriation as she needed to care of her ailing husband. Ramani was repatriated in April 2014. She spoke in the consultation organized by the National Commission for Women on the “Problems and Issues Faced by Migrant Domestic Workers Oversea” in Chennai. UN Women organized a meeting on “the Issues of Migrant Domestic Workers Overseas” organized in Hyderabad participated by high officials.

3. **Banumathi**, aged 37, has 3 children; one boy and two girls. She only studied until the 8th grade. Her husband Anandhan does not work and takes no responsibility of the family. She is the sole bread winner of the family. She was determined to educate her children. With only irregular work in the agriculture, it was a great challenge for her to run the household. She thus decided to work overseas as a domestic worker in order to help her family. She went to Kuwait on the 15th of November 2013 with the help of Mr. Ismail from Tanjavur. The Indian agent received Rs 15,000 for getting her a job overseas. Mr. Faisal Khaled Hezam Alajmi, an Indian national met her at the airport and placed her in a home where she would work as a domestic worker. She worked there for a month. When Banumathi learned that she would be soon trafficked to Saudi Arabia, she refused to move so she was beaten and locked in a room and was denied any food. The Saudi employer took her to the desert and forced her to work there in a camel shed. Due to the extreme cold she developed severe pain in her shoulders and could no longer work. She was then beaten with sandals, pushed around and verbally abused. Due to her family situation, she decided to continue to work despite the exploitation. She was not paid regularly. She was denied of any medical care. When she could no longer bear the exploitation she informed her family and submitted a petition to NDWM for her repatriation.

NDWM repeatedly sent petitions to the Indian Embassy in Kuwait, the Union Minister for Overseas Indian Affairs & External Affairs – New Delhi, and the Indian Embassy in Saudi Arabia. NDWM demanded justice for Banumathi and all the other women who were trafficked by Faisal overseas. Banumathi returned to India on the 2nd of July 2014. Her children are happy that their mother is finally home.
4. **Parvathy**, aged 46, is from Kanagachetttykulum, Pondicherry. She has three children and her daughter had just gotten married. She was looking for a job overseas and all that she wanted was to work 8 hours a day for a reasonable salary. On the advice of a friend, she got a job through Ibrahim from Villupuram in Tamil Nadu and she paid him Rs 7,000. On the 22nd of December 2013, she took her flight to Kuwait with great dreams of her life over there. The employer who provided the visa received her at the airport and placed her in someone else’s home to work. From day one the employer, Jemila, abused her verbally calling her “Indian dog”. When she was beaten she raised her voice so the beating stopped but the verbal abuse continued. She was forced to work around the clock. She cooked food, cleaned the 12 rooms in the house, ironed clothes, carried the grocery items everyday climbing up a flight of stairs. Once she had to carry a 50-kilo sack of rice and she fell down the stairs and fractured her leg. She was not given medical care. She fought with the employer demanding to be sent back to India but her employer asked her to pay Rs 67,000.

**NDWM intervention**

NDWM sent petitions to the Indian Embassy in Kuwait and PoE in Chennai. Her family paid the said amount and she returned to India. She had worked from the 22th of December 2013 until the 5th of March 2014 (70 days of work) but was not paid any compensation. After returning, she had to spend Rs 15,000 for the medical treatment of fractured leg. All together she lost Rs 89,000, received no salary and underwent psychological torture. She had filed a case against the local agent for cheating her. She participates in programs organized by NDWM and spreads awareness regarding the importance of safe migration, and lobbies for the protection and rights of migrant domestic workers. She spoke in the consultation organized by the National Commission for Women on the “Problems and Issues faced by Migrant Domestic Workers Overseas” in Chennai. UN Women organized a meeting on the “Issues of Migrant Domestic Workers Overseas” organized in Hyderabad participated by high officials.

5. **Anusiya Begam**, aged 39, is from a poor family in Ramanadhapuram District, Tamil Nadu. Her family decided to send her overseas in order to get themselves out of poverty and to earn money for her family. Through Saravanan, she got the visa on February 2013. When she arrived in Kuwait, Kannan from Ramanadhapuram, working as driver, received her at the airport and kept her at his house. Every day he sent her to do domestic work in different homes and her wage of 6 KD was paid to Saravanan of which he gave Anusiya 2 KD. He sexually harassed her and she resisted so he threatened to push her from the 4th floor if she would not stop. Her struggle continued and she worked for 3 months in various homes for a daily wage of 2 KD. One day, he pushed her from the 4th floor sending her to the hospital. After this she was sent to the Indian Embassy.
NDWM intervenes

Anusiya’s mother, Mrs. Jamuna, submitted the petition to NDWM to help in her mother’s repatriation. NDWM sent many petitions on behalf of Mrs. Jammuna to the Indian Embassy in Kuwait and PoE in Chennai. She was repatriated on the 15th October 2013. Mrs. Jammuna went on SUN TV programs and spoke about the plight of migrant domestic workers, demanded for their rights, and educated the public on the importance of safe migration. Anusiya herself spoke in the consultation organized by the National Commission for Women on “Problems and Issues faced by Migrant Domestic Workers Overseas” in Chennai. UN Women organized a meeting on the “Issues of Migrant Domestic Workers Overseas” organized in Hyderabad participated by high officials.
Optional Handout: Sample Issues and Needs of Domestic Workers to Craft Training Programs

Developed through the direct guidance of returnee migrant women domestic workers at a UN Women Master of Trainers program on Gender, Migration, and Development panel session with members of the National Domestic Workers Alliance, Hyderabad, India, 2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Choice</th>
<th>All women stated that it was their own choice to go abroad for work but none received any training before departure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment process</td>
<td>All were recruited by agents in their village (approximately 50-60 have migrated from their village); women trusted the agents more as a result of this close connection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The agent is the primary contact and all dealings pre-recruitment were done only with the agent</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All took loans (informal credit) to go; approximately INR 25,000-30,000 was paid, including, for tickets, passport services, visa, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All were provided a contract (informal and non-justiciable) and were retained by the agent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Pre-departure orientation needs                                      | Communication skills/technology |
|                                                                    | Language: English and Arabic (basic) |
|                                                                    | Country knowledge and laws |
|                                                                    | Work skills: cooking, use of electric appliances |
|                                                                    | Help services: Embassy helplines |
|                                                                    | Behavioural skills: etiquette |
|                                                                    | Culture and religion |
|                                                                    | Procedures: immigration and medical |
|                                                                    | Rights: at destination, contract, labour laws |
| Pre-departure and orientation training should be done for all women migrant workers, to make them aware of their rights, contract, processes, culture, etc. |

| Transit and Post-Arrival                                           | Women were anxious to travel alone and were scared when they first boarded the flight |
|                                                                  | Women’s document, including copies of passport, photograph, etc. were provided to the employer beforehand |
|                                                                  | Women received an airport pick-up and were recognised because their photographs were given beforehand |
|                                                                  | Their luggage was searched by the family; upon finding religious idols and |
### Rules and Terms of Employment Contracts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DWs going to the GCC are part of the Kafala system</td>
<td>Women were paid the contractual amount of 500 dirhams (in reality approximately 900-1,100 dirhams ought to be paid)</td>
<td>DWs going to the GCC are part of the Kafala system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No insurance was provided to the women</td>
<td>Work responsibilities</td>
<td>No insurance was provided to the women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timings and rest hours</td>
<td>Overtime</td>
<td>Work responsibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holiday and rest days</td>
<td>Salary and increases</td>
<td>Timings and rest hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Return paid vacation: annual roundtrip ticket</td>
<td>Medical insurance</td>
<td>Holiday and rest days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical insurance</td>
<td>Safety and security</td>
<td>Return paid vacation: annual roundtrip ticket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication tools: mobile phone</td>
<td></td>
<td>Medical insurance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### At the home

- Women were provided with their separate room, including attached bathroom and toilet
- Women were provided with sufficient food on time—not only given leftovers but their share was also made with the families
- Women were provided with additional facilities, such as being able to watch television—Indian channels
- There were cultural differences, which they had to learn, for example, saying salaam/greeting the employer every time, which if not done was seen as disrespectful
- It was necessary for the women to speak and understand Hindi; English was not required

### Skills, Knowledge and Information

- Women learnt the local language from the children in the home

### Return and reintegration

#### On return

- Women would like to go back to earn more money but they are being stopped by their children

#### Reintegration needs

- Permanent livelihood options
- Small business support and training
- Access to ‘pension fund’ created by family whilst away
- Identity and support documents for access to social protection, e.g. ration card, voter card
- Social and psychological support
- Leadership/change-maker opportunities: curriculum development, trainers, language teachers, in NGOs, creation of modules, for aspiring migrant women workers
4.6 Gender Assessment of a Model Contract and Memorandum of Understanding

**Objective:** To become familiar with existing model contracts or agreements (or those being developed) for a region with destination countries. To analyze standard contracts and agreements for gender sensitivity, rights-based elements, and ways to implement these. This activity uses example documents from the corridor of migrant domestic workers between Asia and the Middle East. However, this can be replicated using available contracts, agreements, and background handouts for other regions.

**Materials/Preparation:** Change Matrix worksheet: Advocacy on Agreements or Standard Contracts Handout of contract for Non-Jordanian Domestic Workers Handout of MOU between India and Saudi Arabia, and Handout on Background on the Asia-Pacific Region.

**Estimated Time:** 45 minutes

**Facilitation**

1. Distribute the Change Matrix worksheet explaining that participants will work in pairs or small groups to fill these out. Participants will choose either to analyze a standard contract or an MOU.

2. Review the best practices learned for both standard contracts and for bilateral agreements with participants. Draw out outstanding questions and ideas from previous discussions. Explain that the objective of this group exercise is to examine and practice what to look for and what to highlight in analyzing these documents for gender-sensitive solutions.

3. Give an overall context for the specific region being examined:

   *For the Asia-Pacific, explain that there are approximately 96 known bilateral agreements. Nearly 70% of agreements in Asia are the looser MOU framework, compared to about half of all agreements globally. One reason for this is that MOU’s offer more flexibility to modify with changing labour needs. MOUs also allow expedited negotiations over legally binding BAs which tend to be more extensive. However, another critical factor is that destination countries, for example in the GCC or East Asia, have ample access to migrant labour from different countries creating a de-facto drive offering more flexible or exploitable labour standards among sending countries seeking to benefit from labour migration as overseas employment creation and remittance income*. This represents a significant gap in securing binding, human rights based, human development centered, and multi-stakeholder collaborations.*
4. Explain to both groups that this context of negotiating power and trade-offs is important to consider when looking at standard contracts and bilateral agreements. This is particularly true in advocating for gender elements within agreements and contracts to gain specific rights for migrant women workers in the short, mid, and long-term. This will require, for example, for the Asia-Pacific region, a shift from banning or restricting migrant women’s sectors to creating more regular and rights-protected channels for labor migration:

For the Asian-Pacific region, as globally, few bilateral agreements have a particular focus on women or of gender concerns. Examples of some agreements that do present good practices on gender analysis include:

- India-Saudi Arabia agreement on domestic service workers
- Indonesia-Malaysia Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) securing certain rights for domestic workers
- Bangladesh-Jordan agreement offering domestic worker rights under the labor law of Jordan

5. Ask participants to form pairs or small groups and choose either handout for option #1 (a contract) or option #2 (MoU). Participants first take time to read the document and then begin a discussion to fill out the worksheets. Explain that they will need to only choose two solutions to their document to meet the goals of creating more gender sensitive and rights based elements. This includes writing the text of the provision itself, activities needed to implement or monitor this, and the actors who need to be involved.

6. After the worksheets are completed, ask each group to present their solutions and plan. Engage the full group at the end of all presentations to draw out some key points, including:

- What were similarities or differences in the gender gaps addressed by groups? How well do these reflect the needs of the migrant domestic workers in their region?
- What were some innovate strategies suggested to monitor or implement these solutions?
- What might be challenges in securing the will and practical steps of the actors involved?

7. Present a summary of some key of lessons and tested good practices from the region:

Lessons Learned and Good Practices in a Study of 65 Asian BA’s and MOU’s- from the table presented during the lesson for all regions and can also be applied to provisions in standard contracts as part of agreements:
#3. Provisions to promote fair recruitment practices (67% of Asian agreements):

**Challenge:**

- In GCC and Asian destination countries, little evidence that MOU’s have fundamentally changed recruitment systems
- This could be due to limited labor and migration policies and legislative systems

**Good Practice:**

- 2012 Bangladesh-Malaysia MOU arrange worker recruitment through public employment services in government to government recruitment agreements

#4. Address gender concerns (5%):

**Challenge:**

- Workers not covered under national labor laws in destination countries, such as domestic workers, find themselves in precarious situations
- Most agreements do not mention the types of workers not covered or specific steps to protect their rights

**Good Practice:**

- 2002 Lao-Thailand MOU states, “Labourers of the parties shall receive their wages and other benefits according to the local wage rates without exception of males or females, race or religion”.

#6. Provisions related to employment contracts and protections (77% of Asian agreements):

**Challenge:**

- Although Asia had the highest rate in the study of provisions for employment contracts, the agreements often contained only basic provisions in contracts
- Do not always meet international standards
- For example, the MOU between India and Malaysia states that the employer is given the right “to determine the terms and conditions of employment”, yet a later standard clause states the contract will be in accordance with the labor laws of the two countries
- A major challenge also is breach of contracts and contract substitution
Good Practice:

- BA’s signed by the Qatar government with Asian countries of origin stipulate that he employer cannot make changes to the labor contract

#8. Concrete implementation, monitoring, and evaluation procedures (91% of Asian agreements):

Challenge:

- Joint Committees (JC) proposed in most agreements play a major role in ensuring agreements are effective. More information is needed on the actual working status of JC’s and implementation of agreements
- According to the Philippines Centre for Migrant Advocacy, there are few JC meetings between the Philippines and certain countries

Good Practice:

- The Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs (MOIA) held several JC meetings with Kuwait in 2011 and 2012 leading to Kuwait’s acceptance of a model employment contract

#9. Prohibition of confiscation of travel and identity documents (8% of Asian agreements):

Challenge:

- As a major challenge in the Middle East and Asia with sponsorship and kefala systems, only 8% of agreements include this provision.
- Confiscation of documents is a cause of forced labor situations and weakens the ability of migrant workers, particularly domestic workers, to negotiate for better conditions or to seek help

Good Practice:

- Saudi Arabian agreements on domestic workers have set a precedent with a provision stating that workers should retain such documents.
**Crafting Advocacy Strategies to include Gender and Rights Perspective in Agreements or Standard Contracts**

3. Identifying challenges

What?
Who?
Why?

4. Addressing challenges

**Objective 1:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirement or Provision</th>
<th>How to implement and monitor?</th>
<th>Actors involved?</th>
</tr>
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**Objective 2:**

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</tbody>
</table>

Check list of principles to take into account: Sustainable and human development

- Human Rights and Gender Based approach: power relations, engaging men, equal rights, diversity, no discrimination
- Sustainable and human development
- Qualitative and quantitative dimensions
- Social and individual dimensions
- Spatial dimension
- Inclusive and participatory: Migrants as protagonists, empowerment as a goal in itself
- Micro, meso, macro level
The Rights and Duties of Non-Jordanian Workers in the Jordanian Labor Legislation

- It is not permissible for a worker to work for any other employer during the term of the contract, or in any profession other than the one mentioned in the work permit. In such case, the offending employer is to be punished and has to cover the expense of the worker’s deportation. The worker will not be allowed to return to the Kingdom for a period of three years.
- The worker has the right to keep his passport and all his personal documents, including the work permit. The employer is not allowed to withhold any of these documents in any way.
- The worker has to keep the work permit with himself/herself at all times and everywhere, in order to be able to present it to the official authority upon request.
- The worker is not allowed to leave their job before ending the contract period, of one year, for any reason not permitted by law. The approval of the Ministry of Labor is required.
- The provisions of the Jordanian Labor Law govern all the workers and employers, whether Jordanian or non-Jordanian.
- Any condition in the contract or agreement includes the waiving of the workers on any of his/her rights guaranteed by law in considered void.
- The employer bears the financial burden of obtaining or renewing work permit fees, or any other expenses related to obtaining work permit.
- Social security contributions, (5.5%) of the monthly wage, in addition to the due income tax are deducted from the worker’s wage. The domestic workers are an exception because they are not included in the social security system yet.
- The worker must receive his/ her wages within a period no more than 7 days from the date of maturity. The wage must be paid under the worker’s written receipt.
- The worker is entitled to receive a 14-day paid leave per year. They become 21 days after 5 years of continuous working for the same employer.
- The worker is entitled to receive a 14-day paid sick leave per year, in a condition of providing a medical report from a doctor approved by the employer. This period can be extended for extra paid 14 days.
- The worker has to follow the verbal and written orders set by the employer. The worker must also comply with the instructions and conditions of occupational safety and health.
- If the worker does not receive any of his/her labor rights enshrined in the Labor Law or the working contract, the worker can file a complaint in the Directorate of Labor in the working area.
The worker has to keep a copy of the working contract. It is a condition to have the contract drafted in a language that the worker understands.

**Obligations:**
- To carry out the assigned work on his/her own.
- To exert the appropriate amount of effort in carrying out his/her duties.
- To abide the employer’s orders which are related to the implementation of the agreed upon work, but within the appropriate limits that do not put him or her in danger, break the law, or contradict public morals.
- To maintain the confidentiality of any secrets entrusted to the domestic worker by the employer.
- To keep the tools and supplies in his/her custody in good condition.
- To undergo the necessary medical examination required for domestic work.

**Protections**

**The employer is prohibited to:**
- Oblige the worker to complete work that was not previously and mutually agreed upon.
- Force the worker to work in a place outside of the domestic residence.
- Place the worker in an occupation that is a demotion from the agreed upon work.
- Pay the worker less than the agreed upon salary.
- To subject the worker to physical or verbal abuse in the work place.

In case the employer carries out any such prohibited actions the worker has the right to leave the work place without notice. However, the worker still has the right to claim his/her legal rights from the employer. In addition the worker has the right to ask for compensation for damages caused by the employer.

**The worker may also take action in the cases of:**
- If it is proven by a medical report issued by a medical reference that continuing to work in this profession would threaten his health.
- If the employer fails to implement any of the provisions of the labor law despite being warned by the Ministry of Labor regarding breaching of the labor law.

**Certificate of Service:**
- The employer is obliged to provide the worker with a certificate of service at the end of the workers time of working for this employer.
The certificate of service has to state only the name of the worker; the type of work, date of initial start of work, and the date of completion of the time the respective worker began his/her work.

In case the employer refuses to provide the worker with a certificate of service, or he/she shows a lack of commitment with the pre-mentioned requirements of the form, the worker has the right to file a complaint to the Labor Inspector or can ask the court to oblige the employer to issue such a certificate for him/her among other rights.

The Minimum Wages:

- The monthly wage must not be less than the amount stated currently in the Kingdom: 150 JD per month and 110 JD for domestic workers and workers in the garment sector.

It is not allowed to deduct from the wage except in the following cases approved by the law:

- To recover the advanced payment received by the worker; this advanced payment should not exceed 10% of the wage installment.
- To recover any sum of money paid to the worker that exceeds his/her dues.
- To deduct the social security contribution or any other amounts of money that had to be deducted from the salary due to the law.
- The deduct contributions for the savings fund.
- To deduct for the housing facilities or any other benefits provided by the employer.
- To implement or to fulfill the judicial rulings issued against the worker.
- The value of the disciplinary sanctions under the rules states by the by-law that is in accordance with the terms ratified by the Ministry of Labor.

Disciplinary Fines:

- It is not allowed to impose disciplinary fines unless it falls under the list of sanctions approved by the ministry.
- The value of the fines should not exceed three days wages per month. It is not allowed to suspend the work of the worker without paying him/her for more than three days.
- The worker must have the opportunity to speak in his/her defense before the employer can impose the fines.
- The worker has the right to appeal the punishment imposed by the employer, to the Labor Inspector within a week of such an action.
- It is not allowable to impose fines fifteen days after the infraction is committed.
The fines must be recorded in an official file that details the name of the worker, the amount of the workers’ wage, and reasons for imposing the fine. The fines should be allocated to achieve social services for workers.

Overtime:
- The worker may work extra hours provided his/her consent.
- The worker must receive an overtime fee of 125% of his/her normal wages as overtime payment.
- It is not permitted to oblige a worker to work overtime except for the purposes of carrying out the annual inventory, budget, and the final accounts. Overtime work should not exceed thirty days per year. Moreover, the working hours should not exceed 10 working hours per day. In case of emergency, in order to avoid the occurrence of loses or damages in the dues it can twenty days per year.

Holidays:
- Friday is the weekly day off unless the nature of the work requires that the weekly day off must be another day. It is allowable for the weekly holiday off to be more than one day.
- If the worker works in his/her weekly day off or in any official or religious vacation, he/she should receive an extra payment not less than 150% percent of his/her normal wage.

Annual Vacations:
- The duration of the annual vacation time is not less than 13 days. Annual vacation time is fully paid. Annual vacation time becomes 21 days for workers who have spent five consecutive years in their work.
- It is possible to postpone the vacation time to the following year providing the agreement between the two parties. The postponed leave will be forfeited if the worker does not take his/her leave during the following year.

Sick Leave:
- The duration of the sick leave is 14 days per year. Sick leave is fully paid. Sick leave can be renewed for a further 14 days with full payment.
- Days of leave provided for workers to attend educational courses related to labor culture.
- The duration of this vacation time is fourteen days with full pay provided that the Ministry of Labor accredits the course and there is an agreement between the employer and the union regarding the course.
**Conditions of the Work Permit:**

- The non-Jordanian must obtain a work permit from the Minister of Labor or his authorized delegate before being recruited or employed in Jordan. The duration of the work permit should not exceed one year upon renewal. The duration of the renewed work permit starts after the expiring of the previous work permit.
  - Recruiting a non-Jordanian worker breaches the law in the following cases:
    - Being recruited without obtaining a work permit.
    - Being recruited for another employer different from the one he/she is permitted to work for.
    - If he/she has the permission to work for another employer from the competent authority in the ministry he/she is allowed to do so.
    - Being recruited in a profession different than the one that he/she is authorized to work in.
- The Minister issues a decision regarding deporting the worker who breaches the aforementioned article.
- The employer or the director of the institution or foundation should financially cover the deportation of the worker.
- The non-Jordanian worker who has been deported due to breaching an article is not allowed to enter the Kingdom before the period of three years.

**Domestic Workers:**

- The work contract is to be drafted on four copies written in two languages; one language must be Arabic, the other language must be in a language understood by the worker. The employer, the domestic worker, the Minister, and the recruitment agency must retain a copy of the contract.

**The Commitment of the Employer:**

- To cover the financial costs of the residence permit and the work permit for non-Jordanian workers on an annual base.
- To pay the monthly wage of the domestic worker in Jordanian Dinars or its’ equivalent in foreign currencies. The monthly wage must be paid through the approaches and methods stated by the Minister of Labor for this purpose provided that the employer and the worker retain documents proves the payment of the monthly wage.
- The employer must use the domestic worker in the place that the employer and his family reside in permanently or temporarily. It is not allowable for any other person rather than the employer and his family members to give working orders to the domestic worker.
The domestic worker should be treated respectfully and provided with all the requirements and conditions related to decent work. All the needs of the domestic worker including: clothing, food and drink, well-lit and ventilated room, proper accommodations required for sleeping, and the right to privacy, should be granted to the domestic worker.

The employer should enable the domestic worker to contact his/her family abroad by telephone at the employer’s expense once a month. The domestic worker has the right to make additional phone calls on his/her own expense as well as the right to send them letters or e-mails.

If the employer and his/her family are leaving the country to live temporarily in another country they are not allowed to take the domestic worker with them without his/her approval. In case that the domestic worker in non-Jordanian the concerned embassy should be informed.

The employer should cover the cost of the non-Jordanian domestic worker’s airfare from his/her original country to the Kingdom. The employer has also to cover the cost of the domestic workers airfare from the Kingdom to his/her original country after the contract expires; a period of two years.

Provide the domestic worker with healthcare.

To allow the domestic worker to practice his/her religion provided that their actions are not contrary to public order and morality.

Provide the domestic worker with a place of residency, food, clothes, healthcare, and medical care. The employer is also committed not to impose any restrictions on the domestic workers correspondence with others.

**Obligations on Domestic Workers:**

- The domestic worker has to carry out his/her work with honesty and dedication.
- The domestic worker has to respect the privacy of the house that he/she works in. He/she must maintain the property of the employer and the contents of his/her house.
- The domestic worker must not reveal family-related secrets of the employer’s family.
- The domestic worker should respect the mainstream costumes and traditions of the society.
- The domestic worker is not supposed to leave the working place or be absent without the consent of the employer and informing the employer as to their location.
- If the domestic worker flees the working place without having the employer as the reason for fleeing, the domestic worker is responsible for all the financial obligations stated in the signed working contract and the cost of his/her repatriation.
**Working Hours:**

- The total working hours for the domestic worker is ten hours. The time needed by the domestic hours for meals and rest is not included in this time.
- The employer has the right to organize the working hours that the domestic worker has to perform the assigned work during the day due to the nature of the work and the need of the family.
- The employer has to provide the worker with a sufficient period of sleeping, which should not be less than 8 hours per day.

**Weekly Day Off:**

- The domestic worker has the right to one day off per week. If the employer needs the domestic worker to work on Friday, another day off can be agreed upon with the employer.

**Vacations:**

- The domestic worker has the right to 14 days of paid vacation every year. He/she can agree on these days with the employer. It is possible to postpone this vacation until the end of the contract.
- The worker has also the right to 14 paid sick-leave days during the year.

**End of Service:**

- After the expiration of the contract, the employer and the domestic worker are obliged to make a labor rights clearance, signed by both parties in front of the ministry of labor. Each party must retain a copy.
- The recruitment agency is prohibited to charge the domestic worker any amount of money in any way.
- The employer is obliged to cover the cost of the worker’s airfare from his/her country to Jordan, and the airfare from Jordan to his/her country provided that the worker spends more than two years working for the employer.
Agreement on
Labour Co-operation for Domestic Service Workers Recruitment between the Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs of the Republic of India and Ministry of Labour of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Preamble

The Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs of the Republic of India and the Ministry of Labour of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, hereinafter referred to as the Parties;

Desiring to enhance cooperation on the recruitment of Domestic Service Workers (DSW) to promote mutual benefits, as outlined in the Agreement, to secure the rights of both the domestic service workers and the employers pursuant to the prevailing laws and regulation of both parties; and

Recognising that this Agreement will enable both Parties towards a comprehensive labour cooperation Agreement.

 have agreed as follows:

Article 1
Parties to the Agreement

Parties to the Agreement are:
First Party: Ministry of Labour of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia;
Second Party: Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs of the Republic of India.

Article 2
Objective of the Agreement

This Agreement aims to protect the rights of both the employers and DSW and regulate the contractual relation between them.
Article 3
Areas of Cooperation between the Parties

The Parties shall:

(i) Agree that term DSW shall define the term “Domestic Service Workers” as the employees whose job is wholly or mainly to do domestic work in a dwelling that a household uses mainly to live in, and will include but not limited to gardeners, drivers of motor-vehicles and people who take care of children, the aged, the sick and the disabled;

(ii) Endeavour to control recruitment costs in both countries;

(iii) Ensure the recruitment of domestic service workers directly or through recruitment agencies, offices or companies that are licensed/registered by their respective governments;

(iv) Adopt a standard employment contract for DSWs, the text of which shall have been accepted by the competent authorities of the two countries, which shall be binding among the contracting parties (Employer, Domestic Workers, Saudi Recruitment Office, Indian Recruiting Agencies);

(v) Grant contractual parties the right of recourses to competent authorities within a fixed time-frame in case of contractual dispute to be specified by both parties in accordance with applicable laws;

(vi) Take legal measures against recruitment offices, companies or agencies in violation of the laws of either country;

(vii) Ensure that recruitment agencies, offices or companies of both countries and the employer shall not charge or deduct from the salary of the domestic worker any cost attendant to his/her recruitment and deployment or impose any kind of unauthorized salary deductions;

(viii) Cooperate to implement this Agreement and endeavor to resolve any issue arising during implementation and enforcement of any provision of this Agreement; and,
(ix) To work towards fostering a harmonious relationship between the employer and the DSWs based on mutual recognition of right to work with dignity and their respective cultures.

Article 4
Responsibilities of First Party

The First Party shall:

(i) Ensure that the recruitment, hiring and placement of DSWs under this Agreement shall be in accordance with the relevant laws, rules and regulations;

(ii) Ensure that the welfare and rights of DSWs employed in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia are promoted and protected in accordance with the applicable laws, rules and regulations;

(iii) Ensure the authenticity of the employment contract which shall provide among others, the rights and obligations of the employer and DSW and the terms and conditions of employment;

(iv) Ensure the implementation of the employment contract between the employer and the DSW;

(v) Endeavour to facilitate the expeditious settlement of labour contract violation cases and other cases filed before appropriate Saudi authorities/courts;

(vi) Facilitate the opening by the employer of a bank account under the name of the DSW for the deposit of his/her monthly salary as provided in the employment contract;

(vii) Endeavour to establish a mechanism which shall provide 24-hour assistance to the DSWs;

(viii) Facilitate the issuance of exit visas for the repatriation of DSWs upon contract completion, in an emergency situation or as the need arises;
Article 5
Responsibilities of the Second Party

The Second Party shall:

(i) Ensure that the DSWs recruited satisfy health requirement and are free of all communicable diseases by virtue of thorough medical examinations through reliable medical centers in India.

(ii) Ensure that prospective DSWs have no criminal/derogatory record;

(iii) Perform through Embassy of India verification/authentication of employment contracts by the parties recruiting Indian DSWs.

(iv) Urge prospective DSWs to observe Saudi laws, morals, ethics and customs while residing in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia;

(v) Facilitate repatriation of DSWs who violate contractual terms, and

(vi) Endeavour to put in place procedures/mechanism to allow and ease departure of prospective Indian DSW for Kingdom Saudi Arabia without delay.

Article 6
Settlement of Disputes

Any disputes arising out of interpretation and implementation of this Agreement shall be settled by both Parties amicably through diplomatic channels.

Article 7
Joint Committee

A Joint Committee shall be formed, composed of the representatives led by senior officials of the parties which shall perform the following:

a) Periodic review, assessment and monitoring of the implementation of this Agreement.
b) Conduct consultative meetings in India and Saudi Arabia alternately on a date and place mutually agreed by both Parties. The Joint Committee may set up sub-committees or nodal points as may be needed to meet regularly to discuss issues arising from this Agreement: and

c) Make necessary recommendations to resolve disputes arising from the implementation and the interpretation of the provisions of this Agreement or amendments to this Agreement, as may be necessary.

Article 8
Amendments to the Agreement

Any amendment or revision to any provisions of this Agreement shall be done by mutual consent and shall take effect on the date agreed upon by the Parties.

Article 9
Entry into force

Each Party shall notify the other Party in writing through the diplomatic channels of completion of required domestic legal procedures. This Agreement shall be effective as of the date of the latter notification thereof.

Article 10
Validity and duration

(i) This Agreement shall be valid for five years and shall be renewable for a similar period(s), unless either Party officially notifies the other Party in writing of its intent to suspend or terminate the Agreement two months prior to the expiry date of this Agreement.

(ii) Notwithstanding termination of this Agreement, its provisions shall remain in force with regard to Agreement and contracts concluded during validity of this Agreement.
This Agreement is done in the City of New Delhi on 2nd January, 2014 corresponding to 01/03/1435 H, in two originals; English, Hindi and Arabic, all texts being equally authentic, and in case of divergence in interpretation, the English text shall prevail.

On behalf of
Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs
Government of India

On behalf of
Ministry of Labour of the
Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Use of Bilateral Agreements as Compared to MoU’s in Asia

Characteristics of bilateral agreements and MoU’s in ASIA

General
- Mainly cover low-skilled and semi-skilled workers, as well as medical and technical professions
- Enhances the role of the recruitment sector without clear distinctions between the role of the State and accountability of private employment agencies
- A primary motivation for both countries of origin and destination is the need to meet labor market needs for low-skilled workers and reduce irregular migration
- A lack of monitoring and compliance remains a critical challenge

Rights Protection
- Agreement titles rarely reference rights, "MOU on Labor, Employment, and Manpower Development" or "Agreement on Labor Cooperation for Domestic Workers Recruitment"
- Human and labor rights violations throughout the migration process have recently been taken into account in bilateral negotiations, due often to civil society and media advocacy
- More recently, States have considered provisions on wage protections, employment contracts, and redress measures within BA’s and MOU’s

A partial list of mou’s signed in Asia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of Origin</th>
<th>Country of Destination</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Thailand (2003); Vietnam (on trafficking (2005))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greater Mekong Sub-region</td>
<td>MOU on Cooperation against Trafficking (2004), with Cambodia, People's Republic of China, Lao, Myanmar, Thailand and Vietnam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>Bahrain (2009); Jordan (1988); Kuwait (2007); Malaysia (2009); Qatar (1985, 2007); Oman (2008); UAE (2006, 2011); Saudi Arabia (on domestic workers (2014))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>Jordan (2001, 2009); Republic of Korea (2010); United Arab (2007; 2010); Malaysia (domestic workers (2006)); Qatar (2008); Taiwan (2004; 2008); Saudi Arabia (on domestic workers (2014))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lao</td>
<td>Thailand (2002); Vietnam (on trafficking (2010))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>Tunisia (2003, 2009 (on trafficking))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Bahrain (2008); Rep. of Korea (2007); Qatar (2005); UAE (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>Qatar (1978, 2008); UAE (2006), and Rep. of Korea (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>UAE (2007); Qatar (2008); Libya (2008); Jordan (2006); Bahrain (2008); South Korea (2004, 2010); Oman (2012); Saudi Arabia (on domestic workers (2014))</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.7 Engaging in Global and Regional Processes with a Gender Perspective

Objective: To become familiar with global or regional outcome documents for gender perspectives and practices. To develop national action plans that engage a global or regional process on migration and development with diverse stakeholders.

*This activity uses regional processes from the Asia-Pacific as an example. This can be replicated for other regions.

Materials/Preparation: Copies of the declarations and outcome documents from relevant processes for the training participants, handout on relevant Regional Processes chart paper, markers.

Estimated Time: 1 hour, 20 minutes

Facilitation

1. Begin by facilitating a group discussion to gauge how informed participants are on global and regional processes. Inquire what level participants’ engagement has been in the High Level Dialogue, Global Forum on Migration and Development, and/or Sustainable Development Goals?

2. Ask participants to form groups based on country, region, or a thematic issue area (such as domestic work and other sectors for women migrants or social protections). Direct participants to choose one global or regional process that is relevant or strategic to engage in. If a group chooses a regional process, give them the prepared handout on the relevant region. The groups read the relevant document and analyze for:

- Gender perspectives, gap, and implications for migrant women workers
- Gaps between international principles and national laws that are challenging the implementation of gender responsive migration policies?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Document</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Global Processes</td>
<td>UN High Level Dialogue on Migration and Development</td>
<td>Making Migration Work: An Eight Point Agenda for Action, UNHLD, 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Global Forum on Migration and Development</td>
<td>Report on Outcomes of Roundtable 1: Human Mobility and the Well-being of Migrants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sustainable Development Goals</td>
<td>IOM SDG Goal and Target Chart on Migration, Migration Governance Index</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Ask participants to form groups based on country, region, or a thematic issue area (such as domestic work and other sectors for women migrants or social protections). Direct participants to choose one global or regional process that is relevant or strategic to engage in. If a group chooses a regional process, give them the prepared handout on the relevant region. The groups read the relevant document and analyze for:

- Gender perspectives, gap, and implications for migrant women workers
- Gaps between international principles and national laws that are challenging the implementation of gender responsive migration policies?

4. Have each group present their analysis of the document followed by their action plan for engagement in that process. What are key issues or opportunities for engagement to raise gender perspectives on migration and development? In regards to the global and regional and protections for low-wage or irregular women migrant workers in various sectors: What are sending countries versus receiving countries challenges? What are rights and obligations on both ends?
Key Lesson learned

Each global and regional forum will have very different, complex and evolving political frameworks and ways of functioning. It is important to examine the history, gender-based outcomes and documents, and stakeholders for these events. This is often best done in preparatory sessions pooling resources of regional networks before attendance. Facilitate the development of clear institutional and collective objectives on promoting the rights of women migrant workers for participating in these processes with organizations, agencies, and stakeholders.

Strategize short and long-term approaches based on the challenges for engagement that exist including: low capacity by local and national organizations, lack of ongoing flow of information on processes, challenge to implement non-binding outcomes, and the long-term nature of the processes.

Given these challenges, there are also opportunities and a great need to mainstream gender in global and regional migration forums. The ongoing exchange of good practices and outcomes is a primary benefit from participation in these processes. They can also be used to bolster rights strategies for migrant women workers at the local and national level.

For the national action plans, consider specific gender mainstreaming priority areas to promote and protect the rights of women migrant workers. This includes an analysis of which actors must engage: government entities, NGO’s, grassroots groups, men’s organizations, LGBTI migrant groups, religious and social service agencies, trade unions, universities, etc. The thematic focus areas in any given forum may or may not be relevant for the local and national context. If they are not relevant, it is important to consider whether participation is effective and other benefits that could arise such as new networks and skills-building for staff and participants on gender-based migration debates, resources, best practices, and policy approaches.
Overview of Regional Processes Asia-Pacific

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) Forum on Migrant Labor (AFML): ASEAN Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Worker</th>
<th>A tripartite platform to discuss regional labor migration</th>
<th>2007 (Declaration) 2009 (AFML)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SAARC- South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation: Kathmandu Declaration and Plan of Action for Cooperation on Matters Relating to Migration</td>
<td>A coherence process among SAARC member states to negotiate for minimal regional standards on labor migration</td>
<td>2014 (Declaration) 2015 (Plan of Action)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombo Process</td>
<td>Treaty between states, under the 1969 Vienna Convention</td>
<td>2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abu Dhabi process</td>
<td>Requires ratification by states</td>
<td>2008</td>
</tr>
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</table>

ASEAN Forum on Migrant Labor (AFML)

The ASEAN Forum on Migrant Labor was institutionalized in 2009 as a regular open platform for governments, workers, civil society, and employers to address regional labor migration issues. The AFML is charged with building consensus towards implementing the principles set forth in the ASEAN Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers of 2007 (also called the Cebu Declaration).

Key Components of the Declaration Relevant for Women Migrant Workers

**GENERAL PRINCIPLES**

1. Both the receiving states and sending states shall strengthen the political, economic and social pillars of the ASEAN Community by promoting the full potential and dignity of migrant workers in a climate of freedom, equity, and stability in accordance with the laws, regulations, and policies of respective ASEAN Member Countries;

**OBLIGATIONS OF RECEIVING STATES**

8. Promote fair and appropriate employment protection, payment of wages, and adequate access to decent working and living conditions for migrant workers;

9. Provide migrant workers, who may be victims of discrimination, abuse, exploitation, violence, with adequate access to the legal and judicial system of the receiving states;

**OBLIGATIONS OF SENDING STATES**

13. Set up policies and procedures to facilitate aspects of migration of workers, including recruitment, preparation for deployment overseas and protection of the migrant workers when abroad as well as repatriation and reintegration to the countries of origin; and

14. Establish and promote legal practices to regulate recruitment of migrant workers and adopt mechanisms to eliminate recruitment malpractices through legal and valid contracts, regulation and accreditation of recruitment agencies and employers, and blacklisting of negligent/unlawful agencies.
COMMITMENTS BY ASEAN

16. Establish and implement human resource development programs and reintegration programs for migrant workers in their countries of origin;

22. Task the relevant ASEAN bodies to follow up on the Declaration and to develop an ASEAN instrument on the protection and promotion of the rights of migrant workers, consistent with ASEAN’s vision of a caring and sharing Community, and direct the Secretary-General of ASEAN to submit annually a report on the progress of the implementation of the Declaration to the Summit through the ASEAN Ministerial Meeting.

SAARC Plan of Action for Labor Migration

Proposed by the government of Nepal in 2015, the SAARC Plan of Action seeks minimal regional standards on labor migration to build greater coherence among SAARC member states. Proposed labor protections include minimum wages, standard employment contracts, and working hours and leave time, and portable social security schemes.

Key Components

KATHAMNDU DECLARATION [November 2014]

• Under item No. 21 of the declaration, the SAARC Heads of States/Governments have agreed to ‘collaborate and cooperate on safe, orderly and responsible management of labour migration from South Asia to ensure safety, security and wellbeing of their migrant workers in the destination countries outside the region.’

PLAN OF ACTION [September 2015]

• To realize SAARC Declaration commitment No. 21
• Establish a regional institutional mechanism for management of labor migration and endorsed by Labor Ministerial level of SAARC countries
• Draft and adopt a “SAARC Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights and Welfare of Migrant Workers”
• Regional framework for skills qualification
• Formulate and lobby to adopt Standard Employment Contracts
• Regional labor migration information sharing
• Regional regulatory framework for ethical recruitment
• Maximize development potential of migration
• Improve justice and support mechanisms
**Colombo Process: Migration for Prosperity**

An estimated 2.5 Asian leave their countries every year for contract work. The Colombo Process is a Regional Consultative Process (RCP) launched in 2033 for countries of origin in Asia to optimize the benefits of organized labor migration and to identify steps to protect migrant workers.

### Key Components

- Member states include Afghanistan, Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Vietnam
- In Bali, several destination countries joined the dialogues, some as Observer states including Australia, Bahrain, the EU, Italy, Kuwait, Malaysia, Qatar, Korea, Saudi Arabia, South Korea, Switzerland, UAE, and USA
- Participants include the Asian Development Bank, ASEAN, European Commission, GCC, ILO, UN Women, World Bank, and IOM

### Objectives

- Share experiences, lessons learned and best practices on overseas employment.
- Consult on issues faced by overseas workers and propose practical solutions for the well being of overseas workers.
- Optimize development benefits from organized overseas employment and enhance dialogue with countries of destination.
- Review and monitor the implementation of the recommendations and identify further steps for action.

### Thematic Areas

1. Protecting migrant workers from abusive practices in recruitment and employment, and providing appropriate services to them in terms of pre-departure information, orientation and welfare provisions.
2. Optimizing benefits of organized labor migration – This increasing remittance flows through formal channels and enhancing the development impact of remittances.
3. Capacity building, data collection and inter-state cooperation

### Advocacy Tools and Strategies

#### Dhaka Declaration

1. **Promoting Rights, Welfare, and Dignity**
   - Decent Work for migrant workers, including in low-skills and low-wage sectors, and to design employment contracts based on existing good practice models
   - Mechanisms to eliminate unethical practices including deduction/non-payment, transparency and monitoring of recruitment practices
   - Specific needs of vulnerable groups of migrant workers, especially women and domestic workers

2. **Services and Capacity Building**
   - Advocacy campaigns to inform potential migrant workers on safe and legal channels and formal remittance channels
   - One-stop migrant workers’ resource centers
   - Skills training and development

3. **Emergency Response**
   - Sharing best practices

### Activities for Engagement

- Training programs for stakeholders- For example, Organizing the Association of Employment Agencies in Asia for Ethical Recruitment
- Sharing best practices on protections and support services
- Strengthen labor market research units at national levels
- Setting up Migrant Resource Centers and information campaigns
- Collaborative dialogue with destination countries- For Example, the Abu Dhabi Dialogue (see next box)
## Abu Dhabi Dialogue

The Abu Dhabi Dialogue was established in 2008 prompted by growing temporary contractual labor mobility from Asian origin countries to GCC (Gulf Cooperation Council) states. The United Arab Emirates hosted the inaugural Ministerial Consultation between Colombo process countries and destination countries. For the first time, brought together particularly the GCC states with Asian countries in Colombo process.

### Key Components

- Under the framework of UN General Assembly High-level Dialogue on International Migration and Development (2006), and the Global Forum on Migration and Development in Brussels (2007) to highlight the relationships between international mobility, poverty alleviation and development.
- Second Ministerial Consultation was held in Manila in 2012 and the Third Ministerial Consultation in Kuwait in 2014.
- Nine Destination Countries include: Bahrain, Kuwait, Malaysia, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, United Arab Emirates and Yemen.
- Observer States include: France, Germany, Mauritius, the Republic of Korea, Japan, Poland and the United States.
- Partner: European Commission (EC)

### Objectives

- Develop and share knowledge on labor market trends, skills profiles, workers and remittances policies and flows, and the relationship to progress.
- Build capacity for more effective harmonizing of labor supply and demand.
- Prevent illegal recruitment and promote welfare and protection measures for contractual workers.
- Develop a structure for a comprehensive approach to managing the entire cycle of temporary contractual work that fosters the common interest of countries of origin and destination.

### Advocacy Tools and Strategies

**Abu Dhabi Declaration**

- Highlights increasing competition in a global economy to boost economic growth through labor mobility at all skill levels.
- Recognizes the joint responsibility of countries of origin and destination to enforce compliance by recruitment agencies according to national laws in origin and destination.
- Identifies the best economic and social outcomes through:
  - Providing all workers with good living and working conditions.
  - Facilitating remittances.

### Activities for Engagement

Information sharing, capacity building, and cooperation based on 4 Partnerships:

1. Enhancing knowledge on labor market trends and remittance flows and development.
2. Effective matching of labor demand and supply.
3. Preventing illegal recruitment practices and promoting welfare and protection for contractual workers.
4. Developing a comprehensive framework for managing the entire cycle of temporary contractual mobility.
ENDNOTES


44. Ibid.

45. For example, studies in the Philippines found that the educational performance of migrants’ children was lower than that of children of non-migrants (Battistella and Conaco 1996) while other studies show no significant difference or even that migrants’ children have better performance (for example, University of the Philippines et al 2002 and Scalabrini Migration Center 2003).


48. The national program called Wawa Wasi, which means “house of the babies” in Quechua, is a day care program created in 1994. The wawa wasi are neighborhood homes where children of up to 4 years of age are cared for. The caretakers are mothers who agree to watch a group of up to 8 children who range from infants to pre-school age. For their services, they receive a monthly stipend from the program, and a small daily fee from the families. By calling the care workers “volunteers,” the State has been relieved of its obligation to recognize their labor rights.


50. ILO Multilateral Framework on Labour Migration, Non-binding principles and guidelines for a rights-based approach to labour migration, 2006

51. Piper, Dr. Nicola and Lee, Soohoon, “Contributions of Migrant Domestic Workers to Sustainable Development: Policy Paper for the Pre-GFMD VI High Level Regional Meeting on Migrant Domestic Workers at the Interface of Migration and Development”, UN Women, 2013

52. Recommendations of the 7th ASEAN Forum on Migrant Labour, 2014 (Nro. 16)


54. Asis, Maruja M. B. and Agunias, Dovelyn Ramnveig, “Strengthening Pre-departure Orientation Programmes in Indonesia, Nepal, and the Philippines” International Organization for Migration (IOM) and Migration Policy Institute (MPI) Issue in Brief, September 2012


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58. Migrant Forum in Asia, “Standardised Contract for Migrant Domestic Workers”, Policy Brief No. 1

59. Ibid.


62. “Receiving Countries: Kingdom of Jordan” in Review of Laws, Policies, and Regulations Governing Labour Migration in Asian and Arab States, UN Women


64. Migrant Forum in Asia, “Bilateral Agreements and Memoranda of Understanding for the Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families”, 2014

65. Ibid.

66. Unless otherwise indicated, these figures are taken from Rios and Hooton (2005) and refer to the entire Latina population, both immigrant (53 per cent) and non-immigrant.

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68. Available at: http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/cedaw/docs/CR_26_on_women_migrant_workers_en.pdf

69. See the complete text of the Convention here: http://www.ilo.org/ilolex/cgi-lex/convde.pl?C189

70. For more information, see http://www.ilo.org/actrav/areas/WCMS_DOC_ATR_ARE_DOM_EN/lang--en/index.htm

73. Migrant Forum in Asia, “Bilateral Agreements and memoranda of Understanding for the Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families”, 2014
76. See Guide One, ’Gender Analysis of the Migration-Development Relationship’, pages 26-39
79. Ibid.
80. Hennebry et al., “Bilateral Labour Migration Agreements, Development, and Trade: Complexity, Contradiction, and Coherence”, IMRC and KNOMAD
81. Ibid.
82. Wickramasekara, “Bilateral Agreements and memoranda of Understanding on Migration of Low Skilled Workers”, ILO
83. Hennebry et al., “Bilateral Labour Migration Agreements, Development, and Trade: Complexity, Contradiction, and Coherence”, IMRC and KNOMAD
85. Hennebry et al., “Bilateral Labour Migration Agreements, Development, and Trade: Complexity, Contradiction, and Coherence”, IMRC and KNOMAD
87. Wickramasekara, Piyasiri, “Bilateral Agreements and memoranda of Understanding on Migration of Low Skilled Workers”, ILO
89. Migrant Forum in Asia, “Bilateral Agreements and memoranda of Understanding for the Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families”, 2014
92. Wickramasekara, Piyasiri, “Bilateral Agreements and memoranda of Understanding on Migration of Low Skilled Workers: A Review, ILO
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101. From: Annex 3. Chronology of International Migration Main Events including gender-related and development recommendations
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112. Ibid
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115. Wickramasekara, Piyasiri, “Bilateral Agreements and memoranda of Understanding on Migration of Low Skilled Workers”, ILO
117. Ibid
118. Wickramasekara, Piyasiri, “Bilateral Agreements and memorandum of Understanding on Migration of Low Skilled Workers”, ILO
119. Migrant Forum in Asia, “Bilateral Agreements and memorandum of Understanding for the Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families”, 2014
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121. ASEAN Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers, 2007
122. Kathmandu Declaration, Eighteenth SAARC Summit, 2014
123. Dhaka Declaration of Colombo Process Member Countries, 2011
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- ILO Greater Mekong Sub region (GMS Triangle Project) Pre-departure Training Curriculum

By country in Asia

Myanmar

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Nepal

- Pourakhi - An organization of returnee migrant women

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- Review of Laws, Policies, and Regulations Governing Labour Migration in Asian and Arab States- UN Women
EMERGING ISSUES IN GENDER, MIGRATION, AND DEVELOPMENT
This guide does not include any training activity but aims to offer a quick state of the art on those three topics as well as recommendations for actions, and resources.
5.1 “Sexual orientation, gender identity and expression: human rights of LGBTI migrants”

Objectives:

1. To broaden the conception of gender and sexuality beyond binaries and understand the experiences of lesbian, bisexual, transgender and intersex (LBTI) migrants

2. To understand the full spectrum of human rights protections on Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity and Expression (SOGIE) to integrate into policies and programs that raise awareness and promote the rights of LGBTI migrants

There is growing global recognition of the dignity and fundamental human rights of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and intersex (LGBTI) people in many societies and within international human rights systems. In 2015, Mozambique decriminalized homosexuality while Mexico, Ireland, and the United States legalized same-sex marriage. Legal recognition of transgender identity was delinked from undergoing medical procedures in Colombia, Ireland, and Malta. Nepal’s constitution protects sexual and gender minorities. On the other hand, documented discrimination and violence against LGBTI people has alarmingly increased in many countries. Sexual orientation and gender identity are criminalized in at least 76 countries, which include laws prohibiting intimacy between same sex persons or dressing as the opposite sex. Punishment can include imprisonment, lashings, the death penalty, and often condones broader societal violence from private actors as well. This tide of repressive laws and policies that criminalize sexual orientation and gender identity and expression (SOGIE) is driving an emerging trend of ‘pink migration’. Pink migration refers to LGBTI people migrating to seek safety and freedom of expression, sometimes seeking refugee status in certain destination countries.
Sexual orientation and gender identity have been a reason people migrate for quite some time, yet little attention has been given to research the links between migration and identities of gender and sexuality, particularly in how this interacts with economic and other decision factors for migrant women workers. It is often assumed that economic factors mainly drive women to migrate for work, yet this oversimplifies the complexity of multiple factors that drive a woman’s decision to migrate. Economic reasons interact with a multitude of context specific social, cultural, and political factors, including one’s sexual orientation and gender identity and expression. For women who privately or openly identify or are perceived as lesbian, bisexual, transgender, or intersex, there are often added barriers and discrimination in the labor market and formal economy that fuel the economic drive to migrate, impact their experiences in transit, and shape their opportunities and challenges in destination countries. A first level of migration for women in countries with higher levels of discrimination against gender and sexual minorities is often to migrate from rural to more cosmopolitan urban areas and a second level is
into neighboring countries where there may be relatively less threat of violence or acceptance. Finally, some women with more resources or with access to labor migration opportunities may migrate internationally to countries, at least partially, for greater legal and social protections for LGBTI persons\textsuperscript{129}.

Many assumptions made about women migrant workers are thus also hetero-normative (see Glossary below) where it is assumed that they are heterosexual, adhere to traditional gender norms, or identify with the gender they were assigned at birth. This is not true for all migrant women, whether they migrate alone or with family members. In fact migrant women and their families (legally or informally) can be very diverse and may not fit these assumptions. For migrant women, understanding the complexities of people’s sexual orientation and gender identity and expression (SOGIE) and how there are received is a core part of employing a gender lens that is cross cutting with multiple identities. This intersectional\textsuperscript{129} approach to gender analysis takes into account how gender and non-binary gender identities interplay with a spectrum of lived realities that women face in terms of economic status, education, race and ethnicity, migration status, religion, and sexual orientation among others. For migrant women, these intersecting identities lead to a diversity of experiences, exposure to discrimination or violence, for a different set of opportunities, and a need for policies that can prevent discrimination and protect and uphold their rights.

5.1.1 Concepts and Definitions: The Experiences of Lesbian, Bisexual, Transgender, and Intersex (LBTI) Migrant Women

Note: When addressing migrant women, the term lesbian, bisexual, transgender, and intersex or ‘LBTI’ includes people who identify as a women. In contrast, the term ‘gay’ is usually used by those identify as a male, although gay can also be an umbrella term that some who identify as a women also use. (See the Glossary of Terms Table below).

As with gender, a person’s self-identified or perceived sexual orientation and gender identity impacts all stages of the migration cycle- vulnerabilities, outcomes, and policies and programs that address migrant women. Identifying one’s own or another person’s sexual orientation and gender identity and expression, however, is a complex and sensitive matter. For many migrant women, self-identifying or ‘coming out’ as lesbian, bisexual, transgender and/or intersex (LBTI) or gender-nonconforming is challenging for a variety of reasons. Some of these factors and layers of discrimination LGBTI migrant women face include:

- Feeling shame, particularly if raised in societies where not conforming to traditional heterosexual or ‘feminine’ identities is criminalized or socially stigmatized\textsuperscript{131}. This can be true in countries of origin, destination and transit, depending on the social and political climate for LGBTI people in that society and time
Lacking support and facing denial, mistreatment or violence by family members and their own communities

Experiencing double discrimination as women and as LBTI or gender-nonconforming people leading to less options for employment and often pushing women into the informal sector where they face greater vulnerabilities and lack of labor rights. This includes those who are channeled into trafficking for entertainment or sex work as an only livelihood option

For women who have migrated, fearing and constantly navigating triple discrimination as women, migrants, and as LBTI people from employers, recruiters, border officials, law enforcement, public officials, private individuals, in accessing services, in public places, and in the workplace

Fearing further isolation and losing social support networks even within migrant communities in the destination country, from families left behind in origin country if they are found out, and upon return

These multiple factors and real consequences shape whether a migrant woman decides to express her sexual orientation and gender identity or try to ‘pass’ as a heterosexual and gender-conforming woman. Given that ‘LGBTI’ is an umbrella term under which there is much variety, it is vital to first understand the general terms and definitions on sexual orientation and gender identity. However, it is also important to recognize people’s own choice of terms and pronouns as well as changing cultural and social contexts over time in different regions. A good practice is to understand the perspectives and approach of LGBTI social movements and activists in local and national contexts in regards to conceptualizing identities and creating effective social change strategies.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sexual Orientation</td>
<td>A person’s capacity for romantic, emotional and/or sexual attraction to those of a certain sex or gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesbian</td>
<td>A person who identifies as a woman and who is attracted romantically, emotionally and/or sexually only or mainly to other women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gay</td>
<td>A word that describes a person identified as a man and who is attracted romantically, emotionally and/or sexually only or mainly to other men. ‘Gay’ can also be an umbrella term used to describe anyone who is attracted to the same sex.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterosexual or “Straight”</td>
<td>A word that describes persons who are attracted romantically, emotionally and/or sexually to those of a different sex or gender.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homosexual</td>
<td>A word that describes persons who are attracted romantically, emotionally and/or sexually to those of the same sex or gender. Many view this term as outdated and stigmatizing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bisexual</td>
<td>A person who experiences romantic, emotional and/or sexual attraction to those of the same and a different sex or gender.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queer</td>
<td>A term used by some LGBTI persons to be inclusive of a wide range of sexual orientations and gender identities. Queer was historically used as a negative term, but has been reclaimed by LGBTI communities to express those who diverge from traditional social expectations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ally</td>
<td>A heterosexual and gender conforming person who supports LGBTI people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex Orientation</td>
<td>The classification of a person based on their biological characteristics at birth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intersex</td>
<td>A person born with reproductive or biological anatomy that does not fit the conventional definition of male or female. Intersex is the term used over the outdated term ‘hermaphrodite’. Intersex persons are often assigned as either male or female at birth and can grow up to identify with that same or a different gender later.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Identity</td>
<td>A person’s deeply felt and individual expression of gender, such as being a man, woman, in-between, neither, or something else. This may or may not reflect the sex they were assigned at birth or gender attributed to them by society.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transgender or “Trans”</td>
<td>A term for people whose gender identity is different from what they were assigned at birth. A transwoman is someone who identifies as a woman but was assigned as male at birth. A transman is someone who identifies as a man but was assigned as female at birth. The term ‘trans’ is inclusive of transmale and transfemale experiences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transexual</td>
<td>An older term used by some whose gender identity is different from what they were assigned at birth. This term is no longer considered political and social acceptable in many places.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genderqueer, Third Gender or Non-binary</td>
<td>An umbrella term used to describe people whose gender identity falls outside of the traditional male/female binary. Genderqueer persons do not identify as only a man or a woman. They may perceive and/or express themselves as both a man and woman, with no gender, moving between genders, or having a third gender.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Prejudice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prejudice</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homophobia, Biphobia, or Transphobia</td>
<td>A fear or hatred or LGBTI people or those not conforming to traditional sexual orientation and gender identity. This can result in discrimination and violence at micro, meso, and macro levels in society.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterosexism</td>
<td>Actively discrimination based on considering heterosexuality as normal, natural, and superior.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hetero-normativity</td>
<td>Passive acceptance of cultural values and norms of gender and sexuality. This often manifests in assumptions made such as in day-to-day conversations about relationship expectations and the definition of families.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.1.2 Human Rights Violations: How Women’s Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity and Expression Impact Decisions and Experiences in Migration

In recent years, with the increase of forced and voluntary migration of LGBTI and gender non-conforming people fleeing persecution and violence, most existing research and policy efforts focus on those who are seeking asylum or granted refugee status in destination countries under the UN 1951 Convention relating to the status of Refugees. Some countries of asylum and the UN High Commissioner of Refugees have recognized LGBTI people as able to make refugee claims as ‘members of a particular social group’ or based on fear of persecution or one’s political opinions. Other LBTI women migrants may simply be invisible as economic migrants, participating in labor migration channels open to women, or as irregular migrants. For the reasons of shame and fear described above, some migrant women workers simply do not claim sexual orientation and gender identity as a decision-making factor for migrating. Even when the main or stated reason for migration is for employment, women’s aspiration for economic independence overlap with aspirations for and exposure to greater personal, social, and political empowerment in the migration process (as addressed in Guides 1 and 2). As discussed in Guide 1, migration can be empowering for women who migrate independently without partners, allowing greater autonomy over their lives and bodies, particularly if migrating to more socially open countries in the global North. Yet very few studies have documented the degree to which sexual orientation and gender identity and expression impact women’s presence in broader and mixed migration flows.

For migrant women and all people, sexual orientation and gender identity and expression pose severe threats, marginalization and human rights challenges which overlap with multiple intersectional identities that shape their enjoyment of the full range of human development benefits:
Human Rights Violations Experienced by LGBTI Migrants and All People in Countries of Origin, Transit, and Destination:

- Discrimination, harassment, or psychological abuse within the family, community, schools, or workplaces. Lesbians and transgender people are at greater risk given the inequality they already face in broader society.
- Laws criminalizing consensual same-sex relationships between adults that can lead to arbitrary arrest, detention, and even the death penalty.
- Physical violence and killings by private actors, mobs, or by family members.
- Sexual violence including street assaults and ‘corrective rape’, particularly of lesbian women and girls.
- Discriminatory laws and social practices that deny access to healthcare, education, housing, and employment.
- Limited or no work options pushing many LGBTI persons into sex or entertainment work and other occupations in the informal sector, and the greater risks of physical, sexual, and other forms of violence in this sector.
- Repression of freedom of expression such as bans to forming LGBTI support organizations or centers, gathering in parades or public spaces, or providing information on rights.
- No recognition of same sex relationships and civil unions, including lacking access to benefits.
- Challenges to gaining personal and economic independence from family members, communities, and societies to be able to question or express one’s sexuality and gender identity or norms, including dress and behaviors.
- For many LGBTI family members or youth, coming out or being perceived as LGBTI leads to marginalization, violence, and being pushed out of the family, often into homelessness.
- Variability in social acceptance and rights protections for LGBTI people in origin, transit, and destination countries.

Although migration based on protection for sexual orientation and gender identity and expression may be one informing factor for migrant women workers and there may greater safety and empowerment in some of these pathways, it is important to note that for many women, the conditions faced in countries of origin continue and even worsen in transit and destination countries. Added to continued discrimination in daily life, LBGTI migrant women often face new forms of discrimination based on nationality, migration status, race, xenophobic climates, gender, language, and other factors. Some may face stigmatization or
greater acceptance from their peer networks of other migrants. All of this shapes the balance of marginalization or empowerment women LBTI migrant workers face and may or may not lead to not expressing their sexuality orientation or gender identity and expression even after migrating\textsuperscript{140}.

5.1.3 International Normative Frameworks for LGBTI Rights and Migrants

In the international human rights system, LGBTI rights have been recognized under the full range of civil, political, and economic, social and cultural rights of all people without discrimination of any kind. With the evolution of international human rights law, Human Rights Treaty Bodies, the Special Rapporteur on violence against women and other independent experts have reported patterns of discrimination and violence based on sexual orientation and gender identity and made recommendations to states since the early 1990s\textsuperscript{141}. The Human Rights Committee held that Article 26 in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) referring to ‘sex’ as a ground for nondiscrimination includes sexual orientation\textsuperscript{142}. In addition, regional treaty bodies have upheld that human rights law applies to discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity. Beginning in June 2011, the Human Rights Council has adopted a series of resolutions and submitted reports documenting human rights violations and making recommendations to states to respect, protect, and fulfill the rights of LGBTI persons.
Summary of Recommendations to States: Five Steps

Based on nearly two decades of documenting violence faced by LGBTI people and specific guidance issues to States, the UN Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights set forth advice to States to take the steps needed toward meeting their fundamental human rights obligations:

1. Protect people from homophobic and transphobic violence
   - Include sexual orientation and gender identity and expression as protected characteristics under hate crimes laws
   - Establish effective systems to record and report such hate crimes
   - Ensure investigation and prosecution of perpetrators and redress for victims
   - Incorporate persecution based on sexual orientation and gender identity as a valid basis for claims in asylum law

2. Prevent the torture, inhuman and degrading treatment of LGBTI persons
   - Prohibit and punish acts of torture and ill-treatment
   - Provide proper access to redress to victims
   - Ensure that acts of brutality by law enforcement officers and other officials are investigated and brought to justice
   - Take preventative measures such as training law enforcement officers and monitoring detention facilities

3. Repeal laws criminalizing homosexuality
   - Such criminalization laws to repeal should include those prohibiting private sexual conduct between consenting adults of the same sex
   - Ensure people are not arrested or detained on the basis of sexual orientation and gender identity
   - Ensure people are not subjected to degrading physical examinations to determine their sexual orientation

4. Prohibit people from homophobic and transphobic violence
   - Enact laws that include sexual orientation and gender identity and expression as prohibited grounds for discrimination
   - Ensure non-discriminatory access to basic services, including employment and health care, particularly appropriate sexual health and reproductive care
   - Provide education and training to prevent stigmatization of LGBTI people

5. Safeguard freedom of expression, association and assembly for LGBTI people
   - Protect those who exercise their rights to freedom of expression and association from violence and intimidation

International Human Rights Instruments and Bodies

- Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights- General Comment No. 22 on the Right to Sexual and Reproductive Health, May 2016

Paragraph 9 recognizes the interdependence of realizing sexual and reproductive rights with other human rights and specifically calls for States to “ensure non-discrimination and employment with maternity protection and parental leave for workers, including workers in vulnerable situations, such as migrant workers”... “as well as protection from sexual harassment and prohibition of discrimination based on pregnancy, childbirth, parenthood, sexual orientation, gender identity or intersex status.”
• CEDAW General Recommendation 28 on the Core Obligations of States Parties, October 2010

Paragraph 18 under general obligations of states in article 2 of CEDAW upholds intersectionality stating “discrimination of women based on sex and gender is inextricably linked with other factors that affect women, such as race, ethnicity, religion or belief, health, status, age, class, caste, sexual orientation and gender identity.”

Paragraph 12 defines the obligations of State parties “without discrimination both to citizens and non-citizens, including refugees, asylum seekers, migrant workers and stateless persons, within their territory or effective control…”

UN Resolutions

Human Rights Council Resolution 32/2 from June 2016 on Protection against violence and discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity

For the first time, mandates the appointment of an Independent Expert on protection against violence and discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity to assess the implementation of existing international human rights instruments, raise awareness of and address intersecting forms of violence and discrimination, engage with States and other stakeholders, and to facilitate capacity building to help address violence and discrimination on these grounds.

• Human Rights Council Resolution 27/32 from October 2014 on Human rights, sexual orientation and gender identity
• Human Rights Council Resolution 17/19 from July 2011 on Human rights, sexual orientation and gender identity

Reports

• High Commissioner’s report (A/HRC/19/41) to the Human Rights Council on discrimination and violence based on sexual orientation and gender identity, December 2011

Statements

• Joint UN statement on Ending violence and discrimination against lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex people, 2015

A landmark joint statement and blueprint for action across twelve UN agencies, including UN Women, which highlights recommendations to States to protect individuals from violence and discrimination, repeal discriminatory laws, and offer support to states for implementation.
5.1.4 Emerging Strategies and Activities to Uphold LBTI and Gender-Nonconforming Migrant Women’s Rights

Including and addressing the needs of lesbian, bisexual, transgender, and intersex (LBTI) as well as gender-nonconforming migrant women is critical for migrant women’s organizations, civil society organizations, government actors, and international organizations working for the rights of migrant women in all stages:

1. **Pre-departure phase:** Informing potential migrant women of added risks, new opportunities, and potential resources if they identify as LBTI or gender non-conforming persons

2. **In transit and destination phases:** Providing strategies and tools to challenge homophobia, prevent violence and end discrimination

3. **Post-return phase:** Providing safe and inclusive re-integration programs and challenging homophobia, violence and discrimination in communities of origin

4. **In all phases:** Creating safe, supportive, and sensitive programs as well as documentation and redress mechanisms specific for LBTI migrant women

**Recommendations for the Short-term and Long-term:**

Meaningful and context appropriate long-term policy and legal interventions to protect and promote the rights of LBTI migrant women requires time to build awareness, intersectional coalitions, greater documentation and policy change momentum. Short-term strategies can be put into place immediately to lay the groundwork for this by increasing education and building inclusive policy agendas on sexual orientation and gender identity and expression as a core part of advocacy for women migrant workers.

(See advocacy guidebooks and tools in the ‘Resources’ section below)

**Short-Term Strategies**

1. **Conduct documentation, research, and data collection on LBTI migrant women**

   Documentation programs should place the experiences, discrimination, rights violations, and strategies of LBTI and gender non-conforming migrant women and broader communities they are part of. Documentation should be developed to account for the safety and agency of LBTI migrant women and can learn much from best practices developed in local and regional LGBTI advocacy groups for a number of years. The outcomes or reports from documentation projects may or may not be used in public efforts and should involve careful consideration and decisions from LBTI migrant women and advocates themselves. Documentation is a key step towards recognition of the scope of the issues and as a tool for education and advocacy with various stakeholders. Engage in creative documentation
that does not rely solely on quantitative, but also qualitative data collection and research methods can help understand to what extent sexual orientation and gender identity intersect with multiple other experiences for migrant women. Best practices for research should promote culturally and socially sensitive methods that protect the ability of women to self-identify and to not be ‘outed’ unless they choose so.

2. **Facilitate trainings on sexual orientation, gender identity and expression for those who work with women migrants and vice versa**

LGBTI sensitivity and human rights training should be required for all who work directly with migrant women and those crafting policies and programs, including migrant women themselves, government officials, law enforcement agents, civil society groups, recruitment actors and employers. Sexual orientation, gender identity and expression awareness and concerns should be addressed in all phases (pre-departure, transit, post-arrival, and reintegration). Training for consulates, law enforcement agencies, service providers, and migrant advocacy groups in destination countries is key in order to ensure protection and information for LGBTI migrant women in already vulnerable situations. A first objective for such trainings can be increasing understanding and sensitivity on how the experiences of being a migrant, women, and LGBTI or gender non-conforming person interconnect including for those who do not publically identify as such. Training contents should go beyond this to address human rights violations, rights protection and violence prevention strategies, and resources for support and accessing justice in cases of abuse.

3. **Promote greater public awareness campaigns**

With such little attention paid to the concerns of LGBTI migrant women in the context of migrating for work (rather than as refugees and asylum seekers), much more coordination is needed between agencies and organizations working with women migrant workers and those with expertise on intersectional identities including sexual identity and gender orientation and expression. Public awareness campaigns should raise the inherent rights and dignity of LGBTI persons in countries of origin, transit and destination. This lays groundwork to first to overcome denial, visibilize the existence of LGBTI people as members of society, and increase dialogue within families, societies, the media and social institutions (schools, religious institutions, etc.).

While public education should bear in mind the social, cultural, and political contexts, it should also seek to promote the principles of the right to autonomy, freedom to make decisions about women’s own bodies and lives, dignity and non-discrimination. Creative strategies should account for the local cultural, social, and political contexts so that they are effective and challenge norms at the same time. A good practice is to ally with diverse partners, institutions, faith-based groups when possible, the educational system, media and social media while placing the dignity and voices of LGBTI communities at the center, when appropriate publically.
4. **Create safe spaces, services, and options for LBTI, gender non-conforming or questioning women in programs aimed at migrant women**

Hold separate and private focus group discussion where LBTI, gender non-conforming and questioning women can share their concerns and needs or report threats, discrimination or violence they have faced. Hold informal individual interviews or private focus groups where, if possible, facilitators are LGBTI individuals or staff of LGBTI organizations. Compile resources for alternative or safe services for LBTI women, including housing options or shared housing, safe health services, and employment options, including information to help negotiate with employers and monitor treatment at the workplace.149

**Long-term Strategies:**

5. **Engage in collective actions to impact national policy change and engage international human rights procedures and bodies.**

Organized advocacy to change laws, policies, and practices at local, national, and international levels is fundamental to structurally transforming societies over time. Engaging in policy change on issues of sexual orientation and gender identity, like any important issue, requires extensive parallel public education and awareness campaigns, as explained earlier as an immediate strategy. Policy change at the intersection of issues of women migrant workers and LGBTI persons requires careful preparation and research to identify the most important or strategic change needed at the moment. First, it is important for advocates of women migrant workers to examine national laws, policies, and practices that impact LGBTI communities. Next, migrant advocates and organizations should understand developing international human rights standards on sexual orientation and gender identity and expression. When engaging within the UN system at the Human Rights Council, with human rights treaty bodies or special procedures, they should approach LGBTI organizations for advocacy resources and lessons. In 2016, the Human Rights Council established for the first time an Independent Expert on the protection against violence and discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity. In the coming years, much more advocacy will emerge in reporting, monitoring, and policy proposals by LGBTI organizations with the office of the Independent Expert. Human rights treaty bodies that have already addressed sexual orientation and gender identity issues since 1994 are the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR), the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (CERD), the Committee on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and the Committee Against Torture (CAT)150. One approach can be to use information from the documentation efforts to identify what are the most prevalent rights violations faced by LBTI migrant women.

6. **Build coalitions among intersectional movements and organizations including migrant rights, LGBTI rights, women’s movements, economic justice networks and others**

Develop alliances between those who work on migrant women’s concerns with intersectional social movements including LGBTI organizations to build common ground, support and solidarity across issues. This would involve ongoing community dialogues and
cross-education among migrant workers, LGBTI and broader social and economic justice networks. Rather than creating silos or exceptionalizing issues, genuine long term social and political change for marginalized (or multiply marginalized) people would build across intersections of people’s lives- across migrant, feminist, LGBTI, gender non-confirming and queer, economic justice, trade unions, inclusive and just development, reproductive and sexual rights, sex workers, educational justice, housing rights, HIV and other movements. Such broader social movements are critical in contexts where LGBTI communities face severe societal marginalization or risks in organizing publically. Many LGBTI and queer movements, particularly in the Global South and in minority communities in the North, purport that the same issues that impact inequality also impact LGBTI people’s lives outside of gender identity and sexual orientation.151

Resource

ORAM- Organization for Refuge, Asylum, and Migration
Since 2008, the Organization for Refuge, Asylum, and Migration (ORAM) has raised global attention and advocacy to defend the rights of vulnerable migrants and refugees, particularly LGBTI persons. As LGBTI persons are some of the most persecuted people globally today, ORAM seeks to raise awareness of sexual and gender minority refugees (SGM) as migrants who are doubly marginalized. ORAM builds the capacity of migrant and refugee organizations, international organizations, and governments to address the needs of LGBTI refugees and migrants. While focused on strengthening the international refugee protection system for LGBTI persons, ORAM’s online resources can be used in working with LGBTI migrants generally.

Online and Capacity Building Resources:

- Professional Training on Sexual and Gender Nonconformity
- LGBTI Refugee Protection Portal - Policy and research resources, links to projects supporting LGBTI migrants in transit and asylum destination countries, training resources for governments, multilateral, and civil society organizations.
- Reports and Publications including:
  - Country Finding Reports on the conditions of LGBTI migrants and refugees
  - Guidance for NGO’s, Governments, UNHCR & Program Funders
  - Migration and Travel Information for LGBTI Individuals
  - Country of Origin reports for LGBTI persons to assess asylum claims and risks of persecution
  - Local Resource Directories
  - A Global Survey of NGO Attitudes Towards LGBTI Refugees and Asylum Seekers

“Sexual Orientation, Gender Identity and Gender Expression: Essential Terminology for the Humanitarian Sector”
A language tool for professionals working to better communicate and meet the needs of LGBTI migrants. The guide provides a critical understanding of respectful terminology along with cultural contexts in English, French, Turkish, Farsi, and Arabic.
Global

- Born Free and Equal: Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity in International Human Rights Law, UNOHCHR, 2012
- Participants Workbook: Working with Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Intersex (LGBTI) Persons in Migration, UNHCR, 2016
- Training Package on Working with LGBTI Persons in Forced Displacement, UNHCR and IOM- Includes several modules, thematic topics, videos, and webinars
- Sexual Orientation, Gender Identity and Gender Expression: Essential Terminology for the Humanitarian Sector- A training tool in five languages, Organization for Refuge, Asylum, and Migration (ORAM), 2016
- Crossing Borders II Migration and Development from a Gender Perspective, Orozco, Amaia Pérez et. al, United Nations International Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (UN-INSTRAW), 2010
- Intersectionality: A Tool for Gender and Economic Justice, Women’s Rights and Economic Change, No. 9, Association for Women’s Rights in Development (AWID), 2004
- Investigate, Educate, Engage and Ask: Strategies for Increasing Individual Giving to LGBTQ Rights in the Global South and East by Kris Abrams with Katherine Acey, a Report submitted to the Global Philanthropy Project, 2011
- The Yogyakarta Principles- Principles on the Application of International Human Rights Law in Relation to Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity

Civil Society Advocacy Organizations on Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity and Expression

- Coalition of African Lesbians (CALS)
- TLF Philippines
- ILGA LAC, International Association of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Trans and Intersex People of Latin America and the Caribbean
- Human Rights Watch- LGBT Rights Amnesty International
- The International Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Trans and Intersex Association (ILGA)
- Outright International (formerly the International Gay and Lesbian Human Rights Commission (IGLHRC)
- ARC International
- Global List of Transgender Organizations
## Global

### Web Resources

- UN Free and Equal Campaign for LGBT Equality: Including information on international awareness raising campaigns, fact sheets, and videos
- Queer Migration Research Network
- LGBTI Refugee Protection Portal, Organization for Refuge, Asylum, and Migration (ORAM): Policy and research resources, links to projects supporting LGBTI migrants in transit and asylum destination countries, training resources for governments, multilateral, and civil society organizations.
- Speak Up, Stop Discrimination: Combating discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity, UNOHCHR - includes links to UN reports and resolutions, factsheets, videos, and articles

### Videos

- “Gay and Lesbian Refugees in South Africa: ‘We Thought You’d Accept Us”, Atlantic Philanthropies
- US: Abuse to Transgender Women in Immigration Detention, Human Rights Watch
- UNHCR and IOM Web Training Package on protection of LGBTI Persons in Forced Displacement:
  - “A History of LGBT Rights at the UN”
  - “Punish Violence and Hatred, Not Love”
  - “Getting Out” - South Africa
  - “IOM Safe Space”- South Asia
  - “Courage Unfolds” - Asia Pacific
Objective:

To understand emerging analysis of the links between climate change, migration, and gender and uphold protections for migrant women.

According to the International Organization for Migration, 200 million people will migrate due to climate change and environmental degradation by 2050. These future forecasts vary to as high as one billion potential ‘climate migrants’ by 2050\textsuperscript{152}, recognizing ongoing international debate and a generally agreed range of 200 to 500 million displaced people. Estimates of possible numbers, however, have been shown to be scientifically weak as they are based on unrealistic assumptions of direct links between environmental stressors and migration\textsuperscript{153,154}. Yet, environmental and other stressors have long been factors leading to displacement and migration. Climate change will progressively act as a multiplier of this and act as a premier driver of migration in the coming decades. Within this increasingly recognized driver of migration, global inequalities mean that poorer countries and those more marginalized within these countries bear the greatest impacts and dangers, particularly women and girls in developing countries\textsuperscript{155}. This section will consider how women are more exposed to the adverse impacts of climate change and strategies that are emerging for more coherent protections for climate migrants.

A key issue in the emerging debate is whether to view climate migration as a last resort that should be prevented or as an adaptive strategy. Scholars and advocates promoted shifting the dialogue to value the agency of people impacted by climate change to migrate as an adaptive strategy that could save lives and improve livelihoods. Climate migration thus became more of an environmental policy in climate negotiations rather than within migration policy. Yet, this has also worked to ‘de-politicize’ the reality that climate change and climate migration are rooted in global inequalities between developed and developing countries\textsuperscript{156}. In the positive sense, promoting climate migration as an adaptive strategy can open options, particularly for women, and reduce harm. Yet as a sole strategy, it also can deflect the need for genuine solutions and accountability to prevent and halt the loss of land, resources, and sustainable livelihoods, particularly in poorer countries and for women.
### Global

**“Climate Change Refugees” or “Environmental Refugees”**

Climate refugees are often described as the “human face of climate change”. Although these terms are being used more in the media and among some advocates to make the case for granting special status to those displaced by climate change, the terms currently inaccurate in regards to the definition of refugees under international law. This distinction may create false differences in treatment of those migrating due to climate change versus economic or labor migrants, when in reality many are compelled to move for an overlapping and range of these factors.

**“Environmental or Climate-Induced Migrants”**

“Environmental migrants are persons or groups of persons who, for compelling reasons of sudden or progressive changes in the environment that adversely affect their lives or living conditions, are obliged to leave their habitual homes, or choose to do so, either temporarily or permanently, and who move either within their country or abroad.”

“Environmentally induced migrants’ can be further classified in the following three categories:

- **Environmental Emergency Migrants** who flee the worst of an environmental impact to save their lives;
- **Environmentally Forced Migrants** who have to leave to avoid inevitable and grave consequences of environmental degradation;
- **Environmentally Motivated Migrants** who may leave a steadily deteriorating environment to pre-empt the worst.

See Also:

“Glossary on Migration, Environment, and Climate Change: Evidence for Policy (MECLEP)” by Susanne Melde, IOM, 2014

---

**Climate change impacts migration decisions through three primary types of environmental events:**

1. Warming and drying in regions that undermines ecosystems that reduce fertile land for farming and clean water
   
   *Example:* In West Africa, 65% of cultivable lands have degraded. Water scarcity impacts over 300 million people across Africa already, with water shortages expected to increase by a third by 2050.

2. Increased extreme weather events (floods, hurricanes, heavy rains, resulting landslides) affect large numbers of people in a short time causing mass displacement
   
   *Example:* Less rainfall and increased hurricanes and floods are already impacting Central America and Mexico. Rainfall is estimated to decline by nearly 50% by 2080, threatening livelihoods for many.

3. Sea-level rising destroys low-lying coastal regions and small island nations, often with concentrated populations and ecologies essential to livelihoods (fertile land, fishing communities)
   
   *Example:* In 2000, Southern Vietnam’s Mekong river delta region had 28.5 million people. When rising sea levels reach two meters, 14.2 million people’s homes will be flooded and half of the region’s agricultural land will be under water.
5.2.1 Gender Across Multiple Factors that Impact Climate Migration

Climate-induced migration is best understood through patterns that are also influenced by multiple factors. Women undoubtedly bear the greater brunt of the impacts of climate change as do other marginalized groups in society such as the poor and disabled. First, existing social, economic, and political inequalities in a society are even more pronounced in climate crisis situations where women will have less access to resources and adaptive strategies. For instance, female-headed households can fall into chronic indebtedness caused by climate-induced crop failures compounded with their lower access to credit and loans than men. Second, women, particularly across the global South, are generally more reliant on and stewards of natural resources for livelihoods, including acquiring food, water, and fuel. In developing countries, women farmers do the majority of food production. Two-thirds of women’s labor forces in developing countries are in agricultural work, whereas in Africa 90% of women in the labor market are agricultural workers. Climate-induced degradation of land can cause significant loss of income or force women to travel longer distances in search
of agricultural work. This, in turn, has effects on the need to transfer care work within the household and worsened working conditions women may face as internal migrant workers. Finally, women also bear the responsibility in many societies to secure food, water, and fuel\textsuperscript{153}, walking long distances and spending hours to do so. In conditions of climate change and disasters, this access to basic needs is reduced or lost. Additionally, and the added time and labor needed for women to replace basic resources for their families can be harmful to their own health and safety. This also greatly reduces the time women have, for example, to access humanitarian services or programs to either be able to stay or migrate safely. Much more research is needed, however, on the nexus of climate migration and gender and in particular, on the long-term, large-scale impact of ‘slow onset’ environmental degradation.

Table 13. Gender Aspects of Climate Migration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Migration</th>
<th>Trends</th>
<th>Gender Dimensions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How far do people migrate?</td>
<td>Migrants can move internally within countries, across borders within a region, or internationally to farther regions. Most studies show that climate migration is largely internal and from rural to urban areas, with the notable exception of border areas (especially mountains) and small island states\textsuperscript{155}.</td>
<td>The options for regular international labor migration channels is more limited for women and mostly linked to domestic work. Women may then need to stay behind while men migrate, increasing their risks of greater poverty, poor health, and burdens of caring for families in climate induced crisis situations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How long does the migration last?</td>
<td>Temporary, long-term, or permanent migration depends on the type of environmental event or process taking place and on the ability of the region of origin to have the capacity for resilience, recovery, or adaptive strategies\textsuperscript{166}.</td>
<td>Lower educational levels and greater inequality women face mean that women have less adaptive capacity after climate induced crisis and may be forced to migrate permanently, even if in risky irregular channels\textsuperscript{167}.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are people migrating voluntarily or forced to do so?</td>
<td>Since the decision to migration is often a multi-causal one, it is not straightforward to determine whether climate migration is forced. Only in cases of severe and acute natural disaster (floods, hurricanes, tsunamis, etc.), these climate migrants are considered forced. Slower onset environmental degradation’s impacts are more difficult to assess in terms of whether they ‘force’ people to leave for survival\textsuperscript{158}.</td>
<td>The greater barriers to resources, information, and decision making means that there is a greater continuum between ‘forced’ and ‘voluntary’ migration for women, where migration may be the only adaptive strategy for survival.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Short Term or Rapid Onset climate events such as natural disasters
Long term or Slow onset such as gradual environmental degradation
Loss of livelihood and economic opportunities
Loss of land, food security, natural resources, shelter, water, and/or agricultural capacity
Loss of security, increased conflict
Poor health
Strained social relations
Competition for limited resources
Greater impacts for women due to existing social, economic, and political inequalities
Generally lower levels of education for women leaves fewer formal work options after migrating
Increased care responsibilities for families in crisis
Increased time spent on getting basic needs (food, water)
Decreased time for education, skill building
Fewer out migration options and labor markets open to women

Type of Climate Event
Scale of Impacts on Communities
Gender Aspects that Shape Impacts

Mediating Factors: Adaptive Capacity in Places of Origin and Migration Channels
Overall economic, social, political governance, and development, and security levels in a country determine the adaptive capacity to provide relief, restore, reverse degradation, or rebuild
Labor market options locally and in migration channels that are available for women

Migration: A Continuum and Adaptive Strategy Option for Women
Forced? In severe acute disasters or as a result of irreversible degradation leaving no local economic, social, and safety, and health options locally
Voluntarily? As an adaptive means to avert economic, health, and security crisis for the individual and family members
5.2.2 International Frameworks & Emerging Advocacy

Migration as the ‘human face of climate change’ has been raised in the international arena since the first assessment report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change in 1990. It was not until the mid to late 2000’s that greater research and advocacy was focused on climate change and migration. Advocacy is ongoing at the international level to mainstream migration into climate change considerations, particularly through the UN Framework on Climate Change, the Conference of Parties (COP) process, and the Global Forum on Migration and Development. At national levels, greater integration of migration, human mobility channels and relocation programming is needed in National Adaptation Plans (NAPs) on climate change with the aim to reduce displacement.

International Frameworks: Climate Migration and Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>International Instruments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An international environmental law entered into force in 1994, the UNFCCC is an international treaty signed with 197 States as parties to the Convention. It contains no specific mention on migration stemming from climate change.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Annual Conference of Parties (COP):**

The annual Conference of Parties (COP) reviews implementation of the UNFCCC with the first meeting in Berlin in 1995. While prior agreements in Copenhagen, Cancun and Doha recognized the issue of displacement, the Paris Agreement from COP21 in 2015 for the first time addresses displacement and migration within a global climate agreement. The agreement also creates a Task Force that can create a forum for greater links between movements and civil society advocacy on climate change, migrant rights, and gender equality.

**Cancun Adaptation Framework, 2011**

Paragraph 14(f): “Measures to enhance understanding, coordination and cooperation with regard to climate change induced displacement, migration and planned relocation, where appropriate, at the national, regional and international levels;”

**Doha Agreement on Loss and Damage, 2012**

3.CP18 paragraph 7 (a) (vi): “Acknowledges the further work to advance the understanding of and expertise on loss and damage, which includes, inter alia, the following:

(vi) How impacts of climate change are affecting patterns of migration, displacement and human mobility.”

**Paris Agreement, 2015:**

Paragraph 50: “Also requests the Executive Committee of the Warsaw International Mechanism to establish, according to its procedures and mandate, a task force ...to develop recommendations for integrated approaches to avert, minimize and address displacement related to the adverse impacts of climate change;”
Statements

Statement of the CEDAW Committee on Gender and Climate Change, CEDAW 44th Session, 2009

While not mentioning woman facing climate migration specifically, the statements calls for gender sensitive frameworks and policies in the UNFCCC, including collecting sex-disaggregated data and gender sensitive programs to protect women’s rights and respond to different impacts of climate change for women and men176.


The GMG calls on the international to take urgent action in recognizing migration due to climate change and environmental degradation by recommending:

- Adoption of “gender-sensitive, human rights- and human development-oriented measures to improve the livelihoods of those exposed to the effects of climate change and increase their resilience, in order to counter the need for involuntary movements.”
- Recognition of “migration as an adaptation strategy to environmental risks and to make migration an option available to the most vulnerable. Immigration policies could take into account environmental factors in the likelihood of cross-border movement and consider opening new opportunities for legal migration”177.

Reports

Fifth Assessment Report (FAR), Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change

Table 2.3: Global Risks and Adaptation Issues

“Adaptation to extreme events is well understood, but poorly implemented even under present climate conditions. Displacement and involuntary migration are often temporary. With increasing climate risks, displacement is more likely to involve permanent migration”178.

Intergovernmental Processes

The Nansen Conference: Climate Change and Displacement in the 21st Century, 2011

A historic convening on global experts across climate change, migration, and humanitarian responses to recommend policies protecting the needs of people displaced across borders and with principles of non-discrimination.

The Nansen Principles are a set of ten recommendations including principle 10 calling for policies sensitive to “age, gender and diversity aspects”179.

The Nansen Agenda for the Protection of Cross-Border Displaced Persons in the Context of Disasters and Climate Change, 2015: Specific references to risks of migration faced by women, engaging women’s organizations and the specific needs of women and children in:

- Implementing planned relocation programs
- Reviewing existing domestic laws and policies for how they may allow for temporary admission, stay or non-return
- Opportunities for regular migration channels
- Providing capacity for national and local authorities

A ‘Platform on Disaster Displacement’ is being established to implement the recommendations of the Protection Agenda.
The Global Forum on Migration and Development (GFMD)

The 9th GFMD Summit to be held in Dhaka, Bangladesh places climate induced migration on the agenda under “Governance of migration and development” in Roundtable 3.1 on Migrants in crises: conflict, climate change and natural disasters. On the heels of the Paris Agreement, the GFMD process will seek to address greater legal pathways and protections for climate-induced migrants. Civil society groups have engaged in the parallel People’s Global Action on Migration, Development, and Human Rights to raise the links between climate migration and gender, particularly in Bangladesh as one of the largest delta regions most vulnerable in coming decades along with small island states in the Asia-Pacific and other regions.

Stop & Reflect

1. In what ways do gender opportunities or barriers (for women and men) affect both the ability to stay with decent livelihoods and the options to migrate safely?
2. What added gender-sensitive protections are needed in emerging international instruments?

Statements

UN Women:
- “Migration and Women: The Lives and Tragedies”, Reducing Vulnerabilities of Women Affected by Climate Change through Viable Livelihood Options Project, UN Women Bangladesh and Bangladesh Center for Advanced Studies, 2015

IOM Country Reports:
- “Assessing the Evidence: Environment, Migration, and Climate Change in Bangladesh”, IOM, 2010
- “Assessing the Evidence: Environment, Migration, and Climate Change in Papua New Guinea”, IOM, 2014
- “Assessing the Evidence: Environment, Migration, and Climate Change in Haiti”, IOM, 2014
- “Assessing the Evidence: Environment, Migration, and Climate Change in the Dominican Republic”, IOM, 2014

Reports and Documents:
- “Glossary”, Migration, Environment, and Climate Change: Evidence for Policy (MECLEP) by Susanne Melde, IOM, 2014
- “Fact Sheet: Women, Gender Equality and Climate Change”, UN Women Watch, UN Women, 2009
- “Data on Environmental Migration: How much do we know?”, Data Briefing Series, Global Migration Data Analysis Center, 2016
- “Human Mobility in the Context of Climate Change UNFCCC- Paris COP-21: Recommendations from the Advisory Group on Climate Change and Human Mobility”, 2015
• "In Search of Shelter: Mapping the Effects of Climate Change on Human Migration and Development", CARE, CIENI, Columbia University, UNHCR, UN University, Social Dimensions of Climate Change (The World Bank), 2013
• "Migration, Environment, and Climate Change: Assessing the Evidence", IOM, 2009
• "Gender, Climate Change, and Health", Public Health and Environment Department, World Health Organization
• Info sheet: "IOM Perspectives on Migration, Environment, and Climate Change", 2014

Web resources
• WomenWatch: Information and Resources on Gender Equality and Empowerment of Women, UN Women-
  Includes links to factsheets, UN publications, UN Commitments and Resolutions,
• IOM Website: Migration and Climate Change- A comprehensive web portal to resources, activities, and partnerships to IOM’s objectives to prevent when possible and to provide protection to people forced into migration due to environmental factors
• Climate and Migration Coalition- From The UK Climate Change and Migration Coalition, Climate Outreach and Information Network (COIN) includes a global blog, podcasts, and webinars:
  - Briefing Paper- “Migration as Adaptation: exploring mobility as a coping strategy for climate change” by Kayly Ober
  - "Moving Stories: The voices of people who move in the context of environmental change”, by Randall, Alex et. al., 2014
  - Report summary- "Migration and Global Environmental Change”
  - "Legal Protection, Climate Change, and Migration: A guide to key resources and research", 2014
• Migrants in Countries in Crisis Initiative- A State-led initiative launched in 2014 and co-chaired by the Governments of the Philippines and the United to address the impact of crises—defined as both conflicts and natural disasters—on migrants. IOM serves as the Secretariat for the MICIC initiative. The site includes outcomes of regional consultation reports and issue briefs.
• Alliance of Small Island States (AOSIS) - A coalition of 44 member of States and observers from all oceans and regions of the world: Africa, Caribbean, Indian Ocean, Mediterranean, Pacific and South China Sea. AOSIS acts as to negotiate for small island developing States (SIDS) within the United Nations system.

Videos and Social Media:
• UN Women Asia Pacific: Climate Induced Migration: Can this be an opportunity for women’s economic empowerment?
• University of Oxford Podcast: "Climate change and migration: How are they linked”
• Environmental Migration Portal Video series
• The Nansen Initiative: "Human Mobility in the Context of Disasters and Climate Change: Southeast Asia Regional Consultation”
• The Climate and Migration Coalition:
  - Podcast: “When people move. Understanding how climate change creates the movement of people”
  - Podcast: “The Pacific- migrating to adapt to climate change”
5.3 Transforming the International Sexual Division of Labor

Objectives:

1. To generate new thinking on creating women’s labor migration opportunities in sectors not traditionally open to women.

2. To identify programs to counter the sexual division of labor in regular channels of migration.

The sexual division of labor at both national and international levels greatly shapes the evolving feminization of migration (as described in Guide 1). Gender-blind migration policies have contributed to upholding this sexual division by limiting the labor migration channels available to women. As highlighted through this manual, domestic work and care work in general, have emerged as the primary labor migration sectors for many women. Currently, nearly one in five domestic workers globally is an international migrant. Although much progress is being made to recognize the rights of migrant domestic workers, such as with ratification campaigns for ILO Convention 198 concerning Decent Work for Domestic Workers, and efforts to promote model contracts for migrant domestic workers (Guide 4), the sector remains highly informal and prone to labor and human rights abuses.

Other than the limited options of labor migration for domestic work, women migrants are more likely than men to work in the informal economy globally, such as street vending, making food or products at home, selling scraps, carrying goods, or providing services. These informal sectors are even less recognized and protected than domestic work with very little pay, dangerous conditions, and with daily precariousness.

- Sub-Saharan Africa: 74% of women non-agricultural workers, versus 61% of men, are informal workers
- Latin America: 54% of men versus 48% of women are informal workers
- Asia-Pacific: 65% of women, many of whom are migrant workers, compared to 56% of men are in vulnerable informal employment

The informal economy is itself gendered with women tending to perform activities such as catering while men do construction work. A lack of more diverse regular migration channels for women means that migrant women are pushed into greater risk and exploitation while solidifying gender norms and labor options.
5.3.1 Non-traditional Sectors for Women Migrant Workers

In the shorter term, gender responsive labor migration policies are seeking to improve the recognition and rights of women migrant workers largely in the care sector. Longer-term advocacy is needed, however, to challenge the way in which men and women are incorporated differently into the global economy and resulting labor migration sectors. Examining the gender dimensions of globalization shows that while women in developing countries are largely employed in export-driven and highly labor intensive industries, such as in Export Processing Zones, when they migrate internationally, they are greatly restricted to care work. This can involve a de-skilling that harms women’s long-term economic capacity as well as women being concentrated in some of the most exploitative work in global production systems185.

Women who migrate based on their labor market skills are most often limited to gendered occupations such as caregivers, domestic workers, or service workers186. The global division of labor migration means that while women are recruited in temporary labor migration agreements for care work, men are recruited for several sectors including manufacturing, seafaring, construction, and agriculture187. However, men migrants are also engaged in aspects of care and domestic work to varying degrees across destination countries. Although women make up the vast majority of migrant domestic workers globally, migrant men domestic workers are increasing in some countries like Bahrain and Spain, two of the largest migrant women domestic work receiving countries historically188. Within care work, men and women often are recruited for gendered divisions of work. For instance, domestic or household work for men often involved duties such as grounds-keeping, driving, or maintenance. Some of these duties allow men greater access outside the home in comparison to women who are often secluded to work within the home such as cooking, cleaning, and caring for children or the elderly.

Graphic 19.
Global distribution of Both Women and Men Migrant Workers by Certain Sectors189

Global distribution of migrant workers, by broad branch of economic activity. 2013 (percentages)
Envisioning structural gender equality in labor migration will mean that women should be incorporated into traditionally male dominated labor migration programs in construction, manufacturing, garment industry, agricultural work, and processing industries such as fisheries. Little evidence and research exists to date on the levels of migrant women’s participation in these sectors, particularly when much of it may be in irregular status rather than through regular migration recruitment channels that focus on men. Given the lack of data and irregular routes that migrant women may take in these industries, women’s contributions are undervalued in these sectors. This creates a gap in identifying the policy needs to both increase women’s formal participation in traditionally male industries and to promote their rights and economic benefits.

**International Normative Frameworks for Gender Equality in Labour**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>International Human Rights Instruments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work (1998, Annex Revised 2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paragraph 2 states at all Members states of the ILO, regardless of whether they have ratified Conventions must uphold fundamental rights including, &quot;(d) the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation.&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Recommendations:**

1. **Promote and develop greater research and data collection on women migrant workers in non-traditional sectors (construction, manufacturing, garment industry, agricultural work, and processing industries such as fisheries) and the potential impacts on improving migrant women’s conditions in regards to wages, migration for employment options, labor rights, and social protections.**

2. **Advocate for gender responsive bilateral labor migration agreements and Memorandums of Understanding that “promote equality of employment opportunity and access to benefits for migrant women and men, reinforcing human rights grounded in the universal values of equal treatment and non-discrimination.” Include affirmative action policies for women into labor migration sectors dominated by men in both recruitment and placement. Ensure that such temporary labor migration channels include gender-sensitive and rights protections as well as monitoring and implementation mechanisms accessible to women (see Guide 4).**

3. **Advocate for greater obligations of employers, recruitment agencies, civil society organizations for women migrant workers, and national skills development agencies for overseas workers to enhance the skills of women in low skilled employment in traditionally male migration sectors: construction, manufacturing, agriculture, garment industry, and processing industries such as fisheries.**
Engage a broad array of stakeholders including employers, trade unions, civil society organizations to align national labor laws with international standards to ensure higher quality of labor rights and social protections, particularly for temporary migrant workers in the sectors of construction, manufacturing, agriculture, garment industry, and processing industries such as fisheries.¹⁹⁴

Global

Reports and Documents:
- ILO Gender equality in labour migration law, policy, and management- GEM Toolkit, 2016
- Caritas International: “The Female Face of Migration: Advocacy and best practices for women who migrate and the families they leave behind”, 2012
- ILO: International Labour Migration: A Rights Based Approach, 2010

Web Resources:
- UN Women- Employment and Migration
- La Via Campesina- International Peasant’s Movement: Migrations and Rural Workers
- Building and Woodworkers International (BWI):
  - Gender Equity
  - Migrant Workers

Videos and Social Media:
- ILO: Work in Freedom: Making migrant work safer for women from South Asia- Empowerment program to build education skills and labor rights knowledge among Bangladeshi migrant garment and domestic workers
- UNFPA: Women Migrants: International Migration in Thailand- Migrant women in fisheries and consequences of lack of such opportunities
- IVRWA Asia Pacific: Business and Women’s Human Rights: Women Migrant Workers
128. Pérez Orozco, Amaia et. al., “Crossing Borders II: Migration and Development from a Gender Perspective”, UN-INSTRAW, 2010
129. Houdart and Fagan, “Pink Migration- rising tide of LGBT migrants?”
130. Intersectionality: A Tool for Gender and Economic Justice, Women’s Rights and Economic Change, No. 9, Association for Women’s Rights in Development (AWID), 2004
132. Working with Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Intersex (LGBTI) Persons in Migration, Briefing Session- Foundation Topics Workbook, IOM and UNHCR, 2015
133. Tabak and Levitan, “LGBTI Migrants in Immigrant Detention: A Global Perspective”
134. Working with Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Intersex (LGBTI) Persons in Migration, IOM and UNHCR
136. UN Free and Equal Fact Sheet: Refuge and Asylum
137. Pérez Orozco, Amaia et. al., “Crossing Borders II: Migration and Development from a Gender Perspective”
139. Houdart and Fagan, “Pink Migration- rising tide of LGBT migrants?”
142. Selected Decisions of The Human Rights Committee under the Optional Protocol, Volume 5, 47th- 55th sessions, International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, UN OCHR, 2005
143. "Born Free and Equal", UN OHCHR, 2012
145. Working with Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Intersex (LGBTI) Persons in Migration, Briefing Session- Foundation Topics Workbook, IOM and UNHCR, 2015
146. Tabak and Levitan, “LGBTI Migrants in Immigrant Detention: A Global Perspective”
147. Rosenberg, "Mean Streets: Identifying and Responding to Urban Refugees’ Risks of Gender-Based Violence: LGBTI Refugees”
149. Rosenberg, “Mean Streets: Identifying and Responding to Urban Refugees’ Risks of Gender-Based Violence: LGBTI Refugees”
151. “Contextual and Problem Analysis”, Coalition of African Lesbians
152. IOM Migration and Climate Change website: https://www.iom.int/migration-and-climate-change-0
155. “In Search of Shelter: Mapping the Effects of Climate Change on Human Migration and Development”, CARE, CIESN Columbia University, UNHCR, UN University, Social Dimensions of Climate Change (The World Bank), 2013
158. “Climate Justice and Immigration Factsheet”, National Network for Immigrant and Refugee Rights
159. “Migration, Environment, and Climate Change: Assessing the Evidence”, IOM, 2009
162. “In Search of Shelter: Mapping the Effects of Climate Change on Human Migration and Development”, 2013
163. “Gender, Climate Change, and Health”, Public Health and Environment Department, World Health Organization
164. “In Search of Shelter: Mapping the Effects of Climate Change on Human Migration and Development”, 2013
166. IOM Migration and Climate Change website
168. Ibid.
169. Chindarkar, Namrata, “Gender and Climate Change-induced Migration: Proposing a Framework for Analysis”
170. “Fact Sheet: Women, Gender Equality and Climate Change”, UN Women
171. “Climate Change, Environment and Migration: Frequently Asked Questions” (CCEMA)
175. “Briefing: after the Paris climate talks – what next for migration and displacement?”, Resource Briefings/Reports, Climate Migration Coalition
176. Statement of the CEDAW Committee on Gender and Climate Change, CEDAW 44th Session, 2009
178. Fifth Assessment Report (FAR), Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, (Geneva: IPCC, 2014)
186. “The Female Face of Migration”, Background Paper, Caritas International
188. “Women and Men Migrant Workers: Moving Towards Equal Rights and Opportunities”, ILO
189. “ILO Global Estimates on Migrant Workers: Results and methodology. Special focus on migrant domestic workers”, Labour Migration Branch, 2015
190. ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work and Its Follow-Up, adopted by the 86th session of the International Labour Conference, 1998, Revised annex 2010
194. ILO: International Labour Migration: A Rights Based Approach, 2010
## Proposals for Action to Promote the Migration-Development Nexus from a Gender and Human Development Perspective

The following table presents a range of potential interventions that is not exhaustive, but aims to guide certain types of actions following these criteria:

| Has an impact on the three strategic themes identified in the migration-development nexus from a gender perspective. |
| Intervenes at different levels: 1) long-term interventions to bring about structural changes, and 2) short-term interventions aimed at reducing gender inequalities. In other words, strategic interventions that improve the position of women (long-term) and interventions focused on practical necessities that improve women and men’s immediate living conditions (short-term). Both types of intervention should be carried out simultaneously. They are not exclusive and will be more successful through the effective combination of both types of actions. |
| Views development from a human development perspective or, in other words, as a process that: a) improves the collective capacity to meet human needs; b) increases economic activity as a result of the creation of wealth rather than the accumulation of capital; and c) contributes to a more equal distribution of opportunities and access to resources. |
## Remittances and Gender-Sensitive Local Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Production of Data</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>D</strong>isaggregate existing data on migrant populations and remittances by sex.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>R</strong>esearch migrant women’s and women remittance recipients’ use of financial services and possible obstacles to access.</td>
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<tr>
<th>Entrepreneurs of recipient households, migrants, and returned migrants in countries of origin</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>C</strong>reate local development plans within which initiatives for recipient households, migrants, and returned migrants can be included. Introduce the migration variable in local development plans. These plans should be guided by the following criteria:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Responds to local needs</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Takes into account the needs of men and women with the active participation of both</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Carried out using local resources</td>
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</table>

| Design microfinance and microenterprise programs that provide support and accompaniment to women who wish to invest and start a business so that the process has an impact on their position and status (not just their income). |

## Global Care Chains

| Improve the production of statistical data on time use to facilitate analysis of the distribution of paid and unpaid care work. |
| **I**nterventions in countries of destination and origin |

| Work to integrate the right to care as a development issue in the public agenda. |
| 1. Create a Commission on Care Reform made up of different actors, governmental and non-governmental, that work on gender and women’s issues, care and migration. The following actors could be involved: governments (including at the national, district and/or municipal levels, particularly ministries of migration, labor, women, and social welfare); NGOs, churches and social agencies; grassroots organizations; civil society networks; and universities and research centers. |
| 2. Hold seminars, conferences and dialogues among diverse actors about how to create a model of shared responsibility for the provision of care between the state, the market, the family (with responsibility shared between men and women) and non-profit sectors. |

| Establish universal care policies and services. |
| 1. In origin countries, pay special attention to households with a person who has migrated, particularly if this is the mother. |
| 2. In destination countries, pay specific attention to work-life balance needs of migrant households. |

## Rights of Migrant Women and Migration Policies

| Based on CEDAW General Recommendation 26 on women migrant workers, identify gaps in data and begin to produce sex-disaggregated information on the migrant population and transnational families in order to identify the specific needs and inequalities that require intervention, prioritize, create a baseline and evaluate progress. Possible topics include: labor markets, justice, health, education and training, information, residence and mobility. |

| Promote the regulation of domestic work in order to ensure decent working conditions. Equate the rights and protections for domestic work with other employment sectors in terms of salary, working hours, health insurance, right to organize, protection against arbitrary dismissal, etc. (See, for example, the Domestic Workers Bill of Rights in New York, USA, guide 4, section 4.3.1). In particular, encourage the ratification of ILO Convention 189, disseminate information on the convention, and create dialogue between stakeholders to promote its ratification, etc. |

| Promote organization of domestic workers taking into account that the group’s characteristics (for example isolated work in different homes) lead to particular difficulties for collective expression. (See, for example, the experience in Ireland of the Domestic Workers Action Group, guide 4, section 4.3.1). |

| Sensitize unions on global care chains and the situation of migrant workers in order to take their issues into account when defining labor policies. In particular, emphasize the following issues: |
| 1. That unions defend the rights of domestic workers |
| 2. That specific unions for domestic workers be created |
| 3. That the specific needs of migrant domestic workers be taken into account |
Parallel to the promotion of microenterprise programs, promote **medium-scale investments** in cooperatives that have greater capacity to generate employment for women and men.

**Incorporate non-remittance recipient households** in entrepreneurial initiatives based on remittances as a way to avoid entrenching intra-community social inequalities.

**Adopt the following criteria to determine whether an activity is productive:**
- **Sustainability**, considering environmental, social and financial factors.
- **Democratic quality**: the extent to which the activity promotes collective decision-making processes and the equal sharing of work and benefits.
- **Synergy**: the activity’s ability to create horizontal and vertical linkages (including economic activities and social networks).

Consider **reproductive activities** as an investment item, for example, cooperative child care.

**Promote the coordination among different actors** (migrants and their households, government officials and politicians, international agencies, financial institutions, migrant associations, NGOs, etc.) through public hearings conferences, seminars, etc.

**Make an effort to design interventions based on existing data, and to generate additional data where lacking.**

- Creating these services will generate employment opportunities for women, while involving public institutions as guarantors of social provision of care and decent jobs for women.

**Design public policies** to address critical care issues throughout individuals’ life cycle.
- **For youth**: focus policies on facilitating the transition to adulthood under appropriate conditions, with quality education, adequate job training, job placement, and secure conditions for youth to begin their own families.
- **For adults**: subsidies to free up time off from work to devote to unpaid care (maternity/paternity leave, nursing time allowance, leave of absence for family care, reduced working hours, etc.).
- **For seniors**: retirement pensions which can eliminate the dependence of older parents on the material and financial support of their children; subsidies for care.

**Destination countries**

Guarantee the right of migrant women to **family reunification**, including:
- Children
- Mothers and fathers (since they often help with care)
- Other family members such as brothers and sisters

**Develop work-life balance policies** that go beyond the boundaries of the nation-state and that take into account the reality of migrant persons with family obligations in their origin countries by:
- Introducing changes in permissions for care, such as, for example, increasing paid leave time for family illness, paternity, etc.
- Including visits to the country of origin financed through a contribution fund.

**Sexual and reproductive rights**

Relax the **requirements** and establish a **system of coordination** between service providers and the government to ensure that undocumented persons can obtain a health card.

Document every incident in which a migrant person has been denied access to health care. Use this information to **detect bureaucratic obstacles** and work with the government agency responsible for the oversight of health care to improve the situation. (See the example of the “Health and Family” program in Spain, guide 4, section 4.3.2).

Create programs that promote migrants’ access to health care through culturally sensitive practices and the use of different languages, such as the training and recruitment of cultural mediators and interpreters, production of IEC materials in multiple languages, patient training in their native language about health practices and how to navigate the health system. (See the “Mothers between two cultures” program of the Association of Health and Family in Spain and the Health Care Unit for Migrants in Malta, guide 4, section 4.3.2).

Train health personnel on the cultures and needs of their migrant patients that, because of their medical histories, migration experiences and living and work conditions in destination countries, present a different case than what they have been trained to treat. Promote a culture of respect for all patients. Coordinate with migrant women’s organizations in order to design these trainings and improve the services provided.

Create assistance funds in order to help patients who do not have enough resources to pay for the health services they need.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Financing</th>
<th>Social and immigration policies</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work with financial institutions</strong> to develop specific services geared towards the needs of migrant women/senders and recipients (for example, savings, credit, and other investment-oriented services).</td>
<td><strong>Review existing bilateral migration agreements</strong> and promote the creation of new agreements with a gender perspective that:</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>□ Extending vacation time so that traveling to origin countries would be possible.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>□ Put special emphasis on social security.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>□ Broaden formal migration channels for migrant care workers and other “feminized” niches.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Create a financial infrastructure that is committed to the community, offers affordable rates and flexible operational procedures, and integrates financial and non-financial services such as training, investment advice, etc. Equality should be the guiding principle, not just market efficiency. The remittance received should be considered as income, not just capital, since remittances serve as wages.</td>
<td><strong>Revise immigration laws</strong> from a gender perspective:</td>
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<td>□ Ensure that women who have migrated under a family reunification policy have access to an independent immigration status from their partners so they have the option to leave their relationship in case of domestic violence.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>□ Grant residence permits which are not linked to a specific employer in order to prevent situations of abuse and labor exploitation.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Development policies in origin countries</strong></td>
<td><strong>Revise social policies in destination countries</strong> (for example, violence against women) taking into account the growing presence of migrant women in order to ensure that they do not have adverse effects on them and that their specific needs are taken into account.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Promote proper implementation of gender policies in employment, education, gender-based violence, etc. so that these inequalities are not further reason for women’s migration.</td>
<td><strong>Advocate at the national level for the ratification and implementation of international instruments</strong> that protect and promote the rights of women migrant workers, particularly the ICRMW and CEDAW General Recommendation 26.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Design and implement universal health care, education and social protection systems in order to guarantee as rights the items which are currently primary remittance expenditures; improve the availability and quality of public services for all.</td>
<td><strong>Strengthen capacity of border security personnel and police</strong> on trafficking issues and the rights of migrant women, including their role in the protection and guarantee of such rights.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strengthen citizen participation, particularly women’s participation, at the local level, both in origin and destination countries, so they can demand that public institutions fulfill their responsibilities as guarantors of citizens’ human rights and gender equality.</td>
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Generate productive activity and related employment to allow for stable labor force participation and income for both women and men, so that they can offset the dependence on remittances caused by the lack of opportunities. Design specific interventions to create jobs for women so that they have options beyond labor migration.

Support changes in structural conditions that impede or hinder investment (chronic problems in rural areas such as lack of irrigation, roads, energy, etc.), ensuring that there aren’t contradictions between local development policies and macroeconomic policies (for example, promoting the cultivation of rice at the local level while importing rice under free trade agreements).

Strengthen the capacity of migrant and women migrant organizations, consolidating and training them in rights and political advocacy so that they can exercise their rights and represent the interests of their members in political dialogues and other events that have to do with migration and development, bringing in a gender perspective. Enhance their capacity to manage projects based on collective remittances, while strengthening institutions and organizations in countries of origin that can serve as reliable counterparts in managing such projects.

Promote women’s political participation in countries of origin, destination communities, and in representative bodies of migrants abroad so that their needs and interests are taken into account in the definition of public policies, programs and projects.

Create consultation mechanisms and/or transnational political representation for migrant persons, men and women, so they can participate, decide and benefit from development in their country of origin.

Disseminate information in creative ways which are tailored to the characteristics of the target population on migrant rights, particularly those relevant to women. (See, for example, the Good Practice of Costa Rica: Radio Program “People Without Borders” in section 4.3.2). Provide information to potential migrants through various communication channels prior to their departure and during their stay abroad about legislative, labor, social, and health issues, as well as a directory of important contacts.

In origin countries, organize and engage returned migrant women in actions promoting their rights, particularly in advocacy and orientation for other potential migrants. (See, for example, the Pourakhi experience in Nepal, guide 4, section 4.2).
GLOSSARY

**Empowerment:** A basic concept for human development that refers to the process through which people, individually and collectively, become conscious of how power relations operate in their lives and gain the necessary confidence and strength to change inequalities and strengthen their economic, political and social position. Empowerment is described as a process in which individuals gain power, and in which power is understood not in terms of domination (“power over”) but rather as creative power (“power to”), shared power (“power with”) and personal power (“power from within”).

**Feminization of migration:** A term used to describe not only the slight increase in the number of women that migrate but also “the steady increase in the proportion of women that migrate independently in search of employment rather than as ‘dependent relatives’ that travel with their husbands or reunite with them outside of their countries (...) in the past few decades, a large number of women – who now migrate independently, assuming the role of economic providers – have joined the migration flows previously dominated by men.”

**Gender:** While sex refers to the biological characteristics that distinguish us as male or female, the term gender refers to the set of characteristics, values, beliefs, qualities and behaviors that societies assign to men or women. This is why gender is called a social construction; it is an idea built by the people, groups and institutions that make up society. Gender differences are not neutral since they are often constructed in opposition to one another thereby creating power relations. These relations can change over time and vary according to the sociocultural context. Gender also intersects with other identity and power dynamics such as social class, race, ethnicity, nationality, sexual orientation, migratory and citizenship status, etc. Gender relations, then, are constructed (and challenged) at various levels — micro (household, community), meso (labor market, social networks), and macro (international division of labor).

**Gender analysis:** “Study of the existing differences in the conditions, needs, participation rates, access to resources and development, access to decision making power, etc. between men and women due to the roles traditionally assigned to them. Gender analysis necessarily involves studying the forms of organization and functioning of societies and analyzing social relations. Gender analysis should not be limited to the role of women, but instead should include and compare the role of women in relation to men and vice versa. Variables to consider in this regard are: the sexual and gendered division of labor, access and control of resources and benefits, participation in decision-making. Gender analysis should identify: the division of labor between men and women (productive and reproductive work); access to and control over resources and benefits; specific needs and practices (such as access to employment, and strategies such as participation in decision-making at the management level in organizations) of men and women; limitations and opportunities; the organizational capacity of men and women to promote equality.”

**Gender perspective:** A focus on the analysis of identities and gender relations that operate throughout the migration process (among other areas of life). In the area of migration-development, the gender perspective allows us to see and understand not only family power dynamics but also how gender operates in meso and macro processes such as social networks or bilateral agreements. This perspective recognizes the construction of masculinities and the diversity of people whose identities are marked by other characteristics such as their ethnicity or social class, and avoids perpetuating stereotypes or making heteronormative assumptions.

**Gender roles:** Activities, tasks and responsibilities assigned to men and women according to the social construction of gender in a given context.

**Gender stereotype:** A preconceived, exaggerated or oversimplified idea, opinion or image of a social group based on sexual identity. Some examples of stereotypes include that “men are strong and decisive” or that “women

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* Fernández-Pacheco, Janina. 2002. “Glossary of base terms to understand and analyze the labor market from a gender perspective” ILO. Our translation.
are submissive and emotional.” Gender stereotypes impede the equal enjoyment of rights by men and women and make policies, programs and community development projects reach men and women differently.

**Global care chains:** “Global care chains exist transnationally, and have been established with the aim of sustaining daily life. Within them, households transfer care work from one home to another, based on power axes like gender, ethnicity, social class and place of origin” (Perez Orozco et al 2008: 86). In its simplest form, a chain could be formed as follows: in a destination country, a woman who seeks to balance her working life with the care needs of her family hires a migrant woman to do the housework, while the migrant has to find a way to meet the care needs of her own family, a task that often falls on other female family members either in the origin or destination country.

**Human development:** Vision of development that emphasizes and affirms the comprehensive right of people to enjoy the full range of human rights, including rights to health, mobility, education, freedom of expression, equality, identity, etc. Human development seeks to create the necessary conditions for individuals and groups to develop their potential and lead a creative and productive life according to their needs and interests.

**Inclusive financial democracy:** A vision of economic development promoted by the dominant “remittances for development” paradigm. It consists of promoting the use of formal channels for sending remittances, incorporating non-bank users into the banking system, and encouraging saving and investment of remittances so that they increase the availability of financial resources for the whole community. In this way, it is hoped that everyone will be able to participate in the market, which is considered the ideal pathway to economic development (and not public institutions) according to the development model promoted by the neoliberal, economicist vision that characterizes the dominant model.

**Inequality:** Biological differences alone do not cause inequality. Rather, inequality comes about when society assigns greater value to one gender over the other (normally masculine over feminine). This attitude creates a power imbalance between the genders and prevents both from enjoying the same opportunities for their personal development. Inequalities also occur for reasons of discrimination by skin color, ethnicity, nationality, sexuality, etc.

**Instrumentalization:** A concept used to describe the tendency to use migrant persons as instruments in interventions designed to foment development in origin countries usually by counting on their remittances without necessarily increasing their participation, decision-making power over development, or their ability to benefit from it. For example, if we value migrants only in their role as remittance senders, they end up being used as “peonos of global development” instead of becoming its protagonists and beneficiaries. Thus, interventions are not concerned with the living conditions or well-being of migrants in destination countries, nor do they create effective mechanisms through which to consult or involve them in the intervention in countries of origin.

**International sexual division of labor:** Not only is the sexual division of labor used to organize households and national labor markets; it also used as an organizing principle of global production. In recent decades, the prevailing model of economic globalization has led to the internationalization of industrial production chains, as well as the feminization of labor in many export processing zones that were created in developing countries to attract foreign investment. In effect, investors—and political officials looking to attract foreign capital to their countries—often exploit the ‘new international division of labor’ (Froebel et al, 1980) by locating their factories in areas where labor is cheap, exploitable, flexible, and often female. This reproduces the sexual division of labor in the sense that jobs are created “for women” such as electronic parts assembly and the sewing of athletic garments, and jobs “for men”, such as, for example, the operation of heavy machinery. There is also a preference for female labor in agricultural production for export where, according to a landowner in Honduras, “we employ women because they have more delicate hands to turn over the watermelon.” The creation of jobs “for women” has mobilized many women, particularly young women, who previously were unemployed and/or worked in subsistence agriculture. Many women migrate from the interior of their countries and live in

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*Visit to melon and watermelon production site, Nacaome, Valle, Honduras.*
or near their worksite, where strong control is exerted over their movement, fertility, etc. When they no longer have that job because the factory closed or moved or because they were fired due to illness, age, or pregnancy, many women migrate again sometimes internally or sometimes internationally (see Sassen 1988). Similarly, the concept helps to understand the formation of so-called “global care chains” in which care is still considered women’s work, a household responsibility and not that of the state, even though it requires women’s migration for its provision.

**Migration**: In its broadest sense, migration refers to the movement of people from one place to another, either within their own country (internal migration) or outside of their country (international migration). This manual focuses on international migration, a phenomenon that is divided into the categories of forced migration (displacement of people due to conflict, natural or environmental disasters, development projects, etc.) and voluntary migration (for study, tourism or economic reasons).

**Migration-development nexus**: This term usually refers to the effects and potential of migration – and especially remittances – in the development of countries of origin. The perspectives of human development and gender seek to broaden the concept of this nexus to include analysis of policies and migrants’ rights in destination countries (not just countries of origin), the social organization of care in countries of origin and destination, etc.

**Remittances**: Transfers which migrants send to their families (or other people) commonly in their country of origin. Normally the term refers to monetary remittances — money orders sent through banks, money transfer services such as Western Union or informally — although other types of transfers exist such as social remittances (changes in behavior, ideas, beliefs transferred between people in destination countries and countries of origin) and in-kind remittances (gifts, appliances, etc.).

**Sexual division of labor**: The sex-gender system associates certain work with men and other kinds of work with women. As such, productive work (paid work) is usually assigned to men, while women are considered responsible for reproductive labor (unpaid or underpaid care work). Both men and women engage in community labor (volunteer work), although it is more common for men to be in leadership positions while women play supportive roles.

**Transnational family**: This term refers to the family model that has emerged because of globalization and the migration policies of receiving countries that leave families no option but to split their members in different countries. Despite the time and distance, these families, thanks to advances in technology and communications, manage to stay in constant contact, and to distribute the family functions of economic support and caregiving transnationally. Women play an important role in the coordination of care and the overall management of transnational families, either as the remittance managers, migrant mothers, caretakers of migrants’ children, etc.
GENDER ON THE MOVE

WORKING ON THE MIGRATION-DEVELOPMENT Nexus from a Gender perspective