

Gender, Age and Migration

AN EXTENDED BRIEFING



About this briefing

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Executive summary

In many parts of the world, migration has replaced fertility and mortality as the leading agent of demographic change (Bell et al 2015). It is estimated that one billion of the world's seven billion people are migrants (UNDP 2009). A person's gender, age, religion, race, ethnicity, sexuality and health or disability shape every stage of the migration experience. This briefing focuses on gender and age, offering an insight into who migrates and who doesn't, reasons for migrating, experiences of the migration process and what life is like for different groups of migrants and refugees when, and if, they reach their destinations.

Migration journeys take place within countries, regions and internationally and involve many different people all with their own motivations. Decisions to migrate may be forced, in situations of conflict and disaster, or they may involve different degrees of choice and agency, and combinations of motivation and coercion. They are always, however, made in response to a complex mixture of social, economic and political pressures, incentives and norms (Jolly and Reeves 2005). Characteristics such as gender and age play a strong role in influencing whether particular groups of people migrate, or stay where they are.

Just as there are many different reasons why people migrate, there are also diverse experiences of migration and displacement, influenced by a range of social, economic and political factors. People's gender and age play a key role in their migration experiences, making them more or less likely to experience sexual and gender based violence, or particular types of labour exploitation and human trafficking. Gender and age impact upon access to family reunification processes as well as asylum and citizenship. Social norms also bring an important dynamic to experiences of migration.

Once a migrant or refugee has made their journey and is residing in a new city, region or country, gender and age characteristics continue to influence their experiences and the impacts of their migration. Health and wellbeing, education prospects, employment, access to services – all are affected by migrant status; new inequalities are created, as well as positive opportunities. At the same time, migrants and refugees make their mark upon their new location, whether by filling skills gaps, providing care, generating increased demand for public services, or bringing new and diverse cultural perspectives to communities. At the same time, migration impacts upon countries of origin in a number of ways – through remittances, loss of skills or transference of care work. When each of these is unpacked, dimensions of gender and age can be found.

While reasons for, and experiences of migration have clear gender dimensions, in which other factors such as age, ethnicity, sexuality, economic status, health and disability also play influential roles, approaches and strategies for managing migration are often developed in what is often seen as a 'gender neutral' way; they do not take into account the different experiences and needs of women, men, girls and boys. The effects of such approaches are far from neutral in gender terms however. Women, girls, boys and older people tend to lose out when strategies are based on a male breadwinner model.

Policymakers have yet to bring the challenges and risks faced by migrating women and girls, as well as other groups such as unaccompanied boys, to the forefront of the migration and development agenda. Policies that focus heavily on restricting numbers of migrants risk failures to address fundamental rights and obligations. The contribution of migrants to development in both their countries of origin and destination countries depends on the existence of policies to ensure safe and legal migration and protection of migrants' human rights. While some good practice examples exist, there is a clear need

for more rights based and gender sensitive migration policies, which are also sensitive to other factors such as age, disability, ethnicity, religion and sexuality.

There are a number of obstacles faced by those who wish to create, implement and evaluate gender and age sensitive migration policies that can have real impact in practice. These include restricted resources, negative public opinion around migration, fast moving humanitarian situations and weak institutional capacity for mainstreaming equality issues. Work is needed to fill the gaps between policy and practice, and in the availability and use of disaggregated evidence and data. There is also a need for more accessible and transparent information on the approaches of key global and regional actors, including governments and development agencies.

Opportunities do exist, however, to develop policies more sensitive to gender and age. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development calls on member states to ‘ensure safe, orderly and regular migration with full respect for human rights and for the humane treatment of migrants, regardless of their migration status, and of refugees and internally displaced persons’ (UNDESA 2015b:2). Seven of the new Global Goals for Sustainable Development make specific reference to migration, while several others are indirectly relevant. The 2030 Agenda presents a key opportunity for looking at migration in an intersectional way; recognising the specific experiences, needs and strengths of particular groups of migrants and refugees, and addressing these through inclusive, sensitive and evidence based policymaking. In order to grasp this opportunity, it is essential to mainstream not only migration throughout the Global Goals, but also gender, and other characteristics such as age.

This briefing concludes with some recommendations to help the development and implementation of gender and age sensitive migration policies. These can be found in full in section 6.3. They include:

Regional and national policymaking

- Seek to create safe and legal migration pathways, including gender and age sensitive family reunification, labour migration and asylum systems.
- Impact assess all new policy on migration (and existing policies that have not been assessed in this way) to ensure that the human rights of people of all genders and ages are respected and that relevant international standards are adhered to.

Development assistance

- Develop migration policies alongside development cooperation goals, in order to ensure links between the two that can enable developing countries to benefit from migration.
- Through development assistance, seek to build the capacity of partner countries to approach migration related issues in gender and age sensitive ways. This could include supporting equality impact assessment processes and encouraging the inclusion of national gender machineries in the development of migration policy.

In countries of origin

- Invest in education, employment and income generation opportunities in countries with high levels of out-migration, in order to encourage development and provide alternatives to migration. Develop targeted programmes in this area which empower and value groups such as young women and girls.
- Develop reintegration programmes for returning migrants so that women and young people can transfer any economic and social benefits accrued abroad, access employment opportunities, grants and loans, and reintegrate successfully into communities.

In destination and transit countries

- Ensure that female migrants and refugees have access to all necessary services, such as health (including reproductive health), nutrition, education, legal assistance and access to justice. Ensure that female migrants and refugees have equal access to the labour market and to decent work, formal employment rights and freedom of association.
- Ensure that migrant and refugee children have equal access to education, health and social services, and shelter regardless of residence status.

Humanitarian response

- Develop strategies and practices to make sure that humanitarian agencies' existing policies, guidelines and markers on gender, age and equality are implemented in practice. Create opportunities for mutual learning and sharing of good practice on the implementation of existing policies.

Ways of working

- Promote south-south and south-north cooperation and collaboration on all areas of migration. This could enable, for example, the development of memorandums of understanding on the rights of female migrant workers, agreements to tackle trafficking and smuggling in a rights based way, or improvements to remittance channels used by women.
- Take a participatory approach wherever possible; involve and engage vulnerable groups such as women, girls, boys and older people in planning of policy and practice on migration. Collaborate with equality experts and women's organisations in policy development, implementation and evaluation.

Evidence and data

- Build the capacity of state, regional and local governments, along with organisations working on the ground with migrants and refugees to collect, analyse and use data disaggregated by migratory status, gender and age (and the other characteristics specified in Global Goal 17.18). Ensure that this takes place in transit as well as destination countries, and in internally displaced populations too.
- Regularly evaluate migration policy and practice, measuring gender and age sensitivity, and impacts and outcomes for vulnerable groups. Feed learning from this process into future work.

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1 Introduction

A recent study on demographic transitions around the world found that in many parts of the globe, migration has replaced fertility and mortality as the leading agent of demographic change (Bell et al 2015). It is estimated that one billion of the world's seven billion people are migrants (UNDP 2009). Conflict and climate related disasters have led to displacement and forced migration, triggering humanitarian emergencies such as the crisis currently faced on Europe's borders. At the same time, labour migration and development related movement continue, and the links between migration and development have been increasingly recognised and discussed by policymakers, development practitioners and scholars.

A person's gender, age, religion, ethnicity, sexuality and health or disability shape every stage of the migration experience. This briefing focuses on gender and age, offering an insight into who migrates and who doesn't, reasons for migrating, experiences of the migration process and what life is like for different groups of migrants and refugees when, and if, they reach their destinations.

The briefing begins, in section 2, with an overview of the gender and age dimensions of migration, presenting the most recent figures on international and internal migration. This section also considers the different kinds of migration, and explores what role gender and age play in determining who migrates, how and where. This leads to section 3, which discusses the ways that gender and age impact upon experiences of migration, focusing on sexual and gender based violence, labour exploitation, human trafficking, family reunification, asylum and citizenship, and changing social norms and relations.

Section 4 considers how gender and age influence the impacts and consequences of migration. It looks first at these impacts in destination countries, both for individual migrants and for host communities, before moving to explore the impacts in countries of origin, in terms of remittances, unpaid care and loss of skills.

Section 5 provides an overview of current approaches and strategies for addressing the gender and age dimensions of migration. This covers international frameworks, national and regional policies and strategies, development and humanitarian agencies' approaches, and civil society initiatives and programmes.

In its final section, the briefing highlights some challenges, opportunities and future priorities for gender and age sensitive policymaking on migration. Challenges are discussed first, with a focus on the gaps between policy and practice, and evidence and data gaps. Opportunities follow, with an emphasis on the new Global Goals for Sustainable Development. The briefing ends with a set of recommendations, divided into those around national and regional policymaking, humanitarian response, approaches in countries of origin, approaches in destination and transit countries, ways of working, and evidence and data.

The briefing is broad in scope, considering the gender and age dimensions of a range of different types of migration. Recognising that most migration takes place within and between developing countries and emerging economies, but that the European Union is currently experiencing greatly increased arrivals of refugees and migrants, the briefing looks at both south-south and south-north movement. Recognising that while migrants and migration can be categorised into different types (such as regular and irregular, skilled and unskilled, economic and humanitarian), the boundaries between these categories are often blurred, the briefing avoids placing different groups of migrants into strict categories. Instead it considers the ways that gender and age can impact upon

migration experiences for people in varying circumstances; some more vulnerable than others, but all affected in some way by these characteristics. Case study examples are used wherever possible; they derive from studies conducted in both the global south and north, and the selection and balance of these is dependent on availability of published information. The briefing's focus is, in general, on vulnerability and efforts needed to tackle discrimination and inequalities experienced by particular groups of migrants and refugees. This is not to discount, however, the many skills, strengths and opportunities to contribute that these groups possess and take with them on migration journeys.

2 Migration, gender and age: an overview

The links between migration, gender and age are manifested in many ways. The section below highlights some of these. It looks at the demographics – who migrates, to where and how. It sets out some different types of migration and asks what gender and age dimensions these have. It discusses how gender and age characteristics influence those who migrate, and those who stay behind. Finally it considers some examples of migration experiences that have specific gender or age aspects.

2.1 Who migrates?

Migration journeys take place within countries, regions and internationally and involve many different people all with their own motivations. Below some headline figures are presented, split into the categories of international and internal migration.

2.1.1 International migration

In 2015, the number of international migrants – people living in a country other than where they were born – was 244 million. This number has risen by 41 percent in the last 15 years (UNDESA 2015a). During this period, Asia gained the highest number of international migrants (26 million), with Europe next (20 million). International migration tends to take place between countries within the same regions and with the same level of development. Around 40 percent of international migrants in 2008 moved to a neighbouring country (UNDP 2009), and in 2015 the majority of international migrants in Africa, Asia, Latin America and Europe came from another country in the same area (UNDESA 2015a). Half of the top 10 refugee hosting countries are located in sub-Saharan Africa, with four of them being least developed countries (UNHCR 2015c).

Globally, women make up just under half of international migrants. In 2015, 52 percent of international migrants in Europe and Northern America were women. In Asia and Africa this number was lower; 42 and 46 per cent respectively. In Asia the number of male international migrants grew by 62 percent between 2000 and 2015; a rise attributed to demand for migrant workers in Western Asia's oil producing countries. In Europe and Northern America the higher number of female international migrants is attributed to increasing numbers of older migrants in the population, with women tending to live longer than men (UNDESA 2015a).

In 2015, the average age of international migrants was 39 years. Most international migrants are of working age – between 20 and 64 years old. Globally, the number under 20 years was 37 million (15 percent) in 2015. In Africa, 34 per cent of international migrants are under 20, compared to only 9 percent in Europe. There is considerable variation on the age and gender of migrants across global regions. For example, in the south, migrant men outnumber women in all age groups. In the north, however, women outnumber men in all groups above 29 years old (UNDESA 2013a).

2.1.2 Internal migration

The vast majority of human mobility doesn't involve the crossing of country borders. In fact some studies suggest that the number of people who migrate internally is six times greater than those who move internationally, and that there are around 740 million internal migrants worldwide (UNDP 2009). In India, internal migrants make up around

30 percent of the population, and in China there are more than 220 million internal migrants (IOM 2015d). The most common form of internal migration is rural to urban. In some areas such as rural India, however, rural to rural migration – often moving fairly short distances and for temporary periods – predominates. Robust data on the demographic characteristics of internal migrants is difficult to find; some surveys suggest that internal migrants are usually between 16 and 40 years old, and have varying degrees of income, skills and education (IOM 2015d), while others indicate that globally, internal migrants tend to be from younger age groups and with higher levels of education (Esipova et al 2013).

At the end of 2014, 38 million people were displaced within their own countries due to conflict and violence. 11 million of these were newly displaced in 2014; a 15 percent increase from 2013. Five countries accounted for 60 per cent of this new displacement; Iraq, South Sudan, Syria, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Nigeria. These five countries all feature in the ten countries housing the most internally displaced people, along with Colombia, Pakistan, Somalia, Sudan and Turkey (IDMC 2015, Bilak et al 2015).

During the same period, 19.3 million people worldwide were internally displaced as a result of geophysical and climate and weather related disasters. Since 2008, an average of 26.4 million people have been displaced by such disasters each year. In 2014, 87 percent of people internally displaced for these reasons were in Asia, where 16.7 million people were forced from their homes. It is estimated that by 2050 there will be around 200 million ‘climate refugees’ (Stern 2006). In 2014, internal displacement in India, Pakistan, the Philippines, Sudan and South Sudan was fuelled by both conflict and natural hazards (IDMC 2015, Yonetani 2015).

Data disaggregated by gender and age is not fully available, and in some cases under 18s are not included in records, but indications are that there are slightly more women than men who are internally displaced (Bilak et al 2015). When women and under 18s are grouped together, it is estimated that they make up around 70 per cent of the world’s internally displaced population (IDMC 2014).

Focus: The crisis in Europe

The current refugee crisis in Europe brings a new perspective to the statistics featured above. Unprecedented numbers of asylum seekers and refugees arrived in Europe in 2015, as close to one million crossed into Europe (OECD 2015a). Around 800,000 of these came across the Aegean Sea from Turkey to Greece, and at least 3,600 were reported as either dead or lost in their efforts to reach Europe’s shores (UNHCR 2015a). Crossings by sea reached a peak in October 2015, when over 221,000 people arrived in Greece. The UNHCR reports that 84 percent of these arrivals come from the world’s top ten refugee producing countries. During the same 12 months, the number of people crossing from North Africa into Italy dropped slightly, from 170,000 in 2014 to around 150,000 in 2015 (UNHCR 2015a).

The five EU member states receiving the most asylum applications are Germany, Hungary, Sweden, Italy and Austria. Together these states account for over 75 per cent of all first time asylum applicants in the EU (Eurostat 2015a). While Europe has legal and institutional processes in place for migrants, refugees and asylum seekers, these have not ensured a fair burden sharing between countries, and have not prevented people from using smuggling routes (OECD 2015a).

In recent months there have been shifts in the gender and age characteristics of migrants and refugees entering Europe. While in June 2015, 73 per cent those entering Europe were adult men, humanitarian agencies note that in recent months,

around 60 per cent of those crossing the Greek border to Gevgelija in Macedonia, as part of their onward journey to northern Europe, are either women or children (UNICEF 2016). Women and girls tend to travel in extended family or kinship groups, ranging in size from a handful to several dozen people comprised of family members as well as neighbours or friends (Wolfensohn 2016). Children make up 36 per cent of those crossing by sea from Turkey to Greece (UNICE 2016) and accounted for at least 30 percent of recorded deaths in the Aegean sea in 2015 (UNICEF 2015a).

In 2015, 1,001,085 first time asylum applications were registered in the EU. Of these, 734,285 were men or boys. Over half of the men were aged 18-34 years. The majority of women also fell into this age category (Eurostat 2015b).

Between January and September 2015, 214,355 children applied for asylum in the EU, already surpassing the 2014 total figure of 160,000, and representing 27 per cent of all asylum claims in 2015. The most common countries of origin of these children were Syria, Afghanistan, Kosovo, Albania, Iraq and Serbia. Due to data gaps, it is difficult to ascertain the percentage of these children who were unaccompanied, but in 2014, 23,160 asylum applicants in the EU were considered to be unaccompanied and separated children. 19,915 of these were boys (Eurostat 2015c).

Focus: The crisis in Central America

Since 2011, hundreds of thousands of people have fled the Northern triangle of Central America – El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras – to the US or neighbouring countries in an attempt to escape increasing levels of violence, including gender based violence, perpetrated by organised criminal armed groups. Research commissioned by UNHCR highlighted the increasing numbers of women and unaccompanied children making these journeys. In 2014 alone, over 66,000 unaccompanied children arrived in the US from the northern triangle. The number of women entering the US in 2014 from the same area was three times higher than the preceding year. Particular groups of women appear to face heightened persecution – these include women with children, transgender women and police officers.

Source: UNHCR (2015e, 2014a)

2.2 What are the different types of migration?

Migration takes place both within and across national borders. People may move voluntarily for work, education or to reunite with their families, or they may be forced to move as a result of displacement induced by conflict and disasters, or to escape discrimination and persecution. Development related activities can also play a part in migration. Faster development in some areas more than others can lead to inequalities and incentives for people to move. Development can also open up migration opportunities by generating the resources people need for journeys, or by creating new demands for labour in particular areas (Jolly and Reeves 2005).

Some of the concepts most commonly used to describe different types of migration are set out below.

International migration: People moving to a country other than where they were born.

Internal migration: People migrating within the borders of their own country.

Regular migration: People moving who conform to the legal requirements of sending, transit and receiving countries. They may be migrating for the purposes of education, employment or family reunification.

Irregular migration: People moving, for a variety of reasons, outside of the regulatory norms of sending, transit and receiving countries.

Forced migration: The movement of people under circumstances of coercion. This typically involves threats to life and livelihood, whether arising from natural or man-made causes.

Labour migration: People moving to take up employment in another country may be described in a number of ways, including:

- **Skilled migrant:** A migrant worker who, because of their skills or professional experience, is granted preferential treatment regarding admission to a host country.
- **Temporary migrant worker:** Skilled, semi-skilled or untrained workers who remain in the destination country for definite periods as determined in a work contract.
- **Economic migrant:** A loose term to describe a person moving outside their country of origin in order to improve their quality of life.

Circular migration: The fluid movement of people between countries, including temporary or long term movement which may be beneficial to all involved, if occurring voluntarily and linked to the labour needs of countries of origin and destination.

Return migration: The return of migrants to their countries of origin, either on a voluntary basis, for reasons including employment, family or post-conflict changes, or on an involuntary basis, as a result of deportation or the rejection of asylum applications.

Mixed migration: A term used to refer to flow of moving people which might include economic migrants, families of migrants, refugees, asylum seekers, trafficked or smuggled migrants all using the same networks or paths even though they reflect a mixture of motivations.

Rural to urban migration: Those moving from rural to urban areas, either in their own or external countries. This type of migration accounts for the largest form of human mobility, with an estimated three million people moving to cities worldwide each week.

Sources: Global Migration Group 2014; IOM 2011, 2009, 2015a; UNDP 2010

It is important to note that categories of migration are becoming less and less definitive and there are clear overlaps among the terms set out above. One individual may pass through a number of these classifications during their lifespan and may fall into more than one category at any one time (UNDP 2010). In addition, the types of migration chosen by, and available to people, is influenced by characteristics such as gender and age.

2.3 What role do gender and age play in determining who migrates, how and where?

Decisions to migrate may be forced, in situations of conflict and disaster, or they may involve different degrees of choice and agency, and combinations of motivation and coercion. They are always, however, made in response to a complex mixture of social, economic and political pressures, incentives and norms (Jolly and Reeves 2005). Characteristics such as gender and age (along with others such as race, ethnicity, sexuality, class and disability) play a strong role in influencing whether particular groups of people migrate, or stay where they are. For example:

- Men may be expected to support the family economically, so may migrate to try and earn money, leaving their families behind.
- Migration may be seen as a rite of passage for young men. In situations of restricted resources, young men and adolescent boys may be prioritised by their families for migration.
- It may be less acceptable in some contexts for women to move or travel on their own. As a result women may find it more difficult to migrate, and they may travel shorter distances or stay within their countries or regions.
- Rural, isolated and illiterate women may find it much more difficult to obtain the resources and knowledge needed in order to migrate.
- It may be the norm in some contexts for women to move to husbands' families upon marriage.
- Parents may see it as a duty for their daughters to migrate and send money home to their families.

At the same time, people may decide to migrate in order to escape repressive social norms, or to avoid discrimination. For example:

- Women may migrate in order to seek greater economic independence.
- Young men may leave their countries in order to escape conscription.
- Single women, widows and divorcees may migrate to escape social stigma.
- Young women may move in order to avoid pressure to marry or restrictions on their freedom.
- Women may move to cities from urban areas because they are not allowed to inherit or own land in rural areas.
- People with non-normative genders may decide to move to urban areas where there may be more anonymity, fluidity or openness allowed in gender roles.

Adapted from Jolly and Reeves (2005)

2.3.1 Why do men and women migrate, and what types of migration do they take?

Migration patterns are highly gendered. In the past it was often assumed that men usually migrated for employment or education, while women moved for marriage or family reunification. Both women and men migrants were assumed to be young. But increasingly, the picture has become much more diverse, for both women and men (Ghosh 2009).

In the past two decades the greatest increase in female migration has been in flows to highly developed countries (UNDESA 2015a). More women than men still migrate for marriage or family reunification (UNDESA 2015c), and around 45 per cent of all permanent migration to the European Economic Area is family related (OECD 2013). However, a growing proportion of women are moving for reasons of education or employment (UN INSTRAW 2007). More young women than men now migrate for education (UNDESA 2015c) and in several European countries, highly skilled migrant women outnumber highly skilled migrant men (Dumont et al 2007).

Gendered labour markets create differentiated demands for women and men migrant workers. For example, increasing demands for domestic and care workers, driven by ageing populations and increased living standards in some countries, along with a reduction in multi-generational households and a decline in public welfare services, have led to a huge movement of female migration. Women make up 83 per cent of domestic workers worldwide, and a significant proportion of Asia's 21.5 million domestic workers are young women migrants (UN Women 2012). For men migrants, there is great demand for labour in the areas of construction and oil in Western Asian countries. In this region, international migrants make up almost a third of the male population aged 25-44 (UNDESA 2015c). Great regional differences exist in these gendered migrant labour flows. For example, in Sri Lanka, Thailand and the Philippines there is a long history of female labour migration – into export industries, domestic work and the sex trade. In Indonesia, Sri Lanka and the Philippines, 70 per cent of labour emigration permits are allocated to women (UNDESA 2013b). In Bangladesh, however, the majority of women work in the agricultural sector and rural-urban migration is dominated by men (Omelaniuk 2005).

Gender differences also exist when considering climate related migration. As climate change makes certain livelihoods less sustainable, particularly in rural areas where crop production is falling or coastal areas where rising sea levels threaten human security and vulnerability to natural disasters, migration is becoming increasingly common. But research shows that often men and women's coping strategies differ. In rural Namibia for example, when faced with climate related shocks, women are reported to be more flexible in adapting and engaging in a range of informal activities such as basketry, nut processing or rearing of chickens and other small animals. Men, on the other hand, have more of the technical skills required in formal employment so are more likely to migrate to search for work further afield (Angula 2010).

Migration for many, especially those moving within the borders of their own countries, involves moving from a rural to an urban setting. Rural to urban movement was formerly dominated by male migrants, but in recent decades, particularly in the global South, the number of women moving to cities has greatly increased. There are regional variations however; men still outnumber women in sub-Saharan African cities, whereas in central and South America more women live in urban areas than men. In Asia the figures are more complex; urban sex ratios in some urban areas are unbalanced due to son bias, but the migration of Asian women to work in manufacturing in cities helps to readdress the balance (UNDESA 2015c).

Unequal and discriminatory norms can be drivers of female migration. Work using data from the OECD's Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) shows that discriminatory social norms and institutions play a key role in shaping female south-south migration decisions. They do this by setting out what is acceptable or unacceptable female migration behaviour. Women and girls may migrate to escape gender discrimination, but on the other hand, gender discrimination may restrict the migration options available (Ferrant et al 2014).

2.3.2 Why do girls and boys migrate, and what type of migration do they take?

When thinking about the gender and age dimensions of migration, it is important to think not only about women and men, but also girls and boys. Migrant children might travel with their parents or guardians, with other adults or alone. They might migrate in regular or irregular ways. Just as adult migrants can move in and out of the different types of migration set out in section 2.2 above, children can move between categories such as unaccompanied, independent, internally displaced, asylum seeking, trafficked and smuggled. Forced and voluntary migration are even more difficult to establish for children, whose experiences can move along a continuum between the two categories (Thatun and Heissler 2013).

In many countries, migration is seen as a rite of passage for young people. Children may migrate in search of work, education, or simply to mark a transition into adolescence/young adulthood. One example is Ghana where there are established and relatively safe migration paths where children travel regularly with family, friends or relatives. In Tanzania 23 per cent of households have male children and 17 per cent female children who have migrated elsewhere (Kelly 2010). However the degree of choice attributed to young migrants is difficult to ascertain; parents and families, as well as wider communities, all play a part in decision making about who migrates and when (Punch 2007, Thorsen and Hashim 2011).

If opportunities are not available for children to migrate safely, for example in order to be unified with family members in other countries, they may make dangerous journeys, including those arranged by smugglers, during which they are vulnerable to abuse and violence (Crepeau 2013). This is not limited to the children arriving in Europe highlighted in section 2.1; it is a global phenomenon. The types of discrimination and persecution that children face in countries of origin are gendered in nature, and so are opportunities to move or escape. In Afghanistan, a country currently producing large numbers of unaccompanied asylum seeking teenage boys, boys are targeted by the Taliban for conscription (Foreign Policy Journal 2015). Girls also face severe discrimination in different forms, but they are far less likely to make unaccompanied journeys. In East Africa, increasing numbers of unaccompanied Eritrean children – mainly boys, but also some girls – are arriving in refugee camps in Sudan and Ethiopia. Fear of military conscription, lack of education, unemployment/economic burden, desire to join a family member in another country and hope for resettlement are cited as the children's reasons for leaving Eritrea (WRC 2013).

2.3.3 How do gender and age influence who stays behind?

When thinking about the ways that gender and age characteristics impact upon who migrates, where and how, it is also important to consider who is left behind, either in countries of origin or in transit countries. There are clear links between migration and poverty, but it is not always the poorest who migrate. Sometimes migration can lead to

greater poverty for those who remain behind (Omelaniuk 2005). The picture is complex and different across regions and types of migration, and a range of factors come into play when decisions around migration are being made.

Policy and law in sending, transit and receiving countries enable or restrict migration opportunities for particular groups. For example, in 2012 the government of Nepal announced a new ban on women under the age of 30 years from migrating to the Arab States for domestic work. In 2014 the age ban was temporarily expanded, banning women of any age from migrating to any country for low skilled work, before being eased again in 2014, when regular migration channels for women over 24 years wishing to travel to certain countries for domestic work were reopened. Research showed that Nepal's bans didn't prevent women from migrating; rather, it placed women at greater risk and with less control during the irregular migration that they used as an alternative (ILO 2015). In contrast, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Indonesia have more relaxed rules around women's migration; these three countries make up the majority of Asia's female migration flow (Ghosh 2009).

In addition to having to safe and legal migration channels, access to other enabling factors is essential; information, financial assets, social networks and good health are all important resources for a migrant's journey (IOM 2012). But such resources are not available to everyone equally, and those with extra responsibilities can face extra complications. Caring responsibilities, for example, greatly impact upon the types of journeys that people are able to make. Research in Morocco into the experiences of women migrants and refugees with children found that many were immobilised in transit there. But while children were generally seen as an impediment to mobility, they were also regarded by some as a factor that could heighten their chances of migration to Europe (Stock 2012).

In terms of refugee and displaced populations, it appears that those with the least resources and with greater mobility challenges – for example in terms of health and disability or caring responsibilities – are the most likely not to move at all, be internally displaced or to halt in transit countries, and the least likely to travel greater distances. The fact that the majority of the Eritrean refugee population in Sudan and Ethiopia are male indicates that more women and girls are staying behind. The disproportionate number of male unaccompanied asylum seeking children in Europe suggests that many girls remain in countries of conflict and instability.

UNHCR statistics on the demographics of refugee camp populations in the Middle East show a fairly even split of women and men in all age groups, but they also show comparatively few older inhabitants. In the Zaatari refugee camp in Lebanon, for example, only 2.8 per cent of the population is over 60 (UNHCR information sharing portal 2016). Older people are estimated to make up just five per cent of Syrian people displaced outside of Syria (WRC et al 2014). These figures are in contrast with those from refugee camps on Thailand's border with Myanmar. Here over 60s make up around 25 per cent of the population, and children and young people (age 0-17 years) more than half (UNHCR 2008a). Figures are not available on the number of people with disabilities in such camps, but recent research found that 22 per cent of Syrian refugees in Lebanon and Jordan had impairments (WRC et al 2014). It is likely that people with disabilities, and especially women with disabilities, are often among those left behind in countries of origin or transit countries (UNHCR 2011c).

It is clear that gender and age characteristics play an influential role in determining who migrates, how, and to where. Experiences of migration are themselves influenced by age and gender, as the next section shows.

3 How do gender and age impact upon experiences of migration?

Just as there are many different reasons why people migrate, there are also diverse experiences of migration and displacement, influenced by a range of social, economic and political factors. There are several clear areas where gender and age come into play as influential factors in migrants' experiences.

3.1 Sexual and gender based violence

Escaping sexual and gender based violence (SGBV) is a clear influencing factor in the migration of many women and girls (and some men and boys). Migrants fleeing for this reason may have experienced rape, domestic violence, early or forced marriage, female genital mutilation/cutting or sexual harassment. Unfortunately, however, experiences of SGBV can continue during transit and in host/receiving countries, as the examples below show.

Focus: Adolescent refugee girls in Uganda

The Kyaka II refugee settlement in southwestern Uganda houses around 17,000 refugees who fled conflict and violence in Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda and Burundi, as well as, in smaller numbers, Central African Republic, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Somalia, South Sudan and Tanzania. A 2013 study by the Women's Refugee Commission focused on the experiences of adolescent girls in the settlement. It found that girls felt unsafe and feared beatings by peers, teachers, parents, men and boys. Sexual and gender based violence was a common experience, with rape, sexual harassment, assault and early marriage prevalent. Girls reported being vulnerable to sexual assault when travelling to and from school and the market, and when collecting water and firewood. Poverty led many girls into transactional sex, including with teachers and family members.

Source: WRC (2013b)

Research by the Women's Refugee Commission in seven countries has also illustrated the increased vulnerability of women and girls with disabilities in humanitarian and refugee settings. In all seven settings, these women and girls reported experiencing sexual, emotional and physical violence (WRC 2012).

Focus: Women and girls refugees and migrants travelling to the EU

In November 2015, a joint assessment by the UNHCR, UNFPA and the Women's Refugee Commission found that throughout the journey from their country of origin to Greece, women and girl refugees and migrants face grave protection risks, including violence and exploitation such as rape, transactional sex, human and organ trafficking. Particularly vulnerable are women and girls travelling alone who face high risks of sexual violence by smugglers, criminal groups and individuals in countries along the route. On arrival in Greece, the situation for these women and girls remains unsafe; the assessment found that reception sites for refugees and migrants largely fail to meet minimum standards for SGBV risk mitigation, and access to response services for SGBV survivors is limited. A separate study in Serbia and Slovenia by the Women's Refugee Commission came to similar conclusions, noting that women and girls arriving in the two countries are unable

to access fundamental sexual and reproductive health services, so have no access to post-rape and other emergency health kits. They also do not have access to services to address pregnancy and childbirth complications or to prevent HIV transmission.

Women and girls' vulnerability to SGBV begins long before they reach Europe's borders. One particular area of concern is around the treatment of people intercepted and detained in transit countries, often as part of agreements between EU states and third countries to turn back those considered to be attempting to enter Europe illegally. Testimonies from women refugees and migrants held in detention centres in Libya and Morocco reveal harrowing stories of routine sexual violence perpetrated by security and border staff.

Sources: MSF (2015b), UNHCR, UNFPA and WRC (2015), WRC (2016)

3.2 Labour exploitation, forced labour and human trafficking

As discussed in section 2.2, the boundaries between different types of migration are frequently blurred. Migrants may start their journey with one destination or goal in mind – for example, well paid employment – but find themselves in a different situation than expected.

The term human trafficking refers to a situation where a person is moved by others through use of force, deception, coercion, abduction, fraud, abuse of power or a position of vulnerability, or through giving payments or benefits, for the purpose of exploitation. The type of exploitation can take different forms, but can include sexual exploitation, forced labour or removal of organs (UNDOC 2014). Human trafficking can take place within national borders or internationally. Most trafficking flows are interregional, and usually involve the movement of people from poor to more affluent countries. In 2015 Italy saw a 300 percent increase in the number of Nigerian victims of trafficking arriving by sea, with about half of them unaccompanied children (UNICEF 2015a). While the majority of victims are trafficked for reasons of sexual exploitation, other forms of exploitation, including forced labour, are increasingly being detected. Trafficked people are sometimes those who want to migrate but are unable to access formal migration channels. Instead they resort to dangerous alternatives that ultimately put their lives at risk (Orozco et al 2010).

In 2012 the International Labour Organisation (ILO) estimated that globally around 20.9 million people are victims of forced or bonded labour; trapped in work or servitude into which they were coerced or deceived and which they cannot leave. The vast majority of people trafficked for reasons of sexual exploitation are women or girls, and men and boys make up a majority of those trafficked for forced labour. But there are variations in the overall figures. Between 2010 and 2012, 77 per cent of detected trafficking victims for forced labour in South Asia, East Asia and the Pacific were women or girls. By contrast, 69 per cent of victims in Central Asia and Europe were men and boys. In Africa and the Middle East the gender balance of all detected trafficking victims was almost equal, but 62 per cent were children (UNDOC 2014). The sex industry, construction and agriculture sectors are common destinations for those trafficked for forced labour, but private households are also a destination.

One example of migrant experience that can cross categories of migration types – including regular, irregular, forced and return – and has specific gender dimensions is that of domestic migrant workers. There are 52.6 million known domestic workers globally, but this figure rises to up to 200 million if estimates of undocumented /

unregistered workers are included. The majority (83 per cent) of these workers are female (UN Women 2012). Migrant domestic workers can greatly benefit from such employment which can allow them to contribute to the economic wellbeing of their families and home countries (UNHCR 2015d). But they often face serious challenges and find themselves in vulnerable and precarious situations. They may start work only to find that their wages are diverted from them for many months to pay for previously unheard of recruitment or training fees. They may be recruited as part of a sponsorship system which means they cannot leave their job without falling into an irregular immigration status or they may slip into irregularity as a result of complicated immigration procedures. It is estimated that there are at least one million undocumented migrant domestic workers in Europe, and at least 1.2 million in Asia (UNHCR 2015d). In the US, estimates suggest that at least 20 per cent of migrant workers in the care sector are undocumented.

Focus: Women migrant domestic workers in West Asia

In Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates (UAE), Jordan and Lebanon, a sponsorship system for migrant workers exists – the Kafala system. Migrant workers' immigration status is legally bound to an individual employer or sponsor for their contract period. The migrant worker cannot enter the country, transfer employment or leave the country without obtaining written permission from the employer. There is variation between these countries on the categories of migrant workers that the system applies to; in some countries all workers are bound by it, whereas in others there is differentiation according to industry and nationality. Migrant domestic workers are particularly impacted upon by the Kafala system.

Under this system, many migrant workers live with the threat of unpaid wages, arrest, detention and deportation if they complain or leave. Domestic work is characterised by its isolating nature, especially when workers reside in their place of employment and don't have access to any form of collective support. Reform of the Kafala system began in 2009. The most progress in these reforms has been in Bahrain and Kuwait.

In the United Arab Emirates there are at least 146,000 women migrant domestic workers. The majority come from Africa and Asia. In Qatar 132,401 foreign nationals – 84,164 women and 48,237 men – are thought to be employed in the domestic work sector. Around 30,000 of the women are thought to be from the Philippines and another 20,000 from Indonesia. These workers are recruited with promises of good wages and working conditions, but research in Qatar and UAE shows that labour exploitation is common occurrence, with domestic workers experiencing:

- Extreme working hours and lack of rest days, including seven day, 100 hour working weeks.
- Exclusion from labour laws and from joining trade unions.
- Withholding of wages, food and identity documents.
- Restrictions on freedom of movement and communication, including not being able to leave the house or make mobile phone calls.
- Verbal harassment and dehumanising treatment.
- Physical and sexual violence.

Sources: Amnesty International (2014), Human Rights Watch (2014), Migrant Forum in Asia (2012), Orozco et al (2010)

3.3 Access to family reunification

As mentioned in section 2.3, more women than men still migrate for marriage or family reunification purposes. Family reunification schemes tend to be set up using a male breadwinner model in which women can find themselves placed into a gendered form of dependency; assumed to be either economically inactive or employed in lesser skilled occupations, and seen as 'tied movers' following the primary migrant (Kraler 2010). Increasingly, receiving countries have introduced selective policies around family reunification. These can have gendered impacts. For example, where meeting a specified earnings floor is a requirement before an individual can bring his or her spouse to join them, this goal will be more achievable for male earners than female earners, given current global gender pay gaps. In this way, family reunification policies can increase inequalities, traditional gender roles and unequal access to rights (Kraler 2010, Ruffer 2011). In some cases, women have to make a choice between forced dependencies or slipping into irregular immigration statuses (Jolly and Reeves 2005). Without their own immigration identity, women who entered a country as a dependent may in some cases find that their only employment options are in unregulated sectors with poor pay and conditions (Orozco et al 2010).

3.4 Access to asylum and citizenship

For refugee women and girls, there are other gendered challenges adding to their migration experiences. Understanding and coping with the process of asylum application is difficult for most refugees, but for survivors of sexual and gender based violence and torture, this can be an extremely difficult task because the concept of persecution used to determine refugee status has not been interpreted to include gender specific forms of harm (Querton 2012). Similarly, unaccompanied asylum seeking children face specific barriers in getting their claims heard and understood. Their reasons for claiming asylum, including recruitment as child soldiers, trafficking and sexual exploitation, also do not fall into traditionally considered types of persecution (WRC 2009).

An increasing number of destination countries, particularly in the global north, now use age assessment procedures when screening asylum seeking children and young people. These procedures can be contentious; if conducted using interviews and observational techniques, they rely on the expertise of the assessor, especially around different cultural markers of age. If they are conducted using medical tests, there is also a substantial margin for error and inaccuracy (Sampson et al 2015). Without appropriate psychosocial, legal and language support, these women, girls and boys may struggle to prove their claims. Recent research looking at the situation of women and girls in the current European refugee crisis has highlighted the lack of such support (WRC 2016).

In many countries across global regions, immigration detention takes place as part of states' processes of managing migration. Vulnerable groups such as pregnant women and those who have experienced violence, children and young people, people with disabilities and older people are detained for immigration purposes in some countries. In 2013, 92,575 people were detained for immigration related reasons in the EU. 17 EU countries are reported to detain unaccompanied children and 19 detain families with children (Keith and LeVoy 2015). Recent studies have highlighted alarming rates of the use of immigration detention for refugee, asylum seeking and migrant children and young people in several countries including Libya, Egypt and the United States (MSF 2015a, Naik 2015, WRC 2014). The detention of children has been shown to have clearly detrimental psychosocial and developmental impacts and long term consequences (Corlett et al 2012). Interesting work has been done on identifying alternatives to detention; this is discussed below in section 5.4.

3.5 Changing social norms and gender roles and relations

Migration and displacement can bring shifts and challenges around the gendered behaviours, roles and norms that women, girls, men and boys are expected (and often expect themselves) to live up to. For example, the experience of forced migration for men and boys can mean coming to terms with no longer being a provider or protector for their families. For women and girls, labour migration may bring new freedoms and opportunities to escape restrictive gender norms, but for both male and female labour migrants, may also bring greater expectations and pressures to provide for families members left behind.

The examples below illustrate that experiences of migration or displacement can bring about changes in established gender hierarchies and behaviours. They also show how experiences of migration are shaped by such hierarchies.

Focus: Refugee men in Kenya and Tanzania

Two studies looking at refugee men who had fled the Great Lakes region of Africa and resided in Nairobi, Kenya, and male Burundian refugees in a refugee camp in Tanzania, drew out some common themes. For the men in the studies, challenges to dominant norms of masculinity began when they were forced to flee by other men. This was seen by some as a humiliation, as they could not protect their families, and in some cases, had to flee without them. This humiliation was compounded by the experiences as refugees that followed; dependence on humanitarian assistance, unemployment or inability to gain work permits, and the crushing of dreams to acquire educational qualifications and become 'respectable citizens'. Some men who were still with their wives felt that their wives no longer respected them. Other men in the refugee camp felt that 'old men' and 'big men' from humanitarian agencies had monopolised power. Both studies provide interesting insights on the shifts in patriarchal power that can occur in situations of displacement and conflict. This can have consequences for everyone; men, boys, women and girls.

Sources: Jaji (2009); Turner (1999)

Focus: Youth migration in Mali

Internal labour migration in Mali was previously a male specific activity, but now it is common for both young men and women, and adolescent girls and boys. One recent study of a rural population in southeast Mali found that three out of four young men and almost all young women had lived for a time outside of their ethnic area before they were 20. For the young people in this study, migration was reshaping experiences of adolescence. Moving to the city brought, for the first time, regular meals and richer food, access to money and less physical work. Self-esteem was increased and new possibilities opened up. However, experiences and perceptions of migration remained markedly different for males and females. Male migration was regarded as part of family economics, and migration helped young men to strengthen their family status. Female migration was seen as a personal project; an opportunity to gain life skills. While young men were often actively encouraged to migrate, young women's migration was seen as inevitable but not positive. The majority of migrants return to their home area before marriage, but young women who had migrated were marrying later than those who had not.

Source: Hertrich and Lesclingand (2013)

4 How do gender and age influence the impacts and consequences of migration?

Once a migrant or refugee has made their journey and is residing in a new city, region or country, gender and age characteristics continue to influence their experiences and the effects their migration has. The consequences of migration can be considered in terms of impacts on individuals themselves, and on receiving/destination and sending/home communities, cities, countries and regions.

4.1 The gendered and age related impacts of migration in receiving /destination areas

As refugees and migrants adapt to new surroundings – whether in a cities in the same country or many miles away – their lives change in diverse ways. Health and wellbeing, education prospects, employment, access to services – all are affected by migrant status; new inequalities are created, as well as positive opportunities. At the same time, migrants and refugees make their mark upon their new location, whether by filling skills gaps, providing care, generating increased demand for public services, or bringing new and diverse cultural perspectives to communities.

4.1.1 What are the impacts for individual migrants?

General wellbeing

Not many studies have looked at the impact of migration on the wellbeing of individual migrants, and it is especially difficult to find evidence of this disaggregated by gender and/or age. There is some evidence to show that migrants who move from south to north rate their lives in more positive terms than people in their countries of origin do. Migrants in the south tend to rate their lives as similar to, or worse than people in their home countries who didn't migrate (IOM 2013a). Studies of migrant wellbeing in developed countries tend to show that migrants are less happy than native populations. This could be for a number of reasons, including lower incomes, lower relative social status, non-recognition of qualifications, discrimination, language difficulties, separation from families and the challenges associated with moving to a new culture (OECD 2015d). Escaping poverty is certainly not guaranteed as a result of migration. In many receiving/destination countries, migrants are concentrated in urban slum areas where they experience unemployment and segregation (Omelaniuk 2005).

For refugees there are extra challenges to wellbeing, given the burden of prior experiences they carry (IOM 2013a). One research study looking at social capital (including employment, housing, education, health, social connections and bonds, language and cultural knowledge, safety and stability and rights and citizenship) and refugee integration in the UK found that women refugees fared less well in terms of emotional and physical health than their male counterparts (Cheung and Phillimore 2013). Separation from family also clearly impacts significantly on the emotional and physical wellbeing of unaccompanied and separated children who have migrated for a range of reasons.

Discrimination and racism

In many receiving/destination countries, migrants and refugees experience racism, xenophobia and Islamophobia. Recent OECD research found that among migrants residing in OECD countries, the groups who reported more perceived discrimination on the grounds of ethnicity or country of origin were men and people from lower income countries (OECD 2015d). However, other studies have highlighted the multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination experienced by women migrants and refugees (as highlighted in the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action), much of which goes unreported. As Europe's refugee crisis took hold in the summer of 2015, there were many indications of xenophobia and Islamophobia. For example, the Hungarian Prime Minister argued that he did not want to welcome Muslim refugees into his country, as he felt they were a threat to his country's Christian identity (Guardian 2015). Islamophobia has increased significantly in the years since the September 11th, 2001 attacks (Jolly and Reeves 2005), and it has specific gendered forms; young Muslim men are portrayed as possible terrorists and security threats, while Muslim women are portrayed as passive and repressed.

Employment

There is clear evidence from receiving countries, both in the global south and north, on how migration can affect individuals' employment prospects, and there are strong gender dimensions to this. Across OECD countries, women migrants are more likely to be unemployed or employed in work below their level of skill and experience (OECD 2015d). Research shows that across global regions, women migrants can experience discrimination in the labour market, with many crowded into care, domestic and informal sector jobs, often without employment rights and protection (Ghosh 2009). The tendency for women migrant workers to be clustered into part time, discontinuous or informal employment also affects their entitlement to social security and pensions (OSCE 2009). Even highly skilled migrant women have less favourable labour market outcomes than migrant men, and the gender gap in labour market outcomes tends to be more pronounced among migrants than among native populations (Arslan et al 2014). In some receiving countries, workers' wages depend on their country of origin; one study found that in some Asian countries, Filipina domestic workers were routinely paid more than those from Sri Lanka or Indonesia (Ghosh 2009).

Education

Access to education is a problem for many migrant and refugee children and young people of both sexes. In protracted situations of conflict, refugees may spend their whole childhood in displacement, without schooling and without opportunities to gain the knowledge necessary to be able to contribute to the eventual rebuilding of their countries. Displaced girls are even less likely to attend school than boys (WRC 2010).

Studies focusing on education for displaced Syrian children and young people have highlighted a range of formal and informal, and gendered barriers to learning. Prior to the Syrian conflict, primary school enrolment rate in the country was 99 per cent and lower secondary school enrolment was 82 per cent, with high gender parity. Today, nearly 3 million Syrian children inside and outside of Syria country are out of school (UNICEF 2015b). While efforts have been made to increase schooling provision in refugee camps in Jordan, Lebanon, Northern Iraq and Turkey, demand far outweighs supply. In the Northern Iraq/Kurdistan region of Iraq camps, there is only one functioning secondary school. In Turkey, where many Syrian refugees live outside of camps, Syrian children face a range of informal barriers which prevent them from attending school, including around language, finances and integration (Human Rights Watch 2015). Gendered factors add to these problems; girls are marrying earlier due to social norms that suggest this will give them economic security in unstable times, and

protect them from sexual assault. This means that girls and young women's education is cut short. More boys and young men are engaging in paid work instead of continuing in education (Ahmadzadeh et al 2014).

Refugee, displaced and migrant children experience similar problems in many other regions and countries. In Malaysia for example, refugees and irregular migrants (including those born in the country) have no right to attend public schools. Some attend 'learning centres' supported by charitable donations and local community members but teachers are not usually qualified and the quality of learning is lower than in public schools (Refugees International 2015).

Migration to a more developed region does not automatically bring improved learning outcomes. In 2012, around 30 per cent of foreign born pupils in EU countries lacked basic reading skills at age 15. Across OECD countries, migrants aged 15-34 years were more likely than their native born counterparts to be outside of employment, education or training. Young immigrant women were particularly highly represented in this category (OECD 2015d).

Health

The impact of the migration process on health varies according to several factors, including public policy, sexual behaviour and culture. Migration can impact negatively on health; low socioeconomic status creates vulnerability to ill health, and migratory journeys can involve trauma and violence in transit (Orozco et al 2010). Links have been demonstrated between migration and vulnerability to HIV infection; this is due to isolation and separation from partners, lack of access to contraception and health services, and power dynamics around buying or selling sex (Jolly and Reeves 2005). Migrant workers experience high levels of work related accidents and illnesses, largely due to the sectors in which they work and their working conditions (Orozco et al 2010).

Evidence shows that women migrants in many countries experience some degree of unequal access to healthcare services. This may be due to institutional barriers around immigration status and access to public funds - a particular problem for irregular migrants - or informal barriers related to language and information about the services available (UNFPA 2015). In some countries refugees and irregular migrants are liable to pay for the full costs of any medical care they receive. In Malaysia, Rohingya women who give birth in hospital have in some cases been forced to leave their babies in the hospital until they can raise the funds to pay for the costs of their stay (Refugees International 2015). Policies such as these have obvious impacts on the health of vulnerable migrants; blocking many from accessing healthcare at all. Access to healthcare for women migrants and refugees is especially important given their sexual and reproductive healthcare needs (Aspinall and Watters 2010, Ghosh 2009). Women are also often responsible for family healthcare, especially children's health. This adds to their need for affordable, accessible healthcare provisions (Orozco et al 2010).

Migrant children also experience poorer health outcomes. In 2013, 50 per cent of children treated by Medecins du Monde-International in 25 European cities had not been vaccinated against hepatitis B, measles or whooping cough. Almost half of MdM's patients are undocumented migrants. In these cities there was a broad range of interpretations among medical and administrative staff on what care migrant, and especially undocumented children, are entitled to (Keith and LeVoy 2015).

Focus: Can migration be empowering for women and girls?

It is clear that women and girl migrants and refugees face a host of challenges in their journeys and in their lived experiences in receiving/host countries. Migration and displacement can in some cases entrench traditional gender roles, add to women and girls' unpaid care burdens and expose them to racism and other forms of prejudice. Discrimination in sending countries and restrictive immigration policies in receiving countries can make women more vulnerable to risky forms of migration and to trafficking. However, the potential for migration to empower women and girls does exist. Evidence of this can be seen through the collective action and mobilisation of migrant women workers in different global regions, and in reports of increases in women's autonomy, agency and self-confidence as a result of mobility.

Some research has concluded that the most likely conditions for migrant women's empowerment are those that involve migration from rural to urban areas, separation from family groups, and extended involvement in formal employment governed by a legal framework. Empowerment may not always happen in the most obvious places; refugee women and girls who have fled horrific circumstances may build confidence and renewed agency in new environments, while highly skilled women who migrate for work might experience deskilling or workplace discrimination. Interestingly, evidence also shows that migration can be transformational in gender terms for men and boys too; especially boys and young men whose experience allows them to challenge traditional and negative norms of masculinity.

However, even where migration does lead to an increase in women's personal empowerment, autonomy and agency, their experiences remain influenced by gender roles and inequalities in their host societies. These intersect with other inequalities on the basis of ethnicity, race, age, sexuality and disability, creating a complex and contradictory picture of migration's gains and losses for girls and women.

Adapted from Ghosh (2009), Jolly and Reeves (2005) and Orozco (2010)

4.1.2 What are the impacts for communities and societies?

Communities and cities

Population growth in cities can pose a great deal of pressure on urban infrastructures and environments, and generate concern about the capacity of national and local governments to cope with its consequences. But migrants of all types can make significant social, economic and cultural contributions to destination/receiving countries, cities and communities (IOM 2015d). The potential of this to happen, and the positive contribution that both male and female migrants can make, depends on the ways that migration is managed, and the extent to which an approach of participation and inclusion is taken.

Migrants can be builders of resilience

Migrants are often overrepresented in the healthy, productive age groups, and so can provide skills to help manage risk in their communities and support disaster preparedness, response and recovery, especially in ageing societies.

Migrants can be agents of local development

Migrants and diaspora communities can play a key role in building links between cities of origin and of destination and in mainstreaming migration into local development planning, as well as providing information and expertise on their communities of origin.

Migrants can be city makers

Migrants can help to promote their destination/receiving city's socioeconomic, cultural, historical and religious assets, strengthening the place of cities in the global economic and political hierarchy.

Migrants can enrich diversity

Migrants can bring new perspectives, enriching host populations' knowledge and enjoyment of different cultures, traditions and outlooks.

Adapted from IOM (2015d), Jolly and Reeves (2005)

Economies

Migration can help to drive economic growth by alleviating labour shortages and stimulating job growth. Migrants boost the working age population, and contribute more in taxes and social benefits than they receive in benefits. They can also bring skills and innovation, contributing to receiving countries' human capital development (OECD 2014a, UNDESA 2013b). Female labour migration, particularly into export processing zones, has been a key factor in many countries' economic export oriented success (albeit a success based on paying women migrant workers less than men). In many highly developed countries, migrant labour – and particularly female migrant labour – has been an essential factor in meeting skills shortages around the care and health work needed to sustain economies (Orozco et al 2010).

Recent analysis on the potential economic impact of the surge in refugees entering the EU found that OECD countries have scaled up public spending in order to process asylum applications and host refugees. They have also allocated additional funding to transit and sending countries. In the short term, this additional spending could act as a stimulus, boosting GDP by up to 0.2 per cent. The longer term impacts are more difficult to predict as asylum seekers are highly mobile, and there is great variation in the processes and timeframes of different countries in processing asylum claims and allowing access to the labour market. As refugees integrate into new societies, positive effects on host country labour markets could progressively build. In order to achieve this, work will be needed to locate refugees in areas where their skills are most needed (OECD 2015b). The analysis does not mention gender differences between refugees, but an understanding of women's skills as well as men's will be essential if host countries are to fully harness the benefits of the refugees they take in.

4.2 The gendered and age related impacts of migration in sending/home countries

Migration can impact on sending countries and societies in a number of ways. When each of these is unpacked, dimensions of gender and age can be found. Some examples of the positive effects of migration on sending countries include:

- Economic remittances and diaspora investments can provide opportunities for development in sending countries.
- Returning migrants may bring home with them new skills and ideas.
- There may be changes in the social norms that influence gender inequalities; both women who migrate and those who stay behind may gain more independence and confidence as a result.

However, negative impacts can also result from migration:

- There may be an economic impact from loss of skills – sometimes called ‘brain drain’.
- Migration may result in increasing inequalities between migrants and non-migrants.
- Children whose parents migrate may lose out emotionally and socially.
- The potential for positive change in social norms may be limited if migration results in women and girls gaining a greater workload and higher unpaid care burden, or remittances only being sent to men or older women.

Adapted from Jolly and Reeves (2005)

4.2.1 Remittances

According to World Bank data, in 2015 global remittance flows exceeded US\$601 billion, of which about \$441 billion was received by developing countries – nearly three times the amount of official development assistance (World Bank 2016). While the availability of data on remittances disaggregated by gender and age is limited, some conclusions can be drawn about the gendered nature of remittances.

Women are the majority of remitters in many migratory flows

Although men and women send similar quantities of remittances, women on average send a higher percentage of their income back to home countries. Women also appear to be more willing to help extended family members, and their remittances are more consistent over time (Lopez-Ekra et al 2011, Orozco et al 2010). By contrast, some male migrants appear more easily able to detach themselves from their home country households, leaving women and children in these households in vulnerable situations (Orozco et al 2010).

Women are the main recipients and administrators of remittances

Evidence shows that more women than men tend to receive and administer remittances, whether the person sending the remittance is a woman or a man. While there is variety across situations and countries, in general, men often remit to their wives, while women tend to remit to another female family member (Orozco et al 2010).

In South Africa, a set proportion of the wages of migrant mining workers from Lesotho and Mozambique must be collected from an office of the mining company in the migrants’ home countries. This scheme is not popular with the miners themselves but both miners’ wives and home country governments support it, as it ensures receipt of remittances even when the migrant does not return to his home country (Orozco et al 2010).

In some cases, remittance administration is used as a tool to reinforce gender power relations. In Colombia for example, male migrants sometimes remit to other male family members. The money may only be passed on to women in the family if they are seen to comply with certain expected behaviours around gender and sexuality (Orozco et al 2010). Research in Bangladesh showed that even if a woman has remittances sent directly to her, decisions about how to spend the money may still be taken by others, especially if she belongs to a younger age group. Other women however, become heads of households as a result of receiving remittances and experience increased decision making power (Lopez-Ekra et al 2011).

There are gender and class based patterns of remittance spending

Remittances are largely used for meeting the basic needs of families and for investing in education for children and in healthcare. They also act as a form of social protection in countries where benefits such as pensions are not provided by the state. The assumption that women will prioritise the health and education needs of their families lies behind decisions to send remittances to female family members. Some studies show gendered differences in how remitters expect the funds they send home to be spent. For example, in one study women migrants from Moldova expected their remittances to be used for food, clothes, education, health and household equipment, whereas men wanted their remittances to go into housing, cars and consumer goods (Guzman et al 2007). Research has also shown, however, that while gender can impact on remittance use in this way, there are other key intersecting influences, notably social class, household structure and location of the remitter (Orozco et al 2010). Decisions behind remittances are complex, based on gender and kinship bonds, and made within a context where expectations with specific cultural and gender dimensions meet transnational, and often contradictory ideas about family, roles and responsibilities (Wong 2006).

The impact of remittances on children is mixed

While some studies have reported negative impacts on children when parents migrate (see section 4.2.2 below), others have shown the benefits that remittances can bring, particularly on education spending. However, it appears that these benefits are dependent on the gender of the person receiving the remittance. When men send and women receive remittances, a higher proportion tends to be spent on children's education and health than when the situation is reversed (Guzman et al 2007, Lopez-Ekka 2011).

4.2.2 Care and families left behind

When women and men migrate for employment, the aim is often to provide a better life for the families they leave behind. Research has shown a varied picture in this regard. Some studies show that the dependents of male migrant workers are better off – in economic, health and social terms – as a result of the absence and benefits remitted (Aghajanian et al 2013), whereas other studies highlight 'left behind' women who are forced to fend for themselves (Jolly and Reeves 2005).

Several studies have looked at the impact on children and older people when parents migrate. The results tend to be complex and contradictory. Research focusing on Mexican families where male household heads migrate to the United States for employment found that mothers' decision making power increased, and resulted in a shift in household resources towards girls. Upon the father's return however, resources were redirected back towards boy children (Antman 2011).

Some studies emphasise negative outcomes for children's emotional and social wellbeing when one or both parents migrate, and highlight the emotional burden felt by mothers who leave their children (Orozco et al 2010). Others, such as a research project to measure the impact of migration on children and the elderly in Georgia and the Republic of Moldova, concluded that there were factors other than parents' migration status that were more influential on children's wellbeing. These included the number of other children in the household and the household's overall income (Vanore and Seigel 2013). For the elderly, results were also complex. Grandmothers often act as caregivers in their children's absence, and manage remittances and properties. Some join their child in the destination country and undertake caregiving duties there. Migrants who have elderly parents remaining in their country of origin need to address care issues from abroad as parents age (Orozco et al 2010). In the Georgia and Republic of Moldova study, older

people with adult children living abroad were more likely to have good physical health, but did less well in terms of social and material wellbeing (Vanore and Seigel 2013).

In many parts of the world, and particularly in Asia, the high numbers of women migrating abroad for domestic work has resulted in 'care chains', with the unpaid care work previously done by women who migrate being passed on to other women or girls.

Focus: Global care chains

Global care chains are created when households transfer care work from one home to another. These chains bring domestic and care work – child and elder care, as well as cooking and cleaning – into multiple settings. No longer taking place solely within the home on an unpaid basis, care now enters the economic market.

Characteristics such as gender, age, social class and place of origin are key factors in the development of these chains. At the top of the chains are women in developed and middle income countries who are increasingly entering the labour market, and finding that existing provisions for child and elder care are not sufficient. This 'care crisis' creates demand for domestic workers to fill the gaps and to help women deal with the demands of paid work and family life. As care work is undervalued in economic or social terms, these roles are usually poorly paid, low status and unregulated. Often it is women from poorer countries who take up these opportunities, because there is increasing poverty, insecurity of livelihoods and high work burdens in their own country.

The departure of these women means that they need to develop new strategies to cope with demands for care in their absence. Here at the bottom of the chain, there are fewer solutions available. Care tends to be passed to other female family members, including young girls and older women. In some cases however, wage differentials between sending and receiving countries mean that migrant domestic workers may be able to recruit other local women, or poorer women from rural areas, to look after their children and households while they are away.

Within care chains, men tend to be beneficiaries of care rather than providers. There is little evidence of women's labour migration being a catalyst for the shifting of unpaid care work from women than men.

Sources: Ghosh (2009), Orozco et al (2010), UN Women and IOM (2010) and UN Women (2012)

The transferring of unpaid care work between women and girls is not restricted to labour migration situations. In situations of displacement due to conflict or natural disasters, women and girls may suddenly find themselves in charge of their household or forced to provide most of the economic support for their families (WRC 2009).

4.2.3 Brain drain and brain circulation

The concept of brain drain is used to describe a situation where highly skilled people migrate from poor to rich countries, with the result being that development in origin countries is slowed, because skilled people have left. Statistics show that in some parts of Central America and sub-Saharan Africa, more than half of university graduates migrate to OECD countries (OECD 2007a). Brain drain is thought to particularly impact on the provision of health and education in affected countries – sectors where women often work. The concept has been challenged, however, by those arguing that emigration of the highly skilled is not necessarily negative. If sending and receiving countries set up partnerships to encourage repatriation of knowledge and skills – known as brain

circulation – then developing countries can benefit from the knowledge their citizens gain while away (OECD 2007a).

It is important, within these debates, to think about the gendered and age related aspects of brain drain and circulation, especially given the key role that women migrants play in the health and education sectors. But this has not often been done, partly because of insufficient data. One study from the OECD is based on a comparable dataset that allows identification by gender (Dumont et al 2007). It found that skilled women were overrepresented in any brain drain effect, because despite the fact that women do not have equal access to tertiary education in many developing countries, equal numbers of highly skilled women and men are migrating to OECD countries. As skilled women are being increasingly targeted for labour migration, the study argues that bringing a gender perspective into policy around brain drain is essential.

5 Current approaches and strategies

As the sections above have shown, reasons for, and experiences of migration have clear gender dimensions. Other factors such as age, ethnicity, sexuality, economic status, health and disability also play influential roles. In many cases however, approaches and strategies for managing migration are developed in what is often seen as a ‘gender neutral’ way; that is they do not take into account the different experiences and needs of women, men, girls and boys. The effects of such approaches are far from neutral in gender terms however. Women, boys, girls and older people tend to lose out when strategies are based on a male breadwinner model. This section begins by setting out some key international rights frameworks on migration and migration related issues. It then looks at national and regional policies, defining different types of policy and highlighting some good practice examples. Next the approaches of humanitarian and development agencies are discussed, followed by some examples of civil society initiatives.

5.1 International rights frameworks

Migrants and refugees are some of the most vulnerable and least protected social groups. The section below sets out the key international treaties and agreements around migrant and refugee rights, and discusses how issues of gender and age are addressed.

5.1.1 UN Convention on the Protection of the rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families

This convention brings together the principles of human rights set out in other international instruments and applies them directly to migrant workers and their families. It declares that all migrant workers and their families, irrespective of legal status, have the right to basic principles of legal equality. The convention includes the following protections for both regular and irregular migrants:

- The right to equal pay and working conditions
- The right to emergency healthcare and education for children
- The right to cultural identity
- Protection from intimidation and violence
- Diplomatic protection

In addition, the convention sets out additional protection for regular migrants:

- Equality of labour rights such as unemployment benefits and social security
- Access to health and social care services, education and training
- Recognition of the right to family reunification

The convention is the first of its kind to state explicitly that each right applies to both women and men. However it doesn’t address the gender specific needs of migrant women.

The convention was adopted in 1990 but did not come into force until 2003 when it received the required number of ratifications. To date, it has still only been ratified by 48 states. This presents obvious challenges in terms of its enforcement. Some states are opposed to the convention's recognition of irregular migrants' rights, or to its emphasis on equality of labour conditions (Jolly and Reeves 2005, Orozco et al 2010, Piper 2005).

5.1.2 ILO Conventions on Migrant Workers

These conventions, along with the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, and the ILO non-binding Multinational Framework on Labour Migration, set out the rights of migrants around remuneration, membership of trade unions, social security and equal treatment of migrant and national workers. The multilateral framework calls for gender sensitive policies, sex disaggregated data, opportunities for decent work for women and measures to address trafficking. In 2013, the ILO Domestic Workers Convention came into force. This convention promotes decent work for all domestic workers, but recognises that domestic work is mainly carried out by women and girls, many of whom are migrants (OSCE 2009).

5.1.3 1951 Refugee Convention and its 1967 Protocol

The Refugee Convention defines who is a refugee, what their rights are and what the legal obligations of states are towards them. Because of the time of its drafting, the convention makes no distinction between male and female refugees. This 'gender neutrality' resulted in the male refugee experience being taken for the norm in international law. The executive committee of the UNHCR has therefore produced several recommendations and guidance documents on women's different experiences of persecution and asylum. The UNHCR has also published guidelines on child asylum claims. The convention does not cover internally displaced people (Querton 2012; UNHCR 2002, 2009).

5.1.4 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) and its Optional Protocol

This convention, which has been widely ratified and entered into force in 1981, focuses on equality between women and men in all areas of life. In 2014, the CEDAW committee made General Recommendation No. 32 on the gender related dimensions of refugee status, asylum, nationality and statelessness of women, the aim of which is to guide states on how to address their obligations under the CEDAW to respect, protect and fulfil the rights of refugee, asylum seeking and stateless women to non-discrimination and substantive equality. In 2008, the committee released General Recommendation No.26 on women migrant workers, which highlights the circumstances that contribute to the specific vulnerability of many women migrant workers and their experiences of gender based discrimination (OHCHR 2016a; CEDAW 2008, 2014).

5.1.5 UN Security Council Resolution 1325

Adopted in 2000 by the UN Security Council, this resolution draws attention to the different ways that women experience armed conflict, their exclusion from conflict prevention and resolution, peacekeeping and peacebuilding, and the links between gender equality and international peace and security. It calls on states to fully implement international human rights law to protect women and girls during and after conflict (UN Security Council 2000).

5.1.6 United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)

This convention, which entered into force in 1990, sets out the civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights that all children are entitled to. It has two Optional Protocols, covering the involvement of children in armed conflict and the sale of children. The CRC committee has stated that child migrants should have the same access as national children to economic, social and cultural rights and basic services, and encouraged states to reform any legislation, policies or practices that prevent this (UN 2000a, 2000b; Keith and LeVoy 2015).

5.1.7 Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children

This protocol entered into force in 2003. It is the first global legally binding instrument with an agreed definition on trafficking. Its aims are to facilitate convergence in national approaches, support efficient international cooperation in investigating and prosecuting trafficking, and protect and assist the victims of trafficking (UNDOC 2016).

5.1.8 The Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air

Entering into force in 2004, this protocol highlights the problem of organised criminal groups who smuggle migrants. In developing the protocol, a definition of smuggling of migrants was developed and agreed upon for the first time. Its aim is to prevent and combat the smuggling of migrants, promote cooperation among countries, and protecting the rights of smuggled migrants (UNDOC 2016).

5.1.9 Other international procedures

The UN Human Rights Council has appointed a Special Rapporteur on the human rights of migrants, whose task is to receive and examine information on the obstacles to protection of the human rights of migrants, recognising the particular vulnerability of women, children and those undocumented or in an irregular situation. The rapporteur's mandate also includes making appropriate recommendations to prevent and remedy violations of the human rights of migrants. This role is currently undertaken by François Crépeau (OHCHR 2016b).

The United Nations Secretary General established a Global Migration Group (GMG) in 2006. The aim of this group is to promote the wider application of all international and regional instruments relating to migration. In 2012 a sub group on migration, human rights and gender was established, and which is chaired by OHCHR, UN Women and UNICEF. This group advises the GMG on the promotion and protection of the human rights of migrants and their families, and supports the integration of a human rights-based and gender-sensitive approach to migration in key policy processes, including the post-2015 development framework (GMG 2014).

5.2 National and regional policies and strategies

Migration policies play a key role in determining the consequences, conditions and flows of international migration. Individual states usually design their own policies on immigration and emigration, but policies are also developed as part of regional blocks.

The main focus of such policies is on managing inward migration, but governments may also restrict internal movements and outward migration (Jolly and Reeves 2005). Government policies usually focus in different ways on varying types of migrants; for example highly skilled, irregular migrants, dependants of migrants, refugees and asylum seekers. In general, policies are developed in the following categories.

5.2.1 Types of policies

Permanent migration

Routes to permanent migration are increasingly becoming more restricted. Some countries use points based systems, in which attributes that are deemed to be in short supply and add value to a country's economy are awarded higher points. In order to migrate on a permanent basis, applicants must accumulate a certain number of points.

Temporary migration

Temporary migrants are allocated permits to work in a host country for a defined period of time, after which they must leave. Some countries have annual quotas and sign agreements with sending countries to attract temporary migrants to meet labour market needs.

Family reunification

Migration policies often include conditions through which family members can join migrants in host countries. Some countries have introduced policies to tighten requirements for reunification, by, for example, requiring that migrants earn over a certain amount or have suitable housing in place.

Highly skilled migration

Increasing numbers of countries are adopting policies to facilitate migrants with skills in short supply. Such policies allow the preferential treatment of highly skilled migrants in areas such as admission, length of stay, change of employment and family reunification.

Integration

Policies designed to help migrants integrate into host societies might include things like language training and information campaigns about life and culture in host countries. Some policies take a multicultural approach; encouraging migrants to retain their own cultural identity, while others take an assimilation approach; promoting absorption into the majority culture. Integration policies can also set out the civil, social and political rights allowed to migrants.

Naturalisation and citizenship

Most countries have provisions setting out the conditions under which migrants can become naturalised citizens, but there is great variety across countries. Only a few countries do not allow any naturalisation at all.

Return

Some countries have developed assisted return programmes to encourage migrants to return to their home countries. In some cases cash incentives are used. Such schemes may be run by host country governments or jointly by sending and receiving countries. The EU Action Plan on Return was announced at the height of the European refugee crisis in September 2015, with the aim of increasing the capacity of member states to return irregular migrants.

Emigration

In countries where governments are concerned about the number of people migrating abroad, policies have been created to encourage people to stay. These policies might involve improving education and training, increasing domestic employment opportunities, or developing incentives to encourage those with skills high in demand (both abroad and at home) to remain. They might also encourage the highly skilled who have already left to return; for example through tax cuts or bonuses.

Irregular migration

Countries have responded to irregular migration through several policy approaches. These include reforming immigration law and promoting the return of irregular migrants. They also include developing regularisation programmes where permanent or temporary residence permits are granted to irregular migrants.

Human trafficking

Since the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons was adopted in (2003), many more countries have adopted legislation and policies to prevent human trafficking. These might include the imposition of heavy penalties on traffickers, awareness raising campaigns and capacity building among public and private agencies.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Several regional policies and regulations have been developed to address the identification and protection of refugees within increasingly mixed migration flows. These include the European Union's EU Common European Asylum System, which includes five key instruments for the fair and open treatment of asylum seekers, and the Kampala Convention, a treaty requiring African governments to protect the rights of those forced to flee their homes by armed conflict, violence, human rights violations and natural disasters. In addition, some countries have developed separate humanitarian categories for those not falling strictly into the 1951 Refugee Convention.

Source: MSF (2015a), UNDESA (2013b)

The majority of the above types of policies are designed in what may be thought of as a 'gender neutral' way – without any reference to gendered differences and needs. In reality however, all policies affect women, men, girls and boys differently. This is because labour markets are gender segregated, skills levels differ by gender and age, and ideas about appropriate roles and behaviours in both sending and receiving countries differ for women and men (Jolly and Reeves 2005). The majority of policies related to migration are still designed with a male breadwinner model in mind and have not adapted to the changing migration trends that have seen increasing numbers of independent female migrants.

Policymakers have yet to bring the challenges and risks faced by migrating women and girls, as well as other groups such as unaccompanied boys, to the forefront of the migration and development agenda (Bozrikova 2011, UNFPA 2015). Policies that focus heavily on restricting numbers of migrants risk failures to address fundamental rights and obligations. The contribution of migrants to development in both their countries of origin and destination countries depends on the existence of policies to ensure safe and legal migration and protection of migrants' human rights (UNDESA 2013b). There is a clear need for more rights based and gender sensitive migration policies, which are also sensitive to other factors such as age, disability, ethnicity, religion and sexuality. It is difficult to find many examples of these, but some are discussed in the following sections.

5.2.2 Labour migration policies

In recent years the pattern of labour migration policies across receiving countries, particularly those in the global north, has been to encourage skilled workers and discourage non-skilled labour migration (OECD 2015e). Gender sensitive labour migration policies recognise that women and men both migrate for economic and employment opportunities and all have the potential to make economic contributions to origin and destination countries. They recognise the disadvantage and discrimination that women migrant workers face as part of the migration process. In doing this, gender sensitive policies seek to ensure that women's rights to legal migration opportunities are secured, that women's rights within the migration process (for example to decent working conditions, fair remuneration, family life and safe, secure recruitment) are protected, and that migration can help to realise women's rights (for example autonomy, confidence and control over earnings). Policies on labour migration that are gender sensitive also may also introduce temporary special measures to compensate for the past discrimination that negatively impacts on women's migrant's situations (OSCE 2009).

The Indonesian government has developed a Domestic Worker Roadmap to encourage receiving countries of Indonesian migrants to recognise them as formal workers and grant them rights. It also developed Regulation No.4/2008 which requires a review of regulations in countries of destination that have not signed a memorandum of understanding with Indonesia.

In the Philippines, the Migrant Workers and Overseas Filipinos Act (1995) penalises illegal recruitment of migrant workers and provides a range of services available to Filipino migrant workers including legal services, welfare assistance, travel advisories and repatriation. The Canadian government (a major destination country for Filipino domestic workers) funds an orientation programme in the Philippines to assist migrant workers in adapting to Canadian life.

In Spain, a 'normalisation' programme began in 2005 to regularise migrant workers. Normally such programmes specify that the employer of the migrant worker should present the application to the authorities. But in this case, domestic service workers without a fixed employer were allowed to submit applications themselves, as long as they could prove they worked at least 30 hours a week.

In Hong Kong, all workers, including migrant workers and domestic workers in the informal economy, are entitled to one weekly day of rest, annual leave, public holidays, one month's notice and payment of wages. Female migrant workers are entitled to 10 weeks' paid maternity leave and no more than 10 per cent of a migrant workers' salary can be deducted for recruitment fees.

Source: UN Women (2013), OSCE (2009)

5.2.3 Entry and border policies

In recent years many countries (in particular, those in the global north) have revised and strengthened their policies around border control, and increasingly, many are encouraging voluntary return of migrants and focusing more on penalising the illegal employment of foreign workers (OECD 2015e). As discussed in section 3.1, some EU countries have entered into agreements with transit countries to prevent migrants and refugees reaching Europe. Countries that are increasingly finding themselves to be both transit and destination countries have undergone substantial legal and policy reform in the area of migration – for example, Turkey's Law on Foreigners and International Protection 2013, Mexico's Special Migration Programme 2013 (OECD 2013e) and Morocco's Migration and Asylum policy (GIZ 2016).

It is difficult to find examples of these policies and reforms where a gender or age perspective is taken. Indeed some examples, such as the outsourcing of migration management through EU and third party agreements, and the use of immigration detention, have been shown to exacerbate gender and age inequalities (MSF 2015b, Sampson et al 2015). Some countries, including Canada, Spain, Australia, the United States and the UK, have developed gender or age sensitive policies around immigration and border management. In the UK, guidelines on gender issues in the asylum system were produced in 2004 and updated in 2010 (UK Visas and Immigration 2010). The guidelines set out the gender related issues that should be considered when making decisions about asylum claims, and advises that gender based violence may amount to persecution. They explain how the grounds for asylum set out in the Refugee Convention (race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion) should be interpreted from a gender perspective. They also advise on how to conduct gender sensitive asylum interviews. As discussed below in section 6.1 however, problems arise in making the transition from policy to practice. Research shows that the UK's guidelines have not always been properly implemented in practice (Querton 2012).

Focus: Protecting the rights of vulnerable migrants in Zambia

The government of Zambia, in collaboration with the IOM, UNHCR and the United Nations Children's Fund developed a national referral mechanism and associated guidelines to identify vulnerable migrants - refugees, asylum seekers, rejected asylum seekers, victims of trafficking, unaccompanied and separated children, stranded migrants and stateless migrants - and refer them to appropriate authorities and services. Following an initial piloting stage, the guidelines have been rolled out across Zambia, and more than 200 frontline officers have received training on implementing them. Evaluations show that these officers have increased their capacity to identify vulnerable migrants, refer them to relevant authorities and service providers, provide appropriate protective services, and collaborate with stakeholders to improve protective services for vulnerable migrants.

Source: Sampson et al (2015)

5.2.4 Family reunification policies

The tendency of policymaking on family reunification in receiving countries has, in recent years, been to restrict family migration and discourage people who wish to migrate with their families. As discussed in section 3.3, this can help to perpetuate gender inequalities. However some countries have eased such restrictions. Germany, for example, allows all foreigners holding a residence permit as a family member to work without obtaining approval from the Federal Employment Agency. Family members of non-EU migrants in Hungary are also allowed to work (OECD 2015e).

5.2.5 Policies focusing on child migrants

A review of policies in EU countries found a number of countries have developed promising approaches to migrant children's rights. Ten EU countries have legislated to make the right of education for all children, regardless of residence or migration status explicit.¹ In France, school bursaries for disadvantaged children are available to all children, regardless of their family residence status and in Spain, undocumented children can access grants for school expenses. In Italy, children can register at school even if they have no identification documents. In Belgium, an information campaign is run by the

¹ These countries are Belgium, Croatia, Czech Republic, France, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Romania, Spain and Sweden.

Ministry of Education with the aim of including migrant children's participation in early years education (Keith and LeVoy 2015).

In Ireland, Hungary, Italy and Spain immigration law prohibits the detention of child migrants and refugees (Keith and LeVoy 2015). This is also the case in Argentina, Venezuela and Panama (UNICEF 2012). Other countries have developed alternatives to detention; in Belgium families are placed into family homes for up to five months while being given coaching for return or regularisation. Children are allowed to attend school during this time. The initiative has had a high rate of voluntary return and a low rate of absconding (Sampson et al 2015). A range of alternatives exist to the detention of unaccompanied children and families with children; for example the child-sensitive community assessment (CCAP) model developed by the International Detention Coalition (Corlett et al 2012, Sampson et al 2015).

In Mexico, the Model for the Protection of the Rights of Migrant and Unaccompanied Repatriated Children and Adolescents includes immediate care responses and specialised attention for child migrants who are returned to Mexico. In Indonesia the Ministry of Social Affairs runs 23 shelters across the country, which provide protection and support to children of international migrants, including returning Indonesian labour migrants and child victims of trafficking (UNICEF 2012).

5.2.6 Policies to tackle gender based violence

In Spain, legislation on gender based violence applies to all women regardless of residence status, and the Spanish Immigration Act sets out specific protection to women GBV survivors who are undocumented. In France, undocumented women who separate from their spouse due to violence can be issued a residence permit (Keith and LeVoy 2015).

5.2.7 Integration policies

For some countries, hosting large numbers of refugees has stimulated a process of lesson learning and policy development around the integration of migrants, asylum seekers and refugees. In Tanzania and Zambia, for example, a full legal and policy framework has been established to promote sustainable local integration of former refugees (World Bank Group 2015).

Focus: Refugee settlement policies in Uganda

Uganda is the third largest refugee hosting country in Africa (after Ethiopia and Kenya), hosting almost 511,000 refugees and asylum seekers. The country is widely recognised as having progressive policies on asylum and refugees. The 2006 Refugee Act and 2010 Refugee Regulations entitle refugees to work, freedom of movement, and access to Ugandan social services.

When given refugee status, refugees are provided with small areas of land in villages integrated within the local host community; an approach that enhances social cohesion, reduces dependency on humanitarian aid and allows both refugees and host communities to live together peacefully. Refugees enjoy freedom of movement and have access to the same services as Ugandan nationals, including the right to work and to set up their own businesses.

Refugee management and protection is included in the government's domestic planning, for example in the National Development Plan (NDP II) and the Settlement Transformative Agenda. In taking this approach, Uganda has created an enabling

environment for including long term development planning into the humanitarian response for refugees and their host communities.

The 2010 Refugee Regulations recognise persecution on the grounds of gender as a basis of grounds for asylum. It is not clear, however, the extent to which Uganda's policies and strategies consider the gender dimensions of refugee settlement and integration.

Sources: Yaxley (2015), World Bank (2015), OPM (2014), UNHCR (2010c)

5.3 Development and humanitarian agencies' policies and approaches

The policies and approaches developed by both humanitarian agencies and development/overseas aid agencies have great potential to impact upon and transform the gender and age related drivers, experiences and impacts of migration. Some examples of these are discussed below.

5.3.1 Humanitarian agencies' approaches

Although, as mentioned in section 5.1, some of the key international legislation and frameworks relating to migration were developed without reference to the different needs of women, men, girls and boys, the humanitarian agencies and organisations guided by such frameworks have since developed a range of guidelines and strategies that are more gender sensitive. UN agencies and their partners have produced the following:

UNHCR Handbook for the Protection of Women and Girls

This extensive handbook sets out some of the protection challenges faced by women and girls in the groups of concern to UNHCR, and provides a range of strategies to tackle these challenges. It is designed to help UNHCR staff to support women and girls' realisation of their rights. It has sections on:

- Principles and practices of gender equality
- Identifying, preventing and responding to the risks faced by women and girls
- The UNHCR's protection response
- Exercising rights and ensuring protection
- International and regional legal frameworks

The handbook includes many examples of field practice where the rights of women and girls have been promoted and protected (UNHCR 2008b).

UNHCR Age, Gender and Diversity Policy

This short policy sets out UNHCR's commitment to ensuring that all people can enjoy rights on an equal footing. It includes definitions of age, gender and diversity, and lists the main elements for mainstreaming a gender, age and diversity approach. In defining the concept of diversity, the policy discusses the different roles and needs of women and girls, men and boys, children, LGBTI people, older women and men, those with disabilities, and women and men belonging to national, ethnic, religious and linguistic minorities or indigenous groups (UNHCR 2011a).

UNHCR Age, Gender and Diversity Mainstreaming Forward Plan 2011-16

This plan sets out concrete measures for implementing UNHCR's Age, Gender and Diversity Policy. It covers seven strategic results that the agency needs to achieve if it is to successfully mainstream gender, age and diversity through all of its work, and it outlines responsibilities and mechanisms for implementing and monitoring each of these results (UNHCR 2011b).

UNHCR Age, Gender and Diversity Accountability Framework

The aim of this accountability framework is to demonstrate senior management accountability for age, gender and diversity mainstreaming in a transparent and public manner. It has four elements:

- Integration of age, gender and diversity into all actions and levels
- Enhancing the protection of women and children with specific needs
- Enhancing the protection of children, including adolescents
- Enhancing the protection of other people with specific needs

Senior managers are required to report on progress once a year. Analysis of these reports for the year 2012-13 found that child protection was the area where staff found the most challenges. There were strong regional variations in all areas of gender, age and diversity mainstreaming and a need for more sharing of good practice between areas. More work was needed to broaden and deepen engagement with the mainstreaming process, in order to ensure that it guides all staff members in their daily work (UNHCR 2013).

In addition, UNHCR's Handbook for the Protection of Internally Displaced Persons has a section on gender based violence in situations of internal displacement (UNHCR 2010a, 2010b). UNHCR also produced guidelines on the interpretation of the 1951 Refugee Convention in relation to child asylum claims (UNHCR 2009) and sexual orientation and gender identity (UNHCR 2012).

Inter-Agency Standing Committee Gender Handbook in Humanitarian Action

The IASC is a forum made up of key UN and non-UN humanitarian partners. Its gender handbook was prepared to provide guidance on gender analysis, planning and action to ensure that the needs and capabilities of women, men, girls and boys of all ages are integrated into all aspects of humanitarian response. The target audience is field practitioners responding to humanitarian emergencies, as well as those in coordinating and leadership positions (IASC 2006). The handbook is divided into two parts:

- **Fundamental principles**
This section covers the basics of gender in emergencies, the international legal framework for protection, effective coordination on gender in emergencies and participation in humanitarian action.
- **Areas of work**
This section covers camp coordination and management, education, food, health, livelihoods, non-food items, registration, shelter and water, sanitation and hygiene.

Inter-Agency Standing Committee Guidelines for Gender-based Violence Interventions in Humanitarian Settings

These guidelines are intended to aid humanitarian actors and communities affected by armed conflict, natural disasters and other emergencies to coordinate, plan, implement, monitor and evaluate actions for the prevention and mitigation of gender based violence as part of humanitarian response. The guidelines cover a wide range of areas, including camp coordination, child protection, education, food security, health, housing, livelihoods, nutrition and sanitation. They draw on a range of tools and resources developed by UN, civil society and academic sources (IASC 2015).

Humanitarian agencies have also developed tools to measure the gender and age dimensions of initiatives, and to help envisage and measure outcomes and impact.

Inter-Agency Standing Committee Gender Marker tool

The IASC Gender Marker tool measures, on a 0-3 scale, whether a humanitarian project is designed to ensure that women, men, girls and boys will benefit equally from the project, or if it will advance gender equality. If the project has potential to generate gender equality results, the marker predicts whether the gender results are likely to be limited or significant (IASC 2010).

European Commission's Gender-Age Marker for Humanitarian Action

This marker tool aims to support and promote high quality humanitarian aid actions that are sensitive to the differentiated needs and capacities of women, girls, boys and men. It tracks gender and age sensitive actions and financial allocations, allowing the European Commission's humanitarian staff and partners to monitor their own progress in integrating gender and age in their work (Steets et al 2013).

5.3.2 Development agencies' approaches

For many development agencies, the focus of work around migration is on improving the long term prospects of populations in the developing countries in which they work, and building peace and stability in fragile and conflict affected states, so that potential migrants no longer need to leave their countries (GIZ 2016). This perspective is reflected in a recent report by the World Bank Group (2015), which argues that building strong humanitarian-development links would help to reduce the short term costs of forced displacement and even help to create longer term gains. The report suggests that such links could be created by:

- A rethink of the risks faced by people displaced by conflict, natural disasters, food price shocks and pandemics in middle and low income countries and assigning responsibility for owning and financing these risks to donor agencies, host governments and the public and private sectors.
- Collaboration in risk assessment and preparation.
- Reforming peace operations and diplomatic engagement to prevent and resolve conflict and to sustain peace.
- Increasing government leadership and using national systems more for delivery.
- Collaborations between the private sector and social entrepreneurs to enable access to mobile phone and internet connectivity for refugees in order to give them access to economic opportunities.
- Transitioning away from protracted camp situations for refugees.
- Greater use of cash in places where it can buy needed goods and services.

This approach relies on the assumptions that development and humanitarian actors will build and sustain strong partnerships, and that refugees and migrants will prefer to stay in their regions of origin. The report includes a number of examples to illustrate recent World Bank interventions and collaborations designed to address the development dimensions of displacement. These include the Great Lakes Region Displaced Persons and Border Communities Project and the Regional Operation on Development Response to Displacement in Horn of Africa. While there is no integrated consideration of the gender or age dimensions of displacement in the report, some of the examples cited aim to engage particular target groups. For example, in South Asia, multi donor trust funds comprised of governments, donor partners and the World Bank Group have partnered

with NGOs to develop programmes directed at displaced children, youth and women which aim to create education, health care and employment opportunities, alongside social safety nets (World Bank Group 2015).

Current strategies of individual development agencies on migration and development are difficult to source in the public realm, although evidence is available on work at project level. For example, Sweden's governmental development agency Sida is working with the Swedish Migration Agency to strengthen the capacity of the Turkish Migration Agency in accordance with European standards (Sida 2016). Germany's agency GIZ is working with Morocco's migration ministry to establish an asylum policy and to advise communities on dealing with new arrivals.

It is unclear whether projects such as these have gender and/or age dimensions, but what is clear is that gender equality is a shared political and policy priority among many development donors and actors; all but one OECD Development Assistance Committee members have gender equality as one of their priorities (OECD 2014b). Development actors in some countries are bound by legislation which requires them to take gender equality into account in all their efforts. Others have non-legislative policies in place. In the UK, the International Development (Gender Equality) Act came into force in 2014. This act states that the Secretary of State for International Development, when providing development assistance, should do so in a way that will contribute to reducing inequalities between people of different genders. When providing humanitarian assistance, gender related differences in the needs of those affected by disasters or emergencies should also be taken into account. An evaluation of the implementation of the act by the UK Department of International Development (DFID) found that the department had meaningfully engaged with the act (Bates 2015). The evaluation made a number of recommendations for improving this performance, which included:

- Increase the quality of gender analysis by sharing good practice from gender sensitive and gender transformative programmes.
- Set up global advocacy around the act.
- Embrace a broader appreciation of gender equality, which includes sexual orientation and gender identity, and a more transformative approach, including addressing social norms and stereotypes.
- Move to a whole programme approach, ensuring that the gender objectives set out in business cases are reflected in implementation and included in monitoring and reporting.

5.4 Civil society initiatives and programmes

Across the globe civil society organisations and networks are working in diverse ways to provide services for migrants and refugees, disseminate information on migration to the public, and advocate for action to protect and promote the rights of vulnerable refugees and migrants. There are many examples of work that is sensitive to the impacts that gender, age and other socioeconomic factors have on migration experiences. Below are just a few examples.

5.4.1 Initiatives to address sexual and gender based violence

As part of its global camp management work, the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) has designed training resources to build the knowledge, skills and attitudes of national authorities and camp management staff around the prevention and mitigation of GBV. This training is designed to equip participants to better anticipate, recognise and address the protection concerns of women and girls in camp settings (IOM 2015a).

In Jordan, local women's rights and feminist organisations are working with Syrian refugee women and girls, providing counselling and training courses and engaging with girls and women to identify solutions to the problems they face and speak on their own behalf. They are using creative strategies involving art or exercise to address issues such as gender based violence and early marriage (Zaatari 2014).

In Iraq, local NGOs have partnered with UNHCR to provide services for survivors of SGBV among internally displaced populations. This has been a challenge due to a shortage of female social workers and medical personnel, as well as stigma, cultural barriers and low awareness about such services. The work began with training on SGBV prevention, the 'do no harm' principle in service provision, and on case management, counselling and interviewing skills. Then SGBV committees were set up to develop outreach services. Events were held for internally displaced people and their host communities in order to raise awareness of the services and the referral channels available for victims (UNHCR 2014b).

In Democratic Republic of Congo, where conflict has led to mass displacement and there are high levels of sexual and gender based violence, the Living Peace programme works with men and their partners to reduce sexual and gender based violence, promote healing, restore relationships and rebuild communities in post-conflict settings. The aim of the work is to break the cycle whereby traumatised men inflict further violence on their partners and communities, and instead move towards more peaceful coping strategies and gender equality. The programme has led to improved attitudes and behaviour towards women and children, including more peaceful partner relations, reductions in men's alcohol use, reduced sexual violence, improvements in men's control of their frustration and aggression, greater income sharing by men with their partners, happier children, and improved health outcomes (Hassink 2015).

5.4.2 Initiatives to empower women and girls

In Haiti, the Espas Pa Mwen programme has delivered financial literacy training, mentoring and safe spaces to access services for 1,000 disaster affected girls aged 10-19 years. The programme has helped to increase girls' access to education, health and literacy resources, and to reduce their risk of poverty and gender based violence. The Empowerment and Livelihood for Adolescents programme in Uganda has similar aims, and has benefitted 4,800 displaced girls aged 14-20 (Caton et al 2014).

In Jordan, ARDD-Legal Aid has set up a programme to train Syrian refugee women as citizen journalists. The programme, in which trainees write stories about their communities once a week to be shared with local stakeholders and media outlets, allows women to think creatively about the problems facing their communities and particular issues such as early marriage (Zaatari 2014).

In the EU, the FORWARD project, which ran from 2011-13, aimed to tackle the disadvantages and discrimination faced by migrant women in the workforce. It did this by promoting the participation of migrant women in adult education as a way to help recognise and translate the skills and competencies that women participants have. For example, because migrants' formal qualifications are often not recognised outside of their countries of origin, and work such as care of dependents is undervalued, FORWARD developed a range of tools that can be used to identify competencies – including those found in unpaid care work, or those developed during the migration process, such as stress management and adapting to change – and validate and transfer these in new employment contexts, aiding employability and social inclusion. Women participants gained opportunities to re-construct their experiences, giving value to them and putting a name to the abilities they had developed through life (FORWARD 2013, Casals 2015).

Across regions, recent years have seen an increasing collective mobilisation of domestic workers, despite their often extreme isolation and vulnerability to labour exploitation. This mobilisation has often been facilitated by civil society organisations and trade unions. These actors are employing a range of strategies to reach out to and empower migrant domestic workers, and to raise public awareness of the problems they face (Human Rights Watch 2013). In the US, the National Domestic Workers Alliance advocates for the rights of migrant domestic workers and provides advice on employment rights and immigration law (Women Step Forward 2016). In the UK, NGO Kalayaan also supports migrant domestic workers to access their rights. This work includes immigration and employment advice, language classes, anti-trafficking work and campaigning (Kalaayan 2014).

5.4.3 Initiatives to engage migrant women in the development of their home countries

In Italy, the IOM programme ‘Migrant Women for Development in Africa’ (WMIDA) aims to engage West African women migrants in the development of their countries of origin. The programme supports women participants to use remittances to set up small or medium enterprises in their home countries, in partnership with Italian organisations and host communities. The women receive professional training on business development, management and access to credit, and are supported to run their enterprises while still living in Italy. The aims of the programme, which is funded by the Italian government, are to:

- Empower Western Sub Saharan African women living in Italy and promote their role in the socioeconomic development of their countries of origin.
- Mobilise participants’ professional, social and financial resources through entrepreneurial activities that generate jobs, with the support, partnership and co-funding of host communities in Italy.
- Enhance the value of migrant women’s remittances by working with financial and banking institutions in Italy and countries of origin, so as to reduce money transfer fees, create new financial products, and promote the use of savings for productive investments and social initiatives.

(IOM 2015b)

5.4.4 Initiatives to prepare vulnerable groups before they migrate

In Bangladesh, IOM worked with the government’s Bureau of Manpower Employment and Training to provide training for Bangladeshi women to prepare them for domestic work abroad. The training was based on the ILO’s manual on domestic work for migrant workers. In addition to care of the elderly and children, and health and hygiene, the training also covered areas such as personal and professional safety, remittances and language skills. As many undocumented female Bangladeshi migrants are believed to be engaged in domestic work across Asia and the Middle East, this training aimed to help improve the social and professional skills of potential women migrants, and increase their status through an internationally acceptable certification (IOM 2009a).

In Libya, the UNHCR developed a ‘Know Before You Go’ campaign in to try and raise awareness among people of concern travelling as part of mixed migratory movements about the difficulties they might face (UNHCR 2014).

5.4.5 Initiatives working with children and adolescents

The work of the Separated Children in Europe Programme is focused on improving the situation of unaccompanied and separated children in Europe. It has set up a network of partners across Europe who link up NGO interventions in countries of origin and destination. The Terre des Hommes Foundation, based in Switzerland, works with unaccompanied children moving between Albania and Greece, and Benin and Nigeria. Terre des Hommes Netherlands does similar work to protect children moving within Southeast Asia, through partner networks in Lao People's Democratic Republic, Cambodia, Viet Nam, Philippines, Indonesia and Thailand (Shuteriqi 2013).

In Jordan, several NGOs are working with local volunteers to set up child protection committees. International Relief and Development (IRD), for example, is working with refugee women volunteers, who serve on the committees as 'walkers' to accompany children to and from school, while identifying risks and safety zones. They also visit children's homes to discuss health issues and identify vulnerable populations (Zaatari 2014).

5.4.6 Initiatives to improve access to education

In Kenya, UNHCR and its partners worked with government to register schools in refugee camps within the national system, promoting the sustainability of refugee education. Over 90 primary school teachers were trained, including 15 for children with special needs, a school feeding programme was introduced and school infrastructure was expanded (UNHCR 2014).

In Lebanon, NGO IQRA has worked with UNESCO and education officials to train Syrian and Lebanese teachers on learner centred approaches and minimum standards for education in emergencies. In the same country, the International Rescue Committee's employment centre teaches literacy, life skills, business and languages to young people (Ahmadzadeh et al 2014).

In Jordan, the Norwegian Refugee Council and Save the Children's youth projects run sport, art, craft and gardening courses; activities proven to help people process their experiences of migration, war and loss (Ahmadzadeh et al 2014).

5.4.7 Initiatives promoting participatory approaches

In the Zaatari refugee camp in Jordan, ActionAid developed a community management programme. Leadership circles were set up in each block, containing 10-15 people. Each circle had to include at least two women, one female youth and one male youth. The circles worked together to address local challenges and identify the root causes of problems. At first men were hesitant about their female family members participating in the circles, but over time this is changing, and the women's contributions are now more valued (Zaatari 2014).

In Sierra Leone, UNHCR and its civil society partners instigated a participatory process to gain refugees' inputs into refugee camp management. Refugee women reported that decision making was dominated by men and that women and girls had lower access to food and other household items. One strategy adopted to deal with this was the creation of a new representation system, which included:

- A Refugee Executive Committee elected through universal voting and with reserved positions for women and youth
- A committee of elders representing different ethnic groups and religions

- A grievance committee to administer justice
- Reorganised subcommittees on child protection and sexual and gender based violence

The number of women in the executive committee remained low, but women's participation in subcommittees increased. Women's participation in camp administration increased by 45 per cent (IASC 2006).

5.4.8 Initiatives to identify alternatives to immigration detention

Research conducted by the International Detention Coalition has identified more than 250 examples of alternatives to detention being used in over 60 countries in the global south and north, including those with large numbers of mixed migrants and fewer resources. Recognising that many different groups of people are at risk of immigration detention, including stateless persons, trafficking victims, labour migrants, visa overstayers and irregular migrants, the alternatives cover a range of contexts. Examples include community reception, regular reporting and review, facilitating lawful status, preparing individuals for independent departure, intensive case resolution, prohibiting the detention of vulnerable individuals, screening and assessment, and appointment of a guardian. The benefits of these alternatives are that they:

- Improve compliance with immigration and case resolution processes
- Cost less than detention
- Reduce wrongful detention and litigation
- Reduce overcrowding and long term detention
- Increase voluntary or independent departure rates
- Respect, protect and fulfil human rights
- Can help stabilise vulnerable individuals in transit
- Improve integration outcomes for approved cases
- Improve individual health and wellbeing
- Improve local infrastructure and other migrant support systems

(Sampson et al 2015)

5.4.9 Initiatives to mainstream gender awareness into border management

In Nepal, civil society organisation Maiti collaborated in a project with border police to identify trafficked women and girls, pinpoint police corruption and create a policewoman's unit to work with Maiti's border surveillance team. Maiti conducts training for border police on human trafficking and also conducts outreach with religious leaders, teachers, bus drivers, border officials and hotel owners to create awareness of trafficking. In Kosovo, the International Centre for Migration Policy Development developed training on human trafficking for border and boundary police (Mackay 2008).

5.4.10 Initiatives to improve conditions for returning women migrants

In the Philippines, government recognised NGOs have supported returning women labour migrants to invest their savings independently, rather than handing over control to men in their families. In Bangladesh, NGOs play a similar role, supporting women returning to villages from work in domestic services or garment factories in cities, so that they can keep control of their saved earnings (Ghosh 2009).

5.4.11 Initiatives to raise awareness of vulnerable migrants' rights and to promote positive images of migrants and refugees

In Thailand, Singapore, Bahrain and the United Arab Emirates, government agencies have worked with partners to produce guidance, leaflets, community radio programmes and online information on migrant workers' rights and the dangers of trafficking (UN Women 2013).

The 'I am a Migrant' global campaign, jointly supported by the International Organisation for Migration and the Joint Council for the Welfare of Immigrants, is a space for collective action to challenge anti-migrant stereotypes, xenophobia and hate speech (I am a Migrant 2016). In response to the European refugee crisis, the 'Refugees Welcome' campaign has spread across countries and communities. Beginning in Germany, this initiative, which involves the promotion of positive images of refugees and encouraging members of the public to offer their spare rooms or flat shares to refugees, quickly spread across Europe and to Canada (Refugees Welcome International 2016).

6 Challenges, opportunities and future priorities

Addressing the gender and age related dimensions of migration brings a number of challenges, especially around incomplete data and translating policy into practice. This section outlines some of these, before moving on to consider the opportunities offered by the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development to bring more gender and age sensitive approaches to migration policy and practice. The section concludes with a series of recommendations for policy development and implementation.

6.1 Challenges to developing gender and age sensitive migration policies

There are a number of obstacles faced by those who wish to create, implement and evaluate gender and age sensitive migration policies that can have real impact in practice. These include restricted resources, negative public opinion around migration, fast moving humanitarian situations and weak institutional capacity for mainstreaming equality issues. Two specific challenges are discussed below; gaps between policy and practice, and gaps in evidence and data.

6.1.1 Gaps between policy and practice

As the evidence reviewed in previous sections illustrates, it is clear that humanitarian and development actors have developed a range of policies with the aim of identifying gender and age specific issues around migration. It is also clear, however, that in many cases these policies are not implemented in practice, and that the different needs of women, men, girls and boys are not being recognised or met in a range of migration contexts. While humanitarian actors are increasingly collecting data disaggregated by gender and age, this data is not always used to inform programming to address the different needs of women, men, girls and boys. Awareness of this failing has led some agencies and organisations to invest in integrating gender into planning and implementation. Some have introduced the Gencap (Gender Standby Capacity Project) adviser role as a way to bring greater attention to the issues face by girls and women, along with expertise on tools, training and using gender markers (Zaatari 2014).

As the examples below show, the translation of gender and age sensitive policies into practice relies on a number of enabling factors. These include improved systems for identifying at risk groups, capacity building for intermediaries and frontline staff on equality and vulnerability issues, improving the availability and use of disaggregated data, and strengthening and supporting sector specific and targeted services for vulnerable groups. Some recommendations on these issues are included in section 6.3, below.

Focus: Implementing UNHCR guidelines on the prevention of sexual and gender based violence in displacement situations

UNHCR has developed a policy and guidelines on the prevention of sexual and gender based violence in situations of displacement. This includes standards and minimum procedures for reporting, referral and case management, taking a community, participatory and rights based approach. While evaluations show that the policy and guidelines are helping UNHCR to play an important role in preventing and responding to SGBV, they also highlight the challenges experienced in

implementing the policy. These challenges include:

- Protracted refugee situations where people are living in camps for many years.
- While there is a clear focus on sexual violence against women, work to address other forms of gender based violence, including that experienced by girls, boys, men and LGBT people remains limited.
- The practical application of a rights and community based, participatory approach varies significantly across countries and has been negatively affected by financial and time constraints, high staff turnover and lack of training.

Recommendations to address these challenges include:

- Prioritise local integration for refugees, devise exit strategies for camps and create livelihood opportunities that empower refugees and protect people of concern from SGBV.
- Develop specific policies and strategies for different types of SGBV and to address the needs of different groups.
- Improve efforts to mainstream prevention of SGBV, including by:
 - Improving training on SGBV for UNHCR and implementing partner staff.
 - Having SGBV officers who oversee, but do not implement, the mainstreaming of SGBV in field offices.
 - Ensuring that senior management take a prominent role in leading UNHCR's response to SGBV.
 - Regular and mandatory training and retraining on SGBV for all UNHCR staff.
 - Improved strategies for knowledge management and information sharing within UNHCR and partner organisations.
 - Deepen partnerships and collaboration with NGOs and civil society organisations who have been working to end SGBV for many years.

Source: Rothkegel et al (2008)

Focus: Translating policy into practice - the humanitarian response to the refugee crisis in Serbia and Macedonia

An evaluation of the international humanitarian response to the refugee crisis in Serbia and Macedonia in 2015 found some positive examples of efforts to respond to the protection risks and specific needs of refugee and migrant women and girls. These included: collection and reporting on sex and age disaggregated data through the asylum registration system; mobile protection teams to identify and fast track vulnerable groups; distribution of dignity kits and women's clothing; and some targeted services in reception centres.

However, the evaluation also identified a number of areas where gender and age sensitive responses were not occurring in practice. These included:

- Registration systems were not comprehensive enough to identify and refer at risk groups effectively.
- Qualitative data on vulnerable groups was limited.
- Coordination between government and humanitarian actors was inconsistent.

- The capacity of frontline actors around issues of gender based violence needed to be strengthened.
- Sector specific services such as gynaecology, psychosocial support and trauma counselling were limited or missing.

Recommendations to improve this situation included:

- Ensure that all response and contingency plans for the refugee crisis are in line with international humanitarian and human rights standards, and adhere to IASC guidelines on gender and GBV.
- Ensure that responses are evidence based, by strengthening the accuracy of national registration systems and continuing to collect sex and age disaggregated data.
- Strengthen coordinated action on mainstreaming gender responsive programming and advocacy, including by:
 - Involving national gender machineries in response planning.
 - Appointing a full time gender adviser to provide technical support to UN country teams.
 - Establishing a regional network of NGOs, including women’s organisations, to work on responses from countries of origin, transit and destination, and to carry out joint advocacy.
 - Assisting local governments to promote positive attitudes towards refugees among host communities.
- Strengthen national capacity to respond to the specific needs of vulnerable women and girls, by:
 - Increasing the number of field based staff with expertise in gender, GBV and female health, as well as those with relevant language skills.
 - Building the capacity of local service providers on issues of GBV, women’s rights, cultural sensitivity, non-discrimination, psychological first aid and prevention of sexual exploitation.
 - Building the capacity of state social workers and national gender machineries so that they can play a more operational role in the response.
- Provide immediate and medium term priority services, such as women only spaces, mobile gynaecology, GBV prevention and protection services, safe and accessible shelters with family and sex segregated areas, including WASH facilities, and establishing protocols to provide non-food items that benefit women, men, girls and boys equally, delivered with safety and dignity.

Adapted from: Wolfensohn (2016)

6.1.2 Evidence and data gaps

If policymaking and implementation of strategies on migration – whether focusing on labour migration, forced displacement or family reunification – is to be effective and inclusive, then it must be based on robust evidence. There are several areas where evidence gaps exist, as outlined in the sections below.

Disaggregated data

As discussed earlier in section 2, data disaggregated by gender and age are missing in many areas related to migration. Reliable disaggregated data are much needed in order to map trends and changes in age and gender and migration patterns worldwide and in particular contexts. The most problematic areas are fast moving situations of mass displacement and irregular migration.

In humanitarian contexts, it is essential to know who is affected and who at risk groups are. Population data should always be broken down by age, gender and other relevant factors such as ethnicity, religion and disability (IASC 2006). Data on the impacts of humanitarian assistance also need to be disaggregated, in order to make sure that target groups are benefitting from interventions.

One of the targets of the new Global Goals for Sustainable Development is to build the capacity of states to collect and make available high quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts (see section 6.2, below). If progress is made towards achieving this target, and the data collected are then used to inform policymaking and practice, then this will make a significant contribution toward more gender and age sensitive planning and responses around migration.

Accessible information on migration policies and strategies

Obtaining information on the migration policies and approaches of key global and regional actors (such as governments and development agencies) can be difficult, as the evidence reviewed as part of this briefing shows. Information on this area will need to become more readily available and accessible if states are to report successfully on the new Global Goal for Sustainable Development in which countries are required to ‘facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies’ (for more information see section 6.2, below). Below are some existing sources of information on migration policies and strategies, as well as some new sources currently under development.

UNDESA International Migration Policies 2013

This analysis presents data on the national immigration and emigration policies of 200 countries. It considers each country’s view on immigration, its policy on highly skilled workers, family reunification, naturalisation and integration of non-nationals. It also considers each country’s view on emigration, and its policy on encouraging the return of citizens and attracting investment by diaspora. It contains information on the percentage of females among international migrants, but it does not include analysis of national policies from a gender or age perspective (UNDESA 2013b, 2013c).

Migrant Integration Policy Index 2015

This index measures policies to integrate migrants in all EU Member States, as well as Australia, Canada, Iceland, Japan, South Korea, New Zealand, Norway, Switzerland, Turkey and the USA. It uses 167 policy indicators to evaluate and compare government strategies to integrate migrants. It considers policies in the areas of labour market mobility, family reunification, education, health, political participation, permanent residence, access to nationality and anti-discrimination. Comparative analysis is presented for each of these areas; this includes some recognition of gender and age issues when referring to negative impacts of policies on vulnerable groups (MIPEX 2015).

IOM Composite Index of Migration Policies

This index is being developed by IOM and the Economist Intelligence Unit. It is intended to be a tool to track progress toward new Global Goal 10.7, and its target on planned and well managed migration policies. The index includes both qualitative and quantitative indicators and will consider five areas of migration governance: institutional capacity, migrant rights and integration, migration management, labour, economics and investment, and regional and international cooperation and partnerships. Information on if and how the index will measure the gender or age dimensions of such policies is not available (IOM 2015c).

International Migration Policy and Law Analysis Database

This database, which is not yet publically searchable, will capture trends in immigration selection policy, naturalisation policy, irregular immigration policy and bilateral agreements across 20 OECD countries (IMPALA 2016).

Research

Not enough is known about the dynamics of the current refugee crisis in the EU; the motivations and hopes of those on the move, the family and other connections they are trying to reach, their experiences in transit and what happens if and when they reach their end destinations. To help bridge this gap, the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC), with co-funding from the UK Department for International Development (DFID) and the Mediterranean Migration Research Programme, is supporting eight projects in UK universities to help construct a better evidence base on the crisis (ESRC 2015). It is hoped that some of these projects will identify the gender and age dimensions of the crisis, and help create better understandings of the challenges of irregular migration for vulnerable groups.

There are also research gaps around the gender and age dimensions of other, longstanding situations of displacement and crisis involving south-south migration. As noted in section 5.2, in some African countries with high populations of displaced people, settlement and integration strategies have been adapted and well received by international humanitarian actors. Little evidence is available however, on if and how these strategies consider the gendered dimensions of integration, and how gender identity intersects with other factors such as age, ethnicity or sexuality. In Asia and the Pacific, where integration strategies are less common and large numbers of displaced people (in particular from Afghanistan and Myanmar) are living in urban environments without adequate protection (UNHCR 2015b), improved knowledge on the gendered and intersectional drivers and experiences of migration and forced displacement would help humanitarian and development efforts as well as advocacy for the rights of migrants and refugees.

As section 6.1.1 noted, there are significant gaps between the gender and age sensitive policies and strategies that have been developed in the last decade, and practice on the ground, particularly around emergency response. Research examining the reasons for these gaps and identifying good practice examples where they exist would be extremely useful.

Another area where knowledge is limited and more research would be beneficial is that of new technologies of surveillance and border policies – including the privatisation of some of this sector such as shared EU databases – and its impact on vulnerable groups such as women and children.

It would also be useful to generate more evidence on integration programmes and their relationship with women's lives and empowerment, particularly relating to south

to north migration. The gendered dimensions of discrimination, xenophobia and islamophobia faced by both new and old migrants in the global north is also under researched.

The gender and age dynamics of migration-development links is another area where further research would be useful. In terms of gender, more evidence on global care chains would allow analysis of the impacts of female labour migration in countries of origin. Are there any examples of mitigation strategies that involve equitable redistribution of care work, rather than transference of unpaid tasks from one women to another?

6.2 Opportunities to develop gender and age sensitive migration policies

While the Millennium Development Goals did not include specific reference to migration, this is not the case for the new 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The Declaration of the 2030 Agenda calls on member states to ‘ensure safe, orderly and regular migration with full respect for human rights and for the humane treatment of migrants, regardless of their migration status, and of refugees and internally displaced persons’ (UNDESA 2015b:2). The Addis Ababa Agenda, agreed in 2015 as part of the 2030 Agenda, calls on member states to ensure that ‘migration is governed with full respect for human rights, to combat xenophobia, and to facilitate migrant integration through education of migrant and refugee children and through social communication strategies’ (UNDESA 2015b:3).

The new Global Goals for Sustainable Development (SDGs) reflect this position, most clearly in target 7 of goal 10, which pledges to ‘facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies.’ Migration is also relevant for several of the other goals and targets, as the box below shows.

Global Goals with direct references to migration

Goal 3: Good health and wellbeing

Target 12: Substantially increase health financing and the recruitment, development, training and retention of the health workforce in developing countries, especially in least developed countries and small island developing states.

Goal 4: Quality education

Target 9: By 2020, substantially expand globally the number of scholarships available to developing countries, in particular least developed countries, small island developing States and African countries, for enrolment in higher education, including vocational training and information and communications technology, technical, engineering and scientific programmes, in developed countries and other developing countries.

Goal 5: Gender equality

Target 2: Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation.

Goal 8: Decent work and economic growth

Target 7: Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labour in all its forms.

Target 8: Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment.

Goal 10: Reducing inequalities

Target 7: Facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies.

Target 10: By 2030, reduce to less than 3 per cent the transaction costs of migrant remittances and eliminate remittance corridors with costs higher than 5 per cent.

Goal 16: Peace, justice and strong institutions

Target 2: End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children.

Target 9: By 2030, provide legal identity for all, including birth registration.

Goal 17: Partnerships for the goals

Target 18: By 2020, enhance capacity-building support to developing countries, including for least developed countries and small island developing States, to increase significantly the availability of high quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts.

Other Global Goals relevant to migration

Goal 1: No poverty

Target 5: By 2030, build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters.

Goal 11: Sustainable cities and communities

Target 5: By 2030, significantly reduce the number of deaths and the number of people affected and substantially decrease the direct economic losses relative to global gross domestic product caused by disasters, including water-related disasters, with a focus on protecting the poor and people in vulnerable situations.

Goal 13: Climate action

Target 1: Strengthen resilience and adaptive capacity to climate related hazards and natural disasters in all countries.

Sources: IOM (2015c) UNDESA (2015b)

Indicators to measure progress on the Global Goals and their targets were proposed in 2015, and after a consultation period, were set to be finalised by April 2016. Proposed indicators to measure goal 10.7 include the number of migrants who have died or have been injured while attempting to reach countries of destination, the number of refugees per 10,000 inhabitants, and the recruitment fees paid by labour migrants (IOM 2015c). While these indicators are welcomed, the need for broader indicators to capture all that 10.7 encompasses was part of the reasoning for the development of the IOM's migration governance index (see section 6.1.2, above).

The 2030 Agenda has brought the links between migration and development back into the spotlight. It presents a key opportunity for looking at migration in an intersectional way; recognising the specific experiences, needs and strengths of particular groups of migrants and refugees, and addressing these through inclusive, sensitive and evidence based policymaking. In order to grasp this opportunity, it is essential to mainstream not only migration throughout the Global Goals, but also gender, and other characteristics such as age. The next section contains some recommendations to help the development and implementation of gender and age sensitive migration policies.

6.3 Recommendations for policymaking and implementation

This section builds on evidence and learning discussed throughout the briefing so far. It presents a set of recommendations for gender and age sensitive policymaking on migration, categorised into recommendations for national and regional policy, development assistance, humanitarian response, strategies in countries of origin, strategies in countries of destination, ways of working, and evidence and data.

6.3.1 National and regional policymaking on migration

- In regional and national policymaking on migration related issues, seek to create safe and legal migration pathways, including gender and age sensitive family reunification, labour migration and asylum systems.
- Impact assess all new policy on migration (and existing policies that have not been assessed in this way) to ensure that the human rights of people of all genders and ages are respected and that relevant international standards such as the UN Convention on the Protection of the rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families and CEDAW are adhered to. Check that migration channels can be equally accessed by women and men; that they are not based on a male breadwinner model, and do not reinforce gender or age inequalities. For example, points based migration systems should recognise women's roles as primary carers and allow for the impact these roles have on the accumulation of income and experience.
- Impact assess all new policy on migration (and existing policies that have not been assessed in this way) to assess its effect on child rights and ensure relevant international standards such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child are adhered to. Ensure that migration policies and practices treat children as individual rights holders, whether they are accompanied by adults or not.
- Continually adjust migration policies and processes in order to respond to changing demographic and economic conditions and learning from past experience.

Labour migration

- Develop gender sensitive labour migration policies that recognise the feminisation of labour migration in many areas and take into account the different demands on, and decisions made by, female and male migrant workers.
- Ensure that domestic work and private care related services are included in the development of labour migration admission policies, so that these policies reflect actual demand and reduce the likelihood of female labour migrants working irregularly in these areas.
- Mitigate against exploitation in the development of employment permits and visas. Permits that tie migrants to particular employers have enabled recruiters and employers to discriminate against and exploit vulnerable migrant workers; in particular female domestic workers.

Forced and irregular migration

- Create and maintain safe and legal channels for people fleeing conflict and persecution. Creating such channels will decrease demand for irregular migration and smuggling networks, and potentially save many lives. Allowing applications for asylum to be made at land borders would mean that fewer vulnerable people would resort to life threatening sea and land journeys.
- Develop measures to ensure that vulnerable groups such as women, older and disabled people, boys and girls can access formal migration channels.
- Approach human trafficking and smuggling from a human rights perspective; aiming both to target perpetrators and support, protect and empower victims.
- Discontinue the immigration detention of children, families with children and other vulnerable groups including survivors of SGBV and torture and pregnant women. Cease the separation of families through detention.
- Discontinue bilateral and third country agreements to manage migration that threaten the human rights of refugees and migrants and perpetuate gender and age inequalities.

Family reunification

- Develop family reunification policies that take a rights based approach and do not discriminate on the grounds of gender or age, or perpetuate existing inequalities.
- Implement timely family reunification policies, most especially for refugees and asylum seekers including unaccompanied children, so that family members can join their relatives safely and avoid being stranded in transit.

6.3.2 Development assistance

- Develop migration policies alongside development cooperation goals, in order to ensure links between the two that can enable developing countries to benefit from migration.
- Through development assistance, seek to build the capacity of partner countries to approach migration related issues in gender and age sensitive ways. This could include supporting equality impact assessment processes and encouraging the inclusion of national gender machineries in the development of migration policy, or involving diaspora networks in strategies to encourage repatriation of skilled emigrants or to maximise the use of remittances.

6.3.3 Humanitarian response

- Develop strategies and practices to make sure that humanitarian agencies' existing policies, guidelines and markers on gender, age and equality are implemented in practice. This might include:
 - Building political will at senior management level.
 - Institutional equality mainstreaming, capacity building and training that is well resourced and mandatory, and extends to partners and subcontractors.
 - Recruitment and strategic placement of staff with specific expertise on gender, age and other equality areas.
 - Working closely with local women's rights and other civil society organisations, as well as national gender machineries.
 - Taking a participatory approach, and learning from vulnerable groups about their needs and strengths.

- Create opportunities for mutual learning and sharing of good practice on the implementation of existing policies. Feed the results of this learning into future training, capacity building and practice.

6.3.4 Strategies and approaches in countries of origin

- Ensure that the gender and age dimensions of migration and remittances are mainstreamed into national development and poverty reduction strategies.
- Invest in education, employment and income generation opportunities in countries with high levels of out-migration, in order to encourage development and provide alternatives to migration. Develop targeted programmes in this area which empower and value groups such as young women and girls.
- Adopt, enact and enforce rights based legislation that prohibits discrimination and promotes equality and inclusion. Support work to tackle discriminatory social norms that fuel and perpetuate gender and age inequalities in countries with high out-migration.
- Repeal legal barriers to migration such as those that require women to get permission from a male spouse in order to travel, or that ban migration on the basis of age, marital status or pregnancy/maternity status.
- Develop initiatives to help redistribute care work when women migrate, which promote gender equality and sharing of care burdens and do not impact adversely on the care of children or older people.
- Strengthen systems of financial support for those left behind when family members migrate. This might include improved access to banking or credit, as well as training on income generation activities.
- Develop and encourage pre-departure information and training for people considering labour migration, with a particular focus on women and girls.
- Regulate and monitor recruitment agencies to identify unscrupulous practice and promote the use of employment contracts before departure.
- Develop reintegration programmes for returning migrants so that women and young people can transfer any economic and social benefits accrued abroad, access employment opportunities, grants and loans, and reintegrate successfully into communities.

6.3.5 Strategies and approaches in host/ destination and transit countries

- Develop mechanisms to detect vulnerable groups on arrival, and procedures to identify and support survivors of sexual and gender based violence or victims of trafficking or smuggling.
- Ensure that female migrants and refugees have access to all necessary services, such as health (including reproductive health), nutrition, education, legal assistance and access to justice. Ensure that these services are gender sensitive and recognise cultural, linguistic and religious differences.
- Ensure that female migrants and refugees have equal access to the labour market and to decent work, formal employment rights and freedom of association. Support initiatives to recognise, translate and adapt existing skills and qualifications, and to retrain if necessary.

- Ensure that migrant and refugee children have equal access to education, health and social services, and shelter regardless of residence status.
- Work to promote positive images of migration and female and male migrants in public awareness campaigns designed to challenge xenophobia and Islamophobia. Increase awareness of the productive and essential roles migrant women play in both paid and unpaid work.
- Encourage and enable the participation of all migrants and refugees in the political and social life of their new communities and countries, with a particular focus on underrepresented groups such as women and girls.

6.3.6 Ways of working

- Encourage and engage in partnership working involving international, government, humanitarian, civil society, diaspora and private sector actors in destination and home countries. Promote better communication on migration management; not only between different actors but also within different ministries or departments of the same institutions.
- Promote south-south and south-north cooperation and collaboration on all areas of migration. This could enable, for example, the development of memorandums of understanding on the rights of female migrant workers, ethical recruitment codes, agreements to tackle trafficking and smuggling in a rights based way, improvements to remittance channels used by women, or strategies to build and support diaspora networks or encourage repatriation of knowledge and skills.
- Take a participatory approach wherever possible; involve and engage vulnerable groups such as women, girls, boys and older people in planning of policy and practice on migration. Collaborate with equality experts and women's organisations in policy development, implementation and evaluation.
- Ensure that policies on equality and inclusion are both championed at a high level and mainstreamed throughout the government, development and humanitarian agencies (and third partner subcontractors) tasked with managing migration, protecting vulnerable migrants and refugees, monitoring and enforcing borders and welcoming and assisting those arriving in transit and destination countries.
- Invest in regularly building the capacity of intermediary and frontline migration actors in issues of vulnerability and equality, and ensuring that these actors are supported to translate new learning into practice. Support the recruitment, retention and advancement of women in border control and immigration services.

6.3.7 Evidence and data

- Build the capacity of state, regional and local governments, along with organisations working on the ground with migrants and refugees to collect, analyse and use data disaggregated by migratory status, gender and age (and the other characteristics specified in Global Goal 17.18). Ensure that this takes place in transit as well as destination countries, and in internally displaced populations too.
- Support research that addresses key evidence gaps in the area of gender, age, migration and vulnerability (including those identified in section 6.1 above).
- Regularly evaluate migration policy and practice, measuring gender and age sensitivity, and impacts and outcomes for vulnerable groups. Feed learning from this process into future work.

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