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**Pre-Conference Workshop**  
**11th International Metropolis Conference**  
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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

PREFACE.....	i
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	ii
WORKSHOP REPORT	
Alexandra Dobrowolsky.....	1
OPENING REMARKS: WOMEN MIGRANTS IN PORTUGAL	
Lucinda Fonseca.....	19
WOMEN AND MIGRATION – GENERAL INTRODUCTION	
Nicola Piper.....	22
PANEL I: ECONOMIC ISSUES	
Migrant Women and the Nordic Labour Markets, Berit Berg.....	39
Irregular Migration and the Trampoline Effect, Gabriella Lazaridis.....	40
The Influence of Occupational Structure of the Labour Market Experiences of Immigrant Women, Lori Wilkinson.....	41
Migrant Women, Labour Markets and the Implications for Immigration Policies in the United Kingdom, Eleonore Kofman.....	50
PANEL 2: SOCIAL/HEALTH ISSUES	
Migrant Health Around the Time of Birth, Anita Gagnon.....	53
Gender Migration and Re-Migration, Lilach Lev Ari.....	62
Right People, Right Research, Right Policy, Bilkis Vissandjée.....	69
PANEL 3: HUMAN RIGHTS ISSUES	
Women and Migration in Portugal, Elza Deus Pais.....	73
Women’s Rights and Migrants’ Rights, Audrey Macklin.....	75
CLOSING PANEL: POLICY IMPLICATIONS OF PRESENTED RESEARCH AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS	
Summary of Key Points, Barbro Bakken.....	76
Summary of Key Points, Tzvetelina Kowatschew.....	76
Immigration, Health Interventions and Gender-Sensitive Policies, Marie Desmeules.....	79
A Strategic Framework Approach, Eva Lazar.....	81
BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES.....	87
APPENDIXES	
A: Agenda.....	91
B: Workshop Flyer.....	94
C: Organizing Committee.....	95
D: Advisory Committee.....	96

## PREFACE

This report presents the proceedings from the workshop on Women and Migration, held on October 2, 2006 as a full-day event preceding the 11th International Metropolis Conference in Lisbon, Portugal. The workshop was made possible by a successful collaboration of several organizations under the leadership of the Research Directorate, Status of Women Canada, with Metropolis Project, Citizenship and Immigration Canada, the Public Health Agency of Canada, the Department of Integration and Diversity in the Ministry of Labour and Social Inclusion, Norway and Lisbon conference organizers.

As a long-term partner in the Metropolis Project, SWC took the initiative to organize a full-day workshop to examine the increasing global trend in feminization of migration. The 11th International Metropolis Conference was the most timely and appropriate venue to bring together researchers and policy makers to discuss key issues that migrant women face today. This was the first time since the inception of the Metropolis Project that a full-day, gender-specific policy research workshop was held at the annual international conference.

What made this workshop particularly successful were the outstanding contributions of the speakers and other active participants, including a high level of conference delegate participation. The program featured four panels organized around economic, social/health, human rights and policy research issues. Participants were welcomed by Maria Lucinda Fonseca, University of Lisbon, on behalf of the Organizing Committee of the 11th International Metropolis Conference. The workshop was co-chaired by Zeynep Karman (Director, Research, SWC) and Eva Haagensen (Ministry of Labour and Social Inclusion, Norway), and it included 14 speakers and 4 moderators. We heard from both Canadian and international experts from Norway, Portugal, Israel, Germany, Austria, Singapore and the United Kingdom.

A constructive dialogue ensued from the workshop clearly establishing the value of integrating gender in all aspects of migration research and policy development, and stressing the importance of transferring gender-based knowledge to policy makers for developing more equitable and inclusive migration policies.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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We also wish to acknowledge the key contribution of the Advisory Group, consisting of a team of renowned Canadian experts in the field of women and migration who played a pivotal role in providing the conceptual framework for the workshop and developing key areas for discussion. The Advisory Group members were Audrey Macklin, University of Toronto; Marie-Thérèse Chicha, Université de Montréal; Evangelia Tastsoglou, Saint Mary's University; Caroline Andrew, University of Ottawa; Marie DesMeules, Public Health Agency; and Elisabeth Barot, UNESCO, Canadian office.

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Zeynep Karman  
Director of Research



# WORKSHOP REPORT

Alexandra Dobrowolsky

## Part I: Introduction

On October 2, 2006, Status of Women Canada organized the *Women and Migration Workshop*, an all day, pre-conference event marking the start of the 11th Annual International Metropolis Conference in Lisbon, Portugal (October 2-5, 2006).

The *Women and Migration Workshop* was ambitious in both its breadth and depth. Four broadly themed panels structured the workshop and covered the following interrelated subject areas: economic concerns, social and health issues, human rights debates, and policy implications and future directions. The workshop's depth was derived from the wealth of experience and insights of the invited panelists, both academics and state officials from Canada and an array of European countries (including Germany, Israel, Norway, Portugal and the United Kingdom). Beyond the panelists, participants (who filled a large auditorium) were similarly well versed in local and global gendered migration matters. As a result, the level of analysis was high, spurring informed, lively and engaged discussions throughout the day and helping to advance understandings and practices concerning migrant women.

This report offers highlights from the *Women and Migration Workshop*, synthesizing presentations, summarizing significant contentions made and conclusions drawn in the presentations as well as the discussions that followed them. Beyond Part I (the introduction), Part II contains an overview of the main workshop themes; Part III provides a synopsis of key discussions and emphases; and Part IV concludes the report.

## Part II: Main Themes: An Overview

Six clear themes arose in the *Women and Migration Workshop* and reverberated throughout the presentations and discussions. First, although the feminization of migration has become a growing, global trend, the topic of women and migration is still typically unrecognized or under-researched: marginalized in mainstream migration studies and all too often overlooked or ignored in policy-making circles.

Second, beyond the need for a focus on women, it was emphasized time and again, that the study of women and migration must also include an intersectional analysis. That is, intersecting identities of race, ethnicity, religion, caste, class and so on, are critical variables that must be examined to get a more complete picture of gendered migration and socio-economic impacts from employment opportunities to health outcomes for migrant women.

Third, a careful consideration of context, whether that includes weighing the differences between the global South and the global North, or whether it involves gaining a better appreciation, through comparative analysis, of distinctions between similarly situated states, is also of crucial significance. A deeper understanding of both the micro and macro social, political and economic environment is necessary at transnational, national and sub-national

levels. Moreover, when researching women migrants' labour market integration challenges, more cross-sectoral studies are necessary with both country-specific as well as cross-national studies. Thus, intersectional analyses of women and migration must also include contextual analyses.

Fourth, the pervasiveness of old and new forms of racialization was an ongoing theme. Whether presenters were discussing Britain, Canada, Greece, Norway or Portugal, racial hierarchies and ethnic stereotyping were common problems. Racialized women in these countries faced more precarious economic, social and political situations. Racialization has had a negative impact on everything from migrant women's employment opportunities, to their health and general well-being.

Fifth, the influence of economic imperatives and market-based calculations was a theme running through all the presentations. This was particularly evident in discussions about the challenges migrant women face around "skill" designations. The preference for skilled migrants has typically worked against women migrants as skill has been defined in highly circumscribed ways based on economically driven calculations. Currently, ever finer distinctions from highly skilled, to semi-skilled and unskilled, exacerbate the matter and underscore the political construction of "skill." Prevalent problems of de-skilling and even the phenomenon of up-skilling were also discussed as was the need to broaden conceptions of skill to take into consideration women's wide and varied skill sets. These discussions and the frequent discussion of women's labour market integration issues underscore the pre-eminence of economic priorities.

Sixth and finally, there was a continuing debate about the use and utility of rights-based strategies to ameliorate socio-economic and political conditions for migrant women. Presentations early in the day called for a multi-faceted rights-based approach, but the specifics were not clear, and as the workshop unfolded, and more discussions took place, it became increasingly apparent that along with the promise of rights there were also pitfalls, particularly when it came to linking women's rights with migrant rights. One consequence that can arise is that of portraying women migrants as victims. While this can have strategic potential, the victim trope can be a double-edged sword. Thus, it became apparent that the rights route and its repercussions must be problematized and critically assessed.

### **Part III: Key Discussions and Pivotal Emphases**

#### ***Introduction to Workshop***

Zeynep Karman opened the workshop by welcoming all participants and introducing Ms. Lucinda Fonseca. Lucinda Fonseca's welcoming address set the context and overall tone for the workshop. She began by underscoring the fact that, although issues of gender and migration would be addressed throughout the 11th Annual Metropolis Conference, there still were no plenary sessions devoted exclusively to women migrants during the three-day conference. Eva Haagenen, who chaired this introductory session, shared this view and reminded participants of unsuccessful attempts to hold a plenary on women and migration at previous Metropolis conferences. Haagenen, like Fonseca, noted that the Lisbon conference

did, however, show some significant improvement in the number of workshops dealing with women and migration overall. Similar sentiments were echoed by others throughout the day. In her opening remarks, Lucinda Fonseca commented that while there has been marked progress on the topic of women and migration, “gender blind” research is still a problem and thus, the aim of this full-day, pre-conference workshop was to begin to fill in the gaps. In particular, the goal was to add a more comparative dimension to the study of women and migration from which conclusions can be drawn that can produce concrete policy recommendations.

To begin this comparative work, and given the conference’s setting, Fonseca provided a brief overview of recent immigration trends in Portugal highlighting the high percentage of women migrants arriving from Brazil, Africa and Eastern Europe. She also noted marked variations in their education and skill levels (e.g., women from Eastern Europe tend to have higher educational qualifications) as well as the all too familiar gendered norms and forms of racialization that are present in Portugal as they are elsewhere. For instance, African women migrants tend to enter Portugal primarily on a family basis; and Brazilian women migrants, despite their language competency (i.e., in terms of the Portuguese language) and more advanced skill levels, still end up working in the service industry (e.g., in coffee shops, in Lisbon).

Broadening the discussion from the local, to the global level, and by way of introduction to the next speaker, Eva Haagenen noted the release of studies by the United Nations that confirmed not only that international migration is growing, but that it can be a positive force for development for both the country of origin and host countries (e.g., the May 2006 report on international migration and development of the UN Secretary-General). The catch is that these positive repercussions can only occur if international migration is supported by the right sets of policies whereby migrant women and children receive special consideration. More of a global forum for these issues is necessary, an observation which led Haagenen to go on to introduce the next speaker, Nicola Piper, who had been commissioned by Secretary-General Kofi Annan to write a UN Report and to initiate such a dialogue.

Nicola Piper provided a rich and full overview of pivotal, gendered global migration issues with numerous insights on current developments. She began by reminding workshop participants that while gender certainly matters, so too do crucial differences on the basis of class, caste, race, ethnicity, as well as migration status, skill and so on. Moreover, gendered axes of stratification are present in both countries of origin and destination countries and these lead to complex dynamics of inclusion and exclusion.

Piper surveyed recent developments pinpointing two major themes: migration management and migration as a tool for development. Increased global migration flows have given rise to a number of major policy concerns including the proliferation of undocumented or irregular migrants, the growing phenomenon of temporary migration and circular migration, the prevalence of skilled and unskilled distinctions, continuing human displacement, and the increasing attention paid to the impact of migration on social development. And, echoing comments made earlier, Piper concurred that despite the feminization of migration (given increased participation of women in all migration streams, the demand for feminized jobs

and so on) the gender implications of these themes and policy issues are under-researched. For instance, there are still high levels of statistical invisibility for women. Piper elaborated with some explanations for the feminization of migration. These range from the rising participation of women in all migration streams (with family reunification predominating in the North, but temporary schemes and irregular channels being more common for countries in the South), to the increased demand for feminized jobs in destination countries and the decreasing ability of men to find employment. Despite this feminization of migration, the data on this trend are not forthcoming for various reasons: women are often found in areas that are difficult to document, they are irregular migrants, they are highly represented in informal and unregulated sectors and types of jobs and some women are in work that is deemed a criminal offence or goes against public norms (e.g., in the sex trade). Furthermore, women's roles are less fixed than men's in that women's status can rapidly shift from, for example, wife to worker, and worker to wife. Only with a gendered analysis, however, can we gain a better understanding of differences in access to resources, services and facilities, and the gendered consequences on entitlements and livelihoods.

Migration does not necessarily translate into increasing independence, or increasing freedom of movement for women, Piper stressed. In fact, the opposite is true in the case of temporary contract schemes, or trafficking and other forms of forced labour, as when women are tied to unskilled jobs or relegated to the private sphere. Women who are skilled migrants can also feel constrained: they must often take jobs where they hold subordinate positions with fewer perks and benefits. The foregoing negatively affects female migrants' opportunities for mobility in a variety of ways.

Turning to the broader issue of the management of migration, Piper noted that key concerns revolve around the control of exit and entry, the fact that government policies prioritize economic considerations and that governments are more preoccupied with the social, political and distributional consequences of migration than the gendered ramifications.

Whereas destination countries and origin countries have their own priorities, there is some convergence occurring. Origin countries grapple with brain drain, and are concerned with remittances, and destination countries are concerned with bringing in highly skilled, flexible workers, but keeping out "illegal" migrants. Both, however, prefer temporary migration and are preoccupied with skill. However, these priorities can have a negative impact on family formation and family reunification which disproportionately, negatively affects women.

To illustrate, Piper problematized the whole notion of skill. Who defines skill? How is it classified? What do these definitions and classifications mean for women? Skill is typically related to hard-nosed economic imperatives that favour men's experiences. Women commonly face "de-skilling" where their multiple skills are unrecognized or undervalued. What is more, Piper noted how in some cases, women now face "up-skilling," where less skilled women are considered to have higher skilled status for purely instrumental reasons. For example, Filipina "entertainers" became "skilled professionals" or Malaysian female factory workers are deemed "skilled" to facilitate their migration. Consequently, the notion of skill has many complicated associations for women.

The critical role played by states was then highlighted. Cross state co-operation is essential and yet we have seen resistance to multilateral agreements on migration. The preferred move has been to bilateral agreements, but here gender-sensitive clauses are rare, and rights issues are not a prime consideration. Rather, the shift from a migration to a trade agenda reflects how economic preoccupations have taken centre stage to the detriment of a human rights agenda.

Piper called for a change in focus. For instance, the United Nations has attempted to redirect priorities by pointing out the ways in which development can reduce the pressure to migrate in the first place, or the ways in which migrants can be a resource for poverty alleviation in countries of origin. To get beyond the economic focal point, social and political dimensions need more research, including the role of transnational political activism and advocacy networks. And so, for example, skill sets need to be improved, and efforts must be expended to ensure that notions of skill can be broadened beyond strictly defined work skills to include considerations like survival skills. Non-governmental organizations and unions can be enlisted to help migrants acquire a wide range of skills while working abroad.

Piper also suggested looking beyond migrant-specific instruments that have low ratification records and may not be gender sensitive or relevant, to explore the use of documents that draw upon a multi-pronged approach. One such strategy would bring together a rights-based approach to migration with a rights-based approach to development, and would ensure that migrants were seen to have rights as individuals, and women were seen as agents of development. By conjoining a gender-sensitive and rights-based approach, the new challenges migration poses for women's rights, development and citizenship and their interconnections could be explored. Here the aim would be to make conceptual and normative linkages, and policy-making implications and recommendations would be highlighted as would the role of political mobilization, social movement organizing and coalition building, whereby the gendered unevenness in terms of data, rights, entitlements and even political activism would be made apparent.

Piper concluded by noting that the specifics of such a multi-dimensional program require more comparative research, especially at cross-regional and cross-sectoral levels, to find out why certain policies work in some countries and not in others. Long-term, longitudinal studies are also necessary. When it comes to policy, it may be that issues of concern for migrant women may not be adequately resolved in the area of migration policy. Rather, more of a social policy focus could be more fruitful when it comes to both analyzing and tackling the problems faced by women migrants. But again, an analysis of diversification and stratification of gendered migratory streams in which key axes of differentiation are highlighted is essential.

Questions and comments on these introductory speeches were postponed until after the presentations in Panel 1.

### ***Panel 1: Economic Issues***

The economic panel provided the specific comparative insights called for in the introductory session. To begin, Berit Berg discussed migrant women's experience in the Nordic labour market context where women struggle amidst forces of both isolation and emancipation, and where gender, ethnic and class divisions play out in significant and unique ways. For instance, unlike many other places around the world, unemployment rates are very low in Norway. And yet, at the same time, this country still experiences familiar gendered and racialized patterns. In Norway, for example, women migrants from Asia, Africa and South America have much higher unemployment rates than the average (10.7 percent in Asia; 13.5 percent in Africa; 8.4 percent in South and Central America, compared to a 2.1 percent unemployment rate for ethnic Norwegian women). Whereas women as a whole in Norway have high participation rates in the paid work force, the rates are dramatically lower for non-Western, migrant women of colour. The latter were particularly absent in professional occupations.

To highlight the segmentation and differentiation involved, the cases of four migrant women were recounted. Berg also considered issues related to the problem of skill and educational attainment. She referred to two projects geared to helping migrant women with low education and skill levels: Quo Vadis? in Oslo and the care worker project in Trondheim. Still there are numerous barriers to be surmounted at various levels in Norway: at the institutional level (e.g., from welfare policy to labour market measures), at the organizational level (from attitudes to workplace measures like affirmative action and negotiating the "Scandinavian model" where employers and unions co-operate) and at the individual level (dealing with language, education, formal and informal skills). Despite the many challenges that remain, Berg noted what can be learned from these projects in terms of "best practices" is that programs that are geared toward women's empowerment, and those that are tailor-made to the specific context are most likely to succeed.

Eleonore Kofman discussed migrant women and labour market policies in the United Kingdom, which she situated within the wider European context by drawing on Gøsta Esping-Andersen's welfare regime theory. And so, beyond the typical state or market focus, Kofman highlighted the significance of work done in the home and family, as well as in the social or community sector. Moreover, the emphasis on a particular realm, and the interface between them, can shift depending on the country-specific context. For example, in southern Europe, the demands of housework become more of a consideration than in the United Kingdom, and Scandinavian countries, where there has been more of a preoccupation with paid work, and increasingly, with work done in the voluntary sector.

The United Kingdom has recently been compelled to adopt more of a global vision on migration given its severe labour shortages in both high-skilled and low-skilled areas, especially in jobs that historically had been filled by colonial subjects. The shortages have been acute in areas like health and social services, and because jobs like nursing and social work are highly feminized, the United Kingdom attracts increasing numbers of women migrants, especially from the mid-1990s to the present. It has also moved to the use of more guest worker policies. Gender and race intersect as migrants from some countries are viewed as more "desirable" than others. Skill and competency levels also factor in as women

migrants from India, for example, are seen as more “desirable” than women migrants from Bangladesh, as the former are perceived as having better qualifications than the latter.

While the labour shortage in the United Kingdom is a driving concern when it comes to current immigration policy, there are, nonetheless, countervailing socio-economic and political calculations being made having to do with levels of unemployment, especially for minority ethnic groups; diminished welfare regimes; more stringent valuation of skills and competencies; as well as broader concerns with social cohesion, race relations and multiculturalism. Consequently, debates now rage over who is or is not a desirable member of the national community and whether migration will upset social order and the United Kingdom’s national identity. Citizenship and social cohesion have become big concerns and multiculturalism is increasingly identified as a danger to both. In turn, this has a negative impact on immigration policy, and has serious gender, race and class implications.

Overall, economic considerations are clearly the top priority. New U.K. immigration policies are setting up ever finer “skill” gradations between, for example, highly skilled, tier one migrants, and merely skilled tier two migrants, and less skilled tier three migrants with the door swinging shut for the latter. The formalization of such distinctions has a gendered impact particularly given the continued non-recognition of “non-skilled” care work mostly done by women. And so, while the United Kingdom seemingly has adopted parts of the Canadian points system model in its new immigration plans, there is a marked difference in that there is more of an earning and skills correlation in the United Kingdom which is absent in Canada, and which will have a disproportionately negative impact on women. As a result, Kofman suggested skills and competencies need to be re-evaluated with a better appreciation of contributions beyond earnings potential and more value placed on domestic work.

In general, more gender-based analysis of immigration is required and here too Kofman looked to the Canadian experience. In particular, she recommended the work done on gender-based analysis (GBA) and Status of Women Canada’s (2002) procedures that assess the differential impact of proposed and existing policies, programs and legislation, on women and men, whereby gender differences, different social realities, and economic situations are considered.

While Kofman alluded to differences between the United Kingdom and Southern Europe, but discussed the former, the next speaker, Gabriella Laziridis presented on the latter, providing three concrete case studies from Southern Europe. Laziridis research revolved around three groups of female migrants in Greece — nurses, maids and nannies, and sex trade workers — whose work reflected the impact of both globalized industries and informal sectors. Women in all three occupations have experienced de-skilling. Laziridis noted that it is not uncommon to find women who expect to work as nurses, end up working in the sex trade, or resorting to work in all three sectors to make ends meet (i.e., working as a nurse in the morning, a maid in the afternoon, and a sex trade worker in the evening).

Furthermore, racial hierarchies and ethnic stereotyping are quite apparent, and this also negatively affects work chances and arrangements. In Greece, corrupt police and prevalent

negative media portrayals perpetuate the gendered and racial stereotypes making matters worse. As a result, according to Laziridis, the women in this study find themselves on the margins of the margins, with little support.

From here the discussion moved to North America where Lori Wilkinson compared the influence of occupational structure on the labour market experiences of women migrants in Canada and the United States. Wilkinson's aim was to determine how gender and visible minority status influence the occupational structure and earnings outcomes of immigrant women in these two countries. While it is commonly assumed that women migrants in Canada's "mosaic" fare better than in the US "melting pot," Wilkinson's research had some unexpected results. For instance, the wage gap between immigrant women and native-born women in the United States is smaller in many sectors than in Canada. When it came to her analysis of educational returns, native-born women in both countries had more favourable returns than immigrant women, but in Canada, returns on education are consistently lower for immigrant women. In other words, the American economy is more apt to reward or recognize educational credentials of migrant women than is the case in Canada.

Additionally, Wilkinson pointed to the significance of cross-sectoral studies, as many of the outcomes in her research depended on the type of occupation. For example, visible minority businesswomen in Canada fared somewhat better than native-born women in this occupational category.

Wilkinson's research contains important policy implications. It illustrates the need to consider multiple factors: country of residence, employment sector, type of job, particular intersection of diversity, language proficiency, and social and family context (e.g., presence of children). All are key factors that must be weighed in comparing gains and losses for women migrants' labour market integration. Such studies are significant to policy makers because if, for example, migrant women are more likely to have their credentials accepted in the United States as opposed to Canada, this can have a serious, deleterious impact not only on the women, but on the Canadian economy.

Discussion and questions were held off until the end of the next panel, although Eva Haagenen provided a brief summary of the presentations.

### ***Panel 2: Social/Health Issues***

Anita Gagnon presented the research of her investigative team on women migrants' health around the time of birth in Canada. In general, she noted that there tends to be a discrepancy between anecdotal reports that indicate that those who are born in the non-host country are not as healthy as North American born mothers, and broader literature which suggests otherwise, or is lacking. Gagnon also pointed out that categorizing women in groupings such as "non-host country born" is problematic given women's radically different migration histories. What is more, eligibility for health and social services in Canada is different based on various immigration categories (e.g., non-refugees, versus refugees, asylum seekers etc.). Here too, then, both difference and context, became crucial considerations.

Gagnon referred to 11 studies undertaken under the broader rubric of the Migration and Reproductive Health Research (MiRHR) project, but mostly presented data from one study: NORMAP-ERS: Needs of Refugee Mothers After Pregnancy- Early Response Services. The aim of this particular study was to estimate the prevalence of health issues and concerns during pregnancy, at birth and one week after birth; to see whether the system was responding to these issues; and to note any differences in response when it came to migration categories.

Based on a large sampling of respondents in Montréal, Toronto and Vancouver (reviewing the births of 17,630 women) that were broken down into four groups (refugees, asylum seekers, immigrants, Canadian born), a number of telling findings became apparent. For instance, it became clear that categorization (in terms of migration status and birth regions) mattered. Women refugees, for example, were more likely (35.9 percent) to have Caesarians than Canadian born (27.3 percent); and migrants from West Africa had a significantly higher Caesarian rate (44.1 percent) and much higher intensive care unit rate (19.1 percent) as compared to migrant women from other birth regions. For example, women originally from South Asia had a 29.4 percent Caesarian rate and a 17 percent intensive care unit rate.

Overall, beyond these specific findings, some findings revealing wider patterns were also evident. For women who were one week post-birth, more migrant women, in general, than Canadian-born women had unaddressed concerns (80.2 percent - 87.3 percent for the migrant groups versus 66.7 percent for Canadian-born). In addition, beyond high Cesarean birth rates, migrant women (versus native-born women) had increased rates of mortality (maternal, neonatal, post-neonatal), low birth weight infants, obstetrical interventions in labour and congenital malformations.

These Canadian data show that migrant women are more at risk, and are less predisposed to having positive health outcomes. They also highlight the need to look more carefully at specific migrant histories and factor in the degree of precariousness of different birth regions. Gagnon noted that research is now being undertaken cross-nationally to compare data on such issues in the ROAM (Reproductive Outcomes and Migration) Project an international research collaboration initiated in August 2005 involving Canada, Australia, Belgium, Finland, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Switzerland and the United Kingdom.

The next speaker, Lilach Lev Ari, provided insight into a new area of study (i.e., gender and re-immigration) by tracing the gendered decision-making processes of Israeli migrants in the United States and their assessments of whether to return to Israel. Her study examined two groups of Israeli migrants and asked the questions: will they return and will they emigrate again. The two samples comprised an equal number of women and men migrants who lived in the United States (1998-2000); and those who have recently returned to Israel (1999-2003). Although Lev Ari's research takes migration studies to the next level, from migration to re-migration, it nevertheless dovetailed with the work of others in that it stressed how gender was a critical consideration, and the fact that emigrants were not a homogenous group.

The respondents in this study were alike in that all had exceptionally high levels of educational attainment and economic status, and that about half expressed the desire to go back to Israel, leading Lev Ari to describe them as “permanent sojourners.” And yet, there were important gendered and ethnic differences that affected outcomes. For instance, Lev Ari found that women, in general, were somewhat less determined than men to return to Israel. However, those women that perceived the Israeli social structure as more egalitarian, were more likely to return to Israel within a specific period. Furthermore, Lev Ari distinguished her sample on the basis of ethnic origin, specifically Ashkenazi and Sephardic Jews (the latter are of Asian-African countries of origin). Sephardic women, as compared to Ashkenazi women, were more willing to commit to a definite time limit for return. Younger Sephardic men, who had relatively lower educational attainment (compared to the rest of the respondents), who recently returned to Israel, and were not satisfied with the absorption process, were more likely to re-migrate; whereas Ashkenazi women, who were highly educated, in their 40s and were satisfied with the absorption process in Israel were more likely to stay.

Consequently, it is clear that both gender and ethnic origin are significant factors that affect the tendency to return and re-migrate, along with other variables including education, socio-economic status, age, and measure of successful absorption. Israeli migrant women in the United States are a diverse group, with diverse priorities, and yet if they had succeeded in their economic and social absorption in the United States, they were not interested in returning to Israel if doing so will provide them with less of a basis for social mobility as in the United States. If they have done less well economically and socially in the United States, they will be more predisposed to returning to Israel.

Lev Ari noted that it is important to encourage women to return to Israel as women are the key socializing agent with respect to absorption in the country of origin. Thus, it becomes crucial for Israel to support equal opportunities and opportunities for social mobility if the objective is attracting women back and ensuring that they do not re-migrate. And, time is of the essence, for as more time passes, Lev Ari found, the chances of re-migration declined.

Bilkis Visandjée argued for gender-sensitive health research. More specifically, the impact of gender as a social determinant of health needs to be considered and assessed in light of cultural and ethnic differences. In other words, health policy gaps persist, because variations that occur between and within ethnic and visible minority populations are insufficiently acknowledged, and because gender-based analyses are still all too rare. Consequently, women’s health research needs to integrate these issues, clarify them and substantiate them to advance our understanding of the social determinants of health. This means going beyond medical and behavioural issues and beginning to re-frame research in light of socio-economic and political considerations. Women’s health studies require intersectional analysis to understand both the micro and macro socio-economic, political context. Unfortunately, this is still not the reality. Visandjée surveyed 59 health policy papers: only 34 contained some definition of gender, fewer still referred to sex, gender, ethnicity and migration, and even fewer provided an integrated analysis. As a result, key concepts need to be re-analyzed. Visandjée concluded by turning to the potential of more of a rights-based approach to foster more integrative analyses.

### ***Questions and Discussion***

Lucinda Fonseca summarized the key points from the presentations in this panel and then opened up the panel for discussion. Dimitria Clayton asked two questions. The first one was directed to Lilach Lev Ari's paper as Clayton queried the objectives of Levi Ari's research (i.e., who is supporting this research and to what end). She also asked Anita Gagnon to explain why the Caesarian rate for West African women in her study was so high. Bilkis Visandjée also took the opportunity to ask Nicola Piper about her presentation in the previous panel, and to elaborate on Piper's rights-based approach.

Lev Ari responded by noting the problem of some Israeli (re)emigrants facing de-skilling, this being an issue for career women especially. They often emigrate and re-emigrate, because of their husbands, and end up not working in areas commensurate with their qualifications. Clayton questioned Lev Ari further, asking her why she is so concerned with studying the behaviour of these "elite" women. Lev Ari responded that Israel, like many other countries, seeks out highly skilled migrants, and in this case, they have the possibility of having their skilled migrants return, and if so, they can contribute to their country of origin. Here it becomes crucial to acknowledge that women can act as the agent to entice families back to Israel.

Gagnon elaborated on the figures for the high rates of Caesarians for women from West African countries and speculated on some of the reasons. For instance, given practices like female genital mutilation in their countries of origin, West African women may have more complications when giving birth naturally. In addition, there may be language barriers in Canada, where women cannot convey how they are feeling and what they are going through.

Nicola Piper acknowledged that further thinking on the rights approach is necessary. She admitted that finding concrete practices of where her integrative rights approach has been adopted is a challenge. She noted that Canada has perhaps gone the furthest in this direction, but it is still a very new area. This provided the perfect jumping off point for the next panel that took place after a break for lunch.

### ***Panel 3: Human Rights Issues***

Dimitria Clayton introduced the panelists, and provided a few reflections on the changing nature and face of migration. Whereas, historically, the archetypical image of "the migrant" was that of a male guest worker, now these images are more complicated and contested as with, for example, the current, stereotypical association of "the migrant" as a young male, Muslim terrorist. The constant here, however, is that women are still not part of this imagery, and thus are given insufficient attention. Second, Clayton reminded participants that the link between migrants' rights and human rights, if it is there at the civil society level, which is debatable, is still not there at the policy level. These connections must be made.

Elza Deus Pais began by noting global trends that act as catalysts for growing migration and emphasized the need to deal with these migratory flows from the perspective of human rights. Deus Pais acknowledged Portugal's long history of immigration and emigration, and

then went on to provide detailed information on the contemporary situation for immigrant women in her country. Drawing on data gathered between 1980 and 2002, Deus Pais noted how in recent years the most common countries of origin for migrant women are African Countries of Portuguese Official Language (PALOP: Angola, Cape Verde, Guinea-Bissau, S. Tomé and Príncipe, Mozambique) (43 percent), Brazil (14.3 percent) and Eastern Europe (5 percent). Notably, prior to 1985 there were almost no Eastern European migrants, but today women are coming to Portugal from Ukraine, Russia, Romania and Moldavia.

Women from Africa, Brazil and Eastern Europe differ in various respects, from their ages of migration to their marital status. For instance, African women migrants tend to be younger on average, and the number of separations and divorces was higher among women from Brazil and Eastern Europe than Africa. In terms of educational qualifications, women from Eastern Europe have higher secondary and post-secondary levels of education than women from Africa and Brazil. With respect to sources of income support, more women of African origin depended on family support and state subsidies, whereas more women from Eastern Europe lived on employment income and relied less on state support.

Nevertheless, Deus Pais recounted how immigrant women in Portugal, as elsewhere, have difficulty accessing resources, are disproportionately involved in the “parallel economy” (e.g., trafficking and sexual exploitation) and experience social exclusion and violence of various kinds. Women suffer from double social victimization, because they are immigrants and because they are women, increasing their vulnerability. She highlighted particular problems, such as women having to grapple with cultural norms from countries of origin that work as barriers to social integration in the country of destination, more intricate commitments for women affecting both exit and entry for women, as well as greater obstacles in accessing services in countries of destination. These limitations spur illegal migration and result not only in material hardship, but have psychological impacts (senses of suspicion, fear and being at risk) that also contribute to vulnerability.

Deus Pais suggested that the High Commissioner for Immigration and Ethnic Minorities in Portugal is working on projects with immigrant communities to promote social integration of women and men. However, she reinforced the fact that officials must continually be reminded that women migrants are affected as are men, and frequently women migrants are affected more than men. To ensure this happens, more women must be involved politically.

Audrey Macklin responded to the theme of a rights-based approach to gender and migration and provided a cautionary note. She emphasized the limits of rights discourse as we confront and remedy the difficulties and hardships faced by women as migrants, and the challenges involved in this process. Women’s rights claims have done well by hitching themselves to the discourse of human rights, but whether linking women’s rights up to migrant rights will be as successful is highly debatable, because there is still a lack of acceptance and recognition of migrant rights at both the level of policy makers and the level of the general public.

Indeed, Macklin proposed that human, women’s and migrant rights could be plotted on a descending scale of legal and public recognition. The slogan “women’s rights are human

rights” derives much of its rhetorical force from the normative claim that humans, by sheer virtue of their humanity, are invested with certain basic rights. The task of the slogan is then to convince (or remind) the power holders that women are indeed human. But the concept of migrants' rights remains as transgressive — as borderline — as migrants themselves. Why? The claim that human rights are vested in humans as such collides spectacularly with the claim that rights are the product of the social contract, and delimited by citizenship in the sovereign state. The sovereign state has the basic right to police entry into both its physical and political space. To recognize freedom of movement (definitive of migrants as humans) as a fundamental human right would be to subvert the sovereign state’s scope as it is currently understood. And so, migrants qua workers, migrants qua women, and migrants qua children might attract certain forms of protection, but migrants as such are not regarded as fully human. The extraordinary efforts by states to evade the sole exception to their power to police borders (the Refugee Convention), demonstrates the profound unease and resistance to migrants' humanity.

At this stage, rights claims by migrant women get whatever traction they have because they are made on behalf of women, and less because (or even despite of the fact that) they are about migrants. However, even this can prove problematic, insofar as certain contemporary iterations of female migrants within international rights discourse tend to suppress and deny agency (necessarily involved in most forms of movement) and reinstate the women-as-victim trope that most feminists have endeavoured to move beyond. Thus, for example, the image of trafficking is overdetermined by the innocent sex-slave, unwittingly tricked into prostitution. The UN Protocol on Trafficking does not actually offer her the protection of secure immigration status in the receiving country, but rather uses soft language to encourage states to treat her humanely in the process of deciding whether and how to expel her. This suggests that states are determined not to repeat the experience of creating an international obligation (non-refoulement under the Refugee Convention) that would subordinate their self-understanding as the primary victim where borders are crossed without advance permission.

These concerns about rights and the woman as “ideal victim” strategy spurred heated debate in the discussion that followed.

### ***Questions and Discussion***

Dimitria Clayton initiated the discussion by returning to the problem of group distinctions between women migrants in Portugal. In recognition of the added pressures facing African women migrants versus Eastern European migrants in Portugal, she queried why the latter are able to capitalize on their credentials to a greater extent than women migrants from Africa. Second, she pursued some of the concerns raised by Macklin in terms of migrant women piggy backing on women’s rights, and the use of the “perfect victim” image. Here Clayton suggested that women’s movements have seized some opportunities by using these strategies.

The questions continued with Eleonore Kofman following up on Clayton’s point regarding the “woman as victim” strategy, and referred to feminist research on this topic. Kofman emphasized that while there is enormous diversity in terms of women’s skills and

experience, this tends to be ignored by policy makers. Policy makers, however, might pay more attention to the woman as victim (i.e., they are more apt to respond to women who are obviously exploited). Thus public policy and social policy solutions geared to women “victims” may occur more readily than a response to the realities of a full range of women.

Nicola Piper pursued this line of questioning re: the utility of adopting a rights-based approach for migrant women. She drew on social movement and women’s movements successful experience with rights strategies, and also noted that the migrants’ rights movement is a positive sign of political struggle. She recognized, however, that while a migrant’s right to leave exists, the right to enter does not, and is utopic. Still there have been some policy changes with respect to undocumented migrants that have come about due to union mobilization in North America. And so, while expansive rights strategies may be idealistic, they are not totally out of the realm of the possible.

In terms of African women versus Eastern European women migrants and how and whether their qualifications are taken up, the issue of age was brought up. That is, Eastern European women migrants in Portugal tend to be older, and this may have an effect on their success.

Elza Deus Pais also commented on other gendered outcomes. For instance, the difficulty with qualifications translating in the labour market also applies to migrant men. Yet, while the immigrant population as a whole is quite vulnerable in Portugal, women are poorer than men and therefore find themselves in more precarious situations.

Audrey Macklin responded to whether the use of the woman migrant as “perfect victim” was helpful and suggested that this type of an approach would come back and “bite” women. Women, in general, do not want to see themselves as victims. This is not to say that women are not victimized; rather, that it cannot be to women’s benefit, ultimately in Macklin’s view, to cast them as victims. It would seem that at the very point when women are able to express their agency (i.e., women migrants leaving their countries of origin) to suggest that the only way they can be recognized is to portray them as victims is distorting and cannot be advantageous.

Moreover, in terms of the rights debate, Macklin agreed that there have been shifts in rights discourses but these shifts are not affecting the ability to migrate. That is, the realization of rights qua humans, rights qua workers or rights qua women are subverted by the lack of the right to migrate in the first place. In terms of social movement strategies, Macklin suggested keeping “an eye on the prize.” In other words, we want to support open borders but we duck that question strategically by saying that migrants simply need to be treated as having rights. Citizenship is all about the right to have rights, as Hanna Arendt pointed out, and this needs to be kept at the forefront. Therefore, Macklin suggested that while she does not fundamentally disagree with Piper, Macklin sees the rights strategy in terms of the glass being half empty, rather than being half full.

This discussion wrapped up and the workshop wound down with the closing panel.

### ***Closing Panel: Policy Implications of Presented Research and Future Directions***

Zeynep Karman acted as the moderator and noted how the day's sessions had uncovered several interesting trends and new emerging issues. However, she stressed that any new research needs to be linked to policy analysis. This work on women and migration has to be taken up by different levels of government, and used to develop policy responses and programs. Participants in the final panel of the workshop worked toward this end by analyzing how key interventions have played out, and identifying the research directions that need to be taken in the future.

Karman also reminded the audience that it is very rare for policy to be developed as a textbook case of policy making. In contrast, policy initiatives often develop on the fly as a minister travels somewhere and wants to develop a policy s/he has encountered abroad, at home; or an advocacy group raises an idea or issue that the minister decides is a critical one that s/he must pursue. Policy making, therefore, is typically reactive and has to be done quickly. As a result, unless researchers identify knowledge gaps, bureaucrats scramble at the last minute to provide answers and policy guidance. At the same time, Karman acknowledged that, from a researcher's perspective, this timeliness can be a problem, because academics can be perfectionists. Still, timeliness is everything when new legislation is being prepared. Therefore, researchers need to determine what is on the public policy agenda, and what is not on the public policy agenda. They need to collaborate more with policy makers, and, of course, both need to work from a gendered perspective. This is the mandate of Metropolis, which tries to put the academic and policy worlds together to bring about good policy, and policy that contains a gendered analysis.

Tzvetelina Kowatschew provided insights from her work at both the city and municipal administrative levels with respect to women targets of trafficking. She spoke of her experience working in a body that acts as an intermediary between policy makers and victims. The key is to execute laws in ways that support clients, and to do so this often requires work with non-governmental organizations.

Barbro Bakken spoke of her experience working in a ministry that develops and co-ordinates policy in relation to migration, integration and inclusion. She expressed the need for high-quality and relevant research. Echoing Karman, Bakken suggested that researchers need to look ahead to what will be important two to five years in the future. Researchers need to be foresightful and must forge closer connections between policy makers and the research community. Migration and integration are cross-cutting government ministries, and research and development need to mirror this connection.

Bakken identified knowledge gaps, such as the need for more work on migrant women especially in terms of labour market integration. Comparative studies that deal with competencies and qualifications, and different norms and values are necessary. In addition, Bakken pinpointed the lack of research when it comes to family reunification issues. There are growing challenges when it comes to family reunification, as economic imperatives and the skills of workers become overarching priorities. The move away from family reunification is justified in various ways, such as the idea that this will combat forced marriages. These linkages are highly dubious and in need of empirical study. There is also the issue of

“dumping of women”: because of current two-income family trends, when there are families where the woman is not in paid work, she can be sent back to her home country against her will. These are questions Bakken sees arising now and in the near future, and are not being addressed in research.

Eva Lazar drew lessons from the Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC) experience with GBA. While CIC tended to be quite operationally focussed and reactive in the past, in recent years, it began building up its policy capacity, became more pro-active and open to GBA. Gender-based analysis focusses on the differences, social and economic, between women and men over their life cycles. It aims for fair and equitable social and economic results between women and men. The GBA Unit was launched in 2000 as a pilot program, and became established more permanently in 2003.

Lazar traced the use of GBA by the CIC to the preliminary work done around reforming Canada’s immigration laws, the proposed Bill C-11, and what would eventually become Canada’s *Immigration and Refugee Protection Act* (IRPA). The initial phase involved capacity building in the area of GBA. Then the GBA Unit provided preliminary analysis for the IRPA and developed a lens on existing policy and strategic directions. It not only fed into the policy development exercise that the CIC embarked upon, but trained 150 analysts in GBA. Consequently, when the IRPA came into force in 2002, it contained an unprecedented clause that referred to GBA. When the IRPA was reported on in Parliament, an annual gender-based analysis of the impact of the Act was required as well, which was also unprecedented. Granted, the analysis was rudimentary, but it was a start and no other department in Canada has legislation that requires reporting on GBA. In addition, a five year plan, from 2005-2010 called for concrete steps to be taken in terms of training and mainstreaming in all branches of CIC, and in turn, all these branches had to submit GBA plans, which came along with the annual report to parliament and annual stock taking. This framework is an incremental one, but involves realistic steps that can be taken to mainstream gender into each branch’s daily work.

Unfortunately, recent developments are not so promising in that under the new Conservative Government in Canada, the GBA Unit has been dismantled. It is now incumbent on directors and workers in individual branches, and those workers who were trained in the first pilot project, or those who have political commitment to using a GBA lens, to continue on this path.

In hindsight, Lazar acknowledged that the GBA plans that various branches submitted were quite uneven. Some provided rich plans and others were very thin on their GBA work. In terms of best practices, the work of the Resettlement Division of the Refugees Branch showcases the successes of GBA. Here, for example, the gender and diversity impacts were assessed in relation to the arrival of 800 Karen refugees from Thailand in early 2007. This helped to identify potential challenges and issues that might arise in advance of group’s selection and arrival.

Lazar then summarized some of the key lessons learned. The IRPA reporting experience suggests that a multi-year approach is necessary; branches need to chart issues reported on

and put in place the elements necessary to begin substantive analysis; and there needs to be an improvement in data and analysis each year.

And, while legislation and reporting are powerful tools, a structure for a formal legal requirement and for public accountability is required. A departmental framework document that provides institutional direction and internal accountabilities is also needed. Furthermore, the way GBA is brought in is important to the success of both the department' and GBA (e.g., gender as focal point must be brought forward by experienced analysts and in a climate of learning, sharing and consensus building).

Lazar concluded with some important provisos. For instance, the legislative requirement at CIC is crucial, but it alone is insufficient to mainstream GBA. It is also important to recognize that the priorities and capacities differ across branches in a department; there is need for monitoring and annual stock taking of GBA, as well as identifying progress made, challenges faced and further opportunities for integrating GBA. Finally, more work is required to integrate GBA into policy development, into other departments and to foster further international conversations on the intersections between gender and migration.

The final presenter, Marie Desmeules, underscored the major research directions needed with respect to immigrant women's health. She identified the key priorities as being timely access to care and health processes, gender sensitivity, cultural and linguistic sensitivity, an assessment of long-term health and continuity of care. Desmeules used the example of cervical cancer, which is biologically specific to women, but also requires cultural sensitivity where different needs and problems can arise. Reviewing the effectiveness of interventions re: migrant women's health, Desmeules noted that studies that make concrete recommendations or long-term suggestions are still lacking. There is no substantial body of health evidence for immigrant women and very little for migrant populations in general. Again, in the case of cervical cancer, refugee women have a higher mortality rate and lower access to cervical cancer screening, but this is not being addressed comprehensively.

There has been a lot of effort expended in describing the status of migrant women, but now new research is required that includes more observation of clinical practices, and a focus on health behaviours and health promotion, as there is still insufficient data on these matters. There is also a need to look at differences across immigrant women groups, and sub-groups of migrant women. The connection between determinants of migrant health with health outcomes needs to be made. Desmeules concluded that more intervention research is necessary, along with more disease prevention and health promotion activities, as well as health care for particularly vulnerable groups, especially such refugees, vis-à-vis gender.

### ***Discussion and Questions***

Eleanore Kofman added to Barbro Bakken's point about family reunification by suggesting we need to know more about family migrants and not just in terms of first generation immigrants but also the second generation as the latter is also bringing in family members. Therefore, there is a need to distinguish between different generations on the family reunification issue.

Anita Gagnon responded to some of the issues raised by Zeynep Karman and Bakken in that she commented on the issue of timing and research. Gagnon maintained that the interface between policy makers and researchers is generally good, but she saw the issue of looking into the future as being more of a challenge. Researchers get funding based on what policy makers need to know about now, and therefore, how can researchers access the funds to be relevant to policy makers in the future?

Marie Desmeules re-emphasized how it is important to take into consideration differences between women and their particular contexts. Again, taking the example of refugee women and cervical cancer, she noted how lower socio-economic status and differences in language abilities have a negative impact on access to cancer screening.

Bakken followed up on the family reunification point. Here she noted the trend toward stricter requirements, like citizenship tests, where incoming family members have to take exams to show knowledge of the Netherlands.

Gagnon raised further questions about the role researchers find themselves in today. She commented on how they often need to “unlearn” some of their behaviours and engage in work that they are not necessarily comfortable doing. For instance, researchers are encouraged to talk to the media and this is not something researchers are trained to do, and they may do it poorly. This new requirement can have a negative impact on researchers: they can lose credibility for doing media work in the first place, or lose credibility, because they do the media work poorly.

Dimitria Clayton added another dimension in suggesting that migrant women are doing research but they are not being taken seriously by government.

On this note, general discussion ended and the workshop came to a close.

### ***Conclusions***

To conclude this report, it becomes highly apparent that the quality and quantity of material presented in this single-day workshop were truly impressive. It is also clear, given the substantial ground that was covered, the enthusiastic levels of discussion, as well as the lacunae in research and policy making that were revealed, that more work and opportunities to discuss women and migration are necessary. The sharing of ideas and research across countries, at transnational, national and sub-national levels, as well as cross-sectorally, is critical to identify current and future trends, home in on various migrant women’s needs, to inform policy makers and to shape policies that take women into account. At the very least, future Metropolis conferences require not only more workshops and roundtables, but plenaries on this complex and compelling topic.

## **OPENING REMARKS: WOMEN MIGRANTS IN PORTUGAL: MIGRATORY TRAJECTORIES AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILES**

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### **Portugal in the New Migration Context of Southern Europe**

The changing demographic and economic situation and immigration in Southern Europe is characterized by:

- rapid declines in fertility;
- changes in family structures and gender roles;
- Post-Fordism/informal economies;
- little state intervention;
- informal “welfare society” rather than a realistic and responsive welfare state;
- rapid growth of immigration; and
- high rates of “undocumented” or clandestine immigrants.

Factors affecting opportunities for immigrant women/feminization of migration include:

- the development of the service economy with a growing demand for female labour;
- an increase in the female activity rates;
- demand for immigrant women in the reproductive sector (e.g., domestic service, industrial cleaning, health care, aged care, tourism and leisure activities); and
- Southern European countries that are hosting a growing number of female migrants.

### **Comparison of Participation and Unemployment Rates of Nationals and Immigrants in the EU-15, by Sex (2002)**

Specificities of the Portuguese case include:

- **Gender roles:** The female labour force is as large as in France, Germany, the Netherlands or the United Kingdom.
- **Migration history:** Portugal shares important traits with other post-colonial societies in Europe, for example the United Kingdom, France and the Netherlands.
- The particular **migration history of Portugal has also influenced the ways in which migration** controls have been instituted, and the **politics of migration**.

## Some Women's Thoughts on Immigrating

- On preparing for Portugal: “My friends loaned me money to pay for my trip to Portugal but I had to sell my television, computer, VCR and refrigerator in order to have some extra money... Before I arrived, I was warned to not look too *made up* — to wear loose, casual clothing — because the police could stop me if I looked too much like a prostitute! That’s disgraceful!” – *Brazilian, 35, receptionist, single with a Portuguese boyfriend, established in Portugal since 2002.*
- On leaving family behind: “My mother takes care of my son in Brazil. I send about 100 euros per month home to take care of him. I want to bring him to Portugal this September so he can start school at the beginning of the year. My ex-husband in Brazil is blackmailing me into helping him immigrate as well. That’s the only way I can bring my son to Portugal. He says he’ll help take care of my son but he’s only doing it to make it easier for him to immigrate or he wouldn’t.” – *Brazilian, 27, massage therapist, single with a 9-year old son in Brazil, established in Portugal since 2002.*

## Migrant Women's Thoughts on Working

- **On exploitation:** “The woman I worked for was kind to me because she gave me a job contract. But she hid all of my documents from me in order to keep me working for her.” – *Ukrainian, 31, domestic servant, married with husband in Portugal, established in Portugal since 2001.*
- **On remuneration:** “I work without a contract, without anything, the pay is nothing, nothing, nothing... Employment here is incredible — getting it depends on education, on age, many factors.” – *Brazilian, 42, seamstress, single, goes back and forth between Brazil and Portugal.*
- **On paradoxes:** “Portugal is a strange country. An immigrant can work without documents and is persecuted for it, but to legalize your situation you have to contribute to Social Security! ... In one place they say one thing and in another they say something else — you never know what is necessary.” – *Ukrainian, 31, domestic servant, married with husband in Portugal, established in Portugal since 2001.*

## Women's Thoughts on Integration

- **On dependency:** “My boyfriend was Portuguese but was very introverted, without social connections outside of his family. I was thirsty for social exchange... I felt like a fish out of water. I couldn’t stand being dependent on him — our values and ideas were very different.” – *Brazilian, 35, receptionist, single with a Portuguese boyfriend, established in Portugal since 2002.*
- **On adaptation:** “I came with my mother to Portugal. She was very unhappy in the Ukraine. But she’s had a difficult time adapting in Portugal: she only leaves the house

when she's forced to — alone, she feels like she can't." – *Ukrainian, 22, server at a café/day nurse for an elderly woman, living with her parents in Portugal since 2001.*

- **On multiple role playing:** “Cape Verdian women’s role in the family changes dramatically when we come to Portugal. In Cape Verde, we were mothers and took care of the household. In Portugal, we must work outside to help the family. Sometimes we must work several jobs, irregular shifts, and we come home exhausted. We have little time to raise our children.” – *Cape Verdian, 35, leader of immigrant association, living in Portugal since a very young age.*

## **Conclusions**

- Increasing female migration flows to Portugal (and Southern Europe) stem from changes in gender roles in the host societies and failure of their welfare regimes.
- Employment opportunities in domestic and care work.
- Relations between women migrants and their (female) employers.
- Role of the families in the migration decision process.
- Impact of increased female immigration on gender roles in sending countries: new economic autonomy and changing cultural/religious values.

## WOMEN AND MIGRATION – GENERAL INTRODUCTION

### Nicola Piper, ARI/NUS

Major advances have been made over the last few decades in migration research resulting in an abundant theoretical and data rich literature on gendered aspects of cross-border movements. It is now well established that gender is a crucial factor in our understanding of the causes and consequences of international migrations and it has been amply shown that gender is relevant to most, if not all, aspects of migration (Carling 2005; Piper 2005a; Donato et al. 2006). Political change or policies may affect men and women differently, resulting in gendered patterns of migration; laws regarding both emigration and immigration often have gendered outcomes; and policies that affect the integration, or re-integration, of migrants into societies may also affect men and women differently.

Gender intersects with other social relations, such as class and caste, migration status, ethnicity and race, and generational cleavages. Taken together, a complex map of stratification emerges with its own dynamics of exclusion/inclusion. It is important to highlight these dynamics in both destination and origin countries to emphasize that migrants *leave and enter* gendered and stratified societies (with qualitative differences depending on specific context). Many women migrants come from countries where discrimination against women is differently embedded in the social and cultural fabric of their origin societies than at the destination. This has implications for the way in which they experience migration.

On the global policy level, the debate on migration has been dominated by two major themes over the last few years: management of migration and migration as a tool for development.

The push toward the “management of migration” refers to the perceived need for international co-operation of all countries implicated, indicative of the continuing salience of migration in its major manifestations: asylum and economic migration (work). The (re-)emerging concern with the elaboration of an international framework for migration management is related to a number of initiatives, such as the recent Berne Initiative, the establishment of the Global Migration Group<sup>1</sup> and the work and final report (October 2005) of the Global Commission on International Migration (GCIM). The main objective of this global agenda is to promote co-operation among states in dealing with various dimensions and the complexity of international migration today. This is, thus, largely a state-owned process.

Related to the general attempt to improve the benefits of migration for all, the global policy debate has also taken up the link between migration and development (GCIM 2005; UN 2006). Although the focus is often predominantly on the developmental impact of out migration and return migration for origin countries (in form of remittances, investment, skill transfers), the need for enhanced development has also been discussed in terms of alleviating the pressure to migrate in the first place. Debates on the migration–development nexus reflect current thinking among policy makers and donor agencies as well as among many academics who view migrants as potential agents of development in connection with origin countries’ efforts to tap into diasporas or transnational communities of nationals residing overseas to secure remittances (that is “transfers in cash or in kind from migrants

to resident households in the countries of origin”<sup>2</sup>) and investment in migrants’ home communities. The gender implications of both the management of migration and the migration–development nexus are only partially understood.

### **Shifts in Global Migration Flows and Policy**

Globally, the landscape of international migration has become increasingly diversified as a result of broader changes in the global economy and geo-politics in addition to policy shifts in recent years. An increasing propensity for people to move between countries during and after working life can be witnessed in all regions of this world. International migration has become a global phenomenon leaving few countries unaffected by international flows (UN 2004). It is not surprising that cross-border mobility has, in general, attracted a great deal of international policy attention in recent years (ILO 2004; GCIM 2005; UNFPA 2006).

With regard to the patterns and nature of today’s migration flows, major policy concerns relating to international migration that have been highlighted in the existing literature or policy documents can be summarized as follows:

- rising numbers of irregular/undocumented migration;
- increasing shift toward temporary and circular migration as opposed to permanent settlement (involving the skilled and unskilled);
- related increasing “bifurcation” between skilled and unskilled migration in the ease of migration between countries;
- continuing deterioration of human security and human displacement; and
- the impact of migration on economic and social development.

All of these issue areas have gender implications (see more below).

Global estimates by sex confirm that for more than 40 years since 1960, female migrants reached almost the same numbers as male migrants. By 1960, female migrants accounted for nearly 47 out of every 100 migrants living outside their countries of birth. Since then, the share of female emigrants among all international migrants has been rising steadily, to reach 48 percent in 1990 and nearly 49 percent in 2000. By 2000, female migrants constituted nearly 51 percent of all migrants in the developed world and about 46 percent of all migrants in developing countries (ILO 2003: 9). Just as women’s economic contribution to their families and communities has become increasingly significant, so too has women’s presence in migration flows. This is reflected in the increasing percentages of women in migration flows to all world regions.

In 2002, the proportion of legal migrants to the United States was 54 percent. In Southeast and East Asian countries that admit migrants exclusively for temporary labour purposes, the share of independent women in the labour migration flows has been increasing sharply since the late 1970s (ILO 2003: 9), and in some cases, women clearly dominate over their male counterparts. The Philippines have now surpassed Mexico as the world’s largest labour exporting country. South Asia is mainly a labour exporting sub-region where women’s

(official) mobility is subject to serious restrictions (with the notable exception of Sri Lanka). Hence, countries, such as Bangladesh and Nepal, predominantly send male migrants, with the fewer numbers of women migrating being largely confined to the skilled categories or to the use of unofficial channels (Siddiqui 2001; Dannecker 2005).

Significant flows of migration take place within regions. Research on gendered migration from a regional perspective, however, is still in its infancy. For instance, with regard to Africa and South America, this is partly related to the unavailability, or patchy nature, of statistical data (Dodson forthcoming; Rojas Wiesner and Angeles Cruz forthcoming). Feminization of migration is particularly evident in flows from both Central and South America to Southern Europe. In Africa, high levels of poverty, disease and male unemployment explain the steady increase in female migrants at a rate that is faster than the global average (UNFPA 2006: 23). With regard to intra-regional migration, in both Africa and Latin America, women seem to dominate short-range migration streams involving immediate border crossings for trading or service-sector related jobs, rather than longer-range migration to destinations far afield. Women's participation in the latter has been on the increase, but it appears that men still dominate this stream. Sub-Saharan African women are highly represented among migrating health workers, especially nurses, many of whom migrate across regions (Dovlo 2006; Buchan and Calman 2004). Out migration of health workers is a well studied phenomenon and a controversial component of the debate on the migration–development nexus.

One key subject of debate regarding refugee women in Europe as well as North America and Australia is the extent to which women have access as asylum seekers and are subsequently able to gain recognition either as Geneva Convention refugees, a secondary status or even less secure humanitarian protection. It is clear that women are less able to reach Western countries as principle applicants due to their lesser resources. The potential and actual underrepresentation of women in various humanitarian-based modes of entry reflects the gendered nature of the definition of a refugee associated with the UN 1951 Convention (Boyd 1998; Boyd and Pikkov forthcoming; Kofman forthcoming; Khoo et al. forthcoming). National policies have rarely addressed these gender issues with the notable exception of Canada and Australia (Boyd and Pikkov forthcoming; Khoo et al. forthcoming).

These global trends indicate new developments in terms of the scale of international migration and entry of women into migration streams that used to be dominated by men (i.e., women as independent economic migrants and main income earners) (UN 2004).

### **Feminization of Migration**

Academic studies on contemporary flows of migration have since the 1980s increasingly acknowledged and highlighted a wide range of issues related to one of the key features of contemporary migration flows today: its feminization. This specific aspect has also been highlighted by UN agencies and the policy-making community (UNFPA 2006; UNRISD 2005; UN 2004; ILO 2004). The feminization of migration is linked to at least four phenomena:

- improved statistical visibility, partly related to a changed perception of women-dominated migration as “work migration” in its own right (see Rojas Wiesner and Angeles Cruz forthcoming);
- the rising participation of women in most, if not all, migration streams;
- the increasing inability of men to find full-time employment in the origin countries; and
- the growing demand for feminized jobs in destination countries.

The demand in feminized sectors has become so strong that there is some evidence of men attempting to enter feminized streams (especially nursing), because of the legal channels and breadth of destination countries “on offer” (Manalansan IV 2006).

Yet, on the whole, statistics on international migration by gender that make it possible to identify the characteristics of migrants is still uneven across countries and regions.<sup>3</sup> Inevitably, most surveys also underestimate those entering in an irregular manner and the undocumented as well as the extent of transient circulation (Morokvasic 2003; Asis 2005). The high presence of women migrants in informal and unregulated jobs, restrictions on their right to work, and involvement in activities that are deemed to be criminal offences or against public order (e.g., prostitution) mean that a higher proportion of women are statistically invisible. Gender analysis, however, should not be limited to statistics broken down by sex alone. Rather, it ought to raise awareness about broader social factors that influence women and men’s roles, and their access to resources, facilities and services (UNRISD 2005). Related to this is also the issue of the “transnational social sphere” of migration demanding to broaden our analysis to those left behind. Women (grandmothers, daughters, aunts etc.) often take on the role vacated by migrating women by becoming “replacement mothers” or carers where men resist or are also working abroad; or non-migrant women take on the role as heads of households in the case of male out migration. How emigration influences the transformation of gender roles has been researched to some extent, but longitudinal studies assessing the sustained changes over time are rare.

Also, increasing female migration is not always a signifier of their increased freedom of movement or increased independence (Erel et al. 2003). As temporary contract workers on legal work permits, both male and female migrants are often tied to one specific employer in one specific line of work – and when this is a job classified as unskilled and is linked to the informal sector of the economy, this results in limited wage earning power and has thus implications for sustaining family members back home. This is compounded by the emergence of a complex migration industry with the involvement of brokers and recruiters who charge various types of fees, often exceeding legal ceilings (Verité 2005). Furthermore, labour laws often do not cover certain types of jobs, typically domestic work; and even where they do, labour laws are often not enforced, the freedom of association is widely violated, and undocumented migration is tacitly approved and legal status denied by many receiving states. While two of the male-dominated sectors are classified as the most dangerous types of work – construction and agriculture – domestic work has also been recognized as one of the most vulnerable types of employment with high levels of isolation and widespread occurrence of abusive practices (ILO 2004). As women in lower-skilled jobs

often end up in (certain) reproductive spheres of the labour market (as domestic workers, sex workers), they work in jobs that are socio-legally not recognized as proper work.

Women also figure highly among the most vulnerable group of trafficked victims: those trafficked for the purpose of sexual exploitation. It has to be noted that international definitions include various forms of forced labour under the heading of trafficking, and thus are not necessarily only linked to prostitution. This means that women working in other forms of forced labour conditions could be seen as trafficked, and men could potentially be victims of trafficking also. But academic research and most programs or projects by international organizations have focussed on women (and children) trafficked for prostitution, and we know very little about other forms of forced labour.<sup>4</sup>

The feminization of migration can also be observed among the professional and skilled category of migrants, with women migrating in large numbers to work in feminized sectors such as health and education (Khoo et al. forthcoming; Boyd and Pikkov forthcoming; Kofman forthcoming). It is, in fact, the increasing significance of employment in health which has been subject to a number of global studies (e.g., Kingma 2005, Buchan and Calman 2004) as well as in relation to gendered welfare states and the crisis of care (Kofman forthcoming). As welfare and social professionals, migrant women are often compelled to accept subordinate and less secure employment. They are often not provided with the same quality of benefits that other white-collar workers might expect when working abroad such as housing, transportation and family relocation (Van Eyck 2004). Although classified as skilled workers, this does not necessarily come with a permanent residence permit. Many jobs in the health and education sectors are contracted and highly dependent on the labour market situation, as exemplified in the recent changes in the United Kingdom's hiring procedure. This makes, among others, family reunification a difficult, if not impossible, decision.

When the category of female migrant is broken down, the differences between skilled migrant women and the less or unskilled, refugee or trafficked women and migrating wives become clear. In each category, migrant women tend to face more obstacles and sources of discrimination than the average male migrant, largely based on modes of entry open to them and the types of jobs they perform. This has implications for their access to citizenship, rights and entitlements.

### **Management of Migration**

The agenda behind managing migration is to a large extent about the control of entry and exit of migrant workers. This is not new; the control of migration has preoccupied the minds of policy makers since the 1970s and more forcefully since the late 1980s and 1990s. New is the push to global and regional co-operation between origin and destination countries, discussed and elaborated at so-called RCPs (regional consultative processes) and international events, such as the ILO congress in 2004 devoted to labour migration and the UN High Level Dialogue on International Migration and Development in September 2006. Although this shift in the migration policy debate to focus on international co-operation is primarily concerned with control over entry and exit as well as prevention of irregular migration,<sup>5</sup> broader human

rights issues as well as the rights of foreign workers have also entered into the discussion (GCIM 2005; IOM and FOM 2005) and thus, a concern for the basic units of analysis of migration: the migrants themselves. But it is yet to be seen whether this is a matter of paying mere lip service or whether there is in fact a serious concern with migrants' human rights and efforts toward implementation are made.

States typically take a utilitarian approach to migration prioritizing their economic interests:

- origin countries are often driven by the desire to increase foreign remittances and to reduce unemployment; and
- destination countries are interested in solving labour market shortages in certain sectors by ensuring a highly flexible and compliant work force.

As a result, governments usually take less notice of migrant workers' needs and concerns as opposed to those of employers and sometimes not even of those employers in favour of increasing legal migration of lower-skilled workers. There are, therefore, competing societal demands rooted in real socio-economic needs, but the economic, social, political and distributional consequences of migration, and their implications for gender, at the macro and micro levels, have not yet been sufficiently explored.

In destination countries, migration policies revolve broadly around two main issues: attracting the highly skilled, and cracking down on illegal migrants (many of whom work in the less-skilled type of jobs). There are more temporary migrants today (among them the skilled and lesser skilled), a trend that has also become evident in traditional "settler" countries (North America, Australia, New Zealand). In addition, there is also more out migration of "native" citizens from settler countries, as recent study on the Australian diaspora, for instance, has shown (Hugo et al. 2003). This points to the issue of replacement migration (which to date is probably best studied in the context of health worker migration).

From the perspective of developing countries, there are concerns about brain and skills drain or gain when the better educated leave in high numbers. Countries of origin have also begun to show increasing interest in their nationals residing overseas and the benefits of their remittances or investments. Temporary migration is said to be more conducive to continuing flows of remittances than permanent emigration. Within and beyond these considerations, there are gendered ramifications, many of which are not fully understood.

National policies toward regulation and practices governing the entry and residence of migrants have changed to some extent in recent years. Industrialized countries in Europe, North America and Oceania still admit permanent residents on the basis of three long-established principles: family reunification, economic considerations and humanitarian concerns. However, there has been an increasing move toward a dilution of settlement principles in ways that favour the needs of the labour market. Policy makers are increasingly urged to tailor migration selection to meet these demographic and economic needs. As a result, "guest worker" type of regimes are re-emerging (ILO 2004). Although present in all types of migrant categories, the majority of migrant women still enter via family

reunification schemes in the North; most women migrate as independent contract workers or as irregular workers in much of the South.

The increasing shift toward temporary and circular migration as opposed to permanent settlement in the highly developed destination countries is differently experienced by migrants according to skill, gender and ethnicity. The increasing bifurcation between skilled and less skilled migration in the ease of cross-border movement between countries is accompanied by a clear gender bias, with most highly skilled migrants being male (intra-company transfers, information technology workers, etc.). With women dominating certain sectors (household, sex/entertainment, sweatshop), they are also prominent in this category of migrants. Official policy, however, largely neglects this group of migrants and, as a result, the numbers of undocumented migrants are high.

It has to be noted that the categorization into skilled and less skilled workers requires closer examination through a gender lens. Ironically, many skilled women become less-skilled migrant workers because of the lack of demand in the jobs they are qualified for — a phenomenon referred to as “de-skilling.” With domestic work constituting the major legal channel available to women in many regions of this world, it is common to find fairly well educated women working as domestic workers. At the same time, less-skilled women are turned into skilled migrant workers because of the otherwise controversial nature of their jobs or their physical mobility. For instance, in the Philippines, the government classifies women departing to Japan, Korea and Taiwan on the entertainer visa as “professional overseas performing artists.” A recent study by the International Organisation for Migration (2003: 65) described the classification of entertainers as professional or skilled as an “anachronism” because most of the women are rarely trained as professional entertainers or performing artists. At the same time, this raises a feminist concern about reproductive or care work, often not being considered as requiring skills. In a similar vein, Dodson (forthcoming) highlights the narrow interpretation of skills in South Africa’s new immigration act characterized by “hard-nosed economic imperatives” that clearly favour men. Another example is provided by the case of Bangladesh: as the out-migration of less-skilled Bangladeshi women is banned by the government, female factory workers in Malaysia are classified as skilled to allow them to migrate legally. Thus, the official categories of skilled and unskilled need deconstructing to expose their social embeddedness, as argued by Dodson (forthcoming). Commonly used classifications do not always reflect or recognize the actual level of skill or professionalism, but are rooted in the economic and gender disparities that exist between origin and destination countries as well as within societies.

### ***Co-operation***

States have shown a certain resistance to committing themselves to multilateral agreements as evident from the latest attempt by the ILO to revive a rights-based approach to labour migration, which has taken the form of a non-binding framework (ILO 2006). Migrant worker-specific UN and ILO conventions have the lowest ratification record of all international instruments, except for the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the 2000 United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime. Many of the regional co-

operative efforts have also focussed on trafficking (at least in Asia). But overall, there is still far too little concrete action with regard to victim support initiatives and policies based on a human rights framework.

On the issue of co-operation between destination and origin countries, there is the option of negotiating bilateral agreements or memoranda of understanding (MOUs), but examples of good practices with regard to the inclusion of gender-sensitive rights clauses are few and far between. Moreover, the problem with bilateral agreements and MOUs is that they give preferential treatment to a specific group of migrants, and by not promoting universal standards across all nationality groups, a hierarchy among migrant workers often emerges.<sup>6</sup> Also, international agreements affecting migration at global, regional and national levels are more likely to be more favourable toward skilled than low-skilled migrants (Skeldon 2004) leaving many female migrants who dominate the latter category at a disadvantage. UNIFEM in Bangkok facilitated the establishment of an implementing mechanism for MOUs between Jordan–Indonesia and Jordan–Philippines that contain rights protection for foreign domestic workers. It remains to be seen what the concrete outcome of this promising endeavour will be. There are also MOUs in place between Thailand and its neighbours, Laos and Cambodia, which are said to contain clauses on migrants’ rights (UNFPA 2006).

The trend has been to shift migration to trade agendas — the World Trade Organization and the General Agreement on Trade in Services/mode 4 — and developments, such as the recent free trade agreement between Japan and the Philippines.

### **Linking Migration and Development**

The 2004 UN report on women and migration highlights two main elements of the debate revolving around the migration-development nexus:

- the ways in which development processes can reduce pressures for migration; and
- the ways in which migrants can be a resource for poverty reduction and sustainable development in their home communities (UN 2004: 24).

This has also been touched upon by the 2006 UN report on migration and development stating that all countries should strive to create more jobs, and decent jobs, to allow everyone the option of staying at home. This is at least partially to be achieved through a process of co-development. Co-development refers to various initiatives between origin and destination countries aimed at boosting development in the former. This debate seems to be largely concerned with development at the macro and community levels.

On an individual level, it has been noted in a generalized manner that “although all migrants can be agents of change, migrant women are more likely to have their personal development thwarted” (than men) (UN 2006: 15). Respecting women’s rights as part of economic and social development is seen as the best long-term solution to reduce the pressures of out migration. Measures to improve the benefits of migration for women include providing them with an independent legal status and permission to work when admitted for family reunification. Another vital issue, as I would argue, is the improvement of skills. One

important way of protecting migrants and guaranteeing “successful” migration is via the acquisition of skills, before migration and while working abroad. This refers to work skills (language, job training) and financial skills (budgeting, planning and strategizing for the future). Language is a vital skill for personal development in the immediate sphere of work and with regard to broader integration. Research in the Canadian context has shown how free language lessons have benefited migrant women (Boyd and Pikkov forthcoming). With regard to work skills, in some countries training is offered to migrants (through trade unions), but this is mostly of use for male migrants working in unionized sectors. In this regard, it would be interesting to study in greater detail the training and skill programs offered by various non-profit organizations in Southeast Asia, especially a strategy developed by Filipino non-governmental organizations called Migrant Savings for Alternative Investment (Macabuag and Dimaandal 2006). Gaining skills is very important; many women work in dead-end jobs (domestic work and sex/entertainment) where skill acquisition is difficult.

On the whole, the social dimensions of the development–migration nexus are under-explored, and issues such as migrants as agents of political and cultural transformation, furthering gender equality, the promotion of gender equity and equality (“investment” in women is among the Millennium Development Goals) are under-studied. What we do know is hardly ever based on longitudinal studies assessing the long-term effects. More broadly, this requires the conceptual linking of development, citizenship and rights in the context of migration.

### **Rights of Migrants**

Much of the debate on the rights of migrants has focussed on the legalistic aspects revolving around the existing international law framework for the protection of migrants (Cholewinski 1997; Aleinikoff and Chetail 2003; Satterthwaite 2005) or on more specific rights, such as political rights, and this has typically occurred in the context of liberal states’ role as countries of immigration (Joppke 1998). Another angle taken by existing scholarship is (formal) citizenship, with the starting point being again the perspective of “proper” immigration, where settlement and family reunification is an option. This does not, however, reflect the situation of increasing numbers of temporary migrant workers or the undocumented (Piper 2006). It has also been argued that demanding citizenship rights could actually be detrimental for migrant women’s ability to access work abroad in a non-western, non-liberal context (Bell and Piper 2005).

As shown above, emerging policies by destination governments result in increasingly stratified rights and entitlements largely dependent on legal status and skill level. Citizenship is becoming less important for the skilled (who obtain most rights via permanent residency status). At the same time, changing citizenship is becoming easier for the privileged and the toleration of dual citizenship is increasing (Dauvergne forthcoming). For the lower or unskilled workers, citizenship is of less immediate importance than accessing overseas employment in general (Briones 2006). There are, thus, enormous inequalities in access to a permanent residency status, and even the permanence of that status is being affected by pressures of globalization (Dauvergne forthcoming).

The subject of migrants' rights, thus, clearly emerges as a broader issue than national citizenship and relates to debates on international human rights. What we can broadly observe regarding the legal situation of migrants is that there are serious protection gaps largely to do with changing migration patterns and the dominance of certain types of migrants who have emerged as particularly vulnerable, especially migrant women (Piper and Satterthwaite forthcoming). Foreign workers' rights, in particular, have been described as among, if not *the*, least clear and enforced group of human rights targeting marginalized groups, such as refugees, women and children. The lack of recognition of migrants' rights in practice means migrants have little real access to rights, which is largely related to political and cultural bias against foreign workers (Gosh 2003). Migrants' rights are, in fact, a highly contested subject as is also reflected in the low ratification rate of migrant-specific human rights instruments. Another major reason, however, is the absence of a social movement capable of supporting the rights of all migrants, legal and undocumented, and the lack of advocacy in the field of migration policy. There are, however, interesting developments in this regard in several parts of the world (Piper 2005b).

Rights as a concept easily conjure up the image of a legalistic approach focusing "on what the law says" by downplaying the dynamic aspects of the political processes at play (VeneKlasen et al. 2004). By introducing a social movement or activist perspective into the academic debate on the human rights of migrants, I have argued elsewhere (2006) that rights first appear not when governments recognize them, but when people begin demanding and exercising them. It is through meaningful organizations that such an enabling environment can be created leading to the empowerment of workers through education, knowledge provision and collective action. But political organizing of migrants is also gendered. "The gendered nature of organisational structures involved in the political struggle for the recognition of migrants' rights does not only reflect gender segregated labour markets but also the gendered nature of law" (Piper forthcoming).

Reflecting the increasing participation of women in economic migration streams, gender perspectives have more recently been introduced into the debate on the human rights of migrants. It has been argued that the protective capacity of existing human rights law is inadequate in the case of certain jobs that are predominantly carried out by women (Piper and Satterthwaite forthcoming). Also, the intersecting forms of discrimination based on multiple identities of women rather than race or migrant status alone has led to legal scholars arguing for a comprehensive approach to the otherwise scattered nature of international legal instruments that typically address one identity at a time (Satterthwaite 2005). The 1990 UN Convention on the Rights of All Migrant Workers and their Families (CRMW) might not be the most suitable international human rights document for advocating and ensuring migrants and migrant women's rights. This is similar with regard to the ILO migrant-specific instruments and the ILO's principles of equality and non-discrimination. Ensuring equity with native workers under the ILO conventions and the UN Convention may not be sufficient, particularly for women working in sectors where there is no protection for native workers either. In this context, creative advocacy is crucial in bridging the fragmented nature of international human rights instruments, as argued by Satterthwaite (2005).

This has policy implications: a direct link between a rights-based approach to labour migration and a rights-based approach to development has not been established by global policy makers, which presumably is mainly due to the politically sensitive nature of the underlying global inequalities. A deeper normative and empirical analysis of the political and economic processes and linkages between gender, migration and development, however, is required. This could ultimately assist non-governmental activists to make these connections in their advocacy work, which would then lead to new or extended coalitions between various civil society organizations, nationally and transnationally.

## **Concluding Remarks**

The migration landscape is constantly changing with increasing levels of complexity — and so are the gender issues involved. A complex system of inequalities has emerged between countries located in the North and South, but also within the South itself (Oishi 2005) as well as within the North as exemplified by migration from EU accession countries to the more established EU member states (Morokvasic-Mueller et al. 2003). Hence, migration has to be placed in a broader context — analytically and empirically — to capture the complex picture of gendered axes of stratification.

From a global perspective, what we can observe is that on the macro level migration policies show a certain degree of convergence with regard to two major trends:

- the intensified hunt for the highly skilled; and
- the crack-down on irregular or undocumented migrants, many of whom are represented in lower or unskilled types of jobs.

The two broad streams of the skilled and less skilled (regardless of legal status) both comprise male and female migrants but with qualitative and quantitative differences between and among them, some of which are more subtle than others.

The analysis of the diversification and stratification of gendered migratory streams highlights the key axes of differentiation among male and female migrants with regard to skill level, legal status, country of origin and mode of entry, which vary in degree across time and space. In turn, a migrant's position in relation to these axes influences access to entitlements and rights. Furthermore, the importance given to skill and economic competitiveness on the part of destination countries might exacerbate the already existing hierarchy of rights and entitlements. Further questioning of the definition of skill is required to address the female deficit among existing populations of skilled migrant workers. This would also be of relevance to the current debate on the developmental impact of migration on origin countries (UN 2006).

There is increased awareness of the important role that gender plays in international migration. This reflects the increased proportion of migrant women in all categories alongside increased recognition by scholars and policy makers alike that their experience of migration differs from that of men. What emerges is a highly complex picture of gendered outcomes of migration. This makes the assessment of gender equalizing and empowering experiences that

migration may entail highly context-specific and closely connected to legal status, skill level, socio-economic and cultural background in the countries involved.

Apart from macro-level convergences, we need to take note of the existence of a “multiple unevenness” with regard to gendered migrations — uneven in terms of research/data on gender (less on Africa and Latin America than on North America, Europe and Asia); uneven in that certain types of migrants are better researched than others); uneven in terms of rights and entitlements across the various groups of migrants with women highly represented among the worst off; and uneven political activism by and on behalf of migrants.

Overall, the mainstreaming of a gender and rights perspective into all migration interventions is desirable as well as the mainstreaming of migration into development interventions. It is vital to link rights-based with development approaches, to highlight that migrants, in general, and migrant women, in specific, have rights as individuals and as agents of development. The analysis of the role of gender in migration should also be mainstreamed into social policy agendas by governments in the destination as well as origin countries.

As a final general observation, migration poses a new challenge in the subject area of women’s rights, development and citizenship, for research and policy makers.<sup>7</sup> Especially the conceptual and normative linkages between women’s social and economic rights as related to migration need further exploring in specific geographic or cultural settings. For instance, the mobility limits imposed on women in much of South Asia is typically couched in terms of the rights of women to “safety.” Rights to protection by origin countries are often based on the legality of migration rather than on their national origins meaning that legality/illegality become a key vector of differentiation. This means that women have to use their multiple identifications in pursuing their rights. On the policy level, a deeper political analysis of policy-making processes and the identification of good practices in specific countries is needed to inform relevant policy developments and political advocacy elsewhere.

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## Endnotes

<sup>1</sup> This is a forum bringing together the heads of several major UN agencies (International Labour Organization, UN Conference on Trade and Development, UN Human Rights Committee, Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights, UN Office on Drugs and Crime).

<sup>2</sup> This quote is from Bilsborrow et al. (1997: 321).

<sup>3</sup> See, for example, Rojas Wiesner and Angeles Cruz (forthcoming); Dodson (forthcoming).

<sup>4</sup> See Verite (2005).

<sup>5</sup> See, for example, UNHRC (2001).

<sup>6</sup> This is particularly evident in the case of foreign domestic workers in Asia. Filipinas are usually given the best deal, followed by Indonesians and Sri Lankans.

<sup>7</sup> As also highlighted by IDRC (2006).

## PANEL 1: ECONOMIC ISSUES

### MIGRANT WOMEN AND THE NORDIC LABOUR MARKETS

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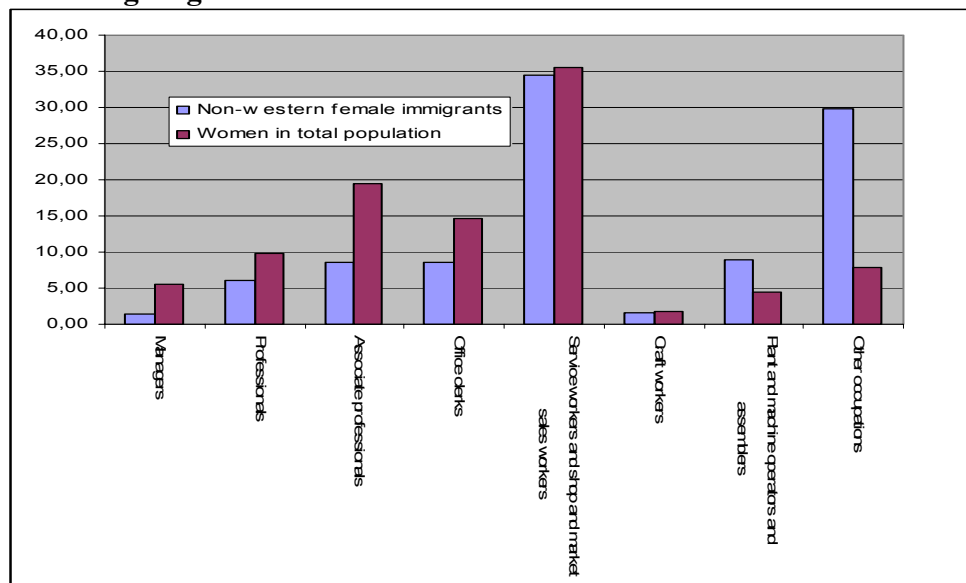
#### Between Isolation and Emancipation

- Labour market participation among migrant women
- Segmentation and differentiation
- Ethnic division
- Gender division
- Class division

#### Unemployment Rates among Migrant Women – Norway

	Men	Women
Whole population (16-74 years)	2.5	2.5
Ethnic Norwegians	2.1	2.1
First generation migrants	7.2	7.5
Nordic countries	3.2	2.5
Western Europe	2.4	2.7
New EU members (Eastern-Europe)	2.0	4.9
Eastern Europe	8.3	9.6
North America og Oceania	3.7	3.4
Asia	9.5	10.7
Africa	15.5	13.5
South and Central America	7.5	8.4

#### Occupation among Migrant Women



## **Four Migrant Women**

- Maria from Latin-America
- Van from Vietnam
- Mirna from Bosnia
- Zahra from Iran

## **Project Examples**

- Quo Vadis?" in Oslo
- The care worker project in Trondheim

## **Challenges**

- Institutional level: legislation, welfare policy and labour market measures.
- Organizational level: attitudes, work place measures and affirmative action. The "Scandinavian model" – co-operation between employers and union.
- Individual level: language, education, and formal and informal skills.

## **IRREGULAR MIGRATION AND THE TRAMPOLINE EFFECT (Abstract only)**

**Gabriella Lazaridis**, University of Leicester, United Kingdom

This paper attempts to analyze a number of globalized industries that are built upon the labour and "care" services provided by women. It explores the complexities of experiences and positions of migrant women and looks at ways in which a large informal economy has created a demand for these services. The multifarious degrees and forms that various exclusionary processes take, depend, to a large extent, on cross cuttings of gender, ethnicity and class, as sexist intersects with different forms of "othering" and racialization processes in the destination country.

This paper begins with a brief setting of the scene, which contextualizes the paper within the Greek socio-cultural and economic milieu. It continues with an examination of the experiences of migrant women who provide so called "care" services in Greece. This section deals with migrant nurses, distinguishing between those who work in hospitals and those who nurse elderly people at home (quasi-nurses), examines the experiences of nannies and maids and deals with the sex industry, which allegedly "cares" for the needs of men. The argument put forward is that for only a handful of the women interviewed, there was a clear progression in the occupational ladder between working as a maid and performing the duties of a quasi-nurse or functioning as "*apoklistiki*." For the majority, there was a trampoline effect in operation: from unemployment to maid, from maid to quasi-nurse, from quasi-nurse back to unemployment, from unemployment back to quasi-nurse or up to *apoklistiki*, back to unemployment, up to maid or quasi-nurse and so on. Often, the boundaries were

blurred and the work characterized by discontinuity, and performed against the backdrop of a complex web of insecurities, uncertainties and violation of basic human rights. Finally, I make some suggestions for policy making.

## **THE INFLUENCE OF OCCUPATIONAL STRUCTURE ON THE LABOUR MARKET EXPERIENCES OF IMMIGRANT WOMEN: CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES COMPARED<sup>1</sup>**

**Lori Wilkinson,**<sup>2</sup> Department of Sociology, University of Manitoba Canada

This project examines the effect of gender, visible minority status and occupational structures on the earning outcomes of immigrant women in Canada and the United States. Evidence from several studies in both countries indicates that earnings equations differ for immigrant women and men, but few studies attempt to compare the differences cross-nationally. Findings from the few comparative studies available suggest that immigrant women in the United States, with some exceptions, suffer greater economic disparities than their counterparts in Canada. This research investigates the extent to which this trend continues today. It is an assessment of how country of arrival (Canada or United States) may differentially influence economic outcomes for immigrant women. Variables such as fertility rate, number of children under age 6 and marital status, along with standard human capital variables, such as education and work experience, are used to model their employment wages by various occupations. The research questions are as follows:

- How do gender-specific characteristics, visible minority status and other factors influence the occupational structure and earnings outcomes of immigrant women in the United States and Canada?
- Are these influences different from one another?

This project uses data from the 2000 U.S. Census and the 2001 Canadian Census to compare the returns of education on income<sup>3</sup> for 22 occupational categories for each country. The comparison is fourfold. Immigrant women in Canada and the United States are compared to native-born women in both countries, resulting in 88 separate ordinary least squares (OLS) regression models predicting the factors influencing income by occupation. Employed, working aged women, those between 25 and 64 years, were examined in this study. This group has the highest rate of labour market participation and are the least likely to be involved in full-time education or retired.<sup>4</sup>

### **Literature Review**

There are several shortcomings to current knowledge about immigrant women and their labour market experiences. This is the reason why this research project was conducted. First, it addresses a gap in the literature regarding the lack of women-centred research. Most models are based on the male experience of economic integration risks omitting factors relevant to explaining and predicting the earnings of female immigrants (Grant 1999; Pendakur 2000). Because there are factors unique to the experiences of female immigrants that influence their employment differently from men, new research requires the construction

of a statistical model that includes these factors. This project is one attempt at addressing this gap.

A second gap in research is the lack of comparative immigration research between Canada and the United States.<sup>5</sup> Canada and the United States share many commonalities in terms of their historical and contemporary immigration patterns, their economies and their culture. There also exists a great debate in terms of the differences between integrating into the Canadian mosaic versus the American melting pot. Our research contributes to this debate by identifying and comparing the factors that influence the economic integration of immigrant women between the United States and Canada.

Third, comparative research on the influence of occupation on the income of immigrant women in Canada and the United States does not exist. Of the few models attempting to compare Canada to the United States, none of them control for industry or occupation. This research does and shows stark differences in labour market and income outcomes based on occupation.

Finally, there is an unfounded assumption, largely based on anecdotal evidence, that the labour market experiences of immigrant women in Canada are better than those in the United States. This assumption is challenged and ultimately overturned in the current research.

Statistics Canada reported that not only are recent immigrants more likely to be unemployed, they are more likely to be working in jobs too low for their skill qualifications than their native-born counterparts. Data from the Longitudinal Immigration Data Base corroborates the above findings; the earnings of recent immigrants have declined relative to immigrants arriving in the 1980s. Skilled workers who immigrated to Canada before 1989 earned more than the average earnings of Canadian tax filers one year after landing, while those who immigrated after 1989 earned less (DeSilva 1997). In the United States, studies of the 1990 Census indicate that the labour market performance of immigrants is also decreasing. Borjas (1994, 1995) found that usage of social welfare among immigrants increased throughout the 1990s, though it is still below that of native-born Americans.

The claims that recent immigrant cohorts are not performing as well as earlier ones has been challenged by several other studies, showing that immigrants arriving in the early 1980s were improving their earnings at a faster rate than their predecessors, and that those arriving in the late 1980s had similar entry earnings to those who came in the early 1980s (Grant 1999). Furthermore, recent immigrant cohorts suffered a smaller earnings disadvantage on entry than earlier cohorts (McDonald and Worswick 1998). Borjas (1994) also argued that in the United States changing economic conditions of the receiving society, as well as immigrants' improved productivity over time (as a result of more experience, better recognition of credentials, etc.), may have influenced the economic performance of immigrants. Bean and his associates (1997) argued that findings indicating welfare usage among immigrants have increasingly failed to acknowledge the changes in the American labour market that contributed to changes in immigrant productivity. When these are accounted for, immigrants remain less likely to claim social assistance than native-born Americans. In short, there is no

consensus regarding whether the economic experiences of recent immigrants is getting better or getting worse.

## Results

Table 1 shows the participation rate by occupation and immigrant status for both Canada and the United States. It is worthwhile noting that 11% of those living in the United States were born elsewhere. The corresponding figure for Canada is 18%. To interpret the results of Table 1, consider that labour market parity is achieved if 11% of immigrant women in the United States and 18% of immigrant women in Canada are present in all occupations. Clearly, this is not the case. In some occupations, immigrant women are overrepresented based on the expected proportion of the population. Immigrant women in Canada and the United States are more likely to be employed as machine operators (44.9% Canada, 22.7% United States), in manufacturing (41.3% Canada, 19.2% United States), or in the natural sciences (31.3% Canada, 19.4% US) than native-born women. Conversely, they are underrepresented in many occupations, mainly the skilled, high-paying jobs in business, social science/government and teaching. Overall, the magnitude of underrepresentation in these higher-paid occupations is more apparent in Canada as immigrant women here are less likely to be working in financial and health occupations than their immigrant women counterparts in the United States. However, immigrant women in the United States are underrepresented in the senior/middle management and upper level clerical work than immigrant women in Canada. To summarize this table, immigrant women in Canada participate at rates proportional to their population in seven occupations, while in the United States, their counterparts are equivalent in 11 occupations.

The next results compare the differences in mean income of immigrant and native-born women by occupation for both countries. Not surprisingly, the results vary greatly by occupation (see Table 2). Negative income differences indicate that immigrant women earn more than native-born women. Positive numbers indicate that native-born women earn more than immigrant women.

Women working in professional occupations, regardless of residence in the United States or Canada and immigration status, generally have higher incomes than those employed in blue collar occupations. There are, however, some exceptions. Immigrant women in the United States have higher mean incomes than American-born women in some business, financial, clerical, natural science, health and art/recreation/sport occupations. In Canada, the results are opposite. Immigrant women have lower mean incomes than Canadian-born women regardless of occupation.

**Table 1: Occupation by Immigrant Status and Country, 2000/01**

	Canada		United States	
	Immigrant %	Canadian Born %	Immigrant %	U.S.-Born %
Senior/middle management	21.6	78.4	8.8	91.2
Business professional	24.4	75.6	8.5	91.5
Financial	18.0	82.0	10.2	89.8
Clerical	20.2	79.8	7.6	92.4
Natural science	31.3	68.7	19.4	80.6
Health professional	19.3	80.7	11.9	88.1
Technical health assistant	21.3	78.7	12.1	87.9
Social science/government	18.9	81.1	7.3	92.7
Teaching	16.0	84.0	6.9	93.1
Art, culture, recreation, sport	21.6	78.4	10.9	89.1
Wholesale, real estate	21.8	78.2	10.4	89.6
Retail sales	20.7	79.3	14.5	85.5
Food service	19.4	80.6	14.1	85.9
Protective services	12.3	87.7	14.5	85.5
Child care	24.6	75.4	15.3	84.7
Travel	26.3	73.7	12.6	87.4
Trades, transport, construction	22.9	77.1	12.4	87.6
Primary occupations	15.5	84.5	33.4	66.6
Machine operators	44.9	55.1	22.7	77.3
Manufacturing	41.3	58.7	19.2	80.8
Total	22.2	77.8	11.4	88.6

**Table 2: Mean Wage Differences for Native-Born vs. Immigrant Women by Occupation and Country of Residence, 2000/01**

	Canada \$	United States \$
Senior/middle management	3,789	232
Business professional	3,693	-1,115
Financial	-114	-2,142
Clerical	1,080	-1,014
Natural science	1,885	-1,921
Health professional	861	-9,271
Technical health assistant	800	-515
Social science/government	1,823	-79
Teaching	3,969	2,676
Art, culture, recreation, sport	2,120	-2,283
Wholesale, real estate	8,032	2,970
Trades, transport, construction	68	3,288

In short, these results are an early indicator that the income gap between immigrant women and native-born women in the United States is actually smaller than it is among immigrant and native-born women in Canada. For example, immigrant women working in the teaching occupation earn \$3,969 less per year than native-born women in the same occupation. Among those living in the United States, immigrant women earn \$2,676 less than their native-born counterparts. This smaller gap between native-born and immigrant women in the United

States is apparent across most occupations. For instance, immigrant women working in senior/middle management occupations in Canada earn \$3,789 less than native-born women. That gap is only \$232 among women in the United States. This difference is also apparent in the blue collar occupations where immigrant women in Canada earn as much as \$8,032 less than their native-born counterparts. The difference in the United States is only \$2,970.

Next, a series of OLS regression equations conducted on each of the 22 occupations, resulted in a total of 88 models of income for immigrant and native-born women in the United States and Canada. They examine the factors that influence the income of immigrant and native-born women by their occupation. Rather than produce all the tables here, I summarize the models in the following tables.<sup>6</sup>

For the most part, the human capital variables (education, hours worked per week and class of worker) have the greatest influence on employment income, regardless of occupation. For most models, class of worker (self-employed or wage employee) had the largest influence, followed by education. However, the magnitude of the influence of these variables varied according to occupation. The effect of other factors, such as marital status, presence of children, age, language and visible minority status, differed by occupation, immigrant status and country of residence.

I compare the differences in the rate of return on education for each occupation by country and immigrant status first. This is where the differences between immigrant women in Canada and the United States are most pronounced (see Table 3). The returns of education on income favoured native-born women in both countries, regardless of occupation. However, immigrant women in the United States experienced a smaller degree of education discrimination in almost all occupations than immigrant women in Canada. For instance, for each year of education, immigrant women in senior/middle management positions in Canada earned \$1,623 less than their native-born counterparts, while the difference for immigrant women in the United States was only \$584. This indicates that the return on education for immigrant women in Canada is less than it is among immigrant women in the United States, and is apparent for every occupation except for those in the natural sciences and in teaching. In short, while the returns of education still favoured native-born women in both countries, immigrant women in the United States experienced a lesser degree of discrimination in almost every occupation. In general, the returns on education are particularly low for immigrant women in the management, health technology and wholesale/real estate occupations in Canada.

**Table 3: Differences in Returns to Education by Occupation, Immigrant Status and Country, 2000/01**

	Canada \$	United States \$
Senior/middle management	-1,623	-584
Business professional	-701	-583
Financial	-847	-702
Clerical	-397	-134
Natural science	-694	-1,502
Health professional	-496	-233
Technical health assistant	-1,507	-763
Social science/government	-798	412
Teaching	-562	-1,127
Art, culture, recreation, sport	-1,089	-439
Wholesale, real estate	-2,803	-881
Trades, transport, construction	-921	-316

There are other differences in the models worth mentioning. The influence of visible minority status does not have a statistically significant influence on income for most occupations when other factors are controlled, with a few exceptions. These mainly affect the income of women in the United States. Visible minority immigrant women in the United States experience reductions in their income in finance (-\$2,192) and in business (-\$1,430). American-born visible minority women in the natural sciences (-\$4,175) and wholesale/real estate professions (-\$3,350) face significantly lower incomes as well. Visible minority immigrant women in Canada working in business, natural sciences and trades experience slightly higher economic returns than their native-born counterparts.<sup>7</sup> To summarize, visible minority status does not appear to be a large factor influencing the income of immigrant and native-born women in Canada, though it plays a significant role in the outcomes of immigrant and native-born women in some, mainly white collar, occupations in the United States.

**Table 4: Influence of Visible Minority Status on Income by Occupation (Select), Immigrant Status and Country, 2000/01**

	Canada		United States	
	Immigrant \$	Native-born \$	Immigrant \$	Native-born \$
Business professional	+1,300	n.s.s.	-2,192	n.s.s.
Financial	n.s.s.	n.s.s.	-1,430	n.s.s.
Natural science	+1155	n.s.s.	+2,265	-4,175
Health professional	n.s.s.	n.s.s.	+6,250	n.s.s.
Social science/government	+460	n.s.s.	n.s.s.	n.s.s.
Teaching	n.s.s.	n.s.s.	n.s.s.	+1,433
Art, culture, recreation, sport	n.s.s.	n.s.s.	n.s.s.	+5,832
Wholesale, real estate	n.s.s.	n.s.s.	n.s.s.	-3,350
Trades, transport, construction	+816	n.s.s.	n.s.s.	+1,644

Note: n.s.s.=results not statistically significant.

Contrary to popular belief, language proficiency<sup>8</sup> affects only a few occupations, mainly in the United States, where immigrant women with high language proficiency receive significant income gains in health (+\$14,000), social sciences/government (+\$21,000), trades (+\$6,300), and clerical professions (+\$6,161). In most other occupations, however, poor language proficiency does not have a significant negative effect.

The presence of children under age 6<sup>9</sup> has varying effects by occupation and immigrant status for women in both countries. For Canadian-born women in the professions of health, teaching and natural sciences, the effect of young children is positive. In other words, the presence of children for these women is an economic benefit for women in these occupations (+\$1,820 health; +\$1,000 natural sciences; +\$2,100 teaching). However, the presence of children has a negative effect in many other occupations, primarily influencing the income of immigrant women. For instance, for immigrant women in Canada in management (-\$1,720), business (-\$1,000), wholesale/real estate -\$3,800), and the trades, the presence of children under age 6 decreases income. For American-born women in teaching and the social science/government occupations (-\$1,000), the results are similar. In summary, the influence of children differs by immigrant status, occupation and country of residence.

### **Policy Implications**

The mean income of immigrant women regardless of country of residence or occupation is below that of native-born women. It is a strong indication that inequality still exists within the labour markets of both Canada and the United States. What is novel, however, is the discovery that the income gap between native-born and immigrant-born women is the largest in Canada, regardless of occupation. It means that immigrant women have a more difficult time achieving income parity in Canada than in the United States. This has serious implications for equality in Canada. If we continue to reduce and eliminate employment and equity programs for women, this may prevent immigrant women from participating as full members in our economy. This has significant human rights implications. Given that over 70% of the gains recently made in the Canadian economy are largely due to the labour and investments provided by immigrant workers (Chrétien 2003), this is an issue we cannot ignore even from an economic standpoint. More recent estimates indicate that by 2011 all the labour force growth in Canada will be the product of immigrant workers (Business Council of Manitoba 2006). These demographic and human rights issues directly influence Canada's labour market in terms of labour shortages and growing international mobility. If Canada fails to accommodate and integrate migrant labour, immigrants will work in other more accommodating markets.

There are implications for Canada. If we continue to ignore the fact that a significant segment of that labour market faces income discrimination, it may cause many immigrants to think twice about migrating to Canada. Recent evidence from China suggests that would-be migrants are increasingly choosing other countries over Canada, traditionally a popular destination for Chinese migrants. As well, a current study indicates that many naturalized Canadian citizens live abroad. It is estimated that more than 2.7 million Canadian citizens do not live in Canada (Asia Pacific Foundation 2006). This is equivalent to roughly 9% of our population. Most of them return to their country of origin or move to a new destination for

professional reasons. In other words, labour market conditions do play a significant role in the decision to migrate or remigrate. Canada needs to consider the implications of generalized labour market discrimination to avoid significant labour market deficits in the very near future.

Policies and programs also need to reflect this inequality. Programs targeting the issues faced by immigrant women would be a significant step forward in integrating them into the labour forces of both countries. However, the solution will not be simple. What works for immigrant women in one profession may not work for those in other professions. Given that the presence of children has a strong and positive effect on income for some occupations, but has the opposite effect on others, illustrates this complexity. Programs that target child-care needs of women by occupation and industry might be a logical and cost-effective short-term solution for some of the income gaps that women, particularly those born outside the country, currently face. The need for child-care services is great; perhaps looking at the influence of occupation is a good place to begin.

Yet there are other aspects worth considering from a policy standpoint. The effect of visible minority status on income has varying effects, some positive, some negative. More research could be directed toward the occupations where visible minority status appears not to have much of an impact on income — perhaps these occupations have conditions which can be replicated among other professions to alleviate the native-born/immigrant income gaps which currently exist.

Finally, the returns to education for all immigrant women, regardless of occupation, are smaller in Canada. These findings are indicative of the problems of continuing labour market discrimination, particularly in Canada. Research indicates that individuals are most satisfied when they work in jobs for which they were trained. The results here suggest that there is a contradiction between the skills immigrant women bring with them and their labour market returns. In light of these findings, it would be prudent to review our plans on foreign credential recognition to recognize these growing income inequalities, particularly among immigrant women. Canada's failure to assess adequately foreign credentials brought by immigrant workers puts our country in a vulnerable position, particularly in regard to the United States. If returns to education are higher there, it makes little sense for migrants to move to Canada. Labour market and demographic shortages in the developed world mean that countries will be in increased competition to attract labourers and families. A possible solution would be for Canada to move quickly to become a leader in assessing the foreign credentials of our migrants. In the long term, we would benefit from attracting the immigrants with the skills needed to enrich our economy and increase our dwindling population. Migrant workers would be more satisfied with their jobs and income in the labour market. The result will be a more dedicated and engaged migrant population with stronger ties to our country. What better way to assure growth and health in our economy?

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## Endnotes

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<sup>3</sup> The dependent variable for both Canadian and American women is employment income (earned from wages and salaries). Investment income, retirement income and other sources of income are excluded from this model.

<sup>4</sup> A few notes about the U.S. sample are warranted. First, respondents who were “not in the labour force” and those living in Puerto Rico, Alaska and Hawaii are excluded from the analysis. Women earning more than \$120,000/year are also excluded given the skewed distribution of the American income sample. Furthermore, a random sample of women was taken from the U.S. Census as the sample file consists of over 14,000,000 respondents.

<sup>5</sup> For exceptions, see Reitz (1998) and Antecol et al. (2002).

<sup>6</sup> Variables included in the OLS regression equations included: age, presence of children, marital status, visible minority status, language ability, highest level of education, hours worked per week, and class of worker. The models were all statistically significant with good model fits, with R<sup>2</sup>s ranging from 0.296 to 0.397.

<sup>7</sup> These differences are not statistically significant.

<sup>8</sup> Table not shown. Please contact author for detailed information.

<sup>9</sup> Table not shown. Please contact author for detailed information.

## **MIGRANT WOMEN, LABOUR MARKETS AND AND IMPLICATIONS FOR IMMIGRATION POLICIES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM**

**Eleonore Kofman**, School of Health and Social Science, Middlesex University, United Kingdom e.kofman@mdx.ac.uk

### **Trends in Female Labour Migration**

- Increase in skilled migration, especially nursing until 2005 but in steep decline in 2006.
- Significance of caring, mediation and advocacy, volunteering.
- Students.
- Main nationalities (2004) — Irish, Indian, American, Italian, German, French, South African, Pakistani, Portuguese, Australian, Zimbabwean.

- Major increases in nationalities — Philippines, Polish.

Country	Welfare	Service Regime	Female Migrant Provision Employment
Sweden	SocDem	Abundant child and elderly	Insignificant domestic High social
Germany	Conserv	Limited young	Low domestic Low social
France	Conserv	Abundant child Limited old	Medium domestic Low social
Spain	Conserv Southern	Limited young and old	High domestic Low social
United Kingdom	Liberal with S/D	Poor young Abundant old	Low domestic High social

### Selected Sectoral Distributions Household (Percentage)

	1994		2004	
	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals
Spain	27.1	6.9	36.0	4.6
France	14.7	3.5	21.1	3.8
Greece	35.0	1.5	42.4	1.3
Italy	10.3	2.3	27.9	1.6
United Kingdom	3.7	1.1	3.1	0.8

### Hotels and Restaurants

Germany	10.8	3.2	11.5	3.8
Spain	24.4	7.1	19.0	7.5
France	8.5	3.8	6.0	3.4
Greece	12.2	6.4	16.3	7.4
United Kingdom	6.5	5.7	7.6	5.2

### Health and Social Services

Belgium	14.5	19.3	15.9	22.4
Germany	11.9	11.7	15.7	19.6
Denmark	37.6	26.9	27.4	32.6
France	10.5	16.9	12.1	20.3
United Kingdom	21.0	18.8	25.0	20.6

### Education

Belgium	6.8	15.3	7.5	14.8
Germany	3.4	7.9	5.7	8.8
Spain	9.5	9.8	3.8	10.2
France	4.8	11.3	6.8	10.5
Italy	16.1	14.8	4.2	14.0
United Kingdom	12.5	11.4	11.4	14.4

### Factors Shaping Immigration Policy

Immigration policies toward labour migrants reflect a number of concerns: labour market shortages, levels of unemployment especially by minority ethnic groups, welfare regimes,

valuation of skills and competencies and more general issues of social cohesion, race relations and multiculturalism, i.e., who is or is not a desirable member of the national community.

### **Gender and Managed Migration Policies**

- Formalization of distinction between highly (tier 1) and skilled (tier 2) – different gender balances.
- Increasing gap between skilled and less skilled.
- Closure of less-skilled routes (tier 3) due to assumptions about new EU labour supply and treatment as guest workers.
- Continuing non-recognition of non-skilled caring work but creation of category of senior carer in tier 2 with rights to settlement.

### **Gender-Based Analysis of Immigration**

- A process that assesses the differential impact of proposed and existing policies, programs and legislation on women and men. It makes it possible for policy to be undertaken with an appreciation of gender differences, of the nature of relationships between women and men and of their different social realities, life expectations and economic circumstances. It is a tool for understanding social processes and for responding with informed and equitable options.
- It compares how and why women and men are affected by policy issues. Gender-based analysis challenges the assumption that everyone is affected by policies, programs and legislation in the same way regardless of gender, a notion often referred to as “gender-neutral policy.”

## PANEL 2: SOCIAL/HEALTH ISSUES

### **MIGRANT HEALTH AROUND THE TIME OF BIRTH: WHAT MIGHT INTERNATIONAL COMPARISONS HAVE TO TELL US?**

**Anita J. Gagnon**, RN, MPH, Ph.D., Associate Professor, McGill University, School of Nursing and Department of Obstetrics/Gynecology; Nurse Scientist, MUHC – Women’s Health Program;

Visiting Scientist, INSERM – Unité 149: Recherches épidémiologiques en santé périnatale et santé des femmes

#### **Acknowledgements**

Financial:

- CIHR: Canadian Institutes of Health Research
- RSP: Réseau en Santé de la Population
- Immigration et métropoles
- PHAC: Public Health Agency of Canada
- FRSQ: Le fonds de la recherche en santé du Qué
- INSERM: Institut national de la santé et de la recherche médicale
- Royal Victoria Hospital Foundation
- Régie régionale – interpreter services
- McGill Faculty of Medicine (summer bursary)
- CEETUM (graduate student bursary)
- CIHR: Canadian Institutes of Health Research
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- Royal Victoria Hospital Foundation
- Régie régionale – interpreter services
- McGill Faculty of Medicine (summer bursary)
- CEETUM (graduate student bursary)

National Advisory Committee (Canada) Policy Making

Government:

- CIC (M. Zencovich)

- Heritage Canada (K. George)
- Public Health Agency of Canada (M. Desmeules)
- Status of Women (Z. Karman)

Professional:

- AWHONN (S. Coulas)
- SOGC (V. Senikas)
- CPHA (J. Simpson)

NGOs:

- NOIVMWC (L. Gien)
- CCR (D. Douglas)

***Community Advisory Committee (Montréal\*)***

Policy Making/Government:

- RRSSS-Interpreter Serv. (I. Hemlin)
- DSP (S. Gravel)
- MICC (M.-H. Castonguay)

Professional:

- Centre d'accueil (P. Dongier)
- SARIMM (E. Montesino)
- CLSC Côte des Neiges (C. Murphy)

NGOs:

- La Table (S. Reichhold)
- Refuge Juan Moreno (M.-L. Docherty)
- South Asian Women's Community Centre (S. Mulay)

\* Acknowledgements also to the CACs of Toronto and Vancouver

**Investigative Team**

Much of what I will report is from a single study, "Needs of Refugee Mothers After Pregnancy: Early Response Services (NORMAP-ERS)" (AJ Gagnon, PI)

- G Dougherty
- A George
- L Merry
- J Oxman-Martinez
- R Platt

- J-F Saucier
- B Stanger
- D Stewart
- O. Wahoush

### **Background: Reproductive Health Care and Migration**

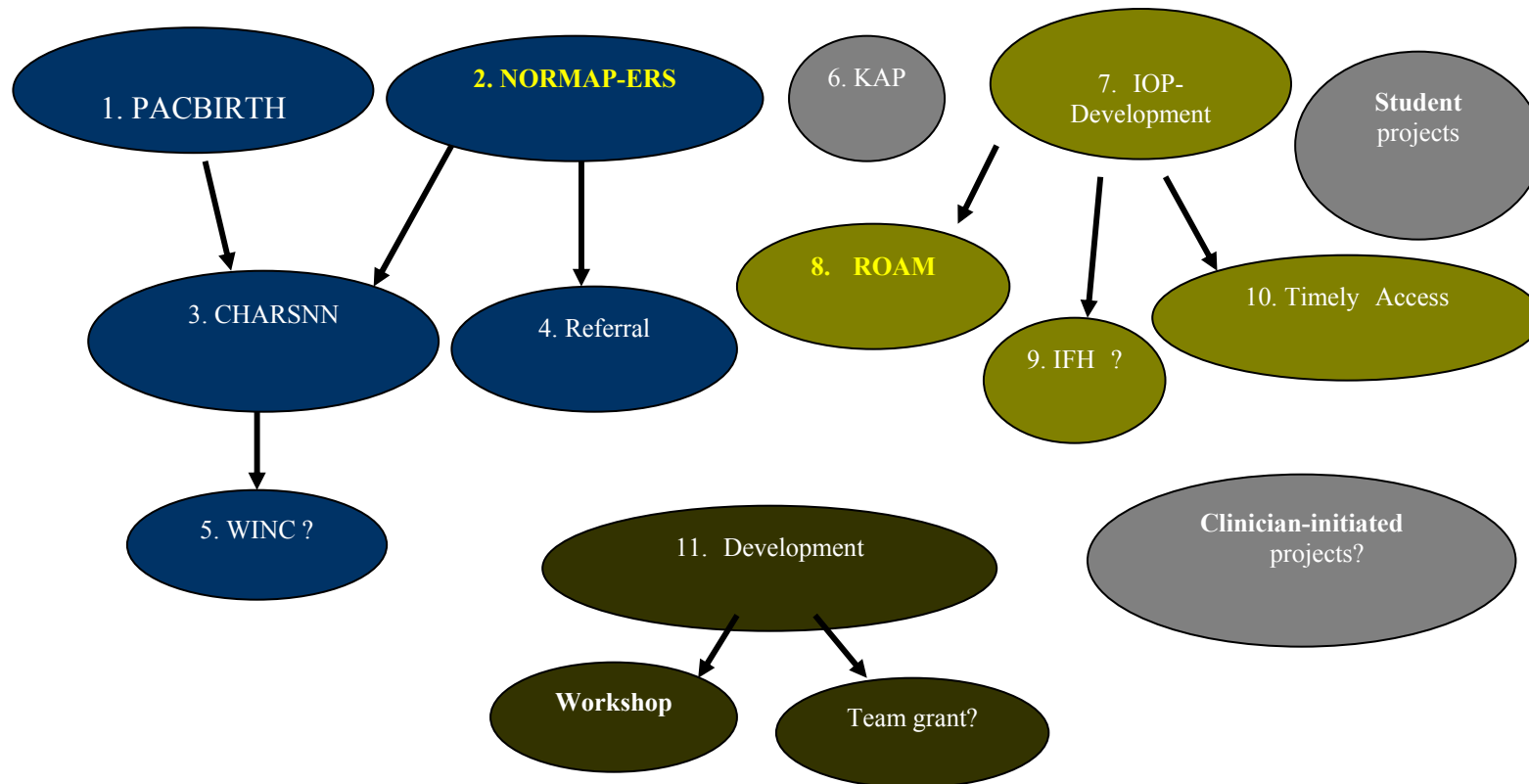
North American discrepancy related to non-host country born women's perinatal health:

- Literature: non-host-country born = healthier than N American-born vs
- anecdotal reports: non-host-country born = not as healthy as North American-born.

“Non-host-country born” as a category is problematic (i.e., not informative for research/policy purposes).

- Women new to Canada have different migration histories likely impacting on their health.
- Eligibility for health/social services differ based on the migration category in which women are placed by Immigration Canada (CIC) (i.e., non-refugee immigrants — vast majority — refugees, asylum seekers/refugee claimants) or “undocumented” persons.

## Migration and Reproductive Health Research (MiRHR)

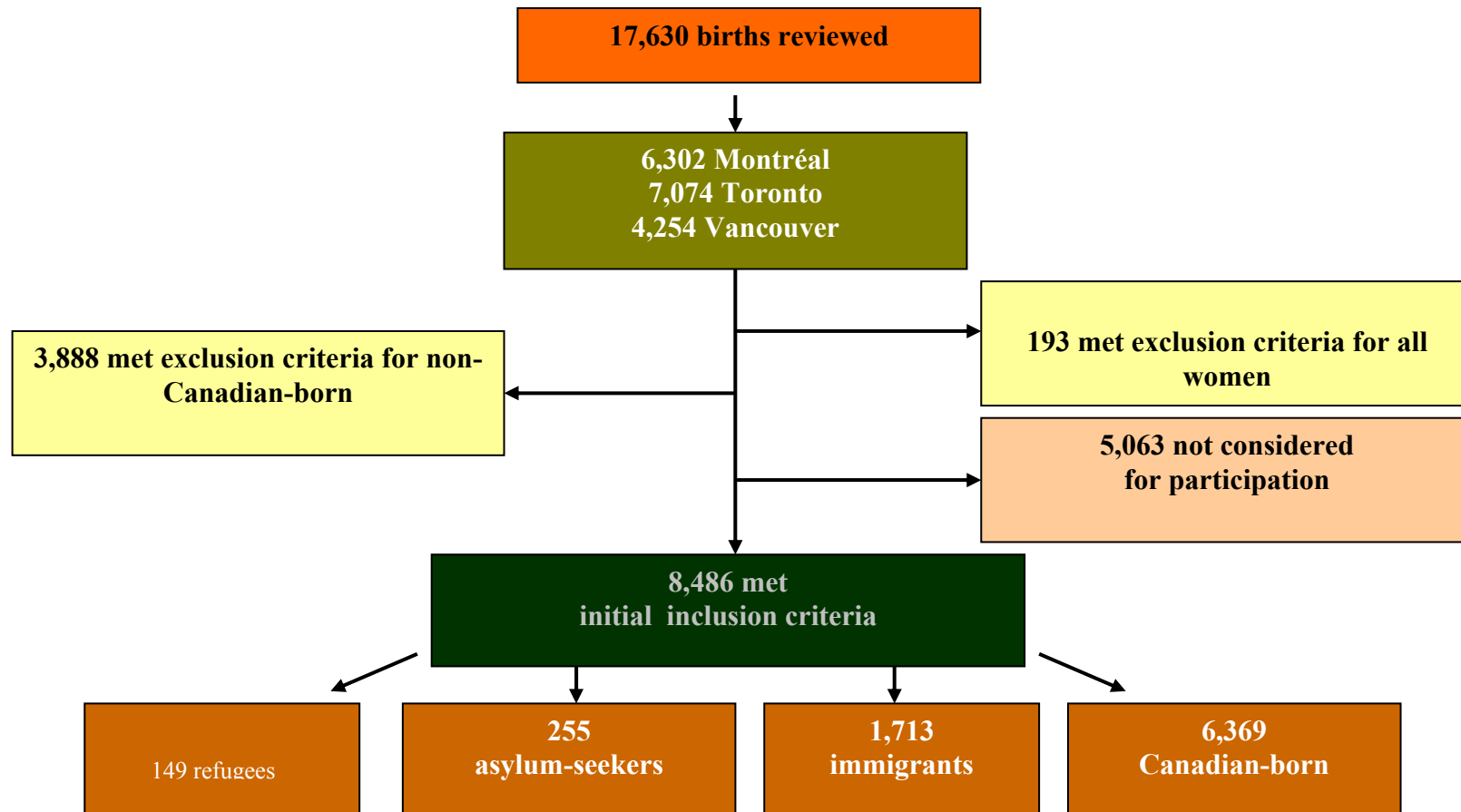


### Legend:

1. PACBIRTH: Pregnancy and Child Bearing in Refugees: Transitional Health - A Feasibility Study (CIHR # 93611)
2. NORMAP-ERS: Needs of Refugee Mothers After Pregnancy- Early Response Services (CIHR # 95355)
3. CHARSNN: The Childbearing Health and Related Service Needs of Newcomers (CIHR #128087)
4. Referral: Responses of Childbearing Newcomers to Referrals for Care (CIHR #123033)
5. WINC: Women and Infants New to Canada
6. KAP: Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices of Refugee Women Regarding HIV & STD Prevention (FQRSC # 94569)
7. IOP-Development: Migration and Reproductive Health in Canada and Australia (CIHR # 126217)
8. Int'l Collab: International Comparisons of the Reproductive Health and Care of Migrant Women
9. IFH: Exploring Reproductive Health in the Interim Federal Health Database
10. Timely Access: Assessing Timely Access to Health Care for Newcomers (CIHR#138275)
11. Development: Development of Migration and Reproductive Health Studies (CIHR# 109585)

## NORMAP-ERS Objectives

- Estimate the prevalence of health issues and professionally identified concerns during pregnancy, birth and after to one week.
- Estimate if “the system” is responding to these issues.
- See if there are differences in prevalence or response by migration categories.



## Sample Data Available

Three levels of “representative” data:

- Those initially eligible: n = 8,486.
- Consented but not visited: n = 495 (not addressed today).
- Participants who received home visits n = 341 (65 refugees, 109 asylum seekers/no known legal status, 94 non-refugee immigrants, 73 Canadian born).

## What We Know about Those Initially Eligible (n = 8,486)

Preliminary unadjusted analyses by migration show:

Concerns	RF %	AS %	IMM %	CB %
<37 weeks gestational age (p = 0.001)	3.4	6.3	5.5	7.9
Caesarean birth rate (p= 0.15)	34.9	30.6	27.6	27.3
NICU admission (p = 0.34)	14.9	14.1	11.5	12.8

Preliminary unadjusted analyses by birth region show:

Concerns	Eur %	Can %	WAfr %	S Asia %
<37 weeks gestational age (p = 0.021)	4.6	7.9	5.9	6.4
Caesarean birth rate (p= 0.0128)	36.4	27.4	44.1	29.4
NICU admission (p = 0.0001)	13.6	12.8	19.1	17.0

## What We Know about Those Seen at One Week Post-Birth (n = 341)

Concerns identified by nurse:

- refugee (84.6%)
- asylum seeker (85.3%)
- non-refugee immigrant (86.2%)
- Canadian born (74.0%)

Most important concerns for migrant groups:

- postpartum depression risk (26.2% RF vs. 6.9-23.4%);
- lack of social support (11.0% AS vs. 0-5.3%);
- skipping meals (20.2% AS vs. 4.1-6.2%); and

- not knowing emergency number (10.1% AS vs. 0-6.2%).

### **What We Know about Those Seen at One Week Post-Birth (n = 341)**

- Unaddressed concerns:
- Migrant groups had more unaddressed concerns (80.2% to 87.3% for the migrant groups versus 66.7% for the Canadian-born).
- There was a potential trend in numbers of unaddressed concerns by migrant group with the proportion with  $\geq 3$  unaddressed concerns: refugees (34.5%), asylum seekers (25.9%), immigrants (18.5%), Canadian-born (9.4%).

### **Selected Perinatal Health Data in Other Countries by Migration Category: Migrants vs Native-Born**

Increases in rates of:

- Caesarean births;
- mortality (maternal, neonatal, post-neonatal);
- low birthweight infants;
- obstetrical interventions in labour; and
- congenital malformations.

### **ROAM (Reproductive Outcomes And Migration) - An International Research Collaboration**

- Collaboration between Canada, Australia, Belgium, Finland, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Switzerland, United Kingdom.
- Formed August 2005.
- Others are welcome.

#### ***ROAM – Core Members***

- Sophie Alexander, Université libre de Bruxelles
- Béatrice Blondell, INSERM (France)
- Manuel Carballo, International Centre for Migration and Health (Switzerland)
- Marie Desmeules, Public Health Agency of Canada
- Dominico Dillalo, Agency for Public Health – Rome
- Anita Gagnon (co-leader), McGill University, Montréal (Canada)
- Mika Gissler, STAKES (Finland)

- Maureen Heaman, University of Manitoba (Canada)
- Dineke Korfker, TNO Institute – Prevention and Health (Netherlands)
- Alison Macfarlane, City University of London
- Edward Ng, Statistics Canada
- Carolyn Roth, City University of London
- Rhonda Small (co-leader), LaTrobe University (Australia)
- Donna Stewart, University of Toronto (Canada)
- Babill Stray-Pederson, University of Oslo (Norway)
- Meg Zimbeck, EURO-PERISTAT
- Jennifer Zeitlin, EURO-PERISTAT

***Commonalities Identified by ROAMLabels/Groupings***

- Meaningful definitions;
- standardization within and across countries; and
- acceptability (population perception, ethics).

Outcomes of interest:

- Caesarean birth;
- mortality (perinatal, maternal, infant); and
- preterm birth.

***Commonalities Identified by ROAM***

Predictors of variations:

- language/communication challenges;
- recent migration; and
- obstetrical complications.

Population:

- Sub-Saharan Africa;
- North Africa; and
- Asia.

**ROAM – Research Questions**

Identify and compare indicators of:

- perinatal health (e.g., preterm birth, induction, Caesarean birth, perinatal morbidity and mortality, low birthweight);

- migration (e.g., immigration status, country of birth, ethnicity, race, language fluency, religion); and
- equity (e.g., access/eligibility, utilization, delivery of health care services).

Why might any differences exist?

Progress in ROAM: Plans for 2006-20071.

1. Systematically review measures of migration and their relationship to health at birth (Oct).
2. Examine perinatal health of Somali in ROAM (ongoing).
3. Gather pilot data regarding the measurement of equity in care provision (Nov-July).
4. Gather data on potential reasons for differences that are difficult to capture quantitatively (Nov-July).
5. Apply a Delphi consensus process to review migration indicators suggested by #1 above (Nov).
6. Gather and summarize data from ROAM/Euro-PERISTAT on migration and perinatal health (Jan/Feb).
7. Review results at a meeting of ROAM collaborators (May).
8. Draft a research grant for “next steps” (May-July).

*Q1. Policy implications of this program of research (MiRHR)?*

Early indications as to which perinatal health issues need priority action in Canada.

- Preliminary data showing gaps in service provision post-birth in Canada and for which types of health concerns.
- Exploratory data on the “mis-match” between professional guidelines leading to referrals and responses to these referrals by migrant women. (These results can inform future practice guidelines developed by professional associations.) (*These data were not presented today.*)

*Q2. How is MiRHR linking to the policy world?*

We work in conjunction with National and Community Advisory Committees made up of key players in this field of inquiry and practice.

- We have a “bank” of 16 questionnaires/ protocols in 13 languages that have been assessed for cultural validity and reliability that will be able to be used by others (in the policy world and elsewhere).

- We are developing a set of optimal indicators for examining migration and equity that can be used for comparison and determining trends regionally, nationally and internationally.

*Q3. What are the challenges of doing gender-based research on this topic?*

- Although visible minority women are at greatest health risk, many countries/regions choose not to measure aspects of migration thus these women remain invisible.
- Migrant women are likely to be the most intimidated of any research participant, because of their legal dependence (perceived or real) on their spouse/others. This affects both study participation and accuracy of data provided.

*Q4. How can we mainstream gender into migration research and policy?*

- Work closely with key players.
- Request data by sex, age, marital status *as well as* by some indicator of migration history, precariousness, etc.
- Encourage NGOs and those they represent to request the same types of data.
- Pressure the press NOT to use data incorrectly or unethically.

## **GENDER, MIGRATION AND RE-MIGRATION: ISRAELI MIGRANTS IN THE UNITED STATES AND RETURN MIGRANTS BACK IN ISRAEL COMPARED**

Dr. Lilach Lev Ari, Oranim, Academic College of Education and Bar Ilan University, Israel

Will they return?

Will they emigrate again?

### **Research Focus**

This paper examines the role of gender in the explanation of re-migration tendency among two groups of Israeli migrants:

- those who live in the United States (1998-2000); and
- those who have recently returned to Israel (2005).

The main argument is that emigrants do not constitute a homogeneous group and that gender plays a significant part in the explanation of re-migration (as it does regarding migration in general).

### **The Samples**

- The two samples comprised an equal number of men and women.

- The average age was 42 among Israeli emigrants and 40 among those who returned.
- In both samples, participants have high educational attainment.

The theoretical approach, termed “transnationalism,” views migration as a process with many facets: demography, politics, economics, culture and family involving several aspects in addition to the act of transition from one country to another.

The present analysis is based on two samples of Jewish Israeli migrants:

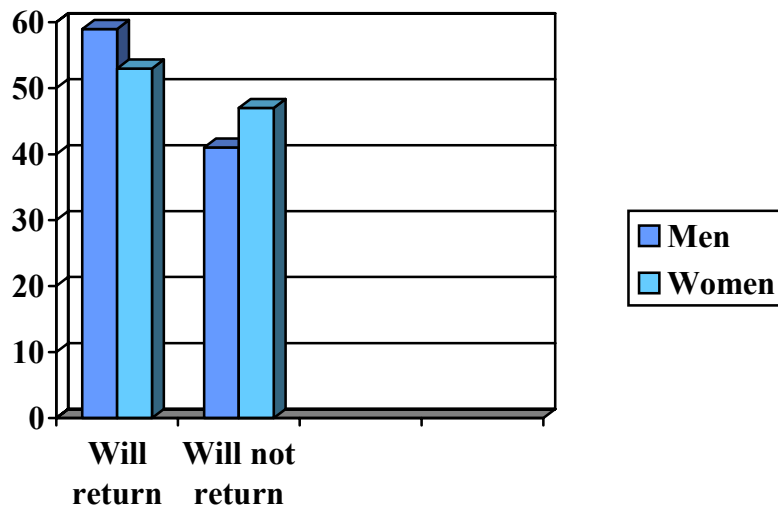
- Israeli born, registered at the Israeli consulates in Los Angeles, (over half) Philadelphia, and Miami (N=500); and
- former Israeli migrants who returned to Israel between 1999-2003 mostly from the United States (56%), another third from Europe, and the rest resided in other continents (N=501).
- The transnational theory holds that migrants with a more articulated system of social, cultural, and economic ties will manage to avoid many of the obstacles typical of international migration.
- Migration is not fixed and everlasting; a return to the country of origin is possible, and indeed quite frequent.
- Women’s motives for migration are at least as numerous as those of men, although the structure of work opportunities in the country of origin is sometimes different for women and men.
- Women tend to respond to “push” factors in country of origin: family, unemployment, etc.
- Return tendency to the country of origin among migrants is connected with the emigration tendency. In each stream of migration, there is also a stream of re-migration to the country of origin.
- The return of migrants to their homeland is a possible stage in the migration process, and it attests to the degree to which the purposes of their migration have been accomplished.
- The main motives of return for women are familial and related to marriage or divorce.
- Lim (1995) maintains that other motives for returning have to do with the male and female migrants’ different perceptions of the change that has occurred in their status as a consequence of their migration and their expectations of it, and of its impact on their possible return to the country of origin.

This paper examines the role of gender in the explanation of re-migration tendency among Israelis who live in the United States and those who returned to Israel.

## Findings U.S. Sample

The findings from both surveys can be used by policy makers, such as the Ministry of Absorption.

- The main findings, in the present research, indicate that Israeli immigrants can be defined as “permanent sojourners,” in that about half of them expressed the desire to go back to Israel even though most of them were not willing to commit to a definite date of return.
- Although analyzing the intention to return to Israel is problematic and speculative, since it did not happen yet, the present research attempts to find a pattern of gender differences in this last migration aspect as connected to previous ones, as part of a complete migration experience.
- Generally, Israelis are equally divided regarding their general intention to return to Israel: 56 percent are considering re-migration and 44 percent are not.
- When the return period was defined by a time limit, only 20 percent of the Israelis reported a willingness to return within a limited time (between one year and five). Most of the respondents (75 percent) were not willing to define their return period and six percent will never return to Israel.
- No significant gender differences were found regarding general intention to re-migrate to Israel.



### Intention to Return within Limited Period

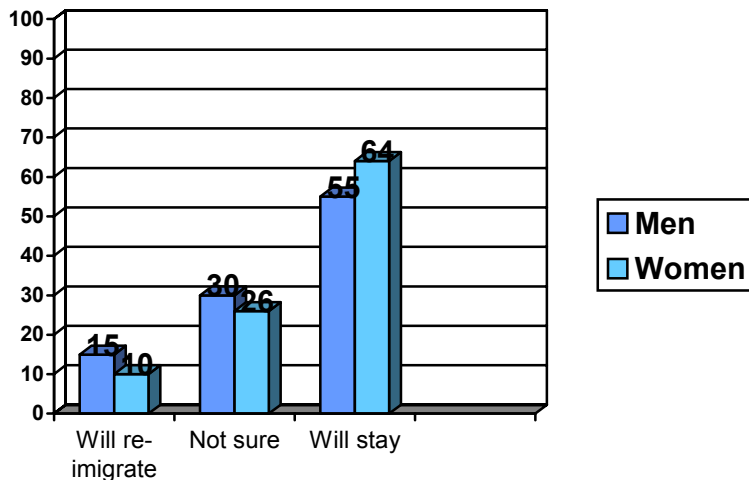
When respondents were asked to define their return period, a slightly more significant (sig. =0.079, Pearson  $\chi^2=2.36$ ) gender difference was found: 22 percent of the men compared

with 17 percent of the women were willing to define their return period in years (while the rest did not).

- The profile of those who tend to return to Israel reveals emigrants with an ethnic identity; experience a dynamic procedure as sojourners and reporting weak identification with the American society.
- These “return” Israeli emigrants are also characterized by a transnational identity, which is manifested mainly by maintaining social ties with their families in Israel and speaking Hebrew with their children.
- It seems that women are less determined than men to return to Israel.
- Those who do intend to return to Israel and within a defined period are young students who had recently arrived in the United States (between three and five years) and do not own their homes — residential flats or houses.
- These Israelis are still attached to Israel and their social absorption in the United States failed. Return Israelis tend to perceive Israel in a much more positive light than the American society and of course report lesser satisfaction from their life in the latter.
- Ashkenazi women (parents were born in Europe or America) and Sepharadi (parents born in Asia or North Africa) men probably did not fulfill most of their aspirations, are still young and perceive the American society as providing them with more opportunities for upward mobility in the future and thus, less inclined to define their period of return to Israel.
- The group of women that consider the Israeli social structure as more equal for women than that of the American one is the group that is more inclined to return to Israel within a specific period.
- Sepharadi women are more willing to commit to a definite time limit for their return, as compared to Ashkenazi women.
- Women who fulfilled their economic and social ambitions through emigration to the United States to a mediocre extent are willing to return within a specific period, whereas women who fulfilled their ambitions to a large extent are not willing to commit to a definite return period to Israel.
- Among men, besides the ethnic origin that was mentioned earlier, social absorption is the main variable that predicts tendency to commit to a limited return period to Israel. Israeli men who report their social absorption as a failure are willing to return to Israel within a specific period, as opposed to those that report their social absorption a success and are not willing to return.

## Findings Israeli Sample

The second research question of this paper is to examine the impact of gender on intention to re-migrate from Israel.



It seems that returning Israelis can be categorized into two groups based on re-migration tendencies:

- Those who intend to re-migrate are young men (between the ages of 20 and 34), with lower educational attainment, Sephardic, secular and who recently returned to Israel, not satisfied with the absorption process.
- Those who intend to stay are Ashkenazi women, highly educated, in their 40s and satisfied with the absorption process in Israel.

## Summary and Discussion

- The tendency to return and re-migrate are influenced by gender and other factors associated with earlier aspects of the migration process as well as the absorption process itself.
- There was no single and uniform pattern here. Rather, several patterns emerged according to subgroups. This included gender, socio-economic status, measure of successful absorption in various areas, and perception of push and pull factors regarding the Israeli society versus the other societies as yielding adequate opportunities for upward mobility.

## Will Israeli Women Return?

- Israeli migrant women in the United States comprise a diverse group in relation to their intention to return to Israel. Insofar as they have succeeded in their economic and social

absorption, they are not interested in returning to Israel, as the opportunity structure in Israel will not provide them with the same basis for social mobility as in America.

- Only if women migrants are persuaded that Israeli society surpasses American society in its opportunity structure will they consider returning to Israel.
- On the other hand, women who have done less well, economically and socially in the United States, will be more predisposed toward returning to Israel. A further factor likely to encourage women to return to Israel is their desire to live close to their parents; this tendency was less pronounced among the men.

### **Will Former Israeli Migrant Women Re-migrate from Israel?**

- Among those who returned to Israel, it was the women with the highest socio-economic achievements who expressed the highest satisfaction from all aspects of the absorption process, namely social, economic and their children's absorption. These former Israeli migrant women also feel that Israel provides them with a better opportunity structure and that they can fulfill themselves in Israel, and are thus less predisposed to re-migrate.

### **Policy Implications**

In general, Israelis succeed economically abroad, more than they will in Israel.

What can Israel offer them?

- Israelis interested in returning to Israel clustered at the two extremes of the economic spectrum. On the one hand, there were Ashkenazi men who had fulfilled the "American dream." On the other hand, there were Sephardic women who had still not fully accomplished most of their ambitions; moreover, some of these had migrated on account of their husbands' ambitions.
- As migration motives were more defined and material, for example, higher education in the United States, professional fulfillment, and improvement of living standards, so the decision to return to Israel was more concrete.
- As the motives for migration were hazier, for example, family reasons, husband's aspirations, tourist interests, etc., so was the decision to return more vague.

### **Why They Return**

- Returning Israeli migrants succeeded economically abroad. However, their social absorption was not so successful and thus, those who returned did so because of social, communal and familial reasons.

## **Why Stay in Israel?**

To encourage Israelis to remain in Israel, efforts should be made, but those who are more inclined to re-migrate should be the focus, particularly young Sephardic secular men with lower socio-economic status.

- Returning Israelis do not maintain transnational economic connections, they all work in Israel. Their social connections, however, remain transnational.
- For those former migrant women, Israel is the place that fulfilled most of their aspirations and they felt empowered here (they are content with the Ministry of Absorption, from their mobility opportunities, their family absorption, etc.).
- Women are a significant socialization agent in regard to absorption in the country of origin.
- If they are persuaded that this country enables them with equal opportunities, in addition to a warm and welcoming host society for them and their families they could be those that policy makers can address in future efforts to attract migrants to return.

## **Length of Time**

- The chances of re-migration to the country of origin declined still more as time passed.
- As seniority in target country grew longer, and as the sense of belonging to its society and the Jewish community there became reinforced, the tendency of returning to Israel decreased.
- Men and women who perhaps wished to return to Israel for family reasons found themselves wavering between the two worlds. This was well expressed by an Israeli living in Los Angeles: “When you live in the United States you constantly miss Israel and the family, and feel loneliness in the essentials of life. But when you go back to Israel you begin to long for the ‘flesh pots’ and you recall how good it was in the United States and what a marvelous standard of living we lived on.”
- The issues for further research and for future possible applications that arise from this study strengthen the main argument, namely that treatment of gender is essential in a consideration of any kind of policy implication regarding migration, namely, the migration of Israelis to the United States.

## **RIGHT PEOPLE, RIGHT RESEARCH, RIGHT POLICY**

**Bilkis Vissandjée**, Ph.D - Université de Montréal

**Marie DesMeules**, M.Sc. – Public Health Agency of Canada

**Mary Pat Dressler**, M.Sc. – Public Health Agency of Canada

**Alisha Apale**, MBA candidate - Université de Montréal

**Anita Gagnon**, Ph.D – McGill University

### **Women’s Health**

- Discussed in gender-sensitive health research.
- Advocated through various bodies of global governance and health yet women’s migration experiences have yet to be systematically acknowledged and incorporated as a determinant of health above and beyond culture/ethnicity.

### **Why Research Gaps Exist**

- Immigrant populations are often conceptualized as one and the same with few distinctions beyond labels, such as “ethnic” or “visible minority.”
- There are limited systematic applications of gender-based analysis.

This may lead to policy gaps. However, there are few concrete recommendations for innovative public policy responses.

### **How Does Women’s Health Research Respond?**

- Integrate.
- Clarify.
- Substantiate.
- Take the social determinants of health research a step higher.

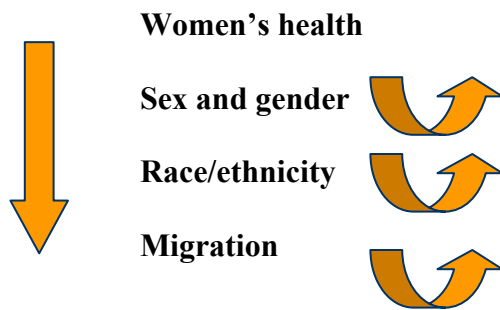
### **Social Determinants of Health**

- Allows for reconstruction of health beyond a medical or behavioural issue.
- Re-frames it as *also* a socio-economic and political issue, influencing key determinants, such as gender, culture/ethnicity and migration.
- While the 20th century has enjoyed robust developments in health technology and science, it is in the 21st century that we make our decisions about how these benefits are employed and dispersed.
- Gender norms, migration experiences and culture/ethnic identity may influence the health decisions we make as well as the kinds and quality of health care and information to which we have access.

## Quality Control

How did this get in here? Or perhaps a better question is: *Why wasn't that included?* Emphasizing a social determinants of health perspective is about more than topping up the list of factors to consider in women's health research. It is about how the concepts used are defined, what is and is not included, who is represented and who is not.

## What Is Intersectional Research?



## Women's Health and Migration: Concepts in Transit

Just as migration is not a uniform experience, likewise, immigrants do not form a homogenous group.

- Women's experiences of migration may be influenced by both micro (ethnic origin, sexual orientation, ability, age, religious or professional affiliations) and macro contexts (the pursuit of opportunities, socio-political conflict, family reunification).

## Intersectional, Interdisciplinary, Systematically Integrated: So What?

If this is the goal, to what extent are interrelated determinants of health, in this case, sex, gender, ethnicity and migration, inclusively conceptualized and systematically integrated into women's health research?

What is the relevance? Designing and implementing relevant health care programs, services, plans and policies hinges on accurate representation and response to the life contexts of service users.

## The Criteria

- Was/were the concept(s) acknowledged in the study?
- Was/were the definition(s) provided?
- Were arguments put forth regarding the "intersectionality" of the concepts at hand?

- Was/were the concept(s) acknowledged in the results section?
- Was/were the concept(s) acknowledged in the discussion?
- Was/were the concept(s) addressed in the recommendations?

### How Do We Measure Up?

The Numbers:

- In 34 (57.6%) of the papers reviewed, gender was defined above and beyond “sex,” meaning some discussion was provided regarding the social context of the study population.
- Ethnicity was defined in 26 (44%) of the papers reviewed, without substituting “ethnicity” with “race.”
- Migration was defined in 22 (37.2%) of the papers reviewed and was predominantly *operationalized* by length of stay in the country.

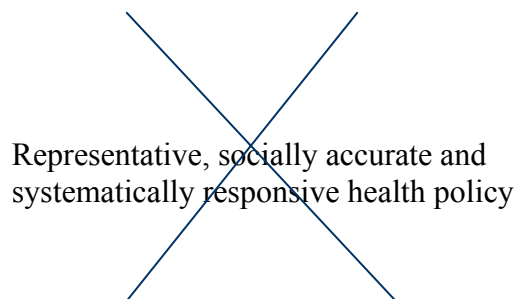
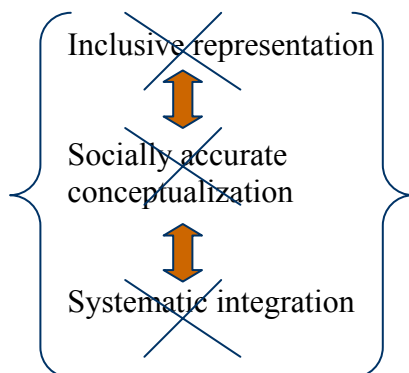
The Connections:

- Of 59 papers, 19 (32.3%) defined and integrated both sex and gender. Sex (used as a biological variable) and ethnicity were defined and integrated in 26 (44%) of the papers. Seventeen (28.8%) of the total sample defined and integrated ethnicity and gender, defining gender beyond sex.
- While sex, gender and ethnicity were defined and integrated in 19 (32.3%) of the papers, the definition and integration of the first two concepts with migration is less commonly presented (20.3% of the total sample).

### The Diagnosis?

As the level of integration increases, the percentage of papers decreases.

### The Implications



### **Instant Mix Policy?**

- Resource distribution occurs within given cultural, economic, legal, ethical and political forums.
- It is *also* a reflection of what gets included in research and what does not *and*, how research variables are conceptualized and intersected with other influential variables.

Concepts  policy

### **Goals**

- Socially reflective concepts.
- Systematic integration in health research.
- More inclusive public health policies.

## PANEL 3: HUMAN RIGHTS ISSUES

### WOMEN AND MIGRATION IN PORTUGAL

**Elza Pais**, President of the Commission for Equality and Women's Rights

#### I - Introduction

Migrations are a constant in the history of humanity and have played an important role in the construction of civilizations and cultures. Portugal has always been a country of inflow of immigrants and outflow of emigrants. With globalization, and the consequent increase in migratory flows, it becomes fundamental to approach the issue of mobility from the perspective of human rights.

Nowadays, social mobility is the international phenomenon in the light of which the issue of migration, and consequently the issue of emigration, must be examined. The reasons for this are, in the final analysis, in the world dichotomy between poor and rich countries. Contemporary migratory flows are essentially the efforts of citizens of poorer countries to find employment in rich countries, where new opportunities are to be found, namely in the search for better jobs, given that in their countries employment opportunities are very low. They try to achieve, through an improvement of their employment situation, a better social integration and ascension in the social scale. That is, the right to a "dignified life" with access to work, housing and education.

Emigrant women are, by their own characteristics, a community particularly vulnerable to the social violence experienced in this kind of process.

#### II – Characterization of Immigrant Women in Portugal

Very briefly, since the time is short for an exhaustive characterization of the feminine immigrant population in Portugal, I will present some data collected by the census of 2001. These data concern the study of the foreign population in Portugal between 1980 and 2002, which confirms a growing and systematic evolution.

- During that period, between 40.5% and 44.4% of the population was female. Today it is slightly higher.
- The countries and communities of origin of most of the immigrant women in Portugal are the African Countries of Portuguese Official Language (PALOP), Brazil and Eastern Europe.
- The feminization rate of the foreign population with permanent authorization in Portugal, in that period, was about 25%.
  - 43% came originally from the PALOP (Angola 16.2%, Cape Verde 14.8%, Guinea-Bissau 5.4%, S. Tomé and Príncipe 4.2%, Mozambique 2.4%);
  - 14.3% came from Brazil;

- 5% came from Eastern Europe (Ukraine 2%, Russia 0.8%, Romania 0.7%, Moldavia 0.5%);
  - total from other countries 0.9%;
  - the immigration of women coming from Eastern Europe countries was almost non-existent until 1985; and
  - in terms of age, most of the immigrant women coming from those countries were in an active age (i.e., between 15 and 64 years old).
- As regards civil status, the data collected indicate, regarding women coming from the PALOP, a higher number of married women without an official record of marriage (26.3%) and single women (39.7%).
    - Women from Eastern Europe communities were mostly married with an official record (68.7%), and the number of single women was low (12.6%).
    - The same data point out that the number of separations and divorces was higher among women from Brazil (5.6%) and from Eastern Europe (5.1%).
- In terms of education level, different situations are to be found between these three communities of immigrant women (PALOP, Brazil and Eastern Europe):
    - PALOP: no degree of qualification accomplished (19.7%), first and second levels of basic education completed (38.4%);
    - Eastern Europe: secondary education completed (30.5%), higher education completed (37%); and
    - Brazil: first and second levels of basic education completed (23.8%), third level of basic education completed (20.2%), secondary education completed (31%), higher education completed (19%).
- Regarding the main source of income of immigrant women from the communities under characterization, the following data should be highlighted of women between 15 and 24 years old:
    - among those of African origin, 50.8% depended on the family and 38.1% lived from employment income;
    - among those from Eastern Europe, 68.7% lived mostly from employment income (Eastern Europe); and
    - among those from Brazil, 56.7% lived mostly from employment income.

It should also be noted that immigrant women from Eastern Europe received less support and subsidies from the state (only about 1.5% received unemployment benefits) than women from the PALOP (4% were receiving unemployment benefits, 1.7% were receiving the guaranteed minimum income and 2.3% were receiving other types of support).

In this brief characterization of the feminine immigrant population in Portugal, between 1980 and 2002, the data demonstrate the low degree of social integration of these women, as well as conditionalisms inherent to the socio-cultural profile of these citizens.

### **III – Immigrant Women in Portugal and Human Rights**

The issue of social integration in destination societies is without doubt the great drama of immigrant populations. The feminine immigrant population is exposed to several social vulnerabilities, such as social exclusion, access to resources, participation in mechanisms of the parallel economy (e.g., trafficking of human beings for sexual exploitation). They suffer from a process of double social victimization, because they are immigrants and because they are women. And thus the vulnerability and exposure to danger increases.

One can talk of three kinds of difficulties in this migratory process:

- overcoming the cultural conditionalisms internalized in the countries of origin that work as an obstacle to the social integration in the country of destination;
- the capacity to overcome the network of commitments underlying the means used to exit the countries of origin and to enter the countries of destination; and
- the access to institutional services of social integration in the countries of destination.

It is in this context that the networks of clandestine emigration proliferate. These are particularly complex, since they involve levels of dependency. This includes material and economic dependency as well as psychological dependency that feeds fear and suspicion and increases the vulnerability of these populations. The negative social representations, constructed on being in an illegal situation, and the risks that such a situation involves also increase the frailty and vulnerability of these populations.

Giving more social visibility to the social integration mechanisms in countries of destination and increasing the access to information are needed to ensure the human rights of immigrant women. Based on these principles, the High Commissioner for Immigration and Ethnic Minorities in Portugal is developing proximity projects with immigrant communities, with the goal of promoting the social integration of these women and men in our country.

#### **WOMEN'S RIGHTS AND MIGRANTS' RIGHTS: THE SOUND OF ONE HAND CLAPPING (Abstract only)**

**Audrey Macklin**, University of Toronto

The advancement of women's human rights under the rubric “women's rights are human rights” has drawn much of its traction from the legitimacy of human rights in legal and political discourse. The right of a non-citizen to enter a country remains far from winning acceptance as a human right. The only significant derogation from the putative sovereign right of states to exclude non-citizens is the right of refugees not to be refouled. I argue that the use of human rights discourse to advance the situation of migrant women is constrained by the reality that migrants are, as such, at the border of human rights. I illustrate my claim through the examples of gender-related persecution and refugee status, family reunification, trafficking, and migrant workers.

## **CLOSING PANEL: POLICY IMPLICATIONS OF PRESENTED RESEARCH AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS**

### **SUMMARY OF KEY POINTS**

**Barbro Bakken**, Director General, Department of Integration and Diversity, Ministry of Labour and Social Inclusion, Norway

Her starting point was that getting a better understanding of facts is a key condition to develop appropriate policy measures. In the highly debated policy area of international migration, integration and social inclusion, it is extremely important to have *relevant* high-quality research, statistics and policy evaluation. In Norway, the government's research policy charges the ministries with the responsibility to ensure that their policy areas are knowledge based, that they identify knowledge gaps and contribute to the financing of research and development needs of their policy areas.

Like in most other countries, research on the situation of female migrants and family immigrants has not been abundant. This is also the case concerning research on migration and gender. Better statistical data on family immigration and family immigrants in Norway will come out soon. (See <[www.ssb.no/innvstat](http://www.ssb.no/innvstat)>.)

She pointed at the following identified research needs in regard to the topic of female migrants/female migration.

- Family migration, circular migration, the dumping of women in country of origin, is there a pattern in this?
- More analysis is needed on the labour market integration of first generation immigrant women. Statistics show big variations of labour market participation between first generation women groups. In some groups, very few first generation women are employed in a situation where there is a need for labour.

### **SUMMARY OF KEY POINTS**

**Tzvetelina Kowatschew**, City of Vienna, Municipal department 35, Immigration, Citizenship, Registry, Competency Center Law, Austria

I work for the city of Vienna, and I am a legal advisor in the immigration, citizenship and registry department of the city administration. Due to the new federal legislation in Austria in the field of migration, my department has become the only (but a very big one) immigration office in Vienna. Besides my usual work as a legal advisor, I have another new and for me personally very important role in the department. I am the so-called contact person for victims of trafficking in human beings in matters of residence.

Trafficking in women is being discussed more and more in public; it is a problem that has existed for hundreds of years in many different forms. The phenomenon of human trafficking, in recent years, has become a very important issue for national and international policy

makers. There have been many legal acts, international agreements, conventions and protocols dealing with this issue and trying to search for and give solutions. It is now generally recognized, that human trafficking is a serious crime and a horrendous violation of human rights. The awareness, both of society and politics, has become much stronger and the necessity for taking measures against this form of organized crime is now obvious. The big question is: What are the right measures; what should governments and international organizations do to prevent and combat trafficking in women?

At the teleconference we held a week ago preparing today's workshop, we all agreed that the topic of trafficking in women is important enough and also complicated enough to fill a whole workshop at a minimum. Actually, we would probably need to dedicate a whole conference to this topic to try to discuss all the aspects of this issue. So, as I am perfectly aware of the impossibility to give even a short overview of the problem of trafficking in only 10 minutes, I decided not to try it at all, but only to point out some important steps within the European Union and in Austria on preventing and combatting human trafficking by means of social, political and legal regulations.

I wanted to talk today about trafficking in women because I am convinced we should not talk about women and migration, or women and labour without mentioning trafficking in women. As unfortunately, trafficking in women is embedded in international migration, it has become an inseparable part of this process. And although it is very difficult to quantify this process, as there are no precise data, one thing is absolutely sure: women are the victims of this crime in the vast majority of cases.

Interest in trafficking, the reasons for it, and its impact and consequences has grown. This can be seen through the numerous new legal acts on international and national levels, but also through the growing number of studies and academic research conducted in this field. Many actors — policy makers, researchers, administrations, non-governmental organizations — all work on this topic and search for a better way to combat trafficking and improve the situation of the victims. That research is especially difficult in this field is something we all know very well. There are many reasons for this. The rapid development in legislation in all involved countries seems to be an additional difficulty for research, as the legal regulations as well as the executive practice develop and change often, so the newest studies very rapidly become old and no longer relevant. But the importance and necessity of good research is acknowledged by all the actors involved. It is essential to recognize the problem, its reasons and its various forms, if we want to fight against it.

There are many reasons for the enormous growth of the number of women having become victims of trafficking. Many studies have been conducted to find these reasons and to define them correctly. I would like to mention here the Study on National Legislation on Prostitution and the Trafficking in Women and Children from August 2005, executed by Transcrime for the European Parliament. According to its conclusions, the following factors may affect the nature and extent of trafficking at the EU level:

- the legislation typologies and models on prostitution;
- the feminization of poverty and rate of unemployment;

- the differences in level of welfare between the country of origin and the country of destination;
- the strict migratory regulations of the destination country;
- the geographical position of the destination country;
- the level of anti-trafficking control measures of the country;
- the entrance into the EU of new member states; and
- the cultural and linguistic similarities between the country of origin and the country of destination.

A combination of all these factors played a significant role in the development of trafficking in Austria in recent years. Austria has evolved into a country of both transit and destination, and the number of victims of trafficking for the purpose of both sexual and labour exploitation has been growing continuously. Due to the increasing social awareness regarding this issue on national and especially on the European level, there has also been a positive development in the legal situation of the victims of that horrendous crime.

One of the three purposes defined by the Council of Europe in its Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings is to protect the human rights of the victims of trafficking and assist them in their physical, psychological and social recovery. The legal regulations in Austria, which were a result of the implementation of European conventions and directives, allow victims of trafficking to get a residence permit and stay in Austria, once they are recognized as victims. Co-operation with the authorities and becoming a witness in court is not a prerequisite for getting this kind of humanitarian residence permit. This is where I see our role as the immigration department of the city administration in Vienna. As already stated, our department has been issuing humanitarian residence permits since the beginning of this year. Generally, our task as a part of the administration is just to execute the immigration laws. For us however, it is very important not to do “business as usual,” but to take into account the special situation and the vulnerability of the victims. And I am really very proud to say, we managed to develop special structures and services and thus to support the clients in the best possible way.

We work closely and intensively together with the non-governmental organization in Austria that specializes in counselling and assisting recognized victims of human trafficking. Beyond the regular meetings for exchanging information and offering legal advice in matters of residence, the immigration department considers the cases of these clients as matters of special priority and urgency and does — in close co-operation with the federal ministry for internal affairs — its best to issue the documents as soon as possible. We consider it especially important for us to strengthen the legal situation of the trafficked women by assisting and supporting them in making real use of their legal rights.

However, it is even more important to realize, that this is not enough, that we have to look for other possibilities, for other co-operative partners, such as state authorities, non-governmental organizations or researchers. Such exchanges of information, experience and best-practice projects contribute a lot for a better functioning administration. All this enables us to improve

our services, and realize and respond to the special needs of our clients. And this is where I see the importance of this conference and I am looking forward to a fruitful discussion.

## **IMMIGRATION, HEALTH INTERVENTIONS AND GENDER-SENSITIVE POLICIES**

**Marie DesMeules, Sarah McDermott, Bilkis Vissandjee, Anita Gagnon, Mary-Pat Dressler**

### **Types of Interventions Relevant to Immigrant Health**

- Health care services: Individual-level intervention
- Community programs: Programs, support networks
- National/provincial policy: Migration and public health policies

### **Four Broad Types of Policy Considerations**

- Timely access to health care and services, for example, the limitation of coverage to essential services only and wait periods for access to services.
- Gender-sensitive health interventions, for example, cervical cancer screening.
- Migration/culturally/linguistically sensitive interventions, for example, mental health services.
- Long-term health interventions and practices, rather than a focus solely on health at time of entry, for example, continuity of care.

### **Systematic Review of Effectiveness of Interventions — Migration and Women's Health**

- Searched known interventions systematic review sites using key terms.
- Reviewed the results of the search for strength of evidence of effectiveness, sensitivity to migration, cultural/ethnic groups using sensitivity indicators/outcomes relevant to cultural group/s.
- Provide recommendations to fill gap areas relating to best practices among immigrant women.

### **Systematic Review — Preliminary Results**

- Although not limited to, the focus was on key chronic diseases and their risk factors — assessment of 130 systematic reviews.
- Very few studies dealing with migrants as main study participants.

- Studies often treated immigrant populations as one and the same with ethnic/cultural/minority populations. But, there is no systematic acknowledgment of women and men or gender sensitivity.
- Very few studies made any concrete recommendations/suggestions for innovative, culturally specific, migration and gender-sensitive interventions, mostly because the design did not take into account these elements.

### Policy Implications of CCDPC/PHAC Current Research

- Cervical cancer incidence is elevated among refugee women 45 to 64 years of age.
- However, lower cervical cancer screening observed among older immigrant women in Quebec and British Columbia.

Rate ratios of outpatient physician visits for specific preventive services for women by age group (Data from Ontario not currently available)		
Age group	Quebec gynecologic check-up	British Columbia pap smear/ check-up
0 to 14 years	1.03	0.66
15 to 24 years	1.07	0.47
25 to 34 years	1.15	0.63
35 to 44 years	1.05	0.73
45 to 54 years	0.91	0.68
55 to 64 years	0.66	0.56
65+ years	0.53	0.53
<p>*Light shading indicates a rate ratio significantly greater than 1 (<math>p &lt; 0.05</math>).</p> <p>*Dark shading indicates a rate ratio significantly less than 1 (<math>p &lt; 0.05</math>).</p> <p>*Medium shading indicates rate ratio not significantly different from 1 (<math>p &lt; 0.05</math>).</p>		

## **Future Research to Inform Policy**

- Focus beyond the description of health status of migrants to intervention research, for example, clinical practice guidelines, effective community programs, surveillance of use and access to services over time after migration.
- Focus on health behaviours, health promotion, etc. (not just health care).
- Consider immigrant women as a diverse group: by gender, country of origin, entry class (i.e., economic, family, refugee), length of time in new country, levels of acculturation and cultural retention, previous health habits.
- Consider and study the determinants of migrant health: the effects and types of social determinants usually vary among migrant groups, explore the effects of gender, ethnicity and time in host country.

## **Conclusions – Research and Policy Gaps**

- Intervention research: Gender-specific evidence of effectiveness of population/community level interventions is scarce even among the general population.
- Disease prevention and health promotion activities: Need to be more gender sensitive generally, and especially among migrants.
- Health care: Coverage for vulnerable groups (e.g., refugee claimants) and gender/culturally sensitive care.

## **A STRATEGIC FRAMEWORK APPROACH**

**Eva Lazar**, Citizenship and Immigration Canada

### **Presentation Objectives**

- Introduce the policy objectives of Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC).
- Gender-based analysis (GBA) as a public policy tool.
- Identify the key gender-based pieces at CIC: foundation, legislative requirement, road map (strategic framework), GBA best practices.
- Lessons learned and challenges.
- Conclusions.

### **Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC)**

- Manages screening to ensure the security and health of Canadian citizens and the integrity of Canada's legislative framework.

- Admits immigrants, foreign students, visitors and temporary workers. Addresses international migration by resettling, protecting and providing a safe haven for eligible refugees.
- Helps newcomers integrate into Canadian society through a number of settlement and integration programs and services.
- Facilitates the process of acquiring legal citizenship for eligible applicants.
- Currently, CIC is divided along four service lines (admissibility, selection, refugees, integration), each with particular responsibilities under *the Immigration and Refugee Protection Act (IRPA)*.
- Historically, CIC has been very operational, although recently the Department has been engaged in a concerted effort to develop greater policy capacity.
- CIC has offices in Canada and internationally.

### **GBA as a Public Policy Tool**

Gender-based analysis focusses on social and economic differences between men and women over their life cycles. At the same time, GBA takes account of diversity among women and men, including an understanding of how the variables of age, race, ethnicity, religion, culture and race, among others, intersect with gender. Gender-based analysis also makes it possible to identify potential differential impacts of immigration policies and to make adjustments to existing and planned legislation, programs and policies.

A key goal of GBA is to work toward intended effects and fair and equitable social, and economic results between women and men, and different groups of women and men.

### **From GBA Pilot to Permanent Capacity**

Gender-based analysis at CIC was initially driven by a review of the IRPA. A GBA unit was established in 2000 as a pilot initiative, and became permanent in 2003. In 2005, GBA was reorganized and moved to corporate reporting. The GBA unit:

- provided preliminary GBA for Bill C-11;
- identified gender implications and where sex-disaggregated data collection, monitoring and further analysis would be required;
- provided a lens on departmental initiatives and strategic directions; and
- developed in-house analysts' abilities and knowledge, and provided training.

During this initial period, building capacity in the area of GBA was the first priority.

## **GBA as a Legislative Requirement**

In 2002, the IRPA came into force and included an unprecedented clause in federal statutes on GBA. Under the IRPA (94.2(f)), CIC is required to provide an annual GBA of the impact of the Act in its report to Parliament. No other federal department has a legislative requirement to report to Parliament on GBA.

## **CIC's Strategic Framework for GBA**

The five-year framework, 2005-2010 sets out the Department's objectives and principles for GBA and identifies concrete steps to strengthen capacity and performance to meet the legislative requirement. The framework includes branch GBA plans, an annual IRPA report to Parliament and an annual stock taking.

Branch GBA plans have common elements: commitments to report on area of responsibility under the IRPA, GBA initiatives to build best practices, work processes, methods and products, and activities to build staff knowledge and confidence. Incremental but realistic steps that mainstream gender into branch daily work. Now that there is no more GBA unit, GBA capacity will fall to individual branch initiative, and the individuals within those branches.

## **Refugees Branch at CIC – GBA Best Practices**

The Resettlement Division of the Refugees Branch considered the gender and diversity impacts related to the anticipated arrival of 800 Karen refugees from Thailand in the fall of 2006 and early 2007. It examined initial UNHRC group profile and considered potential gender-based challenges, including factors related to cases of women-at-risk, single female-headed households, the risk of permanent separation from family members and issues linked to age.

The process has been assisted by identifying the awareness raising role at National Headquarters and staff at the Canadian mission, an analysis forwarded to UNHRC and identification of challenges that arise through the resettlement process.

## **IRPA Reporting**

The CIC has a multi-year approach for assuring that the Department meets the legislative requirement to report to Parliament. According to their areas of responsibility, branches will chart the issues to be reported on and put into place the elements necessary to undertake substantive analysis. The Department anticipates that the quality of data and analysis will improve each year, and that eventually CIC will be in a position to provide broader analyses of the impacts of the IRPA by gender.

## **GBA now facilitates new gender-disaggregated data**

Facts and Figures 2005

Immigration Overview

Permanent and Temporary Residents

### **Table of Contents**

*Foreword*

*Overview – Annual Immigration*

Canada – Permanent Residents by Category (No Backlog Reallocation)

Canada – Reallocation of Backlog Cases

Canada – Permanent Residents by Category (with Reallocation of Backlog Cases and Humanitarian and Compassionate Cases)

*Permanent Residents*

Canada – Permanent Residents by Category, 1980 to 2005

Canada – Male Permanent Residents by Category, 1980 to 2005

Canada – Female Permanent Residents by Category, 1980 to 2005

Canada – Permanent Residents by Category

Canada – Male Permanent Residents by Category

Canada – Female Permanent Residents by Category

Canada – Permanent Residents by Category (Principal Applicants)

Canada – Male Permanent Residents by Category (Principal Applicants)

Canada – Female Permanent Residents by Category (Principal Applicants)

Canada – Permanent Residents by Category (Spouses and Dependants)

Canada – Male Permanent Residents by Category (Spouses and Dependants)

Canada – Female Permanent Residents by Category (Spouses and Dependants)

Canada – Permanent Residents by Gender and Age

Canada – Permanent Residents Less Than 15 Years of Age by Gender and Age.

Canada – Permanent Residents Less Than 15 Years of Age by Gender, Age and Category

Canada – Permanent Residents 15 Years of Age or Older by Age and Category

Canada – Male Permanent Residents 15 Years of Age or Older by Age and Category

Canada – Female Permanent Residents 15 Years of Age or Older by Age and Category

Canada – Permanent Residents by Gender and Source Area

Canada – Permanent Residents by Category and Source Area

Canada – Permanent Residents by Age and Source Area

Canada – Permanent Residents by Top Source Countries

Canada – Permanent Residents from Africa and the Middle East by Top Source Countries

Canada – Permanent Residents from Asia and Pacific by Top Source Countries

Canada – Permanent Residents from South and Central America and the United States by Top Source Countries

Canada – Permanent Residents from Europe and the United Kingdom by Top Source Countries

Canada – Permanent Residents by Province or Territory

Canada – Permanent Residents by Province or Territory and Urban Area

Canada – Permanent Residents by Provincial/Territorial Region and Category

Canada – Permanent Residents by Province or Territory and Language Ability

Canada – Permanent Residents by Provincial/Territorial Region and Source Area

Canada – Permanent Residents 15 Years of Age or Older by Gender and Marital Status

Canada – Permanent Residents Less than 15 Years of Age by Age and Years of Schooling

Canada – Permanent Residents 15 Years of Age or Older by Gender and Level of Education

Canada – Permanent Residents 15 Years of Age or Older by Category and Level of Education

Canada – Permanent Residents 15 Years of Age or Older by Source Area and Level of Education

Canada – Permanent Residents by Category and Language Ability

Canada – Permanent Residents by Mother Tongue

Canada – Permanent Residents by Labour Market Intention and Occupational Skill Level  
 Canada – Permanent Residents 15 Years of Age or Older Intending to Work by Occupational Skill Level (Showing Percentage Distribution)  
 Canada – Skilled Workers 15 Years of Age or Older Intending to Work by Gender and Occupational Skill Level (Principal Applicants)  
 Canada – New Workers 15 Years of Age or Older by Gender and Level of Education  
 Canada – Permanent Residents 15 Years of Age or Older Intending to Work by Category and Language Ability  
*Temporary Residents*  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Temporary Residents by Primary Status, 1980 to 2005  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Male Temporary Residents by Primary Status, 1980 to 2005  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Female Temporary Residents by Primary Status, 1980 to 2005  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Adult Refugee Claimants 18 Years of Age or Older Showing Number Who Have Ever Been Issued a Work Permit, 1989 to 2005  
 Canada – December 1 Stock of Temporary Residents by Primary Status, 1980 to 2005  
 Canada – December 1 Stock of Male Temporary Residents by Primary Status, 1980 to 2005  
 Canada – December 1 Stock of Female Temporary Residents by Primary Status, 1980 to 2005  
 Canada – December 1 Stock of Adult Refugee Claimants 18 Years of Age or Older Showing Number Who Have Ever Been Issued a Work Permit, 1989 to 2005  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Foreign Workers by Top Source Countries  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Male Foreign Workers by Top Source Countries  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Female Foreign Workers by Top Source Countries  
 Canada – December 1 Stock of Foreign Workers by Top Source Countries  
 Canada – December 1 Stock of Male Foreign Workers by Top Source Countries  
 Canada – December 1 Stock of Female Foreign Workers by Top Source Countries  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Foreign Workers by Province or Territory and Urban Area  
 Canada – December 1 Stock of Foreign Workers by Province or Territory and Urban Area  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Foreign Workers by Gender and Occupational Skill Level  
 Canada – December 1 Stock of Foreign Workers by Gender and Occupational Skill Level  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Foreign Students by Top Source Countries  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Male Foreign Students by Top Source Countries  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Female Foreign Students by Top Source Countries  
 Canada – December 1 Stock of Foreign Students by Top Source Countries  
 Canada – December 1 Stock of Male Foreign Students by Top Source Countries  
 Canada – December 1 Stock of Female Foreign Students by Top Source Countries  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Foreign Students by Province or Territory and Urban Area  
 Canada – December 1 Stock of Foreign Students by Province or Territory and Urban Area  
 The annual stock-taking exercise on capacity and performance takes place. It identifies progress made, challenges faced and further opportunities for integrating GBA. It is also a learning and management tool for identifying further steps to be taken at the corporate level.  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Foreign Students by Gender and Level of Study.  
 Canada – December 1 Stock of Foreign Students by Gender and Level of Study.  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Humanitarian Population by Top Source Countries  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Male Humanitarian Population by Top Source Countries  
 Canada – Annual Flow of Female Humanitarian Population by Top Source Countries

## Lessons Learned

- Legislation and reporting are powerful tools and provide a structure for the formal legal requirement and public accountability.
- A departmental framework document provides institutional direction and internal accountabilities.
- The foundation is critical and provides a gender focal point with experienced analysts and a strategy of learning, sharing and consensus building.

- Challenges include the reorganization of GBA work at CIC may create internal capacity issues. Research capacity is minimal, and its uptake and integration into strategy policy development is slow.

## **Conclusions**

- The legislative requirement at CIC plays a critical role but such a requirement in itself does not mainstream GBA.
- Priorities and capacities differ across branches and implementation of the strategy of gender mainstreaming needs to take this variance into account.
- Gender-based analysis plans demonstrate that capacity is beginning to develop, and under IRPA more GBA is becoming available.
- More initiative in integrating new GBA into policy development will be needed.
- More work with other government departments and research organizations is a necessary complement to building internal capacity.
- International conversations about the intersections between gender, migration and development assist us in exploring how these issues related to Canadian immigration.

## **Further Information**

- Annual Report to Parliament on Immigration, 2005, Section 6  
Gender-Based Analysis of the Impact of the *Immigration and Refugee Protection Act*.  
<<http://www.cic.gc.ca/english/pub/annual-report2005/section6.html>>.
- Reports published by Strategic Research and Statistics are available at  
<<http://www.cic.gc.ca/english/research/papers/index.html>>.
- *Gendering Migration, Livelihood and Entitlements: Migrant Women in Canada and the United States* (Monica Boyd and Deanna Pikkov, United Nations Research Institute for Social Development).

## BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES

**Barbro Bakken** is the Director General of the Department of Integration and Diversity in the Ministry of Labour and Social Inclusion, Norway. She has more than 30 years of experience in the field of integration of immigrants and refugees from the state and local community level, and headed the Immigrant Bureau of the City of Oslo for many years.

**Marie DesMeules** is the Director of the Evidence and Risk Assessment Division, Centre for Chronic Disease Prevention and Control. She is an epidemiologist and has worked at Health Canada and the Public Health Agency in the areas of national health surveillance, chronic disease risk assessment, and knowledge development and exchange. Her work includes numerous national and international initiatives in the area of cancer, diabetes, vulnerable populations and health disparities, and best practices for chronic disease prevention and control.

**Elza Maria Henriques Deus Pais**, President of the Commission for Equality and Women's Rights, Portugal is also the President of the Commission for Equality and for Women Rights and President of the Structure Mission against Domestic Violence, and Permanent Portuguese Delegate in Daphne Program of European Commission. She is also responsible for the Structure Mission for the European Year of Equality of Opportunities for All – 2007. Ms. Deus Pais is a researcher in applied sociological studies at University of Lisbon and a teacher at the Catholic University of Portugal and Lisbon High Institute of Social Services. Since 2003, she has been a consultant for the PENÉLOPE Project, financed by the European Commission and co-ordinated by the Portuguese Association of Victim Support to analyse domestic violence in the south of Europe. She has contributed to several research papers, between the Internal Administration Ministry and the Cabinet of Applied Sociological Studies at University of Lisbon, (1997-1999), particularly regarding research on insecurity, crime and violence. Ms. Deus Pais continues to provide training courses in domestic violence and to publish on the topic: she is co-author of the book *Violence Against Women*, published by CIDM, in 1997.

**Maria Lucinda Fonseca** is Full Professor of Human Geography and Co-ordinator of the Research Unit on Migration, Cities and Minorities at the Centre for Geographical Studies (CEG), University of Lisbon. Ms. Fonseca has worked extensively in social and urban geography and migration issues. She has been the Executive Head of the 11th Metropolis Conference. She is a member of two European research networks: IMISCOE - Network of Excellence in the Domain of International Migration, Integration and Social Cohesion in Europe (co-leader of research cluster B5 – Social Integration and Mobility – housing, education and health), 2004-2009; and MIGHEALTHNET, an information network on good practice in health care for migrants and minorities. Some of her most recent publications include “Social Integration of Immigrants with Special Reference to the Local and Spatial Dimension,” in *The Dynamics of International Migration and Settlement in Europe. A State of the Art*, 2006 (co-author); “Building Successful Urban Policy in the New Era of Migration,” in *Europe and Its Immigrants in the 21st Century: A New Deal or a Continuing*

*Dialogue of the Deaf?*, 2006 (co-author); *Reunificação Familiar e Imigração em Portugal* (Family Reunification and Immigration in Portugal), 2005 (co-author and co-ordinator).

**Anita Gagnon** is based in Montréal, Quebec (Canada) as Associate Professor at McGill University in the School of Nursing and the Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, and Nurse Scientist in the Women's Health Mission of the McGill University Health Centre. She is a Visiting Scientist at France's Institut national de la santé et de la recherche médicale (INSERM). Her research interests include maternal, child and perinatal health, the reproductive health of high-risk migrant women, health services research, public health, epidemiology, and evidence-based practice (both clinical and policy). Ms. Gagnon has been the recipient of career awards from the Le Fonds de la recherche en santé du Québec (FRSQ) (the Quebec government's health research funding body) since 1997 and holds a Dawson Scholarship from McGill University. She is currently the primary investigator or co-investigator on several grants related to the reproductive health of migrant women. Ms. Gagnon has presented and published in several venues. In addition, she was commissioned to write a discussion paper for the Royal Commission on the Future of Health in Canada entitled, "Responsiveness of the Canadian Health Care System Towards Newcomers", which was published as a book chapter last fall. From September 2004 to July 2006, Ms. Gagnon was the Co-ordinator of Volet 4 (Santé et services sociaux, sécurité publique, justice) for Immigration & Metropolis (1 of the 5 Canadian research centres of excellence on migration).

**Eva Haagenen** is Senior Advisor/Co-ordinator of Research on International Migration in the Department of Integration and Diversity for the Ministry of Labour and Social Inclusion, Norway.

**Zeynep Erden Karman**, Director of Research, Status of Women Canada, joined the federal government in 1983 and has served at the regional and national levels on issues related to improving the status of women. She joined Status of Women Canada in 1990 as senior economist and has since served as an executive in the areas of policy analysis and development, international relations, and research. She conceptualized and implemented SWC's Policy Research Fund and has been the Director of Research since 1996.

**Eleonore Kofman** is Professor of Gender, Migration and Citizenship, School of Health and Social Sciences, Middlesex University, United Kingdom. Her current research focusses on civic stratification, gender and family migration policies in Europe and on a comparative analysis of gendered migrations, livelihoods and entitlements in European welfare regimes. As a member of the Asylum and Migration Committee, Women's National Commission, United Kingdom, she has been involved in developing a gendered based analysis and critique of current British immigration policies.

**Tzvetelina Kowatschew** works for the Municipal Department 35 -Immigration, Citizenship, Registry in the Department Competence Center Law. She is a contact person for victims of organized trafficking in human beings in matters of legalizing residence status. Previously, she worked in the Women's Department for the City of Vienna.

**Eva Lazar** is a Senior Policy Analyst at Citizenship and Immigration Canada. Previously, Eva held positions with Canadian Policy Research Networks, Inc., Social Development Canada, the International Centre for Human Rights and Democratic Development, the Canadian Human Rights Commission, and ISIS International (Manila). She has also taught in the areas of international development, social policy, human rights and gender issues at Queen's University at Kingston and the University of Massachusetts at Boston. Ms. Lazar has supported social justice and gender issues in the voluntary sector in Canada and internationally, working at women's interval houses, with local anti-racism and environmental groups, and serving on a municipal immigration service board. The focus of her dissertation and post-doctoral work was on identity and social justice for female migrant workers in the context of globalization, with a specific focus on South Africa.

**Gabriella Lazaridis** is Senior Lecturer at the Department of Sociology, University of Leicester, United Kingdom. She has published more than 40 articles in academic books and journals. She is co-editor of *Eldorado or Fortress* published by Palgrave, *Gender and Migration in Southern Europe: Women on the Move* published by Berg, *Into the Margins: Migration and Exclusion in Southern Europe*, published by Ashgate.

**Audrey Macklin** teaches migration and citizenship law, administrative law and criminal law at the University of Toronto. From 1994-96 she was a Member of the Refugee Division of Canada's Immigration and Refugee Board. Her research and writing interests include transnational migration, citizenship, forced migration, feminist and cultural analysis, and human rights. She has published on these subjects in journals, such as *Refuge* and *Canadian Woman Studies*, and in collections of essays, such as *The Security of Freedom: Essays on Canada's Anti-Terrorism Bill* and *Engendering Forced Migration*.

**Nicola Piper** is Senior Research Fellow at the Asia Research Institute, National University of Singapore. She had previous appointments with the Nordic Institute of Asian Studies in Copenhagen, and the Australian National University in Canberra. Her research interests revolve around international economic migration, governance and policy networks, gender, non-governmental organizations and transnational political activism, the rights of migrants, with empirical focus on Southeast and East Asia as well as Europe. She is the author of the book *Racism, Nationalism and Citizenship* (Ashgate, 1998), the co-editor of the volumes *Women and Work in Globalising Asia* (Routledge, 2002), *Wife or Worker? Asians Marriage and Migration* (Rowman & Littlefield, 2003), *Transnational Activism in Asia – Problems of Power and Democracy* (Routledge, 2004), as well as numerous journal articles and book chapters. Her current project is on political organizing of migrant labour and the engagement of trade unions and migrant associations in the promotion of migrants' rights.

**Bilkis Vissandjée** is a Professor at the School of Nursing, Université de Montréal. As the academic co-director of the Centre d'excellence sur la santé des femmes - Consortium Université de Montréal from 1996 to 2002, she contributed significantly to the research program of this Centre studying the complexities involved in the trajectories of immigrant women's access to health services in a context of cultural diversity. Ms. Vissandjée was recently appointed to an advisory committee for the adaptation of health programs and policies to cultural communities in Quebec. The common theme of Ms. Vissandjée's work

is to better understand the relationship between gender, culture and migration as social determinants of health and the need for gender and diversity sensitive indicators which value and reflect women's lives, work, productivity, and social, cultural and economic security over the lifespan. On the international scene, she works in collaboration with the Shastri Indo-Canadian Institute (India), the International Development Research Council (Bénin, Madagascar, Népal), the Canadian International Development Agency (Lebanon, Morocco, Mexico, Costa Rica), The Aga Khan Foundation (India, Pakistan) and the UNDP (Morocco).

**Lori Wilkinson** is an Associate Professor in the Department of Sociology at the University of Manitoba and is Chair of the Data Committee for the Prairie Centre of Excellence for Research on Immigration and Integration. Ms. Wilkinson is actively involved in research on the life course transitions of immigrant and refugee youth, the employment experiences of immigrant women, and the health and well-being of immigrant children. She is Secretary-Treasurer of the Canadian Ethnic Studies Association and sits on the boards of several other national and provincial research councils. She is also the Associate Head of the Department of Sociology at the University of Manitoba.

**APPENDIX A: WORKSHOP AGENDA  
WOMEN AND MIGRATION  
11th International Metropolis Conference**

**Lisbon, Monday, October 2  
10:00 – 17:00  
Culturgest, Small Auditorium**

***10:00 - 10:30*  
Introduction**

**CHAIRS:**

**Eva Haagensen**, Ministry of Labour and Social Inclusion, Department of Integration and Diversity, Norway

**Zeynep Karman**, Research Directorate, Status of Women Canada

**OPENING REMARKS:**

**Lucinda Fonseca**, University of Lisbon, Centro de Estudos Geograficos, Faculdade des Letras, Portugal (5 min)

**GENERAL INTRODUCTION TO THE THEME WOMEN AND MIGRATION:**

**Dr. Nicola Piper**, Asia Research Institute, National University of Singapore (20min)

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***10:30 – 11:10***

**Panel 1: Economic issues**

**MODERATOR:**

**Eva Haagensen**, Ministry of Labour and Social Inclusion, Department of Integration and Diversity, Norway

**PRESENTERS:**

**Berit Berg**, NTNU Social Research, Norway

**Gabriella Lazaridis**, University of Leicester, UK

**Lori Wilkinson**, University of Manitoba, Canada

**Eleonore Kofman**, Middlessex University, UK

*11:10 – 11:45*  
**Discussion on economic issues  
and questions from the floor**

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*11:45 – 12:00*  
**Health break**

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*12:00 – 12:30*  
**Panel 2: Social/health issues**

**MODERATOR:**

**Lucinda Fonseca**, University of Lisbon, Centro de Estudos Geograficos, Faculdade des Letras, Portugal

**PRESENTERS:**

**Anita Gagnon**, McGill University, Canada

**Dr. Lilach Lev Ari**, Oranim, Academic College of Education and Bar Ilan University, Israel

**Bilkis Vissandjee**, University of Montreal, Canada

*12:30 – 13:15*  
**Discussion on social/health issues  
and questions from the floor**

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*13:15 – 14:15*  
**Lunch**

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*14:15 – 14:45*  
**Panel 3: Human rights issues**

**MODERATOR:**

**Dimitria Clayton**, Ministry for Intergenerational Affairs, Women and Integration, State of North Rhine-Westphalia, Germany

**PRESENTERS:**

**Elza Deus Pais**, Commission for the Equality of Women's Rights, Portugal

**Audrey Macklin**, University of Toronto, Canada

*14:45 – 15:30*  
**Discussion on human rights issues  
and questions from the floor**

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*15:30 – 15:45*  
**Health break**

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*15:45 – 16:25*  
**Closing panel: Policy implications of presented research  
and future directions**

**MODERATOR:**

**Zeynep Karman**, Status of Women Canada

**DISCUSSANTS:**

**Barbro Bakken**, Ministry of Labour and Social Inclusion, Department of Integration and Diversity, Norway

**Kowatschew Tzvetelina**, City of Vienna, Municipal Department 35 - Immigration, citizenship, Registry, Competence Center Law, Austria

**Marie Desmeules**, Public Health Agency, Canada

**Eva Lazar**, Citizenship and Immigration, Canada

*16:25 – 17:00*  
**Discussion on policy research issues  
and questions from the floor**

**APPENDIX B: WORKSHOP FLYER**  
**WOMEN AND MIGRATION**  
Pre-conference workshop  
2 October 2006  
10:00 - 17:00

**ORGANISERS:**

Zeynep Karman, Status of Women Canada  
Eva Haagenen, Ministry of Labour and Social Inclusion, Department of Integration and  
Diversity, Norway  
Lucinda Fonseca, Centro de Estudos Geograficos, University of Lisbon, Portugal

**Opening speech:**

Dr. Nicola Piper, Asia Research Institute, National University of Singapore

Migration is a gendered experience. Until recently this has been much overlooked by policy and research. The goal of this workshop is to bridge this gap by examining more closely the impact of feminisation of migration. Almost half of the world's international migrants are women (48.6%, Report of the Global Commission on International Migration, October 2005) and in North America and Europe there are more female than male international migrants (51% and 52% respectively). While women remain predominant in the category of family migrants more recent trends show an increase in women migrating alone or as the main wage-earners. Women who migrate for economic reasons remain employed in traditionally female occupations, such as nursing, services, retail, domestic work and entertainment.

In order for public policies to be effective, they need to take gender into account. There are many areas where gender-based policy research is still needed to inform policy development. This workshop proposes to engage academics, researchers, policy makers and civil society in an informed debate around three main topics: 1) migrant women's contribution to economic development in both source and host countries (e.g. issues such as foreign credentials recognition; migration of high-skilled women and professionals; status and rights of migrant women temporary workers; remittances); 2) migrant women's access to social and health services and programs (e.g. language and job training; access to public health information and services; reproductive health of refugee and immigrant women; challenges of trans-national families) and 3) migrant women's human, social and labour rights (e.g. trafficking in women; undocumented migrants; working conditions and labour standards).

We invite North American, European and other international experts to participate in this policy research dialogue with a goal to inform better policies and inclusion of gender in all dimensions of migration management: economic, social, health, human rights and equality.

As seating will be limited, after you have registered for the 2006 Metropolis conference at <http://www.ceg.ul.pt/metropolis2006/registration.html>, please confirm your attendance for this pre-conference workshop by sending an e-mail to [metropolis2006@ceg.ul.pt](mailto:metropolis2006@ceg.ul.pt).

For any other information on the workshop please contact:

In Canada: [www.research@swc-cfc.gc.ca](mailto:www.research@swc-cfc.gc.ca)  
In Portugal: [metropolis2006@ceg.ul.pt](mailto:metropolis2006@ceg.ul.pt)

## **APPENDIX C: WOMEN AND MIGRATION WORKSHOP ORGANIZING COMMITTEE**

### **Canadian Members**

Zeynep Karman, Director, Research, Status of Women Canada

Vesna Radulovic, Senior Research Analyst, Research Directorate, Status of Women Canada

Duyai Kien, Senior Policy Analyst, Policy and External Relations, Status of Women Canada

Julie Boyer, Director, International and Francophone Liaison, Metropolis Project,  
Citizenship and Immigration Canada

### **International Members**

Eva Haagensen, Department of Integration and Diversity in the Ministry of Labour and  
Social Inclusion, Norway

Maria Lucinda Fonseca, Centre for Geographical Studies (CEG), University of Lisbon and  
Executive Head of the 11th Metropolis International Conference

Meghann Ormond, Local Executive Secretariat, 11th Metropolis International Conference

**APPENDIX D: WOMEN AND MIGRATION WORKSHOP  
ADVISORY COMMITTEE**

Audrey Macklin, Associate Professor, Faculty of Law, University of Toronto

Marie-Thérèse Chicha, Professor, School of Industrial Relations, Université de Montréal

Evangelia Tastsoglou, Associate Professor, Department of Sociology and Criminology,  
Saint Mary's University, Halifax

Caroline Andrew, Professor, School of Political Studies, University of Ottawa

Marie DesMeules, Director, Evidence and Risk Assessment Division, Public Health Agency  
Canada

Sarah McDermott, Epidemiologist, Evidence and Risk Assessment Division Public Health  
Agency Canada

Elisabeth Barot, Program Officer, Human Rights, Social and Human Sciences, Status of  
Women, Canadian Commission for UNESCO