



# GENDER, ECONOMIC MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT

This Thematic Brief provides quick guidance on the most important issues relating to gender, economic migration and development

This Brief is addressed to staff from development cooperation agencies who are involved in programmes and projects with a focus on migration.

This Brief provides information to development practitioners on the most important gender issues at stake and how to address them, including indicators that can be used to monitor whether a programme is integrating gender dimensions, examples of gender-sensitive development actions and references to further information and tools related to gender, economic migration and development. It focuses primarily on international, rather than internal, migration<sup>1</sup>.

This Brief focuses mainly on the labour and job-related aspects of economic migration, rather than considering patterns of migration of refugees and asylum-seekers. It is important to recognise that refugees and asylum-seekers can face different issues to economic migrants, including violation of basic human rights, threats to their safety, displacement and political/cultural/religious exclusion. Although not the subject of this Brief, gender analysis also has the potential to enhance the relevance and effectiveness of development interventions that focus on this aspect of migration.

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<sup>1</sup> However, it is worth bearing in mind that the number of internal migrants is also significant. For instance, in 2005, the sum of internal migration in India and China outstripped global international migration (BRIDGE, 2005b).



## Introduction

Migration is a major phenomenon worldwide, with the number of international migrants on track to reach 214 million people in 2010 (UNDESA, 2009). In recent decades, there has been growing interest in the relationship between migration and development, particularly within migrants' countries of origin. For some researchers and development practitioners, the significant amount of money sent back by migrants to their friends and family ('remittances')<sup>2</sup> represents an important development opportunity for receiving countries, in that the money can serve as a means to encourage collective investment and savings, to support local economies and households, and to stabilise the national balance of payments<sup>3</sup>: 'remittances for development' (Pérez Orozco et al 2008). Others have highlighted the need to take a broad approach to migration and development, harnessing the impact of migration to encourage an inclusive and equitable form of human development in sending countries, as well as recognising the benefits to transit and receiving countries, and protecting and empowering migrants (UN Women, 2013a).

The dynamics of migration are highly gendered. Amongst other things, gender roles and relations may impact upon who migrates, the type of work he/she enters, the level/regularity of money sent home and the mechanisms used to transfer remittances. Gender may also affect motivations for migration, the capacity of migrants to save and to access social and transnational networks, and the level of influence that individuals have over household decisions on remittance use.

In recent years, there has been a growing interest in the so-called 'feminisation of migration' (UN Women, 2013a). On the one hand, this is because women now account for a higher number and proportion of international migrants (in 2005, approximately 50%) (World Bank, 2008). The UN database on stocks of migrants shows an increase in the proportion of female migration between 1960 and 2005 worldwide and in most regions, with the biggest rises observed in the former Soviet Union (from 48% to 58%), Oceania (from 44% to 51%); Latin America and the Caribbean (from 45% to 50%) and Africa (from 42% to 47%) (Ibid.). However, the 'feminisation of migration' also refers to the changed nature of women's migration, in that, during the last half century, there has been a rise in the number of women migrating independently in search of economic opportunities, as opposed to joining husbands/relatives abroad (UN Women, 2013a).

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<sup>2</sup> The World Bank estimated that global remittances valued nearly \$600 billion in 2014: over double the amount transferred in Official Development Assistance. <http://www.worldbank.org/en/news/press-release/2015/04/13/remittances-growth-to-slow-sharply-in-2015-as-europe-and-russia-stay-weak-pick-up-expected-next-year>

<sup>3</sup> Remittances are a significant source of income for some countries. For instance, in 2006, migrants' remittances accounted for 25% of Lesotho's GDP (UN-INSTRAW and UNDP, 2010).



## Gender issues in economic migration

### Gender inequalities in migration

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- **Migration has the potential to empower both women and men, giving them the chance to earn money and independence, form new social relations and earn greater respect from their families. However, it can also be disempowering, particularly for women.** In many countries, there is a stigma associated with the migration of women, especially when mothers leave children behind. In destination countries, migrant women may experience double discrimination for being foreign-born and female, in addition to the poor working and living conditions that characterise many 'feminised' professions (see below) (UN Women, 2013a).
- **Gendered norms continue to affect the jobs into which migrant women and men enter.** Migrant women normally enter into 'feminised' professions (such as care and domestic work), whereas men go into male-dominated occupations (for example, construction and transport) (UN Women, 2013a). For example, migrant women from Mexico and the rest of Latin America account for the majority of the domestic workforce in the USA (Ibid.). Sampling a range of countries with data available, the International Labour Organisation estimated that migrant women made up 95% of domestic service labourers in Argentina (2001), 64% of those in Bahrain (2007), 92% of those in Chile (2002), 92% of those in Spain (2006), and 81% of those in Thailand (2005) (ILO, n.d.). A survey of remittance-beneficiary households in Indonesia – the South-East Asian country with the second biggest migrant worker population – found that most remitters worked in unskilled jobs, divided along 'typically gendered' lines, with most women working as domestic helpers (81%) and most men as labourers (72%) (IOM, 2011). At the same time, it is important to recognise that the experiences of low-skilled migrant men in the labour markets of destination countries may also be characterised by precarious, poorly paid and insecure working conditions. Furthermore, these men are increasingly competing for work in low-paid, women-dominated sectors, such as cleaning (Datta et al., 2008).
- **In migrants' destination countries, jobs in 'feminised' sectors (such as the care and domestic sector) often entail low levels of pay, security and social value, with weaker labour rights and working conditions than the jobs of migrant men** (UN Women, 2013a). For instance, ILO Convention 189 (2011) recognises that "domestic work continues to be undervalued and invisible and is mainly carried out by women and girls, many of whom are migrants ... and who are particularly vulnerable to discrimination in respect of conditions of employment and of work". In a survey of Nepalese domestic workers in Hong Kong (99% of respondents were women), 61% of respondents reported being paid less than the minimum allowance wage each month (UNIFEM, 2009a). In turn, women's concentration in lowly paid professions means that, although migrant women and men remit similar amounts of money, this often translates into a higher share of women's salaries, affecting their ability to spend money elsewhere, including on their personal wellbeing, skills development and social integration (UN Women, 2013a).
- **Often, domestic and care work in destination countries takes place within the informal sector, leaving few options for migrant women** to gain regular migrant status and skills recognition, as well as to be part of organisations that would support their rights, such as labour unions and migrant associations. In some



cases, these workers may be subject to additional forms of abuse and exploitation by employers and/or recruitment agencies, in part due to 'social invisibility' and limited government regulation of the sector (UNIFEM, 2009; UN Women, 2013a; ILO, n.d.). Some migrant women have to work for between 6 months and 2 years to pay back debts to recruitment agencies (UN Women, 2013b).

- **Migrants may face difficulty in accessing healthcare within their destination countries, with women encountering additional challenges.** For instance, destination governments often provide only emergency healthcare to migrants. Poor access to healthcare has the potential to affect migrant women's health in particular, as – relative to men – they tend to rely more on the health system for biological reasons (pregnancy, post-partum complications) and social reasons (for example, for family members) (UN Women, 2013a). Migrant women workers may also face particular vulnerabilities in relation to HIV/AIDS<sup>4</sup> (ILO, IOM, UNAIDS, 2008) and above-average rates of cervical cancer, early pregnancy, domestic violence and maternal/infant mortality (UN Women, 2013a).
- **Migrants may also have trouble accessing justice in their destination countries,** due to a lack of job security, fear of arrest, abuse by employers, and limited knowledge of complaint mechanisms (UN Women, 2013b).
- **Despite their growing role as economic providers, migrant women often face challenges in gaining authority and influence over decision-making.** For instance, men are often overrepresented within migrant associations and transnational entrepreneurial networks, which undermines women's ability to voice their particular needs and concerns. Even when women are sending significant amounts of money home in remittances, they may continue to be treated as second-class citizens within their countries of origin. For instance, migrant women in the US who have come from the Dominican Republic often face challenges in gaining influence at home, as the wider power relations have not changed (UN-INSTRAW and UNDP, 2010).
- **Migration has mixed impacts on the empowerment of women in the community left behind.** In some cases, the migration of men can increase the influence of women in the households left behind. Significantly, women form the majority of those receiving remittances, giving them an important stake in spending decisions at the individual, household and community level (UN Women, 2013a). However, remittance recipients are not always those with the power to decide how money is used. A UN case study in Senegal found that only 50% of women recipients can decide on the use of remittances, and that the remitter retains control in 30% of cases (another person makes the decisions in the remaining 20% of cases). In contrast, men recipients were less likely to cede control to someone else (Ibid.). Migrant men can retain important influence from afar, particularly through their relatives, who may live in the same household as their wives (Sarr 2010).
- **Even when women can control the use of remittances, they may face other issues in making long-term investments.** For instance, women recipients can face particular difficulties in establishing microenterprises, due to less formal education

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<sup>4</sup> International labour migrants often have particular HIV risk. Due to a range of factors – including separation of partners, socio-cultural norms, poor quality living and working conditions, stigma associated with related information and health services – migrant workers may partake in behaviours that heighten their risk to HIV, such as "unsafe casual or commercial sex". Women's vulnerabilities are heightened due to their employment in insecure jobs, their potential exposure to sexual violence and in some cases their need to exchange sex for food or money (ILO, IOM, UNAIDS, 2008).



than men, fewer business skills and difficulty getting credit. They also tend to be more likely than men to invest more money in fulfilling the essential needs of household (e.g. food, clothing), due to their traditional role as the guarantor of household nutrition and wellbeing. This leaves less money for women to invest in businesses, making it harder for them to employ staff, to invest in particular areas, and to generate a sustainable income. The profitability of women's microenterprises may also be affected by the types of businesses deemed 'acceptable' for women to pursue (for example, beauty salons or food stores, rather than more profitable ventures) (UN Women, 2013a; UN-INSTRAW and UNDP, 2010).

- **The migration of husbands can lead to an increase in wives' work, within the community of origin.** For instance, case studies in the Dominican Republic and Albania found that women whose husbands had migrated continued to carry out most care-related and domestic tasks, but they also had to take on new tasks, such as looking after new relatives who had moved into the household and carrying out additional income-generation activities to supplement remittances (UN-INSTRAW and UNDP, 2010).
- **The demand for women's care labour in destination countries has led some to highlight a 'global care chain'** (i.e. a transfer of care between households) (UN Women, 2013a). Due to the gendered division of labour, if a mother emigrates and leaves her children behind, it is common for another woman in the family to take responsibility for caring for them (e.g. mother, oldest daughter), as opposed to her husband or other men in the family. However, as part of the wider trend, men, the state and/or the private sector often take on a small role, reinforcing the invisibility of the sector and the unequal division of household tasks between women and men. Care chains also tend to reinforce other inequalities (for example, the under-valuing of migrant women's work).

### Several structural and cultural factors can explain gender inequalities in migration

- **Legal provisions that discriminate against women (either directly or indirectly) can impact upon the position of migrant women, both in sending and receiving countries.** For instance, in a review of labour migration laws in Asian and Arab states<sup>5</sup>, UN Women concluded – despite countries' ratification of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) – domestic laws were frequently inconsistent with the Convention, including in the areas of employment, equal treatment, violence and access to justice (UN Women, 2013b). For example, in Bahrain, all foreign workers *apart from* domestic servants are permitted to join unions, meaning that migrant women (a majority of the migrants in the domestic workforce) are hit disproportionately (Ibid.)<sup>6</sup>. Such laws affect women and men's respective labour rights, social protection, economic position, health status and legal literacy. More generally, the denial of equal social and political rights in countries of origin can also be a 'push' factor for migrant women.

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<sup>5</sup> This covered Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Jordan, Lao PDR, Nepal, Philippines and also key destination countries, such as Bahrain, Hong Kong SAR, UAE, Singapore and Thailand.

<sup>6</sup> Jordan is the first Arab state to extend the Labour Code to domestic workers. Their salaries must go into a bank account, employers must give medical insurance, 14 days of medical leave and 14 of annual leave. Domestic workers should also have a day off each week. (UN Women, 2013b).



- **Institutional barriers and socio-cultural norms can prevent migrants from accessing key services in destination countries**, such as healthcare, justice and banking services. Such obstacles include lack of information/time, bureaucracy, linguistic/cultural barriers, and prohibitive cost of services. For migrant women, these difficulties can be particularly acute, due to, amongst other things, their concentration in low-paid professions; socio-cultural norms that may affect their use of services (for example, impropriety of being alone with service workers and/or men); and lower literacy levels than men<sup>7</sup>. For example, most migrant women from Lesotho are unable to access formal banking systems of the mining sector in South Africa (used by many migrant men), instead using informal channels to remit to Lesotho (UN-INSTRAW and UNDP, 2010).
- **In many developed countries, governments rely upon a migrant labour force (either officially or de facto) to respond to shortages in their labour market. However, there may be few channels to support these migrants to gain regular migrant status, particularly within 'feminised professions'.** For example, many 'developed countries' are facing demographic challenges (crisis of the welfare state; the ageing of the population), as well as longer-term changes to the traditional model of care provision (through the family unit). These trends have created major demand for work in the domestic and care sector, often of migrant women (UN Women, 2013a). Despite this, many destination countries take a highly 'stratified' approach to migration policy. This involves discouraging 'undesirable' (mainly low-skilled) migrants – including by introducing high restrictions on family migration and reunification for such individuals – at the same time as recruiting other migrants actively (e.g. highly qualified) (BRIDGE, 2005a). Gender segregation in the labour market means this can be especially harmful for women<sup>8</sup>. For instance, verbal contracts are a common feature of employment in the domestic sector, but these are frequently insufficient for the issuing of residency or work permits (UN Women, 2013a). Likewise, it is often legal for employers to hold back high proportions of domestic workers' salaries to compensate for their lodging/food, meaning labourers cannot meet income thresholds for family reunification. In most OECD countries, legal recruitment channels for temporary migrants focus on construction and farm labourers (jobs normally taken by men) (ILO, n.d.).
- **Globalisation drives the demand for cheap labour, especially in service jobs. Despite this many governments in destination countries fail to uphold minimum labour standards and rights for migrants, particularly in private forms of employment.** For instance, labour regulations/inspections are often made for the public sphere, rather than the private sphere (Anderson 2006), meaning live-in carers, domestic workers and sex workers (mostly women) may be particularly vulnerable to exploitation and rights violation.
- **Unequal opportunities and gender roles in countries of origin can restrict women's ability to benefit fully from migration.** As discussed above, even when women receive remittances, they may not be the individuals that make decisions over how they are used, due to patriarchal organisation of the household/community. Even when women are responsible for decisions over spending, they face a range of other barriers to investment and savings, such as dis-

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<sup>7</sup> In 2013, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics estimated that there are 774 million adults (15 years and older) who cannot read or write, of whom two-thirds (493 million) are women. <http://www.uis.unesco.org/literacy/Pages/data-release-map-2013.aspx>

<sup>8</sup> Piper, Nicola. 2005, Gender and Migration. A paper prepared for the Policy Analysis and Research Programme of the Global Commission on International Migration; cited in UN Women, 2013a.



crimination, gendered expectations and low levels of access to productive assets (credit, social/commercial networks, etc.).

- **Despite growing interest in the links between gender and migration, as well as discussion of the 'feminisation of migration', most policies/programmes focusing on the migration-development nexus fail to consider the gender perspective,** taking the position and experiences of migrant men as the standard (UN Women, 2013a). As an example of this, in 2008, the World Bank pointed to the lack of sex-disaggregated data within core migration statistics on skilled migration, the brain drain and global bilateral migration stocks (World Bank, 2008).

### How to address gender inequalities in migration

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For migration to reach its development potential, gender disparities must be addressed and effectively reduced. Development programmes that focus on migration need to be gender-sensitive, in the ways described below.

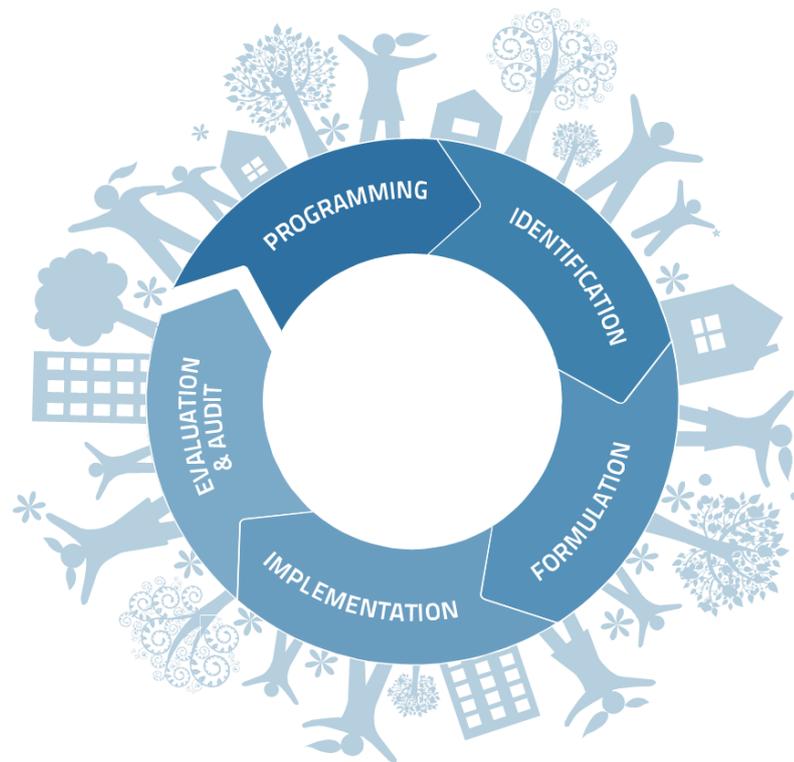
- **Make use and create demand for sex-disaggregated data.**
- **Ensure that women's needs and priorities are voiced, understood and addressed.** Women are often under-represented in migrant associations and political life, meaning it may be necessary to investigate other channels through which to reach them.
- **Avoid reinforcing gender inequalities, by ignoring the existing gender relations and power disparities between women and men.** For instance, schemes that encourage collective savings and use of remittances for development should also include measures to support and free up the time of the providers of reproductive activities (often women), such as childcare cooperatives.
- **Plan gender-specific actions, to address problems relating more particularly to one or the other gender,** either as separate initiatives or as part of larger programmes. For instance, women considering migration may face particular challenges in accessing information and advice about their rights and entitlements abroad, due to lack of access to social networks, low levels of literacy and formal education and lack of available services/resources. For instance, in a survey of (mostly women) Nepalese domestic workers in Hong Kong, only 24% believed they had had clear information in advance about their expected wage, leave and living conditions (UNIFEM, 2009a). It is essential to support migrant women to access such information, in order to increase their ability to make informed decisions and to challenge potential exploitation by private recruitment agencies and/or future employers. As a positive example, the Bahrain Resource Centre for Women Migrant Workers offers information on safe migration to possible women migrants, including risks of migration.
- **Adopt longer term "transformative" perspectives,** supporting women's participation in decision-making and changing prevalent negative attitudes on women's leadership capacities and social roles.
- **Engage men,** creating awareness on gender disparities and proving the benefits of gender equality for communities. For example, when women have greater control over household income (including remittances), there are proven benefits to children in many countries, including Bangladesh, Brazil, Ivory Coast, Mexico, South Africa, and the United Kingdom (World Bank, 2012). Furthermore, when women have opportunities to earn their own money, it can increase their bargaining power and agency (Ibid.).



- **When planning small sized women- or gender-equality specific projects, see them as part of larger scale programmes to support human development.** For instance, the poorest households will not normally be those able to afford to send migrants elsewhere, meaning they may not benefit equally from remittances sent to particular communities. Remittances can lead to the development of a new 'elite'. A comparison of remittance recipient profiles in Colombia, Dominican Republic and Guatemala found that at least half of the recipients were women, but that respectively only 4% (Colombia), 6.2% (Dominican Republic) and 40% (Guatemala) of the recipients were poor (Robert, Elisabeth, 2009, cited in UN Women, 2013a). In order to support inclusive development in communities of origin, it is important to promote the involvement of both recipient *and* non-recipient households, within development programmes.



## A roadmap for gender mainstreaming in development programmes with a focus on migration



Gender equality considerations should be integrated throughout the whole cycle of development planning.

This Section proposes a roadmap for gender mainstreaming in the various phases of a programme – or project - lifecycle.

### 1. Analysis, programming and identification of country strategies

Programming and identification are strategic moments to promote development programmes which serve to redress gender inequalities and support migration that empowers both migrants and the sending communities. The most essential steps are:

- To keep gender equality in the policy dialogue agenda;
- To carry out gender sensitive analysis for the diagnostic stage.

Dialogue and negotiations related to migration should:

- Be grounded in the shared objectives of the global agenda for the protection of migrants, and in common respect of the framework for human rights (including gender equality): Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (particularly the accompanying General Recommendation 26); the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (ICRMW); ILO Convention 189 Concerning Decent Work for Domestic Workers; ILO Convention 97 on Migration for Employment; ILO Convention 143 on Migrant Workers; ILO Convention 181 on Private Employment Agencies; the Beijing Declaration and Platform for



Action; Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), the Convention on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), the Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD).

- Align with the country commitments (laws, policies, strategies) to promote gender equality and guarantee the social and political rights of migrants
- Analyse the different roles and take-off positions of women and men who migrate and use sex-disaggregated data in diagnostic studies. Gender country profiles or other sectoral studies should be used or commissioned.
- Systematically involve and support “gender stakeholders”, from Government, donors and civil society, at all stages. This can include gender coordination groups, gender focal points in ministries (especially labour ministries), gender experts and representatives of rural women's groups, migrants and their households, migrant associations, transnational migrants' networks, cooperatives, unions and CSOs.
- Build on previous and current initiatives to promote gender equality in the sector or in contributing sectors, map existing needs and financing gaps, and avoid duplication of efforts.
- Assess whether the institutions who will be responsible for programme management and service delivery have resources and capacities to promote gender equality and plan for competence development initiatives, including at service delivery level.

## 2. Formulation and budgeting

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The results of gender analysis should be used to tailor the formulation of programmes and projects. The formulation phase is particularly important, as it affects all subsequent phases of the programme (implementation, monitoring and evaluation). To do, one must follow the steps described below.

- Design objectives and activities to address gender gaps identified and include them in programme documents, plans, logical frameworks, financing agreements and budgets.
- Include and budget for initiatives to address specific needs and constraints faced by migrant women or men, including long-term capacity building of women in leadership, lobbying, language skills and awareness of their rights entitlement (including human and labour rights).
- Allocate resources for gender mainstreaming, capacity building and awareness raising at all levels and in ways that are adapted to the needs of different target groups (E.g. programme staff, women and men beneficiaries, staff from relevant local institutions, service delivery institutions, marginalised communities, indigenous women);
- Commit to pursue a strategy for continued gender mainstreaming in the programme (donor and country led processes). This may be formalized in an action plan which should then clearly assign responsibilities, resources and results to be achieved, as part of the broader programme's result chain.
- Establish formal mechanisms of consultation with gender stakeholders.
- Design and budget for participatory and gender-sensitive monitoring processes, particularly at service delivery level e.g. in assessments of new technologies in-



troduced, including indicators to capture changes in power relations or in agricultural roles and productivity.

- Define performance monitoring frameworks and processes which can capture progress in gender-related objectives.
- In direct budget support initiatives, include gender indicators in financing agreements between donor and recipient countries (e.g. minimum share of women involved in the management of collective remittance programmes).
- Respect equal opportunity principles in management arrangements and establish accountability structures for gender mainstreaming at programme level.

### 3. Implementation and monitoring

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At this stage what is planned in relation to gender equality should be maintained, monitored and corrected as needed. The most important points to consider are:

- Continued coordination, dialogue and consultation on gender equality within working groups on migration; with institutional stakeholders (such as the gender units of the relevant ministries) as well as with a broader range of actors from civil society.
- Effective monitoring of the progress of the various gender dimensions of the programme and sub-programmes, including at service delivery level, collecting opinions and experiences of women and men who have migrated or have been affected by migration;
- Integration of gender in joint sector reviews and policy dialogues (particularly at the level of the SWAP committee);
- Monitoring if resources planned for gender equality are spent, and if not, why.

### 4. Evaluation

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- Terms of Reference of (mid-term) evaluations should require gender expertise in the evaluation team and give account of the differential impacts of a programme on women and men, identify potential negative impacts on women or men and offer recommendations and lessons learned useful to further pursue gender equality in the sector.
- Evaluators and monitors should be able to use participatory evaluation techniques and sex-disaggregated beneficiary assessments of service delivery.
- Evaluations should also build on past gender evaluations of programmes in the sector.

#### GENDER TOOLS FOR THE DIFFERENT AID MODALITIES

An ample selection of analytical and planning tools useful at each phase of the development cooperation cycle, according to the different aid modalities, is available in the “Aid Modalities” Section of the EU Resource Package on Gender Mainstreaming in Development Cooperation.

The following Section offers a list of gender-analysis questions that can be used in Programmes related to migration.



## Questions for gender analysis in migration<sup>9</sup>

Gender analysis helps acquire a different perspective on the complexity of a development context, and understand how to better address other forms of social inequalities. It looks at how economic and social structures at multiple levels can reinforce, or help overcome, gender inequalities and imbalances in power relations between women and men.

### DIFFERENT LEVELS OF GENDER ANALYSIS

Macro analysis looks at national level law, policy and decision making, including trade and finance policies and national development plans. It helps identify how migration programmes can contribute, or hamper, broader development strategies. It assesses whether migration-related legislation or policies contribute to gender inequalities, or to their elimination. It is particularly useful when programming or identifying development cooperation strategies, programmes and projects.

*For example:*

*Analysis at the macro level may reveal that migrant women are not legally entitled to particular social protection in their destination countries, such as maternity leave. In some countries, work visa requirements also mandate that applicants must stay with a single employer. Such provisions undermine the position of migrant women to challenge exploitative working conditions and may open them up to dismissal if they become pregnant.*

Meso level analysis looks at markets, institutions, services, infrastructures which serve as a link between laws/policies and people, enabling them to benefit (or be excluded) from policy effects: communication and transportation systems, health services, education, decentralized public services (revenues, rural development, land registration), credit institutions, markets and extension systems.

This is particularly useful at programme formulation, as it also assesses the extent to which gender roles relationships and cultural issues can influence the effectiveness of service delivery and other policy and programme implementation mechanisms.

*For example:*

*Analysis at the meso level may reveal that the opening times for civil and legal services are not well-suited to the timetables of the labour sectors in which migrant women work, and that specific services may be needed at other times.*

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<sup>9</sup> More on gender analysis is available in the EU Resource Package, Section “Building Blocks”.



## DIFFERENT LEVELS OF GENDER ANALYSIS

Micro level analysis studies people: women and men as individuals, and the socio-economic differences between households and communities. It considers women and men's roles, activities and power relations within the household and the community, and how these influence their respective capacities to participate and benefit from development programmes. It is particularly useful at formulation, implementation and monitoring levels.

*For example:*

*In some countries, such as Nepal and Morocco, there have traditionally been negative perceptions of women who migrate and leave their children behind, regardless of their motivation or the subsequent contributions they make to household income. These views may mean these women face stigma and social isolation if they return to their community of origin, undermining their ability to benefit fully from development programmes in the area.*

The following section proposes guiding questions for gender analysis in migration and development, at macro, meso and micro levels.

### Macro level

#### Macro level. Policies and laws

- What gender equality commitments have been made by the government, for instance in the framework of the Beijing Platform for Action, CEDAW, the SDGs? Is there a law and/or a policy on gender equality in the country?
- Do national migration policies reflect these commitments through awareness of inequalities between men and women, and do they outline the means to address them?
- Are there gender policies and action plans on migration? Do national migration programmes and sub-programmes align to and support these gender plans?
- In countries of origin, are bilateral/multilateral agreements in place for migration? Do these consider minimum wage, medical benefits, leave, and expected hours?
- Do current policies, laws and regulations address women's and men's needs separately? Do they have discriminatory provisions? Do they have measures for equal opportunities and women's rights? For example, in origin countries, are women permitted to migrate to other countries without the permission of a male guardian? In destination countries, are the labour rights of migrant women and men the same, in theory and in practice?
- In countries of origin, how are recruitment agencies regulated?
- In destination countries, is there a policy to identify and protect women in sectors vulnerable to exploitation? Are bilateral/multilateral agreements in place to set down minimum conditions of work?
- In destination countries, does national labour law cover domestic work?



- In destination countries, what is the system of temporary labour visas? Do these require workers to stay with a particular employer?
- In destination countries, is the social and health protection system inclusive of migrant women (e.g. right to maternity care)? Are certain groups excluded (e.g. women working in the domestic sphere, women who migrated as spouses)?
- In destination countries, what are the legal channels through which migrants can gain regular migrant status, and do these favour particular sectors?

#### Macro level. How are decisions made in national-level institutions?

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- In sending and receiving countries:
  - Are there decision makers (in Government, Parliament) who are ready to champion gender equality and women's empowerment in migration?
  - Are governmental institutions responsible for women's and gender issues, involved in decision-making at national policy and planning levels?
  - Are there gender thematic groups that could be involved in sector level consultations?
- In receiving countries:
  - Are migrant women and men represented within national-level decision-making structures?
  - How much influence do migrant associations have over the national decision-making processes, and are women and men represented within these?

#### Macro level. Data and information

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- Are there policy documents or agreed gender assessments that information and statistics on the gender gaps and priorities in migration?
- Are sex-disaggregated data available on motivations, experiences and patterns of migration, including the main sectors of employment for migrant women and men?
- Have similar programmes/projects been implemented in the country? Were gender-sensitive evaluations carried out? What are good examples of women's empowerment in the study area? Which attempts to achieve gender equality were failures (e.g. because they were taken over by men or had adverse effects on women)?
- In origin countries, what information exists about the living and working conditions of remitters abroad?

#### Macro level. Monitoring frameworks

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- How is the country faring on gender equality targets established at international level?
- Do destination countries report on migrant women workers as part of CEDAW reporting?
- In origin countries, has the government developed indicators that allow for monitoring of migration impacts from a gender equality perspective? Which da-



ta exists to show the impacts of a remittances programme/project for women and men?

- In origin countries, does the government have a system to track the gender sensitivity of development programmes?
- Is it possible to have a benefit incidence analysis by sex of beneficiaries? (method of computing the distribution of public expenditure across different demographic groups, such as women and men.)
- In sector budget support modality, can payments be linked to progress made on the gender objectives and gender indicators? Is part of the budget earmarked for specific gender equality objectives?

## Meso level

### Meso level . Service provision

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- In countries of origin, are there mechanisms to enable potential migrants to make informed decisions about migration, and are women able to access these?
- In countries of origin, are there signs of recruitment agencies exploiting migrants, particularly women?
- To what extent are embassies and consulates able to support migrant women workers who experience exploitation, abuse or violence?
- Are counselling services available for migrant workers?
- In countries of origin, are there plans to improve the outreach capacity of local-level service delivery institutions to poor communities and in particular to women (for example, specific efforts to reach women-headed households not receiving remittances)?
- If financial mechanisms or facilities are in place, are they accessible for women as well as for men? For instance, are the location, opening times and services well-suited to women's needs?
- Are workers' organisations or NGOs able to promote the rights of women working in the core sectors of migrant women's employment, such as the domestic, care and entertainment sectors?
- Is there a gender balance in programme and project implementation units? At which levels?

### Meso level. Decision making and consultation

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- If the programme envisages support to community-based organisations and co-operatives, are women represented and at which levels? Which women?
- In countries of origin, which bodies decide on the use of remittances in community development programmes? What is the gender balance within these? Are gender equality institutions and structures at local level involved in these decisions?
- In destination countries, are there representative organisations of diaspora communities? Are women represented within these? If women are represented, are they afforded respect/time to speak during meetings?



- If there are mechanisms to increase access to productive resources, training, local markets, or employment, are there provisions to promote equitable access (for example, holding single-sex training sessions if necessary, to enable both women and men to attend)?

### Meso level. Data collection and monitoring processes

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- Which data can be collected throughout the programme to monitor the impacts of the programme for women and men? Who will be responsible for collecting this data, and how frequently? Will they be trained in participatory, gender-sensitive data collection techniques?
- In countries of origin and destination countries, how are state bodies responsible for migration processes monitored? Are there channels for making complaints, and can women access these?
- How will consultation processes be organised at various levels? Will both women and men be involved in community level consultation processes? How are women's interests going to be represented? Is there a need to set up new fora?
- Are adequate resources allocated for participatory consultation, monitoring and sex-disaggregated beneficiary assessments of services?
- Are data collected at this level disaggregated by sex? What is the capacity of the national statistical office, and of enumerators, to collect sex disaggregated data and produce gender sensitive statistics?

### Micro level

#### Micro level. Gender division of tasks and labour

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- What are women and men's traditional activities in their community of origin?
- What are women and men's activities in receiving countries?
- Has migration led to any changes in the gendered division of tasks and labour? If so, has the overall workload of women increased (including unpaid domestic work)?
- What is the impact of women's (and girls') unpaid work on their opportunity to engage in migration?

#### Are children involved in household work? Which different tasks are allocated to girls and boys? Micro level. Gender relations: Access and control over resources

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*For origin and destination countries:*

- What are the general economic and demographic conditions of households? Of the community? What are men and women's main sources of income?
- If community-based organisations exist (e.g. cooperative, transnational networks, religion-based etc.), are women members? Do they participate? At which level? If not, why?
- Which factors influence access to and control over resources (for example, age, sex, wealth, ethnicity, peri-urban versus rural locations, education level, networks and patronage) and the decision to migrate?



*For origin countries:*

- Are there gender inequalities in access to and control over resources and benefits? For instance:
- At the household level, who takes decisions about resources and activities, including the choice of who migrates and the use of remittances?
- At the community level, how are decisions made about resources and activities, including the use of collective remittances?
- Has the migration of men/women impacted upon family structures, particularly the share of single parent/women-headed households?
- Are there differences in the level of remittances received in women- and men-headed households? Are there differences in the patterns of usage?
- Which households do not receive remittances, and what are the living conditions like within these? Are women and men both equally likely to be the head of such households?

*For destination countries:*

- Are there gender inequalities in access to and control over resources and benefits? For instance:
- What are the main sectors into which migrant women and men enter? How do the average salaries and living/working conditions compare?
- Are there differences in the amount/regularity of remittances sent by migrant women and men? What types of requests do they respond to? Who decides how much money is sent – the migrant or friends/relatives from the country of origin?
- What are the channels used by migrant women/men to remit money?
- Are there differences in the educational level of migrant women/men? How does this affect their access to information resources and services?

### Micro level. Perceptions about gender equality

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- In receiving countries, are migrant women aware of their rights? Are they able to voice them in the community or with service providers?
- In sending countries, are women aware of their rights and are they able to exercise/defend these?
- In sending countries, are there differences in community views towards women and men who migrate? If negative perceptions exist towards women, what is the basis of these? Is there a need to support the re-integration of returning migrant women workers?
- Are men openly resistant to gender equality? Are there groups of men who are more supportive/resistant than others? Who can influence them?



## Gender-sensitive indicators in economic migration and development

Gender sensitive indicators aim at ‘creating awareness of the different impacts of a development intervention on men and women, taking into consideration their socio-economic and cultural differences.’ (FAO, n.d. – Gender sensitive indicators for Natural Resources Management). Gender sensitive indicators reveal valuable information to identify the specific problems faced by women and men; to assess the extent of gender inequalities in access to and use of resources and services in migration, and provide the basis for evidence-based policy-making processes (FAO, n.d.).

Although there are many indicators to consider the impact of migration and of development, as yet there is no agreed methodological approach for exploring the connections between them (ACP Observatory on Migration, 2012). However, the ACP Observatory, the Institute for Public Policy Research and the Global Development Network have been developing new indicators that can be used to consider these links (Ibid.).

The table below provides some examples of gender sensitive indicators.

Area/Sub-sector	Indicator
Material conditions of migrants and households	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Increase/decrease in migrants' average wage, by sex, compared to before migration</li> <li>Remittance increase of households over time, by sex of head of household</li> <li>Household savings rate, by sex of head of household</li> <li>Number of new bank accounts of migrant and non-migrant yielding households, by sex of head of household</li> <li>Changes in number of household members working or able to work due to migration</li> </ul>
Changes to gender roles and relations due to migration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Changes in women's employment after migration, including return</li> <li>Increase/decrease in wages due to migration (either of women or household member)</li> <li>Increase/decrease in access and years of schooling and higher education of women migrants, returned women migrants, and women in migrant-yielding households</li> <li>Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education (before, during and after migration)</li> </ul>
Migrant/household health	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(Perceived) improvement/worsening of migrant's health due to migration, by sex</li> <li>Improved/worsened access to healthcare of migrant, by sex</li> <li>Increased/decreased spending of households on healthcare, by sex of head of household</li> <li>Increased prevalence of diseases amongst migrant population, by sex (e.g. HIV/AIDs)</li> </ul>



Area/Sub-sector	Indicator
Patterns of migration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>Number and share of migrant women/men from a given country</li><li>Motivations of migrant women/men for migration</li><li>Number and share of migrants, by sex, in core sectors of labour market insertion, such as domestic, care, construction, plumbing, healthcare and transport sectors</li><li>Ratio of migrant women/men in core sectors of labour market insertion</li><li>Average wage, by sex, in core sectors of labour market insertion</li></ul>

Source: Based upon ACP Observatory on Migration (2012)

## Examples of gender-sensitive projects in migration and development

Some development and cooperation programmes have successfully addressed the issue of gender inequalities relating to migration and development. Examples are provided in the table below, and additional documents gathering good practices are listed in the following page.

Programme/project	Challenges	Gender Strategy	Source
Compass Club Programme of the Aidha Micro-Business School, Singapore	Women domestic workers in Singapore (from Philippines, Indonesia, India, or Sri Lanka) budget more than half of their income for remittances, and often face additional unexpected requests from their family members, making it hard for them to save, invest or return to their country of origin	Compass Club programme of the Aidha Micro-Business School began to run monthly peer support groups for domestic workers, offering mentoring and financial skills. The club increased the women's sense of empowerment and confidence, leading to greater saving levels, investment in income-generating activities and improved ability of the women to negotiate the savings plan with their families	UN Women, 2013a <a href="http://www.unwomen.org/~media/Headquarters/Attachments/Sections/Library/Publications/GenderOnTheMove_low2b%20pdf.pdf">www.unwomen.org/~media/Headquarters/Attachments/Sections/Library/Publications/GenderOnTheMove_low2b%20pdf.pdf</a>
Emphasis project in Nepal, Bangladesh and India, run by CARE International and the Overseas Development Institute	Cross-border migrants in Nepal, India and Bangladesh can face particular vulnerabilities to HIV e.g. unsafe sex, involvement in the sex trade, sexual violence towards women	Project aims to reduce HIV vulnerabilities of undocumented migrants and their families, by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Setting up HIV services and information centres in border zones</li> <li>• Working with family members left at home to encourage referrals of returnees to services</li> <li>• Establishment of 44 women's groups including migrant spouses, migrant women and returnee migrants</li> <li>• Offering capacity-building services 93 health service providers at Jessore and Satkhira (two border districts) on Syndromic Management of STI</li> </ul>	CARE, n.d. <a href="http://www.careindia.org/sites/default/files/pdf_file/emphasis_at_glance_high_31st_may_0.pdf">www.careindia.org/sites/default/files/pdf_file/emphasis_at_glance_high_31st_may_0.pdf</a>  UNAIDS, n.d. <a href="http://www.care-emphasis.org/fckimagefile/EMPHASIS-UNAIDS.pdf?id=32">www.care-emphasis.org/fckimagefile/EMPHASIS-UNAIDS.pdf?id=32</a>
Media campaign to challenge gender stereotypes, UNIFEM	In many countries, migration policies undermine women's ability to emigrate, and migrant women face stigma and social isolation if they migrate	UNIFEM ran a media campaign (radio, articles, TV, etc.) in Nepal to challenge negative preconceptions about women who migrate. This caught the attention of the Parliament's Social Justice Committee (SJC), which led to the end of a ban on women migrating to work in Gulf. The Foreign Employment Act was also changed to support the rights of Nepalese migrant women labourers.	BRIDGE, 2005b <a href="http://www.eldis.org/vfile/upload/4/document/1105/Migration_IB_English.pdf">www.eldis.org/vfile/upload/4/document/1105/Migration_IB_English.pdf</a>  BRIDGE, 2005a <a href="http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/reports/CEP-Mig-OR.pdf">www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/reports/CEP-Mig-OR.pdf</a>



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