



**United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women**

**Consultative Meeting on Migration and Mobility and  
How This Movement Affects Women**

**Report of the Consultative Meeting  
Malmö, Sweden  
2 to 4 December 2003**

**Division for the Advancement of Women**

Department of Economic and Social Affairs

2 UN Plaza, 12<sup>th</sup> Floor

New York, NY 10017

Fax: (212) 963-3463

E-mail: [daw@un.org](mailto:daw@un.org)

[Http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw](http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw)

**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

	<b>Page</b>
<b>I. INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>II. ORGANIZATION OF WORK</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>A. Participation</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>B. Documentation</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>C. Programme of work</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>D. Election of officers</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>E. Opening statements</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>III. SUMMARY OF DISCUSSIONS</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>A. Overview</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>B. Globalization, development and migration</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>C. International law and women migrants</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>D. Trafficking in Women and Girls</b>	<b>16</b>
<b>E. Labour migration</b>	<b>19</b>
<b>F. When men migrate versus when women migrate</b>	<b>22</b>
<b>G. Internal mobility and migration</b>	<b>23</b>
<b>H. Refugees and displaced persons</b>	<b>24</b>
<b>I. Citizenship and civic participation</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>IV. RECOMMENDATIONS</b>	<b>29</b>
<b>REFERENCES</b>	<b>35</b>
<b>Annex I List of participants</b>	<b>36</b>
<b>Annex II List of documents</b>	<b>40</b>
<b>Annex III Programme of Work</b>	<b>42</b>

## **I. INTRODUCTION**

The United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW) of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs organized a consultative meeting on “Migration and Mobility and How This Movement Affects Women,” from 2 to 4 December 2003, at the World Maritime University in Malmö, Sweden. The meeting, which was hosted by the Government of Sweden, formed part of the preparation by the Division for the 2004 World Survey on the Role of Women in Development.

General Assembly Resolution 54/210 on Women in Development adopted by the fifty-fourth session of the General Assembly in 1999 requested the Secretary-General to “*Update the World Survey on the Role of Women in Development for the consideration of the General Assembly at its fifty-ninth session; as in the past, this survey should focus on selective emerging development issues that have an impact on the role of women in the economy at the national, regional and international levels.*”

In his report *Strengthening of the United Nations: an agenda for further change (A/57/387)*, the Secretary-General highlighted the importance of more comprehensive attention to migration to better understand the causes of international flows of people and their complex interrelationship with development. Furthermore, in its resolution on International Migration and Development (A/C.2/58/L.77) adopted at its fifty-eighth session in 2003, the General Assembly called upon the United Nations system, within their mandated activities, to continue to address the issue of international migration and development, with a view to integrating migration issues, including gender perspectives and cultural diversity, in a more coherent way within the broader context of the implementation of agreed economic and social development goals and the respect of all human rights. The *World Survey on the Role of Women in Development*, to be considered by the General Assembly at its fifty-ninth session in 2004, will address the increased movement of people, particularly women, within and across national borders, from a gender perspective.

The consultative meeting provided an opportunity for experts to discuss and analyse the gender dimensions of migration, including both the opportunities for empowerment, and the obstacles and vulnerabilities faced by women in the context of migration. The outcome of this consultative meeting is provided in this report.

## **II. ORGANIZATION OF WORK**

### **A. Participation**

The consultative meeting on “Migration and Mobility and How this Movement Affects Women” was attended by 10 experts from different regions, and representatives of United Nations entities and inter-governmental organizations, as well as representatives from the Government of Sweden, the World Maritime University and the organizer the Division for the Advancement of Women and a consultant (see annex 1).

## **B. Documentation**

The documentation for the meeting included:  
A conceptual paper prepared by the consultant;  
Papers prepared by experts;  
Papers contributed by other participants;  
Presentations made by experts and other participants.  
(See annex II)

## **C. Programme of work**

At its opening session on 2 December 2003, the consultative meeting adopted the following programme of work (see annex III):

Opening of the meeting  
Election of officers  
Presentation of the Consultant's paper  
Presentation and discussion of experts' papers  
Closing session

## **D. Election of officers**

The consultative meeting elected as Chairperson, Dr. Monica Boyd. Dr. Susan Forbes Martin, consultant for the United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women, served as rapporteur for the meeting.

## **E. Opening Statements**

Ms. Charlotte Svensson, State Secretary, Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Government of Sweden, addressed participants at the opening session of the meeting. In her statement, Ms. Svensson, emphasized the importance the Government of Sweden places on migration issues and how these affect women. She noted the positive aspects of migration such as remittances, as well as the need for addressing negative migration trends, such as increases in trafficking in human beings, violence against women migrants and the often weak position of migrant women in the labour market. She noted the important role of development assistance in improving conditions of women migrants and reducing the need for migration. Ms. Svensson also pointed to the fact that the line between voluntary migration and trafficking and/or enslavement is very fine. Ms. Svensson made reference to recent legislative changes in Sweden seeking to improve the situation for migrant women. These included measures to grant time-limited residency to victims of trafficking, as well as the establishment of individual asylum rights for women. She noted that it was expected that 27% of the working age population in Sweden by the year 2015 would be of foreign extraction, increasing the need to put to use the skills of the entire labour force, including women, to a much larger extent than is presently the case.

The consultative meeting was opened by Ms. Carolyn Hannan, Director, Division for the Advancement of Women. In her statement, Ms. Hannan thanked the Government of Sweden for hosting the meeting, expressed appreciation to the President of the World Maritime University for its sponsorship and welcomed meeting participants. She outlined the background for the convening of the consultative meeting as part of the preparation by the Division for the World Survey on the Role of Women in Development. She stressed the need for interdisciplinary collaboration to better understand the gender dimensions of migration and emphasized the steps already undertaken to involve partners from both within and outside the United Nations system. The analysis during the expert consultation would provide the basis for the further elaboration of the outline for the World Survey and would contribute to the policy recommendations to be presented to the General Assembly in 2004.

Dr. Karl Laubstein, President of the World Maritime University (WMU), warmly welcomed all participants to the World Maritime University. He provided a historical background for the WMU and its affiliation with the United Nations and outlined some of the ways the WMU is working to promote gender equality among its students and in its work. He noted that 25% of the student population was female, representing many countries across the globe. The University's location in Malmö, where 26% of the population is of foreign origin, provides a multicultural, international environment for the University and its students. He expressed appreciation for the opportunity to collaborate with the United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women.

### **III. SUMMARY OF DISCUSSIONS**

The discussions during the consultative meeting benefited from the diverse expertise and background of the experts - practitioners, academics and activists working on a plethora of migration issues, such as human trafficking, refugees and labour migrants, international law and social dynamics in societies with large migration flows. The discussions and recommendations are outlined below.

#### **A. Overview**

Migration has increased significantly during the past decades. A number of factors that contribute to this increase, particularly of international movements were discussed during the consultation, including:

- Economic globalisation and integration, which has linked the economies of source and destination countries together;
- Trade agreements that contain provisions for mobility of international personnel, particularly but not exclusively in trade in services;
- Growth of multinational corporations that move their personnel across countries and across the globe;

- Demographic trends, with many developed countries facing population stagnation and aging while developing countries continue to grow faster than their job markets can absorb new workers;
- Transportation revolution that has made migration affordable to millions of would-be migrants;
- Revolution in communications (internet, cellular phones) that informs would-be migrants of opportunities outside of their home countries and allows them to keep in touch with families and communities left behind; and
- The growth in transnational communities, including growing numbers of persons with dual- and multi-nationality and citizenship, which remain involved in the countries of their birth as well as their countries of destination.

In addition, in the past decade, many countries, particularly those ending years of Communist rule and restrictive emigration policies, have torn down their barriers to the movement of their nationals abroad. The changing geo-political situation has also caused the formation of new States, particularly in the area of the former Soviet Union. Russia has become one of the largest recipients of international migrants, but many of those now counted in this category would have been internal migrants prior to 1990. At the same time, the emerging threat of terrorism has placed new demands on immigration systems and border controls aimed at identifying and preventing the movements of persons who would be considered security risks. Many of the new policies to prevent the movement of terrorists have profound implications for legitimate cross border movements as well.

The number of long-term international migrants (that is, those residing in foreign countries for more than one year) has grown steadily in the past four decades to an estimated 175 million today (UN Population Division 2002). About 154 million are voluntary migrants, with the remaining 16 million being refugees. Even with the numbers of international migrants large and growing, it is important to keep in mind that only about three percent of the world's population has been living outside of their home countries for a year or longer. The propensity to move internationally, particularly in the absence of compelling reasons such as wars, is limited to a small proportion of humans.

Women have been an important part of international migration during the past five decades. As of 2000, about 49 percent of the world's migrants were women, up from 46.6 percent in 1960 (Zlotnik 2003). Significantly, the proportion of migrants who are women has grown to 51 percent in more developed regions. The highest proportions of women are in Europe and the lowest proportions are in Northern Africa (see Table 1).

Many different factors influence whether women will migrate. Factors include age, ethnicity, origins, marital status and other personal characteristics as well as the size, composition, and other family variables. At the societal level, cultural norms about the role of women will influence whether or not they migrate as principal wage-earners.

These factors influence not only whether a woman moves but also the countries to which women migrate. Migration tends to be within regions, with migrants often remaining within the same continent. More than half of international migrants traditionally

have moved from one developing country to another. In recent years, however, migration from poorer to richer countries has increased significantly. While the traditional immigration countries – the United States, Canada and Australia – continue to see large-scale movements as a result of labour recruitment that began in the 1960s and 1970s, Europe, the oil rich Persian Gulf states and the “economic tigers” of East and Southeast Asia are now also major destinations for international migrants.

The gender distribution of international migrants varies substantially by country. The proportion of legal immigrants who are women is particularly high in the traditional immigration countries. In places that only permit temporary migration, the proportion of men migrating may be higher, particularly if admission is limited to certain types of occupations typically dominated by men (e.g., miners or information technology workers). Differences can be seen among different emigration countries. Participants referenced the shift in Asian migration from principally male dominated to a considerably higher proportion of female migrants living abroad in such countries as the Philippines and Sri Lanka.

Major area	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000
World	46.6	47.2	47.4	47.9	48.8
More developed regions	47.9	48.2	49.4	50.8	50.9
Less developed regions	45.7	46.3	45.5	44.7	45.7
Europe	48.5	48.0	48.5	51.7	52.4
Northern America	49.8	51.1	52.6	51.0	51.0
Oceania	44.4	46.5	47.9	49.1	50.5
Northern Africa	49.5	47.7	45.8	44.9	42.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	40.6	42.1	43.8	46.0	47.2
Southern Asia	46.3	46.9	45.9	44.4	44.4
Eastern and South-eastern Asia	46.1	47.6	47.0	48.5	50.1
Western Asia	45.2	46.6	47.2	47.9	48.3
Caribbean	45.3	46.1	46.5	47.7	48.9
Latin America	44.7	46.9	48.4	50.2	50.5

Source: Hania Zlotnik, “The Global Dimensions of Female Migration” in the Migration Information Source, March 1, 2003

While many women accompany or join family members, increasing numbers of female migrants migrate on their own. They are the principal wage earners for themselves and their families. Most women move voluntarily, but a significant number are forced migrants who have fled conflict, persecution, environmental degradation, natural disasters

and other situations that affect their habitats and livelihoods. Still others have been trafficked into sexual exploitation and forced labour.

Migrant women generally move through well-recognised networks. Networks are often family or community-based although labour recruiters may also stimulate movements. Migrant women, along with men, tend to go to places in which their relatives, friends and community members are already located. Those already settled in the new community or country provide many needed services, not least of which is finding jobs or helping the newcomer obtain other sources of support.

The mobility of women affects the roles of both female and male migrants, families left behind in the migration process, and source and destination communities and countries of migrants. In particular, migration of women between and from developing countries affects the development process itself for those countries. It also raises a number of challenges to destination countries' immigration and refugee policies that address such issues as family reunification and formation, labour migration, trafficking and smuggling, and forced migration.

The consultative meeting addressed both the opportunities for empowerment of women and the challenges and vulnerabilities women face in the context of mobility and migration, nationally as well as internationally. Gender inequality and violence against women repeatedly emerged as causes and consequence of migration. The coping mechanisms employed by women to overcome discrimination and violence attest to the strength of their resolve to help themselves and their families to survive and prosper.

Throughout the consultative meeting, the participants reiterated the need for improved data and research on women and migration, emphasizing the need for a gendered perspective in assessing the causes and consequences of such movement on women who migrate, women left behind by the migration process, and the families and children of women migrants. Statistics on migration, both internal and international, are notoriously poor. Most statistics are collected by governments as part of their administrative management of migration flows, although useful census and survey data do exist in many locations. Data on certain categories of migrants, for example, trafficking victims and others who cross borders without the authorisation of host countries, are particularly difficult to collect. Many migrants without legal status are fearful of being identified in censuses and surveys. For the purpose of the Survey, the experts agreed, a further difficulty is in obtaining accurate, disaggregated demographic breakdowns of the migrant populations, in order to assess the situation of migrants by gender and age. Finally, the data on emigration from source communities and countries often do not match the data on immigration into destination communities and countries.

The participants also emphasized the need for clear definitions of the various types of movement experienced by and/or affecting women. Geographic mobility is generally defined in a broad manner to include all kinds of territorial movements (temporary and permanent) over both short and long distances. Migration involves mobility across well-



defined administrative units, generally involving a change of usual place of residence from the place or country of origin.

Most migration is voluntary, with migrants moving for a variety of purposes, including access to economic opportunities, family reunification and formation, improved living conditions, and improved political and legal rights. Migration can also be forced, however, occurring as a result of conflict, human rights abuses, environmental degradation and other push factors. Decisions on migration can be very complex: while women may be forced to leave their homes because of conflict or human rights abuses, but they may choose a final destination because of economic opportunities, family ties or legal rights. The reverse may be true as well: women may choose voluntarily to leave their home countries seeking economic opportunities but utilize the services of smugglers or traffickers who then hold them in bondage, forcing and exploiting their labour.

The consultative meeting began with a discussion of the nexus between globalisation, migration and development. It then moved into a discussion of the international, regional and national legal frameworks within which women's migration takes place. This was followed by a discussion of the trafficking of women and girls, and the international labour migration of women. Internal mobility then became the subject of discussion. The following discussion focused on refugee and displaced women and girls, including the role of return in post-conflict reconstruction and reconciliation. During the final session, issues of citizenship and civic participation were discussed.

## **B. Globalisation, development and migration**

What is often now called the migration-development nexus incorporates two elements: ways in which women migrants can be a resource for the development of their home communities and ways in which development processes can at first increase but later reduce pressures for migration, particularly irregular movements of people. Structural adjustment and other policies often precipitate large scale movements out of rural areas into towns and cities. As women move from rural to urban areas within their countries, they find out about opportunities for international migration and develop skills that can be used in manufacturing and service jobs in the urban areas of wealthier countries. Over time, as development takes hold and women find adequate economic opportunities at home, they will generally not be forced to move to support themselves and their families. During what is sometimes referred to as the development-induced 'migration hump,' migrant women can contribute to further economic development through their financial resources as well as their skills, entrepreneurial activities, and support for democratization and human rights. Participants agreed upon the need to put migration issues more firmly on development agendas in order to ensure a more nuanced understanding of the connection between the two phenomena, particularly as they affect women. They remarked that the United Nations Millennium Development Goals and the World Bank Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers do not sufficiently take into account migration and its impacts on alleviating female poverty.

### *Effects of development on migration*

Participants agreed that underdevelopment is a cause of migration, but they noted that migrants tend not to be the “poorest of the poor.” Women with few economic resources are unlikely to have the financial means or contacts to migrate across long distances. Even in refugee crises, very poor women and children often find it difficult to cross the border into a neighbouring country and research shows they are highly unlikely to seek asylum in wealthier countries that are distant from their homelands. They are more likely to be internally displaced.

It is generally held that economic development is the best long-term solution to the pressures that cause migration. When women have adequate economic opportunities at home, they may choose voluntarily to relocate but they will generally not feel the need to violate immigration rules or be ensnared by traffickers. In the short to medium term, however, the development process itself can stimulate a high level of mobility, including international migration. Structural adjustment and other policies often precipitate large-scale movements out of rural areas into towns and cities. As women move from rural to urban areas within their own countries, they find out about opportunities for international migration. Internal migration may also empower women in a manner that allows them to migrate internationally, for example, providing them skills that can be used in manufacturing and service jobs in the urban areas of wealthier countries.

Gender inequality can be a powerful factor in precipitating migration, particularly when women have rising economic, political and social expectations that are not met by actual opportunities at home. Globalisation, with its emphasis on communications, trade and investment, has increased knowledge of employment options within and outside of home countries, and it has opened up a range of new work for women outside of their own homes.

A matter of some controversy is just how to stimulate development to reduce emigration pressures. Participants noted that there have been some negative linkages of migration and development; for example, some governments have recommended that the offer of official development assistance be contingent on the willingness of source countries to deter their nationals from migrating and to accept back their nationals who are deported from the aid-giving countries. This approach appears counter-productive in negatively affecting the very countries that may most need aid and encouraging repressive policies to prevent emigration.

Other approaches would focus foreign assistance or development cooperation on emigration areas to reduce the economic need for migration and to facilitate return when possible. For example, the French co-development approach seeks to target Official Development Assistance (ODA) at emigration areas in all of francophone Africa, with government support supplementing the contributions of migrants to their home communities. France also provides assistance to migrants who voluntarily return, in the form of a grant of funds to begin small businesses. A drawback of this approach is to target ODA on what may be already better off communities that can support the migration of their residents and benefit from remittances.

Ideally, economically motivated migration will decrease under a global system of free trade and foreign direct investment (FDI). In economic theory, trade and migration are substitutes--countries that have relatively cheaper labour can export labour-intensive goods or workers. Over time, differences in the prices of goods and the wages of workers should be reduced with freer trade and more international investment in developing countries, reducing emigration pressures.

As with other development inputs, trade and FDI can stimulate female migration in the short to medium term. The process often begins with internal movements. Female internal migration for employment purposes appears to be on the increase. Participants referenced a study of internal migration in Asia that describes the lure of employment for many women who migrate internally:

The export-oriented industrialization driven by foreign direct investment has created massive employment opportunities for young women in the textile and garments, electric appliances and electronics industries. The women, usually unmarried, migrate to find employment in the urban industrial sector, often with the explicit goal of supporting their parents in the village, as dutiful and respectful daughters. Most see their migration as temporary and expect to return to the village to get married; in the meantime, they will save or send home most of their earnings (ESCAP & UNFPA 2002).

The draw of the export-oriented factories is strong in Latin America and Africa as well. As far as families and households are concerned, the migration of women into these jobs, as well as domestic and service labour, may be an important way to reduce the risks that subsistence agriculture pose. Employers, on the other hand, may be drawn to female migrant workers because they are believed to be more compliant and willing to work for lower wages than male workers.

#### *Effects of migration on development*

The meeting included extensive discussion of the role that migrant women play in the development of their home countries. The experts agreed that there are both benefits and costs to the migrants and their countries of origin. These impacts are felt in three principal areas: financial contributions through remittances, human capital returns on the investment in migration, and the role of expatriate communities in helping their home countries. One participant referred to these as the 3Rs: remittances, return and resources of Diasporas. It was suggested that a fourth R may be needed as well: recruitment into targeted labour migration programmes.

Individual remittance transfers continue to be an important source of income for many families in developing countries. As of 2002, by conservative IMF estimates, international remittances to developing countries exceeded \$80 billion per year (IMF 2002). Considering that ODA seldom exceeds \$60 billion per year, migrants are contributing more financial resources to their home countries than do development agencies in wealthy countries (OECD 2002).

Women migrants tend to remit more of their income to their families than do male migrants. This appears to be the case for both international migrants and internal migrants. However, women migrants often earn less than their male counterparts so the total revenue available for remittances may be lower. The remitting behaviour of women is also influenced by their marital status, with married women tending to remit more than single women.

The role of remittances in stimulating development was a topic of lively discussion, with participants agreeing that they have both positive and negative impacts. Some participants emphasized that remittances are not an efficient way to promote development. They argued that money sent back by foreign workers was spent largely on consumer items, pointing out that it seldom was invested directly in productive activities that would contribute to growth of the economies of the developing countries. They also feared that those receiving remittances would become dependent upon them, reducing incentives to invest in their own income-generating activities. Moreover, excessive consumerism, they argued, would lead to inequities, with remittance-dependent households exceeding the standard of living available to those without family members working abroad. Often, government attempts to encourage or require the investments of remittances are heavy-handed and lead to few economic improvements. Importantly, remittances flow primarily when families are split apart for long periods, creating social problems as spouses are separated from each other and children must deal with the loss of one or both parents.

Other participants emphasized the positive aspects of remittances as a resource for development. Because of the sheer scale of remittance transfers, they have become an important reason that countries receiving these funds have positive balance of payments. There are also advantages to the “people-to-people” aspect of remittances. While Official Development Assistance generally goes to governments, which make decisions about their use, remittances go to families, including many women headed households, who use the funds in the manner they believe most conducive to meeting their own needs. Not only does this process help reduce poverty by providing additional income to poor households; it empowers the women who receive the remittances and make decisions about their use. One participant noted that Sri Lankan women migrants in Arab countries often send money home to purchase land, a common practice in other countries as well. Even consumer use of remittances can stimulate economic development, particularly when households spend their remittances locally. The multiplier effects of remittances can be substantial, with each dollar producing additional dollars in economic growth for the businesses that produce and supply the products bought with these resources. A recent World Bank report also found that remittance flows are a more stable source of revenue for many countries than foreign trade, foreign direct investment and foreign assistance (World Bank 2003).

There is a danger, however, that governments and international banking institutions will see remittances as a substitute for foreign assistance. There is some evidence of this trend. One participant recalled that countries recovering from conflict and natural disasters have requested work permits for their nationals living in the United States because they recognize that the increased earnings that legally authorized workers could remit would far

outweigh the likely foreign assistance that would be forthcoming. Although remittances may help alleviate poverty in families with migrants, remittances do not reach everyone in need and may thus increase inequality. Moreover, remittances are a regressive form of foreign assistance; women migrants, in particular, are often the poorest residents of their host countries but they are responsible for a significant portion of remittances. Participants questioned what investments were not being made in their own living conditions, health care, nutrition and education in order to continue to send money home.

The cost of remitting money to home communities has been an area of particular concern. These transfer costs can be exceedingly high. The market appears to be responding to this situation, with greater competition leading to lower transfer costs, but more needs to be done in this area. The Inter American Development Bank's Multilateral Investment Fund supports programmes to enable the transmission of remittances through financial institutions that work with low-income clients, such as credit unions and micro-finance institutions.

Because the cost of migration can be very high, remittances are also used to pay off the debts accumulated by the migrant and her family. Even migrants who use legal channels for migration may have to pay high fees to recruitment firms and governments to obtain permission to exit their countries and work in another country. Migrants who cross borders with the help of smugglers often go into debt bondage, sending most of their earnings to the smugglers before they are able to remit to their families. Improving access to less expensive legal avenues for migration would clearly increase the amount of remittances reaching developing countries or, alternatively, allow the migrant to retain more earnings for her own support.

Some participants noted that investment by Diasporas might be a more focused way than individual remittances to stimulate economic development. Expatriate associations often form to raise and remit funds. These are used for infrastructure development and income generation activities in their home communities. Migrant groups as dissimilar as Malians, Mexicans and Filipinos have supported health clinics, built schools, repaired roads, and invested in small business enterprises in their home communities.

These associations also have been forces for democratisation and better governance in their home country. For example, Mexican political candidates have responded by campaigning extensively in US communities. The new political leadership in a number of post-conflict countries urged their citizens abroad to provide not only financial resources for rebuilding the country, but also technical expertise as they established new democratic institutions.

This is not to say that the experience of the Diaspora is always positive in stimulating respect for democratic values. Some returning migrants appear particularly reluctant to expose women and girls to western values if it means undermining cultural traditions, observing vehemently that they would never allow their wives or daughters to migrate with them to Europe or North America. In some cases, returning migrants appear

to have become more socially and religiously conservative as a result of their own migration experience.

Participants agreed that the migration of highly skilled individuals, including highly educated women, remains a problem as well as an opportunity for many countries. When the emigration of professionals reaches a critical mass, for example 30 percent of those with graduate degrees, the negative impacts on particular sectors such as health care and education, can be massive.

The impacts are not all negative, however. The prospect of employment in other countries can also stimulate interest in higher education. Because only some graduates leave, a country may benefit from an increase in educated persons even if emigration of skilled persons continues. One participant reported the growth in interest among both women and men in nursing schools in the Philippines, stimulated by the heightened demand for their skills within Southeast Asia in such places as Singapore as well as in Europe and North America. This has an interesting gender aspect: What had been considered to be “female work” is now attractive to men as well because of the high return on the educational investment due to migration. Whether the increase in nursing professionals will translate into better health care in the Philippines is a more difficult issue to assess. Nurses and other medical professionals who remain in the Philippines generally prefer to work in cities, still leaving a gap in the rural areas with the poorest access to health care.

Some migrating professionals return temporarily or permanently to their home countries, bringing new skills derived from their migration experience. Programmes that identify migrants with specific skills needed by their home countries and facilitate return and reintegration contribute to economic development, as does support for return migrants who plan to open small businesses upon reintegration. The skills may be needed for economic development, but they may also be required to help move the source country towards greater democratisation and respect for human rights. For example, migrants who have legal training may be helpful in developing new judicial systems and establishing the rule of law.

Some participants questioned the extent to which origin countries actually benefit from this process. They pointed out that many migrants experience a devaluation of their skills upon migration, and they are not able to use their professions. Often, destination countries have licensing and certification standards that make it difficult for foreign professionals to practice. The migrants may, however, still earn considerably more abroad in lesser skilled occupations than they would if they returned to their home countries. Hence, there is a loss to both countries of origin and destination in the migration of these individuals.

Immigration policies also make circulation of migrants very difficult. Often, migrants lose their residence permits if they leave their destination countries for a considerable period of time. Participants noted the need for changes in policies to enable extended return, particularly to countries recovering from conflict and disasters that had

seen large-scale exodus of trained persons. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) provides opportunities for return through, for example, the Return of Qualified Afghans Programme. DM offers comprehensive assistance packages to qualified and highly qualified Afghans now residing in the European Union who would like to return to their home country to work in the public and private sectors. The programme focuses on the development of critical sectors in Afghanistan including: private businesses that provide goods and services in the domestic market, civil and social services, public infrastructure, and rural development. Women migrants are encouraged to participate in the programme, and are eligible for additional financial support. The Migration for Development in Africa (MIDA) programme provides a wider range of activities through which migrants can contribute to the development of their home countries, including virtual return (using information technology to transfer skills), investment, short or sequenced visits and permanent relocation.

### **C. International law and women migrants**

The rights of migrants have been specifically or generally enumerated in various international instruments. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights provides that every person has the right to leave and re-enter his or her own country of origin. Although there is not a right to enter another country, the Universal Declaration provides the right to seek and enjoy asylum. The 1951 UN Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees obligates States to refrain from refouling (returning) persons to where they have a well-founded fear of persecution, with certain security exceptions (see below for further discussion of refugee law).

The Universal Declaration and subsequent conventions also specify that certain rights will be exercised without discrimination or distinction based on race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origins, property, birth or other status. Rights applicable to women migrants (given the bars on discrimination on the basis of sex and national origins) include right to life, liberty and security; not to be held in slavery or servitude; not to be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment; not to be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention or exile; freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each State; right to marry and to found a family; and right to work, free choice of employment and just and favourable conditions of work.

The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) also includes a number of provisions applicable to migrant women. Among other provisions, CEDAW requires the elimination of sex role stereotyping, suppression of traffic in women and exploitation of prostitutes, and end of discrimination in the field of employment and citizenship. Since many migrant women are also affected by racial discrimination, the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (CERD) is also important as an instrument elucidating rights.

During the past decade, there has been a rapid adoption of more specific international, regional and national laws dealing with migration that have provisions applicable to migrant women. In 2003, the International Convention on the Protection of

the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families went into force. At the end of 2003, the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, will enter into force as well. The Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime goes into force in January 2004 (trafficking and smuggling are discussed below).

The International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families builds on the International Labour Organisation's Migration for Employment Convention of 1949 and Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention of 1975. It reaffirms basic human rights norms and embodies them in an instrument applicable to migrant workers and their families. It was recognized that this group of people is often in a vulnerable and unprotected position, especially given the added problems encountered from clandestine movements and trafficking in workers. The underlying goal of the Convention, therefore, is to guarantee minimum rights for migrant workers and members of their families who are in legal or undocumented/irregular situation. Participants noted that its implementation could significantly encourage basic humane treatment of all migrant workers. However, the number of states ratifying the convention is still disappointingly small. No destination country of migrants has yet signed the convention, raising further questions about its effectiveness. The participants noted the importance of monitoring implementation of the Convention, including the activities of the Migrant Rights Committee to be established under the Convention in the Commission on Human Rights.

Regional conventions offer limited rights to migrant workers. The European Convention on the Legal Status of Migrant Workers focuses primarily on migrants in legal work situations. Basic human rights instruments in the Americas and Africa also offer some rights to migrants and refugees (including those not covered under the 1951 Convention). A number of regional mechanisms have been established in the Americas, Asia, Europe and Africa through which countries of origin, transit and destination have regular consultations on the rights of migrant workers, but the outcomes of these discussions have not led to binding law.

Participants urged careful examination of national laws on emigration and immigration to highlight overtly discriminatory provisions. Examples included provisions that bar or make it harder for female migrants to bring their husbands and children to join them, required pregnancy tests for female migrants, bars on emigration of women without their guardian's permission, and age limits on immigration or emigration that apply only to women and girls. Other legal provisions have a disproportionately negative impact on women, even though they appear to be neutral, because women tend to migrate more frequently in certain categories. For example, many countries provide residence permits but do not grant employment authorisation to the spouses of temporary workers. If most migrant workers are men, as is the case in many countries, the employment restrictions fall most heavily on women migrants. Participants cautioned that laws adopted ostensibly to protect women often have counter productive results, limiting their mobility and access to



employment. For example, several States have barred women from accepting employment as domestic workers after incidents of abuse against such workers surfaced. Not only do such bans deprive women of needed income, they often encourage women to leave clandestinely and put them at even greater danger of abuse.

The meeting also considered the impact on women migrants of legislation passed in the aftermath of September 11, 2001 to deter the movement of persons who pose security risks. Increased use of detention, for example, applies to both men and women who enter without authorisation, but there is much greater vulnerability of women to sexual abuse and violence when incarcerated.

Although there is an increasing focus on migrant women's rights and the special needs of migrant women in the international community today, this knowledge has rarely been translated into effective policies. Many migrant women do not have a legal status within their host countries that offers them sufficient protection from abuse. Or, their legal status is so closely tied to their husband's or children's that they are vulnerable to deportation, should their family member leave them or be deported. Women who are victims of domestic violence too often feel they must stay with the abuser or face deportation. Since their status is often linked to their spouses', they fear that they will be forced to depart once their marital tie is broken. Participants mentioned a number of national laws that allow women in such situations to separate from their abusive spouse without risk of losing their immigration status.

Participants also discussed the important role that consular protection can play in ensuring that women migrants do not face abusive situations. Rather than bar emigration when abuses are identified, consular officers can monitor the security of migrant women in potentially vulnerable positions, using their diplomatic positions to engage the host country in interceding in favour of the migrant woman. Often, however, there are too few consular offices and officials to be able to carry out these activities.

#### **D. Trafficking in women and girls**

A particularly troubling trend in recent years has been the emergence of professional smuggling and trafficking operations. Smuggling is defined in international law as: "the procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State Party of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident."<sup>1</sup> Trafficking is defined as: "the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation."<sup>2</sup> Although the distinctions often blur, as discussed below, generally, persons who are smuggled knowingly agree to the terms under which they will be moved across

---

<sup>1</sup>Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime

<sup>2</sup> Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, Supplementing The United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime

borders whereas trafficking victims have been coerced or deceived. The smuggling protocol refers only to movement across international borders, but trafficking can take place within countries as well.

Women and girls are disproportionately affected by trafficking. In one study of nearly 4000 cases reported in public sources, 83 percent of the cases involved women. Children were involved in 48 percent (sometimes overlapping) cases. More than 90 percent of the reported cases involved sexual exploitation, and slightly more than 20 percent involved forced labour. The vast majority of the sexual exploitation cases involved women and children. However, men also experienced sexual exploitation. In 66 percent of the cases involving male victims, some level of sexual exploitation was reported.

Participants recognised the sometimes, overlapping nature of labour migration into exploitative situations, debt bondage to pay off smuggling fees, and trafficking in humans, and they called for a careful use of these terms. They pointed out that women might volunteer to migrate but then find themselves subject to violence, coercion and exploitation after leaving their home communities. Trafficking is defined by such exploitation, coercion and abuse, not the original motivation for migration. For example, migrants may agree to pay smugglers to bring them across borders. If they are unable to pay all of the costs, the smugglers may “sell” the migrants to businesses that cover the fees in exchange for indentured labour. This debt bondage can amount to virtual slavery, particularly for women and children forced into sexually exploitive occupations. Such a person has been trafficked, even if she initially consented to the smuggling arrangement.

Generally, the flow of trafficking is from less developed countries to more developed countries. Since trafficking is an underground criminal enterprise, there are no precise statistics on the extent of the problem. Participants repeatedly emphasised the need for better data collection and research on trafficking, pointing out that much of what is known comes from anecdotal evidence with very few cases.

As mentioned above, the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children and the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, both of which supplement the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, go into force in December 2003 and January 2004, respectively. These instruments require international cooperation in combating smuggling and trafficking and encourages States to pass measures for the prevention of those who have been trafficked. Participants urged monitoring of implementation of policies encouraged or required by the Protocols to identify good practices as well as problems arising for women who have been trafficked.

Participants repeatedly stressed the importance of prevention. They focused on two issues: the need to provide economic opportunities at home and the need for legal channels of migration for women who might otherwise resort to smugglers and traffickers. Based on studies of trafficking survivors, they concluded that education about the dangers of trafficking do not work unless desperate women have alternative ways to earn money for themselves and their families. One participant noted that some of those who facilitate

smuggling and trafficking see themselves as helping women who would otherwise be destitute. The case of a border village that was highly dependent on cross border smuggling for its own survival was raised as an example. Although community members attended information sessions on the abuses that the women would face, the education campaign had little impact on their operations.

Participants also spoke of the need to balance crime prevention/prosecution with protection of the rights of the trafficked women and children. They agreed that the testimony of the trafficking survivors was generally invaluable to the prosecution of cases against traffickers. Trafficking is a difficult crime to investigate and highly dependent on the willingness of victims to cooperate with law enforcement. Such cooperation can be highly dangerous for the women and children, however. They will be too afraid to testify unless there are effective ways to prevent retaliation against them or their families at home.

The meeting outlined a number of options that States should consider with reference to the future safety and security of trafficking survivors. In some cases, the women and children can return safely to their home countries. In other cases, however, they should be allowed to remain in the destination country. They and their families may need to be enrolled into witness protection programmes to ensure that the traffickers do not retaliate against them. Participants pointed to progressive laws in some countries that provide for temporary or permanent legal status to trafficking victims (either in exchange for testimony or as a humanitarian act). In some cases, family members still in the country of origin will be admitted to the country of destination if the traffickers are likely to retaliate against them.

Participants agreed that responses to trafficking must be addressed at three levels. First is the supply of trafficking victims. As stated above, prevention of trafficking requires substitute economic activities for women as well as education about the abuses of trafficking. Second is the demand side, those who ultimately use or benefit from the services provided by trafficked women and girls. These may be the customers of brothels, including peacekeepers in post-conflict situations, the users of child pornography, or the manufacturing companies that rely on labour contracts with sweatshops. Third are the traffickers themselves as well as the corrupt officials who enable them to operate with impunity. Here, the capacity to prosecute and punish traffickers must be enhanced and in a manner that does not backfire. Participants told of situations in which the penalties were so harsh that juries were unwilling to hold the traffickers accountable.

The participants discussed whether legalising prostitution would likely help or hinder efforts to combat trafficking. The general consensus was that it would not help. In most countries where prostitution is legal or decriminalized, only citizens and permanent residents are covered. Where there is insufficient supply of domestic labour for prostitution, or the costs of native prostitutes are too high, there is still a demand for foreign workers. Since States are unlikely to issue work permits for foreign prostitutes, traffickers will still have a market for the services of their victims. It may be easier to identify trafficking victims, however, when prostitution is not as stigmatised as it often is where it is illegal.

Identification of trafficking victims was a final area of discussion. Participants urged a multi-sectoral approach, not relying solely on law enforcement. When trafficking victims come to the attention of authorities through raids on brothels and other places of employment, the victims are often afraid to reveal their situation. They may fear retaliation by the traffickers, who often have paid police for their cooperation, or they may fear that they will be imprisoned or deported. Participants spoke of the need to involve social service agencies, hospitals and clinics, schools, ethnic associations and other parts of civil society in the identification of women and children who have been trafficked.

#### **E. Labour migration**

Labour migration occurs as individuals seek improved economic opportunities away from their home communities. Migrants may move through legal, registered channels or they may move without authorization by government authorities. Migration can be temporary (individuals move for a short period and then return to their home communities), circular (individuals move back and forth between home and work communities), or permanent (individuals relocate themselves and, possibly, their families). Labour migrants may be admitted specifically to work, or they may be admitted as family members or refugees and then enter the labour force. Migration is a dynamic process so some individuals move from being one type of migrant to another. For example, workers may intend initially to remain only temporarily or to circulate but then become permanent residents of another location.

Several distinct categories of women migrate for work purposes, differentiated by their skills, the permanence of their residence in the host country and their legal status. At the lower end of the skills spectrum, women migrants pick fruits and vegetables, manufacture garments and other items, process meat and poultry, work as nursing home and hospital aides, clean restaurants and hotels, work in the entertainment industry and provide a myriad of other services. Overseas domestic service is a common occupation for migrant women. Women migrants from a wide range of countries provide domestic services in a wide range of receiving countries in almost all parts of the globe. They may migrate through official contract labour programmes that match workers and employers, or they may obtain such employment after migrating, often through informal networks.

At the higher end of the skill spectrum, women migrants engage in equally diverse activities. They fill jobs requiring specialized skills, run multinational corporations, teach in universities, supply research and development expertise to industry and academia, and design, build and programme computers, to name only a few activities. Sizeable numbers of migrant women are in the health professions, particularly nursing and physical therapy. Again, they can be found undertaking such assignments throughout the world.

In most countries, international migrants are admitted as temporary workers and they are granted work authorization for specified periods. They have no right to remain in the destination country beyond the period of authorized employment. This is particularly true in the Persian Gulf states and East and Southeast Asia. In some cases, particularly in Europe, if a permit is renewed several times, the international migrant is allowed to remain

indefinitely. The traditional immigration countries, the U.S., Canada and Australia, also have mechanisms for direct admission of foreign workers for permanent settlement.

While many women migrate through legal work programmes, female unauthorised workers can be found in almost as diverse a range of jobs and industries as authorised workers—domestic work, caregivers, agricultural and food processing jobs, light manufacturing, and service jobs being the most common types of employment.

Family reunion is often seen to be a consequence of labour migration. For example, in the years after guest worker programmes ended in Europe, most officially sanctioned international migration consisted of family reunion as former guest workers brought their relatives to join them. Family reunion is also a cause of still further migration. Many would-be labour migrants learn of employment prospects through their family members in other countries and then seek authorized or, in some cases, unauthorized entry to take the jobs. Moreover, once family members obtain residence status in a new country, they are often able to bring in additional relatives through family reunification programmes. This process is called chain migration. Although few countries permit legal immigration of extended family members, some migration systems do authorize admission of parents and adult siblings of already resident immigrants. To take one scenario, an international migrant with long-term residence sponsors his new spouse for admission; they then sponsor each of their parents, who in turn, sponsor their other children who enter with their spouses, who in turn sponsor their parents, and the chain continues.

Family reunification is not universal, however. Some countries do not permit temporary workers to bring their spouses and children to join them. Others have laws that restrict family reunification to highly skilled migrants but bar migrants in lesser skilled occupations from bringing their families with them. In some cases, policies are clearly discriminatory against women migrants. In contrast to male migrants, they may have to put up a larger bond or show a higher income to bring in their spouses or the admission of husbands may be prohibited regardless of income level.

Family reunification and formation programmes can invite various abuses unless managed well. If marriage to a citizen or permanent resident is the only or principal route to admission, marriage fraud may result. Companies recruiting mail-order brides tend to be highly successful in countries with poor economies and few economic opportunities for women. While many companies have a legitimate interest in matching spouses, some of these businesses use the lure of immigration as a pretext for trafficking the women into prostitution. To combat the potential for fraud, the United States, for example, offers conditional status to the immigrating spouse in recent marriages and reviews the cases after two years to make sure that the marriage is valid before granting permanent status. The United States also provides vehicles by which women and children who are victims of domestic abuse may become permanent residents without the permission of or remaining with the abusive husband/father.

Many migrant women work in the private sphere. They continue to perform what are culturally appropriate activities, such as child rearing, elder care, cleaning, and sewing.

They may perform these activities in their own home (e.g., piece work sewing or, in recent years, computer programming) or in other peoples' homes (e.g., child care or elder care). Others are employed outside of the home in family businesses within ethnic enclaves. They may not be paid a salary for such work, but they are nevertheless contributing to the economic viability of the family enterprise. Working in these situations has advantages, particularly for women migrants who do not speak the language of the host country. It also presents opportunities for abuse, however, because there is little if any regulation of the working conditions.

Participants emphasized the need for migrant women to be informed of their rights and the obligations of their sponsors, regardless of whether they enter as family members or through labour channels. Some experts also called for better training for women in countries of origin so they will qualify for higher paid positions in countries of destination. Access to training in the host country's language is particularly important for the economic success of women and their ability to access jobs in the formal economy. In turn, employment in the formal economy is likely to help them avoid exploitation at the workplace.

For women who migrate to countries with vastly different cultural or legal norms about the role of women, adjustment can be a difficult process. Barriers to successful adjustment include those within the host society as well as individual or personal ones. Among the former are racial intolerance and sexual and cultural discrimination aimed against foreign women. Many migrants are of a different race from the majority of the population of their new country. As women, they may face the dual problem of racism and sexism in seeking employment, training or otherwise participating in the activities of the new country.

A further societal factor in adjustment is legal status. The migrant's legal status is an important factor influencing the ease with which she will be able to adjust. Immigrants who have been admitted legally for permanent residence generally enjoy all the rights of other residents. Those who move within regions as temporary contract labourers often have more restrictive rights. They may be required to leave if they complain about wages or working conditions or otherwise offend the host countries. Those who enter without authorisation who are ineligible for any legal status are in a still more precarious state, unable to work legally or to access services.

Just as migration can affect gender roles, changing gender roles can influence immigration policies. The growing participation of native-born women in the labour force has helped precipitate programmes for admission of foreign workers to undertake childcare, elder care, housekeeping and other services. For example, the United States and Canada have explicit programmes for admission of "au pairs" and "live-in caregivers," respectively, who provide such services. Lagging behind but also under consideration are programmes that give work permits to the spouses of executives, managers and professionals, in recognition that many of these highly sought migrants will not move if their spouses are unlikely to carry on their own professions.

An area of considerable discussion at the consultation related to the demographic gap emerging between the wealthy countries with declining fertility and poorer countries with continued population growth. As the populations in the wealthier countries age, there will be an increased demand for health services and caregivers. Since women are disproportionately found in nursing and caregiver services, participants posited a likely increasing demand for female migrant labour into these traditionally female occupations. There was some question about how this demand will be met. Some participants thought that destination countries are likely to implement new temporary work programmes, but consideration was given to the difficulty in keeping such programmes temporary. Since there is likely to be a long-term demand for these services and a declining population to provide them, some participants argued, there is also likely to be pressure to offer permanent residence to the health professionals and caregivers. Others thought that women entering through family reunification channels, who will often already be eligible for permanent residence, would fill the demand, but one participant pointed out that many countries are shifting towards admission of high skilled migrants and their wives were unlikely to be interested in becoming domestic workers. Participants were reminded that if there is sufficient demand for a particular job and the pay increased accordingly, men might begin to train for these positions, as has been the case in the Philippines. Participants were also reminded that unauthorised migration has been a consistent channel through which women entered caregiver positions and this mode of migration was likely to continue and perhaps grow in the absence of other alternatives.

#### **F. When men migrate versus when women migrate**

The consultative meeting assessed the impacts arising from the migration of men versus the migration of women. Asian migration was used as a case study since it has shifted from a primarily male dominated pattern of movements to one in which women dominate in several counties, including the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Indonesia. Male migration tends to be into the formal economy and public sphere, with men taking jobs in manufacturing, construction and plantation agriculture. Women tend to take jobs in the private sphere, with domestic work and entertainment jobs commonly held occupations. These jobs follow well-recognised gender patterns in terms of acceptable economic activities.

When men migrate in Asia, leaving their families behind, there appears to be evidence that the women headed households adjust rapidly to the situation. Remittances are useful in providing economic support. Women continue their usual domestic activities, but they also take on new roles in the absence of their spouses. Men retain their role as breadwinner, albeit at a distance. There is little information, however, on the reintegration process when men return, but one participant speculated that tensions are likely to arise as women and children readjust to the presence of men.

By contrast, female migration requires more profound changes in family relationships. Men do not necessarily take up new domestic roles although some become full time caregivers. They often continue to work outside of the home. Often, grandmothers, older daughters or other family members assume responsibility for childcare and other household activities. The impact on the migrating mother is hard to quantify, but

it is likely to involve emotional and social costs. Particularly if the migrant woman is employed to take care of the children of other families, she might find it difficult to accept that someone else is taking care of her children so she can earn money to support the family. Sometimes, the children are left behind because the working conditions for the women preclude them from having accompanying family members or they have no access to childcare. At other times, the children are left with grandparents or other relatives because the parents prefer a more traditional environment for the children. Some studies show that the children of female migrants do more poorly in school.

The participants underscored the complexity of these impacts. In many respects, migration enhances the autonomy and power of women. When women migrate, they become familiar with new norms regarding women's rights and opportunities. If they take outside employment, they may have access to financial resources that had never before compensated their labour. Even if their pay is pooled with other family members, this new wage-earning capacity often gives women greater ability to direct household priorities. Women who are left at home as their husbands migrate also experience changes in their role. The stay-at-home spouses may now have greater household and economic responsibilities. Should their husbands not return home, or stop sending remittances, the women may have to assume even greater responsibility for themselves and their children.

Even when the entire family migrates, such mobility can lead to gender and inter-generational tensions. This is particularly the case when children adapt more quickly than their parents to a new language and social system. Seeing their children adopt unfamiliar practices may prompt some immigrant women to recommit themselves and their families to more traditional, often patriarchal mores.

## **G. Internal mobility and migration**

Internal mobility and migration patterns are as gendered as international migration patterns and forms. In Africa, for example, urban areas have long been considered the domain of men and rural areas of women. Colonial laws often saw men as temporary migrants to cities and did not allow them to bring their spouses. Nor did they have accommodations for their families. When women began to move to cities, either as family members or on their own, they often faced discrimination and were accused of coming for prostitution. As with their international counterparts, migrant women who move permanently to cities often work in the private sphere. There is also rural to rural migration, particularly in plantation agriculture. Permanent relocation is not always a part of mobility patterns for women. Women traders and vendors are common in Africa. They maintain a principal residence but might travel long distances to sell their wares. In some cases, the women bring their children with them; at other times, they leave the children with caregivers in their home villages.

Internal migration can have profound effects on women who move. Vulnerability to exploitation is a key concern, particularly when women migrate into risky, low paid and dangerous jobs. Internal trafficking of women and girls for sexual and other exploitation is a growing problem. In addition, migration to join a husband's extended family may reinforce traditional marital roles and limit a woman's access to support systems available



to her before her move. Migrant women often reside in slums and informal settlements with poor living conditions, no electricity or sanitation systems, and little safety, making them highly vulnerable to abuse.

Other changes may enhance the situation of migrating women, who may find greater independence upon moving, particularly to urban areas. They may find themselves living in nuclear rather than extended family households, providing important economic inputs to their families' income, and making key economic decisions about themselves and their families, although in some studies, men retained full decision making authority even when women earned money. Less studied is whether migrating women have access to education, health care services and other programmes that may be available in urban areas but would have been out of the reach of women in rural communities.

Studies have shown that rural to urban migrant women experience a decrease in total fertility upon migration, lower than non-migrant rural women and approaching already resident urban women. Three theories seek to explain the change in fertility: migrants adapt themselves to the norms in their new location; those with lower fertility may self-select for migration, and the act of migration may interrupt normal child bearing because of delays in marriage or separation of spouses.

Internal migration also affects women left behind by migrating spouses. Again, both positive and negative impacts may be experienced. Remittances may be an important source of support for the families of internal migrants, as it is for international ones. In the absence of remittances, however, families may find themselves in greater poverty without the principal wage earner. Migration of men leads to an increase in women headed households, but the female spouse might not have been able to buy and sell property or enter into contracts while her husband is absent.

Internal migration may be a step towards international migration for migrants and their families. In some cases, the phenomenon is voluntary. For example, young women employed in factories in their home countries learn skills that can be transferred to better paying jobs in developed countries. In other cases, it may be because of lost economic opportunities in the home country. Women may be laid off jobs in favour of younger, even lower paid workers engaged in more recent rural to urban migration. Or, their wages may be cut because of the competition. For the unemployed or underemployed worker, international migration is a tempting prospect.

## **H. Refugees and displaced persons**

Refugees have a special status in international law. A refugee is defined by the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees as "a person who, owing to well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country." Refugee status has been applied more broadly, however, to include others persons who are outside their country of origin because of armed conflict, generalized

violence, foreign aggression or other circumstances which have seriously disturbed public order, and who, therefore, require international protection.

Conflicts, violence and human rights abuses also cause internal displacement. An estimated 25-30 million persons are now internally displaced because of political factors. Additional persons are forced to leave their homes because of development projects, such as dams, that destroy their habitat. Others move because of environmental degradation or natural or manmade disasters. Internally displaced persons, as citizens of their own countries, generally must rely on their governments to provide assistance and protection. Unfortunately, governments are often unable (because they do not have access to the internally displaced persons who may be on territory controlled by a resistance force) or unwilling (because they see the internally displaced persons are opponents) to offer such aid and protection. The UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, which are based on existing international human rights and humanitarian law, set out the rights of internally displaced persons and the obligations of States towards them.

By most estimates, 70-75 percent of the world's refugee and displaced population are women and their dependent children. Children account for about half of all refugees, with adult women often outnumbering adult men. This picture varies, however, by countries of origin and refuge. It is particularly true when refugees flee conflict in one developing country and take refuge in another, usually neighbouring country. This distribution does not generally hold for asylum-seekers who seek admission to more developed countries in North America, Europe and Oceania. A higher proportion of male applicants can be found making their way to these more distant places.

The key reason that refugees and internally displaced persons are of interest to the international community is the lack of State protection of their rights. Women are affected by this lack of State protection in a number of ways. They may fear persecution at the hands of the State or by non-State actors that their own governments are unwilling or unable to control. At times, this persecution is directly related to their gender. At other times, the persecution itself is gendered, for example rape, genital female mutilation or domestic violence.

Gender is not included in the international definition of a refugee as a person with a well-founded fear of persecution on the basis of race, religion, nationality, political opinion or membership in a social group. Yet, women asylum-seekers may be fleeing such gender-based persecution as rape, widow burnings, honour killings, domestic violence, forced marriages and female genital mutilation from which their home country governments are unwilling or unable to protect them.

Even though not specified in the definition, one participant emphasised that sex and gender are already integral to the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees because it is based on the principles of equality and non-discrimination. Under this reasoning, gender is a part of the five existing bases for granting refugee status. In fact, States are increasingly granting asylum to women who fear gender-based persecution on the basis of political opinion (particularly, for opposing gender inequality), religion, or

membership in a particular social group. Women asylum seekers still face difficulties, however, because the persecution they fear is often in the private, not public realm. As reported at the consultation, some instruments of persecution are consonant with traditional and historical practices that are deeply discriminatory or even inherently persecutory, but because they lie within the private sphere, including the home in the case of domestic abuse, States of origin and destination too often fail to provide adequate protection from these abuses.

Access to asylum procedures is particularly difficult for many refugee women. They may not have the resources to reach locations in which they can apply for asylum; they are more likely to be illiterate and have little access to information about asylum procedures. Articulating their claim to asylum, particularly when it involves actions that are considered to be cultural norms, may be very difficult for women who have long been victimised by such practices. When rape and sexual violence are the forms of persecution they have endured, trauma may impede their ability to discuss these violations. An increasing number of States are instituting gender and age appropriate procedures for interviewing women claiming asylum, recognising the difficulty of discussing such experiences as rape with male officers, for example.

The protection of refugee and displaced women closer to conflict situations is even more problematic. Civilians are increasingly the targets of attacks in civil conflicts, with rape and sexual violence now a recognized war crime. Rape and sexual assault also occurs during flight at the hands of border guards, government and rebel military units, bandits and others. Women's safety may be no more ensured once in refugee and displaced persons camps. For example, refugee and displaced women have faced serious threat of rape when they pick firewood, often the only source of heating and cooking fuel. Refugee women have been forced to provide sexual favours in exchange for obtaining food rations for themselves and their families. In some cases, only male heads of households receive documentation of their status, leaving their spouses vulnerable to harassment each time they leave their homes.

Such problems often continue when the women return home. The conflict may still be continuing and, even if a peace agreement has been signed, political instability, the continued presence of landmines and the destruction of the economy and infrastructure make conditions dangerous for women and their families. Yet, refugee and displaced women are also an important resource for the development of post-conflict countries. They have often learned skills in refugee camps that are in short supply in their home country. For example, many refugee health services train refugee women as community health and outreach workers and traditional birth attendants.

Participants discussed the increasing attention given during the past decade to the role of refugee and displaced women in conflict and post-conflict situations. Reference was made to the Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security that pressed for consideration of war-affected women and girls, not just as victims but as agents of change in promoting peace and security. UN agencies such as UNHCR, UNDP, DPA and DPKO have also broadened their programmes to look at the role of displaced and returnee

women in reconstruction. Participants called for greater active involvement of returnee and displaced women, going beyond the current consultations with women's groups. They also noted the need to mainstream gender considerations into development programmes in post-conflict situations, but they recognized that there would likely be continued need for targeted programmes for returnee and displaced women and children. Also in post-conflict situations is the need to reintegrate demobilised military, including women and girls who have served as soldiers or are otherwise closely associated with the fighters.

Some refugees are unable to return or to remain in countries of first asylum. They may be candidates for resettlement to a third country. Resettlement in third countries is generally considered to be the least desirable solution for refugees because it moves them far from their own countries and cultures. In many situations, however, resettlement is the best solution for the individuals and groups involved, particularly when needed to provide protection or durable solutions for refugees.

Most of the refugee women and children who are resettled in third countries enter as part of a complete family unit. Among some refugee populations, however, a significant number of women-headed households have been resettled. In response to the difficulties faced by women at risk, UNHCR has identified the need for special "Women at Risk" programmes for the admission of refugee women who face specific protection problems. Some countries have established specific women at risk programmes – for example, Australia, Benin, Burkino Faso, Canada, Chile, New Zealand, and Sweden. Other resettlement countries, such as the United States, grant resettlement to refugee women at risk under the normal processing modalities. UNHCR also encourages special programmes to help the resettled women adjust to their new lives, programmes that address some of the special needs that the women at risk may have.

Most women at risk programmes define eligibility by the absence of protection or support of the woman's family or community. One participant noted that this additional exposure to harm is not required in general resettlement criteria and appears neither in the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees nor in most other priorities for resettlement, such as torture survivors or refugees with medical needs. It was also emphasised that without the women at risk programmes, refugee women and girls have been overlooked in the selection procedures for resettlement. The "Lost Girls" of Sudan was used as an example. Whereas 3700 Lost Boys have been resettled, only 89 girls have been resettled. When they arrived in Kakuma camp in Kenya in 1992, the boys lived in group homes with minimal supervision. They remained intact as a group throughout the next decade. By contrast, the girls went into foster homes and, in some cases, arranged or forced marriages. Aid workers, who assumed the girls would find protectors, did not register them in the same way as they did the boys. When processing for resettlement began, the boys stood out as a special group but the girls who had accompanied them to Kenya have not been identified.

The participants also considered gaps in international institutional arrangements for protection and assistance to refugee and displaced women and girls. Although there is a single UN agency with principal responsibility for refugees (UNHCR), there is not a

similar assignment of lead responsibility for internally displaced persons. As a result, the needs of displaced women and children often fall through the gaps. Similarly, there are clear assignments of responsibility for relief operations and for development programmes, but there is a gap in responsibility for the transition between relief and development. This is particularly the case in post-conflict settings, when the need for reconstruction and reintegration of populations is particularly acute.

## **I. Citizenship and civic participation**

In general, citizenship is confirmed by birth (*jus solis*), by descent (*jus sanguinis*) and/or by naturalization. Most countries permit a combination of these mechanisms to grant citizenship, but some countries rely primarily on birth or on descent, and some make naturalisation very difficult to obtain for most foreign nationals. Although each person is ideally the citizen of one country, international migration creates exceptions to the rule. In one direction, migration produces opportunities for multiple nationalities. For example, an immigrant might naturalise, becoming a citizen of her new country, but she will not necessarily lose the citizenship of her country of birth. If her country of origin provides for citizenship by descent, and her country of residence provides citizenship by birth on its territory, her children might be dual nationals. If the child's father is a citizen of a third country that offers citizenship by descent, the children might have citizenship in three countries. The reverse can happen as well. If the country of the migrant's birth only provides citizenship to those born on its territory, and the country in which she gives birth provides citizenship only to by descent, her children might be stateless unless she is able to naturalise.

In addition to the basic rules of citizenship, some countries have laws that particularly disadvantage women migrants as well as native women who marry foreign men. These rules make it difficult for women to choose their own nationality or restrict the ability of male spouses to obtain the nationality of their new country, even when women spouses of natives are permitted to naturalise. Such provisions violate international human rights law. Article 9 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women specifies that State Parties "shall grant women equal rights with men to acquire, change or retain their nationality. They shall ensure in particular that neither marriage to an alien nor change of nationality by the husband during marriage should automatically change the nationality of the wife, render her stateless or force upon her the nationality of the husband." It also says "State Parties shall grant women equal rights with men with respect to the nationality of their children."

Citizenship laws with gender discriminatory provisions have been changed in some countries. For example, until 1977 a child born abroad only had a claim to Canadian citizenship if the father was Canadian or if the child was born to an unmarried Canadian mother. The Citizenship Act of 1977 allowed children born abroad to a married Canadian mother to apply for Canadian citizenship. South Korea also changed laws that enabled female spouses of Korean nationals to obtain citizenship but restricted the access of male spouses of female nationals when its citizens began marrying foreign men. By contrast, the U.S. Supreme Court upheld significantly more stringent requirements for citizenship for children born outside the United States to an out of wedlock father. The children born out

of wedlock to US citizen fathers cannot obtain citizenship unless paternity is established before the child is 18 years of age and, if the child is still a minor, the father agrees to provide financial support until the child is 18 years of age. There are no time-limitations or strict financial requirements if the mother is the U.S. citizen.

Issuance of birth certificates is a problem faced by many migrants, particularly refugees. When children are born in refugee or displaced persons camps, their children may be registered with camp authorities but not receive an official birth certificate recognised by their country of origin. Upon return to their home countries, establishing their nationality can be a problem.

Participation in the civic life of their home and destination communities is a further issue affecting migrant and refugee women. Some countries permit permanent residence without citizenship (so called denizens) to participate in local elections, particularly for positions that particularly affect them and their families. Even in countries that do not allow immigrants to vote, some localities permit them to vote for school boards and other local officials. Voting in home country elections is a further area effecting migrants. Some countries permit absentee voting by nationals living abroad. Others only permit nationals residing within their territories to vote. In both situations, home country political figures may campaign for votes and contributions among migrant populations living abroad. As women migrate for labour purposes, their civic participation has become a more important component of electoral politics. Some migrant women's associations organise their members to influence the political decisions of both their home and host communities.

#### **IV. RECOMMENDATIONS**

The participants highlighted a number of recommendations to help empower migrant women and reduce their vulnerability to abuse.

##### *General recommendations*

- Policies and programmes should seek to enable migrant and refugee women to participate actively in decisions that affect them and their families, and support migrant women, as well as women left behind, to form organizations.
- Greater efforts should be made to improve the protection of migrant women's rights and their safety and security. In particular, steps should be taken to protect migrant and refugee women from labour abuses, sexual exploitation, trafficking, involuntary prostitution and other situations of exploitation.
- Steps should be taken to disseminate accurate information about migration, particularly to dispel misinformation that leads to xenophobic and racist responses in destination countries that put migrant women at risk of violence and abuse.
- Education programmes that inform migrant women of their rights and responsibilities under international and national laws should be implemented.

These programmes should use a variety of media techniques to reach migrant women in a culturally and linguistically appropriate manner.

- States, international organizations, media and others should examine the ways in which they define and describe the status of migrant women, distinguishing more accurately among labour migrants, trafficking victims, persons who have been smuggled and refugees and displaced persons.

#### *Migration and development*

- New approaches should be developed to promote “stay at home” development that will address gender inequalities and provide women with employment opportunities, education, health care and other services in their home communities. While foreign assistance targeted at emigration communities might be an effective way to reduce pressures for migration, governments should not make their foreign assistance contingent on the willingness of source countries to deter emigration or accept returnees.
- Governments should recognise that migrant women are resources for the development of their home communities and accord them the recognition and support that they deserve for the contributions that they make.
- Migration should be put more firmly onto the development agenda, including linking the migration of women, the United Nations Millennium Development Goals and poverty reduction strategies. In particular, the role that remittances play should be given attention, including both the positive input to reducing poverty as well as the potential risks of increasing inequality.
- Governments, international organizations and financial institutions should take steps to reduce the cost of remittance transfers, by encouraging competition in the remittance transfer market, requiring that transfer companies provide accurate information about fees and exchange rates, and monitoring the security of the transfers.
- Steps should be taken to facilitate temporary and permanent return to their home countries of skilled migrants and refugees, by ensuring that they do not lose their residence permits in their host countries and addressing barriers to return in their home countries.
- Steps should be taken to encourage Diaspora communities to invest in home countries, by identifying investment opportunities, matching funds when appropriate to stimulate greater investment, and addressing corruption and other problems that dissuade investment.

*International and national legal norms*

- States should ratify applicable international legal instruments that help secure the rights of migrant and refugee women. In particular, States, especially source, transit and destination countries, should ratify the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women; the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families; the Convention relating to the Status of Refugees; and the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children and the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, both supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime.
- Implementation of these Conventions and Protocols should be actively monitored to ensure that the contributions and needs of migrant and refugee women are taken into account.
- Clearly discriminatory provisions in laws that undermine the rights of migrant women should be identified and addressed.
- States should develop more effective ways to help migrant women who have been abused than the blunt instrument of barring emigration for domestic work or other purposes. Bars on emigration are a violation of the human rights of women and do not address the root causes. They reflect patriarchal assumptions about the capacity of women to protect themselves, and may, in fact, place migrant women at greater risk if they have no choice but to use clandestine channels to depart their home countries.
- States should deploy a sufficient number of consular officers in places of high immigration in order to monitor that the rights of migrant women are respected and to exert diplomatic pressure when there is abuse of rights.
- Implementation of national laws designed to enhance national security should be monitored to ensure that they do not adversely affect migrant women.

*Human trafficking*

- National laws should define trafficking victims to include those who enter involuntarily as well as those whose movement is consensual but who subsequently face coercion, violence and exploitation from the traffickers who arranged their movement.
- Policies aimed at preventing trafficking should recognise that women without economic opportunities at home are vulnerable to trafficking. They should also



provide legal and non-harmful mechanisms for migration to women who would otherwise be vulnerable to trafficking. The policies should recognise that education alone will not prevent trafficking if women have no alternatives for their economic survival.

- Policies should balance the interest in crime prevention and prosecution with the interest in protecting the rights of trafficked women and girls. The crime of trafficking is difficult to investigate without the testimony of trafficking victims, but without witness protection victims will be hesitant to come forward.
- States should recognise that because of risks of reprisals, multiple sectors should be involved in the identification of trafficking victims, including but not limited to law enforcement, social service agencies, hospitals and health clinics, schools and ethnic associations.
- Trafficking survivors should have access to legal representation when they appear before immigration and criminal authorities. Trafficking survivors should be offered a stabilisation or reflection period before making decisions about testifying in criminal procedures or voluntarily returning home.
- Trafficking survivors should be given a range of options following release in order to meet the specific situation in which they find themselves, including repatriation to their home country, integration in the destination country, witness protection for themselves, and the ability to bring relatives to join them if their families are likely otherwise to be targeted by the traffickers.
- Efforts to curb trafficking should be focused on the supply of trafficking victims, through programmes to reduce the economic need of the victims; the demand for the services of trafficking victims and aimed at the traffickers themselves.

*Labour and family migration (internal and international)*

- Efforts should be taken to provide information to both women who are labour migrants and those migrating for family reunification and family formation to inform them of their rights and responsibilities in the destination country or community.
- States should take steps to improve the socio-economic status of migrant women to enable them to support themselves and their families in dignity and safety.
- Migrant women should have access to employment, credit, education and skills training as necessary to improved their economic status. Training in the host country language is particularly important in enabling women to make the most of their economic opportunities.

- States should make every effort to recognise the credentials that migrant women professionals bring with them or provide access to training for re-certification.
- Attention should be paid to ensuring that migrant women have access to adequate and safe housing, particularly when their economic situation will otherwise force them to live in slums or in their employers' houses.
- Access of migrant and refugee women to primary and reproductive health care services should be improved, including programmes to address gender and sexual based violence, trauma resulting from flight and conflict, and sexually transmitted diseases and HIV/AIDS.
- States should adopt policies that allow women who are victims of domestic violence to petition for residence permits on their own, in order to better protect them from abusive spouses.
- Women should be assisted through legal labour migration channels and the status of unauthorized workers adjusted as quickly as possible.

*Refugee and displaced women*

- Renewed efforts should be made to implement fully the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) Guidelines on the Protection of Refugee Women, the UNHCR Sexual and Gender-Based Violence against Refugees, Returnees and Internally Displaced Persons: Guidelines for Prevention and Response, the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, and other policies and guidelines to empower refugee and displaced women and protect their rights and physical safety and security.
- States should adopt policies that recognise gender-based persecution at the hands of non-state actors as grounds for refugee status under the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees when the applicant's country of origin is unwilling or unable to protect them from violence and abuse.
- Women should have the right to apply for asylum apart from their husbands or other male members of their families, with separate interviews to determine their eligibility for refugee status. States should adopt gender sensitive policies in interviewing women asylum applicants, including providing access to women interviewers and translators.
- Women at risk programmes for resettlement should not be restricted to women without the protection or support of their families.
- Special attention should be given to the role of refugee and displaced women in the reconstruction and development of post-conflict societies to ensure their full

participation in decisions on return and their contribution to the future of their home communities and countries.

*Research and data collection*

- The collection of data on internal and international migration should be improved, with particular attention to collecting sex and age-disaggregated statistics.
- Research should be undertaken to expand the understanding of the causes of female migration and mobility, the impact of migration and mobility on women, and the impact of female migration and mobility on source and destination countries.

## **REFERENCES**

Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) and the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) “Migration, Urbanization and Poverty: Urbanization and Internal Migration.” Bangkok: Sept. 19, 2002.

International Labour Organization. International Labour Migration Data Base. Geneva: International Labour Organization, 1999

International Monetary Fund. Balance of Payments Statistics Yearbook, 2002. Washington: IMF, 2002.

United Nations Population Division. International Migration Report 2002, New York: United Nations, 2002

Hania Zlotnik, “The Global Dimensions of Female Migration” in the Migration Information Source, March 1, 2003. Internet on-line  
Available from <http://www.migrationinformation.org/Feature/display.cfm?ID=109>

## ANNEX I

### LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

#### Experts

Dr. Maruja Milagros B. Asis  
Director  
Research and Publications  
Scalabrini Migration Centre  
4, 13<sup>th</sup> Street, New Manila  
Quezon City 1112  
Philippines  
Tel: (632) 724 3512  
Fax: (632) 721 4296  
E-mail: marla@smc.org.ph

Dr. Monica Boyd  
Canada Research Chair & Professor of  
Sociology  
University of Toronto  
725 Spadina Ave.  
Toronto, ON M5S 2J4  
Canada  
Tel: 416-946-5906  
Fax: 416-978-3963  
E-mail: monica.boyd@utoronto.ca

Ms. Ramina Johal  
Senior Coordinator  
Participation and Protection Project  
Women's Commission for Refugee  
Women and Children  
122 East 42nd Street  
New York, NY 10168-1289  
USA  
Tel: (212) 551-3029  
Fax: (212) 551-3180  
E-mail: ramina@womenscommission.org

Ms. Ratna Kapur  
Director  
Centre for Feminist Legal Research  
Flat No.5  
45, Friend's Colony East  
New Delhi 110065  
India  
Tel: (9111) 26320499/7303,  
(9111) 51628118  
E-mail: kapurr@juris.law.nyu.edu,  
ratna\_kapur@excite.com

Prof. Mona Chemali Khalaf  
Director  
Institute for Women's Studies in the Arab  
World  
Lebanese American University  
Labban Street  
Chouran, Beirut 2801 1102  
Lebanon  
Tel: 961 1 791645  
Fax: 961 1 791645  
E-mail: mkhalaf@lau.edu.lb

Mrs. Barbara Limanowska  
Special Advisor on Trafficking in Human  
Beings  
OSCE/ODIHR, UNICEF, UNHCR  
O1-057  
Anielewicz 35/20  
Warsaw  
Poland  
Tel: 48 22 838 81 95  
E-mail: blimanowska@hotmail.com

Dr. Winnie V. Mitullah  
Senior Research Fellow  
Institute for Development Studies  
University of Nairobi  
Room 511, Gadhi Wing  
Harry Thuku Road  
Nairobi  
Kenya  
Tel: 254-20-337436 or 338741  
Fax: 254-20-571857  
E-mail: wvmitullah@swiftkenya.com

Ms. Kathleen Newland  
Co-Director  
Migration Policy Institute  
1400 16th St. NW, Ste 300  
Washington, DC 20036  
USA  
Tel: (202) 266-1903  
Fax: (202) 266-1900  
E-mail: knewland@migrationpolicy.org

Prof. John Oyaro Oucho  
Professor  
University of Botswana  
Chuma/Notwane Roads  
PrivateBag0022  
Gaborone  
Botswana  
Tel: (267) 3552825  
Fax: (267) 3956591  
E-mail: ouchojo@mopipi.ub.bw

Dr. Abu Bakar Siddique  
Director  
Trade, Migration and Development  
Research Center (TMDRC)  
University of Western Australia  
M 251  
35 Stirling Highway  
Crawley, WA 6009  
Australia  
Tel: (61 8) 9380 2941 (office direct)  
Fax: (61 8) 9380 1016  
E-mail: Abu.Siddique@uwa.edu.au

## **United Nations system**

UN-HABITAT  
Ms. Lucia Kiwala  
Chief  
Gender Mainstreaming Unit  
Urban Secretariat, Room M221  
UN-HABITAT  
UN Complex, Gigiri  
P O Box 30030  
Nairobi  
Kenya  
Tel: +254 2 623025  
Fax: +254 2 623080  
E-mail: Lucia.Kiwala@unhabitat.org

UNOHCHR  
Dr. Jyoti Sanghera  
Adviser on Trafficking  
UN Office of the High Commissioner for  
Human Rights  
Palais Wilson, 52 Rue des Paquis  
CH 1201 - Geneva  
Switzerland  
Tel: +41-22-917 9425  
Fax: +41-22-917-9010  
E-mail: jsanghera@ohchr.org  
jyoti\_sanghera@hotmail.com

UNODC  
Ms. Kristiina Kangaspunta  
Programme Officer  
United Nations Office on Drugs and  
Crime  
P.O.Box 500  
A 1400 Vienna  
Austria  
Tel: 43-1-26060-4355  
Fax: 43-1-260605898  
E-mail: kristiina.kangaspunta@unodc.org

World Maritime University

Dr. Karl Laubstein  
President  
World Maritime University  
P.O. Box 500  
S-201 24 Malmö  
Sweden  
Tel: +46 40 35 63 20  
Fax: +46 40 12 84 42  
E-mail: Eva.Holten@wmu.se  
(Executive Assistant)

Ms. Anna-Kari Bill  
Head of Finance and Administration  
World Maritime University  
P.O. Box 500  
S-201 24 Malmö  
Sweden  
Tel: + 46 40 35 63 26  
Fax: + 46 40 12 84 42  
E-mail: anna-kari.bill@wmu.se

**Inter-Governmental Organizations**

IOM

Dr. Frank Laczko  
Chief  
Division of Research and Publication  
International organization for Migration  
17 Route Des Morillons  
CH-1211 Geneva 19  
Switzerland  
Tel: +41 22 717 9416  
Fax: +41 22 798 6150  
E-mail: flaczko@iom.int

**Consultant**

Dr. Susan Martin  
Director  
Institute for the Study of International  
Migration  
Georgetown University  
3307 M St NW  
Suite 302  
Washington, DC 20002  
USA  
Tel: (1) 202 687 2153  
Fax: (1) 202 687 2541  
E-mail: martinsf@georgetown.edu

**Government of Sweden**

Ms. Charlotte Svensson  
State Secretary  
Ministry for Foreign Affairs  
103 39 Stockholm  
Sweden  
Tel: + 46 405 5478  
E-mail:  
lena.sandberg@foreign.ministry.se

Ms. Åsa Carlander  
Department for Asylum and Migration  
Policy  
Ministry for Foreign Affairs  
103 39 Stockholm  
Sweden  
Tel: + 46 8 405 5082 alt. + 46 708 89 82  
40  
Fax: + 46 8 723 1176  
E-mail:  
asa.carlander@foreign.ministry.se

## **Organizers**

### United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women

Ms. Carolyn Hannan  
Director  
Division for the Advancement of Women  
Department of Economic and Social  
Affairs  
United Nations  
2 UN Plaza, Room 1250  
New York NY 10017  
USA  
Tel: (212) 963 3104  
Fax: (212) 963 3463  
E-mail: hannan@un.org

Ms. Birgitte Alvarez-Rivero  
Social Affairs Officer  
Division for the Advancement of Women  
Department of Economic and Social  
Affairs  
2 UN Plaza, Room DC2-1264  
New York, New York 10017  
USA  
Tel. (212) 963 8400  
Fax (212) 963 3463  
E-mail: Alvarez-RiveroB@un.org

Ms. Boram Kim  
Intern  
Division for the Advancement of Women  
Department of Economic and Social  
Affairs  
2 UN Plaza, Room DC2-1263A  
New York, New York 10017  
USA  
Tel. (917) 367 2131  
Fax (212) 963 3463  
E-mail: intern33@un.org



## ANNEX II

### LIST OF DOCUMENTS

#### A. INFORMATION PAPERS

CM/MMW/2003/INF.1	Aide Memoire
CM/MMW/2003/INF.2	Programme of Work
CM/MMW/2003/INF.3	List of Participants
CM/MMW/2003/INF.4	Information Note to Participants

#### B. WORKING PAPERS

CM/MMW/2003/WP.1	<i>Women and Migration</i> Dr. Susan Martin
------------------	--

#### C. PAPERS BY EXPERTS

CM/MMW/2003/EP.1	<i>When Men and Women Migrate: Comparing Gendered Migration in Asia</i> Dr. M.B. Asis
CM/MMW/2003/EP.2	<i>International Labour Migration of Women -Past, Present and Future Challenges in North America and Europe</i> Dr. Monica Boyd
CM/MMW/2003/EP.3	<i>Key Issues for Refugee, Internally Displaced and Returnee Populations</i> Ms. Ramina Johal
CM/MMW/2003/EP.4	<i>The Legal Regulation of Female Migration: An Overview</i> Ms. Ratna Kapur
CM/MMW/2003/EP.5	<i>Women's International Labour Migration in the Arab World: Historical and Socio-Economic Perspectives</i> Prof. Mona Chemali Khalaf
CM/MMW/2003/EP.6	<i>Anti-trafficking action in Southeastern Europe: lack of effectiveness of law enforcement and migration approaches</i> Mrs. Barbara Limanowska

- CM/MMW/2003/EP.7      *Mobility and Gender: Reflection on Urban Situation In East Africa*  
Dr. Winnie V. Mitullah
- CM/MMW/2003/EP.8      *Seeking Protection: Women in Asylum and Refugee Resettlement Processes*  
Ms. Kathleen Newland
- CM/MMW/2003/EP.9      *Internal Mobility in the Developing World (pending)*  
Prof. John Oyaro Oucho
- CM/MMW/2003/EP.10      *Women in Migration and Development: Review and Analysis*  
Dr. Abu Bakar Siddique

#### D. PRESENTATIONS

*Trafficking in Human Beings in Southeastern Europe*  
Mrs. Barbara Limanowska

*Mobility and Gender: Reflections on the Urban Situation in East Africa*  
Dr. Winnie V. Mitullah

*Internal Mobility in the Developing World*  
Prof. John Oyaro Oucho

*Trends in Trafficking in Persons*  
Ms. Kristiina Kangaspunta (UNODC)

*Gender, Migration and Development*  
Dr. Frank Laczko (IOM)

#### E. CONFERENCE ROOM PAPERS

- CM/MMW/2003/CRP.1      *Mapping the Inhuman Trade*  
Ms. Kristiina Kangaspunta (UNODC)
- CM/MMW/2003/CRP.2      *Trafficking in Women and Girls – Report of the Expert Group Meeting, 18-22 November 2002*  
United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women
- CM/MMW/2003/CRP.3      *The New Borderlanders: Enabling Mobile Women and Girls for Safe Migration and Citizenship Rights*  
Ms. Jyoti Sanghera (UNOHCHR)

### ANNEX III

#### PROGRAMME OF WORK

*(Breaks not reflected)*

##### Tuesday, 2 December 2003

- 10:30 – 12:00 a.m. Registration of Participants
- 12:00 – 1:30 p.m. Break for lunch
- 1:30 – 2:30 a.m. **Opening Session**  
Statement by Ms. Charlotte Svensson, State Secretary,  
Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Government of Sweden
- Statement by Ms. Carolyn Hannan, Director of the Division  
for the Advancement of Women
- Statement by Dr. Karl Laubstein, President of the World  
Maritime University
- Organizational Matters  
Adoption of the Programme of Work
- 2:30 – 3:45 p.m. **Presentation of the Consultant's Paper**  
Dr. Susan Martin, Director of the Institute for the Study of  
International Migration, Georgetown University
- 4:00 – 6:15 p.m. **The Migration – Development Nexus**  
Prof. Abu Siddique, Director of Trade, Migration and  
Development Research Center (TMDRC), University of  
Western Australia
- Dr. Frank Laczko, Chief, Research and Publications  
Programme, International Organization for Migration
- Discussion*
- 7:00 p.m. **Informal Welcome Dinner**, hosted by the Government of  
Sweden

##### Wednesday, 3 December 2003

- 8:30 – 8:45 a.m. **Summary of Day 1**  
Dr. Susan Martin, Director of the Institute for the Study of  
International Migration, Georgetown University

8:45 – 11:00 a.m.                    **International Law and Women Migrants**  
Ms. Ratna Kapur, Director of the Centre for Feminist Legal  
Research, New Delhi

Dr. Jyoti Sanghera, Adviser on Trafficking  
UN Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights

*Discussion*

11:00 – 12:30 p.m.                    **Trafficking in Women and Girls**  
Mrs. Barbara Limanowska, consultant on trafficking and  
human rights

Ms. Kriistina Kangaspunta, Programme Officer  
United Nations Office for Drugs and Crime

*Discussion*

12:30 – 1:30 p.m.                    Break for Lunch

1:30 – 5:00 p.m.                    **International Labour Migration of Women**  
Prof. Mona Chemali Khalaf, Director of the Institute for  
Women's Studies in the Arab World, Lebanese American  
University

Dr. Monica Boyd, Department of Sociology  
University of Toronto

*Discussion*

Thursday, 4 October 2003

8:30 – 8:45 a.m.                    **Summary of Day 2**  
Dr. Susan Martin, Director of the Institute for the Study of  
International Migration, Georgetown University

8:45 – 10:00 a.m.                    **When Men and Women Migrate**  
Dr. M.B. Asis, Director of Research and Publications  
Scalabrini Migration Centre

*Discussion*

10:00 – 12:30 p.m.                    **Internal Mobility**  
Prof. John Oyaro Ouchou, University of Botswana

Dr. Winnie V. Mitullah, Senior Research Fellow  
Institute for Development Studies, University of Nairobi

Ms. Lucia Kiwala, Chief of Gender Mainstreaming Unit  
UN-HABITAT

12:30 – 1:30 p.m.

Break for Lunch

1:30 – 3:45 a.m.

**Refugees and Displaced Persons**

Ms. Kathleen Newland, Co-Director  
Migration Policy Institute

Ms. Ramina Johal, Women’s Commission for Refugee  
Women and Children

*Discussion*

3:45 – 5:00 p.m.

**Closing Session**

Concluding comments by Dr. Susan Martin, Director  
Institute for the Study of International Migration,  
Georgetown University

Follow-up to the Consultative Meeting by Ms. Carolyn  
Hannan, Director of the Division for the Advancement of  
Women

Closing of the Meeting