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THEMATIC RESEARCH ON MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT



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ENVIRONMENT CLIMATE CHANGE AND DISASTER MANAGEMENT



WORK WORKPLACE AND SKILL MISMATCH



FINANCIAL AND SOCIAL COSTS



International Organization for Migration (IOM)
The UN Migration Agency

THEMATIC RESEARCH ON MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Prepared By:

Human Development Research Centre (HDRC)

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International Organization for Migration (IOM)
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Message

For centuries, migration has had a transformative impact on the lives of the people; affecting their well-being, socioeconomic conditions and overall development. According to the UN, the number of international migrants worldwide has continued to rise over the past, reaching 244 million in 2015 from 222 million in 2010.

There has been a growing recognition of migration as an enabler of development in global policy frameworks like the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and Addis Ababa Action Agenda (AAAA). Bangladesh has also advanced in strengthening migration governance through the formulation of the Seventh Five Year Plan, Overseas Employment and Migrants Act 2013, Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment Policy, 2016 and the National Skills Development Policy 2011. While the development advances as a result of migration cannot be refuted, it is also a fact that structural factors driving migration like poverty, demographic imbalances, skills shortages and climate change will persist, which on the other hand needs to be addressed through strengthening migration governance.

To strengthen the governance of labour mobility, it is crucial to have a thorough understanding of the drivers and dynamics of migration. In that light, four thematic researches on Financial and Social Costs of Migration; Work, Workplace, and Skills Mismatch; Social Protection and Rights; and Environment, Climate Change and Disaster Management have been conducted through the IOM-UNDP Global Programme on Mainstreaming Migration into National Development Strategies, supported by Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC).

As the Co-Chair of the Technical Working Groups (TWGs), I believe that the studies will provide robust knowledge and empirical evidence for designing appropriate strategies to mainstream migration into sectoral planning. I thank the International Organization for Migration (IOM), Bangladesh for initiating this research and working in collaboration with the Government of Bangladesh to take forward the agenda of mainstreaming migration.

I express my heartfelt appreciation to the dedicated efforts of the research team at the Human Development Research Centre (HDRC) who have completed this research under the guidance of Prof Abul Barkat. It was encouraging to see the active participation of a wide range of experts in various consultations which has further enriched the studies.

I believe this research would contribute to translating the nexus between migration and development into concrete policy measures designed to maximize the positive effects of migration for development and minimize potential negative consequences.



Azharul Huq
Additional Secretary
Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment
Government of Bangladesh

Message

The rapidly evolving world today has led to a transformative change to the development sector. Human mobility is playing a significant role in shaping the lives of individuals and their families as well as impacting the society as a whole. Migration, whether desirable or forced, effects geopolitical, economic and social aspects. On the other hand, geopolitical, social, climatic and economic scenarios also impact mobility – either as a cause, or as an effect. More and more people are adopting migration as an adaptation strategy with the drivers ranging from climate change and disaster to conflict.

Bangladesh with the prominent presence in the global development arena, has been a strong advocate for inclusion of migration in global and national policy frameworks. While global frameworks have acknowledged migration as a contributor to development, the national migration governance has also been strengthened through its reflection in the Seventh Five Year Plan in Bangladesh. Experts and practitioners see it contributing towards development, among other by bringing in remittances and foreign exchange earnings, manifold new knowledge, experience and skill that reduce household poverty and add much needed impetus towards economic growth of the country.

With the intensifying role of migration in the development sector, it becomes crucial to consider a wide-lens perspective ensuring that various cross-sectoral issues are taken into account for policy priorities. Given this backdrop, the Global Programme on 'Mainstreaming Migration into National Development Strategies', supported by Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC), has been working towards inclusion of migration in national and sectoral plans since 2014.

As a step forward, I am pleased to see that four thematic researches on Financial and Social Costs of Migration; Work, Workplace, and Skills Mismatch; Social Protection and Rights; and Environment, Climate Change and Disaster Management have been initiated through this programme. I appreciate the role that the International Organization for Migration (IOM), Bangladesh have played in complementing the interventions undertaken by the Government to support the mainstreaming migration agenda.

As the Co-Chair of the thematic Technical Working Groups (TWGs), I believe this thematic research will provide a strong foundation to formulate strategy papers to support relevant ministries to incorporate migration into sectoral plans and ensure that these are further translated into concrete actions. I appreciate the dedicated research team of the Human Development Research Centre (HDRC) and the experts who have contributed to the research.



Nahida Sobhan
Director General (Multilateral Economic Affairs)
Ministry of Foreign Affairs
Government of Bangladesh

Foreword

Migration has long been an integral part of human lives and a strategy for improving livelihoods. In recent times, migration's contribution to socioeconomic development has been receiving increased recognition from the international community. Many of the development frameworks at the global level, like the 2030 Agenda and at the national level, like Bangladesh's Seventh Five Year Plan, has acknowledged migration's positive impact on inclusive growth and sustainable development.

Migration's multidimensional facet calls for the need to assess its linkage with other broader themes like human rights and social protection; climate change and environment; poverty and equity; and human resource planning and management.

Given this backdrop, the International Organization for Migration (IOM), Bangladesh undertook this thematic research to support policy makers to design programmatic interventions. The four thematic research papers on (a) Work, Workplace and Skill Mismatch in Migration; (b) Migration, Environment, Climate Change and Disaster Management; (c) International Migration, Social Protection and Rights; and (d) Financial and Social Costs of International Migration, aim to identify the pertinent issues and delineate recommendations to address the various challenges.

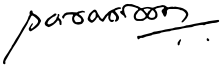
As the leading UN migration agency, IOM strives towards strengthening empirical evidence for policies and practices. The studies provide a strong foundation to develop strategy papers, which will be instrumental in supporting the Government of Bangladesh to mainstream migration into sectoral planning and related action plans.

I express my sincerest gratitude to the Government of Bangladesh for supporting IOM to implement the programme 'Mainstreaming Migration into National Development Strategies', through which this research has been commissioned. I am particularly grateful to the Co-Chairs of the Technical Working Groups, Mr. Azharul Huq, Additional Secretary, Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment and Ms. Nahida Sobhan, Director General (Multilateral Economic Affairs), Ministry of Foreign Affairs for their active leadership in steering the migration discourse.

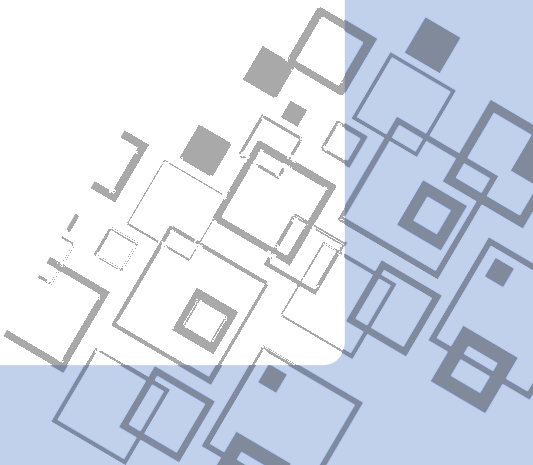
The research has also been enriched by the valuable guidance of H.E. Mr. Riaz Hamidullah, Bangladeshi High Commissioner to Sri Lanka during its planning stage and inputs from Mr. Mohammad Monirul Islam, former Director General (Multilateral Economic Affairs), Ministry of Foreign Affairs. I value IOM's long-standing partnership with the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC) and deeply appreciate their support to this programme.

I would like to thank the team at the Human Development Research Centre (HDRC) for undertaking this research and their relentless effort. Special thanks to Prof. Abul Barkat for his guidance and insights for the overall research.

Finally, I would like to reiterate IOM's commitment to collaborate with stakeholders in implementing relevant recommendations that have emerged from the research. IOM stands ready to support Government's interventions to strengthen migration governance through an inclusive, protective and enabling environment to fully realize the benefits of migration on development.



Sarat Dash
Chief of Mission
IOM Bangladesh and the Special Envoy to India and Bhutan



Acknowledgement

The administration of this study would not have been possible without the commitment and dedication of all those who were involved in this process.

We are grateful to the International Organization for Migration (IOM), Dhaka for understanding the crucial need of such a study and entrusting the Human Development Research Centre (HDRC) to carry out the critical assignment. The enthusiasm of Mr Sarat Dash (Chief of Mission, IOM Bangladesh) towards the study is highly appreciated. We thank Mr Abdusattor Esoev (Deputy Chief of Mission, IOM Bangladesh) for his valuable participation in this process. We are particularly grateful to Ms Shahreen Munir (National Programme Officer, IOM Dhaka) for her continuous cooperation. We must thank Ms Ashna S. Choudhury (Project Assistant, IOM Dhaka) and Mr Ashfaqur Rahman Khan (Research Assistant, IOM Dhaka) for their unstinted support at all stages of this research. We acknowledge the contribution of Ms Sandra Paola Alvarez (Former Migration and Development Specialist, IOM Headquarters) for her inputs for the study at the very inception phase.

We thank all the members of the National Project Board, Mainstreaming Migration into National Development Strategies, under which the study is being conducted – for their keen interest on the study. Particularly, we must thank Mr Azharul Huq (Additional Secretary, Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment) and Mr Mohammad Monirul Islam (Former Director General, Multilateral Economic Affairs, Ministry of Foreign Affairs) for their guidance. We express our debt to His Excellency Mr M. Riaz Hamidullah (High Commissioner of Bangladesh to Sri Lanka) for his valuable inputs in finalizing the research goals as the Director General, Multilateral Economic Affairs, Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

We are particularly thankful to the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation for supporting the whole initiative.

We are indebted to the key informants for their valuable time and insightful inputs. We are grateful to the respondents and participants at the local levels, especially at the focus group discussions, who provided us with lots of important information on the subject. We are thankful to the distinguished guests for their valuable inputs over the draft report in the Validation Workshop on Thematic Research held in Dhaka in January 2017.

We thank all the dedicated team members of Human Development Research Centre (HDRC) involved in the process. Particularly we are grateful to two Research Associates—Ms Rahinur Bintey Rafique and Mr Md. Waliul Islam; and two Research Consultants—Mr Rubaiyat AUMI and Prof Subhash Kumar Sengupta—for their contributions in various stages of the study.

Thank you all again!

Abul Barkat

Prof Abul Barkat, PhD
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FINANCIAL AND SOCIAL COSTS OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION



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List of Abbreviations

BAIRA	Bangladesh Association of International Recruiting Agencies
BMET	Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training
BOESL	Bangladesh Overseas Employment and Services Limited
BRAC	Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee
	(now Building Resources Across Communities)
CBO	Community-based organization
EUR	Euro
FGD	Focus group discussion
G2G	Government-to-government
HDRC	Human Development Research Centre
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
KII	Key informant interview
LGI	Local government institutions
MoLGRD&C	Ministry of Local Government, Rural Development and Cooperatives
MoEWOE	Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment
MoFA	Ministry of Foreign Affairs
MTO	Money transfer operator
Tk	Bangladesh Taka
UDC	Union Digital Centre
USD	United States Dollar
WARBE	Welfare Association for the Rights of Bangladeshi Emigrants
YCBO	Youth community-based organization

Executive Summary

Positive impact of migration is manifested, widely evidenced by the empirical studies as well, in terms of remittance effects on the welfare of labour-sending households and community and labour-utilization effects on receiving firms and community. However, migrant workers incur substantial social and economic (financial) costs through the different stages of the labour migration process. Reducing these migration costs can have significant poverty-reduction implications; hence, research topics like strategies for reduction of recruitment, remittance and social costs are crucial.

The aim of the study is to identify financial and social costs of migration and recommend policy options for the cost reduction. In line with this broader objective, the specific research objectives are as follows:

(a) Assess the status of recruitment, as well as remittance costs and social costs of international migration and their poverty implications; and

(b) Recommend options for reduction of the mentioned costs.

Mainly based on secondary information (extensive literature review), the research also collates primary information from the left-behind family members (especially male/female spouses and children) and selected informants through focus group discussions (FGDs) and key informant interviews (KIIs) for synthesis and validation purposes.

The study finds that labour migration and recruitment costs are high mainly due to the informal migration process and inadequacies in the governance system. Low levels of skills and literacy, as well as lack of awareness of the migrants themselves also contribute to high costs of migration. Some initiatives, particularly to curb the recruitment costs, have been undertaken, but these are not sufficient to address this issue.

While the financial costs have often been the centre of the migration discourse, social costs and the interventions have not been underscored. Social costs of left-behind spouses and children are detrimental; often higher than the benefits achieved from migration. It has been seen that left-behind female spouses suffer more than their counterparts and the impact is also severe for the left-behind children. Greater attention on the social impact of international migration, especially at the micro level, is required.

The left-behind female spouses often have to take up the roles and responsibilities of the male figure in the houses in addition to their own traditional "gender" ones. The FGDs with left-behind male and female spouses revealed that in a number of instances, they become over-burdened and fail to do both household chores, as well as income-generating activities. This causes additional burden and stress and affects their psychosocial well-being that often leads to family feuds and family breakdowns. Social stigma imposed by the surrounding people seemed to be the top-most social cost borne by the left-behind male spouses. Interestingly, it was less focused by the FGD participants in case of left-behind female spouses, though literature and other practical evidences reveal that women (left-behind female spouse) are mostly stigmatized. The female spouses left behind often found it challenging to discipline the children, and this becomes the cause for deterioration in the marital life.

The study further aimed to explore the negative impact on the left-behind children. Impact on left-behind children varied depending on whether the father or mother or both parents left for overseas employment. The FGDs with left-behind spouses and returning migrants reveal that "both parents away" are most detrimental to the children resulting in high social costs.

The study revealed that early marriage is one of the major social costs borne by the left-behind children, especially the girls. This is often the consequence of drop out from education and insecurity feelings emanating from child abuse – two other widely mentioned social costs borne by the female children left behind. Discontinuation of education was also mentioned as a social cost by left-behind male children. In addition, this group also mentioned their engagement with drugs and adultery.

The study has come up with a set of recommendations to address recruitment, remittance transfer and social costs. To address the costs related to recruitment, it is important to use the existing infrastructure including the Union Digital Centres, enhance capacity in hard and soft skills for migrant workers and increase awareness at community levels. A designated cell at the Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment could also support to decrease the costs related to remittance transfer. In regard to the social costs, it is imperative to work with youth and community groups, particularly to enhance awareness around child marriage and drug abuse.

Strategies should be undertaken to mitigate the social costs of migration among the spouses and children left behind, considering that family is still the most powerful social unit one can ever belong to, and as it is the backbone of the nation, it should be strengthened and kept from falling apart.

Chapter 1

Introduction to the Study

1.1. Background and Rationale

One of the "essential, inevitable and potentially beneficial" components of economic and social life of human community is migration.[1] Existing research studies show strong causation (two-way in most of the cases) and correlation between migration and poverty reduction. Often acting as a livelihood strategy of the marginalized people, migration reduces poverty through employment generation and income augmentation of the sending households and the communities. Share of extreme poor declined sharply in foreign migrant villages – from about 9 per cent in 1988 to 1 per cent in 2000.[2] During that same period, according to national statistics,[3] extreme poverty declined from 29 per cent to 20 per cent in rural areas of Bangladesh, which indicates lesser extent of poverty in the villages dominated by remittances of migrant workers.[4] Thus, labour migration may be seen as a social protection strategy[5] for Bangladesh. Besides financial remittance, social remittance also flows to the country of origin through the labour migration process.

All these mentioned above are the positive dimensions of migration. Migration, however, leads to various vulnerabilities like temporal, spatial, sociocultural and sociopolitical; and this is often not given focused attention. There are certain official and unofficial exorbitant costs that the migrants incur in the process of going abroad, getting recruited and sending remittance to their households.[6] In case of recruitment, high upfront costs expose migrants to debt-bondage and other abusive practices.[7] Besides the financial costs, migration also exerts various forms of social costs upon the migrants themselves, their left-behind family members and surrounding community people. Cost reduction in migration process, especially for recruitment, remittance transfer and social aspects, may broaden the access to migration for the marginalized people and enable to maximize the benefits of migration.

Lowering the financial costs of migration would potentially increase the disposable incomes of the workers. Since women migrant workers tend to be paid less, this would also serve to effectively reduce gender disparities. Reducing recruitment fees would lead to positive impacts for migrants, not only in terms of decreasing the financial burden experienced by migrants and their families, but also through potentially increasing remittances. Reduced cost of migration may give the opportunity to additional number of marginalized people who may not avail the opportunity in the existing higher cost structure. The reduced cost structures would also release many migrants from selling of their assets (especially landed property[8]) to migrate, while the saved money (from reduced costs) may contribute to their investments.[9]

Remittances increase the disposable income, thereby limiting households' vulnerabilities to external shocks and opening opportunities to save and increase assets. Reduced cost of remittance transfer may give the

1 IOM, 2003.

2 Hossain and Bayes, 2009.

3 Government of Bangladesh, 2003.

4 Though remittance is suspected to have a certain role in the formation of dependency syndrome among a section of remittance recipients (Barkat, Osman and Gupta, 2014).

5 Sabates-Wheeler and Waite, 2003.

6 Barkat, Hossian and Hoque, 2014.

7 Global Forum on Migration and Development, 2016.

8 Barkat et al., 2017.

9 Hossain and Bayes, 2009.

migrants scope to utilize the saved amount for investments and contribute to poverty reduction. The potential gains from reducing remittance costs are estimated to be as high as 20 billion US Dollars (USD) in resources flowing directly to the households.[10] As evidence suggests, female migrants remit a larger proportion of their wages, and the cost reduction initiatives would contribute to closing the gender gap.

On the other hand, social costs, due to their very nature, cannot be quantified but have immense impact on the lives of the individuals and their families. If the social costs of left-behind family members can be reduced, then it could lead to the enhancement of human and social capital.

1.2. Objectives and Research Questions

The aim of the study is to identify financial and social costs of migration and recommend policy options for the cost reduction. In line with this broader objective, the specific objectives are as follows:

(a) Assess the status of recruitment, as well as remittance costs and social costs of international migration and their poverty implications; and

(b) Recommend options for reduction of the mentioned costs.

In the context of ways to reducing recruitment costs, relevant research queries have been:

- Which cost items can be lowered? Why are those items targeted for reduction? Why are the non-targeted items left?
- What positive examples of reducing recruitment costs can be shared? What aspects of these initiatives may be suitable for possible adoption elsewhere? Are there any unintended consequences of these initiatives that need to be considered?
- What are the roles of different actors to reduce these costs? What institutions and processes could facilitate the reduction of recruitment costs?

Along with the similar types of queries of recruitment costs, the research questions regarding remittance costs have also included:

- How can governments, financial institutions and private sector increase competition in the remittance market to reduce transaction costs further?
- What can be learned from past experiences where remittance costs have been reduced?

An exploration into the issues of social costs of international migration and their way-outs hover around the costs related with the left-behind spouses (both male and female) and children (both male and female), with the similar type of research questions approached in the case of financial costs.

1.3. Methodology

Mainly based on secondary information, the research also collates primary information from the left-behind family members (especially male and female spouses and children) and learned informants for synthesis and validation purposes. The following tools and techniques were applied to collect primary and secondary information:

Participatory discussion: Research issues (study focus and the specific objectives) were set among the Human Development Research Centre (HDRC) research team and the National Project Board members consisting of representatives from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MoFA), the Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment (MoEWOE), the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC) and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). During the process, existing information and research findings were appraised to draft the data collection instruments

10 De, 2015.

for key informants' interviews (KIIs) and focus group discussions (FGDs) and search for the appropriate literatures.

Extensive literature review: The research has primarily been based on secondary information, focusing on existing literatures. National and international literatures on financial and social costs of migration were also reviewed. The key literatures reviewed are listed on Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Reviewed key literature[11]

Domain	Title of the literature
Recruitment cost	The Cost: Causes of and potential redress for high recruitment and migration costs in Bangladesh
	Cost Benefit Analysis of Interventions Ensuring Better Overseas Migration: Formalizing Migration Through Union Digital Centre (UDC) and Skill Upgradation
	Recruitment Baseline: Recruitment of Domestic Workers from Bangladesh, India and Nepal into Jordan and Lebanon
	Recruitment and Placement of Bangladeshi Migrant Workers An Evaluation of the Process
Remittance cost	In the Corridors of Remittance: Cost and use of remittances in Bangladesh
	Advancing the Interests of Bangladesh's Migrants Workers: Issues of Financial Inclusion and Social Protection
Social cost	Social Cost of Migration on Children Left Behind due to Labour Migration[12]
	Valuing the Social Cost of Migration: An Exploratory Study

Key informant interview: To supplement, complement and validate the findings, information have been collected from relevant policymakers and practitioners through KIIs. Key informants have been selected based on their commendable work experience on the issues, in consultation with IOM. The informants have been approached formally using proper channels. A total of 13 KIIs were conducted (Annex List and Table 1.2).

Table 1.2: Interviewed key informants

Domain	Informants' affiliation
State agencies	• MoEWOE • MoFA • Planning Division of the Ministry of Planning • Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training (BMET) • Bangladesh Overseas Employment and Services Limited (BOESL)
International development agencies	• International Labour Organization (ILO)
Association	• Bangladesh Association of International Recruiting Agencies (BAIRA)

11 Full references of these literatures, along with other literatures, are in the Reference section.

12 PowerPoint presentation of the study has been reviewed.

Domain	Informants' affiliation
Civil society organizations	• Welfare Association for the Rights of Bangladeshi Emigrants (WARBE Development Foundation) • Bangladesh Ovibashi Mohila Sramik Association (BOMSA)
Academics and researchers	• Centre for Climate Change and Environmental Research (C3ER), BRAC University

Focus group discussion: FGDs with returning migrants and left-behind family members, especially male and female spouses and children were organized. Community-based organizations (CBO) and local government institutions (LGI) were approached to facilitate the process. Organizations working with migrants and returning migrants were also approached for networking and arranging sessions, to discuss the issues (mostly the "whys" and "hows" part of the research issues) in detail to draw a consensus. A total of 12 FGDs were conducted (Table 1.3).

Table 1.3: Location and participants of FGDs conducted

District	Upazila	Union	FGD participants	Notes
Khulna	Koira	Uttar Bedkashi	Returning male migrants	Most of the participants aged between 30 and 45; some of them went for more than once.
		Dakshin Bedkashi	Returning female migrants	Most of the participants aged between 25 and 40; some of them went for more than once.
		Uttar Bedkashi	Left-behind male spouse	Most of the participants aged between 35 and 50; some of them also went for overseas work.
		Dakshin Bedkashi	Left-behind female spouse	Most of the participants aged between 20 and 35.
		Uttar Bedkashi	Left-behind male children	Most of the participants aged between 10 and 15.
		Dakshin Bedkashi	Left-behind female children	Most of the participants aged between 10 and 15.
Dhaka	Dohar	Mokshedpur	Returning male migrants	Most of the participants aged between 35 and 50; some of them went for more than once.
		Bilaspur	Returning female migrants	Most of the participants aged between 25 and 40.
		Mokshedpur	Left-behind male spouse	Most of the participants aged between 30 and 50; some of them also went for overseas work.
		Bilaspur	Left-behind female spouse	Most of the participants aged between 25 and 40; some of them also went for overseas work.
		Mokshedpur	Left-behind male children	Most of the participants aged between 10 and 15.
		Bilaspur	Left-behind female children	Most of the participants aged between 10 and 15.

The draft findings (of this report) have been shared with the thematic technical working groups through a validation workshop, and the feedbacks have been incorporated into this final version.

1.4. Limitations

The duration of the study was short, and it focused mainly on secondary information-based research. Apart from these, some other limitations of the study are as follows:

(a) Only the costs of international migration have been approached, leaving aside the costs of internal migration.

(b) Migration and remittance costs involve not only the actual monetary costs, but also various opportunity costs, which have not been considered.

(c) There was no scope of representative household survey, which would substantiate the secondary observations more accurately.

Chapter 2

Financial Costs of Migration

2.1. Introduction

Financial or economic costs of migration comprise of recruitment costs, costs related to sending remittance and other fringe costs. These costs of migration hinder the migration process since they reap the benefits of migration from the actual migrants. Documented or formal migration[13] and undocumented or informal migration[14] are the two major categories of international labour migration from Bangladesh. The prevalence of informal migration remains one of the leading factors behind the increased costs of migration.[15] Lack of awareness among the migrants regarding the recruitment and process of migration is another factor that escalates migration costs. Considering the poverty implications of recruitment and remittance costs, this chapter is focused on the discussion of these two costs. Low migration costs can mitigate existing migration-related challenges, as well as increase the number of new entrants for overseas employment.

It is to be noted that motivating factors behind the migration and recruitment costs have been disputed in some cases, which led to differing observations.[16] Recruiting agencies and some other stakeholders (including neoclassical, neo-liberal school of economic researchers and pro-rent-seeking academia) in the migration process assign the high migration costs to market-driven factors like labour demand and supply. Others (including interventionist school of economics and human and humane development research groups) see regulation deficit in the overseas recruitment sector as the key cause behind the high costs of international labour migration.

2.2. Migration and Recruitment Costs

Migration costs, in general, and recruitment costs, in specific, are costs that the labour migrant has to bear till the final stage of getting employed in an overseas job. The average cost of financing labour migration currently stands at USD 2,600 to USD 3,900; which amounts to three years' worth of income for the average Bangladeshi.[17] However, the costs vary depending on the destination countries, socioeconomic status of migrant workers and the recruitment process. Among the three, the recruitment process is a complex factor, at least from the following four directions, which impacts upon the cost structure largely:

- Firstly, a number of persons, institutions and agencies are involved in the process (roles, responsibilities, functions – formal or informal – offer a huge volume of information much beyond individual capacity, create the scope of asymmetric information, and result in opportunities for hiking the costs for the intermediaries);
- Secondly, the institutions are both governmental and private, as well as local and foreign (same problems mentioned above, create space for cost escalation for the rent-seeking intermediary groups);

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13 Formalization of migration is usually conceptualized as a decentralized and transparent process, particularly in terms of costs breakdown, ensuring rational profit margins of market agents (i.e., recruiting agencies), which also removes the asymmetry in information and institutional bottlenecks by providing necessary information and services at local-level administrative tier (Shadat and Rahman, 2016).

14 Salient features of the informal migration process are as follows: (a) lack of transparency; (b) information asymmetry; (c) presence of middlemen in both the host and destination country; (d) excessive profit-seeking behaviour of the recruiting agency; and (e) institutional bottlenecks (ibid).

15 Shadat and Rahman, 2016.

16 Barkat, Hossain and Hoque, 2014.

17 Shadat and Rahman, 2016.

- Thirdly, a host of intermediaries are assembled in the whole process; some formal and official, while others are more informal (who are the key rent-seekers, whose actions are visible sometimes, and invisible in some other times); and
- Finally, at least at the formal level, there is a large number of rules and regulations, implementing and overseeing authorities and bodies, thereby, often complicating the entire process.[18]

The first three factors affect the labour migration process differently according to the nature of the process, whether they are formal or informal. Formal costs of recruitment usually incur with at least some of the following costs: (a) application fees per visa; (b) visa fees; (c) work permit fees; (d) medical check-up fees; (e) overseas marketing and liaison office cost; (f) training cost; (g) air fare; (h) advanced income tax; (i) trade testing (for skilled workers) training and language; (j) wage earners' welfare fees; (k) collateral fees; (l) data registration fees; (m) recruiting agency service charge; (n) insurance; (o) emigration tax; and (p) value added tax.[19] Concerned personnel and knowledgeable informants ensured that there is not much space in curtailing these official costs; however, a number of FGD participants and some informants asserted that the Government can subsidize some cost items considering the low-income status of the migrants. However, it is unclear how far the cost reduction in this formal frontier can decrease the overall cost burden of the migrants. For example, recently, the MoEWOE has issued an office order announcing a maximum of 165,000 Bangladeshi taka (Tk) as recruitment cost for male workers, aspiring to migrate to Saudi Arabia. But in most of the cases, the migrants have to spend over Tk 500,000, and in some cases, the amounts go to Tk 700,000 to Tk 800,000.[20] These incidents are so prevalent that the MoEWOE has recently suspended the licenses of three recruiting agencies due to the complaints of overcharging the migrants.[21]

The problems lie in the massive hidden costs besides the official costs, which go beyond measures in the case of the informal migration process. The use of informal channels increase the costs of migration and is a cause for precarious migration.[22] Existing literature and knowledgeable informants, along with the FGD participants, have claimed explicitly that hidden/unofficial/undocumented costs, consumed by the intermediaries or ***dalals*** (middlemen), comprise of the lion's share of the total costs of migration. Breakdown of the actual cost of labour migration from Bangladesh includes intermediaries (59.5%), other helpers (17.6%), agency (10.3%), visa (9.3%), ticket fare (2.5%) and government fees (0.8%).[23] About 78 per cent of the total recruitment and migration costs are pocketed by the ***dalals***, who are illegal intermediaries or subagents in the countries of origin and destination.[24] The local middlemen buy job contracts from subagents of the destination countries. The high price of visa exerts escalating costs upon the shoulders of the migrants. The presence and activities of the middlemen, both in the host and destination (beneficiary) countries, are nontransparent, thus, creating and making use of asymmetric information to distort the market.[25] Migrant workers rarely have a chance to make payments in a formal manner. Payments are made informally by workers, as well as by recruiting agents, to dalal sand vice versa.[26] The migrant workers who often have limited access to formal credit are highly dependent upon costly, informal sources of credit, which increases the cost of migration.

The low-skill and literacy levels, along with the lack of awareness, add to the costs of migration.[27] The educated and professional categories of workers are not affected by the high costs of migration. They enjoy

18 IOM, 2002.

19 Barkat, Hossain and Hoque, 2014.

20 Returning male and female migrants who were FGD participants, and key informants of civil society organizations.

21 Daily Jugantor, 2016.

22 FGDs with returning migrants and most of the KIIs.

23 Barkat, Hossain and Hoque, 2014.

24 Ibid.

25 Shadat and Rahman, 2016.

26 Ibid.

27 Most of the FGD participants and key informants unanimously mentioned about these factors in different forms.

high demand from destination countries and also have access to the formal channels of migration.[28] It is the low-skilled migrant workers who face critical challenges. Majority of the overseas migrant workers are semi-skilled, less-skilled and unskilled. They do not have the access to the formal selection procedure, and end up using informal channels for migration. The ***dalals*** take advantage of poverty and low levels of skills and literacy. Often, the low literate workers cannot review their contract and often do not even have the copy in hand before leaving the country.[29] Due to inadequate information about the migration process and services, they often resort to middlemen who take excessive amounts of money from them.[30] These demand-side deficiencies were highlighted by the key informants, who directly or indirectly are linked with the supply-side actors.

All the demand- and supply-side factors set the equilibrium cost (price) of migration or recruitment at an exorbitant level, which can be lowered if both the demand-side and supply-side actors have the level-playing field (such as access to symmetric information and equal bargaining capability). These evidences imply that the market does not function competitively due to some significant challenges, hence, calling for targeted public interventions.

The key informants also added that the costs relating to recruitment are often high not only because of the complexities involved in migration, but also because of inefficient mechanisms to establish conditions that protect the rights of the migrants.

2.3. Remittance Costs

The cost of remittance transfer is one of the major challenges in the migration sector. It must be noted that the cost of sending remittances to Bangladesh has decreased remarkably over the past years. For Bangladeshi migrants, the average cost of sending USD 200 to the country in one transaction was 3.6 per cent, while the global average remained as high as 7.7 per cent.[31] Bangladesh belongs to one of the three least expensive corridors globally, that is, the Singapore–Bangladesh corridor (2.2%).[32] Yet the need to reduce remittance transfer costs is essential for lessening the burden on the poor and marginalized households.

Though the Sustainable Development Goal 10.c recommends two targets[33] – (a) reducing the transaction costs of migrant remittances to below 3 per cent; and (b) eliminating the remittance corridors with costs higher than 5 per cent by 2030 – the following challenges remain:[34]

(a) Money transfer operating (MTO) business is under considerable pressure due to worldwide anti-money laundering or counter-terrorist financing. The MTOs need to undertake extensive compliance measures.[35]

(b) Lack of market competition in the remittance market adds to transfer costs.

(c) Remittance sending through formal channels of a number of new host countries are complicated and lengthy processes.

(d) Although in some countries (like Indonesia, China and Papua New Guinea), the post office is the cheapest way to send remittances, the institutional capacity of the post offices are not strong enough to deal with remittance transfer to Bangladesh.

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28 KII with BAIRA representative specifically, and other KIIs generally.

29 Barkat, Hossain and Hoque, 2014.

30 Faroqi, 2015.

31 Rahman et al., 2015.

32 Ibid.

33 United Nations General Assembly, 2015.

34 Rahman et al., 2015.

35 Including implementation of "know your customer" and customer due diligence process.

2.4. Poverty Implications of Financial Costs

The financial costs have negative effects on the resources of the poor communities, and this means that if the costs can be reduced, it will contribute to poverty alleviation. In the FGDs, the participants claimed that the saved amount[36] in the form of increased household income may contribute to the welfare of the households and also improve their access to nutrition, education, health and employment. However, on the other hand, the loss of money for the high cost of migration leads to a loss in the investment that could have been made for human development. The participants mentioned that these were opportunity costs due to the high cost of migration. Sale of cultivable land and productive resources to cover the high cost of migration deprives the migrants from the benefits of owning assets.

High recruitment cost entices people to go for alternate migration processes that are often irregular channels. These channels often lead the migrants to become victims of trafficking, smuggling, exploitation, abuse, and even death.[37] These added risks of the irregular channels call for appropriate measures to reduce the costs of migration, especially the recruitment costs.

2.5. Way Forward

Major recommendations for reducing costs of migration and recruitment are summarized in the final chapter of the report. However, one crucial mechanism that may have positive impacts of curtailing financial costs of migration is interventions through Union Digital Centres (UDCs).[38]

The UDCs have already been utilized to facilitate migration under the government-to-government (G2G) agreement in a very limited capacity, namely registering the willingness of potential migrants. In 2013, more than 1.4 million people registered their interests to go to Malaysia, via online application through the UDC, of which, a total of 10,271 Bangladeshi workers were actually sent. With the introduction of UDC in the migration process, middlemen have not been required for the government services and for many traditional middleman-dependent services. Considering the G2G as a test case for the operationalization of the UDCs, the role of UDCs may be extended in the future, particularly under the broader scheme of the G2G. The UDCs can be used for providing services like online trainings on Middle Eastern languages, remittance transfer mechanisms and also for providing information, with particular emphasis on safe migration. These may include a list of government-approved recruiting agencies, database of private recruiting agencies, awareness about the risks of irregular migration channels, and so on.

Some of the existing researches also propose some global best practices for reducing remittance transfer costs as outlined in Table 2.1.

36 Through reduction of recruitment and remittance costs.

37 According to WARBE KII, more than 3,500 bodies of Bangladeshi migrant workers were sent back every year from different countries.

38 Shadat and Rahman, 2016.

Table 2.1: Global best practices with regards to use of innovative mechanisms for reducing costs of sending remittances

Mechanism	Key features
Online sender • From the United States to the Philippines	• Cash-in by using MTO websites • Cash-out options, such as cash pick-up, bank account or mWallet[39] • Transfer cost ranges from USD 0 to USD 4.99 depending on the channel and speed of delivery • Expanded the services to Mexico and India
Remitting to a cash substitute • From the United States to the Dominican Republic	• Card-based remittance service • General to directed purchase using retailer's gift card • No need of foreign currency exchange • No exchange of actual cash
End-to-end mobile deployments • From France to Mali and Madagascar	• Money transfer through MTN and Orange mobile service • Cost of sending is fixed at EUR 5
Remitting a direct payment • From multiple countries to Senegal	• Direct payment service to pay utility bills in the home country • Payment is facilitated directly by the MTOs/agents

Source: Rahman (2015)

2.6. Conclusion

Labour migration and recruitment costs are high due to a large extent of informal migration processes and inadequacies in the governance system. Not enough public actions are there to curb financial costs of migration to the warranted level, though there are some achievements in reducing the costs of remittance. The hypotheses of market-driven cost factors due to the existence of huge market failures are nullified by the evidences. Hence, rapid, comprehensive and targeted government interventions like the extensive use of UDCs and post offices are crucial.

39 mWallet is essentially an aggregator of payment instruments. It is a data repository that houses consumer data sufficient to facilitate a financial transaction from a mobile handset. It also includes the relevant intelligence to translate an instruction from a consumer through a mobile handset/bearer/application into a message that a financial institution can use to debit or credit bank accounts or payment instruments.

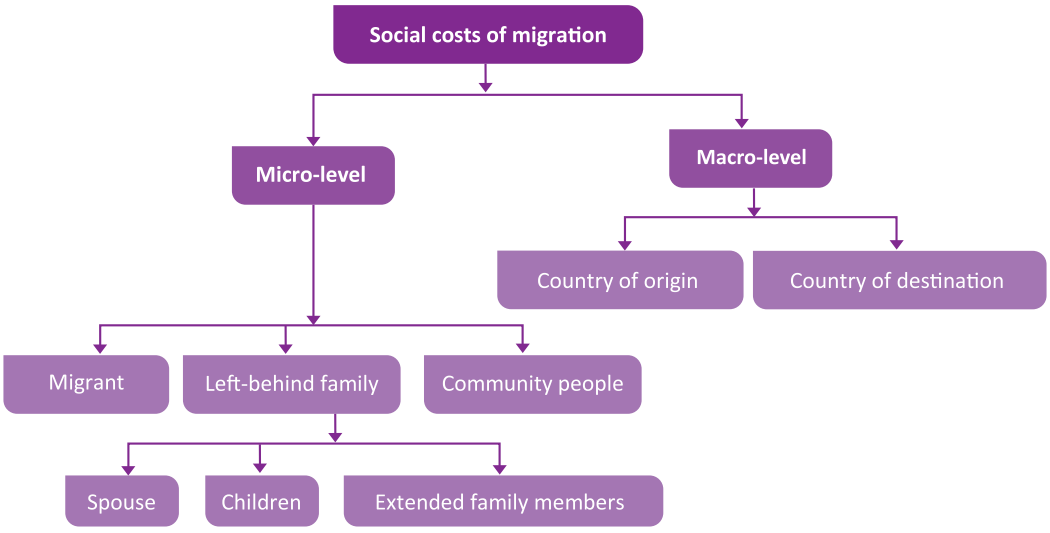
Chapter 3

Social Costs of Migration

3.1. Introduction

Social costs of migration are invisible and non-monetary. Social costs of migration seem to be less discussed in the literature compared to the economic or financial costs.[40] These are losses suffered by others as a consequence of a person's migration.[41] At the micro level, these costs often affect the migrants themselves, their family members (spouse, children, parents and other extended family members), neighbours and community people. At the micro level, social cost is loss of labour and entrepreneurship opportunities of the migrants in the country of origin, and negative externalities and social unrest among the people of the country of destination, especially those who experience wage cut and job loss due to migrant workers. The branches of the social cost tree (non-exhaustive) are displayed on Diagram 3.1.

Diagram 3.1: Social cost tree



Source: KIIs, FGDs and pertinent literature.

This chapter focuses on the micro-level social costs, more specifically costs experienced by the left-behind family members, that is, the spouses and children of the migrant workers. Macro-level social costs and other micro-level costs – those of migrants and community people – are not focused in this study due to the limited scope of the research, although they bear immense development and policy implications.

3.2. Social Costs on Left-Behind Family Members

The FGDs across the various groups identified "material and financial needs" of the family to be the foremost

40 "While economic value is often the point of discussion, minimal attention is given to the social costs of migration on families left behind, especially concerning children." (de Dios, 2013)

41 Dungo et al., 2013.

driver for the migration of individuals. In many cases, the families left behind, whether the spouses or children, face many challenges.[42]

Field-level inquiry – through KIIs and FGDs – into the social costs of migration experienced by left-behind family members (especially male spouse, female spouse, male child and female child) revealed some commonalities, as well as some uniqueness.

3.2.1. Social Costs Experienced by Left-Behind Spouses

The social costs of migration of left-behind spouses are often identified as loneliness and depression due to the distance from the partner. The FGDs and KIIs revealed that the social costs experienced by the female spouses are more profound than those experienced by the male spouses. Three leading social costs experienced by the spouses, as mentioned by the respondents and informants are as follows: (a) break-up of family ties; (b) ill engagements; and (c) overburden of responsibilities.

Social costs borne by female spouse

The left-behind female spouses have to bear the roles and responsibilities of their husbands beside their own traditional "gender" ones. FGDs with left-behind male and female spouses, as well as with returning migrants, revealed that in a number of instances, they become overburdened and fail to do both household chores/care work[43] and other income-generating work. Burden to run the house and make household decisions often leads to family disintegration. Family feud and disintegration were mentioned, independently or dually, by almost all the participants and informants.

Table 3.1: Leading social costs borne by female spouses

Participants/Informants	Social costs
FGD with left-behind female spouse Leading social costs	• Multiple burdens • Indiscipline in children • Family feud
FGD with left-behind male spouse	• Family disintegration • Multiple burdens • Indiscipline in children
FGD with returning male migrants	• Multiple burdens • Family disintegration • Family feud
FGD with returning female migrants	• Family disintegration • Multiple burdens • Indiscipline in children
Concerned key informants	• Multiple burdens • Family disintegration • Indiscipline in children

42 Dungo et al., 2013.

43 "Care work" is one of the tasks among all the tasks of human life that keeps other works continued. Such works are performed out of affection or a sense of responsibility; such as housework, child education, child care, health care of disabled and elderly persons and cooking food. People generally perform such works without any expectations of money, though some works involve monetary dealings, such as: nursing or taking care of ill persons (Barkat et al., 2016).

Multiple burdens: The left-behind female spouses need to take up dual roles, both of the mother and the father to children. In most of the cases, those very women have to do chores in the house, supervise the children's education and attend social engagements in the absence of their male spouses. Along with these, some FGD participants also mentioned the anxiety over the debts incurred to support the migration of their husbands.

Family disintegration: Some male migrants make irregular and often totally discontinue their financial support and communication with the family members, especially with their wives. In most of the cases, these take place step by step. Primarily, the husbands make some contact and contribution, which diminishes over time. These incidents ultimately result in family disintegration. In some cases, the husbands take on another family in the destination country, and in other cases, they simply "disappear". All these aggravate economic complexities, especially in cases where the female spouses do not have any other source of income.

Children out of control:[44] Enforcing discipline, particularly on teenage children, is one of the more difficult tasks. While fathers are away, children, particularly the boys, are less obedient of mothers, often rebelling against maternal authority.

Family feud: Some of the FGD participants mentioned that sometimes the male migrants send the remitted money to their mothers rather than their wives. Therefore, the wife has less control over the finances and the expenditures, and has to be content with whatever her in-laws choose to do. These situations lead to further tension and conflict between the left-behind female spouses and their mother-in-laws.

Social costs borne by male spouse

Social stigma imposed by the surrounding people seemed to be the topmost social cost borne by the left-behind male spouses. However, it was less focused by the FGD participants in the case of left-behind female spouses, although literature and other secondary information reveal that women (left-behind female spouses) are also stigmatized particularly for being engaged in extramarital relationships. Ill engagements (engaged in criminal, antisocial activities) were second-most social costs, while it was rarely mentioned in the case of female spouses. Both the FGD participants and key informants mentioned that the relationship of the father (left-behind male spouse) gets deteriorated with the children left behind in many cases, especially when the children are at their adolescent stage.

Table 3.2: Leading social costs borne by male spouses

Participants/Informants	Leading social costs borne by male spouse
FGD with left-behind male spouse	• Social stigma • Relationship deterioration • Ill engagements
FGD with left-behind female spouse	• Relationship deterioration • Ill engagements • Social stigma
FGD with returning male migrants	• Social stigma • Ill engagements • Relationship deterioration
FGD with returning female migrants	• Ill engagements • Social stigma • Relationship deterioration
Concerned key informants	• Ill engagements • Social stigma • Relationship deterioration

44 This is widely discussed in the next section of social costs borne by the left-behind children.

Social stigma: Leaving the traditional role of a housewife, working outside the home by a woman is still perceived negatively in some communities. Community people often think that women leaving the home country and working abroad are engaged in socially objectionable activities or are victims of physical abuse.[45] In the absence of the wives, this social stigma is borne by their left-behind husbands.

Ill engagements: In order to cope with emotional problems and loneliness stemming from spousal absence, a section of left-behind male spouses keep themselves busy with jobs, small businesses or any activity outside the home. The major costs appear when a number of them engage in disgraceful activities, such as smoking, drinking alcohol, gambling, drug addiction and engaging in extramarital affairs.

Relationship deterioration: When male spouses are left behind with children, the majority of the household chores often fall on the shoulder of the older children. This leads to lack of social cohesion, and further affects relationships between the members. Many a times, teenage children become distant with their family members and suffer from distress.

Financial constraints: Left-behind male spouses mentioned financial matters to be the "core" concern. Those with very young children (under 5 years of age) are particularly restrained from earning extra income, as they are not able to leave the house. The husbands, therefore, depend on their wives' remitted money, and often face taunts from the society.

3.2.2. Social Costs Experienced by Left-Behind Children

Children become seasonal orphans when their parents – either or both – migrate for overseas employment. Major social costs experienced by the children due to the parent(s) being away include the following (a) negative impact on education (rise in dropout rates, along with low attendance; fall in the quality of education attained); (b) declining physical conditions (decreasing food and nutrition intake, smoking and drug addiction) and mental health (such as psychosocial trauma and pornographic addiction).[46] The increased household incomes due to remittances are often misused, especially when children have access to it. Many children engage in activities that distract them from their studies, like surfing or social networking on the Internet, text messaging through cell phones, computer games and so on. Study on social impact of parental overseas migration in the context of Thailand[47] discloses that approximately one fourth of the children had tried smoking, nearly half of the children had tried drinking alcohol, and more than one third of the children had watched pornography from mobile phones, while books were the source of pornographic contents for another one fourth.

Children naturally always prefer that their parents stay home, indicating parental migration mostly take place against the children's will. The study conducted in Thailand reveals that approximately three-fourths of the children did not participate in the parents' decision to work abroad,[48] which is also true in the case of Bangladeshi children. Almost all the children, in the FGD sessions, asserted that their parents did not take the consent of their children for deciding to migrate. However, the impact on left-behind children varies whether father or mother or both parents leave for overseas work. FGDs with left-behind spouses and returning migrants reveal that "both parents away" are most detrimental to the children with high-impact social costs (Table 3.3).

45 Prostitution was mostly cited as the example of bad work, while rape was mentioned mostly as the example of physical exploitation.

46 Dungo et al., 2013.

47 Jampaklay, Rojnkureesatien and Rattanasaranyawong, 2013.

48 Ibid.

Table 3.3: Impact on left-behind children according to the migration status of the parents

Migration status	Role shifting	Impact level according to FGD participants			
		Left-behind male spouse	Left-behind female spouse	Returning male migrants	Returning female migrants
Father away	Mother in almost all cases	High	Moderate	Moderate	Low
Mother away (More disruptive than former one)	Father or maternal grandparents in most cases	Moderate	High	Moderate	High
Both parents away (most detrimental)	Grandparents, especially maternal grandparents, in most cases	High	High	Moderate	High

Social costs borne by left-behind female children

Early marriage is the predominant social cost borne by the left-behind female children, and this is often a result of dropping out of school and insecurity emanating from abuse during childhood.

Table 3.4: Leading social costs borne by left-behind female children, according to participants and informants

Participants/Informants	Leading social costs
FGD with left-behind male spouse	• Study discontinuation • Early marriage • Child abuse
FGD with left-behind female spouse	• Early marriage • Child abuse • Study discontinuation
FGD with left-behind male children	• Early marriage • Study discontinuation • Child abuse
FGD with left-behind female children	• Child abuse • Early marriage • Study discontinuation
Concerned key informants	• Early marriage • Study discontinuation • Child abuse

Early marriage: Lack of awareness regarding the demerits of early marriage, insecurity and lack of interest of developing the female child as "human resource", causes the family members to arrange early marriage of the left-behind girl children. The FGD participants reported that around 20 per cent of the left-behind female children get married before 18 years of age, though some concerned key informants claimed the rate is much higher than the stated one.

Study discontinuation: Numbers of female children dropouts before completion of primary education, and these incidents are prevalent when the father or both parents are away. Majority of the female children who discontinue their education becomes victims of early marriage.

Child abuse: Eve teasing is common, but majority of the female children face severe insecurity when the fathers are away. In some cases, female children are also reported to be abused by their family members/ close relatives.

Others: Lack of access to nutrition, hygiene practices (especially during menstruation) and medical care. Often, they are victims of discrimination, harassment, abuse and so forth.

Social Costs Borne by Left-Behind Male Children

Addiction to smoking and/or drug abuse was identified as the topmost social cost borne by the left-behind male children. Additionally, the male children also mentioned discontinuation of education and adultery as the other social costs (Table 3.5).

Table 3.5: Leading social costs borne by left-behind male children

Participants/Informants	Leading social costs
FGD with left-behind male spouse	• Addiction • Study discontinuation • Adultery
FGD with left-behind female spouse	• Addiction • Adultery • Study discontinuation
FGD with left-behind male children	• Addiction • Study discontinuation • Adultery
FGD with left-behind female children	• Study discontinuation • Addiction • Adultery
Concerned key informants	• Addiction • Study discontinuation • Adultery

Addiction: Majority of the left-behind male children reported that they were addicted to smoking, while addiction to various types of liquor and drugs (especially Phensedyl[49]) was also mentioned. In most of the cases, the children participating in the FGDs claimed they were not addicted, but they knew someone else who was. Although the parents mentioned the "lack of parental control" as the factor behind, children themselves pointed out depression as the main reason for addiction.

Study discontinuation: Dropout after primary education was found common among the male children especially when the mother or both parents were away. The left-behind spouses and returning migrant parents mentioned about the fall in the quality of education, which further led to dropouts.

49 A cough suppressant syrup containing codeine phosphate.

Adultery: The key informants stated that most male children left behind were accustomed to watching and reading adult content and also engaged in eve teasing, premature sexual relationships and other objectionable behaviour. This was particularly common among the male children whose fathers had migrated. Although during the discussions, the children themselves did not admit to such behaviour, they mentioned that they know individuals in the community.

3.3. Way Forward

The research showed that social costs due to overseas labour migration are prevalent. A holistic social mobilization is needed to address the issues. CBOs and youth community-based organization (YCBO) can be effective mechanisms to address the social cost issue.

CBO or YCBO-led crisis centre: Family members left behind, especially teenage children, can go to the centres to receive counselling and guidance. The centres can initiate programmes to help children with the aim to build their problem-solving and decision-making skills. The centres can also provide a platform where the children can participate in various activities to interact with others and enhance their social skills. This interaction can help them to tackle depression, and they may confide in others. This can also be suitable for the male spouses left behind where they can also exchange experiences and discuss solutions.

Remittance management programme: Remittance management information can enable households to utilize remittances more effectively. Information can be imparted through various leaflets, brochures, trainings and orientation sessions. In collaboration with non-governmental organizations (NGOs), the government can design programmes for remittance management with the aim to improve the welfare of the families for those with left-behind children.

3.4. Conclusion

There are a number of adverse social consequences that arise from migration and often affects the female spouses and children left behind more severely. While the financial costs have often been the focus of the migration discourse, lack of appropriate measures, particularly in terms of welfare and protection of workers and their families continue to negatively affect the communities.

Chapter 4

Recommendations

There are a number of recommendations – both at policy and programme level – to reduce the costs of migration.[50] Even though the Government of Bangladesh has implemented some, however, there are many initiatives that still need to be undertaken.

This study has reviewed most of the propositions, recommendations, suggestions put forward to the Government in the research work, academia and advocacy forums. Those were discussed in the KII and FGD sessions for validation, feasibility and priority-setting purposes. Finally, the study has come up with some time-bound, feasible and practicable recommendations along with the key and facilitating agencies upon whom the implementation-responsibility should be conferred.

4.1. Recommendations for Reduction of Financial Costs

Twelve recommendations are placed for reduction of financial costs of migration – eight for reduction of recruitment costs, and four for reduction of remittance transfer cost. Being the line Ministry, the MoEWOE should play the key role in these cost reduction programmes, with the facilitations of other State and non-State actors.

4.1.1. Recommendations for Reduction of Migration and Recruitment Costs

There is little space for formal cost reduction, while on the other hand, there is scope for reducing the costs created at the information, undocumented channels and migration stages. In case of recruitment costs, major recommendations include the following: (a) reducing recruitment and migration costs through intervention on the demand side (migrant workers' perspective); (b) curbing the role of subagents or intermediaries; (c) monitoring of recruiting agents; (d) providing finance for labour migration costs from formal financing institutions; (e) ensuring migrant workers' right to information; (f) providing proper documentation facilities; (g) promoting migrant workers' right to association; (h) conducting extensive empirical research; (i) expanding the technical capacities of MoEWOE and BMET; (j) promoting bilateral agreements between Bangladesh and destination countries; and (k) addressing gaps in inter-agency coordination mechanisms.[51]

Considering the aforementioned, the present study recommends short-, medium- and long-term interventions in both demand side and supply side of the overseas job market (Table 4.1).

50 Most of the literature cited in the references contain plethora of recommendations.

51 Barkat, Hossain and Hoque, 2014, among others.

Table 4.1: Recruitment cost reduction recommendations and proposed implementing agencies

Recommendations	Key agency	Facilitating agencies
Interventions on the demand side		
Short- and medium-term		
(a) Expand use of UDCs for formalizing migration process and reducing recruitment costs	Ministry of Local Government, Rural Development and Cooperatives (MoLGRD&C)	• MoEWOE • NGOs
(b) Increase public awareness on migration process	Ministry of Information	• MoEWOE • NGOs • Development partners
(c) Develop training programme on soft skills (such as language and etiquette)	BMET	• Ministry of Education • NGOs
Medium- and long-term		
(d) Develop new UDCs to increase reach	MoLGRD&C	• MoEWOE • NGOs
(e) Develop training programme on hard skills	BMET	• NGOs
(f) Expand mass literacy aiming for increased capability in accessing information and bargaining capacity	Ministry of Primary and Mass Education	• MoEWOE • NGOs
Interventions on the job supply side		
Short- and medium-term		
(g) Curb visa trading through regulating recruiting agents and monitor the recruitment process	MoEWOE	• MoFA
Medium- and long-term		
(h) Expand formal financing for labour migration for reducing cost of the recruitment process	MoEWOE	• Bangladesh Bank • Probashi Kalyan Bank

4.1.2. Recommendations for Reduction of Remittance Costs

Major recommendations, in case of remittance costs include the following:

(a) Awareness-raising activities;

(b) Fixing of exchange rates for remittance sent;

(c) Addressing the inadequacy of telegraphic transfer arrangements between public and private sector banks;

(d) Regulating outward bill collection charges on remittance;

(e) Financial education for remitters as well as the recipients;

(f) Client orientation among bank officials in destination countries;

(g) Decentralizing the Bangladesh Electronic Fund Transfer Network and payment system;

(h) Optimizing web- and mobile-based electronic money transfer service of the Bangladesh Post Office;

(i) Forming a special remittance cell;

(j) Facilitating in remittance sending by undocumented migrants; and

(k) Rationalizing geographic dispersion of the overseas exchange houses.[52]

Considering all these, the present study recommends following short-, medium- and long-term interventions (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Remittance transfer cost reduction recommendations and proposed implementing agencies

Recommendations	Key agency	Facilitating agencies
Short- and medium-term		
(a) Using post offices to avail the economical and safe remittance sending route	Ministry of Posts and Telecommunications	• MoEWOE
(b) Using UDCs for providing information to migrants	MoLGRD&C	• MoEWOE
(c) Transaction cost elimination through special rebate	Ministry of Finance	• MoEWOE • Bangladesh Bank
Medium- and long-term		
(d) Formation of special remittance cell to receive and address remittance-related grievances	MoFA	• MoEWOE

4.2. Recommendations for Reduction of Social Costs

There are hardly any "focused" interventions for reducing the social costs of migration; however, various policy and programmatic recommendations have emerged through different platforms. It is important to undertake strategies to mitigate the social costs of migration among the spouses and children who are left behind.

Considering this background, the following five recommendations are put forward by the present study for reduction of social costs (Table 4.3).

52 Barkat, Osman and Gupta, 2014.

Table 4.3: Social cost reduction recommendations and proposed implementing agencies

Recommendations	Key agency	Facilitating agencies
Short- and medium-term		
(a) Crisis centre in existing CBO or YCBO to help the left-behind family spouses and children in resolving their psychosocial sufferings	Ministry of Youth and Sports	• MoEWOE • NGOs
(b) Prevention of child marriage	Ministry of Women and Children Affairs	• MoEWOE • NGOs
(c) Prevention of drug addiction	Ministry of Health and Family Welfare	• MoEWOE • NGOs
Medium- and long-term		
(d) Formation of special YCBO-led Crisis Centre to reduce social costs of left-behind spouses and children	Ministry of Youth and Sports	• MoEWOE • NGOs
(e) Addressing dropout cases and maintaining quality of education	Ministry of Education	• MoEWOE • NGOs

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53 The key informants are not responsible for any of the conclusions drawn in this accompanying study; rather the authors of this study are solely responsible for all the analysis.

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WORK, WORKPLACE AND SKILLS MISMATCH IN MIGRATION



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WORK, WORKPLACE AND SKILLS MISMATCH IN MIGRATION

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List of Abbreviations

ADB	Asian Development Bank
BANBEIS	Bangladesh Bureau of Educational Information and Statistics
BBS	Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics
BGMEA	Bangladesh Garment Manufacturers and Exporters Association
BKMEA	Bangladesh Knitwear Manufacturers and Exporters Association
BITAC	Bangladesh Industrial Technical Assistance Centre
BMET	Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training
BNFE	Bureau of Non-Formal Education
BOESL	Bangladesh Overseas Employment and Services Limited
B-SEP	Bangladesh Skills for Employment and Productivity Project
BTEB	Bangladesh Technical Education Board
BTMA	Bangladesh Textile Mills Association
CBT	Competency-based training
CBT&A	Competency-based Training and Assessment
CoD	Country of destination
COEL	Centre of Excellence for Leather
DEMO	District Employment and Manpower Office
DTE	Directorate of Technical Education
DYD	Department of Youth Development
ECNSDC	Executive Committee of National Skills Development Council
GoB	Government of Bangladesh
HDRC	Human Development Research Centre
ICT	Information and communications technology
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMT	Institute of Marine Technology
IOM	International Organization for Migration
ISC	Industry Skills Council
KII	Key informant interview
LFS	Labour Force Survey
MoE	Ministry of Education

MoEWOE	Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment
MoF	Ministry of Finance
MoI	Ministry of Industries
MoLE	Ministry of Labour and Employment
MoLJPA	Ministry of Law, Justice and Parliamentary Affairs
MoPME	Ministry of Primary and Mass Education
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
NGO	Non-governmental organization
NHRDF	National Human Resource Development Fund
NSDA	National Skills Development Authority
NSDC	National Skills Development Council
NSDP	National Skills Development Policy
RMG	Ready-made garment
RPL	Recognition of Prior Learning
RTO	Registered Training Organization
SEP-B	Skills and Employment Programme Bangladesh
STEP	Skills and Training Enhancement Project
TTC	Technical Training Centre
TTTC	Technical Teachers' Training College
TVET	Technical and vocational education and training
USD	United States Dollars
VET	Vocational and Education Training
VTTI	Vocational Teachers' Training Institute

Executive Summary

Every year, around half a million workers migrate from Bangladesh to more than 150 countries of destination across the globe. The majority of the Bangladeshi migrant workers are less-skilled or re-categorized to reduce the level of their skills by overseas employers. Low- or semi-skilled workers often fill jobs that the destination country nationals are not willing to perform for the prevailing wage. Low-level skills often place them into hazardous work, and they end up with lower wages and are often subjected to exploitation and abuse. In this situation, to develop the skills of the migrant workers, both returning and aspiring migrant workers, and understanding the drivers of skills mismatch, will provide insights based on which actionable measures can be undertaken to address the skills gap.

Against this backdrop, under the global joint programme on Mainstreaming Migration into National Development Strategies, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) in Dhaka launched this study titled "Work, Workplace and Skills Mismatch in Migration". The study investigates into the reasons of skills mismatching of Bangladeshi migrants in the overseas job markets and identifies the causes behind the gap on skills supply and skills demand.

In Bangladesh, the majority of students mainly enrol in mainstream general education. On the other hand, technical and vocational education are given less attention by employers and also less recognized by the society. Skills are developed through private and public institutes and also some non-governmental organizations (NGOs). The technical and vocational education and training (TVET) by public institutions are operating under the Directorate of Technical Education (DTE). Private institutions are mainly imparting trade courses, and the Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training (BMET) provides training through the technical training centres (TTCs) primarily for overseas employment. Almost all NGOs, with a few exceptions, provide non-formal training courses to support their income-generating programmes. Along with these, 23 ministries/divisions are providing skills trainings through their attached departments/directorates to develop skills – both for those who are already employed and for those who are new entrants in the labour market. However, since the initiatives are not well-coordinated, quality of training and recognition of skills are not getting adequate attention in the local and overseas job markets. Most of the training courses conducted are following the traditional system. The courses are not based on competency, rather on theoretical knowledge. Shortage of teachers, instructors, assessors and equipment are major challenges of the institutions. In addition, lack of funds and human resources add to the existing challenges.

Workers who are migrating from Bangladesh and joining overseas employment are in most cases, born and brought up in Bangladesh – the source country – where the mode of work at most of the workplaces is mainly manual. A majority of the workers are not familiar with workplace safety tools and other measures, and in many instances, do not get introduced to the tools at the training institutions. In addition, soft skills, particularly understanding the language is a big barrier in communication, presentation and ability to understand instructions properly. However, soft skills have been recently introduced as a unit of competency in some training curriculums approved by the Bangladesh Technical Education Board (BTEB), and are being conducted through the registered training organizations. However, many training institutions are not registered with the BTEB and do not follow the competency-based curriculum. As a result, most of the workers trained through traditional training systems remain as less-skilled and cannot compete in the global markets. Moreover, work and workplaces have been changing over time as management theory, materials, equipment and technologies have been evolving, which is further widening the gaps between the skills demand and skills supply. Considering the evolving nature and challenging areas of work and workplace, this report explores the arena of skills mismatch.

To enhance the skill level of the population and give recognition – the National Skills Development Council (NSDC) was established in 2008. NSDC approved the National Skills Development Policy (NSDP) in 2012. The National Technical and Vocational Qualifications Framework (NTVQF), Industry Skills Council, Competency

Based Training and Assessment (CBT&A) and Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) have been introduced in the NSDP. To implement the NSDP, the NSDC prepared a time-bound Action Plan (Phase 1) 2012–2016, involving both public and private actors, such as ministries, departments, trade unions, employers' federation, business and commerce federations, public and private training institutions, and civil society organizations.

The National Skills Development Policy 2011, National Education Policy 2010, Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment Policy 2016, Non-formal Education Act 2014, Industry Policy 2010 and Seventh Five-Year Plan 2016–2020 have given emphasis on demand-driven competency-based trainings and effective implementation of the NSDP.

Moreover, some good initiatives and programmes are being implemented. The Centre of Excellence for Leather Skill Bangladesh Limited that started in 2012 is an example where registered apprentices are being trained with workplace-based training. Bangladesh Skills for Employment and Productivity implemented by the DTE focuses on institutional development for CBT&A on five sectors: (a) agro-food processing; (b) tourism; (c) pharmaceutical; (d) ceramics; and (e) furniture manufacturing. Skills and Employment Programme Bangladesh (SEP-B) is extending its supports to the private sector to deliver skills training of the ready-made garment (RMG) and construction sector. Skills and Training Enhancement Project, a World Bank-supported programme, is working for strengthening selected public and private skill training institutes to improve the training quality and employability of the trainees, including the disadvantaged groups. Skills for Employment Investment Program, under the Finance Division of the Ministry of Finance (MoF), is being implemented to catalyse the private sector in an effective manner for providing market-responsive skills development and creating partnerships with public training institutions for catering to the needs of the emerging labour markets. BMET, through 70 TTCs and 6 Institutes of Marine Technology, offers several courses to address the skill needs of the migrants.

The absence of an effective relationship between the industry and the training provider is creating a gap in curriculum and technology used in the TVET system. Moreover, competency-based training and assessments are not followed by the majority of TVET providers. This further broadens the gap between skills demand and skills supply.

Through the execution of a time-bound action plan, the NSDC is implementing a massive TVET reform programme in cooperation with all the concerned authorities and institutions. However, an acceleration of the process is needed that will increase the skilled workforce and reduce the skills mismatch, which would lead to higher wages and ensure the rights of the workers.

There are several concrete recommendations that can improve work and workplace conditions for workers and reduce the skills mismatch. To enhance competency-based skills development and certification under the NTVQF, a central authority for TVET needs to be established by an act (providing power, structure and for other purposes). Furthermore, the Government needs to maintain a complete database with the information of the trainees. There also needs to be capacity-building to ensure that an efficient pool of trainers and assessors are available.

Chapter 1

Introduction, Study Objectives and Methodology

1.1. Background

Every year, a huge number of workers migrate from Bangladesh to more than 157 countries worldwide. According to the Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training (BMET), as of February 2016, around 9.9 million workers migrated from Bangladesh. Barkat and Ahmed (2014:3) explain that "Temporary migrant workers are classified into four categories: (1) professional; (2) skilled; (3) semi-skilled; and (4) less-skilled. Among the migrant workers from Bangladesh, 2.21 per cent are professional; 31.53 per cent are skilled; 13.98 per cent are semi-skilled; and 52.29 per cent are less-skilled."

The above statement becomes clearer when we analyse the trend of migrant workers from 2005 to 2012. During the period, around 0.5 million workers from Bangladesh migrated to Saudi Arabia. Every year, the highest number of migrant workers migrates to Saudi Arabia. More importantly, the majority of those migrants are less skilled. On the other hand, Singapore is a country that has a trend to recruit skilled workers. However, this case is slightly different in the case of migrant workers from Bangladesh. For the period 2005–2012, around 0.3 million Bangladeshis migrated to Singapore. However, most of the people migrating from Bangladesh to Singapore fall in the less-skilled category.

Less-skilled workers suffer because they are often placed in dirty, dangerous and demeaning jobs, and are often subjected to trafficking; they are also economically exploited by some recruiting agencies and informal intermediaries known as ***dalals***. One of the main reasons behind the sufferings and not getting the expected benefits in the countries of destinations (CoDs) is the deficiency of skills.

In Bangladesh, every year, young people are added to the country's workforce – an additional 2 million in number – looking for job opportunities within and beyond the country. However, due to lack of skills and minimal recognition of certification, a significant number of migrant workers, particularly women, are suffering in respect of remuneration and realization of human rights. In this regard, Ahmed (2016) mentioned that "Many employers do not seem to value skills acquired in existing [technical and vocational education] TVE and emphasizes on transferable and soft skills, which [technical and vocational education and training] TVET or basic education system do not offer effectively".

A recent study (IOM, 2015:24) explored that majority of the students mainly enrol in mainstream schools and ***madrassa*** education. On the contrary, an insignificant section of the population enrols in vocational schools. In other words, the supply of human resources possessing vocational skills as per domestic and international market demand is very poor. According to the Bangladesh Bureau of Educational Information and Statistics (BANBEIS), in 2014, all types of general, professional, technical and vocational education covered the enrolment of 3.77 million students. Among them, only 689,663 (1.83% of the total students) were enroled in the technical and vocational education (TVE) system.[1]

1 Source: BANBEIS database.

Box 1 : Four categories of workers

Professional: Having a specialized range of cognitive and practical skills to provide leadership in the development of creative solutions to the defined problems. Able to manage a team or teams in workplace activities where there is an unpredictable change. Identify and design learning programmes to develop the performances of the team members. Professionals are doctors, engineers, architects, university and college teachers, accountants, computer programmers, pharmacists, nurses, foremen, diploma engineers, paramedics and sales personnel.

Skilled worker: Having broad knowledge of the underlying concepts, principles and processes for work and a range of cognitive and practical skills to accomplish tasks and solve problems by selecting and applying the full range of methods, tools, materials and information. Can take responsibility, within reason, for completion of tasks and able to apply past experiences in solving similar problems. Skilled workers are mechanics, welders, masons, carpenters, electricians, painters, cooks, drivers, plumbers, tailors, blacksmiths, tile fixers and operators.

Semi-skilled worker: Work under supervision with some autonomy. Have moderately broad knowledge in a specific work. Possess basic cognitive and practical skills to use relevant information to carry out tasks and solve routine problems using simple rules and tools. Semi-skilled workers include farmers, gardeners and different types of helpers in various trades.

Less-skilled worker: Those who have limited knowledge in a specific work for which they are assigned and have a basic or limited range of skills and use of tools to carry out simple tasks under direct supervision in a structured context. Less-skilled workers are cleaners, servants, labourers, and general workers.

(TVET Reform Project, 2009: 5 and Islam, n.d.: 16)

Certification from the present technical education system in Bangladesh is not recognized in the overseas job market. However, Competency Based Training and Assessment (CBT&A) and a new qualification framework – National Technical and Vocational Qualifications Framework (NTVQF) – were introduced to raise the standard of certifications. But the majority of training institutions, public and private, are not yet registered with the Bangladesh Technical Education Board (BTEB). Most of the institutions are not capable of introducing competency-based trainings (CBT) due to lack of capable trainers, equipment and so on.

Public, private institutions and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), either affiliated or unaffiliated with the BTEB – are providing technical and vocational training and certifications, which are less recognized in overseas markets.

The issue of skills mismatch is also reflected in the Seventh Five-Year Plan (Fiscal year (FY) 2016–FY 2020) as follows:

> Most employers find the training received by workers to be inadequate, and in some cases, irrelevant to their needs. A little less than a half of those who graduate from the training system are unable to find jobs. These are major drawbacks of the Vocational Education and Training (VET) system recognized by the National Skills Development Policy (NSDP) 2011. Considerable lack of infrastructures/lab/necessary equipment in most of the non-government technical institutions along with the lack of infrastructure and manpower of Bangladesh Technical Education Board are additional challenges.[2]

2 Available from www.plancomm.gov.bd/wp-content/uploads/2015/11/7FYP_after-NEC_11_11_2015.pdf, p. 547

To enhance the skills level of the population and recognition of certification, some initiatives have been taken by the National Skills Development Council (NSDC). The NSDC was established in 2008 with the aim to empower all individuals to access decent employment and ensure Bangladesh's competitiveness in the global markets through improved skills, knowledge and qualifications that are recognized for quality across the globe. In 2012, NSDC approved the National Skills Development Policy (NSDP) 2011. The NSDC has been engaged in implementing an Action Plan, Phase 1 (2012–2016) for skills development in collaboration with relevant actors. The TVET Reform Project,[3] an initiative of the Government of Bangladesh supported by the International Labour Organization (ILO), has worked on national qualifications framework for TVET.

1.2. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study are to analyse relevant documents to identify the drivers behind mismatch of skills acquisition and skills demand.

In view of the objectives, the study attempts to assess the practices of public and private TVET providers, explore the reasons of skills mismatch in the overseas job markets and analyse relevant policies to identify gaps in skills acquisition and skills demand.

In order to unravel the mismatch between skills demand and skills supply in the overseas job markets, the research issues identified are as follows:

(a) Explore the reasons of skills mismatch and identifying the drivers behind mismatch between skills acquisition and skills demand;

(b) Analysis of relevant policies to identify the policy gaps in skills acquisition and skills demand; and

(c) Review the NSDC's Action Plan (Phase 1) to find the development, particularly in the areas of recognition and accreditation of the certification of skills in overseas job markets.

1.3. Methodology

The research was based on secondary information that focuses on existing literature, combined with key informant interviews (KIIs) with relevant policymakers and practitioners.

The research used the qualitative methodology in combination with desk study on existing literature, acts, rules, policies and documents. As the study did not have the scope for primary data collection, it mostly used secondary data and information for analysis. Policy, rules and acts related to migration were reviewed, particularly Bangladesh Labour Act 2006, Overseas Employment and Migrant Workers Act 2013, Overseas Employment Policy (Draft) 2013, Recruiting Agent's Conduct and License Rule 2002, Skill Development Policy 2011, Draft National Youth Policy 2015, Overseas Employment Policy 2016 and Non-formal Primary Education Act 2014. In addition, reviews of Internet resources, weblogs, newspapers and relevant publications were done.

A number of KIIs with representatives from the Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment (MoEWOE), Bangladesh Association of International Recruiting Agencies (BAIRA), Bangladesh Overseas Employment and Services Limited (BOESL), private and public registered training organizations (RTOs), BTEB, BMET, trade unions and international organizations were conducted.

Data from BANBEIS, BMET, Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS) and other relevant sources and information on skills supply was collected from the institutions, agencies and others stakeholders through interviewing and visiting institutions.

3 TVET Reform project completed its term on 31 December 2015.

1.4. Scope and Definitions

This study focuses on the system of the existing TVET and the reasons behind the skills mismatch in the overseas job markets. For this purpose, secondary sources have been explored to define the TVET imparting and assessment system. To ensure the recognition of the certification, CBT&A was introduced and implemented by the BTEB. A series of programmes have been undertaken under the auspices of the NSDC with the participation from all relevant ministries, departments, boards, TVET providers, civil society organizations, development partners, trade unions and employers. In addition, the barriers to the skills development have been examined.

According to the US Department of Education, technical schools teach the theory and science behind the occupation, while vocational schools use a more hands-on approach to teaching the skills needed to do the job successfully.[4] Vocational courses and programmes award certificates of completion. These types of programmes focus on teaching a specific trade with a hands-on approach, like construction, agriculture or health, as well as teaching general employment skills such as typing.[5]

Skills mismatch could be as follows: (a) vertical, when the level of skills is less than the level of skills required to perform a job; (b) horizontal, when the types of skills are not appropriate for the current job, but the level of skills match the requirements of the job; and (c) geographical, where the workers with types and levels of skills required are based in a country or region different from where such skills are needed.

Soft skills are employment related, which adds to the hard skills and make progress in the workplace. The ability of oral communications, literacy and numeracy skills, personal presentation, commitment, common sense, honesty and integrity, enthusiasm, sense of humor, the ability to deal with pressure and balanced attitude are the soft skills that play a vital role in the workplace and reduce skills mismatch.

1.5. Study Limitations

Work, workplace and skills mismatch require data analysis on the TVET attainment and occupation-wise overseas employment. A number of skilled workforce, its quality and recognition, as well as insight into the demand sectors – that is, requirements of the jobs available and to be created – in other words, the future market data regarding both supply and demand is scarce. This report was based on limited secondary materials. Inadequate data and documents on cross-country comparison of the accreditation status of the TVET outcome are also a limitation of this study.

4 Seattle Post-Intelligencer, "What is the difference between vocational & technical courses?" (n.d.). Available from http://education.seattlepi.com/difference-between-vocational-technical-courses-3063.html

5 Ibid.

Chapter 2

Skills in Bangladesh: Present Status

2.1. Skills

Skill is the ability of an individual to perform the specific productive task with competence. According to Barkat and Ahmed (2014:1), ***skill*** refers to the acquisition of a measurable capacity and talent that enables an individual to perform a particular job or task successfully.[6] It is the practical ability to apply theoretical knowledge in particular situations. Skill is not only related to work, but also linked with cognitive capacity and innovation of an individual. In a broad sense, skill (hard, soft and generic) is a set of capacity to analyse, manage (project, process and human), operate (equipment), communicate (written, oral and interpersonal) and also to have entrepreneurial attitude, teamwork and positive attitude to work, which makes a person able to act systematically and deliberately with competence and responsibility.

Depending on the horizon of knowledge, capacity of using tools, materials and information, ability to apply past experiences and solve similar problems, skilled individuals are categorized as less-skilled, semi-skilled, skilled and professional, which are similar to four levels of skills mentioned in ISCO-08 (ILO, 2012).

Socioeconomic development mostly depends on knowledge, innovation and skills of human resources of a country. A highly skilled person is competent to contribute to the economy, able to serve the global economy, can cope with crisis, and in any situation, able to meet the challenges.

2.2. Skill Status

Bangladesh is the eighth most populous country in the world. Of the total population, 60.63 per cent (87 million people) lie in the age bracket of 15 to 49 years. Availability of such a huge workforce is surely a demographic dividend for the country (Barkat and Ahmed, 2014:xi).

Migration, primarily in the quest for livelihood, is an age-old practice. After the independence, labour migration became popular in Bangladesh. In 1976, the BMET was established, especially to meet the workforce requirement in the CoDs. According to BMET, as of February 2016, 9,842,709 workers migrated to CoDs from Bangladesh. Reportedly, about half of them are less-skilled and low-paid workers.

However, many forms of migration and human mobility, including internal displacement, documented and irregular takes place in Bangladesh. A significant number of migrant workers, particularly women migrant workers, are suffering in respect of remuneration and realization of human rights due to low levels of skills. In this regard, Ahmed (2016) mentioned that, "Many employers do not seem to value skills acquired in existing Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) and emphasizes transferable and soft skills, which TVET or general basic education does not offer effectively."

2.2.1. TVET System

The education system of Bangladesh is managed and administered by two ministries in association with the attached departments and directorates, as well as some independent bodies. Two streams of education are Primary Education (Grade I–V), Secondary and Higher Education (Grade VI and above). The Ministry of Primary and Mass Education (MoPME) manages the primary education sector, while another stream – that is, secondary to higher education – is managed by the Ministry of Education (MoE). The post-primary stream

6 BusinessDictionary.com, Definition of ability, (n.d.). Available from www.businessdictionary.com/definition/ability.html

of education, in terms of curriculum, is further classified into four types: (a) general education; (b) ***madrassa*** education; (c) technical-vocational education; and (d) professional education.[7]

In Bangladesh, the TVET system comprises formal, semi-formal and informal.

(a) Formal sector

- Public – delivered by 23 ministries and departments;
- Private (commercial training institutions and ***Quami Madrassas***) – almost all of them are imparting existing knowledge-based and less recognized by TVET (among them, some receive government grants) and a few are providing CBT; and
- Industry-based – managed by industry; some are delivered in the workplace, including apprenticeships.

Generally, formal institutions regulate and administer the trainings. The public and most of the private bodies are registered and affiliated with the BTEB. They are also following the national curriculum, and after successful completion of the programme, the students receive certificates. The Directorate of Technical Education (DTE), under the MoE, is guiding and supervising the public institutions. Interacting with industry- and national-level institutions, coordinating with other departments of the Government are additional functions of the DTE. DTE is responsible for setting the overall policy framework of the entire vocational education and training system.

In a formal system, usually basic certificate and diploma are the levels. Moreover, 360-hour courses (duration: three to six months) and certificate courses of three to nine months skill training are basic trainings. It is also called basic trade courses, mainly providing practical skills. In order to have an entry into this training, completion of grade VIII in general education is compulsory. Persons endowed with one-year trade-specific work experience are also allowed to get an entry. Public and private technical schools and colleges, technical training centres (TTCs), some NGOs and private institutes are basic training providers. All those providers are covering more than 60 courses to meet the national and overseas demand for the workforce.

Certificate training is a secondary-level programme. After completion of grade 8, one can start a two-year programme and by successfully completing the course, can acquire an Secondary School Certificate (SSC) (Voc) certificate. Next is Higher Secondary School Certificate (HSC) (Voc), another two-year higher secondary-level programme. After obtaining this certificate, one can go for higher studies and seek work by using National Skills Standard (NSS) 1 certificate equivalent to HSC (Voc).

The public and private polytechnic institutes are offering four-year diploma courses. A student who successfully completes SSC general, SSC (Voc), ***Dakil*** (general) and ***Dakil*** (Voc) can get entry to complete the diploma course and go for further higher education in engineering.

(b) Semi-formal sector

NGOs are providing non-accredited basic skills training to their target group members mostly to support them to be involved in self-employed income-generating activities with the help of microcredit. However, a few organizations of this type are providing short-term CBTs.

A good number of NGOs in Bangladesh are conducting skills training particularly on agriculture, livestock, apiculture, fishery, ready-made garments, construction, light engineering and so on. They provide human development and occupational skills training to both staff and participants, as a continuous process to meet their programme needs – poverty alleviation of their development partners, that is, the targeted group members. These trainings are competencies based, more hands-on approach and designing and

7 BDResults24.com, MPO Teacher List Updated – www.dshe.gov.bd. (n.d.). Available from http://bdresults24.com/mpo-teacher-list-updated-wwwdshegovbd/

implementing in response to the needs of the poor people who may be literate or illiterate, but want to start a venture for employment. Most of the time, this training is very useful because of the system of providing credit and technical support after the training, refreshers training according to needs and follow-up and monitoring to ensure the due diligence. These training centres are not registered with BTEB and follow a semi-formal TVET system.

(c) Informal sector

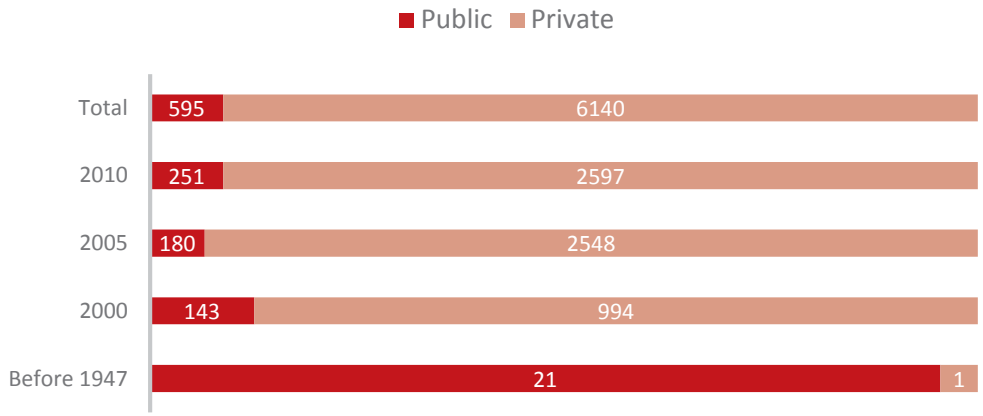
In agriculture, factory, construction, transportation and workshops, children – particularly from the poor families – who are not enrolled in school or are school dropouts, join the workforce before reaching the age of 15. From a legal viewpoint, these workforces are treated as child labour in Bangladesh. They are employed as less-skilled workers, and a mentionable number of them built their competencies and skills from their work experience.

BTEB, a statutory agency, is responsible for maintaining the qualifications framework for TVET: (a) setting training standards (and relevance to the labour market); (b) student assessment; (c) certification of results; and (d) accreditation of institutions. BTEB covers all accredited institutions, both government and non-government institutions.[8]

2.2.2. Providers and Programme

In Bangladesh, a good number of skill providers are acting in the field of skills development. On the supply side, there are formal, semi-formal and informal providers. Formal providers are classified into two types: public and private.

Figure 1: Growth of technical institutions by period of establishment



Source: BANBEIS.

There is a favourable growth of technical and vocational institutions in Bangladesh – from 22 in 1947 to 5,790 in 2015. Along with this, 23 ministries and directorates and a respectable number of NGOs have training programmes to develop skills for their employees, new entrants and organized group members of their activities. However, the expansion of institutions and increased numbers of enrolment do not give any satisfactory impression while considering the employability with the skills acquired.

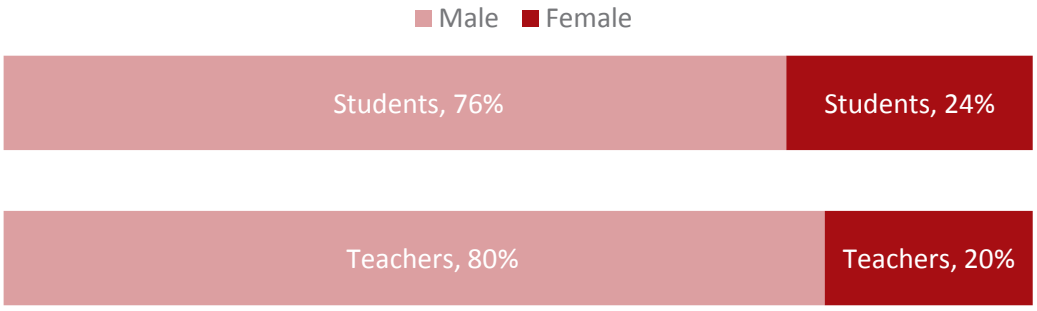
2.2.3. Skills Supply

Data indicates that 872,658 students have enrolled in technical and vocational education in 2015 (BANBEIS,

8 The World Bank, Bangladesh Vocational Education and Training System: An Assessment (Human Development Unit, South Asia Region, 2006). Available from http://siteresources.worldbank.org/BANGLADESHEXTN/Resources/publications/384630-1209074736457/Bangladesh_Nov2006.pdf

2016). Among them, only 208,874 (24%) are girls.[9] A recent study (IOM, 2015) explained that majority of the students mainly enrol in mainstream schools and *Madrassa* education. A very insignificant portion of the population enrols in vocational schools.

Figure 2: Percentage distribution of teachers and students by gender, 2015



Source: BANBEIS Educational Database.

A recent publication of the MoF (Government of Bangladesh, 2016) mentioned that through revenue and development budget of the Government of Bangladesh, 23 ministries and directorates have been conducting many courses to develop a skilled workforce. Those skills development training courses and programmes are as follows:

- **Ministry of Health and Family Welfare:** With the support of this Ministry, the Service Department is providing nursing diploma and obstetrics training through 43 government nursing institutes and aim to train 2,000 nurses every year. The Director General of Health Services is imparting the Health Technology Diploma in order to work as a laboratory worker in the following: (a) laboratory; (b) radiology; (c) physiotherapy; (d) health inspector; (e) dentist; (f) pharmacy; and (g) radiotherapy. Moreover, 8 government Medical Assistant Training Schools are producing 716 health assistants per year. Besides, government institutions are providing the following certification courses: (a) Optometrist; (b) Ophthalmic Nursing Assistant; and (c) Kath Lab Technician. Every year, a desirable number of health specialists and health associates are receiving in-service training (ibid., 16).
- **Ministry of Textile and Jute:** The Ministry is serving through the textile engineering, textile vocational institutes and textile institutes. They provide four-year graduation and diploma and two-year SSC (Voc). In 2015, 188 individuals completed their graduation in Textile Engineering, 363 diploma and 2,616 completed SSC (Voc) course in Textile. The Ministry trained 290 weavers to increase their occupational capacity and provided information and communications technology (ICT) training to 1,000 employees (ibid., 17).
- **Planning Division:** Run by the Planning Division, the National Planning and Development Academy, train 8,000 government and non-government employees each year to increase their capacities in the field of research, ICT, monitoring and evaluation (ibid., 17).
- **MoPME and MoE:** Under the MoPME, the National Academy of Primary Education is providing training to the employees of the Primary Education Department and also providing ICT training gradually and in a regular manner. Under the MoE, the DTE has 64 technical schools and colleges and 49 polytechnic institutes. Furthermore, one Technical Teachers' Training College (TTTC) and one vocational teachers' training institute (VTTI) provide training. In 2015–2016, a recent report highlights that 74,755 students enroled in 49 polytechnic institutes and 64 technical schools and colleges (ibid., 16–18).

9 BANBEIS Educational Database http://data.banbeis.gov.bd/. Available from http://data.banbeis.gov.bd/images/chap01.pdf

- **Department of Information and Communication Technology:** Imparting ICT training through the Bangladesh-Korea Institute of Information and Communication Technology (ibid., 18).
- **Ministry of Social Welfare:** All over the country, through the support of the Department of this Ministry, training is provided on basic computer, food processing, woodworks, sewing machine operations and welding. Particularly, market demand-based training is imparted to marginal women and physically disabled persons who are also placed in the training programmes. They are following their own curriculum and giving certificates after successful completion of the training (ibid., 19).
- **Ministry of Women and Children Affairs:** Under the Ministry, the Department of Women Affairs and *Jatiya Mohila Songstha* (National Women Organization) provide training to the women. Department of Women is providing residential and non-residential training. Through 64 training centres, Jatiya Mohila Songstha imparts training on food processing, mobile mechanics, beautification, housekeeping and management course for women entrepreneurs (ibid., 20).
- **Ministry of Information:** The National Institute of Mass Communication has been imparting nine courses relevant to radio, TV and cinema (ibid., 20).
- **Ministry of Youth and Sports:** Under the Ministry's Department of Youth Development (DYD), 110 youth training centres provide training on 11 courses. These training centres train around 300,000 persons each year (ibid., 21).
- **Local Government Division:** It has 14 district-based training centres that impart some training on construction by following specially customized manual (ibid., 22).
- **Ministry of Local Government, Rural Development and Cooperatives:** The Rural Development and Cooperatives Division of the Ministry of Local Government is assisting four institutions to impart training on fishery, agriculture, livestock and dairy (ibid., 22).
- **Ministry of Industries (MoI):** The Ministry is giving support to fill up the existing skill gaps through the Bangladesh Industrial and Technical Assistance Centre (BITAC), Bangladesh Institute of Management, Skills Development Centres, National Productivity Organization and Small and Cottage Industries Training Institute. BITAC is imparting training through its training centres in five districts. Bangladesh Small and Cottage Industries Corporation is imparting training on light engineering, ready-made garments, agro-food and information technology through its 15 training centres in different districts. National Productivity Organization is providing training in order to increase the productivity of whom it has trained 3,000 in the year 2014 and 2015 (ibid., 22–23).
- **Energy and Mineral Resources Division:** The Ministry of Power, Energy and Mineral Resources regularly trains its staff who are employed in the energy sector at the Bangladesh Petroleum Institute (ibid., 23).
- **Ministry of Agriculture:** Under the Ministry, the Agricultural Extension Department is providing training and diploma courses, through its 16 agriculture training institutes and those diploma courses are accredited by the BTEB (ibid., 23).
- **Ministry of Fisheries and Livestock:** Has two veterinary training institutes and one livestock training institute. They are imparting two-year long courses on animal health and production. It has nine institutes that arrange training on fisheries, and one of its fisheries diploma institute provides a four-year diploma course (ibid., 24).
- **Ministry of Environment and Forests:** Ministry of Environment and Forests is imparting training at diploma levels through its three institutions affiliated with BTEB (ibid., 24).

- **Ministry of Road Transport and Bridges:** The Road Transport and Highways Division under the Ministry of Road Transport and Bridges have 17 training institutions under the auspices of the Bangladesh Road Transport Corporation. These institutions are providing courses on driving, auto mechanics and welding (ibid., 24).
- **Ministry of Railway:** The Ministry of Railway has four workshops and railway training institutes through which it provides training to its 3,000 staff every year (ibid., 24).
- **Ministry of Civil Aviation and Tourism:** The Ministry of Civil Aviation and Tourism provides training through the National Hotel and Tourism Training Institute on hotel and tourism (ibid., 25).
- **Power Division:** Bangladesh Power Development Board, under the division, has three training centres and one regional training centre imparting training on information technology, administration, technology and accounts (ibid., 26).
- **MoEWOE:** Under the Ministry, BMET performs vast activities to develop skills for the aspiring overseas workers. BMET has established five Institutes of Marine Technology (IMTs), and it has 70 TTCs all over the country, and it is going to open 40 more TTCs in 40 ***upazilas*** in the next five years. BMET has customized its training courses in order to meet the overseas employment (ibid., 27). Training programmes supervised by BMET involves the following (Islam, 2008):
- Diploma in Marine Engineering;
- Diploma in Shipbuilding Engineering;
- Mechanical Drafting;
- Civil Drafting;
- General Mechanics;
- Machine Tool Operation;
- Welding and Fabrication;
- Woodworking;
- Civil Construction;
- Refrigeration and Air Conditioning;
- Plumbing and Pipe Fitting;
- Marine Diesel Artificer;
- Shipbuilding and Welding (arc and gas);
- Shipbuilding and Mechanical Drafting;
- Shipwright/Platter;
- Architectural Drafting with AutoCAD;
- Electrical Machine Maintenance;
- Housekeeping;
- Plastic Technology;
- Pattern Making and Cutting;
- 6G Welding;
- AutoCAD (3D);
- Graphics Design;

- Stuttering;
- Block and Boutique;
- Rod Binding;
- Tiles Fixer;
- Knitting and Linking Operation;
- Mechanical Fitter;
- Sewing Machine Maintenance; and
- Mid-level Supervisor in Garments.
- **Ministry of Shipping:** Ministry of Shipping has three national maritime institutes and through the Institute of Marine Science and Fishery, it imparts training to the workforce who is working with the maritime and inland water transportation (Government of Bangladesh, 2016:27).
- **MoE:** DTE, under the MoE, is implementing a huge portion of public TVET with the yearly intake of approximately 99,109 students.[10] There are 118 institutes under the auspices of the Directorate: 1 TTTC, 1 VTTI, 3 engineering colleges, 49 polytechnic institutes, 64 technical schools and colleges, 856 SSC Vocational (with MPO),[11] 728 HSC Business Management (with MPO), 18 Vocational and Business Management Madrassas (with MPO), 977 non-government diploma institutes and 4,192 non-government secondary level and other institutes.

Most of the above-mentioned trainings follow the traditional system and are not competency based. Despite so many training services, the shortage of skilled workers is a common phenomenon. People with university degrees are often working as semi-skilled workers at home and overseas.

In Bangladesh, people have a tendency to receive general education in order to make a decent livelihood – mostly to perform the administrative jobs. Also, general people's perception about technical and vocational training is not positive. Most of them think that technical and vocational education is for those who are not able to continue their general education. They go for technical and vocational training only to develop some skills for earnings. Because of that, the social status of TVET in Bangladesh needs to be given a special emphasis on, with respect to the skills development policy. In this connection, NSDP 2011 stated that "[T]he value and status of skills development and TVET need to be upgraded and enhanced" (Government of Bangladesh, 2011).

In addition, discussion about the supply of skills and skills development mostly centre around enrolment and number of institutions. However, for the most part, the recognition and employability of the skills acquired through skills acquisition systems are overlooked. Nonetheless, skills providers focus only on the hard skills, but overlook the soft skills and the ever-changing technology.

At the same time, there is an acute storage of skilled trainers, instructors and workers in the local market. Because of the uncertainty of the future, capable and potential students are not enrolling into TVET programmes, which are creating real gaps between supply and demand of skilled workforce.

2.2.4. Budget Allocation in Skill Education

Major investment in education stems from the Government through the national budget, which is lower than required (see Table 1). A presentation on "Budget for Education in Bangladesh: An Analysis of Trends, Gaps and Priorities" suggests a policy recommendation to invest in the TVET on a priority basis. They emphasize

10 See www.techedu.gov.bd

11 Monthly pay order (MPO): Selected institution is being managed and administered by autonomous bodies, which are enlisted to get a portion of teacher's salary from government at the monthly basis.

on the following: (a) the need to link TVET with market demand; and (b) TVET policy and finance need to take cognizance of other relevant macroeconomic policies including trade and industry policies of Bangladesh (Rahman, Khan and Sabbih, 2016).

However, in the FY 2015–2016, 1.74 billion Bangladeshi Taka (Tk) has been allocated for imparting skills development training programmes of 23 ministries and Tk. 4.28 billion has been allocated for four Skills Development Project. These projects are (a) Bangladesh Skills for Employment and Productivity (B-SEP); (b) Skills and Employment Programme Bangladesh (SEP-B); (c) Skills and Training Enhancement Project (STEP); and (d) Skills for Employment Investment Program (SEIP). In the budget speech for FY 2015–2016, the Finance Minister of Bangladesh mentioned that a sum of Tk 1 billion would be allocated for skills development in Bangladesh (Government of Bangladesh, 2016).

Despite all those efforts and budget allocation, government financing for TVET is not adequate regarding the transition of the existing TVET to the competency-based TVET.

Table 1: Revised annual development budget for MoE and DTE, 2007–2016

Allocation in Revised Annual National Budget (Development) for TVET, 2007–2016 (in Tk)					
Year	Total development budget	MoE	DTE	MoE (%)	DTE (%)
1	2	3	4	5	6
2007–2008	233,035,711	13,158,500	864,300	5.65	6.57
2008–2009	242,339,350	9,855,400	830,100	4.07	8.42
2009–2010	296,276,600	14,308,000	977,100	4.83	6.83
2010–2011	371,739,858	17,239,300	1,360,600	4.64	7.89
2011–2012	423,636,995	19,758,400	1,655,400	4.66	8.38
2012–2013	538,587,108	22,530,600	1,731,000	4.18	7.68
2013–2014	611,938,186	31,481,600	2,665,900	5.14	8.47
2014–2015	763,733,214	41,423,400	3,173,300	5.42	7.66
2015–2016	926,356,466	42,572,100	3,274,000	4.60	7.69
2016–2017	1,125,264,955	61,666,900	7,050,000	5.48	11.43

Sources: MoF, Demands for Grants and Appropriations, various years.

Notes: (i) Total annual development budget is shown in column 2 (two).
(ii) Column 3: Total annual development budget for MoE.
(iii) Column 4: Total annual development budget for DTE under MoE.
(iii) Column 5: Percentage of the budget for MoE in respect of total budget.
(iii) Column 6: Percentage of the budget for DTE in respect of total budget allocated to MoE.

In Bangladesh, the TVET reform needs a huge involvement of many partners – ministries, directorates, training organizations, public and private TVET providers, industries, civil society and other concerned institutions – and funding. These enormous but inevitable tasks will require continuous funding, in addition to the government budgetary allocations. Along with these, the TVET reform would also require human resource development

in comparison with the CBT, which are as follows: (a) competency-based materials; (b) development and adaptation of up-to-date technology, which is necessary to support schemes for a segment of people who are unable to pay the training cost; and (c) initiatives to uphold the importance and popularization of the new TVET system. Particularly, for a new qualification of certification (NTVQF) and to enhance the social status of the TVET, continuous funding will be needed.

In NSDP 2011, the National Human Resource Development Fund (NHRDF), which is a new funding framework for skills development, has been proposed as a target for government contributions required to contribute 1 per cent of the value of remittance received by the expatriate workers. The policy also mentioned that in partnership with employers and workers' representatives, the Government will explore different mechanisms to encourage increased employer investment in training (Government of Bangladesh, 2011).

Against this backdrop, the Government has decided to establish the NHRDF in conformity with the NSDP 2011. Skill Development: Towards Priority of Achievement of Higher Growth, a booklet published by the Finance Division of the MoF, mentioned the primary objectives of NHRDF as:

(a) Unify and coordinate various sources of funding;

(b) Mobilize resources from diversified sources;

(c) Finance pre-employment and upskilling training systems and capacities;

(d) Facilitate access to training to women, physically challenged and the disadvantaged groups;

(e) Enhance quality of training through setting criteria for selection of training providers and performance conditions;

(f) Develop competitive training market and reduce cost of training; and

(g) Build cooperation among employers and training providers.

It is also mentioned that:

The Fund will be operated through a "limited company" (owned by the Government) and will be registered under the Companies Act, 1994 as an entity "not for profit". A Board of Directors of the NHRDF will be appointed. The Board of Directors will be comprised of one chairman, five members from the public sector and five members from the private sector.

NHRDF will contribute to the skilling and upskilling of workforce creating a competitive environment leading to the capacity-building of training providers. Establishment of NHRDF will be a practical step in the structural reform initiatives in the skill development system and help achieve the objectives of the NSDP 2011 (Government of Bangladesh, 2016:61).

2.2.5. Skills Certification and Recognition Status

Recognition of competency and certification that the present TVET system provides is weak in the context of local and overseas job markets. Reasons behind less-responsive, less-inclusive and ineffective national TVET system are manifold. There is a lack of coordination between the organizations and institutes providing skills training, and they have weak linkages to the labour market.

Assessment of the students in the current TVET is mostly knowledge-based and less reliant on competency. It is observed that success largely depends on memorizing the theory that helps them to secure passing marks (starting from 33 or 40). This situation stems from lack of equipment necessary for the skill-specific trainings and also due to less competent teachers/instructors. Teachers are mainly coming from the same system, and most of them lack teaching skills. Experience reflects that a little research is conducted on the market situation, and there is no mechanism for networking with the employment agencies. As a consequence, they compromise with quality as emphasis is given to testing theoretical knowledge, and little attention is given to the practical (competency-based) section.

Involvement of cost for equipment and supplies made the TVET expensive. In addition, most of the institutions suffer due to the inadequate instruments, backdated technology and poor quality lab facilities. A recent survey of TVET providers indicate that necessary equipment for the training of skills-specific jobs in the existing training curricula is not available at nearly one third of the institutions. Beyond that, 5 per cent of the institutions do not make use of the available equipment. The reasons for non-utilization of equipment are: "instructors not available", "instruments out of order", "operation expensive" and "management careless" and so on (Mia and Karim, 2015:xi).

Most of the providers, public and private, meet basic standards of quality of instructors, assessors and the programmes delivered. Institutions have a little linkage with the industry and labour markets. Employers have no meaningful participation with authority in setting policy, types of courses, curriculum, learning materials and with the process of evaluation and assessment of students. Finally, employers, inland and overseas, have a negative attitude and less recognition to skills supply through the current TVET system.

Acknowledging the above-mentioned issues, the Government of Bangladesh approved the NSDP to fulfil the needs and establish a responsive and effective skills development system. This comprehensive policy delineates almost all the aspects of the existing traditional skills development system to attain the competency standard, and accreditation of skills supply at local and overseas labour markets. To set up the national skills development agenda, improve coordination and avoid duplication in programmes, the NSDC has been set up, which includes representatives of the Government, industries, workers and civil society and is headed by the Prime Minister.

Box 2: ILO R60 Apprenticeship Recommendation 1939

ILO R060 Apprenticeship Recommendation of 1939:

"Apprenticeship means any system by which an employer undertakes by contract to employ a young person and to train him or have him trained systematically for a trade for a period the duration of which has been fixed in advance and in the course of which the apprentice is bound to work in the employer's service."

The NSDP 2011 emphasizes to develop and implement a comprehensive Action Plan (Government of Bangladesh, 2011:34). In this regard, the NSDC prepared an Action Plan (Phase 1) addressing 17 issues to be implemented that will cover the following:

1. Implementing the NTVQF;
2. Introducing CBT&A;
3. Taking steps to assure the quality of training programmes and training institutions/training providers;
4. Creating scope to increase the role of industry sectors in skills development;
5. Building an accurate skills data system for planning and monitoring;
6. Introducing national instructors and trainers' training and certification system;
7. Taking initiative to increase management flexibility and effectiveness of public and private institutions;
8. Strengthening apprenticeships to increase efficiency and encourage formal apprenticeships to develop the skills of workers;
9. Developing and implementing the Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) programme;
10. Taking special programme to include the under-represented groups in TVET;

11. Strengthening the role of private VET providers (industry, NGO, commercial and private provider receiving grant) to enhance skill;
12. Initiating programmes to enhance the social status of TVET;
13. Initiating training in the industry to continuously increase workers' skills;
14. Taking special initiatives for skills development for overseas employment;
15. Introducing new financing systems for skills development;
16. Initiating programmes for the implementation of the NSDP;
17. Forming a monitoring committee to implement the NSDC 2011 and based on the evaluation of committee, revise and reevaluate the NSDP after every five years.

The NSDP makes a particular focus on skills development for overseas employment by taking the special initiative in its Phase 1 of the Action Plan. In this Action Plan, emphasis is given to fill up the skills gap by reducing the mismatches between skills supply and demand in the overseas job markets. Those mismatches are mainly due to the low level of competencies and less recognition of skill certification of Bangladeshi workers. As a result, workers are getting low wages and always in suffering due to the lack of job securities. The policy stresses on the importance of competency-based trainings and the national qualification framework to minimize the skills mismatch leading to an increase in remittances by making them capable to earn higher incomes (Government of Bangladesh, 2011).

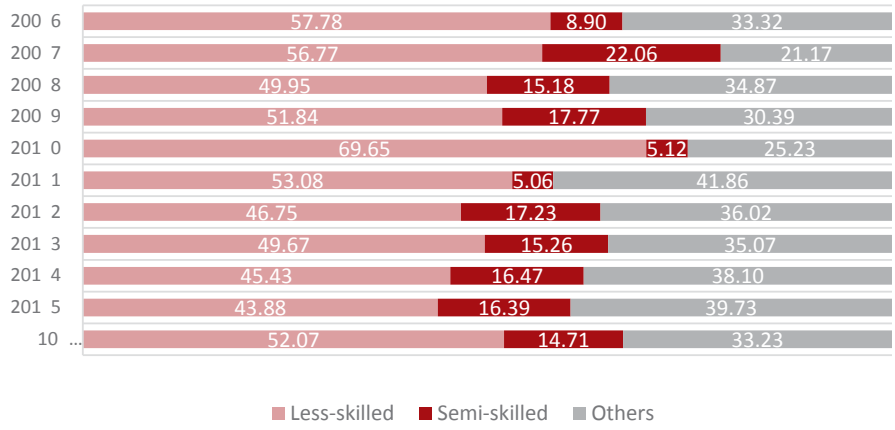
2.2.6. Skill Demand

Every year, approximately 2 million new workers are adding to the workforce and according to the Bangladesh Labour Force Survey (LFS) 2013, labour force participation rate is at 57.1 per cent. The LFS 2013 mentions that an estimated 5.7 million – about 5.4 per cent of the total population is engaged in formal training courses. Among them, 46.6 per cent (within 15 to 29 years), received vocational training – 41.5 and 59.5 per cent are male and female respectively.

In the Bangladesh economy, some sectors are growing at a rapid pace and have a high demand for skilled workers. In these sectors (e.g., construction and light engineering), there is a need for welding, plumbing and construction-related trained workers. The need for such workers is also present in the overseas job market. However, trainings of these trades remain as the less-attended courses. According to the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS), only 0.9, 0.2 and 2.2 per cent of the population aged 15 and above have received training in welding, plumbing/pipe fitting and construction-related work respectively (BBS, 2015:38–39).

From 2006 to 2015, a total of 5.52 million workers migrated from Bangladesh to other CoDs. Among them, 2.88 (52.1%) million are less-skilled and 0.81 (14.7%) million are semi-skilled workers (see Figure 3). The trend of less-skilled labour migration remains unchanged over the time.

Figure 3: Percentage distribution of less-skilled and semi-skilled labour migration from Bangladesh, 2006–1015



Source: BMET website.

To meet the overseas job demands, the Government will target to implement a partnership with industry and the training providers (Asian Development Bank: staff estimates). The projected training targets for overseas employment are as follows (Government of Bangladesh, 2016:53):

- 0.660 million in 2020;
- 0.504 million in 2025;
- 0.368 million in 2030;
- 0.296 million in 2040; and
- 0.365 million in 2050

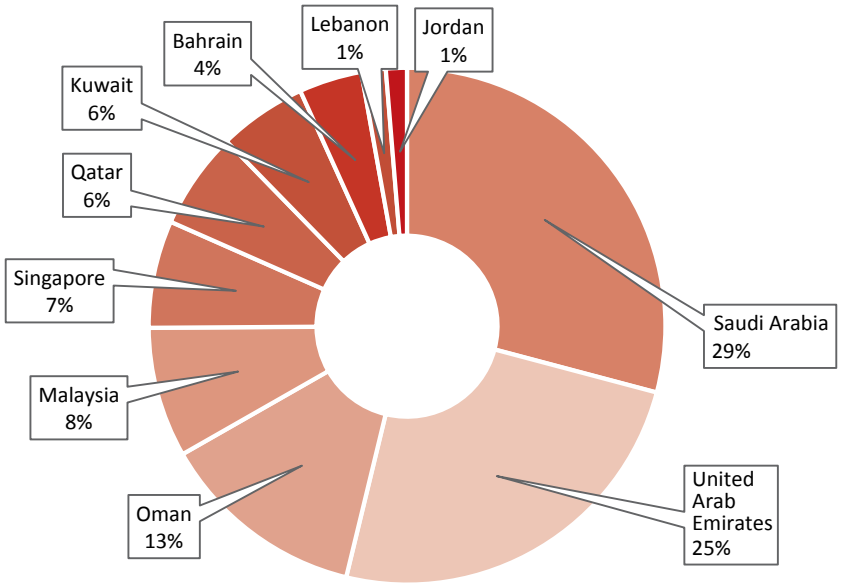
Chapter 3

Skills Mismatch

3.1. Migration and Skills

In 2016, from January to October, 607,386 workers migrated from Bangladesh, i.e., on average, 60,000 workers migrated per month. Official data on labour migration from Bangladesh is being recorded since 1976 at the BMET. According to BMET, since 1976, a total 10,306,000 men and women migrated to more than 157 countries. Among them, 9,565,184 migrated to only 10 countries. These top 10 countries, on the basis of the number of the migrants, were (a) Saudi Arabia (2,786,330; 29.13 %); (b) United Arab Emirates (2,358,235; 24.65%); (c) Oman (1,240,138; 12.97%); (d) Malaysia (779,298; 8.15%); (e) Singapore (642,994; 6.72%); (f) Qatar (580,917; 6.07%); (g) Kuwait (528,740; 5.53%); (h) Bahrain (376,871; 3.94%); (i) Lebanon (145,473; 1.52%); and (j) Jordan (126,188; 1.32%). The majority of the workers were less-skilled.

Figure 4: Top 10 CoDs of migrant workers from Bangladesh, from 1979 to 2016 (October)[12]



Source: BMET.

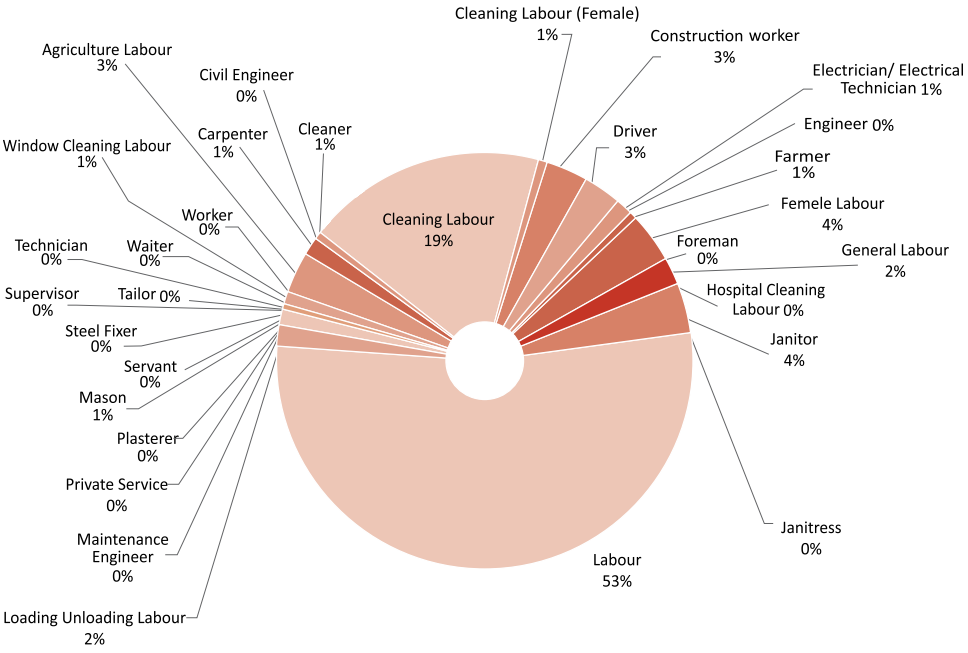
In order to have an idea about the skills status of the Bangladeshi migrant workers, the skills-wise trend of migrant workers, from 2005–2012, in Saudi Arabia and Singapore have been analysed.[13] During the period, around 0.5 million workers migrated to Saudi Arabia. Among them, labour constituted 53 per cent; followed by cleaning labour (19%), female labour (4%), janitors (4%), agricultural labour (3%) and the rest of the 17 per cent were other types of less-skilled workers. Migration to Singapore, during the same period, was almost 0.3 million. Of them, labour[14] (34%), workers (29%), construction workers (12%), mechanical fitters (5%), private service holders (6%), waiters (5%), welders (2%), and the other 7 per cent were semi-skilled and less-skilled workers.

12 Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training (BMET) database, overseas employment and remittances from 1976 to 2016 (as of October 2016). Available from www.bmet.gov.bd/BMET/viewStatReport.action?reportnumber=20

13 Estimation on the basis of BMET database; names of the occupations are taken from the database. Among the top 10 destinations, Saudi Arabia is the first in rank and Singapore is the fifth in position to hire skilled workers.

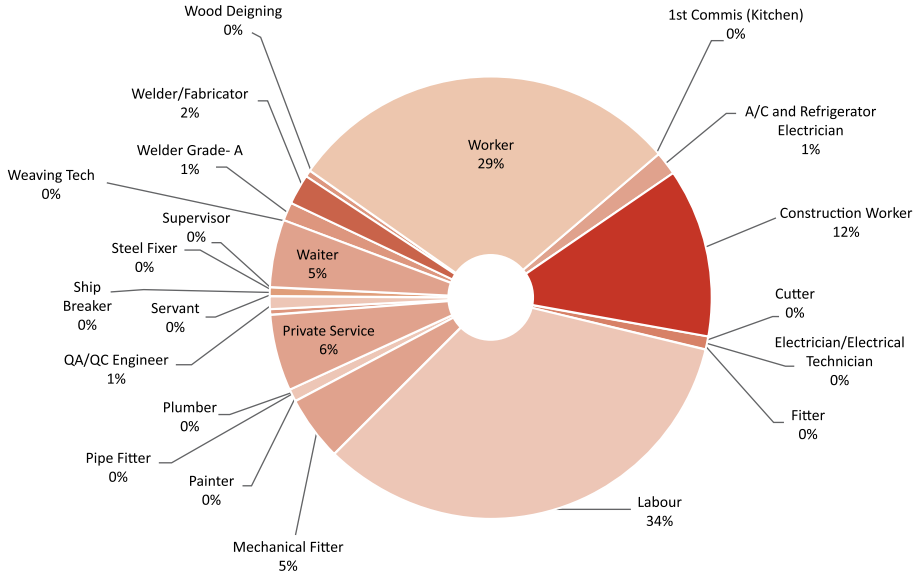
14 In the BMET database, labour is treated as the name of an occupation. For example, labour, cleaning labour, female labour, general labour are included in that database as name of occupation. The names in which the overseas recruiting agencies issue demand letters for the workforce, BMET includes those names as occupations in their database. Because of that, BMET has no control over the names of occupations.

Figure 5: Less-skilled workers migration from Bangladesh to Saudi Arabia, 2005–2012



Source: BMET.

Figure 6: Less-skilled workers migration from Bangladesh to Singapore, 2005–2012



Source: BMET.

The outcome of the above discussion, beyond any reasonable doubt, presents a vivid picture about skills status of labour migrants from Bangladesh to CoDs.

3.2. Skills Mismatch in Migration

Every year, Bangladesh is sending huge labour to the overseas labour markets, and more than half of them are engaged in dirty, dangerous and demeaning jobs. Skilled workers, who have the competency but no

formal certification from any formal institution, are accepting jobs for which they qualify but do not get proper recognition or appropriate wages. According to the BMET, more than 10 million workers migrated, and most of them are working in various occupations. Recruiting agencies of Bangladesh have information of the workers required, and they send them accordingly. However, the status of skills, technology, work, workplace and wages are not explored through any assessments. Lack of such initiatives creates enormous gaps between overseas employers and the skills providers in Bangladesh. Because of that reason, the Bangladeshi skills system as a whole, with a few exceptions, is not able to produce competent workers for overseas employment.

A survey on the TVET providers in Bangladesh revealed that 263 technologies/trades are offered under the BTEB (Mia and Karim, 2015:13). Many providers are also imparting courses despite the fact that they are not registered with the BTEB. At the same time, it is also true that most of the existing providers in this country are not able to meet the prerequisite standards and demands of the overseas labour markets. Major reasons for mismatch of skills supply and demand in the overseas labour market lie with the existing skills provided by the system.

One of the major causes of skills mismatch in the overseas labour market is accreditation, that is, the formal recognition of the skills providers and certificates issued by them. The absence of a standard mechanism in respect to quality assurance and maintaining multilateral and bilateral agreements for the training organizations providing standard TVET for recognizing skills in the overseas labour market is another reason of skills mismatch.

Inaccurate information about the overseas job market is a driver for creating skills mismatch between supply and demand. In Bangladesh, the common placement practices of the international recruiting agencies are collecting the aspiring migrant workers through dalals (illegal subagents). Except for BOESL, the recruiting agencies barely request for workers through advertisements. Sometimes, many local recruiting agencies collect the overseas job demand by giving money to the concerned recruiting agencies and making more money by using demands for those jobs.

Recruiting agencies, after receiving the confirmed demand letter from the overseas employer, start the migration process through searching for appropriate candidates. The way of finding the suitable candidates should ideally be through newspaper advertisements, recruiters' websites, database, circulars and the BMET database. However, in practice, many agencies bypass all these and collect candidates through the middlemen ***(dalals)***. The Overseas Employment and Migrants Act 2013 mentions that the recruiting agencies have to select candidates from the BMET database, and if the agency does not get the expected candidates in the database, then they will have to go through newspaper advertisements, which has to be approved by the concerned authority. However, in many cases, this procedure is not followed.

Due to the scarcity of overseas jobs, only some fortunate candidates successfully migrate. However, most of the aspirant migrant workers are ready to pay the amount demanded as migration costs –sometimes the amount is huge and beyond their abilities to pay. Taking advantage of this situation, ***dalals*** are exploiting job seekers and do not consider the skill levels required for the job. In such cases, when an individual is selected by the local recruiting agency for the overseas job in semi-skilled or skilled positions, they enrol in a technical school to manage a certificate within a very short time without accruing the actual skills needed to perform the job. This practice creates skills mismatch, placing workers in low-paid jobs.

This process of placement is also putting some skilled workers in positions for which they are not suited and in some cases, documented migrant workers become undocumented by violating the job contracts and joining in a new position with better pay.

The skills that most of the TVET providers are imparting are not demand-driven and well-coordinated with the industries and the overseas job markets. The traditional theory-based training is not able to meet the competitiveness of overseas labour markets and industries with modern technologies. Moreover, public and

private providers are not adapting the competency-based training because of funds constraints and shortages of human resources. In this situation, skills supplies are creating a mismatch with the skills demand.[15]

Traditional theory-based teaching, outdated curricula and standards and less quality assurance mechanism and lack of qualified instructors and teachers are also creating skills that are not in line with the industry needs. One of the recent surveys conducted by the NSDC and the BTEB (Mia and Karim, 2015) mentioned that:

> Lack of trained teachers is a big constraint to efficiency and effectiveness of the TVET delivery. A majority of the TVET teachers has inadequate pedagogical training, particularly to deliver competency based training efficiently. Also, they lack practical skills and little (or no) required industrial experience. Inadequate is the training capacity for TVET teachers in government and non-government organizations.

Lack of practical experience of the learner is a reason behind the skills mismatch in the overseas jobs. Some skilled workers are joining in the less-skilled work in the entry levels because of the lack of recognition and experience (on-the-job training in the home country or apprentice training) and then move upward. This is the compensation for the lack of recognition of skills, which is also a type of mismatch.

Workers who are migrating from Bangladesh to various destination countries and joining overseas employment are, in most cases, born and brought up in Bangladesh – the source country – where the mode of work at most of the workplace is mainly manual. Occupational Safety and Health is not complied with workplaces. Many workers are not familiar with workplace safety tools and other measures, and these are also not introduced by the skills institutions.

Soft skill, particularly understanding the language properly, is another big barrier in communication, presentation and ability to understand instructions properly. Soft skills have recently been introduced as a unit of competency in the competency-based training curriculum and are being imparted only through the RTOs. With all these hindrances, mostly originated from the local culture, the migrant workers go for overseas employment. In addition, work and workplaces have been changing over time as materials, equipment and technology have evolved with a fast and increasing pace. The evolving nature and challenging areas of work and workplace further leads to skills mismatch.

Historically and socially, the status of the TVET in Bangladesh is not similar to general education. Sen and Rahman, in their report Earnings Inequality, Returns to Education and Demand for Schooling: Addressing Human Capital for Accelerated Growth in the Seventh Five Year Plan of Bangladesh (2015) aptly described this. They mentioned that an insignificant portion of the population enrol in vocational schools. Hence, the supply of trained human resources as per domestic and international markets' demand is very poor, and on the other hand, those skilled through mainstream education do not match up to the criteria of the service and industrial sectors of the destination countries (IOM, 2015:24).

Industries and employers are the main consumers of skills as a product. However, they have little connection with the training institutions and authorities that introduce courses and learning materials, assess learners and certify the skills acquired through these trainings. Due to the weak linkages between the employers and the training institutes, along with limited research and assessment, the skills providers are conducting these trainings the same way they have doing for ages. Due to this, the employers also suffer because of these skills mismatches.

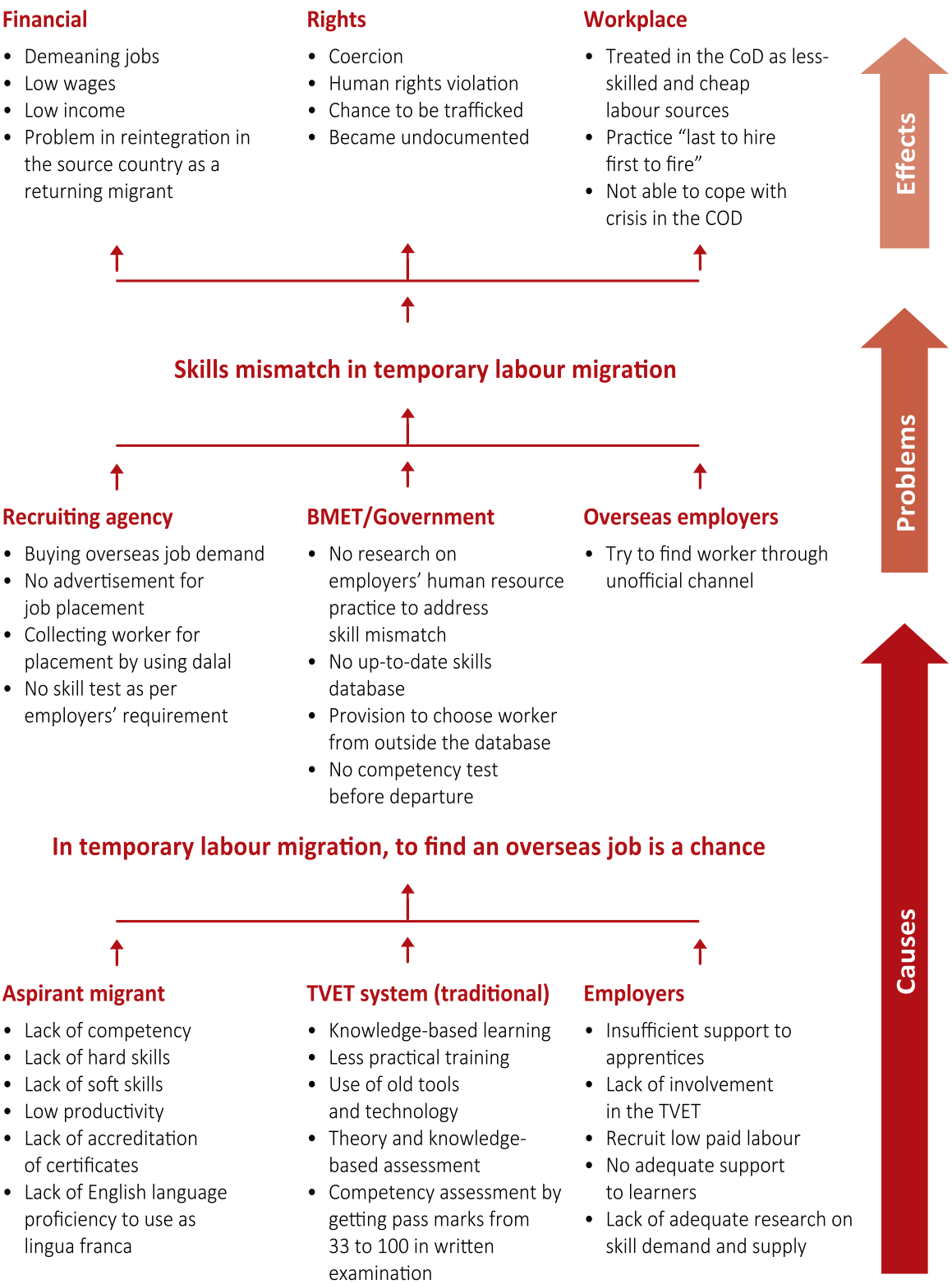
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15 The research team visited some registered training organizations imparting competency-based trainings (CBTs) and providing National Technical and Vocational Qualifications Framework (NTVQF) certificates. At a training centre, one of the team members met a trainee who completed his diploma course and got admitted to the training centre for accruing more skills. Upon further discussion, he mentioned that he completed his diploma from a public polytechnic institute and now, he got admitted to a Rod Binding course, with hopes that after completing the course, he will get a NTVQF Level-1 certificate, which is below the level of his present degree that he obtained from the traditional TVET. According to him, this CBT will make him competent for an overseas work, which is his aspiration. This example distinctly presents the difference between the traditional vocational and education training (VET) and VET based on CBT, and the existing recognition of our traditional VET in the overseas job market.

As observed, the little scope for apprenticeship, attachment to industry, and integration of the TVET into the workplace are some barriers that hamper in achieving the expected outcomes. The process of sharing essential skills and knowledge currently used by the industry is a necessary precondition that needs to be fulfilled in the CBTs. To resolve this problem partially, a recent study recommended that export-oriented industries in the export processing zone operating in the country are using updated technological knowledge, and the trainers should be sent to those industries, allowing them to acquire that knowledge. Transferring this knowledge to the trainees will facilitate familiarization with up-to-date technology (ILO, 2015a:54).

With the concurrent initiatives of NSDC, Industry Skills Councils (ISCs) and BTEB programme/course based registration have been given to some RTOs, competency based learning materials (CBLMs) have been prepared, and trained teachers and assessors in the line with CBT&A and NTVQF certification have been introduced. However, people outside the huge activities, even the aspirant learners and migrated workers, know too little about the new competency-based training and the framework of the new certification.

Figure 7: Problem tree: Skills mismatch



Chapter 4

Policy and Legal Regime

4.1. Laws and Policies

National Skills Development Policy 2011

Skills imparting system is the interplay of different actors (public, private and non-profit), types of authorities (ministries, departments, boards and company) and status (formal, semi-formal and informal). More importantly, there are some policies related to skill development.

To build a nationally coordinated system and a consistent approach to ensure the quality, by maintaining standard alignment with the industries' needs and occupation demand in local and overseas labour market, a comprehensive national skills development policy was necessary to guide the whole system. In response to that, the National Skills Development Policy 2011 was approved by the Cabinet in January 2012. As mentioned in the policy, the NSDP will be reviewed every five years and revised appropriately to take account of the progress of implementation and emerging trends in the national and international environments.

This policy extends and builds on major government policies, such as Education Policy 2009, Non-Formal Education Policy 2006, Youth Policy of 2003, National Training Policy 2008 and NSDC Action Plan of 2008 (Government of Bangladesh, 2011). Covering almost all aspects of skills development, the policy proposes an eight-level NTVQF and CBT&A, targeting all the sections of people including migrant workers with particular emphasis on skills development for overseas employment.

Section 18 on Skills Development for Overseas Employment suggests to assess the demand of skilled workers in the major overseas markets and communicate the developed national standard to overseas employers and international recruitment agencies. The NSDP provides a special focus on skills development for overseas employment because Bangladesh has a great potential for the labour migrants, despite a visible mismatch in skills supply and demand. Due to this mismatch, which mainly originates from the low competency levels of the Bangladeshi workers and the less recognition of skill certifications, workers are getting low wages. In order to address the problem of this sector, the policy emphasizes on the CBT and the national qualification framework that will minimize the mismatch and increase the growth of remittances from the expatriate workers by gaining the recognition and remuneration they deserve in the overseas markets (ibid.).

National Education Policy 2010

National Education Policy is another important policy that emphasizes the TVET system. It states that a skilled workforce is an essential enabler for national development. In regard to the vocational and technical education, one of its objectives is to increase the skilled workforce in diverse sectors, including ICT at pace with national and international demands.

According to policy, to meet the high demand and the gradual increase over the years, a skilled workforce in the overseas job market development programme will be undertaken to build up a competent labour force. In this regard, this policy suggests that:

- Pre-vocational and ICT education will be introduced in every system of primary education;
- On completion of grade VIII, one can undergo vocational training of one, two and four years to be coordinated by mills, factories and public or private technical institutes situated in the ***upazilas*** and districts;
- In the vocational and technical education institutions, teacher-student ratio will be 1:12;

- Highest importance will be given in the curriculum of vocational and technical education to achieving the competencies;
- Apprenticeship programmes will be introduced nationwide. The Apprenticeship Act 1962 will be updated and revised;
- Hands-on training within mills and factories on the subjects studied will be compulsory for teachers in all levels;
- Ensure training for every teacher of vocational and technical education, posts/seats in VTTI and TTTC will be increased and if necessary, the number of such institutes will also be increased;
- In every upazila, one technical education institute will be established for the expansion of technical education;
- Government budget will be allocated on priority basis in the sector of vocational and technical education;
- Appropriate steps will be taken to fill in the vacant posts in vocational and technical institutes;
- Students unable to study beyond Class VIII or those who discontinue after any level of secondary education for various reasons (economic or family related) will be motivated to undertake vocational or technical courses and complete the courses; necessary stipends will be given to them as financial help;
- The curricula of vocational and technical education will constantly be under review and revision in view of local and overseas job markets;
- All technical and vocational education institutes of the country will be put under the control of the DTE to consolidate this education stream;
- The DTE will be further empowered, and funds and manpower will be made available according to necessity;
- In the future, steps will be taken to establish a technical university for technical education.

Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment Policy 2016

This policy is a revised and detailed version of Overseas Employment Policy 2006. It contains directives on the inclusion of migration with the national development and proper management of labour migration with focus on female workers. The policy also addresses the issues on diversification and development of skills. As mentioned, to implement the policy, there is a need for government and concerned agencies to work collectively and collaboratively.

Overseas Employment and Migration Act 2013

Some of the objectives of this Act are as follows: (a) promote opportunities for overseas employment; (b) establish a safe and fair system that mostly depends on skilled labour migration; and (c) ensure rights and welfare of migrant workers and members of their families.

Non-formal Education Act 2014

This Act emphasizes non-formal education curriculum that will be prepared by the experts from the concerned authority and organization in conformity with the NSDP 2011. This will be equivalent to formal educational qualification NTVQF Pre-Voc level 1 and 2, and will be adapted to the need of public and private employers.

Industry Policy 2010

This policy mentions that in order to meet the current and future demand of national and overseas job market, a "database on skilled demand and supply" is required. The information from the database needs to be passed on to the managers, planners and industries in public and private sectors. In pursuance with this, the training centres will be established for RMG and other priority sectors to develop the workers employed

in the industries. Priority will be given, according to NSDP 2011, on imparting training and preparing curricula to establish the NTVQF certification, CBT&A and RPL. It emphasizes strengthening apprenticeship, particularly in construction, welding, packaging, cleaning and transportation and impart first-hand training on using the technology and equipment.

Seventh Five Year Plan 2016–2020

It is mentioned in the Seventh Five Year Plan 2016–2020 that technically skilled labour is relatively scarce, and investment in skills development will raise the growth rate. About the skilled migration, it stated:

> The objective of promoting labour migration is in line with the Overseas Employment and Migrants' Act 2013. The goal is to raise the share of overseas employment of skilled labour from 35% to 50% by 2030.
>
> In coordination with the recommendations of the Colombo Process, another priority should be the enhancement of the National Technical and Vocational Qualifications Framework (NTVQF), matched with the strengthening of technical and vocational education institutions. Such a framework would facilitate the development and certification of competencies and skills to enhance domestic or overseas employability, potentially reducing the vulnerability of overseas workers by opening up opportunities for safe and decent employment.

Other acts, rules, regulations and conventions related to skills development are as follows:

- Technical Education Act, 1967;
- Bangladesh Labour Act (Amendment) 2013;
- Apprenticeship Rules, 1967;
- Technical Education – Regulation, 1976;
- Bangladesh Technical Education Institution Recognition and Renewal Regulation 1996;
- Bangladesh Technical Education Institute Management Committee Regulation 1996;
- Bangladesh Private Technical Education (Teacher and Employees) Service Regulation 1996; and
- C142 – Human Resources Development Convention, 1975 (No. 142).

It is also important to enact the Bangladesh Technical Education and Technical Education Board Act.

Chapter 5

Pathways

5.1. Initiatives

The policies and plans, as mentioned earlier, explicitly delineates skills development strategies, directives and indications. To ensure the quality assurance and competency-based skills development and to get the international recognition, a road map has been prepared by the NSDC, and it is important to achieve the targets with support and participation of the industry, actors and other stakeholders. Besides, the Government is implementing its commitment to skills development for elevating the socioeconomic condition of the people.

The following are some of the initiatives in this regard:

National Skills Development Council (NSDC)

One of the major initiatives is forming the NSDC, chaired by the Prime Minister to bring all parties related to skills development under an umbrella to coordinate the echo system of Bangladesh. It has an Executive Committee of National Skills Development Council (ECNSDC), co-chaired by the public (MoE and Ministry of Labour and Employment (MoLE)) and private sector representatives. NSDC prepared an Action Plan (Phase 1) to achieve its targets. Review and monitoring of the action plan and overseeing, implementation and monitoring of the NSDP is done by the NSDC Secretariat.

Industry Skills Councils (ISCs)

The NSDP stated that the ISCs aim to bring together major enterprises and industry bodies and discuss skills development issues affecting their sectors. Linkages between industry and skills training system to fill up the gaps that create skills mismatch between the supply and demand of skill by monitoring and reviewing the practices in industry sectors are the other major areas of ISCs. The ISCs also provide leadership and strategic advice to the Government on skills development.

In NSDC's Annual Report 2014–2015, the nine ISCs have been formed. These are:

(a) Agro-food ISC;

(b) Leather and leather goods ISC;

(c) IT ISC;

(d) Transport ISC;

(e) RMG ISC;

(f) Informal ISC;

(g) Construction ISC;

(h) Light engineering ISC; and

(i) Tourism and hospitality ISC.

The report also mentioned the following that are under the process of being formed: (a) Furniture ISC; (b) Ceramic ISC; and (c) Pharmaceutical ISC. These ISCs will inform the BTEB about the up-to-date technologies that the industries are using, and will help to impart demands-based CBT. Along with these, maintaining competency standards, reviewing content and informing the BTEB to prepare standard curriculum and competency-based learning materials are other functions of the ISCs (NSDC Secretariat, 2015).

Centre of Excellence for Leather Skill (COEL)

CBTs and apprenticeships are essential to building skills appropriately. In this regard, the Centre of Excellence (COE) is a one-stop resource centre that can provide industry-driven training, support accreditation and certification and assist individuals and organizations to engage with the RPL system. COE was initially financed by the partners – public, private and/or donors – until generating their own income. They are registered under the Joint Stock Companies and Firms as a non-profit entity and managed by the governing body comprising of the ISCs, government bodies and workers' associations.

Centre of Excellence for Leather Skill Bangladesh Limited (COEL) started in 2012 and is an example where registered apprentices are imparting workplace-based training. It was formed by a group of major industry stakeholders – the ISC with the support of the TVET Reform Project and funded by the European Commission (EC). Since inception, COEL has: (a) trained 12,026 machine operators; (b) trained 152 trainee supervisors; (c) trained 30 machine maintenance technicians; (d) trained 43 trainees for competency based training on NTVQF level 1; and (e) 14 BTEB has certified trainers and assessors. There are four centres of excellence in leather, agro-food processing, tourism and hospitality and RMG sector. The COEL for agro-food processing is running an NTVQF Level 4.

Competency-Based Learning Material (CBLM)

BTEB, with the help of the NSDCs and ISCs, is preparing a competency-based learning material (CBLM) and maintaining national standards aligned with the competencies required by the industries. Those competencies – knowledge, skills and attitudes – of workers are sets of units that are organized and packaged into qualifications, which are industry-agreed and nationally recognized competency standards. There are four types of competencies:

(a) Generic competencies for all qualification levels and all industries. These are tangible work activities common to all workers;

(b) Sector-specific competencies required in a particular sector but not specialized for performance of a particular task;

(c) Occupation-specific competencies of workers that are unique in a particular area of work, stream of technology or job within a particular industry or sector; and

(d) Additional competencies that are useful, but not absolutely necessary for enhancing the mobility/employability of a worker. Competency standards are developed by identifying labour market trends that are, by analysing skills demand, developing units of competency and packaging unit of competency into qualifications (ILO, 2015b).

Bangladesh Skills for Employment and Productivity (B-SEP)

B-SEP is funded by the Government of Canada, executed by the ILO, implemented by the DTE and focuses on five sectors: (a) agro-food processing; (b) tourism; (c) pharmaceutical; (d) ceramics; and (e) furniture manufacturing.

Major areas of B-SEP are as follows:

(a) Institutional capacity development by supporting NSDC, developing an NHRF and enhancing the TVET data system;

(b) Standard, training, assessment, certification by expanding the NTVQF and supporting new quality assurance guidelines among TVET institutions, including the industry, to develop and provide CBT to workplace- and institution-based trainers and assessors and enhancing the capacity of government agencies to support regulation and implementation of NTVQF course;

(c) Industry skills development; and

(d) Equitable access to skills by increasing access to skills for thedisadvantaged group and supporting in green jobs are the four focus areas of the programme.

The project is supporting the G20 initiative to improve the coordination among the public institutions through strengthening the NSDC Secretariat, so that it can play its role in coordinating and monitoring skills system. B-SEP also supports the enhancement of the capacity of the key government agencies, such as the BMET, BTEB and DTE to help in the implementation and regulation of the new NTVQF (Government of Bangladesh, 2016).

SUDOKKHO: Skills and Employment Programme Bangladesh

SEP-B, known as Sudokkho, is extending its support to the private sector in delivering skills training aligned with the skills needs of the RMG and construction sectors. These sectors are growing and facing a shortage of skilled workers, and also have huge demands in overseas job markets. The project is providing support to training by developing comprehensive training materials – skills standards, curricula, manual and CBT assessment tools for the following:

(a) Private training service providers to train skills that match industry demand and facilitate job placement;

(b) Private sector firms to deliver innovative training systems and provide employment; and

(c) Implementing TVET reform agenda through the development of policies and training package.

Skills and Training Enhancement Project

The DTE, under the MoE, is implementing this World Bank-supported programme. Initially, the project period was July 2010 to June 2015. The revised project period is July 2010 to June 2019. The total cost of STEP is Tk 17.89 billion, out of which Government's share is Tk 2.4 billion (13%) and from development partner is 15.7 billion (87%). The primary objective of the project is to strengthen selected public and private skill training institutes to improve training quality and employability of the trainees, including those from the disadvantaged socioeconomic background. STEP is supporting the TVET system through direct start-ups and operational support to the ISCs and the NSDC Secretariat. It provides grants to introduce additional market-driven technologies.[16] As many as 523,000 TVET students, which include all female students, will receive stipends (Government of Bangladesh, 2016).

Skills for Employment Investment Program

SEIP project is being implemented by the Finance Division of the MoF. Asian Development Bank, Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation and the Government of Bangladesh are jointly funding the SEIP project. It helps to catalyse the private sector in an effective manner for providing market-responsive skills development and building partnerships with public training institutions to make skills development responsive to the needs of emerging labour markets (ibid.).

SEIP emphasizes on the improvements of job-focused skills and upskilling of the existing workforce. SEIP is a multi-tranche project, and in the first phase, it will run up to December 2017. In its first phase, six priority sectors have been included, as follows:

(a) Ready-made garment and textile;

(b) Construction;

(c) Information technology (IT);

16 See www.thefinancialexpress-bd.com/2016/07/10/37657/Roadmap-for-skill-development-for-sustainable-growth

(d) Light engineering and manufacturing;

(e) Leather and footwear; and

(f) Shipbuilding.

SEIP is facilitating the training programmes through three ministries/departments: (a) BMET; (b) DTE; and (c) BITAC.

SEIP is also financing skills training programme imparted by the Bangladesh Bank's Small and Medium Enterprise Department and Palli Karma-Sahayak Foundation.

The project is also facilitating training activities through the industry associations as mentioned below:

(a) Bangladesh Garment Manufacturers and Exporters Association (BGMEA);

(b) Bangladesh Knitwear Manufacturers and Exporters' Association (BKMEA);

(c) Bangladesh Textile Mills Association (BTMA);

(d) Leather goods and Footwear Manufacturers and Exporters Association of Bangladesh;

(e) Bangladesh Association of Construction Industry;

(f) Bangladesh Engineering Industry Owners Association;

(g) Bangladesh Association of Call Centres and Outsourcing;

(h) Bangladesh Association of Software and Information Services; and

(i) Association of Export Oriented Shipbuilding Industries of Bangladesh.

SEIP also facilitates the establishment of NHRDF and the National Skills Development Authority (NSDA).

Skill Development Initiatives of BMET

It is worth mentioning that 70 TTCs and 6 IMTs are now offering comprehensive courses to address the skill needs of the migrants. The Migration and Skills Development Fund has been established to facilitate skills development training and overseas employment. Besides, the following actions will be taken during the implementation period of the Seventh Five Year Plan:

- Establishment of 22 more District Employment and Manpower Offices (DEMOs) to cover all the districts of Bangladesh (currently 42 DEMOs and 4 Divisional Offices exist);
- Establishment of catering institutes to deliver market-responsive skills training;
- Development and operationalization of additional 40 TTCs in 40 upazilas and 1 IMT to address the skills needs of the people living in the remote areas;
- Establishment of Teachers' Training Institute to upskill the trainers of the TTCs; and
- Scale-up of training programmes for domestic workers who will migrate whereas 50,000 will be trained annually (Government of Bangladesh, 2016).

Private and Public Partnership (PPP) on building skills of workforce in RMG sector

The first PPP initiative on building skills of 300 RMG supervisors was implemented through a project titled 'Enhancement of RMG Training Facilities at Bangla German Technical Training Centre' administered by the BMET. Since then, several programmes have been implemented through the PPP initiatives. Some of the programmes are given below:

(a) Placed under the Bangladesh Textile Mills Association (BTMA) as a PPP arrangement between the Government of Bangladesh (GoB) and BTMA to produce skilled manpower, a memorandum

of understanding (MoU) has been signed between Government of Bangladesh and BTMA to impart training for textile soctor through National Institute of Textile Education and Research (NITER) under the Ministry of Textiles & Jute (MoT&J).

(b) PPP arrangement on Chars Livelihood Program, under the Ministry of Local Government, Rural Development and Cooperatives, BGMEA and BMET to train and arrange jobs of 1,500 disadvantaged people in RMG;

(c) PPP initiatives of DYD, BMET and Bangladesh Rural Development Board under three different ministries in alliance with BGMEA and BKMEA to train the youth and adults;

(d) PPP initiatives between Western Marine Shipyard, Chittagong and Chittagong TTC under the MoEWOE to train and arrange employment of 500 shipbuilding welders;

(e) PPP initiatives between TTCs under the MoEWOE and Grameen Shakti for training and employment of solar technicians; and

(f) PPP initiatives between Skills Development Project of the MoE and BGMEA for the training of 1,000 machine operators for RMG sector, which were implemented at the TTCs (Government of Bangladesh, 2016).

The National Human Resource Development Fund

One of the government documents (ibid.) mentioned details about the NHRDF as follows:

In order to accelerate economic growth to a higher trajectory, Bangladesh needs to transform its large working age population into a productive human resource by enhancing their skill level. There is an increasing demand for resources to meet the growing needs for skill development. In this context, the Government has decided to establish the National Human Resource Development Fund (NHRDF) in conformity with the National Skills Development Policy 2011.

Many countries in the world such as India, Malaysia, Singapore, etc. have created similar Funds with a view to developing their human resource. This type of 'Fund' works as a dedicated and continuous source of financing, in addition to normal government budgetary channels, and has become a common instrument for supporting skill development activities in those countries. Experiences from different countries highlight that financial support is needed mainly for four kinds of activities in skill development. First, for the segment of the people that do not have the ability to pay for skills training; grant-based schemes have to be introduced and continued. Second, for advancement and popularization of different elements of skills training advocacy, certification and assessments. Third, for initial support to create sustainable models of skill development; and fourth, for establishment of a contingent fund for mitigation of potential risks.

Main objective of the Fund will be to ensure uninterrupted funding for the creation of a skilled workforce in line with the demand for domestic and international markets. The other objectives may include:

(a) Unify and coordinate various sources of finance;

(b) Mobilize resources from diversified sources;

(c) Finance pre-employment and up-skilling training systems and capacities;

(d) Facilitate access to training to women, physically challenged and the disadvantaged groups;

(e) Enhance quality of training through setting criteria for selection of training providers and performance conditions;

(f) Develop competitive training market and reduce cost of training;

(g) Build cooperation among employers and training providers.

Resources for the fund may be generated in various ways which include government contribution, financial

support from development partners, levy fund contributions including grant, cost reimbursement and exception or rebate schemes. NHRDF may receive funds from one or more of the following sources:

(a) Grants from the Government;

(b) Contribution from the Development Partners;

(c) Contribution of business entities from their Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) fund;

(d) Payroll levy from the industries and enterprises (levy will be the major source as the industries and enterprises are the prime beneficiaries of the Fund. However, it may commence at a later stage, perhaps 5 years after the introduction of the Fund. An act of the parliament will be required to this effect);

(e) Subscription from the recruiting agencies equivalent to their license issuance and renewal fee;

(f) Donations by private enterprises/individuals;

(g) Income from investment of surplus fund; and

(h) Any other sources.

Resources of the Fund will be used for market responsive skills development related activities in conformity with the National Skills Development Policy (NSDP) 2011.

The major scope of operation of the Fund will be as follows:

(a) The Fund will support pre-employment and up-skilling, skills training of particular groups like female, physically challenged people, disadvantaged groups, etc.;

(b) The Fund will be disbursed to training providers of different sectors based on their priorities determined by the Government, skill needs and outcome-based performance;

(c) A framework will be developed by the government to finance the skills development training activities to be imparted by skills training providers both in public and private sectors to achieve the goal of skills development as determined by the NSDP 2011;

(d) The Fund may finance initiatives relating to twin arrangement with international organizations to ensure international standard and recognition;

(e) The Fund will facilitate the recipient institution/organization in terms of technical and financial operability;

(f) The Fund may finance various studies for exploring skills requirements in the domestic and overseas markets;

(g) Any other suitable financing proposal may be considered by the Government on the basis of the merit and appropriateness of the case.

The Fund will finance skills development training activities both for new entrants in the job market and for up-skilling of the existing workforce. Disbursement of the Fund will be linked to the performance of the training providers. Financial assistance from the NHRDF may be channelized for training through different windows like:

(a) Public sector training providers;

(b) Industry Associations;

(c) Industry Skills Councils (ISCs);

(d) Private sector training providers including NGOs with proven track record;

(e) Any other institution recommended by the Government.

The Fund will be a 'limited company' (owned by the Government) to be registered under the Companies Act, 1994 as an entity 'not for profit' after getting approval from the Cabinet. There shall be a Board of Directors of the NHRDF members which will be appointed by the Finance Division, Ministry of Finance. The Board of Directors will be comprised of one Chairman, five members from the public sector and five members from the private sector.

NHRDF will contribute to the skilling and up-skilling of workforce creating a competitive environment leading to the capacity-building of training providers. Establishment of NHRDF will be an effective step in the structural reform initiatives in skill development system and help achieve the objectives of NSDP 2011.

National Skills Development Authority

To support the rapid and inclusive growth and enormous changes of skills development system and to adapt to changing technologies and labour market demands, it is now urgent to bring all actors under one regulatory umbrella. In order to do that, the Government plans to establish the NSDA to ensure better integration, coordination of skills training imparted by different actors, accreditation of competency-based training courses, assessment, certification and effective monitoring. This authority will be established by an Act of the Parliament and will be functional by subsequent rules to be framed under the Act. It may be placed under any central ministry or division of the Government like the Prime Minister's Office, the MoF, Cabinet Division or Planning Division as decided by the Cabinet. One of the wings of the NDSA will provide secretarial support to the NSDC and the ECNSDC (Government of Bangladesh, 2016)

5.2. Recommendations

This study has explored the drivers of mismatch between the skills demand and supply, as well as reviews the existing relevant documents. Besides, insights and findings have been shared with the stakeholders and experts. Finally, the study finds some practicable and attainable recommendations along with key and associate actors:

Recommendations	Key actors	Associate actors
1. CAPACITY AND HUMAN RESOURCES OF BTEB: Along with other works, BTEB is entrusted with the responsibility to implement the NTVQF standard and assessment. There is a huge shortage of human resources in BTEB to implement new skills development-related tasks. To achieve the planned competency-based material development, curriculum development for competency-based training and certification as per NTVQF, give registration of new RTOs and work for an increasing number of certified assessors and other related work, human resources of BTEB needs to be increased.		
✓ Capacity and human resources of BTEB	MoE	MoF
2. CENTRAL AUTHORITY FOR THE WHOLE TVET SYSTEM: To run the entire TVET system, it requires more coordinated and efficient manner. To enhance competency-based skills development and certification under NTVQF, a central authority for TVET needs to be established by an Act (providing power, structure and for other purposes).		
✓ Enact an act regarding the NSDC	MoE	Ministry of Law, Justice and Parliamentary Affairs (MoLJPA); NSDC Secretariat

3. COMPREHENSIVE DATABASE ON SKILLED WORKFORCE WITH NTVQF STATUS: Comprehensive database on skilled workforce with NTVQF status needs to be established. According to the Overseas Employment and Migrant Workers Act 2013, the recruiting agencies have to collect candidates for the overseas jobs from the database. But, in the case of shortage, there is a provision to obtain candidates outside the database. However, even whose information is received from outside the database is also less-skilled. Collecting workers outside the database through dalals makes migration costly and creates skills mismatch. BMET has to extend and complete the database with the information on NTVQF Certificate with candidates' details.		
✓ Database with skills information	MoEWOE	BMET; BTEB; NSDC Secretariat; MoE; BANBEIS; Election Commission (National Identity Registration Wing)
4. ENHANCE CAPACITY AND QUALITY OF TEACHERS WITH PEDAGOGICAL TRAINING AND ASSESSORS: Teachers of the centres are usually college and university graduates, but they do not have any pedagogical training. Training institutions are poorly equipped and due to the shortage of competent instructors and teachers, equipment that is available at present remains unused or not used to the fullest extent. To supply skilled workers as per the demand of the job market and minimize the mismatch between supply and demand, it is important to supplement quality teachers and assessors.		
✓ Teachers' training	BTEB	MoE; DTE; NSDC Secretariat; BMET; NGOs; Teachers training institutions; related ministries
✓ Assessors' training	BTEB	MoE; DTE; NSDC Secretariat; BMET; NGOs; Teachers training institutions; related ministries
5. EVALUATION OF THE NSDC ACTION PLAN (PHASE 1) AND PREPARATION OF PHASE 2: In the Action Plan (Phase 1), to meet the issue of skills development for overseas employment, the following were decided to be implemented: (a) special arrangement of skills development of under-represented groups; and (b) based on priority, survey to assess the occupations and skills demand in the overseas job market by 2015. Both the jobs need to be accomplished on an urgent basis. Along with market analysis, the employers' demand along with the technologies used by the industries in overseas markets could also be explored.		
✓ Special arrangement of skills development of under-represented groups	NSDC Secretariat	DTE; BTEB; Bureau of Non-Formal Education (BNFE); NGOs; related ministries
✓ Evaluation of NSDC action plan	NSDC	BBS, BANBEIS, Implementation Monitoring and Evaluation Division
✓ Survey to assess the occupations and skills demand in the overseas job market	MoEWOE	BMET
6. FULL-TIME APPRENTICESHIP SYSTEM: Some countries that made excellent progress in TVET have the legal framework, which delineates that approved apprentice-able training with employment is compulsory. The first-hand experience helps the trainees a lot to build competency.		
✓ Enact law	MoLE, NSDC	BMET; MoLJPA
✓ Provide incentive to related industries	NSDC	BMET; related industries

7. INCREASE COMPETENCY-BASED SKILLED WORKFORCE: The NSDP 2011 introduced a system for RPL to recognize skills and knowledge, acquired informally, and provides enhanced pathways to further education and training. The workforce in the informal sector and less-skilled aspiring migrant workers have to be informed about this system. Formal recognition of informally acquired skills could provide the workers better job and/or make them able to enrol in training programmes to further enhance their skills.		
✓ Inform aspirant migrants	BMET	BTEB
8. INCREASE THE COMPETENCY-BASED SKILLED WORKFORCES: Many less-skilled workers migrate each year. Some of them return acquiring skills through their overseas work experience. However, they have no formal recognition of the newly acquired skills. In effect, it becomes difficult for them to get appropriate jobs and/or enrol in a training programme to further enhance their skills. In this regard, the NSDP 2011 introduced a system for RPL to recognize skills and knowledge acquired informally. It provides pathways for further education and training. The workforces in the informal sector and the apparently less-skilled aspirant migrant workers have to be brought under the coverage of RPL.		
✓ Provide RPL	BTEB	DTE; BMET; BNFE; NGOs and related ministries
9. INCREASED ENROLMENT INTO TVET FOR OVERSEAS EMPLOYMENT: To increase the enrolment in the TVET for overseas employment, public, private and NGOs training institutions – particularly institutions operating in the district and upazila levels – have to be registered with BTEB to impart CBT, especially the courses that are highly demanded in CoDs. The Government may ask recruiting agencies to give priority considerations to the passing trainees with NTVQF certificates for overseas employment. It is also necessary to put the requirement of NTVQF certificate in the job advertisement for overseas employment as a priority.		
✓ Increase enrolment	MoE	DTE; BNFE; BMET; MoF
✓ Established VTE institutions in upazilas	MoE	DTE; BMET
10. PRIORITIZE ENROLMENT OF FEMALE STUDENT IN CBT: The rate of women labour migration is also increasing day by day. According to BMET, from 1991 to 2015 a total 455,987 women workers have migrated from Bangladesh. Among them, 103,718 were migrated in just one year – 2015. The demand for women workers for overseas employment is increasing gradually at a rapid pace, particularly, in the garment industry. The vocational training programmes in Bangladesh are at present, not capable of meeting the skill needs of the overseas labour market in terms of both quantity and quality. To meet the growing demand for the skilled female workforce, enrolment of female students in CBT based TVET needs to be increased by initiating various programmes, and establishing vocational and technical training centre at the Upazila levels.		
✓ Increase female students in CBT	MoE	DTE, BNFE, BMET, MoF
✓ Established VTE institutions in Upazilas for women	MoE	DTE, BNFE, BMET, MoF

11. STRENGTHEN THE LINKAGE BETWEEN INDUSTRIES AND NATIONAL TRAINING SYSTEM: Linkages between industry and skills training system, to fill-up the gaps that is creating skills mismatch, will help to monitor and review practices in industry sectors and TVET providers. Providing strategic advice to the Government on skills development needs, support the delivery of industry relevant training, development of instructors and trainers, and improved partnerships between industry and training organizations could be done through the Industry Skill Councils (ISCs).		
✓ Formed all ISC	NSDC	Ministry of Industries, BTEB, DTE, public and private training providers and industries.
✓ Strengthening ISC	NSDC	Ministry of Industries, BTEB, DTE, public and private training providers and industries.
12. STUDIES ON OVERSEAS JOB MARKET ANALYSIS AND DISSEMINATION ON NEW NATIONAL QUALIFICATION FRAMEWORK AND OTHER ACHIEVEMENT AND CHANGES OF TVET: Information gaps between both the foreign companies and the Bangladeshi training system is a reality. To minimize these differences, research and studies on international job market analysis to find the skill gaps in demanded occupations, expected competency required by overseas employers, and technologies that are used in the foreign industries are needed. In collaboration with the government, recruiting agency, NSDC, training providers and other stakeholders in both the source and destination countries could conduct research which will support the TVET authorities to increase the standard and recognition of qualification internationally.		
✓ Study and dissemination on NTVQF and others achievement and changes of TVET	NSDCS	Research organizations, Development partners
13. UPDATED INFORMATION ON TECHNOLOGIES USED BY THE OVERSEAS WORKPLACE: In the current world, technology is changing at a rapid pace. Machinery, operating systems, material, and tools used by industries are upgrading as per innovation of modern technology. In order to introduce the updated technology in TVET system, information in this regard will be needed.		
✓ Study on workplace and technologies used in overseas	MoEWOE	Research organizations
14. UPGRADE THE VALUE AND STATUS OF SKILLS: It is explicitly defined in NSDP–2011 that the value system in the Bangladeshi society about technical education and training is not supportive or congenial to vocational education and training. Unfavorable social attitude towards vocational training should be changed. To ensure better social recognition and positive perception, appropriate recruitment rules with attractive remuneration for employment of TVET graduates should be framed. The government may undertake positive steps in this regard. The most important measure for enhancing the dignity of skilled workers will be the qualitative improvement of the TVET. Changing curriculum both in general education and technical training, remunerating the skilled workers adequately and greater involvement of employers' organizations in training system are among other measures.		
✓ Enhanced status of TVET	NSDC	MoE, Ministry of Information, MoPME, BMET, ISC, NGO, industries and private TVET institutions.

List of Key Informants[17]

(Names are in alphabetical order)

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8. Mohammad Razaul Karim (Director (Deputy Secretary, NSDCS)
9. Mohammed Azharul Haq (Additional Secretary, MoEWOE, Government of Bangladesh)
10. Rahnuma Salam Khan (National Programme Officer, Labour Migration Project, ILO)
11. Sumaiya Islam (Director, BOMSA)

17 The Key informants are not responsible for any of the conclusions drawn in this accoparying study, rather the authors of this study are solely responsible for all the analysis.

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MIGRATION, ENVIRONMENT, CLIMATE CHANGE AND DISASTER MANAGEMENT



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MIGRATION, ENVIRONMENT, CLIMATE CHANGE AND DISASTER MANAGEMENT

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List of Abbreviations

a2i	Access to Information Programme
ADB	Asian Development Bank
ADP	Annual Development Plan
BCCRF	Bangladesh Climate Change Resilience Fund
BCCSAP	Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan
BCCT	Bangladesh Climate Change Trust
BCCTF	Bangladesh Climate Change Trust Fund
BINA	Bangladesh Institute of Nuclear Agriculture
BMET	Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training
BRAC	Building Resources Across Communities
BRDB	Bangladesh Rural Development Board
BRRI	Bangladesh Rice Research Institute
CAF	Cancun Adaptation Framework
CCA	Climate change adaptation
CCC	Climate Change Cell
CCU	Climate Change Unit
CDMP	Comprehensive Disaster Management Programme
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CIF	Climate Investment Fund
CIID	Climate-induced internal displacement
COP	Conference of Parties
DANIDA	Denmark International Development Agency
DDM	Department of Disaster Management
DFATD	Department of Foreign Affairs, Trade and Development
DFID	Department for International Development
DMA	Disaster Management Act
DoE	Department of Environment
DRR	Disaster risk reduction
EPA	Enemy Property Act
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FGD	Focus group discussion
FY	Fiscal year

GIZ	German Society for International Cooperation
HDRC	Human Development Research Centre
ICCPR	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights
IDMC	International Displacement Monitoring Centre
IDP	Internally displaced person
IMDMCC	Inter-Ministerial Disaster Management Coordination Committee
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
KII	Key informant interview
LDC	Least developed country
MoDMR	Ministry of Disaster Management and Relief
MoEF	Ministry of Environment and Forests
MoEWOE	Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment
MoFA	Ministry of Foreign Affairs
MoFL	Ministry of Fisheries and Livestock
MoHPW	Ministry of Housing and Public Works
MoL	Ministry of Land
MoLE	Ministry of Labour and Employment
MoLGRD&C	Ministry of Local Government, Rural Development and Cooperatives
NAP	National Adaptation Plans
NAPA	National Adaptation Programmes of Action
NDMC	National Disaster Management Council
NGO	Non-governmental organization
PKB	Probashi Kallyan Bank
PKSF	Palli Karma Sahayak Foundation
PPCR	Pilot Programme for Climate Resilience
RVCC	Reducing Vulnerability to Climate Change
SDC	Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SIDA	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNGA	United Nations General Assembly
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VPA	Vested Property Act
WFP	World Food Programme

Executive Summary

There are many factors that shape the migration scenario, among these is environment and climate change. The association between climate change and migration is complex and driven by a number of social, economic and political factors. There is no clear picture about how many people are and will be displaced or will migrate as a consequence of the effects of climate change, and when this will happen and where. However, the fact is that Bangladesh remains as one of the natural disaster-prone countries in the world, and is expected to become even more so as a result of climate change. The effects of climate change may make it more challenging for Bangladesh to fully achieve the developmental goals.

There is no clear evidence or data about the number of Bangladeshi people migrating internationally due to the climate change. The information – regarding regional migration due to climate change – known through key informant interviews and discussion with community people in bordering areas are limited and not conclusive. However, such migration patterns have been found in the vulnerable areas in Bangladesh, mostly in coastal regions and border areas. Marginalized people from ***char*** (Sandbar Island) areas try to migrate outside Bangladesh. Such migration is closely linked with vulnerabilities, and in majority of the cases, it is forced. Vulnerabilities of the people in the affected areas are not only linked with natural disasters; but often other factors like belonging to ethnic and/or religious minority groups, living in geographically challenged areas of coastal belt and chars also act as drivers for migration.

Taking into consideration the climate change trend, there is ample scope for the policymakers to intervene in this relatively less explored area of international migration due to climate change to combat the newer dimensions of the future challenges.

Against this backdrop, the study tried to delve deeper into the issue and thereby recommend management solutions to climate migration and how to facilitate migration as an adaptation strategy. The current research was primarily based on secondary information. To supplement, complement and validate the findings, primary information was collected through key informant interviews at policy levels. In a very limited scale, field research had been conducted in the pockets of migration-prone areas through facilitating focus group discussions and in-depth interviews. Due to lack of established theoretical framework and precise apportionment of climate change-induced disasters among all disasters, the relevant terminologies (such as environmental migration) have been analysed in a broader, singular analytical framework as much as possible, focusing on the "environmental migration" rather than using multiple analytical frameworks.

As no official data exists on the subject, international migration due to climate change has not been addressed by any specific policy in Bangladesh. However, climate change and relevant migration consequences are addressed in a number of policy documents of Bangladesh. No specific ministry deals with environmental migration – international and/or internal. Multi-dimensionality of the issue makes it a "business of many".

Adaptation and mitigation are the main parts of the climate change activities in Bangladesh; finance and technology are the means to attract much attention during the climate change negotiation. The sources for climate change financing in Bangladesh are supported by national, bilateral and multilateral agencies. There are many channels to finance climate change-related programmes and projects in Bangladesh. But most of the programmes are being operated without adequate transparency, accountability and appropriate participation of people. There are also coordination gaps among the management authorities and the implementing agencies.

Though the policy documents of Bangladesh recognize migration as an enabler of development and the highest authorities of the country have uphold the migration issue themselves; still, migration – a historical process of development – is not accepted positively by many stakeholders. A paradigm shift of the whole idea – to a "rights platform" – is needed.

The relevant standard operating procedures and guidelines need to be designed in such a way that they are capable to protect the rights of those on the move because of climate change. However, global political economy of climate change has been intertwined in such a way that it is hard for those who want to act on the subject from a rights perspective.

The whole issue cannot and should not be viewed and dealt in a fragmented and compartmentalized way. It should be viewed holistically. The issue of climate changed-induced migration – be it internal or international, documented or undocumented, forced or willingly chosen – needs to be viewed, keeping all the lenses open. This is critical to be able to address the challenges of climate migration through effective adaptation strategies and management solutions.

Key Recommendations

Environmental international migration is forced in most cases. Thus, while coining of the recommendations to combat it, the key focus was on how to reduce vulnerabilities that will reduce the probability of forced migration, which, in many cases with valid logical background, sounds similar to manage environmental internal migration. As there are no concrete data or evidences about climate migration in Bangladesh – be it internal and international, while making recommendations – in instances, they may seem generic in form. However, the key assumption behind the proposed recommendations was that poverty and marginalization in the climate-vulnerable regions instigates migration decisions. Thus, most of the following recommendations encircled with adaptation strategies are applicable to the marginalized groups in the target regions, aiming to contribute in addressing the challenges of both internal and international migration.

Some of the key recommendations are provided as follows:

- Poor and marginalized groups of people are generally left out in the process of safe international migration due to lack of information, network and financing. Facilitations for safe international migration need to be institutionalized and implemented in the climate-vulnerable regions of Bangladesh, focusing on the special needs of the poor and marginalized groups in those areas.
- Landlessness is one of the major reasons for vulnerabilities among the people living in the climate-vulnerable regions of Bangladesh. Measures should be taken for mitigating such landlessness among the landless groups who are more prone to displacement.
- The international migration database – managed by the Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training (BMET) – is not adequately detailed and updated. A database with all the relevant and updated information on migration (including the reasons behind migration) needs to be created. Necessary interventions should be designed, considering the information of that database.
- “Locality development” as a comprehensive strategy needs to be initiated by branding the area as per its comparative/prospective advantages, considering the probable effects of climate change in the future. In doing so, the vulnerable areas will be equipped with more socioeconomic opportunities. This will minimize the probability of displacement.
- Identify ways and mechanisms (including agriculture technologies) to adopt in the changed perspective due to climate change. This will create scope for economic development of the affected farmers, which is expected to contribute in reducing the environmental migration.
- Initiate and promote alternative income-generating activities after the situation assessment in the targeted areas considering the actual and probable impacts of climate change. This will minimize the probability of displacement.
- The money used for social protection through various projects is linked to climate change management and adaptation. However, the allocation directly linked to this is still limited. Ensuring adequate allocation and effective targeting of the related safety net programmes is

required for the management of environmental migration. Use of the funds at strategic points through prioritization of needs is required to get maximum benefits even from a small amount allocated. Allocation of funds for climate change issue needs to be coordinated and accountable.

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1. Background

Bangladesh is the eighth most populous country in the world (165 million in 2015). Of the total population, 60.63 per cent (87 million people) lie in the 15-to-49-year-old age bracket. The availability of such a huge workforce is surely a demographic dividend for Bangladesh. Exposed to a challenging social environment – which involves high rates of unemployment and underemployment, poverty, land scarcity and low wages for less-skilled and as well as skilled workers – a good number of Bangladeshi people are on the search for overseas employment. In addition, the demand for cheaper workers and shortages of semi-skilled and less-skilled workers in destination countries have created opportunities for overseas employment for Bangladeshis (Barkat and Ahmed, 2014).

There are many factors that shape the migration scenario, among these is environment and climate change. Weather-related hazards are connected not only to typical variations in weather patterns, but also to long-term changes in the global climate (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), 2012). The association between climate change and migration is very complex and driven by a number of social, economic and political factors. However, climate change directly and indirectly causes migration in Bangladesh. Extreme weather is one of the most distinct manifestations of climate change that impacts the migration pattern (IPCC, 2014).

Environmental migration is a multicausal and multidimensional phenomenon. Environmental and climatic factors are both drivers and pull factors, and they are mediated by economic, social, political and demographic aspects (International Organization for Migration (IOM), 2014: xi). Despite the lack of exact figures, there is now little doubt that parts of the globe are becoming less habitable due to factors such as climate change. Climate change, on its own, does not directly displace people or cause them to move, but it produces environmental effects and exacerbates current vulnerabilities that make it difficult for people to survive where they are. Usually extreme environmental events such as cyclones, hurricanes, tsunamis and tornadoes tend to capture the media headlines (IOM, 2009: 9, 14, 15). All regions are likely to experience some adverse effects of climate change, but less developed regions are especially vulnerable because a large share of their economies depend on climate-sensitive sectors and their adaptive capacity is low due to low levels of human, financial and natural resources, as well as limited institutional and technological capability (Kniveton et al., 2008). However, there is no clear picture about how many people are and will be displaced or will migrate as a consequence of the effects of climate change, when this will happen and where. Maximalist school of thought expects large numbers of people will be displaced as a consequence of climate change. On the other hand, minimalist approach stresses that migration and displacement is triggered by complex and multiple causes, among which climate change is just one, and predicts that the number of cases where displacement can be directly linked to the effects of climate change will not be large. But a protection perspective would take a human security approach and highlight the need to address displacement and migration in the context of climate change regardless of numbers because of the vulnerabilities such movements create for affected persons (Kälin and Schrepfer, 2012: 11–13).

Bangladesh is one of the most climate-vulnerable countries in the world, and climate change has already impacted the lives and livelihoods of people living in coastal areas and in arid and semi-arid regions of Bangladesh. Floods, tropical cyclones, storm surges, sea-level rise, river erosion, salinity, desertification and droughts are becoming more frequent and will be more severe in the coming years and decades. The effects of climate change will make it more difficult for Bangladesh to fully achieve the goals of the Sustainable

Development Goals (SDGs).[1] It is essential and timely that the country implements strategies to adapt to climate change and safeguard the future well-being of its people. The challenge of climate change – worsened/aggravated by Bangladesh's high population density – is significant in view of the likely impact on people's livelihood and well-being. It also affects Bangladesh's capacity to improve its medium-term growth performance and thereby lift some 55 million people in safety nets and out of poverty.

There is no clear evidence about the portion of people of Bangladesh migrating internationally compared to internal migrants due to climate change. The information – regarding regional migration due to climate change – known through key informant interviews (KIIs) and discussions with community people is still limited. However, such migration patterns have been found reportedly in vulnerable areas in Bangladesh – mostly in the coastal region and border areas. Marginalized people from char areas also try to migrate outside Bangladesh. Climate migration is closely linked with vulnerabilities – and, in majority of the cases, it is forced. Vulnerabilities of the people in the affected areas are not only linked with natural disasters, but often other factors like belonging to ethnic and/or religious minority groups and living in geographically challenged areas of coastal belt and ***chars*** (sandbar islands) also act as reasons behind the migration.

Taking into consideration the climate change trend, there is ample scope for policymakers to intervene in this relatively less explored area of international migration due to climate change to combat the newer dimensions of the future challenges.

1.2. Objective

The objective of the study is to recommend management solutions to climate migration and how to facilitate migration as an adaptation strategy.

1.3. Scope and Methodology

Any effective policy recommendations for betterment of migrants need to consider all the interlinked issues in a unified and holistic manner. Fragmented and compartmentalized research approaches to the issues may create non-coherence and discontinuity in the recommended policies and strategies. Hence, the Human Development Research Centre (HDRC) perceived all the relevant issues in an encompassing methodological and analytic framework.

Due to lack of established theoretical framework and precise apportionment of climate change-induced disasters among all disasters, the relevant terminologies (such as environmental migration) have been analysed in a broader singular analytical framework focusing on "climate migration".

The current research was primarily based on secondary information focused on existing literatures. However, to supplement, complement and validate the findings, information was collected from relevant policymakers and practitioners through KIIs. It is notable that the key informants are not responsible for any of the conclusions drawn in this accompanying study; rather, the authors of this study are solely responsible for all the analysis and conclusions drawn. The focus group discussions (FGDs) with international (returning) migrants were organized in the process. A number of in-depth interviews with international (returning) migrants were also conducted. Pockets of migration-prone areas were selected prior to organize such FGDs and interviews, and local community-based organizations and local government institutes were consulted in the process. These were conducted in the Uttar Bedkashi Union and Daksin Bedkashi Union in Koira Upazila in Khulna District.

1 The SDGs, with 17 goals and 169 targets to achieve by 2030, directly considers the issue of climate change. According to the 13th goal, the SDGs sees governments pledging to "Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts". The other goals and targets also cover multidimensional aspects of climate change.

Extracting from the information, a set of viable recommendations were made to promote the preferred course of action. Linkages and dynamics between the relevant institutes and migrants were explored in this assignment.

1.4. Limitations

(a) The study focuses on the aspects of climate migration (international); internal migration has not been the focus.

(b) There is no official data about the people of Bangladesh migrating internationally due to climate change. The relevant information were gathered through KIIs and group discussions, are limited and not conclusive.

(c) The current research is primarily based on secondary information focused on existing literatures and KIIs, with a very limited field-level research. Extensive field-level research has not been conducted due to time and resource constraints.

Chapter 2

Rights and Legal Perspective

Climate change is likely to affect everyone globally to some degree, whether in the form of social, psychological, economic or environmental change, or a combination of all these. Some people will invariably be more affected than others. Typically, these will be the poorest people and the most vulnerable communities (Baker, Ehrhart and Stone, 2008:44). But the issue of a legal framework to address environmental migration is a widely debated topic. There is no internationally accepted legal definition or specific status for people on the move due to environmental factors, and no legal instrument dedicated specifically to this issue. As a result, ensuring the protection of affected individuals seem challenging in the absence of one instrument that identifies the applicable rights and corresponding States' obligations tailored to the specificity of environmental migration (IOM, 2014:27).

International Refugee Law provides protection for people fleeing abroad insofar as it contains the prohibition of non-refoulement, that is, it prevents the forcible return to a country of persecution (including non-rejection at the border of countries of refuge where this would lead to such return) and provides refugees with a legal status with attributed status rights. However, international Refugee Law was not conceived to protect persons displaced across borders by the effects of climate change, even though they flee particular perils and therefore, may find themselves in a refugee-like situation. The refugee definition of Article 1A(2) of the 1951 Refugee Convention 128 contains three key elements: (a) presence outside the country of origin; (b) because of persecution on account of specific reasons (race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion); and (c) inability of unwillingness to avail oneself of the protection of one's country. People displaced across borders by the effects of climate change fulfil the first criterion if they cross an international border. However, in most cases, they do not fulfil the criterion of being persecuted on account of any of the aforementioned grounds. Qualifying main polluters or even the international community as a persecutor would create substantial difficulties, because one would have to establish the causality between their action/inaction and the respective climate change impact in each individual case, something that is almost impossible at the present stage of scientific knowledge. Present Refugee Law provides little protection for persons displaced across borders by the effects of climate change. Those who are not compelled to leave and able to return can be termed as "migrants". As such, they enjoy general human rights protection, but human rights law do not regulate their admission to a foreign territory, nor their continued stay there. Unlike Refugee Law, the Human Rights Law does not provide a specific legal status to migrants. The International Convention on Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families describes the term migrant worker as a "person who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national" (Article 2 (1)). This notion does not generally capture those who opted to leave their place of origin due to climate-related events (Kälin and Schrepfer, 2012:31–34). However, the relevant standard operating procedures and guidelines need be designed in such a way that they are capable of protecting the rights of those on the move because of climate change.

However, human rights laws do provide some indirect support. According to IOM, while the 1951 Refugee Convention is not applicable to environmentally driven movements, several existing legal principles and branches of law can be applied to climate migration, including provisions under the Human Rights Law, as well as principles of the International Humanitarian Law and of Environmental Law (2014:27). In that sense, protection – as understood in the human rights context – allows to cover gaps in the protection as identified under the refugee and humanitarian context, since the human rights framework is concerned with the respect for the rights of all individuals and at all times (ibid., 29). The plethora of international human rights norms and jurisprudence that have been developed over the past six decades since the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) provides effective framework in addressing the human

consequences of climate change. The United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) adopted the UDHR that can be used to assist in the interpretation of the articles on human rights in the Charter. Bearing the same spirit, the international community has adopted many international human rights instruments. The right to life is protected in both the UDHR and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights; and as articulated by the Deputy High Commissioner for Human Rights, climate change can have both a direct and indirect impact on human life. Another fundamental human right that is likely to be violated due to climate change is the right to health. Article 25(1) of the UDHR states: "Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family. ..." As an outcome of climate change, there will be erratic behaviour of rainfall, and although not specifically articulated in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), the right to water is intricately related to the preservation of a number of rights underpinning the right to health in Article 12 and the right to food in Article 11. Climate change-induced disasters will detrimentally affect the right to food in a significant way; and the right to adequate food is recognized in several international instruments, most comprehensively in the ICESCR. Human rights, therefore, capture a range of concerns that are evidently relevant while impacts of climate change are precisely having effects. Existing international human rights standards apply not only to nationals of a country but also to non-nationals, irrespective of their legal status. In this context, it is especially relevant to recall that the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the treaty body that monitors the implementation of the ICESCR, has clearly specified that States are under an obligation to respect the economic, social and cultural rights of migrants, including irregular migrants (Naser and Afroz, 2009:143–149).

In 2005, the UNGA convened a World Conference on Disaster Reduction in Hyogo, Japan, in January 2005 where an action plan, the Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA) – Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters – was formulated for the period of 2005–2015. The five priority areas under the HFA were as follows: (a) ensure that disaster risk reduction (DRR) is a national and a local priority with a strong institutional basis for implementation; (b) identify, assess and monitor disaster risks and enhance early warning; (c) use knowledge, innovation and education to build a culture of safety and resilience at all levels; (d) reduce the underlying risk factors; and (e) strengthen disaster preparedness for effective response at all levels. The focus of the HFA was on building resilience of the affected communities. There was little mention about how to address related displacement or migration.

The Nansen Initiative is a State-led, bottom-up consultative process intended to identify effective practices and build consensus on key principles and elements to address the protection and assistance needs of persons displaced across borders in the context of disasters, including the adverse effects of climate change. It is based upon a pledge by the Governments of Switzerland and Norway supported by several States, to cooperate with interested States and other relevant stakeholders, and was launched in October 2012.

The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030 was adopted at the Third United Nations World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction, held from 14 to 18 March 2015 in Sendai, Miyagi, Japan. As the HFA covered 2005 to 2015, the Sendai Framework was formulated as the instrument to determine a DRR plan for the post-2015 period.

Climate migration was incorporated in the Cancun Adaptation Framework at the Sixteenth Conference of the Parties (COP16) of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). This framework recognized the probable impacts of climate change on human mobility and thereby urged the parties (governments) to consider the issue. The relevant paragraph in 14 (f) is as follows:[2]

> Measures to enhance understanding, coordination and cooperation with regard to climate change induced displacement, migration and planned relocation, where appropriate, at the national, regional and international levels.

2 UNFCCC, Report of the Conference of the Parties on its sixteenth session; Addendum – Part two: Action taken by the Conference of the Parties at its sixteenth session, FCCC/CP/2010/7/Add.1 (2011), available from http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2010/cop16/eng/07a01.pdf#page=4

In the succeeding meetings, the COP aimed to assess the impacts of environmental displacement, migration and human mobility under the loss and damage section. The Warsaw International Mechanism for Loss and Damage associated with Climate Change Impacts was finally developed at the COP19 Summit held at Warsaw in 2013 and became permanent through the Paris Agreement. The Paris Agreement also aims to establish a task force to address the displacement arising from climatic factors.

The adoption of decision 1/COP16 was an important breakthrough for the human rights and the climate change agenda, since it was the first time that human rights language and principles had been included in an international climate change agreement (McAdam and Limon, 2015:8). The Twenty-first Conference of the Parties (COP21) to the UNFCCC, held in Paris was considered not only one of the most important environmental conferences ever held, but also one of the most important human rights gatherings of the past half-century (ibid., 2). The agreement recognizes the importance of averting, minimizing and addressing loss and damage associated with the adverse effects of climate change, and it also acknowledges the need to cooperate and enhance the understanding, action and support in different areas. The agreement suggested to form a task force to develop recommendations for integrated approaches to avert, minimize and address displacement related to the adverse impacts of climate change. In this agreement, developed countries intended to continue their existing collective goal to mobilize USD 100 billion per year by 2020 and extend this until 2025.

It is notable that the process for the National Adaptation Plans (NAP) and the National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPA), which enable the Parties to formulate and implement NAPs and NAPAs, was established back in 2001. The objectives of the NAP process are as follows:[3] (a) reduce vulnerability to the impacts of climate change, by building adaptive capacity and resilience; and (b) facilitate the integration of climate change adaptation (CCA), in a coherent manner, into relevant new and existing policies, programmes and activities, in particular, development of planning processes and strategies, within all relevant sectors and at different levels, as appropriate. NAPAs provide a process for least developed countries (LDCs) to identify priority activities that respond to their urgent and immediate needs to adapt to climate change – those for which, further delay would increase vulnerability and/or costs at a later stage.[4]

The issue of compensation[5] flow towards the developing nations from the developed countries has been a major issue in the whole discourse. UNFCCC Member Countries formulated and signed the Kyoto Protocol in 1997, which committed all wealthy countries to stabilize and reduce their greenhouse gas emissions to approximately 5 per cent below the 1990 level during the first "commitment period" of 2008 to 2012. The Kyoto Protocol recognizes that "developed countries […] are largely responsible for the current high levels of greenhouse gas emissions in the atmosphere, which are the result of more than 150 years of industrial activity". The main objective of the international climate negotiations within the UNFCCC is continually to limit countries' emissions of greenhouse gases in an effort to limit climate change. At the COP16 held in Cancun in 2010, the UNFCCC Member Countries signed the Cancun Adaptation Framework (CAF), which committed each Member Country to the prioritization of adaptation to climate change so that it received equal importance alongside the mitigation of climate change. Recognizing once again their larger responsibility, and the fact that many developing countries are vulnerable to the adverse effects of climate change, the UNFCCC's wealthy Member Countries have signed through the CAF and committed themselves to supporting the developing countries in their adaptation to climate change. This support includes funding, technology

3 UNFCCC, Overview – National adaptation plans (NAPs), 12 October 2016 (last modified), available from http://unfccc.int/adaptation/workstreams/national_adaptation_plans/items/7594.php

4 UNFCCC, National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs) (n.d.), available from http://unfccc.int/national_reports/napa/items/2719.php

5 The compensation term is debatable and not at all felt comfortable by the developed country. They do not like to officially use and/or accept this specific word in climate change-related negotiations and documents. A group of veteran negotiators from the least developed countries (LDCs) have also decided to "skip" this word at this phase as a diplomatic strategy, to keep the ball rolling.

transfer and capacity-building. It is notable that since 2008, the world's poor countries, led by the Government of the Philippines, as well as a number of government officials from several African countries, have tried to raise the issue of compensation in the UNFCCC framework. And this should be kept in mind that according to the IPCC and World Health Organization, there is a clear tendency that the world's poor are experiencing and will continue to experience the most serious consequences of climate change. This is due to two main reasons. First, the population in developing countries often lack the necessary resources to be able to adapt and protect themselves from even the smallest fluctuations in climate. Second, because of their geographical location in subtropical or tropical climate zones where climate changes have, and are predicted to have the biggest impact, the world's poor are, and will be more exposed to changes in the climate. However, the wealthy countries accept the premises of liability for climate change, but do not act accordingly in practice. The wealthy countries do not wish to discuss the issue of compensation for the damages and losses that climate change has caused (Jensen and Flanagan, 2013:22–29).

According to Huq and De Souza (2016), the negotiations at COP21 gave recognition to the concept of "loss and damage". These positions revolved around liability and compensation, which developing countries called for, but developed countries were unwilling to have included in the agreement. "Loss" applies to the complete disappearance of something, such as human lives, habitats or even species. "Damage" refers to something that can be repaired, such as a road or building or embankment. Thus, loss and damage from climate change refers to the complete and irrecoverable loss of some things and the repairable damage of other things due to the impacts of human-induced climate change. The Paris Agreement included anticipatory compensation mechanisms through risk insurance, assured the continuation of a global mechanism on loss and damage called the Warsaw International Mechanism, and gave recognition to the long-articulated position of many countries that have been arguing for support of short-term coping and longer-term adaptation when mitigation and adaptation efforts are insufficient to deal with the effects of climate change. Developed countries were not against the concept of loss and damage per se, but had to deal with political realities back home, and this set their negotiating positions. But developing countries were similarly clear that leaving loss and damage out entirely was a deal breaker for them. Going into COP21, developing countries had three main demands:

- First, make the Warsaw Mechanism permanent;
- Second, elevate the issue of displacement and migration to one of nine action areas under the agreed work programme of the mechanism. They called for it to be under a separate "facility" that recognizes the importance of the need to deal with displacement and migration due to climate change; and
- Third, developing countries asked for some form of financing for irrecoverable losses and damage.

Despite the strong opposing negotiating positions during COP 21, the final agreement presented a number of interesting conclusions resulting from successful climate diplomacy.[6]

There were also some positive tunes found in the Twenty-Second Conference of Parties (COP22) held in Marrakech, Morocco in mid-November 2016. The presence of Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina of Bangladesh at this event showed the continued importance that Bangladesh gives to climate change, and also to the significant role that Bangladesh has played at the COPs over the years. According to an expert,[7] as no country negotiates in the UNFCCC as a single country, but rather within negotiating groups, Bangladesh negotiates as a member of the LDCs group, and was at one time, the chair of the group. But now, Bangladesh remains in the senior group of the LDC negotiators. The expert also clarified that "Bangladesh is not attending these events to get something for itself, but rather for the vulnerable counties as a whole and in that capacity, I must rate Bangladesh's negotiators and other participants

6 S. Huq and R-M. De Souza, "Climate compensation: How loss and damage fared in the Paris Agreement", New Security Beat, 12 January 2016, available from www.newsecuritybeat.org/2016/01/loss-damage-fared-paris-agreement/

7 Dr Saleemul Huq gives his opinion in his article titled "Politics of climate change: Bangladesh's role in the climate change negotiations" published in The Daily Star on 17 November 2016 (available from www.thedailystar.net/opinion/politics-climate-change/bangladeshs-role-the-climate-change-negotiations-1315795)

at the CoPs as second to none!" The key informant has confirmed that the negotiation teams from Bangladesh have been able to put them in a well-equipped and strong place in negotiation over the years. In one seminar in held in August 2016 in Dhaka, an expert[8] mentioned that Bangladesh should remain very active in international negotiations, but stressed on "self-reliance" by saying: "Bangladesh should not wait for external assistance; the country has to proceed its own too."

8 Dr Qazi Kholiquzzaman Ahmad argued this in a seminar held in Dhaka in August 2016 on cross-border implications of climate-induced displacement in the upcoming international events. A description of the seminar can be found at www.newstoday.com.bd/index.php?option=details&news_id=2450426&date=2016-08-21

Chapter 3

Environmental Migration in the Context of Bangladesh

3.1. The Status at a Glance

The livelihoods of a majority of the people in Bangladesh depend mostly on land, water bodies and agriculture. Environmental hazards affecting these resources result in vulnerability and marginalization of the people depending on those. The portion of the people who cannot cope up with such disasters in the affected region are forced to migrate in other areas – perceived as relatively safer and/or having more livelihood opportunities.

Human influence on the climate system is clear, and recent anthropogenic emissions of greenhouse gases are the highest in history. Recent climate changes have had widespread impacts on human and natural systems. Warming of the climate system is unequivocal, and since the 1950s, many of the observed changes are unprecedented over decades to millennia. The atmosphere and ocean have warmed, the amounts of snow and ice have diminished, and the sea level has risen. Over the period 1901–2010, global mean sea level rose by 0.19 m. The rate of sea-level rise since the mid-nineteenth century has been larger than the mean rate during the previous two millennia. It is very likely that regions of high surface salinity, where evaporation dominates, have become more saline. In recent decades, changes in climate have caused impacts on natural and human systems on all continents and across the oceans. Impacts are due to the observed climate change, irrespective of its cause, indicating the sensitivity of natural and human systems to changing climate (IPCC, 2014:40–47).

According to the International Displacement Monitoring Centre, in 2013, around 21.9 million people were displaced by disasters in no less than 119 countries, which is significantly larger than the number of people newly displaced due to conflict and violence (that is 8.2 million). This is a cruel global phenomenon, and Bangladesh is no exception. In between 2008 and 2013, a total of 6.94 million people were displaced due to disasters, and placed Bangladesh in fifth position in the World Risk Index, while 4,430 people were displaced due to such reasons per million population of Bangladesh. Cyclone Mahasen in May 2013 alone caused displacement of around 1.1 million people in Bangladesh (2014:7, 18, 32, 33 and 58). The 2011 Vulnerability Index, assembled by the risk advisory firm Maplecroft, shows that Asian and Pacific countries represent six out of the ten most vulnerable countries worldwide, all ranked as countries at extreme risk. Bangladesh tops the list, followed by India (second), Nepal (fourth), Philippines (sixth), Afghanistan (eighth) and Myanmar (tenth) (Asian Development Bank (ADB), 2012:4). The geophysical location, land characteristics, multiplicity of rivers and the monsoon climate render Bangladesh highly vulnerable to natural hazards. The coastal morphology of Bangladesh influences the impact of natural hazards on the area. Especially in the south-eastern area, natural hazards increase the vulnerability of the coastal dwellers. Floods, tropical cyclones, storm surge, tornadoes, riverbank erosion, drought and earthquakes are the disasters faced in Bangladesh (Islam, n.d). A majority of the portion of its land and its people are at risk of many natural disasters. The following table reflects this:

Table 1: Vulnerable area and vulnerable population in Bangladesh

	Flood	Flash flood	Drought	Cyclone, tidal surge, salinity
Vulnerable land area (%)	61.09	23.09	45.89	31.99
Vulnerable population (%)	71.47	26.75	45.73	26.71

Source: Goswami and Islam, 2013.

In about the last 30 years, the country has experienced around 200 natural disasters, which causes a loss of USD 16 million.[9] Relevant forecast predicts added uncertainty about the time frame, scale and frequency of extreme events (The Asia Foundation, 2012a:14). According to the Comprehensive Disaster Management Programme (CDMP II), one in every seven people in Bangladesh will become an environmental migrant by 2050 (2014:VII). However, despite significant scientific improvements in climate modelling, one cannot accurately predict the impacts of climate change on weather and environment (Brown, 2008:24), which makes the issue complicated for policymakers.

According to the Seventh Five-Year Plan of Bangladesh (Fiscal year (FY) 2016–FY 2020), the geographic location and features of Bangladesh has made the country extremely vulnerable to the effects of climate change, where 88 per cent of the land mass consists of floodplains, sitting on a delta. Moreover, the topography is flat, and majority of the landmass lies within 10 m. above mean sea level. An IOM study highlighted that environmentally vulnerable regions of Bangladesh are faced with the consequences of growing pressure on the environment as a result of the increasing demand for water, insufficient maintenance of existing embankments and other environmental protection measures, and rapid and unmanaged urbanization (2010:X). These, all together, are adding new problems to the climate change issues in Bangladesh and making the situation more pressing than before.

According to the survey findings of CDMP II, 62 per cent of households in the survey area[10] were displaced temporarily and 0.4 per cent households were displaced permanently due to floods (2014: 44), which is considered as one of the major outcomes of climate change. This information may show a relatively good state – where most displacement due to flood were temporary, but not permanent. However, the analysis could be done in a different way. Assumptions can be made as a significant portion of the temporary migrants (who returned home after the flood) did not have adequate social network and/or economic backup and/or skill enough to go another place permanently to ensure better livelihood opportunity. In addition, if in the future, waterlogging remains for a longer period, then those people might face more vulnerability than those who still somehow can manage to migrate temporarily.

According to the Dhaka Tribune,[11] based on specialists' research-based arguments and confirmed through KIIs, vast coastal arable land in Bangladesh may become barren because of salinity due to a climate change-triggered rise in the sea level. It has also been warned that none of the existing varieties of salinity-tolerant rice can stand the level of salinity that has affected some of the coastal districts. Bangladesh Rice Research Institute (BRRI) and Bangladesh Institute of Nuclear Agriculture (BINA) have invented seven varieties of rice that can stand salinity of up to 8 deci Siemens per metre (dS/M). However, the salinity-tolerant breeds developed by the BRRI and BINA have failed to gain popularity among the farmers because of their low productivity and high irrigation dependency. At the same time, salinity in more than half of the arable lands in five coastal districts has gone well past that level. According to the Soil Resource Development Institute, the level of salinity in 79,000 hectares of affected land in the Khulna district was identified as S3 – meaning the salinity ranged from 8.1 dS/M to 16 dS/M. Likewise, 62,000 hectares in Patuakhali, 99,000 in Satkhira, 62,000 in Bagerhat and 38,000 hectares of salinity-affected lands in Barguna were also tagged as S3. It is notable that the traditional varieties of most crops can withstand salinity of up to 0.7 dS/M. In 1973, around 833,000 hectares of land in 19 coastal districts were salinity-affected, where it has increased to 1,002,000 hectares in 2014. Another article in that same daily[12] confirms that population growth rates in some of the worst salinity-hit coastal districts of Bangladesh have become negative, coupled with a staggering growth in slums, point at a

9 Estimation of such figures, in most cases, cannot cover all the non-monetized costs associated due to methodological limitation, which leaves the figure in a lower side than the actual.

10 The surveyed districts were Bhola, Chandpur, Jessore, Khulna, Kurigram, Nawabganj, Satkhira, Shariatpur and Sirajganj.

11 A.B. Siddique, "Salinity may ruin vast tract of arable coastal land", Dhaka Tribune, 14 May 2014. Available from http://archive.dhakatribune.com/environment/2014/may/14/salinity-may-ruin-vast-tract-arable-coastal-land

12 A.B. Siddique, "Salinity-triggered migration now alarming", Dhaka Tribune, 30 November 2015 (updated). Available from http://archive.dhakatribune.com/bangladesh/2015/oct/13/salinity-triggered-migration-now-alarming

mass exodus of agro-based people towards the urban areas. The intrusion of salinity into vast tracts of arable land in these districts can be directly linked to the global climate change – the climbing world temperature and the consequent rise in the sea levels. According to the population census conducted in 2011, the average population growth rate in Bangladesh was 1.47 per cent. Compared to this figure, the worst victim districts of salinity display negative population growth rate in Jhalakathi (0.17%), Barisal (0.13%), Khulna (0.25%) and Bagerhat (0.47%). In fact, population growth rates in most other districts in Bangladesh's coastal belt have also drastically fallen. During the same period, the slums in the country's urban areas have inflated – where between 1997 and 2004, the slum growth is 366 per cent and household growth in slum area in 77 per cent. And, it is assumed that a large portion of people from those salinity-affected districts have to join these slums. This can be viewed as causation behind migration from those districts affected by climate change. It cannot be disaggregated to estimate the proportion of these displaced people who migrated internationally, but key informants have confirmed that there is a tendency of cross-border migration in those areas.

At the same time, a recently conducted study in Khulna, Patuakhali, Sunamganj and Rajshahi reconfirms that 49 per cent and 30 per cent people respectively perceives that natural disasters and environmental degradation are compelling reasons to migrate. This same study also identifies using logistic regression model that land size and migration have a strong relationship, which shows that household holding low amount of land are more prone to migrate (IOM, 2016).

Many factors, including coercion and land grabbing for shrimp cultivation and suffering of the religious minority group (namely, Hindus), have increased the number of landless people that is directly related to migration. According to Barkat (2016a:100–104), man-made aggression in those areas through shrimp cultivation in saline water and its related industry trade added a new dimension to the history of poverty deprivation in Bangladesh. By adopting different projects (in the decade 1960–1970) in the name of flood control and accelerating agricultural activities on one hand and without considering implications, recognition to shrimp culture as an industry was bestowed through the Second Five-Year Plan (1980–1985). All types of land in and outside embankment of the coastal region, paddy land with historically rich harvest, land under salt production, abandoned and marginal land, mangrove forest region and wetlands were indiscriminately used for shrimp cultivation. More alarming, salinity of land in the region of shrimp cultivation has reduced the productivity of granular crops. As a consequence, food security of poor people has been much threatened. Empirical evidence clearly indicates that owners of shrimp enclosure are indeed miscreants and extremely powerful. Poor/marginal/small farmers in Bangladesh are often compelled to participate in the struggle for establishing legal rights over their own lands. In this battle, owners of shrimp enclosures often misuse their power to grab land belonging to the poor communities. In the course of this process, many of the victims leave their locality, ancestral land and properties and homestead and are becoming compelled to migrate somewhere else. These all together act as push factors for migration.

The trend of natural hazards induced by climate change is on an increasing swing in the South Asian countries, including Bangladesh. The ADB forecasts that environmental harm due to sea-level rise in association with storm surge impacts will be significant in both the Bay of Bengal and the Arabian Sea, where cyclonic activities are projected to intensify. The hazard of coastal flooding is likely to be significantly increased in Bangladesh (2012:23).

The positive progress is that the Government of Bangladesh recognizes this issue, and plans to use pro-poor climate change management strategy. The Seventh Five-Year Plan of Bangladesh (FY 2016–FY 2020) aims to work on two fronts: adaptation and mitigation. The adaptation strategy will encompass various measures to adequately prepare for the inevitable consequences of climate change, whereas mitigation efforts will cover activities aimed at reducing our carbon footprint (Planning Commission, 2015:411–412). Thus, it is envisaged that the migration issues related to such climate change will be dealt mostly through adaptation strategies. However, for Bangladesh, as the plan recognizes, the key challenge will remain to identify and adopt climate-adaptive and resilient measures suitable to the local contexts and needs (ibid., 417). Thus, migration, due to such changes or any other reasons, should not be perceived as an isolated issue, rather it should be considered as an integral part of the development process.

3.2. Climate Change-Induced International Migration

A large number of forced internal migrations – both temporary and permanent – take place due to disasters as a result of climate change. Categorizing broadly, the disasters are of two types: (a) sudden-onset event (such as flood, cyclone and river erosion); and slow-onset processes (such as coastal erosion, saltwater intrusion, rising temperature, changing rainfall pattern and drought). The sudden-onset events lead mostly to internal migration, and there is no clear evidence of mass migration across borders (where irregular migrants are likely to face difficulty in accessing post-disaster humanitarian support) for such reasons. But, the longer-term effects of the slow-onset processes are difficult to assess. The probability will still be high that those most vulnerable groups of people will be lacking of the resources needed for international migration.

Yet there is no clear evidence about the portion of people of Bangladesh migrating internationally compared to internal migrants due to the climate change. Though such trend – known through KIIs and discussion with community peoples – is still limited, the unpredictability of the impacts of the slow-onset processes makes the area grey.

As Bangladesh is one of the major labour-sending countries in the globe, this existing network may aggravate international migration particularly from the affected areas. In addition, some of the regions with environmental vulnerabilities (that is south-west and north-east) share borders with India. Thus, the analysis about the probable outcomes of the slow-onset processes will vary by regional migration (principally from Bangladesh to India), typical labour migration (such as Gulf States), and permanent type of overseas migration (such as to the United Kingdom and the United States).

Regional migration is not a minor issue for Bangladesh. Bangladesh has 4,000 km of border, with India connecting five Indian states. More importantly, due to the partition of India in 1947, millions of people crossed in both the directions. The Liberation War in 1971 also caused lot of regional movement. These historical incidences have created deep-rooted interconnections including kith and kinship among the peoples of these two countries, which also plays major role in taking decision about regional migration.

According to ADB, there are substantial flows between the countries in this region, in particular from Bangladesh to India and especially to the far eastern Indian states of West Bengal and Assam. Indeed, it has been suggested that this is the largest single international migration flow, with more people involved than estimated for top-ranked Mexico–United States migration flows (2012:17). However, most of such migrations from Bangladesh occur as undocumented, and the focus on it – very often – goes to the national security instead of climate migration. In addition, it is very difficult to distinguish between the groups – regular and irregular migrants – or short-term movements for trade or as labour, and the relatively permanent type migration. Lack of data on it makes the issue debatable. Besides, lack of proven one-to-one distinct relationship between cross-border (international) migration and climate change-induced disasters make it difficult to draw any conclusion.

Sociocultural affinities between the natives (Bengalis/Bangalees) in Bangladesh and in the West Bengal of India play a major role in the interconnection and inevitable cross-border movements – both documented and undocumented. It is found that regular and irregular, short- and medium-term migration occurs frequently among the day-labourer for both Bangladeshis and Indians. These complex geo-economical and sociocultural factors make it more difficult to establish and assess the relation between cross-border (international) migration and climate change-induced disasters. However, the longer term impacts of events of nature and slow-onset processes may contribute to the dynamics of regional migration, particularly applicable to the environmentally vulnerable south-west and north-west regions of Bangladesh. The data on long distance international labour migration is available and much more reliable, compared to that of the regional migration. However, the existing studies do not prove any substantive link between climate migration and long distance international labour migration. According to IOM, international evidence is also inconclusive on this issue, and intervention on this may result as unsubstantial in the short-term (2010:30). Despite this, taking into consideration of the climate change trend, there is ample scope for policymakers to intervene in this relatively less explored area to combat the newer dimensions of the future challenges.

Seeing climate migration as the failure of adaptation is not the proper approach to advance with the issue. Rather, migration represents a logical and legitimate livelihood diversification and adaptation strategy and is likely to be of growing importance in the future (IOM, 2010:4). In this perspective, international migration may often work as a rational option. In addition, according to the Climate Change Perception Survey, people of Bangladesh universally have heard about the term "climate change", and they have ideas on it. Almost 80 per cent of the households under this survey mentioned about loss of agricultural production, loss of trees/ gardens/houses, loss of domestic animals, loss of income and health hazards as a result of climate change (The Asia Foundation, 2012b:9). This indicates that the people of Bangladesh are aware about the issue, and many of them are affected by it. Thus, it is imperative that if they faced such disasters, there is a high possibility that they will look for newer options in adaptation, one of which can be international migration.

However, such migration has been found reportedly in vulnerable areas in Bangladesh, mostly in coastal regions and border areas. A recent study (IOM, 2016) in Khulna, Patuakhali, Sunamganj and Rajshahi states that at least 2 per cent people migrated internationally for short term to combat the adverse effects of climate change.

The research team under this assignment enquired the issue in some areas in Koyra ***Upazila*** of Khulna district. The current research collected information from two unions: South Bedkashi and North Bedkashi of Koyra ***Upazila***. It has been found that climate change-induced natural disasters, as well as lack of services in the rural areas, work as push factors for migration. According to the key informants and participants in the group discussions, a small portion of them migrate to India, undocumented in most cases and reportedly receive relatively lower wages than others because of their undocumented status. Most of them who work in India work there on temporary basis, though some of them have also argued that shrinking livelihood opportunities in their localities in Bangladesh work as an instigating factor to push some of them to try for permanent migration to the neighbouring countries. At the same time, it has also been found that a small portion of people have already migrated permanently.

The inhabitants of Koyra have been suffering from salinity problems that largely affect their livelihoods. Salinity affects the production of crops, pastures and trees by reducing the growth and hindering plant reproduction. Salinity and tidal floods, reportedly by the farmers, have put negative impacts in every part of the coastal community. People are forced to migrate from these areas to nearby cities or the capital due to loss of income and food, resulting from adverse impacts of climate change. These resource-poor people, constantly affected by frequent extreme events and slow impacts of salinity, tend to move to new areas. The agricultural land is losing productivity due to high soil salinity and also losing moisture content due to high temperatures. Parallel to that, people suffer from consuming and cultivating with saline water. Hence, to maintain their livelihoods, it is important for these people to find alternative sources of drinking water and land that can be irrigated with non-saline water.

Major occupations of the inhabitants are fishing, cutting woods, collecting honey, shrimp cultivation and catching crab in the Sundarbans.[13] Some also work as day-labourers, and some are involved with small businesses. These groups of people cannot cultivate paddy due to the high presence of salinity. Many a times, these groups face threatening situations and are held captive by bandits while collecting wood, honey and crabs. This risk of their lives is also one of the reasons why these communities feel that their livelihoods are at risk.

In the last couple of years, people of Koyra faced several types of environmental disasters like river erosion, cyclone, drought and heavy rainfall. River erosion is one of the major problems reported by the people in that area. Homesteads, cultivable land, fish farms, domestic animals and crops are damaged due to river erosion.

13 The Sundarbans is a natural region in Southern Bangladesh and extreme southern part of the Indian state of West Bengal in the vast river delta on the Bay of Bengal. It is the largest single block of tidal halophytic mangrove forest in the world.

Due to salinity, paddy cultivation on arable lands is almost discontinued. In almost every year, different types of cyclones hit this area and destroy properties. In May 2009, Cyclone Aila, a cyclonic storm with wind speed up to 120 km/hour, hit the south-west coastal zone, the same places that were vastly devastated by Cyclone Sidr in November 2007. Right before Aila, a smaller cyclone Bijli also hit the same area in April 2009, Koyra of Khulna district and Shyamnagar and Assasuni of Satkhira district were badly affected by Aila. Though the death toll of Cyclone Aila was relatively less, the cyclone caused severe damage of infrastructures, human habitat, cultivable land, standing crops and caused huge influxes of saline water to the agricultural land and other freshwater areas. Cyclone Aila caused displacement of thousands of people who found their shelter on the embankments, educational institutions and cyclone shelters. However, there is a possibility that a portion – might be a little portion, according to the people of that area – who could not cope adequately had to migrate to India in search of work. It can be noted that according to the population census conducted in 2011, the average population growth rate in Bangladesh was 1.47 per cent; while in Khulna, the population growth was negative (-0.25%). This is an indication of out-migration from those areas are triggered by climate change and environmental degradation. It cannot be disaggregated to estimate the proportion of these displaced people who migrated internationally, but it is confirmed that there is a tendency of cross-border migration in those areas.

Another study (conducted by the Centre for Climate Change and Environmental Research team of BRAC University)[14] confirms that from a census conducted in Munshiganj and Gabura union under Shaymnagar Upazila of Satkhira district in Khulna region,[15] mostly, the day-labourers were migrating. According to this survey, migrant households receive jobs within the quartile range of 100 to 275 days per annum (mean 187 days) comparing with the non-migrant households that receive jobs within the quartile range of 90–230 days (mean 167 days). It also revealed that mean daily income of the non-migrant household is less than 62 Bangladesh Taka (Tk) than that of the migrant households. Around 85 per cent changed after their occupation after the incidence of Aila in 2009, and 40 per cent of the respondents reasoned the incidental occurrences of natural disasters as the main reason for this change. This study also finds out the reasons behind migration, such as unplanned change in the land use (agriculture to shrimp or fallow, natural wetland to shrimp and agriculture) and caused forced marginalization of small landowners, loss of habitable land, and thus work as push factor for migration.

Estimates from data of Bangladesh Census 2011 shows that 24.8 per cent of people (7,946 out of 31,980) in those two unions are of Hindus by religion. This proportion is disproportionately high compared to the national statistics, where 8.5 per cent of total population in Bangladesh is Hindu. In 1991, it was 10.5 per cent, and in 2001, it decreased to 9.2 per cent. This indicates that a smaller portion of people of Hindu community are leaving Bangladesh. According to Barkat (2016:69–71), in total 5 million people of 1.2 million Hindu households, which are 40 per cent of all Hindu households, have been affected by Enemy Property Act/Vested Property Act (EPA/VPA). The total amount of land dispossessed by the Hindu households due to EPA/VPA is estimated 2.6 million acres, which is 53 per cent of the original land ownership of the Hindu community. A recent study (IOM, 2016) identifies using the logistic regression model that land size and migration has a strong relationship, which shows that households holding low amounts of land are more likely to migrate. Consequently, a pervasive number of the people of the Hindu community have been compelled to leave the country. On average, each year, approximately 230,612 Hindu people have become the subjects of forced migration. A recent study (2015) conducted by the Centre for Climate Change and Environmental Research team of BRAC University[16] shows that from Munshiganj and Gabura union under Shaymnagar ***Upazila*** of

14 The study report is not published yet. However, information from a prepared presentation based on this research has been used here.

15 Satkhira was worst hit by Cyclone Aila in 2009. Climate change, coupled with overall environmental degradation, is the major challenge for this area. Slow-onset events (salinity) are more creeping than the rapid-onset events (storm surge).

16 The study report is not published yet. However, information from a prepared presentation based on this research has been used here.

Satkhira district in Khulna region, the household migration rate among Muslim households was 9.13 per cent (7.97% temporary[17] and 1.16% permanent[18]), which is 11.93 per cent among Hindu households (8.06% temporary and 3.87% permanent), and where the permanent migration is higher compared to that among the Muslim households (3.87% versus 1.16%); which, to some extent, reflect vulnerability of this community – minority, by religion. It is also to note that, according to this study, there is an indigenous community called Munda in that area whose household migration rate was 13.33 per cent, which is also higher compared to the rate prevailed among the Muslims, especially the rate of permanent migration is the highest (that is 6.67%) among the Mundas compared with the two other groups (that is Muslim: 1.16%, and Hindu: 3.87%), and also reflects vulnerability of this indigenous community. According to Barkat (2016a:100–101) in the last 30 years (1977–2007), 69 per cent of plain land indigenous people are functionally landless. In this duration, 38 per cent of the indigenous households were compelled to change their permanent addresses at least once. The indigenous people, irrespective of hills and plain land, have been dispossessed of their own land and that still continues. They are pushed to leave their own land and search for new residences.

Local government representatives, through some informal discussions, have expressed that there are some level of international migration that takes place due to climate change; however, the data available is inadequate. They argued that lack of adequate livelihood opportunities to ensure economic securities round the year in those areas that are directly affected by climate change is one of the key reasons for such migration. They have argued that the Government has many social safety nets programmes to support the distressed people, but they are simply inadequate to address the needs, and do not act as an "enough pull factor" to provide alternative livelihood options that will deter such undocumented migration. A few of the local government representatives have admitted that they have heard about some prescribed mechanism from the Government to track the migration data[19] at union levels, but they are not clear about it, and thereby it is not practiced.

There has been a rise in irregular migration to Malaysia. Previously, migrants used to go to Thailand and from there, through the forests, they trespassed into Malaysia. Since 2012, besides irregular migration to Malaysia, a new route is found among some of the Bangladeshis, who joined the Undocumented Myanmar Nationals to Malaysia through the sea route. In the first few months of 2015, 25,000 migrant workers were trafficked, and more than 7,000 of them were Bangladeshis.[20] Key informants have confirmed that a significant portion of these people are from the ***chars*** of Sirajganj, another disaster-prone area. It should be supplemented here that according to Barkat (2016a:63), ***char*** people of Bangladesh have historically gotten into a trap of distress, destitution and deprivation. Though the livelihood of the ***char*** people are mostly land-based, over 90 per cent of them are either absolute or functional landless. Conflict and violence seem to be a dilemma of the life in ***chars***, which cause livelihood entitlement failure and create an environment of push migration. Being the prey of utter marginalization, a section of the ***char*** people may choose informal and undocumented processes of overseas migration.

At this note, according to Barkat (2016a:56–58, 209–219), access to and ownership of ***khas*** (that is, government-owned land) land is a right of marginalized, landless farm households. Climate migrants' landless households do not have the access to the ***khas*** land adequately; if they have the access, they may not migrate, rather they would go for the land-based livelihood options. They are deprived of the right to

17 Movement for less than six months is denoted as temporary migration.

18 Movement for more than six months is denoted as permanent migration.

19 Probably, they refer to the circular (No. 46.018.032.00.00.001.2011.800; dated 27 November 2014) from Local Government Division under the Ministry of Local Government, Rural Development and Cooperatives of the Government of Bangladesh, which instruct to register all the children in union level by Union Parishad who are in the risk of unsafe migration. This intends to cover partial information about migration from rural to urban area. But this is unable to collect information about undocumented international migration. Moreover, this is not yet practiced at the local level.

20 From the discussion of Mr Hassan Imam (Programme Head, Migration Programme, BRAC and Keynote speaker) in a National Consultation on Irregular Migration to Malaysia, organized by the National Alliance for Migrants' Rights, Bangladesh (NAMR, B); see The Daily Star, "National Consultation on Irregular Migration to Malaysia", 30 June 2015, available from www.thedailystar.net/round-tables/national-consultation-irregular-migration-malaysia-104851

access ***khas*** land on the pretext of non-availability of the ***khas*** land and neoliberal development philosophy of "hands, not land, are key driving forces behind rural livelihood". But the research finds that each landless rural household can get the access and ownership of over 1 ***bigha khas*** land or water body: 16,135,000 ***bigha khas*** land or water body for 14,371,720 landless rural households. In the era of commercialization of agriculture, this amount of land may facilitate the livelihood of an average landless household of five members to a considerable extent. However, regulatory reforms and administrative actions need to be there so that the khas land recipient household could retain the entitled land and not become the prey of adverse selection. These are important policy issues, considering the glaring research findings of high non-retention rate at 54 per cent and deteriorated household welfare condition at 36 per cent.

3.3. Key Relevant Policies[21]

International migration (including cross-border migration) due to climate change has not been addressed by any specific policy in Bangladesh. Besides, as the climate migration is still a debated issue (as many other factors are contributing behind opting for migration) and such migration is mostly undocumented, this is not officially recognized. The Overseas Employment and Migrants Act 2013 (Act No. VLVIII of 2013) is not equipped to deal with such issues. However, climate change and relevant consequences are addressed in a number of policy documents of Bangladesh.

The Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan (BCCSAP) (2009) of the Government of Bangladesh does not address the issue of migration. This document recognizes that it needs to strengthen the existing institutions and may need to create and develop new ones to respond effectively to the enormous challenges of climate change. A national steering committee on climate change has been established to coordinate and facilitate national actions on climate change. It is chaired by the Ministry of Environment and Forests (MoEF), and comprises of the Secretaries of the concerned ministries and divisions, as well as representatives from the civil society and the business community. It is notable that Bangladesh was one of the first countries to develop a climate change strategy and action plan. The BCCSAP also focused on the importance to low-carbon development while emphasizing the principle of "common but differentiated responsibility" outlined in the UNFCCC, a demand made by many developing countries. With a total time frame of 10 years (2009–2019), the implementation of this plan has been divided into four distinct phases.[22]

It is notable that NAPA 2005 by the MoEF was formulated earlier to the BCCSAP as a response to the decision of the Seventh Session of the Conference of the Parties (COP7) of the UNFCCC. It tried to halt the mass scale migration to cities.[23]

The Government of Bangladesh addressed the potential impact of climate change in its Sixth Five-Year Plan (2011–2015). Unlike previous plans, the Sixth Five-Year Plan (2011–2015), for the first time in the history, pays significant attention to climate change issues and dedicates an entire chapter (Chapter 8: Environment, Climate Change, and Disaster Management for Sustainable Development) to adaptation and mitigation strategies for addressing climate change. In the Seventh Five-Year Plan (2016–2020), based on the experience and gathered knowledge of the Sixth Five-Year Plan, it also identifies specific focus on different approaches and programmes in line with the themes in BCCSAP 2009, as well as sets benchmarks for achieving programmatic goals and outlines implementation strategies.

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21 Information of this section is largely drawn from The Asia Foundation, A Situation Analysis of Climate Change Adaptation Initiatives in Bangladesh (The Asia Foundation, Dhaka, 2012).

22 The detail about BCCSAP can be found on Ministry of Environment and Forests, Government of Bangladesh, 2009.

23 In that same year of 2005, the United Nations General Assembly convened a World Conference on Disaster Reduction in Hyogo, Japan, in January 2005 where an action plan, the Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA) – Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters – was formulated for the period of 2005–2015. The five priority areas under the HFA were as follows: (a) ensure that DRR is a national and a local priority with a strong institutional basis for implementation; (b) identify, assess and monitor disaster risks and enhance early warning; (c) use knowledge, innovation and education to build a culture of safety and resilience at all levels; (d) reduce the underlying risk factors; and (e) strengthen disaster preparedness for effective response at all levels. The focus of the HFA was on building resilience of the affected communities. There was little mention about how to address related displacement or migration.

With the exception of the Coastal Zone Policy (Ministry of Water Resources, 2004), and the National Agriculture Policy (Ministry of Agriculture (MoA), 2011), before that, climate change issues were not sufficiently highlighted in the national policies. Given the importance of climate change and its potential adverse implications on socioeconomic development and people's lives and livelihoods, revision of sectoral policies and explicit inclusion of climate change impacts and considerations in these policies were highlighted.

The Government of Bangladesh hosted the South Asian Intergovernmental Consultation by the Nansen Initiative,[24] which was an indication of their commitment and support towards the issue of migration in the context of disasters and climate change.[25]

Some other relevant policy papers and legal documents also address climate change-induced disasters; that is

(a) Standing Orders on Disaster 2010;
(b) National Disaster Management Plan (2011–2015);
(c) Disaster Management Act (DMA) 2012;
(d) Bangladesh Climate Expenditure and Institutional Review, 2012; and
(e) Climate Fiscal Framework 2014.

The National Strategy on the Management of Disaster and Climate Induced Internal Displacement 2015 by the Government of Bangladesh is the first policy that fully focuses on migration, environment and climate change issues where the Government recognizes that displacements have grave implications for the rights and entitlements of individuals and communities who experience displacement. According to this strategy, the Government of Bangladesh recognizes that the NAPA 2005 has not prescribed any adaptation programmes or projects specifically related to the issue of climate-induced internal displacement (CIID). The BCCSAP 2009 – that is, the Government of Bangladesh's main climate change strategic framework – only stresses on the monitoring of such flows without spelling out a detailed plan of action for it. Furthermore, neither has the DMA (2012) created any institutional arrangements/national task force/national committees to deal with the issue. The Government of Bangladesh, therefore, recognizes that there is a clear gap in the broader strategic policy framework, specific legal mandate and dedicated institutional arrangements to deal with the issue. The Government of Bangladesh recognizes that it is important to shift its traditional approach to the displacement issue from relief-oriented to a more proactive and comprehensive displacement management, to address the displacement issue from a rights-based perspective. Such a new approach to displacement should incorporate DRR/CCA, as reflected in the Sendai Framework for DRR (2015–2030).[26] Against this backdrop, this Strategy was developed with a view to managing CIID in a comprehensive and rights-based manner. The Strategy should be seen as a part of the action plan for the Government of Bangladesh to implement the Sendai Framework. Most importantly, the Government of Bangladesh is committed to implementing the SDGs. The Strategy is an attempt to attain the SDGs with regard to CIID (2015:4–5). However, this strategy also does not cover the international aspects of climate change-induced migration.

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24 The Nansen Initiative is a State-led, bottom-up consultative process intended to identify effective practices and build consensus on key principles and elements to address the protection and assistance needs of persons displaced across borders in the context of disasters, including the adverse effects of climate change. It is based upon a pledge by the Governments of Switzerland and Norway, supported by several States, to cooperate with interested States and other relevant stakeholders, and was launched in October 2012. Details can be found at www.nanseninitiative.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/10/Agenda-Final-Draft.pdf

25 See www.nanseninitiative.org/south-asia-consultations-intergovernmental

26 The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030 was adopted at the Third United Nations World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction, held from 14 to 18 March 2015 in Sendai, Miyagi, Japan. As the HFA covered 2005 to 2015, the Sendai Framework was formulated as the instrument to determine a DRR plan for the post-2015 period.

In recent years, there has been a visible direction from the highest authority of Bangladesh – the Honourable Prime Minister – to combat the climate change issues, including its migration perspectives. The following comments from Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina of Bangladesh in the last five years also reflect the concern and commitments on the issue.

...[U]nless we address this challenge of climate-induced migrants' issue appropriately, we would never be able to attain the objectives of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

– Address of Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina of Bangladesh at the Twenty-Second Conference of the Parties (COP22) at Marrakech, Morocco on 15 November 2016.*

...[F]or harmony across our diverse societies, protection and promotion of the rights of migrants and refugees are equally essential...Bangladesh has, therefore, proposed a Global Compact on Migration addressing some of the longstanding gaps in migration governance. ... Bangladesh, as the current chair of the Global Forum on Migration and Development, will be happy to contribute to the development of the Compact.

– Address of Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina of Bangladesh at the high-level plenary meeting of the UNGA on addressing large movements of refugees and migrants at the UN headquarters on 19 September 2016.**

...[C]limate change poses formidable developmental challenge. We would not be able to sustain our development endeavors if climate change cannot be effectively dealt with [...] we realize that regional cooperation is critical for fostering sustainable development as well to achieving peaceful and stable societies. ... Today, we witness unprecedented migration and human mobility reshaping history and geography. Migration has been recognized as a key enabler of development in the 2030 Development Agenda. Cooperation is essential among our countries to harness full potential of migration.

– Address of Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina of Bangladesh at the UNGA on addressing large movements of refugees and migrants at the UN headquarters on 30 September 2015.***

It is widely accepted that the gravest effect of climate change may be on human migration. ...[E]xtreme weather events are already displacing many more people than violent conflict. Slow-onset events like sea-level rise and desertification get even lower global focus. We must work towards correcting this imbalance. We must appreciate that migration could be an effective adaptation strategy, as we focus on enhancing adaptation capacities of affected communities. Hence, relocation and protection of displaced persons need due focus in global discourse to ensure their protection. We need to commence discussion on the creation of an appropriate framework to address the needs of people displaced due to climate change.

– Inaugural speech from Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina of Bangladesh at Climate Vulnerable Forum, 14 November 2011, Dhaka.****

Sources:

* The Daily Star, "PM calls for addressing migrant issue for success of SDGs", 16 November 2016. Available from www.thedailystar.net/country/pm-calls-addressing-migrant-issue-success-sdgs-1315513

** The Daily Star, "PM calls for protection of migrant rights", 20 September 2016. Available from www.thedailystar.net/frontpage/hasina-new-york-1286695

*** Retrieved from https://gadebate.un.org/sites/default/files/gastatements/70/70_BD_en.pdf

**** This is the English translation of the speech originally delivered in Bengali. See DARA, "Inaugural speech from Sheikh Hasina, Bangladesh Prime Minister", 14 November 2011. Available from http://daraint.org/2011/11/14/2726/inauguration-of-the-climate-vulnerable-forum-2011/

3.4. Institutional Arrangements[27]

3.4.1. Major State Actors[28]

The research would like to highlight that international environmental migration has not yet been recognized and acknowledged as an issue of concern; therefore, no direct relevant intervention is designed to deal with this issue.

At present, no specific ministry deals with climate migration – international and/or internal. Multi-dimensionality of the issue makes it a "business of many". A range of government ministries, departments, institutes and authorities work for this issue. However, there are reasons for lack of ownership. The Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment (MoEWOE) pursues the overseas employment agenda, which is focused solely on international labour migration; however, it does not deal with climate change issues, which are dealt by MoEF. At the same time, MoEF does not look into the broader aspects of migration and focuses only on climate change and environmental issues.

While migration is not the key focus of Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MoFA), it certainly is deeply involved in the international migration issues of Bangladesh. The Ministry is responsible for safeguarding the legal rights and promotes the interests of its citizens and other legal entities in foreign countries. Among its other duties, they play major role in climate change-related negotiations.

The international discourse on climate change began largely over two decades ago. In the early 1990s, the Bangladesh Meteorological Department was the only key institution focusing on the issues related to the work of the IPCC. Around the same period, the Government of Bangladesh formed an Inter-Ministerial Steering Committee and a Technical Advisory Committee on climate change. The committees consisted of representatives from various ministries along with civil society representatives.

The Department of Environment (DoE) and its Climate Change Cell (CCC) served as the technical support units from 2004 to 2009 for the Ministry of Food and Disaster Management under their CDMP. The DoE coordinated climate change research, designed Bangladesh's NAPA in 2002–2005, and represented Bangladesh in many UNFCCC-related bodies. Current institutional arrangements for the climate change programme are divided primarily among the MoEF, in coordination with other ministries, the Bangladesh National Parliament, and the Ministry of Local Government, Rural Development and Cooperatives (MoLGRD&C).

Since Bangladesh has signed and ratified the UNFCCC, the MoEF is the lead institution working on climate change issues. The Ministry led the Initial National Communication to the UNFCCC, the BCCSAP, and commissioned the preparation of the Second National Communication to the UNFCCC.

The MoEF directs all climate change-related policy issues and represents the country at international negotiations under the UNFCCC, a number of UNFCCC committees and at conferences on multinational environmental agreements. The chief international negotiator on climate change for Bangladesh is from MoEF. Nationally, MoEF is the appointed institution to lead the implementation of climate change programming under the BCCSAP.

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27 A mapping study conducted by Displacement Solutions and Young Power in Social Action (2014) attempted to identify the existing institutional framework as it relates to climate displacement in Bangladesh. There are 168 institutional and organizational stakeholders and 78 resource persons at the national, regional and international levels, including 36 government ministries, departments, institutes and authorities, 20 international donors and funding organizations, 14 national civil society organizations and networks; 45 national non-governmental organizations (NGOs), 23 international NGOs, 30 academic institutes, research centres and 78 national experts identified in this study (2014:11–12). Information under this section is largely drawn from this study: Displacement Solutions and Young Power in Social Action, Climate Displacement in Bangladesh: Stakeholders, Laws and Policies – Mapping the Existing Institutional Framework (Dhaka, 2014). In addition, website of the concerned institutions and discussion with key informants were used.

28 This is worth mentioning that this section does not attempt to portray all the relevant State agencies on this area; rather, it tries to give the reader an idea on the key players. No intentional omission of a concerned agency has been done here.

The MoEF is generally accountable for Bangladesh's preparation and response to climate change in the National Parliament. The MoEF chairs the Local Consultative Group on Climate Change and Environment, which is an apex coordination mechanism between the Government and development partners on environment and climate change programmes.

The initiation of international financing modalities on climate change and the availability of seed money for three consecutive years from the Government, MoEF has become active in mobilizing funds and instituting mechanisms for managing climate change funds. In 2010–2011, MoEF formed a Climate Change Unit (CCU) to provide support to the Bangladesh Climate Change Trust Fund (BCCTF).

The CCU is still in its initial stages, and the Government has pledged to recruit permanent staff for this. There are also discussions about forming a separate department under the MoEF to manage issues specifically related to climate change.

The strategic institutional framework for how government ministries are required to interact on climate change issues is not clearly articulated in the BCCSAP; the BCCSAP envisions climate change programmes to function within a "multi-institutional architecture".

National institutions that predominantly represent the interests of the public sector institutions and their allied agencies (such as trustee agencies formed under a certain ministry) are mandated to implement the BCCSAP 44-point Agenda.

NGOs are expected to have a role in some project implementation and capacity-building; however, institutional linkages between various ministries, their departments and national and local government institutions are not clearly articulated in the BCCSAP.

BCCSAP seeks collaboration with a number of actors from the Government, different institutions and the public sector to implement the 44-point Agenda. During DoE's tenure, the CCC initiated a process to identify an institutional focal point in each ministry/agency and provide them with a basic training on climate change issues.

In addition to facilitating the Inter-Ministerial coordination through these focal points, the MoEF embarked on a project called "Poverty, Environment and Climate Mainstreaming", in which the Ministry of Planning monitors various investment projects submitted to the Annual Development Plan (ADP) in their design phase so that coordination with any relevant focal point may be adopted during the planning stage. This mechanism is to ensure the integration of climate change into the design and planning of all projects under the ADP. Additionally, the Ministry of Planning has taken firm steps towards integrating climate change issues into the ADP process.

Local government institutions (LGIs), such as Union Parishads and municipalities are entities that operate at the local level and therefore, have a direct understanding of the needs of people in their communities. Elected through direct votes from the local population, the representatives live in the respective constituencies and act as the first point of contact for most of the issues affecting the community members' lives and livelihoods. In addition, 13 standing committees within the local government are related to climate change, which is disaster management, health, education, agriculture and so on.

As with most development interventions, LGIs have been collaborating with NGOs and donors to implement climate change initiatives. The Reducing Vulnerability to Climate Change (RVCC) Project (2002–2005) had a component called "Integration of Adaptation in Local Planning." It enabled 14 Union Parishads in the south-west coastal area of the country to incorporate disaster risk management into their local development plans. The project was tested under the first phase of the CDMP-1, a national programme on DRR, and has since been scaled-up and implemented in about 630 Union Parishads in selected districts. In the second phase of the CDMP-2, all the remaining Union Parishads were brought under its coverage to implement CCA. Through KIIs, it was learned that the third phase of the CDMP is ready to be launched soon.

The Ministry of Disaster Management and Relief (MoDMR) has been given the mandate to drive the national risk reduction reform programmes. Its mission relative to this agenda is "to achieve a paradigm shift in disaster management from conventional response and relief to a more comprehensive risk reduction culture, and to promote food security as an important factor in ensuring the resilience of communities to hazards". It does not deal with migration directly, but it has to face the consequences of the climate change-induced disaster and thereby migration, directly.

The Ministry of Land (MoL) has a project titled Guchchhogram-2nd Phase (Climate Victims Rehabilitation Project), which deals with the climate change victims. The duration of this Tk 2.95 billion project is five years (2015–2020). It covers entire Bangladesh, except three districts in Chittagong Hill Tracts. Among other initiatives, this project allocates ***khas*** land in ecovillages to the poor and marginalized households who are victims of natural disasters. Besides, it provides livelihood inputs support to those households. Under similar intervention, the Government of Bangladesh rehabilitated a total of 82,535 households. A total of 23 cluster villages have been constructed, and 800 hounded households have been rehabilitated under this specific project between October 2015 and June 2016. This project runs through the own funding of the Government of Bangladesh.

The parliamentarians have the potential to exert significant influence on institutional processes. An All Party Parliamentary Group on environment and climate change was formed in 2009. It has taken initiatives to provide orientation training to about 140 members of Parliament on climate change issues and their roles. The Committee has been vocal within the National Parliament on climate change issues. It is notable that the General Assembly of the Inter Parliamentary Union – the oldest and biggest union of parliamentarians from all the world's parliaments – lately organized a session on "Role of parliamentarians in tackling climate change" in Geneva, Switzerland. In that session, the speaker stressed on four points to concentrate for the parliamentarians on the issue: (a) ratification of the Paris Agreement;[29] (b) approving national budgets; (c) oversight of the executive; and (d) being the voice of the people.[30]

The National Disaster Management Council (NDMC) and the Inter-Ministerial Disaster Management Coordination Committee (IMDMCC) govern disaster management in Bangladesh. As per the revised Standing Orders on Disaster, at the apex level, the NDMC is established to provide policy guidance towards DRR and emergency response management in Bangladesh. The Council is multisectoral and inter-disciplinary in nature, with public, private and civil society participation involving all concerned entities within the country, including representation from the United Nations. The NDMC is headed by the Honourable Prime Minister of Bangladesh. The IMDMCC is established at the national level to facilitate policymaking, planning, programming and implementing measures relating to DRR and emergency response management in Bangladesh. The MoDMR is responsible for coordinating national disaster management efforts across all agencies, while the Department of Disaster Management (DDM) is accountable for coordinating the City Corporation, District, Municipality, Upazila and Union-level Disaster Management Committees.

3.4.2. Major Non-State Actors[31]

Climate change-related issues are dealt with almost all major international donor and funding organizations, and many national and local NGOs are working on this issue across the country. Migration is also an issue

29 This has already been done in COP22 held on 5 November 2016 in Marrakech, Morocco.

30 The speaker was Dr Saleemul Huq, Director of the International Centre for Climate Change and Development (Source: S. Huq, "Role of Parliamentarians in tackling climate change", The Daily Star, 2 November 2016, available from www. thedailystar.net/opinion/politics-climate-change/role-parliamentarians-tackling-climate-change-1307806); and the current President of the Inter Parliamentary Union is Bangladeshi Parliamentarian Mr Saber Hossain Chowdhury.

31 Information under this this section is largely drawn from this study: Displacement Solutions and Young Power in Social Action (2014). In addition, website of the concerned institutions and discussion with key informant were used. It is worth mentioning that this section does not attempt to portray all the relevant non-State actors; rather it tries to give the reader an idea on the key players. No intentional omission of a concerned agency has been done here. And, the organizations' order in this text does not follow any logical sequences; they are ordered randomly.

of concern and work of many non-State actors. However, environmental migration is not a focus for most of the actors. Information about the people who are environmental migrants is not available from any official sources. Besides, there are definitional problems in selecting the environmental migrants.

The UN Agencies

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), among its other areas of work, focuses on the environment, energy, climate change and disaster management. In collaboration with the Government, the UNDP initiated the CDMP with support from the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC).

Acknowledging the linkages between migration and development, a global joint programme titled Mainstreaming Migration into National Strategies was initiated by the UNDP and IOM. Among other issues, this programme deals with the environmental migration issues in Bangladesh. The global programme is being supported by SDC. IOM Dhaka was also the managing mission for a regional project titled "Assessing the climate change, environmental degradation and migration nexus in South Asia", which was being implemented in Bangladesh, Nepal and the Maldives. The two-year project aimed to contribute to national and regional policies to address the expected impacts of climate change and environmental degradation on migration and displacement. IOM also established the Khulna Displacement Monitoring and Returns Center, and regularly posts information and updates on the Displacement Tracking Matrix in order to obtain and share information on the displacement situation after Cyclone Aila. IOM supported the Government for 24,000 internally displaced families in Khulna Division. IOM also continued to support the set-up of a coordination platform at the local level, implementing protection and counter-trafficking activities, as well as continuing the monitoring of the settlements of internally displaced persons (IDPs).

SDC also contributed to support the UNDP-led Comprehensive Early Recovery Facility Project. The World Food Programme (WFP) works in the areas of resilience to disasters and climate change and the reform of safety nets in line with government priorities. WFP supports communities vulnerable to the impacts of climate change. UNICEF provides emergency relief to thousands of war refugees and children caught in several cyclones. Emergency preparedness and DRR are central to UNICEF's everyday work in Bangladesh. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) has incorporated its responses to climate change vulnerability and adaptation strategy into all its programmes. FAO has substantial food safety programmes that will build regulatory and diagnostic capacity to ensure safe food for all in front of climate change vulnerability in a food crisis. The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) coordinates the UN environmental activities, assisting developing countries in implementing environmentally sound policies and practices. The World Meteorological Organization and UNEP established the IPCC in 1988.

Development Partners

The World Bank supports activities to reduce the vulnerability of the poor to the effects of climate change that contribute to the migration issue. The Bangladesh Climate Change Resilience Fund (BCCRF) and the Pilot Programme for Climate Resilience (PPCR) are administered by the World Bank and supported by a number of development partners.

The United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID), in the period 2008 to 2013, contributed a significant amount of funds for CCA programmes in Bangladesh through a number of programmes and also supported the CDMP.

The European Union funded the implementation of the following CCA, rehabilitation of disaster-affected people and DRR activities in Bangladesh among others: BCCRF and CDMP.

The "environment and climate change" is one the five core areas of ADB's operations. The notable technical assistance and other projects on CCA include the following: (a) Coastal Climate-Resilient Infrastructure Project; (b) Supporting Implementation of Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy Action Plan (BCCSAP); and (c) Climate Change Capacity Building and Knowledge Management.

The Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) supports to accelerate mitigation and adaptation strategies in developing countries. In Bangladesh, among other initiatives, JICA funded the cyclone disaster resilient community development project; JICA also supported the Government with disaster relief after Cyclone Sidr and Aila, among others.

The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) works with the Government of Bangladesh to support rural communities in preparing and responding to disasters and adapting to the increasing impact of climate change. The USAID-initiated Climate-Resilient Ecosystems and Livelihoods programme in Bangladesh on 2013.

In Bangladesh, the German Society for International Cooperation (GIZ) is working on adaptation to climate change and DRR issues. GIZ is one of the development partners that support the implementation of the BCCSAP.

The Denmark International Development Agency (DANIDA) supported the formulation and revision process of the BCCSAP, as well as strengthening the capacity of Bangladesh in participating in international climate negotiation events. DANIDA implemented the Scaling up Climate Change Adaptation with Local Government in Bangladesh.

The Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD) supported the CDMP with 100 million Norwegian Krone to Bangladesh over five years.

In Bangladesh, the Swedish International Development Corporation Agency (SIDA) has been working on CCA and DRR. SIDA supported the Government of Bangladesh in establishing the BCCRF.

The Department of Foreign Affairs, Trade and Development (DFATD) provides funding to United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees and other key humanitarian agencies to provide protection and assistance to refugees and IDPs. DFATD also selectively supports rehabilitation and reconstruction activities in areas that have been struck by climate change induced disasters. DFATD has funded in the government-led Climate Disaster Management Plan and the BCCRF.

The Catholic Organization for Relief and Development Aid (Cordaid) of Netherlands established the Community-Based Disaster Risk Reduction Forum for Bangladesh. Cordaid started working on Community-Managed Disaster Risk Reduction in 2005 in Bangladesh.

It is notable that in Bangladesh, one of the first deliberately designed pilot projects to respond to climate change was undertaken through the RVCC programme, which involved six south-western districts during 2002–2005. It was funded by the Canadian International Development Agency, and implemented by Care Bangladesh and its local partner organizations. Ever since, the community-based adaptation projects have been continuously tested and brought to scale by many national- and local-level NGOs across the country.

The migration programme of Building Resources Across Communities (BRAC) started in 2006, in 36 sub-districts with a pilot of safe Migration Facilitation Centre project. It has expanded its operation in 124 sub-districts at 33 districts. BRAC implemented a disaster, environment and climate change programme since 2008.

3.4.3. Financing[32]

Financings are not often targeted to deal specifically with the environmental migrants. However, climate change-related activities focus mostly on adaptation techniques; indirectly they deal with migration issues, as climate change plays as one of the key push factors for migration. Adaptation and mitigation are the main parts of the climate change activities in Bangladesh. Finance and technology are the means to attract much attention during the climate change negotiations. The sources for the climate change financing in

32 Information of this section is largely drawn from The Asia Foundation, 2012a.

Bangladesh are supported by national, bilateral and multilateral agencies. Until 2009, most of the climate change financing were commissioned through small, bilateral or UN-sponsored grant programmes, mostly awareness-raising programmes on threats of climate change and promotion of small-scale, community-based adaptation initiatives.

The Bangladesh Planning Commission – the central planning organization of the country – determines objectives, goals and strategies of medium- and short-term plans within the framework of long-term perspective and formulates policy measures. The Ministry of Finance then prepares budget allocation, in accordance with the needs of the concerned ministries, though the allocation is generally lower than the need. It is worth mentioning that due to the multidimensional aspects of the issue – that is environmental migration – different ministries are working through their own budget heads allocated for different projects and programmes. Thus, it is difficult to disaggregate the budget allocation from the total budget used for management of environmental migration.

However, the major funding windows offering financial resources to advance climate change-related activities are as follows:

The major funding windows

The Bangladesh Climate Change Trust Fund (BCCTF): It is the first ever national climate fund established by an LDC. The BCCTF funds programmes and projects from the national budget to help coastal and climate change-vulnerable communities recover and become resilient to climate change impacts. Operational since 2010, the fund is currently managed by the Bangladesh Climate Change Trust and (BCCT) and the Government. However, the funding support is not adequate at all, as confirmed by the key informants. In addition, the amount allocated was on a declining trend: in FY 2009–2010, the allocation was Tk 7 billion, and in FY 2015–2016, it was only Tk 1 billion. According to the key informants and supported by secondary documents, considering the reality and prospects of mobilizing funds from the Government and other external sources, institutional mechanisms for fund management should be further developed based on the experiences gained during this period, otherwise, all these costly efforts might be washed out. There should be a steady flow of funds for the institutionalization of climate finance, which was not being reflected during the last few years in budget allocation.

BCCTF considers projects that fit with the priority actions and programmes of the BCCSAP 2009. As of June 2016, 440 projects have been undertaken. Government, semi-government and autonomous agencies are implementing 377 projects, while 63 projects are being implemented by NGOs that are managed by Palli Karma Sahayak Foundation (PKSF). Some of the projects funded by BCCTF have earned national awards, while others have been criticized for various reasons.

The Bangladesh Climate Change Resilience Fund (BCCRF): The Government of Bangladesh established the BCCRF to support the implementation of the BCCSAP in May 2010 by signing a memorandum of understanding with four development partners: (a) DFID; (b) Denmark; (c) Sweden; and (d) European Union. Switzerland became a development partner in December 2010, while the Australian Agency for International Development and the USAID joined in 2012.

The BCCRF has been created as a multi-donor trust fund to draw bilateral and multilateral donations from development partners. This fund is currently administered by the World Bank with a further provision for PKSF to manage the NGO financing window of the BCCRF (the NGO-funding mechanism accounts for 10% of the total fund). The BCCRF is owned and managed by MoEF.

The Pilot Programme for Climate Resilience: This is a funding opportunity created by the World Bank under the Climate Investment Funds (CIFs). The PPCR, approved in November 2008, was the first programme developed and operationalized under the Strategic Climate Fund, which is one of two funds within the design of the CIFs. The pilot programmes and projects implemented under the PPCR are country-led, and build on

NAPAs and other relevant country studies and strategies. They are strategically aligned with other donor-funded activities to provide financing for projects that will produce experience and knowledge useful to designing scaled-up adaptation measures.

Bangladesh's PPCR investment plan was designed under the leadership of the Government, in coordination with ADB, members of the World Bank Group (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, International Development Association and International Finance Corporation), key Bangladeshi stakeholders and other development partners.

Social protection measures

According to the key informants, it is worth mentioning that out of the 142 ongoing programmes on social protection, 25 are directly related to DRR or CCA that cost around USD 1.2 billion (around 21% of the total social protection). The programmes include, for example: (a) short-term or seasonal workforce programmes for the working age vulnerable people; (b) relief goods or lump cash transfers; (c) climate victim rehabilitation; (d) food grain at subsidized prices, particularly for the urban poor (which includes a large toll of climate change and disaster victims); (e) construction of shelter and other infrastructures for the victims of cyclones and other natural calamities; and (f) institution building and empowerment of communities to reduce disaster risks. However, the funding for projects exclusively aimed to climate change management issue is still limited, and there is ample scope for innovative interventions. Six important ministries – namely MoDMR, MoEF, MoA, MoLGRD&C, Ministry of Food and the Prime Minister's Office – are directly involved in the implementation and management of the programmes.

There are many channels to finance climate change-related programmes and projects in Bangladesh. However, according to Awal et al. (2013:95), most of these programmes are being operated without adequate transparency, accountability and appropriate participation of people and civil and political society. The key informants of the current study also stressed on the proper use of the funds – no matter how small they are – to get maximum benefits, even from the small amount. It has also been found that there are coordination gaps among the fund management authorities and the implementing agencies.

Chapter 4

Conclusion and Recommendations

4.1. Conclusion

Climate change has become one of the major threats for the post-modern-era of civilization and human history. It is undeniable that climate change-induced disasters are one of the major push factors behind migration, both internal and international. Development-induced migration that takes place is where people migrate for improved economic opportunities. Such development-induced migration should be safe, assisted, informed and ensure rightful choices. However, the concern encircles with the forced migration taken place due to/by – persecution, violence/conflict/war and climate change. Human mobility should not be a mandatory outcome.

The experts on the subject raise concern that in the future, certain places of Bangladesh may become inhabitable or unfavourable to live with lesser extent of livelihood opportunities due to climate change outcomes. Climate change increasingly undermines human security by reducing access to and the quality of natural resources, which are necessary to sustain livelihoods and well-beings. Mitigation measures will be required to stop or at least reduce the process, but to some extent, negative impacts will be produced, and there is no alternative in taking the logical and cost-effective (considering long-term benefits of future generations and non-monetized social costs) adaptive measures. Transformative adaptation strategies towards positive changes need adoption. Alternative livelihood opportunities and/or innovating technologies to cope with the changed scenario need to be designed considering the area-specific requirements and should be implemented with concerned, committed and competent efforts.

Climate migration is closely linked with vulnerabilities – and in the majority of cases, the decision is mandatory with a forced procedure. Vulnerabilities of the people in the affected areas are not only linked with natural disasters, rather other factors like belonging to ethnic and/or religious minority groups, living in geographically challenged areas of coastal belt and ***chars*** aggravate the situation and make them more prone to "risky undocumented international migration". The global culture of "rent seeking" in the politico-economic atmosphere – in the form of "grabbing" – directly causes such phenomenon.

Industrial revolution, industrialization, commercialization of agriculture and competition for resource grabbing contribute to the deterioration of the global climate situation. For these reasons, countries like Bangladesh, for their geographic locations, are placed in a more vulnerable situation. It is also a proven fact that for such deterioration, the industrial-rich countries – the first-world – are mostly responsible. However, when climate change issues are discussed, mostly the discussion focuses on adaptation and mitigation, but rarely the issues of compensation are discussed in the appropriate forums in appropriate manners. Rights-based approaches should be followed while talking about compensation, which is not found often. Bangladesh, in many relevant forums, is nowadays vocal on this issue; which needs to be continued with more research-based evidences by creating and/or facilitating proactive forums of affected countries. However, while discussing with the developed countries, claiming compensation – that is, seeking monetary compensation only – will result in lesser outcomes than expected; rather developing human resources of the country against needs of the targeted destination countries and negotiating in favour of human resource transfers to those countries may produce better results.

The issue is not local or regional, but rather global. Researchers are trying to contextualize and draw an outline of the global governance architecture, for the protection of climate migrants, whether these are effects of slow onsets or sudden changes. Yet, the State and non-State actors, that is, the government functionaries, different institutions, organizations, and funding mechanisms are not sufficiently aware and equipped to deal

with this imminent crisis, especially in Bangladesh. The situation calls for a holistic and effective governance and integration of CCA programmes, considering the multidimensional aspects of migration.

Though the policy documents of Bangladesh recognize migration as a driver of development and the highest authorities of the country have upheld the migration issue itself, still, migration, as a natural process of development is not accepted by many stakeholders. A paradigm shift of the whole idea – to a RIGHTS platform – is needed.

Climate change is increasingly been called a "security", problem and there are speculations that climate change may increase the risk of conflicts. Against this perspective, while the fact of climate migration (mostly undocumented) is not recognized by the concerned authorities, the space to deal with the subject shrinks. Recognition of the problems, dialogues and proactive diplomacy between the countries are perquisites to handle the issue, professionally, efficiently and above all, humanely. Innovative approaches for poverty reduction can be introduced in the climate change-induced vulnerable areas to facilitate documented, informed and safe migration.

The whole issue cannot be viewed and dealt as a segmented subject; rather, it is a multidimensional subject interlinked directly with geopolitical issues. To formulate adaptation strategies and management solutions of climate migration prioritization and strategic direction is required with a committed and competent political environment.

4.2. Recommendations

...[T]he migrant crisis extends far beyond the flight of refugees from violence, chaos and harsh repression. ... [P]eople are displaced by disasters such as floods and storms every year, with predicted and increasing effect of global warming. ... [I]n Bangladesh alone, tens of millions of people are expected to have to flee, in coming years from low-lying plains because of severe sea-level rise. Weather creating a migrant crisis that will make today's pale into insignificance. Once again, this coming crisis of immigration poses a severe moral crisis for the rich societies. ... [M]igrants should have the right to move to the countries from which all these greenhouse gases are coming.

– Noam Chomsky[33]

The Agenda for the Protection of Cross-Border Displaced Persons in the Context of Disasters and Climate Change, endorsed by a global intergovernmental consultation on 12–13 October 2015 in Geneva, Switzerland, consolidates the outcomes of a series of regional intergovernmental consultations and civil society meetings convened by the Nansen Initiative. This agenda, rather than calling for a new binding international convention on cross-border, disaster displacement supports an approach that focuses on the integration of effective practices by States and (sub-) regional organizations into their own normative frameworks in accordance with their specific situations and challenges (The Nansen Initiative, 2015a:II).[34]

The management approach of climate migration needs to be multifaceted, considering the internal, as well as the external realities and challenges. In the Bangladesh perspective, the multifaceted plan should consist of all the three basic elements (which covers all the implementation and funding issues) when designed:

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33 On 5 November 2016, Noam Chomsky presented the "Crises of Immigration" talk at the Palau de Congressos in Barcelona, within the framework of the Annual Guest Lectures of the United Nations University Institute of Globalization, Culture and Mobility. Denis Rogatyuk covered the lecture for Links International Journal of Socialist Renewal (see http://links.org.au/noam-chomsky-refugees-immigration-crisis).

34 This agenda uses "protection" to refer to any positive action, whether or not based on legal obligations, undertaken by States on behalf of disaster displaced persons or persons at risk of being displaced that aim at obtaining full respect for the rights of the individual in accordance with the letter and spirit of applicable bodies of law, namely human rights law, international humanitarian law and refugee law. While highlighting the humanitarian nature of such protection, the agenda does not aim to expand States' legal obligations under international refugee and human rights law for cross-border disaster-displaced persons and persons at risk of being displaced.

(a) minimizing displacement through adaptation measures; (b) establishing rights of the climate migrants; and (c) organizing resettlement/relocations for the population – in high risk of displacement, namely the displaced, those who have not migrated yet, returning and willing to return.

Those opting for migration as an adaptive measure also have some freedom of choice, but their situations are different from the average economic migrant, insofar as environmental factors such as slow-onset disasters play an important role in their decision to migrate (Kälin and Schrepfer, 2012: 60–61). This difference should be taken into consideration and migration as an individual, family or community measure of adaptation should be looked at positively by States. Minimizing displacement through adaptation measures can be divided into two broad groups: (a) DRR measures; and (b) vulnerability reduction measures.

Keeping these in mind, the following recommendations have been formulated. While coming up with recommendations to combat climate migration, which is forced in most cases, the key focus was on how to reduce vulnerabilities of the affected communities. As there is no concrete data or evidence about the climate migration in Bangladesh – be it internal and international; while developing the recommendations – in instances, some may appear to be generic. Most of the following recommendations encircle with adaptation strategies applicable to the marginalized groups in the target regions, aiming to contribute in tackling both internal and international migration.

Table 2: Recommendations and suggested actors

Recommendation		Suggested key actors	Other major concerned actors
1.	Poor and marginalized groups of people are generally left out in the process of safe migration due to lack of information, network and financing. Facilitations for safe migration need to be institutionalized and implemented in the climate vulnerable regions of Bangladesh focusing the special needs of the poor justification marginalized groups in those areas.		
1.1	Disseminate information to promote safe migration, focusing on the needs of the poor and marginalized groups of people in the climate vulnerable region.	MoEWOE, MoEF	Access to Information (a2i) Programme, local governments, development partners, NGOs, media
1.2	Conduct training needs assessment and organize training accordingly in the targeted areas.	MoEWOE	Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training (BMET), Ministry of Youth and Sports (MoYS), research organizations, development partners, NGOs
1.3	Provide credit support for overseas labour migration with easy terms and conditions for poor and marginalized in the targeted areas.	Bangladesh Bank, Microcredit Regulatory Authority (MRA)	Probashi Kallyan Bank (PKB), State-owned commercial banks, Microfinance institutes

Recommendation		Suggested key actors	Other major concerned actors
2.	Measures for mitigating landlessness among the groups who are more prone to displacement.		
2.1	Distribute ***khas*** land to the landless households as per the law.	MoL	Land Reform Board, local governments, NGOs
2.2	Facilitate credit and support to the poor farm households who are allotted with ***khas*** land, so that they can retain the land.	Bangladesh Bank, MRA, MoA	Bangladesh Rural Development Board (BRDB), State-owned commercial banks, development partners
2.3	Undertake measures to improve access and retainment of land of the ethnic and/or religious minority groups.	MoL, Ministry of Chittagong Hill Tracts Affairs	Law Commission, Land Reform Board, research organizations, NGOs
2.4	A pro-poor and pro-environment shrimp cultivation management policy is required to combat man-made saline intrusion and related land grabbing.	MoL, MoEF	MoA, Law Commission, NGOs
3.	Develop a database with all the relevant and updated information on migration (including the reasons behind migration).		
3.1	Establish a central database for gathering all the relevant and updated information on migration from the union level. The database should consist of information of three groups: (a) current migrants; (b) returning migrants; and (c) prospective migrants.	MoEWOE	a2i, Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, BMET
3.2	Conduct needs assessment and accordingly implement required interventions for all the above mentioned three groups.	MoEWOE	MoFA, MoYS, PKB, Ministry of Labour and Employment (MoLE), Ministry of Women and Children Affairs, Ministry of Social Welfare, Bangladesh Overseas Employment and Services Limited, State-owned commercial banks, development partners, research organizations, local governments, NGOs
4.	"Locality development" as a comprehensive strategy needs to be initiated by branding the area as per its comparative advantage/prospective advantages, considering the probable effects of climate change in the future.		
4.1	Branding of the areas and promotion of the brand after assessing their comparative/ prospective advantages considering the probable effects of climate change in the future.	MoLGRD&C	MoEF, Ministry of Cultural Affairs, local governments, NGOs, media

Recommendation		Suggested key actors	Other major concerned actors
4.2	Infrastructural development of the areas considering the probable effects of climate change in the future.	MoLGRD&C, MoDMR	MoEF, Ministry of Housing and Public Works (MoHPW), BRDB, NGOs, local governments
5.	Identify ways and mechanisms (including agriculture technologies) to adopt in the changed perspectives due to climate change, creating scopes for economic development of the affected farmers.		
5.1	Conduct research to develop saline-tolerant varieties through sustained funding support.	MoA	Bangladesh Agricultural Development Corporation, Bangladesh Agricultural Research Institute, Bangladesh Agricultural Research Council, Soil Resources Development Institute, Bangladesh Rice Research Institute, development partners
5.2	Conduct research to develop comprehensive livelihood approach in the changed situation due to effects of climate change.	MoEF	MoDMR, BCCT, DoE, Bangladesh Forest Research Institute, Ministry of Science and Technology, MoLGRD&C, Ministry of Road Transport and Bridges, MoHPW, BRDB, development partners
6.	Initiate and promote alternative income-generating activities (IGAs) after situation assessment in the targeted areas considering the actual and probable impacts of climate change.		
6.1	Conduct situation assessment and identify the prospective IGAs, including adaptation mechanisms.	MoEF	MoEF, MoLE, MoDMR, research organizations
6.2	Initiate and promote alternative IGAs based on situation assessment.		
6.2.1	Promote dairy (as alternate source of livelihood), targeting women and ensuring necessary support especially in ***char*** areas declaring the areas as "milk pockets".	Ministry of Fisheries and Livestock (MoFL), Bangladesh Bank, MRA	Department of Livestock, Bangladesh Livestock Research Institute, NGOs, private sector, State-owned commercial banks
6.2.2	Promote high valued non-traditional agricultural products in the climate vulnerable areas.	MoA, MoFL	NGOs, private sector, State-owned commercial banks, media

Recommendation		Suggested key actors	Other major concerned actors
6.2.3	Innovative approaches such as "border ***haat***"[35] can be initiated/promoted in the bordering areas to foster economic development.	Ministry of Commerce	MoFA, business chambers, local governments, NGOs, media
6.2.4.	Provide collateral free loan to affected farmers with easy terms and conditions and initiate "crop insurances".[36]	Bangladesh Bank, MRA	State-owned commercial banks, NGOs
7.	Ensure adequate allocation and effective targeting of the related safety net programmes for climate migration.		
7.1	Increase allocation of fund for the projects directly related with climate change management.	MoEF	BCCT, development partners
7.2	Distribute allocated funds through a transparent and accountable mechanism ensuring local people's participation (e.g., public hearing).	MoEF	BCCT, MoDMR, MoLGRD&C, local governments, research organizations, development partners, NGOs, media
8.	Discuss the various implications of climate change, including migration and displacement.		
8.1	Regularly arrange leadership programmes for the negotiators and/or future negotiators.	MoEF, MoFA	Development partners, research organizations, NGOs, media
8.2	Arrange international events in the most vulnerable regions of Bangladesh to attract global attention.	MoEF	MoFA, MoDMR, local governments, development partners, NGOs, media
8.3	Facilitate bilateral negotiations for upholding the rights of the migrants (current and aspiring).	MoFA	MoEWOE, Bangladesh Institute of International and Strategic Studies

35 Currently, four border ***haats*** are being operated in the frontiers of Bangladesh and India to ease selling of their products. Two more border ***haats*** are under construction and four more are in the pipeline. Bangladesh and India signed a memorandum of understanding on 23 October 2010 for setting up border ***haats*** for the benefits of two countries people live in the border areas.

36 It is worth mentioning that Janata Bank Limited started interest free short-term agricultural credits for the landless and marginalized farmers since 2009–2010. This loan is not only interest free, but also "no pay back of even the principal amount if there is crop failure during the loan period". In the primary stage, the credit programme was introduced in the Aila and Sidr affected 12 southern districts and Monga afflicted 5 northern districts. The credit programme started with a fund of Tk 10 million that was distributed among 1,289 farmers. The beneficiary coverage increased since the inception year, and it was 3,831 in 2013–2014. The credit recipients successfully utilized the credit and recovery rate was always nearly 100% in the preceding years. The welfare of the beneficiaries was evidenced in their relief from debt cycles caused by hard loan conditions including higher interest rates by the microcredit NGOs, and more so by the rural money lending sharks [Source: Barkat et al., 2017].

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37 The key informants are not responsible for any of the conclusions drawn in this accompanying study; rather, the authors of this study are solely responsible for all the analysis.

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INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION, SOCIAL PROTECTION AND RIGHTS



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INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION, SOCIAL PROTECTION AND RIGHTS

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List of Abbreviations

BMET	Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training
CBO	Community-based organization
CCT	Conditional cash transfer
CSO	Civil society organization
G2P	Government to private
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
GED	General Economics Division
GFMD	Global Forum on Migration and Development
GMG	Global Migration Group
HAI	Help Age International
HDRC	Human Development Research Centre
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
ISSA	International Social Security Association
KII	Key informant interview
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MoEWOE	Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment
MoFA	Ministry of Foreign Affairs
MoLE	Ministry of Labour and Employment
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
NGO	Non-governmental organization
NSSS	National Social Security Strategy
OSH	Occupational safety and health
SFYP	Seventh Five Year Plan
SSP	Social security programme
SSS	Social Security System
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
VGD	Vulnerable Group Development
VGF	Vulnerable Group Feeding
WARBE-DF	Welfare Association for the Rights of Bangladeshi Emigrants-Development Foundation

Executive Summary

Migration is a truly global phenomenon with migratory movements occurring both within and across regions. There are more than 232 million international migrants worldwide, equal to 3.2 per cent of the world's population. Not all people move from one place to another in search of a better living through acquiring work, but those who do face a varied range of consequences of migration. All migrants share a common characteristic that entails them living and working in a country where they are not nationals. Therefore, they face the challenge of adapting to a society that is not their own and where they may face unfavourable circumstances.

Such situations can often be observed among the Bangladeshi migrants who live and work overseas. With a huge labour surplus since the 1970s, Bangladesh has been participating in the short-term employments in the international labour markets of the Gulf and other Arab countries, as well as countries in South-East Asia. According to the Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training's record, from 1976 to 2016, it is estimated that 10,456,418 individuals have taken up work overseas. Many of these Bangladeshi migrant workers face vulnerabilities and exploitation in the destination countries. The challenges and problems range from contractual issues, living conditions and behaviour of the employers. Contract violation, non-payment of salaries, long working hours and poor working conditions, coupled with health problems and unfavourable behaviour in the diplomatic missions, are also some of the other problems faced by the migrant workers.

Given the need to focus on social protection and rights of migrants, under the Global Programme on Mainstreaming Migration into National Development Strategies supported by the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC), the International Organization for Migration (IOM) planned to conduct research on this issue. The research has been conducted by the Human Development Research Centre (HDRC) to support the Government in building evidence on the issue and design appropriate interventions to address the challenges related to protection and rights and maximize the positive effects of migration.

The present study concentrates on the international arena and is primarily based on secondary information focused on existing literatures. The review of secondary information, including the Seventh Five Year Plan (2016–2020) and National Social Security Strategy (NSSS, 2015), has produced a strong base for generating an understanding of migration and social protection issues. The conceptual understanding of these issues, along with the analysis of migration and social protection under global lens, has provided the basis for this report. However, to supplement, complement and validate the findings, information was also collected from relevant policymakers and practitioners through key informant interviews (KIIs).

The information from the KIIs indicated the need to ensure social protection of the migrant workers in the destination countries. Some of the gaps that have been identified by the KIIs are as follows:

- Limitation of the NSSS (2015) in covering the migrant worker's social protection;
- High migration cost;
- Syndication;
- Visa trading;
- Not ratifying important conventions;
- Monopoly of the Bangladesh Association of International Recruiting Agencies;
- Inadequate research on the social cost of migration;
- Harassments at airports;
- Existence of memorandums of understanding instead of bilateral or multilateral agreements;
- Language barrier in the destination countries; and
- Existence of kafala system in Saudi Arabia

The KIIs have also provided some recommendations on promoting social protection for the migrant workers in the destination countries. These included sensitization at all cycles of migration and working towards ensuring the political will to include returnee migrants into the social protection schemes.

The research has also provided a basis for several recommendations that could be implemented in both sending and destination end. The summary of way forward is provided below:

- Activate and implement the national legislative tools to recognize the migrant workers in the national social protection schemes.
- Develop a database of the national social protection schemes where migrant workers can be included.
- Establish separate centres in every ***upazila*** that will deal with all the migration-related matters, including the social protection programmes.
- Strengthen the Wage Earners' Welfare Fund to allocate funds to cover the social protection of the migrant workers in the destination countries.
- Develop monitoring mechanisms for the working environments of the migrant workers and administration of the social protection system.
- Ratify and implement relevant international conventions and implement recommendations that make provisions for the right to social security of migrant workers and their families.

Chapter 1

Introduction, Research Issues and Methodology

This chapter focuses on the introduction, research issues and methodology of the present study on Migration, Social Protection and Rights. It further highlights upon the scope of work and limitations that it has come across in extracting the relevant information about the study theme.

1.1. Introduction

Box 1.1: What is migration?

According to the International Organization for Migration (IOM), "Migration is the movement of a person or a group of persons, either across an international border, or within a State. It is a population movement, encompassing any kind of movement of people, whatever its length, composition and causes; it includes migration of refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants, and persons moving for other purposes, including family reunification."

Source: IOM, Key Migration Terms (n.d.), available from www.iom.int/key-migration-terms (accessed 12 March 2017).

Human development focuses on improving the lives people lead, rather than assuming that economic growth will automatically lead to greater well-being for all. Income growth is seen as a means to development, rather than an end in itself.[1] Three foundations for human development are as follows: (a) live a long, healthy and creative life; (b) be knowledgeable; and (c) have access to resources needed for a decent standard of living.

Following this, the Human Development Report 2015, in its overview, has explored how work can enhance human development and has delineated that "Work enables people to earn a livelihood and be economically secure. It is critical for equitable economic growth, poverty reduction and gender equality. It also allows people to fully participate in society while affording them a sense of dignity and worth"(United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 2015:1). It has further discussed that sustainable work is a major building block for sustainable development for which enhancing human development through work needs concrete policies and an agenda for action.

The world of work is closely connected to the process of migration. Not all people move from one place to another in search of better livelihood opportunities. It is also reflected by the Global Migration Group (GMG) (IOM, 2010) when it states that migration has important interrelationships with core employment issues (such as fundamental labour rights, the workings of the labour market and economic growth), and as such, it is a critical component in employment-related objectives like decent work, job growth and development in both countries of origin and destination. Such reflection can also be found in the editorial of the newsletter of IOM-UNDP Global Joint Programme on Mainstreaming Migration into National Development Strategies (IOM, Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation and UNDP, 2016). It points out that migration is arguably one of the most topical development issues today due to the rapidly growing number of people. The reason people migrate includes the desire for improved economic opportunities, higher education, family reunification and protection from crisis situations. While there are positive outcomes of migration, at the same time, risks to human development are present where migration is a reaction to threats and denial of personal freedoms and rights, and where regular opportunities for movement are constrained. These negative development impacts can affect sustainable development gains and efforts.

1 United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), About Human Development, available from http://hdr.undp.org/en/humandev

Following this, it is suggested by the above-mentioned newsletter editorial to implement integrated development solutions that promote equality, combined with effective service delivery, as well as accountable and responsive governance. Moreover, as mentioned earlier, one of the three foundations for human development is to have access to resources needed for a decent standard of living, so it is also important to outline the way through which the migrants can achieve such of their rights. One area that can particularly uphold such rights of the migrants is "social protection".

Box 1.2: What is known as "social protection"?

Social protection aims to provide safeguards to individuals, households and communities against reduction or loss of income due to economic and social risks, such as illness, old age, unemployment, disability or other hardships. These risks can be addressed through a broad range of measures including public interventions (such as formal pension schemes, tax-funded non-contributory pensions, universal child allowance, food stamps and conditional and non-conditional cash transfer programmes), as well as through family and community solidarity. Social protection can also enhance men and women's labour productivity, reducing poverty and inequality and stimulating economic growth.

Source: IOM, 2010:73.

The linkages of migration and social protection are multifarious and prevalent in both the countries of origin, as well as destination. In general, the migrants have a low social and legal status in host countries (van Ginneken, 2013:212). Many migrants enter the country through irregular channels or on tourist visas, and then stay on as irregular migrant workers. Some may also enter the country with a temporary work contract – with more or less clear criteria for returning to their countries of origin. Such contracts have the advantage of being better accepted by the host country population and may lead to circular migration. As a result, while international migrants may have better terms of employment and access to social security than in their home countries, they often face conditions far inferior to nationals in the host countries.

In today's globalizing economy, as stated by van Ginneken (ibid., 210), migration has become an increasingly important issue. However, the social consequences of growing migration flows have become more apparent, in particular in high-income countries. Ginneken (ibid., 210) further argues that the access of migrants to social security and social protection provided by many welfare States have become problematic, particularly in high-income countries. Various countries of destination restrict access to social benefits, partly to discourage immigration and partly to maintain the national social cohesion that is the foundation of national welfare States. They have, therefore, started to encourage circular and temporary migrant programmes, because temporary migration seems to be better accepted by the indigenous population than permanent migration. In addition, circular migration takes better account of the interests of migrants and the well-being of the country of origin (Gagnon and Khoudour-Castéras 2011, as cited by van Ginneken, 2013:210).

Box 1.3: Social protection and migrant workers

Although the 105 million migrant workers of the 232 million international migrants worldwide contribute fully to the economies of their host and home countries, migrant workers are among the most excluded from even basic coverage by social protection instruments and schemes, in particular undocumented migrant workers. They risk losing entitlement to social security benefits in their country of origin due to their absence, and may, at the same time, encounter restrictive conditions under the social security system of the host country. They may contribute to social security schemes, either in their home countries or countries of destination, but may not receive any corresponding benefit. They may face constraints in the portability of these rights. Schemes may have long residency requirements, making it difficult for temporary migrants to claim their benefits, effectively amounting exclusion from any form of social protection when engaged in temporary or informal work.

Source: International Labour Organization (ILO), Labour migration, Social protection for migrant workers, available from www.ilo.org/global/topics/labour-migration/policy-areas/social-protection/lang--en/index.htm

The GMG Discussion paper (2015) also throws lights on migrants' social protection, while discussing about reducing inequalities in the process of migration. It continues the arguments on the basis of international human rights framework that provides the norms and mechanisms to effectively address the inequalities that

migrants often face. A human rights framework that is effectively implemented is an indispensable precondition for all migrants, including those in irregular status, to enjoy their rights to an adequate standard of living, including food and housing, as well as the highest attainable standards of health, education, social protection and participation in cultural life in a non-discriminatory manner. The discussion paper also highlights on the status of social protection of migrant workers. They contribute significantly to the development of countries of destination by complementing the skills of native-born workers, creating jobs and filling important labour market shortages. However, migrant workers are often denied access to equal and fair wages, jobs matching their skills (often because of the non-recognition of credentials and qualifications), decent working conditions, trade union rights and social protection.

Such similar situation can also be observed about the Bangladeshi migrants who live and work overseas. With around an annual average of 480,000 persons leaving Bangladesh over the last five years (Siddiqui and Mahmood, 2015, as referred to in Neelim and Siddiqui, 2015:3), it is estimated that from 1976 to 2016, 10,456,418 individuals have taken up work overseas.[2] Most of these Bangladeshi migrants face vulnerabilities and exploitation in the destination countries (The Asia Foundation, 2013). The challenges and problems range from contract issues and violation, non-payment of salary, long working hours and poor living and working conditions to health problems and non-assisting behaviour in the diplomatic mission offices.

Moreover, based on the recommendations of Bangladesh Inter-Ministerial Committee on Migration and Development and Thematic Working Groups,[3] migration has already been considered under development in the Seventh Five Year Plan (SFYP) of the Government of Bangladesh (IOM, n.d.:1). The recommendation was drawn in line with that of the major international processes like the 2013 United Nations High-level Dialogue on International Migration and Development, the Eight Point Agenda for Action and the development of the Post-2015 Development Agenda. Several major areas covered in the SFYP include the need for comprehensive evidence base, economic growth and equity, skills and overseas labour market development and protection, human development and migration, adaptation to climate change and adverse environmental events, and frameworks for migration and development.

It is therefore, the concepts of social protection and rights related to migrants, that are of much importance and needs to be part of the national and sectoral plans. The GMG states that in the current era of globalization, the challenge confronting the global community is to govern migration to enable it to serve as a force for growth and development and ensure the protection of the rights of migrants (IOM, 2010:61). Measures should be put in place to prevent abusive practices and promote decent and productive work for migrant workers. This reflects the ILO Multilateral Framework on Labour Migration principle on decent work, which states that opportunities for all men and women of working age, including migrant workers, to obtain decent and productive work in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity should be promoted. It is also in line with the ILO Decent Work Agenda, which promotes access for all, to freely choose employment, the recognition of fundamental rights at work, an income to enable people to meet their basic economic, social and family needs and responsibilities and an adequate level of social protection for workers and their families.

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2 BMET, Overseas Employment and Remittances from 1976 to 2016, available from www.bmet.gov.bd/BMET/viewStatReport.action?reportnumber=20

3 This recommendation was a major outcome of a joint meeting organized by IOM Dhaka, under the framework of the joint IOM-UNDP Global Programme on Mainstreaming Migration into National Development Strategies on 23 December 2014. The Inter-Ministerial Committee on Migration and Development is co-chaired by the Secretaries of the Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment (MoEWOE) and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MoFA), and is composed of the following entities: Prime Minister's Office, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Home Affairs, Ministry of Environment and Forest, Ministry of Labour and Employment, Planning Commission (General Economic Division), Local Government Division, Economic Relations Division, Ministry of Information, Ministry of Civil Aviation and Tourism, Ministry of Women and Children Affairs, Ministry of Social Welfare; and two non-governmental organizations as observers: Welfare Association for the Rights of Bangladeshi Emigrants Development Foundation and Palli Karma-Sahayak Foundation. The Thematic Working Groups address issues relating to migration and the following: (a) poverty reduction; (b) social protection and rights; (c) environment, climate change and disaster management; and (d) human resource planning (as mentioned in IOM, n.d.:1).

Following this, the laws, policies and practices related to the social protection of the migrants should be studied thoroughly to extract the current situation of the Bangladeshi migrants in the destination countries. This will ultimately assist in recommending the best protection option for them for which the present study is aimed at.

1.2. Research Issues

Despite the positive or negative effect of migration on the households and families, the whole process of migration is related to a human rights issue like the social protection system. The international legal framework recognizes that all migrants, irrespective of status, enjoy human and labour rights without discrimination, except for few exceptions relating to political participation and freedom of movement. The 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families articulates many of these rights; however, its ratification and translation into policy has been limited (GFMD, 2016).[4]

Although it has become an important part of the development discourse at both national and international levels, there is no framework directly linking migration and social protection (de la Garza, 2010:26). Both social protection floor policies and social security schemes providing higher levels of protection contribute to enhancing productivity and employability and supporting sustainable economic development, thereby contributing to decent living conditions for all, making extension of social security coverage for migrants vital to workers, the economy and the entire society (Taran, forthcoming, as cited in UNICEF, 2014:36). In the process of migration, one must acknowledge and emphasize the transformative potential of social protection, that is, the pursuit of policies that alter power imbalances that create, stimulate and sustain social vulnerabilities (de la Garza, 2010:27). There might be many issues within social protection that require interventions at various levels in both developed and developing societies.

Considering all the above matters, the research issues that the present study would explore are to:

(a) Assess the status of social protection and rights of overseas migrant workers; and

(b) Recommend options to ensure social protection and rights of the overseas migrant workers.

1.3. Methodology

A methodological note

It is to note that, according to the research issues of the present study titled "Migration, social protection and rights", the focus is centred on the social protection of the migrant workers in the destination countries. These migrant workers are mainly the less-skilled workers who are serving in many sectors (that is, starting from manufacturing to domestic after work etc.) and in most cases are deprived of their legal and other necessary rights. The present study has made an effort to find out the facts related to the subject matter from the existing literatures and from the information of the KIIs. However, in many places of the present study, the words migrant workers and migrants are used interchangeably.

The present study concentrates on the international arena and is primarily based on secondary information focused on existing literatures. Information has also been collected from relevant policymakers and practitioners through key informants' interviews (KIIs). The Human Development Research Centre has sought support and necessary facilitations from IOM in conducting the KIIs (especially for the international organizations). A number of in-depth interviews with international (returning) migrants were conducted. Pockets of migration-prone areas have been selected prior to organizing such focus group discussion sand interviews, and local

4 The Convention has been ratified by 48 States. Other relevant international instruments include the following: (a) Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children; (b) Protocol Against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air; (c) ILO Domestic Workers Convention 2011 (No. 189); (d) ILO Migration for Employment Convention 1949 (No. 97); (e) ILO Migrant Workers Convention (Supplementary Provisions) 1975 (No. 143); and (f) ILO Convention on Private Employment Agencies 1997 (No. 181).

community-based organizations (CBOs) and local government institutes were approached in the process. Organizations working with migrants and returning migrants were also approached for gathering information.

The KIIs with the policymakers as well as practitioners acted as a funnel to gather information through consultation and research. Extracting from the information, a set of viable recommendations has been made to promote the preferred course of action. Some linkages between relevant institutes and migrants have been made whose dynamics has been explored in this assignment. All the topics, methodology and tools of the present study were finalized as per inputs of the National Project Board members.[5]

1.4. Scope of the Work

The present study reflects many depictions that have been gathered from the various sources of information. Chapter 1 presents the background of the study, having an introduction on migration and social protection. The research issues and methodology are also presented under this chapter, along with scopes and limitations of the study.

Chapter 2 discusses about a conceptual understanding on migration, social protection and rights. It explores the concepts of migration and social protection from both economic and social perspectives. It discusses about the legal responses on these two concepts and also sheds light on the importance of social protection as a right of the migrants.

Chapter 3 contains an analysis on the concepts of migration, social protection and rights under global lenses. It focuses on the concepts and related matters and highlights some of the best practices of social protection regarding migration and migrants around the world.

Chapter 4 explores the current situation of Bangladeshi migrants and their social protection at countries of destination. It also delineates the existing gaps that create challenges in implementing the social protection schemes for the Bangladeshi people who are living and working overseas.

Lastly, Chapter 5 presents a discussion and policy recommendation for migration, social protection and rights. It also explores about the priority areas and policy spaces for these notions and makes specific recommendation on the subject.

1.5. Limitations

The following are the limitations of the study identified by the research team:

(a) As the study is primarily based on secondary information focused on existing literatures, quantitative data was not collected from the community or household level. If data collection was done, more accurate and realistic information could have been captured.

(b) In many instances of interviews, the availability of the key informants was challenging. In addition, few of the KIIs hesitated to participate in the interview process due to their personal reasons.

(c) The understanding of social protection of the migrants largely depends on the information available in the destination countries. However, it was not possible for the study team (due to time and resource constraints) to explore those countries in which Bangladeshi migrants live and work. Hence, there lies a gap in extracting the realistic picture of the situation.

5 The National Project Board members consist of representatives from MoFA, MoEWOE, IOM, SDC and UNDP who support the implementation of the Mainstreaming Migration into National Development Strategies Programme.

Chapter 2

Conceptual Understanding

This chapter discusses about a conceptual understanding on migration, social protection and rights. It explores the concepts of migration and social protection from both the economic and social perspectives, along with the legal responses that are conveyed to the concepts. It also shed lights on the importance of social protection as a right of the migrants.

2.1. Migration: Economic and Sociocultural Scenario

Migration is considered as one of the important components of the world economy and development paradigm, yet according to the handbook of GMG (IOM, 2010:10) there was "no universally agreed upon definition" of this process. This handbook strives to use terms that reflect internationally accepted approaches that are sufficiently broad to capture the many perspectives on these topics, and reflect the full range of interactions between migration and development.

Nevertheless, the GMG Handbook has referred to the 1998 UN recommendations and mentioned that international migration includes movements of many kinds, such as people leaving their country of origin as economic migrants, refugees and family members of migrants (ibid.). Likewise, development is defined as a process of improving the overall quality of life of a group of people, and in particular expanding the range of opportunities open to them.[6]

There are three major economic approaches to migration that give primacy to the economic aspects of migration. They discuss how these aspects, associated with the place of origin and destination, regulate the movement of population, and in what pattern the movement follows. These are shown in brief in the following box.

Box 2.1: Major economic perspectives of migration

Economic perspectives	Explanations
Patterns of migration (Originated from the contributions made by E.G. Ravenstein)	The migration process is predominantly short distance. The volume of migration decreases with distance. As the distance from the centre of absorption increases, the volume of migration decreases. This implies that the role of migration is inversely proportional to the distance between the place of origin and the destination. In most cases, long distance migration proceeds to the greatest centres of commerce and industry. This implies that the rate of migration is directly proportional to the available opportunities at the places of origin and places of destination. The migrants who travel long distances will tend to move to nearby towns and then gravitate towards rapidly growing cities depending on available opportunities.

6 This definition is broader than some traditional notions of development that are primarily concerned with economic growth and associated statistics like GDP, gross national income and incomes of individuals and families (IOM, 2010:10).

The "push-pull" factor analysis (The most prominent name associated with this approach is Everett S. Lee)	The second approach under the economic perspective is the situation-specific 'push and pull' factors analysis. It is an alternative model of migration. It is situation-oriented approach dealing with socioeconomic differentials existing at the place of origin and place of destination. According to this viewpoint, migration is the result of the interplay between the expulsive forces at the place of origin and the attractive forces at the place of destination. The approach takes into account all possible factors that determine the movement of population. Migration is a source of permanent or semi-permanent change of residence. It may be of short or long duration. The act of migration involves the place of origin, the place of destination and the set of intervening opportunities that affect migration. The push and pull factors and their effects vary by region and by factors of age, education, occupation, class, caste, tribe, ethnicity, region, religion and so on. The roles of these factors or individual traits differ from the place of origin and place of destination but according to Lee, there are certain common factors of similar reaction. People may like to move from one place to another for better education, higher wages, more job opportunities and better living conditions.
The "cost and benefit" model of migration (The most prominent name associated with this model is M.P. Todaro)	This approach also gives primacy to the economic factors. The cost of migration is defined as the moving cost or money available to move, travel and afford the costs of living at the destination. It also refers to the costs of searching and getting training for new jobs. The cost of migration also includes the mental burden and the temporary cost of staying without any job at the place of destination. Migration is the interplay between the costs of migration and benefits of migration. If the migrant finds that there are opportunities at a given place, it will maximize the expected gains in terms of actual income if she/he decides to migrate. There is an element of subjectivity as an individual makes a subjective assessment of the objective opportunities at a given place to maximize expected benefits from migration, taking into account the costs of migration and earning at the source of migration. There is always a basis of permanent income calculation in the mind of migrants.

Source: Sociology Guide, Migration: Economic perspectives, available from: www.sociologyguide.com/migration/economic-perspectives.php (accessed 17 April 2017).

The movement of population within and across the region is an important aspect of change. The large-scale and long distance movements are basic features of modern development. They are basic because they cause socioeconomic changes that promote progress. These changes affect the society and the movement of population itself. Following this, the social context of migration is derived from various theoretical approaches that consist of economic, social, cultural, demographic, developmental and physiological factors of migration.

In line with the economic perspectives, there are several sociological approaches to migration. Among these, the most important is the structural-functional approach.[7] It focuses on migration as one of the integrated social processes and as an integral part of the larger social system. It is the society that provides a social context to migration and makes the process of migration socially conditioned. The socio-structural and cultural conditions affect the process of migration and in turn, are affected by the process. Thus, the movement of population becomes an institutionally and normatively or culturally determined phenomenon.

The theories of social stratification also provide another viewpoint on migration. They focus on the social class character of the society and highlight various tendencies of the social class. The class component functions as

7 Sociology Guide, Migration: Sociological perspectives, available from www.sociologyguide.com/migration/sociological-perspectives.php

a push factor at the source to move out for gratification of motives through improvement in the social status. The class factor also functions as a pull factor to hold the people together and does not allow them to move out from the place of residence. The class factor promotes spatial mobility from the source and develops adjustment and adaptation at the destination.

Besides these, various theories of social change and modernization, culturological approaches, theory of social evolution and demographical theories with focus on spatial movement in sociology also provide different viewpoints on migration. All these show that migration is a complex and multivariate phenomenon and view migration as a holistic perspective.

Today, work transformations are driven by globalization and technological revolutions, particularly the digital revolution – the shift from mechanical to digital technology. Workers and employers around the globe are increasingly linked by complex webs of trade and migration (UNDP, 2015:77). The GMG Discussion Paper states that most people migrate to improve their livelihoods, seek decent work and a better life, and pursue new opportunities for themselves and their families. Many are compelled to flee their homes to escape human rights violations, discrimination, violence, poverty, food insecurity or environmental degradation. Many others are refugees fleeing persecution and conflict. The complex nature of contemporary migration flows in combination with marked demographic imbalances, labour and skill mismatches, the accelerating pace of regional economic integration, and deepening inequalities mean that mobility is expected to continue to increase in the years to come (GMG, 2015:2).

Following this, by focusing on quality of life and opportunities, the GMG Handbook takes a "human development" perspective to explain the relationship between migration and development. Pursuing human development means pursuing all avenues to improve a person's opportunities and freedoms (also known as capabilities) – whether income or non-income related. This can include improvements to people's lives, such as expanded access to social services, reduced vulnerability to risk or increased political participation. A human development approach also places greater focus on protecting people's human rights – political, social and economic (IOM, 2010:10). Thus, it generates an interplay among the notions.

Box 2.2: Migration, development and human rights: Some interplays

All persons, irrespective of their nationality and immigration status, are entitled to enjoy protection of their human and labour rights.

- ✓ A rights-based policy gives migrants an opportunity to be economically productive and enrich their social lives.
- ✓ Equal protection of human rights for migrants and citizens enhances social cohesion and integration.
- ✓ Enjoyment of human rights enhances the capacity of migrants to contribute to their home and host society.
- ✓ Migrant's contributions to the country of origin can enhance the ability of people left behind to access their rights (e.g. remittances sent back that are used for education).
- ✓ Protection of human rights may reduce pressure to emigrate, as the violation of rights can create situations of poverty, poor governance and conflict, all of which can provoke movement.
- ✓ Enforcement of labour standards in destination countries may curb the demand for irregular migrant workers who are at particular risk of human rights violations.

Source: Adapted from IOM, 2010:11.

Human development and human rights are complementary concepts. The basic idea of human development – that enriching the lives and freedoms of ordinary people is fundamental – has much in common with the objects of human rights. Human rights and human development are thus "close enough in motivation and concern to be compatible and congruous, and they are different enough in strategy and design to complement each other fruitfully" (UNDP, Human Development Report 2000, p. 19; as cited in Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), n.d.).

When grounded in human rights and underpinned by humane, fair and well-governed migration policies, migration can be a powerful tool for development (GMG, 2015:2). It has the potential to lift millions of people out of poverty, widen educational opportunities, help match labour demand with supply, foster entrepreneurship and innovation, and facilitate the exchange of knowledge, technology, skills and cultural practices. Migrants also contribute significantly to countries of origin through the transfer of financial and social remittances by encouraging trade linkages and making investments. Through temporary and return migration, migrants can also bring needed skills to their countries of origin.

Migration may, however, also come with high social costs, as migrants are often separated from their spouses, children and elderly family members. Furthermore, if appropriate policies aligned with international human rights and labour standards are not implemented, migration can negatively affect development and contribute to inequalities, exacerbating the violations of migrant rights. In large part, it is the social, cultural, economic and political context in which the movement of people takes place that largely determines whether migration translates into increased opportunities and well-being, or deprivation and vulnerability (GMG, 2015:2).

2.2. Social Protection and Rights: Economic and Sociocultural Analysis

Social protection, as Sabates-Wheeler and Waite (2003:5) states, is an agenda primarily for reducing vulnerability and managing the risk of low-income individuals, households and communities with regard to basic consumption and social services. However, it remains a confusing term mainly due to the range of existing definitions and the variety of ways it is interpreted by policymakers implementing social protection programmes. Some of the definitions are shown in Box 2.3 below:

Box 2.3: Definitions of social protection

ILO

- ✓ Definition: The provision of benefits to households and individuals through public or collective arrangements to protect against low or declining living standards.
- ✓ Conceptual emphasis mainly in terms of insurance and extension of provision to those in the informal sector.

World Bank

- ✓ Definition: Public measures intended to assist individuals, households and communities in managing income risks in order to reduce vulnerability and downward fluctuations in incomes, improve consumption smoothing and enhancing equity.
- ✓ Conceptual emphasis on risk management that frames social protection as both safety net and springboard through human capital development.

Inter-American Development Bank

- ✓ Definition: Social protection refers to the set of public policies directed towards lessening the impact of adverse shocks on consumption over time.
- ✓ Conceptual emphasis: People are vulnerable to risk without social protection; deleterious effect of the lack of social protection on human and physical capital.

Overseas Development Institute

- ✓ Definition: Social protection refers to the public actions taken in response to levels of vulnerability, risk and deprivation which are deemed socially unacceptable within a given polity or society
- ✓ Conceptual emphasis: Contextually specific understanding of vulnerability and deprivation. Social protection is targeted at the poorest and most vulnerable.

Source: Adapted from Sabates-Wheeler and Waite, 2003:5.

When these various definitions are translated into policy and actions, a common range of public programmes of assistance, insurance and benefits emerge (Sabates-Wheeler and Waite, 2003:5). These include the following:

(a) Social insurance: Combines a large number of similarly exposed individuals or households into a common fund, thus, eliminating the risk of loss to individuals or households in isolation. Formalized programmes, such as pensions, health insurance, maternity benefits and unemployment benefits, are financed by contributions that are either earnings-related or collected through payroll taxes. Non-State (or informal) mechanisms, such as savings clubs and funeral societies also function on the same principles.

(b) Social assistance: All forms of public action that are designed to transfer resources to groups deemed eligible due to deprivation. Formal programmes are usually financed from tax revenues and include targeted resource transfers – disability benefit, single-parent allowances and "social pensions" for the elderly poor that are financed publicly. Non-State provision may be in the form of extended family support, religious support or borrowing from friends.

Barkat et al. (2011:22) states that there are five main areas in social protection:

(a) Labour market policies and programmes designed to promote employment, the efficient operation of labour markets and the protection of workers;

(b) Social insurance programmes to cushion the risks associated with unemployment, ill health, disability, work-related injury and old age;

(c) Social assistance and welfare service programmes for the most vulnerable groups, including single mothers, the homeless or physically or mentally challenged people;

(d) Micro-and area-based schemes to address vulnerability at the community level, including micro-insurance, agricultural insurance, social funds and programmes to manage natural disasters; and

(e) Child protection to ensure the healthy and productive development of children.

The Human Development Report 2015 states that social protection is a more comprehensive concept than social security, social assistance or a social safety net; it combines all three systems and is critical for increasing workers' well-being and enhancing the choices people have in their work lives (UNDP, 2015:165). Today, only 27 per cent of the world's population is covered by a comprehensive social protection system. In other words, 73 per cent or about 5.2 billion people do not have access to comprehensive social protection (ILO, 2014h, as cited in UNDP, 2015:165). Most middle-income and some lower-income countries have expanded their systems in recent years, although some of these advances are not fully established or do not have secured funding.

Social protection and social security are often used interchangeably and is broadly defined as public policy measures aimed to protect members of the society against social and economic distress in relation to sickness, economic insecurity, unemployment, disability, poverty, old age and so on (ILO 2010:13, as referred to in Taha, Messkoub and Siegmann, 2013:5). It is a question of "meeting individual welfare needs and the rights of people to have these needs met, whatever their citizenship or residence status" (Sabates-Wheeler and Feldman 2011:14; as cited in Taha, Messkoub and Siegmann, 2013:5).

Social protection, as Antonopoulos (2013:2) mentions, has emerged as a strategic component in the policy agenda of developing countries. The challenges sought to be addressed by currently discussed social protection frameworks are not novel. Yet, a shift in focus is in evidence. Antonopoulos (ibid.) further states that in the past, especially in the context of many developing countries, social protection schemes were introduced as a "safety net" in periods of heightened risks due to rapid deterioration of living standards of households and individuals in (or near) poverty. Such cases of heightened risks and vulnerabilities have included, for instance,

the aftermaths of environmental stresses and natural disasters, sudden food and fuel price spikes, episodic financial and economic crises, and the damaging social and economic consequences of structural adjustment policies and austerity programmes.

Box 2.4: Social protection: A brief overview from economic perspectives

Until the early 1990s, social protection was marginal to mainstream understandings of development, primarily due to the association of the concept with either the social security of wealthy nations or contributory social insurance programmes for workers in the modern sector. For its part, ILO continued its efforts to extend social coverage to workers, but did not incorporate populations in the informal sector. The idea of extending non-contribution based social security to non-salaried populations was considered both prohibitively expensive and likely to reinforce a "culture of poverty". This critique was taken even further during the economic liberalization of the 1980s. The World Bank rejected social protection programmes for workers as economically harmful and socially unjust. Only very minimal safety nets, reserved for the poorest of socially vulnerable populations, were considered acceptable.

In the late 1990s, however, driven by the setbacks of the economic adjustment programmes, the 1997 Asian economic crisis and a heightened awareness of the negative impact of global poverty, the dominant paradigm changed. Social protection became a preferred instrument of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), while the World Bank promoted social protection as a key component of international poverty reduction strategies (social risk management) (World Bank, 2001). The ILO took the initiative of mounting a global campaign to extend social security to developing nations, the Social Protection Floor Initiative (ILO and World Health Organization (WHO), 2009). UNDP underscored the vital role of social protection in development policy. In the United Kingdom, the Department for International Development (DFID) placed social protection at the centre of its policies. Several major international conferences (such as Livingstone in 2003, Arusha in 2007 and Dakar in 2008) centred on the theme of social protection and development were initiated by or in cooperation with the World Bank, the DFID and the UN. Successful social protection programmes developed in the Global South–such as Brazilian and South African social pension schemes and conditional cash transfers (CCT) established in Mexico and Brazil–were adopted as model programmes at the global level.

Source: Adapted from Merrien, 2013.

The consensus taken by various development organizations (in the 1990s and 2000s) in favour of social protection represents a fundamental paradigm shift. With the adoption of the MDGs in 2000, social protection was no longer sidelined within the international development community and the need to extend social protection was a matter of consensus (sometimes referred to as the "post-Washington consensus").

Following this, social protection in developing countries is no longer perceived as a short-term means of adjusting to economic shocks, but rather as a global policy (Voipio, 2007, as referred to in Merrien, 2013:3) combining cash transfer programmes for extremely vulnerable populations. It also includes new programmes incorporating a social investment perspective into social transfer policies (Jenson, 2008, as mentioned in Merrien, 2013:3), and both public and private social insurance programmes for formal sector workers. Despite a degree of political alignment, perspectives on risk management, social needs and social rights continue to clash (Voipio, 2007, as cited in Merrien, 2013:3). Social protection choices require the gradual implementation of social learning in order to enable the creation of policies (Barrientos and Hulme, 2008, as referred to in Merrien, 2013:3). Social protection discourse is still a subject of discussion in some epistemic communities and institutions (Merrien and Mendy, 2010, as mentioned in Merrien, 2013:3). Overall, the discourse reflects a relatively coherent set of values and stable analytic framework through which social insecurity issues are evaluated and policy responses are devised.

Over the course of just two decades, social protection discourse within development policy has changed radically. From an attitude of complete rejection stemming from moral economic objections in the Global South, there has been a shift towards a "residual", minimalist perspective wherein the safety net is regarded as an acceptable last resort. Since the early 2000s, social protection has come to be appreciated for its essential virtues, and the scope of such programmes has expanded (Grosh, 2012, as cited in Merrien, 2013:10). This change is all the more remarkable, considering that it has occurred in light of the complex interactions between various organizations, such as financial organizations, regional development banks, specialized

UN agencies, national development agencies, a number of Southern countries, and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) that are increasingly involved in the debate.

Over the years, the objectives, targets and meaning of social protection have evolved substantially (Kabeer, 2008; Barrientos and Hulme, 2008; and Holmes and Jones, 2010; as cited in Antonopoulos, 2013:3). The call in recent times is for expansion (Social Protection Floor Initiative) and coherent integration of social protection policy within the framework of an inclusive growth agenda. Inclusive growth entails ensuring that everyone can participate in the economic growth process and that benefits of growth are shared equitably across social classes. Such an objective needs to be rooted in the notion that production, distribution of income and redistributive mechanisms must be coherently integrated: economic participation without equitable benefit-sharing makes growth unjust. On the other hand, sharing the benefits of growth through social assistance without promoting fair and full economic participation for all citizens renders growth biased, favouring some groups while leaving others behind. The aim, therefore, is to explore synergies and integrate in a coherent and consistent manner policy instruments and objectives of social protection with productive inclusion (Antonopoulos, 2013:3).

Therefore, it is well assumed that social protection has become a key concept in development policy. In response to the negative social impact of structural adjustment policies, the idea of social protection has changed from being simply an underlying concept of welfare to become a distinct policy agenda, driven by both national and international players (international agencies, donors, NGOs and national governments) to address both welfare deficits and facilitate growth (Sabates-Wheeler and Feldman, 2011:14).

2.3. Social Protection as a Right to the Migrant Workers

Respecting human rights is not only a legal obligation and a legitimate aspiration of all human beings; it is also a precondition for societies to grow and prosper in peace and security (OHCHR, n.d.). Social security is a human right, as well as a social and economic necessity. All successful societies and economies have employed development strategies where social security systems played an important role to alleviate poverty and provide economic security that helps people to cope with major risks or the need to quickly adapt to changing economic, political, demographic and societal circumstances (ILO 2010, as cited in Taha, Messkoub and Siegmann, 2013:7).

Sabates-Wheeler and Feldman (2011:93–94) as mentioned in Taha, Messkoub and Siegmann (2013:5) identify four components to social protection for international migrants:

(a) Access to social security in host and origin countries affects their level of vulnerability;

(b) Portability between host and origin countries is important for avoiding losses of accrued entitlements;

(c) Labour market conditions for migrants in host countries and the recruitment process for migrants in the origin country must balance between employers' needs and workers' protection; and

(d) Access to informal networks can act as informal social safety nets to support migrants and their family members.

The plethora of rules and restrictions surrounding entitlements to social rights means that migrants often find themselves excluded from or in undefined relationships with states, markets and mainstream social institutions. This results in political and economic forms of disadvantage, including restricted access to 'normal' welfare provision. These formal processes reinforce a range of barriers to welfare, such as entitlement confusion, migrant-specific vulnerabilities, informational blockages and bureaucratic hurdles. Migrants' access to formal systems of social protection is, therefore, dependent on political decisions about the social rights of non-citizens, and on how far welfare is used as a means of controlling migration. Migrants may choose or be forced not to engage with formal provisioning systems; instead they may go without social protection or may attempt to access it through alternative routes and institutions (Sabates-Wheeler and Feldman, 2011:4).

2.3.1. *Importance of Social Protection as a Right*

The importance of migrant workers to a country's economic development is only one of the many reasons why national social security systems should extend coverage to such workers (International Social Security Association (ISSA), 2014:5). With their numbers increasing in many countries, extending coverage to migrant workers is important if significant progress is to be achieved with regard to national and international coverage extension objectives.

Box 2.5: Importance of social protection – Focusing on the migrant workers

The importance of social protection with special focus on the migrant workers are as follows:

- ✓ Social security systems provide essential benefits and services to help mitigate the risks faced by vulnerable sections of the working population.
- ✓ Wider social security coverage enhances social cohesion, facilitates economic growth and strengthens public support for social security schemes.
- ✓ Coverage of migrant workers may be seen as important for equity reasons by the non-migrant population (for example, in the case of posted workers).
- ✓ Migrant workers may help improve the demographic situation of a country and are often net contributors to the social security system.
- ✓ Covering migrant workers strengthens other efforts to formalize the informal sector, encourages and supports mobility of employees and provides safeguards to prevent the exploitation of migrant workers.

Source: Adapted from ISSA, 2014:5.

ISSA (2014) identifies some influential issues that indicate the elaborated explanation of the importance of extending the coverage of social protection for the migrant workers:

Box 2.6: The importance of extending social security coverage to migrant workers

- ✓ Protection of the individual and family: Social security systems provide coverage against labour market and lifecycle risks that a person would otherwise not be insured against, either because they decide not to insure themselves or because such coverage is either not affordable or available.
- ✓ Supporting policy to encourage migration: Social security coverage plays a role in ensuring the migrants are productive and their families are covered, thereby supporting wider economic and labour market objectives.
- ✓ Social cohesion: This is enhanced through a social security system that effectively covers the migrant workers against risks, ensures equitable and fair treatment of all workers that reduces inequalities and, in turn, social conflict and tensions.
- ✓ Facilitating economic development: This is done through the provision of income security for individuals. By covering the risk of short-term illness, for example, the social security system protects the business development of self-employed migrants from shocks.
- ✓ Reduction in the exploitation of workers: Migrant workers are frequently active in the informal sector, and have limited access to wider support mechanisms. Social security can work as an effective tool to reduce exploitation and abuse through the formalization of working practices and offer a range of support services to different categories of migrant workers like women, specifically domestic workers, workers in the informal economy, youth, temporary migrant workers and migrant workers with irregular status.
- ✓ Formalization of the labour market: Social security coverage is linked with bringing immigrant workers into the formal economy, leading to increased tax take and a reduction in the number of workers not covered by occupational safety and health (OSH) regulations.
- ✓ Access to insurance, savings vehicles and other services: Migrant workers often do not have the same access to complementary financial market products, such as life insurance or pension funds, as national, non-migrant workers.
- ✓ Reputational and legal issues: The conditions and coverage of migrant workers can become an important reputational issue for countries, especially when this is linked to cultural or sporting events with a high international profile.

Source: Adapted from ISSA, 2014:20–21.

2.3.2. Legal Response to Social Protection as a Right

Before concentrating on the social protection of the migrant workers, a glimpse of the concept of overall protection for the migrant workers is necessary. For a labour-sending country, protection of migrant workers has two aspects: (a) protection of prospective migrants before their departure from the home countries; and (b) protection of national workers while they are abroad (IOM, 2003:63). National laws in the country of origin can do little in helping its workers while they are in foreign countries. In a labour-receiving country, the issue mainly revolves on the protection accorded to foreign workers, whatever their status is. There are mainly two types of international legal instruments for the migrant workers: (a) those specifically dealing with migrant workers; and (b) international human rights instruments that apply to migrant workers. Migrant-specific instruments are useful because migrant workers may have special problems that may not be covered by more general human rights instruments. It also helps to draw attention to them as a separate target group for policy purpose.

The protections that exist in international law for migrant workers and members of their families include:

(a) Fundamental human rights that apply to all migrants, regardless of their status, which are set out in the core international human rights treaties and under customary international law; and

(b) International labour conventions and standards that provide basic protections for treatment and conditions at work, which apply to all workers regardless of their migration status.

In general, States are obliged to ensure that migrants receive comparable treatment and protection as nationals of the State.

Table 2.1: What human rights apply to migrant workers?

Human rights instruments/ framework	Related conventions/treaties/articles
The international human rights framework	
Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948 (The principle of non-discrimination is central to the enjoyment of human rights and applies to everyone, regardless of their status.)	The international human rights framework consists of the Declaration and nine core human rights treaties. ✓ International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights ✓ International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights ✓ International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination ✓ Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women ✓ Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment ✓ Convention on the Rights of the Child ✓ International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families ✓ International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance ✓ Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.

Other human rights treaties relevant to migrant workers	
There are a range of other human instruments – including declarations, principles and guidelines – that are relevant to the treatment of migrant workers and can be used to promote and protect their human rights.	✓ United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and its Protocols: • Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime • Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime • Slavery Convention and the Supplementary Convention on the Abolition of Slavery, the Slave Trade, Institutions and Practices Similar to Slavery • Declaration on the Human Rights of Individuals who are not Nationals of the Country in which They Live • Durban Declaration and Programme of Action • Recommended Principles and Guidelines on Human Rights and Human Trafficking – Report of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights to the Economic and Social Council • Resolution of the UN Commission on Human Rights on the Human Rights of Migrants (2005) • Resolution of the UN General Assembly on Protection of Migrants (2004)
The Convention on Migrant Workers	
The Convention on Migrant Workers (adopted in 1990 and entered into force in July 2003)	• The right to life (article 9) • Protection from torture or cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment (article 10) • Freedom from slavery, servitude or forced or compulsory labour (article 11) • Freedom of thought, conscience and religion (article 12) • The right to liberty and personal security and protection against arbitrary detention (article 16) • The right to procedural guarantees (article 18)
ILO Conventions	
In addition to the international human rights treaties, the ILO has established a number of conventions that outline and protect the labour rights of migrant workers.	In particular, the ILO has approved two major conventions specifically on the rights of migrant workers. These conventions are supplemented by two (non-binding) ILO recommendations that provide further guidance on how the rights of migrant workers can be protected in practice. • Migration for Employment Convention, 1949 (C-97) • Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (C-143) • Migration for Employment Recommendation (Revised), 1949 (R-86) • Migrant Workers Recommendation, 1975 (R-151)

Source: Asia Pacific Forum, 2012:4–8.

These are mainly legal responses to the protection of migrant workers from human rights perspectives as a whole. However, there are other instruments that relate to their social protection and rights.

Box 2.7: International standards on social protection

One of the first instances in which the importance of social security had been recognized was in Article 3 of the Declaration of Philadelphia (1944), which preceded the founding Constitution of the ILO and laid down the ILO's general aims and purposes. Articles 22, 23 and 25 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights(UDHR) (1948) likewise outlines the universal right to social security and social protection of all human beings (both individuals and families) in all circumstances, including as a means of supplementing a daily living wage to ensure maintenance of a minimum standard of living. Discussion of social protection in the UDHR revolves around food, clothing, housing, medical care and the right to social services/security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, death of a spouse, old age, or motherhood/childhood (also Articles 9 and 10 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights).

The ILO's Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention 1952(ILO C 102) was the first international standard to comprehensively address issues of social security or social protection. Since the founding of the ILO in 1919, the International Labour Conference has adopted 31 Conventions and 23 Recommendations addressing issues relating to social security (The most important standards regarding social security include ILO Conventions 121, 128, 130, 168 and 183, and ILO Recommendations 67, 69, 121, 131, 134, 176 and 191).

In 2001, the ILO adopted the Global Campaign on Social Security and Coverage prior to the 97th Session of the International Labour Conference, in which the ILO Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization was endorsed. The latter declaration stressed the need for specific programmes globally whereby "full employment and raising of the standards of living, a minimum living wage and the extension of social security measures to provide a basic income to all in need" are gradually achieved (ILO, 2011:7). Finally, in light of the 2008 global economic crisis, the UN adopted the Social Protection Floor Initiative in 2009, led primarily by the ILO, WHO and other UN agencies, to "support countries in efforts to plan and implement sustainable social transfer schemes and essential social services on the basis of the concept of a Social Protection Floor" (ILO, 2011:8).

Source: Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung, 2011.

There are also existence of International Standards on Migrant Workers and Social Protection. International and regional legal, normative and political structures have, for over half a century, firmly recognized and codified the "right" to social security or social protection, and have focused specifically on migrant worker rights and migrant social security benefits (Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung, 2011).

Table 2.2: International Standards on Migrant Workers and Social Protection

Resolution/convention/framework	Major articles and their primary concentrations
Resolution 40/144 of the UN's General Assembly in 1985 (the Declaration on the Human Rights of Individuals Who are not Nationals of the Country in which They Live)	Article 8 (right to health protection, medical care, social security, social services, education, rest and leisure)
UN Migrant Workers Convention 1990 (specifically deals with the rights of all migrant workers – documented and undocumented – to social security)	Article 27 (on migrants enjoying same treatment like that of the nationals in relation to some legal legislation and treaties) Article 28 (on receiving medical care that is urgently required for the preservation of their life) Articles 43 and 45 (For documented migrants – on access to housing, social housing schemes, social and health services, unemployment benefits and unemployment services, providing conditions are met and subject to immigration terms)
ILO's Resolution Concerning a Fair Deal for Migrant Workers in a Global Economy	Stresses on "Comprehensive national approaches to improving social welfare and social inclusion and cohesion in the context of labour migration".

ILO Multilateral Framework on Labour Migration 2006	Section 9.9 (Entering into bilateral, regional and multilateral agreements to provide social security coverage and benefits, as well as portability of social security entitlements, to regular migrant workers and, as appropriate, to migrant workers in an irregular situation) Section 9.10 (Adopting measures to ensure that migrant workers and accompanying members of their families are provided with access to health care)
ILO Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962 (ILO C118)	Laid down standards specifically outlining the social security rights of migrant workers.
ILO Maintenance of Social Security Rights Convention, 1982 (ILO C157)	Provides a model of an international system to ensure and promote maintenance of acquired social security rights (or rights in the course of being acquired) when workers move from one country to another, as well as ensure that rights they have acquired can be exported to their home country (or another country in the case that they re-migrate).
ILO Equality of Treatment (Accident Compensation) Convention, 1925 (ILO C19)	Ensures that migrant workers are not discriminated against in comparison to nationals of a host State in terms of work accident compensation rights, as long as the migrant's home State has also ratified the convention.
ILO Maintenance of Migrants' Pensions Rights Convention, 1935 (ILO C48)	Deals with specific issues relating to migrant workers and pension rights/portability.
ILO Convention on Social Security (Minimum Standards), 1952 (No. 102)	Sets global minimum standards for all nine branches of social security. Part XII of Convention No. 102 (article 68) is devoted to equality of treatment of non-national residents.
ILO Maintenance of Social Security Rights Recommendation, 1983 (No. 167)	Sets out in its annex a Model Agreement for the Coordination of Bilateral or Multilateral Social Security Instruments.
Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202)	Sets four basic social security guarantees to all residents and children: (a) access to a nationally defined set of goods and services constituting essential health care, including maternity care; (b) basic income security for children, at least at a nationally defined minimum level; (c) basic income security, at least at a nationally defined minimum level, for persons in active age who are unable to earn sufficient income; and (d) basic income security, at least at a nationally defined minimum level, for older persons. Migrants and their families should have access to these basic social security guarantees in the State where they reside, as well as in their home country.

Source: Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung, 2011 and ILO, n.d.

Though there are some notable legal and human rights instruments relating to migrants' social protection, yet it may not be legally possible for migrant workers to affiliate with the social security system (ISSA, 2014:32). This may be because the law excludes membership or it may be de facto exclusion, if, for example, there is a minimum number of years' condition for affiliation or a long minimum service requirement for eligibility for the minimum pension. In addition, immigration requirements (e.g. legal measures restricting the maximum amount of time that an immigrant can stay in the host country) may directly lead to ineligibility for social security affiliation or benefit entitlements (i.e. if the maximum stay in a country is less than the minimum vesting requirement).

Box 2.8: Treatment of migrant workers in Canada

Canada's Seasonal Agricultural Worker Program offers a good practice example for a number of reasons. First, the rules in that sector provide migrants with social protection rights that are similar to those of Canadian workers, including for health benefits and family allowances. Second, the Government involves employers in designing and implementing the programme, and gives administering agencies discretion in implementing the rules. Third, Canadian law treats non-citizen status as an issue for anti-discrimination law, giving migrants the same status as other expressly protected groups. While there are a wide range of multilateral and bilateral agreements to facilitate social security coverage, a number of international legal instruments also aim to address this issue. For example, the Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97) and the Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143) are two ILO standards. In addition, the United Nations International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families was adopted in 1990 and covers regular and irregular migrant workers. In turn, the ILO Recommendation Concerning National Floors of Social Protection, 2012 (No. 202) refers to coverage for "residents" and not citizens, although it also states that this status depends on the national definition of residents, which may exclude some migrant workers.

Source: Adapted from ISSA, 2014.

There is another important dimension in the migration process that is related to the link between immigration status and eligibility for social security. In a number of countries, illegal immigrants may still be eligible for social security coverage, as there may be no direct communication or coordination between government departments treating immigration issues and the social security institution. In addition, a policy decision may have been taken, allowing coverage of workers that do not have formal permission to work or reside in the host country. This may take the form of facilitated signup of domestic workers or exemptions allowing such workers to affiliate.

In many countries, migrant workers are allowed to, or obliged to, contribute to the social security system in the host country, but there may be no bilateral or multilateral agreement between the two countries. In such a case, although the individual may be building up rights in the host country social security system, such entitlements may not be portable or transferrable. In addition, rights built up may not be subject to totalization agreements, so that the employee may contribute for a number of years in the host country and not be entitled to any or the full value of benefits accrued.

Box 2.9: Legal instruments for migrant workers in the European Union

The European Union has put in place a number of legal instruments to ensure that not only the coverage of migrant workers who change country of employment is guaranteed, but that the adequacy of benefits when reaching retirement is maintained. The approach is the totalization of benefit entitlements – in effect, that when there is a minimum contributory service requirement, it is determined considering all such service undertaken anywhere in the European Union. The calculation of accrued benefits is performed on a pro-rata basis. For example, an employee works 5 years in Luxembourg, 25 years in the United Kingdom and 10 years in Spain. The calculation of the social security pension payable from each country will assume total service of 40 years, but will either calculate the retirement pension on a pro-rata basis or use the standard accrual rate calculation. For example, for the Luxembourg pension, the minimum service requirement for the right to a State pension is 10 years. Therefore without any agreement, the individual would normally not have right to any benefit. However, under the totalization rules, the entitlement to a Luxembourg State pension is determined, assuming that this minimum service requirement has been met, and therefore, the calculation of benefits is determined considering total service in all European Union countries (40 European Union-years of service). For Luxembourg, this is determined using the benefit formula and current accrual rate of 1.85 per cent per year multiplied by contributory adjusted earnings and the number of contributory years' service in Luxembourg. This amount is paid from the Luxembourg authorities when the insured reaches the Luxembourg State pension age and the social security entitlements from Spain and the United Kingdom are calculated using the same approach. For the United Kingdom, the amount received will be determined on a pro-rata basis due to the fixed-rate nature of the benefit entitlement.

Source: Adapted from ISSA, 2014.

Another feature that is closely related to the migration process, especially for the migrant workers in the destination countries, which requires the legal response is "portability" of the social protection schemes.

Portability of accrued benefits depends on two elements. The first relates to the benefit structure and the arrangements that may facilitate portability. The second is administrative, and it relates to the nature of arrangements and agreements regarding how benefit entitlements are calculated and credited when a worker has entitlements from different schemes. If there are no appropriate arrangements to address this issue, the migrant worker may accrue a much smaller benefit than expected – or none at all – due to, for example, not meeting the minimum service requirements or where an accrued benefit may lose value, owing to the effects of inflation.

The realm of portability of social protection has been discussed in many instances. For example, Holzmann, Koettl and Chernetsky (2005) has discussed on the good practices of portability regimes of pension and health-care benefits for international migrants. Again, Koettl, Holzmann and Scarpetta (2006) have studied on the relative merits of skilled and unskilled migration, temporary and permanent labour migration, and portability of social security benefits. Also, Olivier (2009) has discussed about the regional overview of social protection for non-citizens in the South African Development Communities, while Avato, Koettland Sabates-Wheeler (2009) have explored the definitions, good practices and global estimates on the status of social protection for international migrants.

The above-mentioned studies also led Holzmann and Koettl (2012, as cited in ISSA, 2014:38) to study on migrants and the issue of portability of social protection schemes. There, they estimated that of those migrants covered for social security, the majority are covered for entitlement to benefits, but are not covered by bilateral or multilateral agreements regarding portability, transferability and the totalization of benefit entitlements. The authors classified the coverage of migrants into four different regimes as follows:

(a) Portability (i.e., covered for social security in the host country and covered by bilateral or multilateral agreement ensuring full portability of accrued benefits);

(b) Exportability (i.e., covered for social security in the host country, but not subject to a bilateral or multilateral agreement; payment of benefits depends on the host country rules);

(c) Access exclusion (i.e., legal migrants with no social security coverage in the host country either because it does not exist or they are legally excluded); and

(d) Informal sector (i.e. illegal or informal-sector migrant workers with no coverage).

Migrant workers may either directly or indirectly be denied access to social protection by their home State or receiving country, or they may be employed in informal or other sectors of the economy that make them ineligible for full social protection (Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung, 2011). In addition, there is often a large gap between migrants having rights to social protection in theory, and gaining access to those rights and benefits in practice. This involves a concentration on the conceptualization of migration in the social protection framework.

2.3.3. Conceptualizing Migration in Social Protection Framework

Social protection is basically a concept of welfare regime for the people in need of them. As mentioned earlier (in this chapter), the definitions of social protection indicate the two arrays in it: social insurance and social assistance. It is widely agreed that while social insurance and social assistance are clearly elements of social protection in practice, most agencies view social protection as more than just this traditional package of social security (Sabates-Wheeler and Waite, 2003:6).

However, there is lack of consensus on what else "social protection" includes. Some stakeholders see social protection narrowly, essentially, as a new label for old-style social welfare provided to conventionally defined "vulnerable groups" (e.g. people with disabilities, widows and orphans). Others adopt a very broad approach to social protection, including even universal primary education, microcredit and job creation programmes, as well as safety nets and social services for groups that may be vulnerable to shocks, but are not usually regarded as among the poorest strata of the society. Still others conceptualize social protection so broadly

as to include the majority of development activities. Crucially though, the majority of agencies take an instrumentalist approach to social protection policies, seeing it as a collection of measures to manage risk and thus improve or protect livelihoods. The different measures of social protection are provided in Box 2.10:

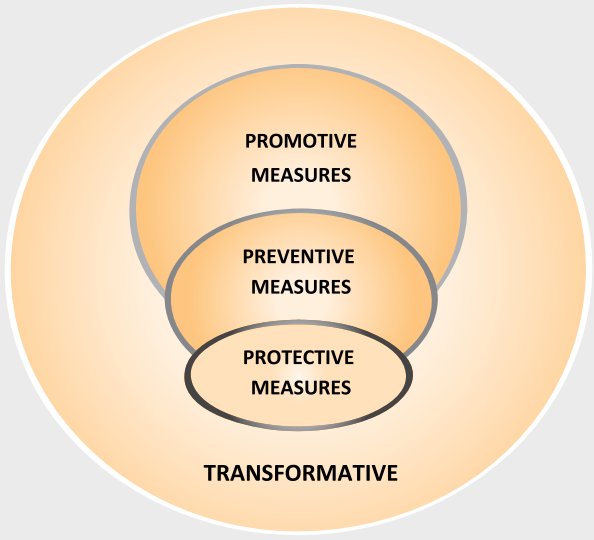
Box 2.10: Different measures in social protection schemes

- ✓ Promotive measures that "aim to improve real incomes and capabilities". These may include macroeconomic, sectoral and institutional measures relevant to poverty reduction, such as improving primary education, reducing communicable diseases and facilitating access to land or sanitation.
- ✓ Transformative measures that aim to alter the bargaining power of various individuals and groups within society, such that social equity concerns are addressed, and people are protected against social risks, such as discrimination or abuse. A "transformative" view extends social protection to arenas of equity, empowerment and "social rights", rather than confining the definition to targeted income and consumption transfers or insurance mechanisms.
- ✓ Preventative measures aim to "avert deprivation in specific ways". These typically refer to both State and non-State social insurance provision.
- ✓ Protective measures are even more specific in their objective of "guaranteeing relief from deprivation" that are narrowly targeted safety net measures aiming to provide relief from poverty and deprivation to the extent that promotional and preventative approaches have failed to do (Kabeer, 2002: 595).

Source: Sabates-Wheeler and Waite, 2003:8.

These may be overlapping categories in that measures can simultaneously "promote" as well as "prevent". Promotive, preventive and protective measures can be thought of as a gradation of measures that proceed from a wider domain of application to increasingly more specific ones (Figure 2.1). Thus, there is an outer circle of promotional measures that would include macroeconomic, sectoral and institutional measures. Preventive measures, which make up the middle circle, are made up of direct measures for averting deprivation. Finally, the inner circle of protective measures consist of narrowly targeted safety net measures in the conventional sense, which aims to provide relief from poverty and deprivation to the extent that promotional and preventive approaches have failed. Transformative measures can interact with, or be a part of, all other measures, though the dotted line indicates that this is not typically the case.

Figure 2.1: Conceptualizing approaches to poverty and vulnerability



Source: Adapted from Sabates-Wheeler and Waite, 2003:10.

Locating migration within social protection literature is interesting, as it can be conceptualized in a variety of ways depending upon the unit of analysis (Sabates-Wheeler and Feldman, 2011:11). Conceptualizing vulnerability as a characteristic of the migrant individual or group, the focus can be given on the migrant's access to social protection during and after the migration process (here migrant can refer to the individual or the migrant family). It is also important to think about the changing social protection needs of the migrant's family, who may remain in the origin location. Alternatively, the fundamental causes of vulnerability that affect migrants and families of migrants can also be thought of. There are basically four categories of vulnerabilities that migrants are especially prone to: (a) temporal; (b) spatial; (c) sociocultural; and (d) sociopolitical (Sabates-Wheeler and Feldman, 2011:11).

The GMG (IOM, 2010) depicts another conceptualization of migration in the social protection framework in the light of opportunities and risks. This is shown in Table 2.3 hereafter.

Table 2.3: Migration and social protection – Opportunities, risks and intervention areas

	Country of destination and transit	Country of origin	
	Migrants	**Families left behind**	**Return migrants**
Opportunities	✓ Increased income ✓ Employment opportunities ✓ Improved standard of living ✓ Improved quality of basic services ✓ Escape from violence, abuse and other human rights violations	✓ Increased income in the form of remittances ✓ Increased income can provide individuals and families greater access to private/public social services and insurance	✓ Access to social security/pensions accrued in host countries ✓ Greater incentive for return migration – transfer of assets and skills to home country
	Social protection interventions to maximize opportunities		
	✓ Public social insurance offered by country of origin (cost paid by the migrant worker)	✓ Public/private insurance schemes for families left behind (cost paid by households from remittances or cost paid by migrants abroad)	✓ Bilateral or regional portability agreements ✓ Voluntary pension/social security programme for migrant workers

Risks	✓ Vulnerable to trafficking, abuse and exploitation, particularly for children, women and irregular migrants ✓ Discrimination and social marginalization ✓ Limited or no access to basic services and other social benefits	✓ Separation of family members leads to vulnerabilities for children and families left behind ✓ Family instability ✓ Increased household burdens ✓ Social stigmatization	✓ Inability to access accrued social security benefits/ pensions ✓ Loss of benefits is a disincentive for returning to country of origin ✓ Increased burden on social protection systems in countries of origin
	Social protection interventions to address risks		
	✓ Improve legal position of migrants ✓ Improve labour conditions of migrant workers ✓ Allow access to basic services regardless of migration status	✓ Social care services (psychological, legal, etc.) for families left behind ✓ Inclusion of families/children left behind into existing social assistance programmes as a vulnerable population	✓ Bilateral or regional portability agreements ✓ Lump sum payment of benefits

Source: Adapted from IOM, 2010:129.

Protection means elimination of discrimination and exploitation and the respect for the basic human rights and rights of all migrant workers; yet, this is far from the practice. This happens because of various malpractice and exploitation. Malpractices exist where the treatment of the migrant workers and members of their families are not in accordance with national legislation or ratified international standards, and where such treatment is recurrent, deliberate and involves groups of people rather than merely individuals. Exploitation exists where such treatment incurs very serious pecuniary or other consequences. The conceptual understanding of migration and social protection can help in realizing the strategies of reducing or abolishing the problems like malpractices or exploitation in an effective way.

Chapter 3

Analysis Under the Global Lens

This chapter contains an analysis on the concepts of migration, social protection and rights under global lens. It discusses on the focus area of these concepts and the related matters. It also discusses some of the good practices of social protection regarding migration and migrants around the world.

3.1. Social Protection in Migration Process

"Social protection" and "social security" are used interchangeably, but also are understood to have different and/or similar meanings depending on the context. Since the 1990s, the scope and ambitions of social protection policies have expanded dramatically, beyond the focus on safety nets, to include activities to help poor people manage stresses and shocks, in order to indirectly stimulate livelihood development and growth (by stimulating asset accumulation and reducing inefficiencies from risk-averse resource use), as well as directly protect these people's welfare and livelihoods (Sabates-Wheeler and Feldman, 2011:14).

Issues relating to migrant workers have become extremely important, along with concerns about international population movements that have increased in recent years (IOM, 2005). Such concerns can also be observed on the issue of social protection of the migrant workers, and many incidents have paved way for such concerns. For example, the demand for domestic work sustains migration within countries. In many Latin American countries, domestic migrant workers are from the neighbouring countries – Bolivians in Argentina, Peruvians in Chile – often reflecting lower travel costs, less restrictive entry requirements and established networks (UNDP, 2015:115). But others travel longer distances, from lower- to higher-income countries. Latin Americans work in the United States, and Ukrainian care workers find jobs in Italy. Workers from the Philippines or Indonesia may move to Singapore, where one household per five households employ a domestic worker. Some of the biggest employers of such workers are the countries in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC). They employ about 2.4 million migrants, many of whom are female domestic workers. Between 2001 and 2010, the number of migrant domestic workers has dramatically increased (ibid.).

Moreover, Taha, Messkoub and Siegmann (2013:4) state that migrants face many of the same risks and hazards as anyone else in the population of destination. They also face migrant-specific risks in the migration cycle, such as unemployment, sickness, injury and problems in old age like poverty and illness. Migrants may face any of these insecurities at any stage of migration. Due to a different socioeconomic and institutional environment, these may also differ in priority depending on the type of migration flow.

3.1.1. Major Focus Areas of Social Protection

Access to formal social protection is crucial for migrants in order to reduce their vulnerabilities, states Sabates-Wheeler and Feldman (2011:21). This includes access to health-care benefits, long-term social security benefits like old-age and disability benefits, and short-term benefits like social assistance, maternity and unemployment benefits, family and housing allowances, as well as public housing and education. Thus, identifying the major focus areas of social protection for the migrant workers is important for any implementation.

One of the major concerns of the social protection schemes for the migrant workers is health. Health is a fundamental human right (as recognized in major human rights instruments), critical for human development and the achievement of developmental goals. The right to health goes well beyond the right to health care, as good health requires the attainment of other economic and social rights. These include, for example, the right to an adequate standard of living, including the right to adequate food, clothing and housing and the right to social security (IOM, 2010:80–82).

Health and migration are linked and are interdependent. Most importantly, these links revolve around two clusters of issues:

(a) Health of (often lower-skilled) migrants and how it affects human development in different phases of the migration cycle; and

(b) Challenges that migration presents for health systems in countries of origin and destination, including aspects of disease control and health worker migration.

Regarding migrants' health, it is a critical asset for migrants and their families and negative health outcomes do not only affect the individual migrant or cause a social and economic burden to host communities, they might also have repercussions on families left behind, or the wider community in the country of origin.

Migration is not necessarily a health risk in itself, but conditions surrounding the migratory process can expose migrants to health risks and vulnerabilities. Migrants are often faced with inequalities in accessing health services due to marginalization, powerlessness, lack of specific policies or shortcomings in implementing them, or exploitative working conditions. For this reason, one can consider migration to be a social determinant of health.[8] To understand the links between social protection and health, it is important to look at the different phases of migration: (a) pre-departure phase; (b) destination phase and return; and (c) reintegration phase.

Box 3.1: Why links of health to migration is important for social protection?

The issue of the health of migrants goes beyond infectious diseases. It includes migration-related health vulnerabilities, including sexual and reproductive health, mental health, occupational health, health implications of climate change, access to health care and human rights issues.

Migration can lead to possible risky sexual behaviour due to the disruption of former stable networks and social norms that would otherwise regulate sexual behaviour. Separation from their partners may drive migrants to engage in unsafe, casual or commercial sex, thus, increasing the risk of sexually transmitted diseases. Migrants often live lives of conditional encounters and short-term relationships of economic, social or sexual character. This is particularly evident in situations of involuntary migration, such as fleeing natural or man-made disasters, human rights violations or irregular situations. Risk factors can often be linked to the legal status of migrants, which determines the surrounding conditions of their situation and the level of access to health and social services.

Women are particularly vulnerable as they migrate and can become victims of discrimination, violence, sexual exploitation and trafficking. Access to family planning, protection from sexually transmitted infections and HIV, access to maternal health services, including antenatal care, safe delivery and postnatal care, are critical for the health of migrant women. In view of the growing number and share of women in total migration, both internal and international, gender and cultural issues, the provision of sexual and reproductive health services, and making access to those services easier and affordable is of growing importance.

Source: IOM, 2010:80–82.

Apart from health, there are also some other major areas to be focused on from the social protection perspectives. Some of such areas are identified by the GMG as education and skills, employment criteria and multiple risks and vulnerabilities (UNICEF, 2014:6–8).

In the context of the global economic downturn affecting many countries, limited economic and social opportunities have increased pressures for adolescents and youth to migrate. Such growing populations of young people – a so-called youth bulge – face high unemployment and absence of social protection and employment prospects for supporting themselves and their families (UNICEF, 2014:6). Almost half the world's adolescents do not attend secondary school. When they do attend, many – particularly those from the poorest and most marginalized households and communities – fail to complete their studies, or finish with insufficient knowledge and skills to be employable in the modern globalized economy.

Migration provides opportunities to access education and employment (UNICEF, 2014:7). However, it also exposes

8 Assisting Migrants and Communities (AMAC): Migration a Social Determinant of the Health of Migrants, IOM/2009.

migrants and their families to risks and vulnerabilities at each stage of the migration process – risks that adolescents and youth have not gained adequate skills and life experience to overcome on their own. In addition, migrants moving across borders – particularly children, youth and women – risk abuse and exploitation, especially when they end up in unauthorized migratory or employment situations. Moreover, adolescence represents a transitional period when young people continue to experience multiple vulnerabilities.

In countries of destination, young migrants may become victims of discrimination and social marginalization, and face difficulties and restrictions in accessing employment, education and social protection. Many young migrants face poor working conditions, increasing their vulnerability, often not covered by health insurance schemes because they are not part of the formal labour market. For youth, a lack of or inability to access formal social protection in destination countries, combined with unfavourable labour market conditions, increase their chances of exposure to job-related risks (UNICEF, 2014:8).

Box 3.2: Risks and vulnerabilities faced by young migrants affecting their social protection in destination countries

- ✓ Social and legal exclusion based on nationality, ethnicity, gender, age and/or irregular status.
- ✓ Discrimination in employment, in services and/or in day-to-day civic life based on actual or perceived nationality, ethnicity and/or migration status.
- ✓ Increased exposure to health risks, especially in urban informal settlements and at work, notably in industrial, agricultural and/or mining environments.
- ✓ Exposure to lack of OSH protections and risky working conditions, particularly in 3-D jobs (dirty, dangerous and degrading).
- ✓ Risks of abuse and exploitation in employment (non-payment of wages, substandard pay, unpaid overtime, workplace violence).
- ✓ Risks of mistreatment and abuse by authorities (arbitrary measures in disaccord with regulations or due process, corrupt practices, physical violence, etc.).
- ✓ Limited or no access to basic social services. Limited or non-existence of service facilities, and/or of information on health, education, children's and other services in a language young migrants can understand.
- ✓ Restricted access to health and social services for short-term temporary and/or undocumented migrants where entitlements are made dependent on status.
- ✓ Limited or no access to social protection schemes, institutions and/or services, notably in less developed countries.
- ✓ No access to social security entitlements built up in country of origin due to lack of bilateral or multilateral agreements ensuring the portability of these entitlements.
- ✓ Non-portability of contributions and benefits earned in country of employment.
- ✓ Legislative barriers: legal requirements/restrictions on access to health, housing, schooling and other social protection, in particular by nationality and territoriality.
- ✓ Lack of fluency in official language(s).
- ✓ Lack of familiarity with a new environment.
- ✓ Isolation in geographic locations (such as rural agricultural, forestry, mining areas) distant from where services may be available. Lack of recognition of schooling, diploma or training credentials; lack of recognition of equivalent experience.
- ✓ Lack of political participation or representation.

Source: UNICEF, 2014:10.

As social protection measures aim to strengthen resilience, accelerate equity and contribute to human development, they can also be seen as a strategy for maximizing the opportunities and addressing the economic and social vulnerabilities associated with adolescent and youth migration. Complementary

dimensions for ensuring social protection for young migrants include informal support networks and policy addressing labour market access and employability (UNICEF, 2014:16).

3.1.2. Good Practices of Social Protection Measures for Migrants in the International Arena

The Human Development Report 2015 states that while migrant workers obtain jobs and often earn more than they would at home, they can also find themselves trapped in abusive and exploitative settings with limited recourse of assistance. For example, their employer may withhold their passports and wages, not allowing them to resign from their jobs before their contract ends. Work hours may be extremely long, and employees may have limited or no access to services to reinforce their rights, becoming victims of exploitation and even physical and sexual violence (UNDP, 2015:115).

Most migrant workers are employed in sectors, such as construction, manufacturing, hotels and restaurants, health care, education, domestic work and agriculture in the host countries. In these sectors where working conditions are particularly flexible, many migrant workers – in particular the low-skilled – can be the victims of abuse and exploitation. Women who leave their home countries alone in increasing numbers, account for almost half of all international migrants and face specific problems with regard to their protection (ILO, 2010, as mentioned in van Ginneken, 2013:212).

At the other end of the scale, there are millions of professional workers, both women and men, who travel to other countries in search of higher wages and greater opportunities. These migrant workers are usually better accepted by the host country population because they assimilate more easily with the local culture, and are seen to be contributing more to the economic development in the host countries. Their access to social security and social protection is normally adequate (van Ginneken, 2013:212).

All these issues are subject of learning in the sphere of practice of social protection for the migrant workers. Some of the good practices (though not exhaustive) regarding such issue are shown in the Table 3.1 hereafter.

Table 3.1: Good practices of social protection for migrants around the world

Name of the country	Initiatives of social protection
Philippines	Activated the Filipino migrant welfare fund, which concentrates on the activity of delivering welfare services and benefits to all overseas Filipino workers and their dependants. The actors involved in this mechanism were the Department of Labor and Employment and Overseas Workers' Welfare Administration. Being created in 1997, until the estimation of 2010, it covered 1.2 million workers (in 2008). Filipino migrants who contribute to the fund are eligible for the following services: (a) insurance and health care; (b) education and training programmes; (c) social services; and (d) workers assistance and on-site services (for details, please see Annex 1).
Mexico	Set off the Program OPORTUNIDADES (formerly PROGRESA), which focuses on the activity of delivering CCTs to extremely poor households. The actors involved in this mechanism were as follows: (a) Government of Mexico Secretariat for Social Development; (b) national and state coordination agencies of the programme; and (c) education and health service providers. Having started in 1997, it covered 5million households (approximately 18%of the country's total population) until 2010. Although issues related with migration are not explicit in the programme, there are some "unintended" consequences that have been documented as a result of the project's success, including reducing international migration (for details, please see Annex 1).

Republic of Moldova	Established the Intergenerational support for social protection of children left behind, which concentrates on building capacity of volunteer networks to support older people caring for grandchildren to prevent institutionalization and reintegrate children with their families (mainly target group is the children left behind). The actors involved in this mechanism were Help Age International (HAI) and UNICEF. The project addressed 514 older-people-headed families in care of children left behind from two regions, including both rural and urban areas. In the HAI/UNICEF project, a network of volunteers was established to provide counselling and assist vulnerable families in which older people care for children of migrant parents (for details, please see Annex 1).
Senegal, Mali, Mauritania, Ghana, Ethiopia, South Africa, Uganda, Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda, United Republic of Tanzania and Mauritius	These countries developed the Extending social security coverage to African migrant workers and their families, which focuses on strengthening national and regional strategies for the extension of social security coverage to African migrant workers and their families. The actors involved in this mechanism were as follows: (a) ministries of Labour and Social Security; (b) workers' and employers' organizations; (c) national social security institutions; (d) Regional Economic Communities such as the East African Community; and (e) ILO. There are three main project components: (a) building knowledge; (b) strengthening capacities; and (c) providing support to the negotiation process of bilateral social security agreements (for details, please see Annex 1).
Canada	Set up programmes that provide access to social security, in particular for seasonal workers from abroad. Under the Canadian scheme, migrant workers typically have the same right to health insurance as Canadians, and when workers return to the same employer more than once, they become eligible for old-age and disability pensions, both of which are portable. They are also eligible for family allowances.
The European Union	Has the most advanced and complex system of portability of social benefits. European Union nationals enjoy full non-discriminatory access to all, and the portability of most, social benefits. With respect to third-country nationals, equality of treatment is granted after a certain period of residence (no longer than five years, according to European Union Directive 109/2003). More recently, the European Union started dialogue and cooperation with non-European Union countries on the basis of three main goals: (a) facilitating and organizing legal migration; (b) preventing and reducing irregular migration; and (c) maximizing the development impact of migration and mobility.
Spain	Concluded many bilateral migration agreements with countries in Africa (such as Guinea-Bissau, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco and Senegal), Eastern Europe (such as Bulgaria, Poland and Romania) and Latin America (such as Argentina, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Ecuador and Mexico). These agreements were the outcome of its Global Programme adopted in 2001, and comprised of the following five measures: (a) approval of admission criteria; (b) estimation of the need for temporary and permanent workers; (c) selection of countries for bilateral agreements; (d) management of all aspects of migration; and (e) establishment of mechanisms for selecting, and for possibly training, migrant workers.
Brazil	Developed a system of paperless exchange of information on social security benefit claims across the MERCOSUR countries (Brazil, Argentina, Paraguay and Uruguay). Many countries have shown interest in this information system – not only countries with whom Brazil has concluded international social security agreements (such as Chile, Greece, Portugal and Spain), but also other countries, such as Germany and Japan.

Sources: IOM, 2010 and van Ginneken, 2013.

In addition to the above-mentioned examples, some countries have signed some bilateral and multilateral agreements and/or joined some collaboration that work on the social protection of the migrants. For example, in 2007, Spain and Portugal signed the Ibero-American Multilateral agreement with 20 Latin American countries, all of which are members of the Ibero-American Social Security Association. This agreement allows immigrants who have worked in multiple countries, but who do not meet the minimum eligibility requirements in any one country to qualify for benefits. Under the agreement, workers qualify for old-age, survivors', disability and work injury benefits, based on their combined contributions across participating

countries. These workers receive a benefit from one country, either from their country of residence when they retire, or from their native country (van Ginneken, 2013:215).

Also, in Asia, there is growing interest in international cooperation and multilateral social security agreements. The GCC, for example, adopted the Unified Law of Insurance Protection Extension for GCC State Citizens working in other GCC countries in 2006 (ISSA, 2009a, as cited in van Ginneken, 2013:215–216). This law has resulted in better pension protection and greater labour mobility. Members of the Association of South-East Asian Nations had also taken an initiative to establish a multilateral social security agreement (Tamagno, 2008; as referred to in van Ginneken, 2013:215–216). In Eastern Europe and Central Asia, there are also trends towards greater cooperation between social security agencies. These led to the adoption of the Baku Declaration on Enhancing Social Protection of Migrant Labour, signed by social security directors, administrators and experts from 24 countries (ISSA and International Association of Pension and Social Funds 2005, as mentioned in van Ginneken, 2013:215–216). Furthermore, in the regions of the Latin America and the Caribbean, migrants can take advantage of social security provisions that have been established in the multilateral frameworks of CARICOM (established in 1996) and MERCOSUR (in force since 2004) (van Ginneken, 2013:215–216).

The good practices are surely some examples of some initiatives that have been directed for the welfare of the migrants and their families in many countries. All these initiatives have promoted the idea of a rights-based approach to migration. And for a truly rights-based approach to migration, strong provisions for social protection is needed (Oberreuter, 2012:3), along with the safeguarding of fundamental rights, access to health care, upward social mobility and access to lifelong learning for all members of society. It is about human beings and human rights because migrant rights are human rights.

Chapter 4

Status of Bangladeshi Migrants and Their Social Protection

The current situation of Bangladeshi migrants and their social protection in abroad is explored in this chapter. This chapter also highlights the existing gaps that create obstacles in acquiring or implementing the social protection schemes for the Bangladeshi people who are living and working overseas.

4.1. Migration and Social Protection in Light of the Seventh Five Year Plan 2016–2020 and National Social Security Strategy 2015

Social protection is one of the strategic objectives in the decent work concepts, along with the other goals, agenda and cross-cutting themes of the Decent Work Country Programme developed by ILO in Bangladesh (ILO, 2012:1). According to ILO (2012:6), the lessons learned from Bangladesh's First Decent Work Country Programme 2006–2009 has helped in sensitizing tripartite constituents about social protection. This has contributed the idea to initiate the improved coverage of social protection, working conditions and rights for workers in target sectors and areas in which migrant workers are specially focused.

In relation to this, one of the three pillars of the ILO DWCP is reducing vulnerabilities through basic social protection, especially for the migrant workers including the other groups (ibid., 8–9). Additionally, ILO stresses on the idea of social protection as an important tool for poverty alleviation and also refers that it is addressed through several sectoral policies and the National Five-Year Plans (ibid., 5).

Regarding this, in the SFYP 2016–2020 of the Government of Bangladesh (2015), migration of Bangladeshi workers has been highlighted with a special focus on their contribution to economy and development. According to SFYP 2016–2020, migration is an integral component of the development process in contemporary Bangladesh. Migration is recognized as a driver of development, among others, by creating employment for a large number of workers and bringing in remittances for millions of individuals from low or marginal economic backgrounds.

According to the SFYP 2016–2020, while migration and mobility (both internal and international) are often recognized as drivers of national economic expansion; they are also associated with urbanization, environmental and overall developmental challenges. Often, high costs are borne by migrants both at origin and destination, and their families, which are not compensated by financial gains. Migration also impacts gender dynamics, the composition of families and societal structures at large. Finally, irregular migration and displacement, high recruitment costs, violations to migrants' human and labour rights, restricted access to information and services, limited socioeconomic participation in destination areas, and the reintegration challenges of returnee migrants, all negatively impact the migration-development nexus.

Box 4.1: Migration from Bangladesh as export of factor services and remittance boom

The SFYP 2016–2020 has highlighted migration from Bangladesh in terms of export of factor services and remittance boom. Thus, it states that Bangladesh has already emerged as a leading South Asian player in the export of factor services (labour) through overseas employment to a wide range of countries, especially in the Middle East. While much of the impetus to the surge of remittance in Bangladesh has come from the private sector, government policies have generally played a supportive role, especially through a range of enabling policies to support outward migration of workers, banking support for mobilizing remittances, fiscal incentives (tax-free remittance inflows) and a favourable exchange rate. These have paid off handsomely.

Source: Government of Bangladesh, 2015.

According to the SFYP 2016–2020, through the Bangladeshi migrant workers, remittance inflows grew slowly in the 1990s, but then gained momentum in the 2000s. In fiscal year (FY) 2014, official remittances stood at USD 14.3 billion. This is the second highest source of export earnings after ready-made garments. Remittance flows are expected to stabilize in the coming years, as some of the problems relating to the legal status of Bangladeshi migrants in Gulf countries are expected to be gradually resolved. And this is the reason and platform where the social protection of the migrant workers in the Gulf countries, and actually in all the destination countries, draws a separate place to be worked on.

To further discuss the concern on social protection, it is mentioned by ILO (2012:1) that earlier in many instances, the Government requested the support of the development partners for the formulation of a national social protection strategy. The Government has also supported the adoption of ILO Recommendation of Minimum Social Protection Floor at the International Labour Conference held in June 2012 (ILO, 2012:1).

Following this, to facilitate the national policies on social protection in Bangladesh, the NSSS came into being in July 2015 by the Planning Commission. In the NSSS 2015, it is mentioned that the Government of Bangladesh is strongly committed to reducing poverty, improving human development and reducing inequality. This commitment is reflected in Vision 2021, the Perspective Plan of Bangladesh 2010–2021 and in the Sixth Five Year Plan FY11–FY15. The Government seeks to build on past progress with poverty reduction and further deepen this progress by addressing the root causes of poverty and lowering the impact of risks faced by the poor and vulnerable population.

According to the NSSS 2015, it is grounded in learning from the lessons of past experience with social security in Bangladesh. There is a long history of formal social security in Bangladesh, which in part, has shaped the nature of the current social security system. At independence, the main social security scheme in place was the government service pension. It was complemented by a provident fund that provided the Government and formal private sector employees a lump sum amount on retirement. In response to the 1974 food shortage and floods in the 1980s, new schemes were developed for poor families that were badly hit. The schemes were mainly public works and other food aid programmes, making use of foreign assistance. In the late 1980s, the Government began to introduce schemes that addressed risks across the lifecycle, such as school stipend programmes. During the late 1990s, there was also significant investment by the Government, supported by donors in various well-known programmes like widow and old age allowances managed by NGOs providing a range of social services, including social transfers. There has been a gradual growth in the proportion of transfers provided as cash instead of food, although cash is mainly provided through the lifecycle-type programmes. There has also been a significant increase in small schemes among both NGOs and government that include some elements of social security.

There are several conditional and unconditional social protection programmes along with education stipend programmes in Bangladesh (Barkat, Karim and Al Hussain, 2011). These are as follows:

- **Conditional social protection programmes:**
    - ✓ Employment Generation Programme for the Hardcore Poor
    - ✓ Food for Work Programme
    - ✓ Rural Infrastructure Maintenance-Test Relief Programme
    - ✓ Rural Employment and Road Maintenance Programme
- **Unconditional social protection programmes:**
    - ✓ Allowance for the Financially Insolvent Disabled
    - ✓ Allowance for the Widowed, Deserted and Destitute Women
    - ✓ Gratuitous Relief

- ✓ Maternity Allowance for the Poor Lactating Mother
- ✓ Old Age Allowance
- ✓ Vulnerable Group Development (VGD)
- ✓ Vulnerable Group Development for Ultra-Poor (VGD-UP)
- ✓ Vulnerable Group Feeding (VGF)

- **Education stipend programmes:**
  - ✓ Primary Education Stipend Project
  - ✓ Nationwide Female Stipend Programme
  - ✓ Stipend for Students with Disabilities

All these social protection programmes in Bangladesh have been initiated on the basis of some key poverty estimates, as well as the anti-poverty strategy of the Government in response to the poverty scenario (ibid., 127). Social safety nets in Bangladesh, like elsewhere in the world, have two basic objectives: (a) protecting individuals from falling into poverty beyond a certain level through redistribution; and (b) correcting market failures. Social protection programmes are mainstay of the poverty alleviation strategy of Bangladesh.

Historically, the social protection, or more precisely the safety nets in Bangladesh, has crossed a changing pattern in its process. Three factors have driven this process of change: (a) political process whereby the welfare responsibilities of the State have come into sharper focus and safety net programmes have increasingly become an important source of political capital; (b) social process of erosion of informal safety nets due to the decay of the extended family system; and (c) growing realization within the development community that safety nets are crucial to a sustainable anti-poverty strategy. As a consequence of these factors, Bangladesh has witnessed a proliferation of safety net programmes over time (Rahman and Choudhury, 2012:21). Numerous social protection programmes have been implemented, which aim at helping different groups within the population and coping with adverse shocks that are either personal or aggregate in nature (Barkat et al. 2011:130). However, all these social protections programmes are subject to 'improving the targeting effectiveness' (as suggested by Barkat et al., 2013).

According to the NSSS 2015, under broad themes, the existing social security interventions in Bangladesh ranges from lifecycle perspective for pregnancy and early childhood (including school age, young age and the working age population), for disability (and old age); for specific groups (urban poor and socially excluded people); for coping with risks as idiosyncratic and covariate risks and shocks (seasonal poverty, food price shocks and economic recession); to disaster risk mitigation after programmes etc. In the NSSS 2015, there are also discussions on social security and the labour market (under chapter 3) that promotes the idea that a key principle of well-designed social security is that it should facilitate rather than undermine the engagement of recipients – in particular those of working age – in the labour market, but there is less concentration on promoting the ideas of providing social protection for the migrant workers in the destination countries. Nevertheless, the NSSS 2015is an important tool for development that ensures the provision of social security for citizens that is embedded in the article 15 (d) of the National Constitution.

Box 4.2: Budget, administration and financing of the National Social Security Strategy of Bangladesh – At a glance

(a) Budget:

Reflecting the Government's commitment to social security, budgetary allocations have grown in absolute terms, as well as a share of GDP. The allocation for social security programmes (SSPs) increased from 1.3 per cent of GDP in 1998 to 2.3 per cent in FY2011. Since then, it has stabilized at around 2.0 per cent of GDP. Although this level of funding is modest by international standards, when measured against the Government's tight budget situation, this represents a substantial commitment, accounting for 13 per cent of total government spending.

(b) Administration:

Bangladesh's current Social Security System (SSS) is complex, comprising of a large number of programmes and managed by many ministries. According to a comprehensive official compilation prepared by the Ministry of Finance, there are 145 programmes under the SSS currently financed through the budget. The total amount being spent on these programmes in FY 2014–2015 is 307.9 billion Bangladesh Taka (Tk), which is equivalent to 2.02 per cent of the GDP. These programmes are administered by as many as 23 line ministries/divisions and there is no formal mechanism for sharing information among the implementing ministries/divisions.

(c) Financing:

The full financing of the NSSS is based on cost-sharing arrangements between the Government and the private sector. The public expenditure financed component is only one part of the NSSS financing; the other part is financed by the private sector based on social insurance and employment-based regulations. One fundamental policy question is whether the public expenditure-financed component of the NSSS is affordable in terms of available budgetary resources. The financing assumption is based on keeping the spending on SSPs constant as a share of GDP (2.2%).

Source: Government of Bangladesh, 2015b.

The NSSS 2015 admits that there is growing global evidence that social security works and is an essential tool in tackling poverty and promoting economic growth. However, the value of any social transfer and programme coverage will have to be sufficiently large to have a meaningful impact. Proper administrative arrangements involving a coordinating agency, strong implementing agencies, professional staff, a sound Management Information System (MIS), a payment system based on financial institutions, proper monitoring and evaluation and an appeals system to resolve beneficiary grievances are all elements of a sound social security delivery system. These are also true for providing the social security schemes for migrants.

4.2. Status of Bangladeshi Migrants and their Social Protection in the Destination Countries

The atypical lifecycle of migrants require special provisions for their social protection to ensure that they can adequately manage their social risks. Migrants move between countries and hence between distinctively regulated labour markets and social protection systems that create specific vulnerabilities.

The current dominance of neoliberal globalization has led to an attack on social protection systems around the world (Migrant Forum in Asia, 2013). Many citizens are experiencing the loss of social protection entitlements, leading to increasing disparities and insecurity for many workers. The increase in informalization of work functions to place many workers in less secure contexts. Structural adjustment policies in most developing countries have led to an increase in the informal sector of work. Social protection has become an urgent issue for all workers, especially low-skilled migrant workers who face triple disadvantages of discrimination, marginalization and vulnerability, and are often excluded from social security benefits.

There are a broad range of problems and vulnerabilities that the migrant workers face in the destination countries. Disadvantages or vulnerabilities specific to migrant status define and shape the parameters of outcomes for migrants, such as social welfare, security, dignity, associational participation and inclusion (Sabates-Wheeler and Feldman, 2011:14). Furthermore, vulnerability and insecurity has implications for downward spirals into poverty. These are also true for the Bangladeshi migrant workers who are working in the destination countries.

Problems that the Bangladeshi migrant workers face in the destination countries are evident (for example, in Ahmed et al., 2015). Such problems they face most frequently are related to wages. Low wages along with irregular payments, keeping wages due to workers by the employers for a long time, not receiving wages according to their contracts, and even not receiving wages for overtime work are also major problems that the migrant workers of Bangladesh face.

Another major problem that the Bangladeshi migrants face while living and working abroad is police harassment. Language-related problems, employment scarcity, physical and mental torture ranging from simple reprimand to impolite behaviour by employers (including rape of the female employees), are also some other severe problems and vulnerabilities of the migrant workers from Bangladesh. In line with these, Bangladeshi migrants also face some difficulties related to (safe) residence including robbery and bribery by dalals (Ahmed et al., 2015).

Problems identified by others like Avato, Koettl and Sabates-Wheeler (2009:3) can also be taken into account while assessing the situation of Bangladeshi migrants in the destination countries. Like others, the newly arrived Bangladeshi migrants are in a particularly vulnerable position as they are away from their home community and have no access to important informal social networks and safety nets. In addition, the access to formal social services in the new host country is typically delayed until some months or years after arrival. At the same time, migrants might have contributed to formal social protection systems in their country of origin or former host countries, yet any right to benefits from these systems might cease to exist or substantially diminish with the arrival in the new host country. Similarly, any contribution made to the social protection system of the new host country might be lost after the migrant departs because the associated social rights and benefits might not be portable across international borders. Finally, migrants – in particular low-skilled and undocumented migrants – face challenging labour market conditions in host countries related to cross-border recruitment, information asymmetries between employers and migrants, and visa requirements tied to specific employers.

Among the problems faced by migrant workers, one problem that has been identified by the Human Development Report 2015 is debt bondage. This report states that a more recent variant of debt bondage has risen through international migration. To pay for travel and secure work abroad, aspirant migrants may have to borrow large amounts from agents. The agents and employers can then manipulate this credit to entrap workers. Other people may be forced to work as a result of incarceration or physical or sexual violence (UNDP, 2015:44).

In addition to the above vulnerabilities, trafficking is another problem. Trafficking occurs on a large scale, but its extent is difficult to assess. It can be tricky to judge whether migration is voluntary or forced and difficult to extract data specifically on trafficking from data on other forms of illegal migration and exploitation. Because the activity is illegal, victims are unwilling to report abuse for fear of being deported (ibid.).

However, as argued by van Ginneken (2013:212–213), most migrant workers are confronted with particular difficulties in the field of social security, as social security rights are usually related to periods of employment or contributions or residency. In addition, the immigration and integration policies of nation States typically result in highly differentiated rights (including rights to social security) that distinguish between citizens and various types of non-citizens.

To further explore the status of Bangladeshi migrants and their social protection in the destination countries, several KIIs were done with the government officials along with other resources persons. Their responses are provided hereafter based on the query topics:

Importance of Social Protection of Migrant Workers at the National Level:

The findings reveal that social protection is a kind of assistance that addresses the vulnerability of the people. The national policy on social protection cover the vulnerabilities of the government workers (pensions for

retired officers), and/or old age allowance for the elderly people in the poor households in rural sectors. Social protection policies almost cover everyone by following a "life-cycle model" (starting from lactating mother allowance to old age allowance).

Migration too, is a concern that comes under social protection. The most vulnerable aspect of migration is migrants' health. Many of the migrants get injured in the destination countries while working. Many of them return with physical disability or mental distresses. The Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment (MoEWOE) is working to address this issue. The MoEWOE has formed the Welfare Board that provides compensation but it is limited, as their funds are not sufficient. Therefore, a national scheme for the social protection of the migrant workers, especially for those who are in the destination countries, is needed.

The findings on the query of the relationship of migration in the NSSS (2015) also explores that it is absent because it has a history of its own. Previously, the focus of NSSS was on reducing rural poverty. After the liberation war of 1971, as a newly emerged independent country, Bangladesh was in need of work for its development. As an initiative, Bangladesh had concentrated on rural development and started the safety net programmes like VGD, VGF, rural maintenance and so on. Thus, there was minimum focus on lessening the urban poverty. Therefore, the social security strategies were in need of reformation from the rural bias with a note to work on urban poverty. Work was done to develop urban road, sanitation, safe water as a part of the poverty reduction activities and the reforms were included in the NSSS (Government of Bangladesh, 2015b).

Initiatives Taken by the Government on Social Protection of the Migrant Workers:

The Government has initiated "smart cards" for the migrant workers. Before leaving Bangladesh, the migrants give Tk 3,500 and they are provided with a smart card. This way, they become part of the authorized system. They have access to legal assistance along with the assistance from the welfare officials.

The Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training (BMET) is mainly concerned about foreign demands for recruitment, emigration clearance, regulating private recruiting agents, implementing self-employment programmes, labour market information and training. BMET is also concerned about the welfare of the labour migrants, but it is only limited to responding to their complaints in the destination countries.

The Wage Earners' Welfare Board, which was a unit of BMET before, has taken some initiatives. It provides a 10 per cent surcharge to the migrants while they leave the country. If a migrant worker dies while in the foreign country, their families are given Tk 300,000 as compensation. An amount of Tk 35,000 is provided for bringing back the dead bodies to the country. The left-behind families are also provided assistance from the Board for their medical treatment. Insurance has been made mandatory for all the migrant workers on both life and non-life categories. Insurance Development and Regulatory Authority Bangladesh is responsible to run the whole process, also focusing on formulating policies for the insurance (for example, the insurance will be dependent on the employment contract where one migrant worker can start the scheme with a deposit of only Tk 1,000).

While discussing the activities of the Welfare Board in Bangladesh, it was also found that welfare boards exist in the destination countries as well. There are also many resource centres that provide many types of information, and emphasize on the motto "More knowledge, more protection". There are 24-hour call centres where Bangla service is also available. Labour welfare diplomats (also known as labour attachés) regularly monitor the working sectors, hospitals and jails on a specific format on Monthly Report Format for Labour Wings (Please see Annex 2) and prepare report on their observations.

In addition, a safe home for women migrants (following the Philippines' model) has been launched. The children of the left-behind families who are doing well in their educational institutions are provided with stipends. Bringing the left-behind families of the migrant workers under safety net programmes are in the thoughts of the General Economics Division (GED), Planning Commission. They are planning to use G2P (government to private) service for providing cash transfers to the migrants' families. All these monitoring,

governance frameworks and action plans show that social protection of the migrant workers is an important concern of the Government.

Moreover, in the latest UN General Assembly held in 19 September 2016 in New York, the Prime Minister of Bangladesh drew attention of the world leaders and strongly voiced to work on protecting the rights of the migrants, including the refugees (see Box 4.3 hereafter). Providing social protection to the migrant workers is not the responsibility of the sending country alone. The destination countries should also make profound policies for social protection of the migrant workers.

Box 4.3: Government position to work on the protection of the rights of the migrants



Protect rights of migrants, refugees: PM

Hasina meets Suu Kyi

Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina yesterday underscored the need for protection and promotion of the rights of migrants and refugees, saying that the world must have a general agreement on shared responsibility and inclusiveness to address migration comprehensively, report agencies.

Mentioning five aspects of migration governance, including securing rights of migrants in all situations irrespective of their status, she said goods, services and all factors of production need to move unhindered in a connected world.

"We must have general a consensus on these universal principles," she said while delivering her statement at the high-level plenary meeting of the UN General Assembly on addressing large movements of refugees and migrants at the UN headquarters in New York.

UN Secretary General Ban Ki-moon, who convened the first-ever Summit on Refugees and Migrants, among others, spoke at the programme while Peter Thompson, president of the 71st General Assembly, and Mogens Lykketoft, past General Assembly president, were present.

The United Nations adopted the 'New York Declaration' -- a commitment to protect refugees and migrants, as well as find

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Protect rights of migrants, refugees

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solutions amid humanitarian crises.

The UN General Assembly held the first Summit for Refugees and Migrants, where the New York Declaration was introduced. The declaration contains 'bold commitments both to address current issues and to prepare the world for future challenges'.

The United Nations hopes to begin negotiations to hold an international conference related to refugees and migrants as well as the adoption of a 'global compact for safe, orderly and regular migration in 2018'.

Speaking at the plenary meeting, Sheikh Hasina said, "We must seize this historic opportunity and deliberate on a robust, ambitious and action-oriented blueprint to deal with population movements. This needs to be done within a broader development context."

Reminding the pledge of not to 'leave no one behind', the Prime Minister said migrants' rights have to be secured, in all situations, irrespective of their status. "For harmony across our diverse societies, protection and promotion of the rights of migrants and refugees are equally essential."

Noting that migration and mobility need to be placed in a new, positive narrative, she said, "Bangladesh has, therefore, proposed a Global Compact on Migration addressing some of the longstanding gaps in migration governance. The Compact must build on the 2030 Agenda, and capture elements and modalities that are ambitious and enforceable, yet balanced and flexible."

She said the promotion of tolerance and understanding is crucial for accommodating migrants and refugees. "We must all rise above a solely identity-based discourse."

Noting that climate change and resultant displacement of millions of people is a reality, Sheikh Hasina said the Compact will have to take into account the protection need of millions of climate-displaced people. The World Humanitarian Summit adopted the Partnership for Protection and Development. The global Compact should build on such innovative initiatives, she said.

She also said promoting safe, orderly, regular and responsible movement of people is about securing individuals' dignity and well-being. "Bangladesh, as the current Chair of the Global Forum on Migration and Development (GFMD), will be happy to contribute to the development of the Compact."

Earlier, Sheikh Hasina had a meeting with Myanmar State Councilor and Foreign Minister Aung Saan Suu Kyi at the UN Headquarters.

Commonwealth Secretary General Patricia Scotland also met her.

Earlier, She arrived in New York from Montreal, Canada to attend the 71st UN General Assembly (UNGA).

An Air Canada flight, carrying the Prime Minister and her entourage, landed at La Guardia Airport of New York at 3 pm on Saturday (Local time).

Bangladesh Ambassador to the United States Mohammad Ziauddin, Permanent Representative to the UN Masud Bin Momen received the Prime Minister at the airport.

Source: "Protect rights of migrants, refugees: PM", The Independent (online version). 20 September 2016, available from www.eindependentbd.com/arc/archive/2016-09-20

Box 4.4: Bangladesh Cabinet Approves Overseas Employment Policy

The Cabinet has approved the Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment Policy 2016 with provisions for ensuring safe migration and security of the expatriate workers and their families. The draft was passed at a Cabinet meeting chaired by Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina. The new policy is a revised and detailed version of a 2006 guideline on migration, Cabinet Secretary Mohammad Shafiul Alam told the media after the meeting. The policy contains directives on promoting and ensuring safe migration, security and welfare of expatriate workers and their families, inclusion of migration with national development, and proper management of labour migration, he added. There is a separate chapter in it on migration of female workers. "The new policy addresses all the issues concerned. It has been drafted in the light of new international laws", said the Cabinet Secretary. To implement the policy in a collective way, finance, civil aviation and commerce ministries have been assigned tasks. The Home Ministry has been given the task to curb human trafficking. The Government will be able to formulate new laws and regulations in line with the policy, the Cabinet Secretary added.

Source: "Bangladesh Cabinet approves Overseas Employment Policy", bdnews24.com, 25 January 2016, available from http://bdnews24.com/economy/2016/01/25/bangladesh-cabinet-approves-overseas-employment-policy

Assessment of the Overall Policies on Migration Issues:

Among the Government of Bangladesh ministries and organizations, it was observed that though most of the contracts are based on memoranda of understanding (MoU), there are also bilateral agreements. The MoU with Jordan is a good example that has a joint committee for monitoring. Therefore, MoUs are being flexible and a step towards development, which if monitored, can also bring success. However, there is scope for further negotiating the terms and conditions. There are some non-binding contracts that were initiated, such as the Abu Dhabi Dialogue. Likewise, the Global Forum on Migration and Development (GFMD) is also a non-binding forum that is advocating for migrants and their different rights.

During the research, the KIIs have opined their concerns while forming any policy. Two things must be considered: (a) model of equal level of development; and (b) a State that is interested to be specialized in branding for development. While forming policies for the social protection of the migrant workers, these two things can support a lot. Apart from this, on the query of the bargaining capacity of the Government of Bangladesh, it was found that the capacity of Bangladesh is very strong among the other countries in South Asia. If used properly, this can also help in promoting social protection for the migrant workers.

Concerns on Migration and Social Protection:

It was revealed that as social protection has its aim towards the vulnerable people; Bangladesh, according to its national policies on social securities, has targeted such people in the poor rural households. This is also evident in the NSSS (Government of Bangladesh, 2015b), along with an emphasis on reducing the urban poverty. However, it is crucial to provide social protection to the labour migrants too. They face numerous challenges in their migration process (starting from leaving the country until they return), and the most adverse difficulties they face is health hazards and accidents while they are in the destination countries.

There is no effective framework for social protection of the migrant workers, neither in Bangladesh, nor in the destination countries. While the migrant workers leave the country, most of them go by own funding. There is no effective system to inform them about their rights in the pre-departure stage. In the destination countries, the migrant workers need to deal with the recruiting agencies and the local employers. They take away their passport, put them under ***Kafala*** system, keep them under harsh restrictions and continue a strict monitoring. In all these processes, women are the most vulnerable.

The protection of the migrants in the destination countries is almost absent, because the embassies (or any organization) treat them as mere "labourers". Moreover, in the destination countries, the laws always differ than the laws of Bangladesh. Additionally, the migrant workers face problem in the destination countries. For example, there is a government instruction to send their remittances through banks. However, a major portion of the remittance does not come through banks, because ***Hundi*** is a much more reliable and cost-effective system for them. The migrants also face problems with keeping their passports and other official

documents with themselves, as the employers often confiscate them. They also face problems in using mobile phones, eating the local food, getting overtime wages and so forth. Particularly, the domestic workers face the harshest days of their lives, including verbal and physical torture and abuse.

Moreover, many of the migrants who go by their own funding lose all their money if they fall into any unwanted situation. When the migrants return home, they often have nothing in their hands. There is no mechanism for social protection for them. Therefore, it is crucial to develop mechanisms to protect migrants at both countries of origin and destination.

Role of Civil Society Organizations on Promoting Migration and Social Protection

The role of civil society organizations (CSOs) in Bangladesh is focused on several issues – that is, to understand the worker's situation, draw attention of the international level, ensure the worker's rights, work for the recognition of the worker's rights, work for migrants' access to justice and information and so on. In respect to this issue, it was found that some CSOs like the Welfare Association for the Rights of Bangladeshi Emigrants - Development Foundation (WARBE-DF) works with the reintegration programme of the returning migrants and the left-behind families. A number of cooperative societies have been formed for them. The left-behind families are benefited by these initiatives and when the migrants return to Bangladesh, they can take assistance from such organizations. There are about 10 to 12 CSOs that are working strongly for migrant workers. In line with this, Safe Migration Committees (formerly known as Anti-Trafficking Committee) have been formed at union levels that include the Union Parishad chairman and other influential personnel to facilitate the migration process smoothly. Though the committees exist, they need to be institutionalized and have proper resources.

Focal Point for Administration of Social Protection of The Migrant Workers:

Most respondents stated that the MoEWOE can be the focal point for the social protection programmes for migrant workers. However, it also requires other line ministries and other stakeholders to work in close coordination on every aspect of migration and social protection. Additionally, Labour Attachés in the destination countries should also work closely with them. In all these processes, the formulation of a monitoring mechanism, particularly involving media and CSOs, is important.

4.3. Existing Gaps in Relation to Migrant Workers and their Social Protection

Social protection is a provision that is basically designed for the welfare of the people. However, regarding social protection of the migrants, much of the literature about contemporary welfare systems in developed countries pay little attention to the implications of increasing migration on welfare provision and eligibilities (Esping-Andersen, 1990, as cited in Sabates-Wheeler and Feldman, 2011:11), with some exceptions.[9] This is a huge gap in relation to migrant workers and their social protection.

At the same time, studies of migrants often accept as a given, the limited social protection to which they are entitled, and explore the ways in which different groups of migrants negotiate their lives in the face of restrictions on a whole range of social, economic and political rights.[10] Yet the combination of pressures on welfare expenditure and growing inequalities between migrants require an exploration of the interaction of migration with welfare systems, and how, in this context, social protection for migrants can be achieved.

Regarding the gaps that exist in relation to Bangladeshi migrant workers and their social protection in the destination countries, the findings through KIIs reveal some important depictions. These are provided hereafter.

9 For example: Ginsberg (1992), Schierup et al. (2006) and Brochmann and Hammar (1999), as mentioned in Sabates-Wheeler and Feldman, 2011:11.

10 For example: Castles and Miller (2003) and Düvell (2006), among others; as referred to in Sabates-Wheeler and Feldman, 2011:11.

Gaps Observed Regarding Migration and Social Protection

There are many gaps observed regarding migration and social protection. One of them is related with the migration cost, which is a result of inadequate migration governance. Hence, it is also a problem for initiating social protection for the migrant workers.

Bangladesh, being one of the top labour-sending countries, promotes labour migration. To take this agenda forward, there is a separate ministry (MoEWOE), an implementing agency (BMET), 70 technical training centres for skill development, a financial organization (Probashi Kallyan Bank), a welfare fund (Wage Earners' Welfare Fund) and a public manpower exporting company (Bangladesh Overseas Employment and Services Limited). Despite having these mechanisms in place, the cost of migration is high. The main reason behind high costs is the presence of middlemen ***(dalals)*** at the both sending and receiving end.

It is also found that the migration process is run by a syndicate that also dictates the cost (sometimes through visa trading). There is no monitoring mechanism for visa trading. The ceiling set by the Government to go to Saudi Arabia is Tk 165,000. But in reality, it costs upto Tk 700,000–800,000. Therefore, it is evident that there are unscrupulous activities in this sector. Furthermore, the problem lies with sending remittances. If there is a USD 100 remittance, it requires spending about 5–8 per cent of the money for sending to Bangladesh. The process for sending remittance is often perceived as complex by migrant workers; therefore, the ***Hundi*** system is used as it seems easier and more cost effective.

Another gap is the bargaining power of Bangladesh, which is less compared to the other labour-sending countries. The key informants have mentioned that there should be bilateral agreements to deal with the migration-related matters, because visas are in much lesser number than the number of aspiring migrants (1:100). Moreover, most of the papers between Bangladesh and the other countries are in MoU format. But MoUs are not deeds or contracts, so these are not strong or binding. This should be replaced by bilateral and multilateral agreements to make the migration process stronger.

The wages and facilities that Bangladeshi workers get are less than that of other labour-sending countries. For example, the salary for the same job is 8,000 Saudi Arabian Riyal (SRI) for a Saudi Arabian worker, while it is only SRI 2,000 for a Bangladeshi migrant worker. Moreover, most of the migrant workers are not given their due salaries in time by their employers in the destination countries (like Saudi Arabia).

Apart from all these, millions of Bangladeshis migrate each year, but services for them are less in numbers. For example, in Saudi Arabia, there are only two consulate offices to deal with the millions of Bangladeshi migrants. That is why support cannot be provided properly to the migrants.

Therefore, while assessing the gaps, it is also necessary to identify the reasons behind the returning of the Bangladeshi migrants. The reasons for which the migrants return to Bangladesh are identified by many scholars (such as in Ahmed et al., 2015). Some of these are (though not exhaustive) visa- and passport-related factors, such as end of visa period, visa cancellations, inability to extend visas, passport disputes and end of contracts/passport validities. While many of the returning workers came back willingly due to these factors, many others have been forced to leave the destination country. Some others return due to wage-related causes and personal and family reasons. In line with all these, physical and mental illnesses, job terminations, problems with the employers, unbearable pressure/bad conditions at work, unavailability of work, unfavourable situations in the country, poor working environments and police harassments, including law-related problems, are also the reasons of their returns.

Gaps also exist, as identified by van Ginneken (2013:216), with not having the proper knowledge on social security system of many countries. The low-income regions of Central Asia, South Asia, South-East Asia and sub-Saharan Africa include various major host countries, such as Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, India, Kazakhstan, Pakistan, United Republic of Tanzania and Uzbekistan; but little is known about the social protection status of their immigrants. Many of these host countries have weak social security systems that cover only a small portion of the labour force. Large numbers of immigrants are undocumented, work in the informal sector, and have a weak legal and social position. Regional efforts may help to bring about change in the approach to social protection across borders; however, their impact may be limited for the same reasons that deter the implementation of comprehensive social security systems.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Recommendations

This chapter presents a discussion and policy recommendation for migration, social protection and rights. It also explores about the priority areas and policy spaces for these notions. This chapter also makes an effort in making some specific recommendations that can be helpful for assembling the ideas of social protection for the migrant workers.

5.1. Priority Areas for Linking Migration and Social Protection

Finding out the priority areas for linking migration and social protection of the Bangladeshi migrants, the discussions of these concepts in the SFYP 2016–2020 are of great importance. In the SFYP 2016–2020, migration is discussed with special focus on "extreme poverty reduction". Thus, it states that creation of additional non-farm employment opportunities– via non-farm diversification in rural areas and rapid urban growth sustained by robust flows of overseas remittance and manufacturing export growth – led to increased outmigration (seasonal and permanent) of labour. Migration contributed to the rise in agricultural/rural wages for workers who remained behind in agriculture/rural areas. The effects of migration on the extreme poor may have been different for domestic as opposed to international migration.

However, as discussed in the SFYP 2016–2020, while casual agricultural labourers have limited resources for financing international migration, indirect effects of international migration through the labour market are of greater significance for this group. Therefore, high agricultural wage growth has been cited more frequently in the household responses in villages experiencing high remittance growths, compared to villages experiencing low remittance growth (40% vs. 26%) and vice versa. For the casual agricultural labourers who have limited resources for financing international migration, it is the indirect effect of international migration through the channel of labour market that is of greater significance. The wage growth tends to be faster in villages experiencing high growth in overseas remittances.

Box 5.1: SFYP 2016–2020 focusing social protection of the extreme poor

The main elements of the SFYP 2016–2020 strategy is adopted by the previous Sixth Plan for poverty reduction. The analysis showed that the rapid rate of expansion of GDP based on strong performance of labour-intensive manufacturing and exports growth helped create substantial income and employment opportunities outside agriculture. Outward migration performed even better than projected, which in turn absorbed a significant part of the new entrants to the labour force. Moreover, the solid progress in poverty reduction achieved during the Sixth Plan suggests that the underlying poverty reduction strategy is robust. Thus, it also inspired the Seventh Plan poverty reduction strategy. As Bangladesh attains middle-income status, it must free itself from the incidence of extreme poverty. While it may not be possible to completely eliminate the incidence of extreme poverty during the next five years, it is certainly possible to accelerate the pace of reduction by complementing the broad-based poverty reduction strategy of the Sixth Plan with many more targeted programmes for the extreme poor. Of particular importance is the need to reform and strengthen the social protection programmes in favour of the extreme poor. A strong inclusion strategy will also help reduce extreme poverty at a faster pace than before.

Source: Government of Bangladesh, 2015a.

In line with the above discussion on SFYP 2016–2020, it is also important to accumulate the depictions of other sources that have pointed out using migration as a way of economic development and human potential as well. These are ultimately helpful in setting out the priority areas for the link between migration and social protection.

While making the quest for bridging migration and social protection of the migrant workers, another concept can help enormously that relates to the mainstreaming exercises. Conditions for successful mainstreaming

as stated by the GMG (IOM, 2010) can assist in this matter. There are six key elements to success. Those initiating or managing a mainstreaming process should ensure the following elements are in place before a mainstreaming exercise begins. The six key elements (ibid., 22) that help the process of a successful mainstreaming for migration consist of the following: (a) strong political support at a high level; (b) national ownership; (c) early involvement of key stakeholders (such as migrant community groups, diaspora groups, civil society, academics, employers' associations and development partners); (d) a shared understanding of objectives; (e) broad-based participation based on clear roles and responsibilities; and (f) keep to timing. These elements are also important for mainstreaming the social protection and rights of the migrant workers in every level.

The other very crucial priority areas for linking migration with social protection are bilateral and multilateral agreements in the process of migration. These have also been found from the findings in the present study. Bilateral migration agreements between origin and destination countries can be as significant means of providing minimum standards and rights for migrant workers (van Ginneken, 2013:214). Origin countries can negotiate for greater rights, particularly for less-skilled workers, with compliance guaranteed by the agreements. By providing access to regular migration and the formal labour market, exploitation can be reduced. Agreements can contain provisions on the cooperative management of pre-departure and return, social security and the portability of pension entitlements, dispute settlement procedures, and remedies for the violation of rights.

Multilateral migration agreements, as further stated by van Ginneken (ibid.), are usually concluded in the context of regional economic integration and the free movement of labour, within which migration is treated as a key variable in the integration process. These agreements generally result in the progressive harmonization of social protection and labour policies, and may end up giving full equal treatment to the nationals of Member States.

Moreover, bilateral and multilateral social security agreements ensure that the social security rights acquired in the country of employment are maintained. They also provide for the export of benefits from the country of employment to the country of origin. Bilateral social security agreements usually include provisions on non-discrimination between nationals and migrants with respect to social security and rules of cooperation between the social security institutions of the signatory countries. The latter coordinates the accumulation of periods of contribution that migrants accrue in the two countries, and regulate the transfer and payment of acquired social security entitlements. Most agreements refer to long-term benefits like old-age, disability and survivors' pensions, as well as other annuities. Health-care benefits are, to a much lesser extent, subject to social security agreements. Also, purely tax-funded – as opposed to contributory – benefits like social assistance or maternity allowances are usually explicitly exempt from portability (Sabates-Wheeler, 2009, as mentioned in van Ginneken, 2013:214–215).

The importance of linking migration and social protection actually lies in the everyday experiences of the migrant workers. Every experience needs to be evaluated from the human rights perspective, and thus, there is a need to examine the kinds of protection migrants require in relation to sickness, social security, education, pensions and so on, which may differ from that of resident populations. It is also necessary to examine who delivers and funds such protection, and how migrants can claim eligibility outside the traditional framework of the nation-State as provider or regulator of services to its citizens. From this point of view, social protection is a question of meeting individual welfare needs and the rights of people to have these needs met, whatever their citizenship or residence status are (Sabates-Wheeler and Feldman, 2011:14).

5.2. Policy Spaces for Social Protection of Migrant Workers

It is increasingly recognized that – like that in the SFYP 2016–2020– migrants' contributions to development of countries of origin and destination depend on their well-being. To support such concerns, the Government of Bangladesh has ratified the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (1990) and enacted the Overseas Employment and Migrants Act 2013 to regulate labour migration (SFYP, 2015:253). In line with the Palermo Convention,[11] it has also enacted the Human Trafficking Deterrence and Suppression Act 2012 and taken up a rolling triennial National Plan of Action to implement the new law aiming to curb all forms of trafficking in persons, inclusive of trafficking of labour migrants. With regard to South–South Cooperation, Bangladesh participates actively in the Colombo Process for Asian labour-sending countries, and contributes to the process through both sharing its best practices and reviewing and implementing its recommendations. However, there is an urgent need to sensitize the population and build the capacity of government, civil society and private sector actors to implement the existing legal provisions.

The quest for policy spaces for social protection of the migrant workers also has a link with the world of work. As argued by the Human Development Report 2015, a transformative force during the past 30 years, globalization has fostered worldwide interdependence, with major impacts on patterns of trade, investment, growth and job creation and destruction, as well as on networks of creative and volunteer work. People now seem to be living through a new and accelerated technological revolution – or even multiple revolutions at the same time (UNDP, 2015:77).

These technological revolutions are changing wages and productivity in labour markets and workplaces through new ways of contracting and subcontracting, new conditions of work and new business and organizational models. They are influencing the distribution of labour demand across sectors, with implications for the processes of structural transformation. They also influence the quantity and quality of jobs in some sectors and enterprises, as well as distribution of incomes and wealth at all levels. They also create new opportunities for creativity and innovation, and in some ways, bring more unpaid work into the public sphere. This pace of change will not slacken; the next 20 years will see a continuing revolution in work and workplaces, marked by complexity, uncertainty and volatility (ibid.).

Following the interplays of the world of work and public policy and their effect on the migrant workers, another field is of much importance that is related to the critical issue of how the human potential embodied in migration can be used for the benefit of all concerned (ibid., 160). The policy options are varied. One of them is pursuing well-formulated schemes for migrant workers. Such schemes may include expanding programmes for seasonal workers in such sectors as agriculture and tourism, creating secure space for more low-skilled workers and well-targeted programmes to match skilled workers, including professionals with appropriate jobs. These could all be developed in the context of agreements reached in destination countries through political processes based on public discussions that balance different interests, local priorities and demands, and discussions involving source countries, employers and trade unions. Increasing the security, protection and rights of migrant workers is essential in all these processes.

Another policy option can be to undertake actions in source countries, as those countries can undertake skill development and training initiatives for aspiring migrant workers, pursuing orientation programmes to educate migrants on the laws, rules and culture in destination countries and their rights and obligations. The existing forum such as the GFMD, with more than 150 participating nations, is another policy option that can address the challenge of migration through common responses.

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11 United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, also known as the Palermo Convention. It was adopted by the UN General Assembly resolution 55/25 of 15 November 2000, which was the main international instrument in the fight against transnational organized crime. It opened for signature by Member States at a high-level political conference convened for that purpose in Palermo, Italy, on 12–15 December 2000 and entered into force on 29 September 2003. Available from www.unodc.org/unodc/treaties/CTOC/

To further stress on the importance of policy formation of social protection and to expand and enhance its links between work and human development, the Human Development Report 2015 stresses on the concept of "moving towards greater social protection" (ibid., 165–167). This includes the following:

- ✓ ***Pursuing well-designed, appropriately targeted and well-implemented social protection programmes:*** A basic and modest set of social security guarantees through social transfers in cash and in kind can reasonably be provided for all citizens.[12] Resources can be mobilized by adopting progressive taxes, restructuring expenditures, removing subsidies and extending contributory schemes by capturing more of the working population in the formal sector.
- ✓ ***Combining social protection with appropriate work strategies:*** Programmes would provide work to poor people while serving as a social safety net. Even though social protection may present disincentives for paid work, the consensus seems to be that social protection measures in themselves do not necessarily cause unemployment to increase – and they can, especially when combined with labour market policies, facilitate job creation. Creating work, reducing poverty and protecting people against shocks is an ideal outcome, as exemplified in the Rural Employment Opportunities for Public Assets in Bangladesh. Linking social protection (particularly unemployment benefits) to training and job search assistance also helps unemployed workers reintegrate into the labour force.[13]
- ✓ ***Providing a living income:*** A living income would provide a basic minimum income for all (a citizen's income), independent of the job market. The idea of a living income becomes more relevant in the current changing world of work, as automation may put many workers out of jobs, because of the changing nature of jobs and because many jobs may be at risk of disappearing.[14]
- ✓ ***Tailoring successful social protection programmes to local contexts:*** Programmes for cash transfers or CCTs have provided effective social protection, particularly in Latin America,[15] and many have been replicated in other parts of the world (sub-Saharan Africa). These programmes provide income support for poor families and build human capabilities by increasing funds for schooling and health care for children. CCTs in different forms have also been useful in addressing crisis-related labour market risks.
- ✓ ***Undertaking direct employment guarantee programmes:*** Instead of cash transfers or CCTs, countries have also pursued employment guarantees.[16]

To highlight the policy spaces for social protection of the migrant workers, van Ginneken (2013:212) suggests that there are broadly two options for improving access to social security for migrant workers in countries of employment. The first option is to improve the collection of contributions, while the second option is to provide specific benefits for (certain groups of) migrant workers. Many migrant workers work in the informal economy, often through collusion between employers and migrant workers. Improving the effectiveness of collection systems for migrant workers therefore requires an integrated approach and collaboration between the social security administration, labour inspectorate, as well as the tax and migration authorities (van Ginneken, 2011, as referred to in van Ginneken, 2013:212).

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12 The cost of setting such a floor with universal pension, basic health care, child benefits and employment schemes would range from about 4 per cent of GDP in India to 11 per cent of GDP in Burkina Faso (Islam and Islam, 2015, as mentioned in UNDP, 2015:165).

13 Two types of actions are thus in order: (a) compensatory measures in social protection; and (b) corrective measures in the labour market. Improving other labour market conditions for workers, participation and salary (including gaps for disadvantaged groups, such as young and female workers) is vital for shaping future social protection systems (UNDP, 2015:165).

14 Up to 50 per cent of existing jobs may be at risk in the next 20 years (Skidelsky, 2015, as referred to in UNDP, 2015:166).

15 For example, Bolsa Familia in Brazil and Oportunidades, now called Prospera, in Mexico (UNDP, 2015:165).

16 Jefes de Hogar in Argentina and the regional Karnali Employment Programme in Nepal are examples (Beazley, 2014; Kostzer, 2008; and UNDP, 2014d; as cited in UNDP, 2015:167), though the best known is the National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme in India (UNDP, 2015:165).

Van Ginneken (2013) further argues that the agenda for facilitating formal social protection for South–South migration is not very well developed. Therefore, policymaking should focus on a more effective way to enhance the social protection of these migrants through some threefold path. Firstly, it is vital to create a proper framework for managing migration (in particular, undocumented migration) in the region. Secondly, it is necessary to focus on the social protection of the most vulnerable groups, such as women, children, refugees and undocumented migrants. Thirdly, it is recommended that standards be developed on how to coordinate social systems in the future to ensure the portability of acquired social security rights (Sabates-Wheeler et al., 2011, as cited in van Ginneken, 2013:216–217).

In this respect, van Ginneken (2013) identifies some key policy challenges. States that are interested to design a social protection schemes for their migrant workers in the destination countries should first study these challenges.

Box 5.2: Key policy challenges to address social protection of the migrant workers

(a) Implications of the social protection floor: In some regional economic frameworks, such as within the European Union, some form of transnational regulation of social protection policies has emerged. In addition, the adoption of the ILO Recommendation on National Social Protection Floors could provide an opportunity for countries to clearly define the legal protection status of regular and irregular migrant workers and their families. Moreover, the lack of ratification of the UN Migrant Workers Convention remains a major hurdle to providing basic social protection for migrant workers and their families. The issue is that basic social protection – even of irregular migrants – has priority, but when that protection has been provided, there should be clear rules on how migrants and their families can return to their countries of origin. These return procedures can be defined in bilateral and multilateral migration agreements.

(b) Access to social security coverage: Migrants often work in the informal economy, and it is therefore difficult for them to access social security. However, the access of migrants to social security is essentially a matter of national legislation and practice. It is thus necessary to review national legislation to assess the extent to which migrants are disadvantaged with regard to their eligibility. It is also important to find ways in which migrants and their employers can be motivated to affiliate to social security schemes, for example, through public information campaigns on the benefits of social security and special compliance mechanisms, such as for seasonal migrant workers.

(c) Provide social protection for the left-behind families: It is to provide social protection for family members who stay behind in their countries of origin and protect the rights that migrant workers might have already accumulated there. A number of mainly Asian countries have set up welfare schemes for that purpose. Such schemes are usually part of wider support arrangements for migrant workers that may include the regulation of overseas employment recruitment and the development of recording mechanisms to understand migrants' needs. Some countries of origin have also set up voluntary pension schemes for migrants.

(d) Improve the portability of workers' occupational social security benefits: It is to improve the portability of workers' occupational social security benefits, such as workers' compensation benefits, severance payments and payments from pension and provident funds (Sabates-Wheeler and Koettl, 2010). Although most of these benefits are legally portable and often paid out as lump sums, the provisions on cross-border payments are generally poorly implemented, so that benefits commonly never reach migrants or their survivors in the migrants' home countries. The proper implementation of such provisions, for example, through better administrative arrangements for the submission of claims, declarations and appeals, would be an important step towards improving the social security coverage of migrant workers.

(e) Provide basic social and labour protection: It is to provide basic social and labour protection to (regular and irregular) migrant workers and their families, if they are not covered by formal social security schemes. This is relevant for all countries, in particular for low-income countries where social security coverage is low. The most effective way to enhance social protection is by ensuring certain basic human and social rights. Migrants have often no – or insufficient – recourse to legal remedies to fight exploitation. Moreover, and particularly in low-income countries, it is important to ensure access to basic health care and basic education for the children of migrant families. The ratification of the UN Migration Workers Convention by Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa and countries from the North would significantly improve the legal status of migrants and their families. In addition, it is vital to provide migrants with more labour protection during all stages of the migration journey, i.e., pre-departure, transit, staying abroad and returning. These measures can be defined within the context of regional, as well as bilateral and multilateral migration agreements.

Source: Adapted from van Ginneken, 2013:217–219.

There are also some other challenges regarding the policy issue on social protection for the migrant workers. ISSA (2014:6) identifies that the inclusion of migrant workers in SSPs has often posed a challenge to social security administrations. This is because the characteristics of migrant workers – short careers in the host economy, with frequent job change; often active in the informal sector; separated from dependant family members; and so on – are different from the majority of workers. In addition, they tend to be less subject to the typically assumed employer-employee relationship on which many social security systems were set up. Additional challenges relating to the coverage of migrant workers include the following:

(a) Difficulty in predicting the numbers and characteristics of migrant workers. Studies show migrant workers are typically the first affected in economic downturns, and the volatile flows of such workers pose challenges to social security administrations in terms of management and planning.

(b) Migrant workers represent a heterogeneous group – from poor and vulnerable, often female workers in informal-sector activity to high-earning, professionally mobile employees.

(c) Often very different cultural and linguistic backgrounds that make coverage efforts particularly difficult.

(d) The separation of such workers from dependant family members, which increases the challenges of appropriately covering the worker and his/her family.

(e) Information gaps regarding the personal situation of migrant workers; their personal information may not be entered in national data systems, and they may not use the same support groups as host-country citizens.

(f) Migrant workers are often active in the informal sector and have generally shorter working careers. This has implications for their benefit entitlements (for example, in systems with relatively high minimum service requirements – i.e., period of residence or contribution effort), the portability and transferability of benefits, and the role of the employer in collecting and paying social security contributions.

(g) The administrative requirements related to the coverage of such workers is often significant; this may include the requirement to coordinate with other agencies, often abroad, to manage the often complicated personal and contribution records of migrant workers and the need to communicate in different languages.

ISSA (2014:7) further states that to combat all these challenges, a combination of political wills, tailored benefit design, financial commitment and appropriate administrative measures are required. These include the following:

(a) Extending coverage to migrant workers by including them in the definition of workers covered by social security legislation or adapting benefits and contribution structures. Concerning the latter, such measures include reducing vesting requirements and waiting periods and simplifying contribution calculations.

(b) Setting up voluntary plans for workers abroad with benefits tailored appropriately to their situation (e.g. retirement savings, medical expenses, travel grants and family benefits).

(c) Ensuring the accrued rights of migrant workers are safeguarded and that the transferability and portability of benefits are guaranteed.

(d) Improving portability among schemes in the same national jurisdiction and in different countries through the harmonization of benefit rules and setting down the procedures for recognition, transfer and payment of accrued benefits, as well as ensuring appropriate coordination between different social security institutions to ensure the effective management and administration of cases.

(e) Improving the adequacy of benefits for migrant workers provided by compulsory and voluntary schemes through effective financing mechanisms and creating incentives/removing disincentives to encourage migrant workers to participate in programmes.

(f) The role of multilateral and bilateral agreements is particularly important. Such agreements should reflect a number of principles, including equality of treatment of migrant workers, that the social security benefits of the worker (e.g. a contributory old-age pension) should be paid by a social security system in one country only, that his/her acquired rights are protected and that the mechanisms and financing of the payment of benefits from different sources is detailed and carried out effectively. The success of such agreements depends on the administrative and management capacities of the social security institutions involved.

ISSA (2014:8) also suggests that although political will and resulting policies are important, the effective coverage of migrant workers can only be achieved with appropriate administrative and management measures. These include the following:

(a) Working closely with stakeholders and migrant worker organizations to support affiliation efforts;

(b) Setting up mobile offices and simplified procedures and sign-up requirements to encourage affiliation;

(c) Tailored communication to migrant workers in their language, and delivered using the most appropriate communication channels;

(d) Assessing the implications of, and putting into practice, bilateral and multilateral agreements, including record keeping, information provision, payment mechanisms and coordination with agencies nationally and in other countries; and

(e) Effective use of information and communications technology to record, track and calculate entitlements and facilitate coordination with other social security systems and stakeholders (ISSA, 2013c as cited in ISSA, 2014).

Furthermore, ISSA (2014:8–9) focuses on the area of social security institutions that can also play an important role in putting in place other measures to make benefits more attractive (which is particularly important for schemes for migrant workers that are voluntary), to increase awareness and improve public perceptions of

SSPs, to support workers and their families across the life cycle, and to improve the perception of migrant workers by the national population. These include:

(a) Cultural education on social security targeted at migrant workers provided in different languages and addressing individual needs at different life stages;

(b) Offering support to migrant workers when returning home (this may be in the form of travel grants and facilitating reintegration into home-country social security systems and the labour market);

(c) Tailoring benefits and financial support for voluntary schemes to reflect the situations of migrant workers;

(d) Measures supporting family members, including tailored benefits and administrative support (for example, the provision of having two ID cards, which would allow the migrant worker and the dependant spouse to claim benefits even when in two different geographical locations).

If social security institutions are to fulfil their mandates, then the migrant workers and their dependants need to be covered for benefits and services (ISSA, 2014:53). Indeed, the importance of extending social security to such groups is threefold:

(a) A rights-based approach requires that such workers, often in precarious employment, are covered;

(b) There are compelling economic reasons why extending coverage is justified; and

(c) For equity reasons, such workers should be treated the same as non-migrant workers.

All three reasons are important; however, an economic analysis is vital in showing that investing resources in extending coverage to these workers is beneficial for the host country.

While the reasons to extend coverage are various and compelling, there are also some barriers as well as challenges for the extension of social security coverage to migrant workers (ISSA, 2014:53). Conventional social security approaches to design and deliver benefits for employed workers are not always the most effective to cover migrant workers. Different policy and administrative measures to overcome these challenges, highlighted by international experience that demonstrates their success, are also of much importance.

Additionally, ISSA (2014:32–33) suggests responses for the host country in relation to have a thought about the policy spaces on social protection of the migrant workers. The suggestions entail some measures to reduce exclusion from access to social security coverage that generally depend on appropriate policy measures. Such measures include the following:

(a) Universal access: This would allow all types of workers (including migrant workers) to join social security schemes, either through compulsory or voluntary arrangements, irrespective of the status of the worker.

(b) Easing conditions: This might include reducing the minimum service period required to join a scheme, as well as the vesting periods for eligibility for benefits. This is a particularly important issue for migrant workers who may change jobs frequently and be active in the informal sector for a significant time or whose duration of stay is less than the minimum service requirement in the home country. For example, a scheme that requires 10 years of uninterrupted contributory service to be eligible for benefits is likely to disadvantage migrant workers.

(c) Moving from nationality-based to resident-based conditions for membership: For example, in South Africa, eligibility for benefits depends on resident and not citizen status; in other countries, membership depends on nationality, which greatly limits coverage for migrant workers. In such an approach, there would be no distinction between temporary and permanent migrants.

(d) Easing minimum residency-based requirements: A minimum waiting period is justified on administration grounds and also due to the nature of a number of bilateral and multilateral agreements which allow a migrant worker to stay in the home country plan if the period of working in the host country is short (e.g. up to 12 months). However, it is important that the minimum residency requirements for periods above this are not excessively long.

5.3. Suggestions and Recommendations

For social protection to be extended to the migrants, specific mechanisms are required to recognize migrant workers' social security rights and overcome restrictive conditions, in particular those based on territoriality and nationality. Although a number of countries recognize equality of treatment between national and non-national workers in social security legislation, some countries discriminate against migrant workers through national legislation that excludes specific categories of migrants or disallows portability, or in more extreme cases, excludes all non-nationals from coverage or entitlement to benefits, or applies less favourable treatment to them. Specific measures are needed to ensure that all migrant youth and adolescents can access social protection regardless of status, including those in informal and/or temporary employment situations.

Regarding this, the key informants who were interviewed for the present study mentioned some suggestions and recommendations on the issue of social protection of the migrant workers in the destination countries. These are provided hereafter:

5.3.1. Suggestions and Recommendations Provided by the KIIs

The suggestions and/or recommendations provided by the KIIs on the issue of social protection of the migrant workers in the destination countries are as follows.

- ✓ Monitoring of the working environment of the migrants, especially the female migrants in the destination countries. This is also a kind of protection. The female migrants need to be provided with "kind transfer" in the form of psychosocial counselling.
- ✓ A national scheme is required, and the target group can be based on the information from a database. Several things, such as analysing trends of migration, capacity of skills, education, rights and quality of social protection that exist in the destination countries, should be done before doing the task of "targeting" the migrant workers and/or their families for social protection.
- ✓ In addition, allowances should be launched like the old-age allowance, widow allowance, and freedom fighter allowance and so on.
- ✓ Creating awareness is a massive thing for bringing any change. Awareness is needed to change the mindset about the dalals. The services of the dalals cannot be ignored, but people can be made conscious through awareness.
- ✓ With all these, fostering the social protection of the migrant workers in the destination countries, particularly by transferring cash to their left-behind families through the G2P service, can be initiated. In this process, the mobile telecom companies will reach the government money to the people who are in the list of receiving the money. But before that, a database is needed to make the list.
- ✓ There should be a separate centre in each ***upazila*** that will deal with the migrants and all other related matters to them. The Union Parishad under local governance can take initiative to make a list of the current migrants to fix the types of support that can be provided to them. The Wage Earners' Welfare Board should activate the social protection scheme. The Government can launch a scheme like the "older age" for the returning migrants (with 5% incentives). Also, a scheme can be launched through the social welfare (like pensions), along with providing loan on easy condition and allowance for children's education. Schemes should be there for the children

of the left-behind families through continuation of education, and half fees in the schools and so on. Insurance scheme can also be launched for the migrants.

- ✓ Skill is a matter in fixing social protection for a migrant worker. If the skill is developed, a migrant worker will need less social protection. Assessment of the social cost of migration is necessary to assess the social protection schemes of the migrants.
- ✓ Social protection should be designed for the migrants in such a way where they can have benefits before they leave the country, at the time of leaving, while they work in the destination countries, and when they return. Above all, presence of political will to work for the social protection of the migrants is an important matter.
- ✓ Effective bilateral agreements in each matter that deals with the migrants can be developed. Government, in both the sending and destination end, should be more proactive in this aspect. Moreover, if the bilateral agreements regarding migration issues can be made available, then Bangladesh can go to the UN with their litigations for any disputable matter. The Government should promote "ethical recruitment".
- ✓ Grass-root mobilization and advocacy about the migrants and their social protection are necessary. CBOs can be used in this matter. Training is required for the migrants in their pre-departure phase. However, this can be done in coordination with government and CSOs.

There are some more recommendations to initiate the social protection of the migrant workers in the destination countries. In brief, they are as follows:

- Abolishing the ***Kafala*** system.
- Providing communication devices (or rather mobile phones) to the migrant workers at the moment of leaving Bangladesh.
- Informing the migrant workers about their rights.
- Activating bilateral agreements.
- Providing scopes of reunification of the migrant workers with their families.
- Providing scopes to the migrant workers to go to the embassy at least once in a month.
- Providing accommodation in the hostels (not at home). This should be done especially in the cases of women migrant workers.
- Remembering 3R – recognition, respect and remuneration – if the social protection of the migrant workers is to be ensured.
- Initiating "flow of information" on migration and social protection from the grass-root level.
- Providing counselling and reintegration packages (skill based and with access to the market) to the returning migrants.
- Recognizing the rights of the returning migrants on their assets to be done and widely disseminated.
- Initiating knowledge-friendly jobs for the returning migrants.
- Launching of mobile application packages need to be done for the migrant workers, in which complaints can be done through using keys with different signs (especially needed for those with language problem).
- Generating a list of the current migrants to bring them under social protection schemes. The Union Parishad office can do this task, including the groundwork of identifying the eligibility criteria for the left-behind families of the migrant workers.

5.3.2. Specific Recommendations

As the findings of the present study assert that the concept of social protection of the migrant workers is a vast paradigm, so it includes having social protection in all the phases of migration: (a) pre-departure; (b) staying time in the destination countries; and (c) after returning. The findings also reveal that social protection is a matter to be resolved on both ends: the sending country and the destination country. Hence, according to the literatures that are discussed in the present study and based on the responses of the KIIs, there are two broad themes that can address the issue of the formation of social protection of the migrant workers. These are as follows:

(a) Social protection for the migrant workers – Bangladesh part; and

(b) Social protection for the migrant workers – the destination country part.

Thus, the policy options to promote the social protection for the migrant workers in home are recommended hereafter.

Table 5.1: Recommendations for policy options to promote the social protection for the migrant workers – Bangladesh part

Pre-departure phase		
In the pre-departure phase, the prospective migrant workers often face many problems. These problems range from less recognition of migrant workers to be brought under the social protection schemes to the non-existence of the idea of "ethical recruitment". Also, during the pre-departure phase, all of them need to undergo many kinds of assessment processes. If these assessments are done in a migrant-friendly manner with proper counselling and referral mechanisms, they can become a logical and positive entry point for other migration-related interventions, including providing information on possible problems and risks they might encounter, and how to overcome those problems. Additionally, advocating for political will to work for the migrant workers' social protection is also another major field where intervention from every level is necessary. To make all these in action, pre-departure orientation programmes for the prospective migrants, including the participation of all stakeholders of labour migration, are required.		
Recommendations	**Key actors**	**Involvement of other actors/ stakeholders**
(1) Advocate for political will to work for the social protection of the migrant workers.	Government of Bangladesh; lawmakers	All line ministries, including development partners/UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(2) Activate and implement the national legislative tools to recognize the migrant workers in the national social protection schemes.	Lawmakers; MoEWOE	All line ministries, including development partners/UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(3) Initiate all recognized and/or new bilateral and/or multilateral agreements of social protection schemes for the migrant workers.	Lawmakers; MoEWOE	All line ministries, including development partners/UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media

(4) Incorporate important and relevant conventions that can help to ensure the basic and human rights of the left-behind families of the migrants and also the rights to be reunited with the migrants in the countries of destination.	MoEWOE; lawmakers	All line ministries, including development partners/UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(5) Develop a database of the national social protection schemes where migrant workers can be included.	MoEWOE; Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics	All line ministries, including development partners/UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(6) Establish separate centres in every ***upazila*** that will deal all the migration-related matters, including the social protection programmes.	MoEWOE; Ministry of Local Government, Rural Development and Co-operatives (MoLGRD&C)	All line ministries, including development partners/UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(7) Strengthen the Wage Earners' Welfare Fund to allocate funds to cover social protection of the migrant workers in the destination countries.	MoEWOE; Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MoFA)	All line ministries including development partners/UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(8) Incorporate Targeting Effectiveness for the left-behind families (mainly women and children) of the migrant workers and identify social protection schemes (cash or other benefits) in the absence of the migrant workers at home.	MoEWOE; MoFA; GED, Planning Commission	All line ministries, including development partners/UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(9) Inform the aspirant migrants and make mass public awareness about social protection schemes.	MoEWOE; MoFA; Ministry of Labour and Employment (MoLE)	All line ministries, including development partners/UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(10) Separate initiatives should be taken, especially targeting the women and children of the migrant workers' families to incorporate them into the social protection schemes.	MoEWOE; MoLE; MoLGED	All line ministries, including development partners/UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media

(11) After initiation of any social protection, use G2P services for cash transfer for the migrant worker's families.	MoEWOE; MoFA; GED, Planning Commission	All line ministries, including development partners/UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(12) Study the social cost of the migrant workers and their families before making any social protection programme for them.	MoEWOE; MoFA; GED, Planning Commission	All line ministries, including development partners/UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(13) Provide mobile phones to the migrant workers as a means of protection.	MoEWOE; MoFA	All line ministries, including development partners/UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(14) Promote the idea of "ethical recruitment".	MoEWOE; MoLE	All line ministries, including development partners/UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media

During stay in the destination countries

Migrant workers confront many kinds of challenge while they stay and continue working in the countries of destination. The first challenge they face is the existence of the ***Kafala*** system. It is the sponsorship system* that regulates residency and employment of the workers in the GCC countries (i.e., Qatar, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, Bahrain, Kuwait and Oman). With many other limitations in this system, no contract is signed between the sponsor and worker, but only between worker and recruitment agency. This creates a huge gap for the migrant workers, and they face many problems, such as heavy workloads, harsh working conditions, non-recognition as migrant workers, language barriers and unfriendly behaviour of the employers. while staying and working abroad. Governments in both Bangladesh and the destination countries must come forward in creating policies for social protection schemes for the migrant workers who are the source of remittance, a significant contribution to the economic development of the country. The other stakeholders should also build up platforms for such initiatives.

Recommendations	**Key actors**	**Involvement of other actors/ stakeholders**
(15) Implement the abolishment of the *Kafala* system.** However, among the GCC countries, Qatar has abolished this controversial system.[2] Planning should be done on how to replicate such initiative in other Gulf countries.	MoEWOE; Labour Welfare diplomats in mission offices	All line ministries, including development partners/ UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(16) Inform the migrant workers about recognized and/or new bilateral and/or multilateral agreements of social protection schemes that recognize their existence as migrant workers.	MoEWOE; Labour Welfare diplomats in mission offices	All line ministries, including development partners/ UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media

* Under this system, a local citizen or local company (***the kafeel***) must sponsor foreign workers in order for their work visas and residency to be valid. This means that an individual's right to work and legal presence in the host country is dependent on his or her employer, rendering him or her vulnerable to exploitation. In most GCC States, migrants cannot leave or enter the country without their employer's permission (Migrants-Rights.org, End the Kafala System (n.d.), available from www.migrant-rights.org/bn/campaign/end-the-kafala-system

** "Qatar abolishes controversial '***kafala***' labour system", BBC News, 13 December 2016. Available from www.bbc.com/news/world-middle-east-38298393

(17) Train the newly arrived workers about the culture, language and laws of the destination country to be eligible to be included in the social protection schemes of the destination country.	MoEWOE; Labour Welfare diplomats in mission offices	All line ministries, including development partners/ UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, Media
(18) Make social protection schemes based on the employment category and skills of the migrant workers	MoEWOE; Labour Welfare diplomats in mission offices	All line ministries, including development partners/ UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(19) Develop monitoring mechanisms for working environment of migrant workers and administration of social protection system.	MoEWOE; Labour Welfare diplomats in mission offices	All line ministries, including development partners/ UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(20) Strengthen the portability coverage (conditional or not) of social protection	MoEWOE; Labour diplomats in mission offices	All line ministries, including development partners/ UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(21) Emphasis should be put on addressing portability of business investment in conformity with social security options.	MoEWOE; Labour diplomats in mission offices	All line ministries, including development partners/ UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(22) Launch sign-based (informative/pictorial) "mobile app" for migrants. This app would focus on the facility to have information by the migrants who face language barrier.	MoEWOE; Labour diplomats in mission offices	All line ministries, including development partners/ UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(23) Initiatives should be taken to resolve the challenges that the migrant workers, especially the women migrants, still face in the countries of destination. Further dialogue and discussions are highly needed to resolve such problems.	MoEWOE; Labour diplomats in mission offices	All line ministries, including development partners/ UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
After returning		
After returning to Bangladesh, most of the returning migrant workers deal with different arrays of challenges. Less recognition of these people as migrant workers is one of them. Also, a particular challenge that the returning migrant workers face is the problem with reintegration. Returning migrant workers often have difficulty in finding jobs upon returning to their home country. This may be because they lose contacts and information. Their eligibility is another problem for bringing them under any existing social protection schemes. Looking at policies that encourage or mandate the return of migrant workers to ensure that the potential for those returning to successfully reintegrate and contribute to local development is an integral goal of the reintegration policies. Unplanned and/or undesired return can mean that migrants suffer themselves and may bring challenges to the communities to which they return. All the governments and other stakeholders should come forward to think about solving these problems.		
(24) Recognize that the returning migrant workers (and that of their skills) are assets, and they add value to the country's human resources.	MoEWOE; MoFA; GED, Planning Commission	All line ministries, including development partners/ UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media

(25) Make scopes for employment/income-generating activities for the returning migrants.	MoEWOE; MoFA; GED, Planning Commission	All line ministries, including development partners/ UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media
(26) Change the status of the returning migrants into other types of social protection schemes depending on their eligibility.	MoEWOE; MoFA; GED, Planning Commission	All line ministries, including development partners/ UN agencies, CSOs, NGOs, pressure groups, media

These recommendations can assist in the attainment of both of the objectives of the present study explicitly on assessing the status of social protection and rights of overseas migrant workers in the destination countries, as well as in making options to ensure social protection and rights for them.

Along with these, the destination countries in which the migrant workers live and work also have a part to play on provisioning social protection of the migrant workers in their own countries. An overall body of recommendations is provided hereafter in Table 5.2. This is done to open the platform for the destination countries to think about providing social protection for the migrant workers and to start making action on this issue. The recommendations are as follows:

Table 5.2: Recommendations for policy options to promote the social protection for the migrant workers –The destination country part

(1) Consider the 3Rs– recognition, respect and remuneration– while designing any social protection for the migrant workers.

(2) Ratify and implement relevant international conventions and implement recommendations that make provisions for the right to social security of migrant workers and their families.

(3) Ensure that social security policies address the needs of women, men and children during all stages of the life cycle and the specific needs of vulnerable groups, including migrant workers.

(4) Implement the ILO Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202) to cover youth migrants and their families in the State where they reside to ensure at a minimum that, over the life cycle, all in need have access to the four social security guarantees comprised of at least the following:

- ✓ Access to essential health care (including maternity care);
- ✓ Basic income security for children;
- ✓ Basic income security for persons in active age unable to earn sufficient income; and
- ✓ Basic income security for older persons.

(5) Provide effective access to universal social protection rights, such as health care and education, for all migrants and their families, without discrimination of any kind, including on the basis of migration status.

(6) Conclude bilateral, regional and/or multilateral agreements that provide equality of treatment in respect of social security, as well as access to, preservation of and portability of social security entitlements for migrant workers, including access, at a minimum, to basic social protection for adolescents and youth, including young female migrants.

(7) Implement existing regional frameworks on social security coverage and portability, while ensuring their applicability to migrant workers.

(8) Adopt unilateral measures to extend social protection coverage to all migrants, including non-nationals present in national territories, as well as ensuring access to social security entitlements.

(9) Ensure that social protection measures covering migrants apply to adolescents and children and to temporary and seasonal migration schemes.

Taking specific measures to ensure that social protection programmes in destination countries would help ensure the access to basic social services, including education and health care of the migrant workers. Young people remaining at home when parents migrate would also benefit from social protection programmes.[17] Furthermore, social protection policies and programmes in countries of origin that provide cash transfers to low-income households, for example, can help pay the adolescents' school costs and reduce the pressure to migrate.[18]

Social protection is, nonetheless, one essential component among several required for effective governance of migration, as well as protection of migrant workers and their families. Effective migration governance also means facilitating labour and skills mobility and access to employment in response to recognizable needs, ensuring legal recognition or regularization of migrant workers, protecting rights, including the right to non-discrimination and equality of treatment, to ensure decent work for national and foreign workers alike, and shoring up social cohesion by preventing xenophobia and facilitating integration. All these ultimately favour the way for the formation of social protection for the migrant workers in the destination countries.

17 Such as the pilot programme in the Republic of Moldova.

18 Such as the case with Mexico's Progresa programme.

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Annexes

Annex 1

(Examples of social protection in the international arena)

Philippines

Name of the Project: Filipino Migrant Welfare Fund
Activity: Delivery of welfare services and benefits
Actors involved: Government of the Philippines' Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE), Overseas Workers' Welfare Administration (OWWA)
Target group: All overseas Filipino workers and their dependants
Time span: Created in 1997 and ongoing
Outcomes in capacity development: 1.2 million workers covered in 2008. In 2007, 10 per cent were enrolled from overseas renewal and voluntary membership.

OWWA is an agency attached to DOLE and is the lead government agency tasked to protect and promote the well-being of overseas Filipino workers and their dependants. The OWWA is a single trust fund pooled from a USD 25 membership contribution of Filipino migrants or their overseas employers, as well as some fund-raising from other sources.

Filipino migrants who contribute to the fund are eligible for the following services:

1. Insurance and Health Care

A member is covered with life insurance for the duration of his/her employment contract. A member is also entitled to disability and funeral coverage. OWWA charges an additional 900 pesos (approximately USD 18) for health coverage administered as part of PhilHealth, and family members left behind by the worker are covered under this plan.

2. Education and Training Programmes

Members or their beneficiaries have access to scholarships in the form of a per-semester grant towards any four to five-year baccalaureate course. Financial assistance is also available for members to participate in programmes offered through the Philippines' Technical Education and Skills Development Authority or the Microsoft-administered Tulay Education Program, which provides information technology training and access to technology.

3. Social Services

Members are provided with a range of services to facilitate immediate repatriation whenever necessary, including airport assistance, domestic transport and temporary shelter. A reintegration programme, including community organizing, capacity-building and other social preparation activities, is also provided. To facilitate the reintegration process further, members can apply for a loan upon return to the Philippines. Finally, the OWWA also provides a pre-departure loan and family assistance loan in coordination with government financing institutions.

4. Workers Assistance and On-site Services

The OWWA provides information, counselling, conciliation services and medical and legal assistance to workers.

Mexico

Name of the Project: Program OPORTUNIDADES (formerly PROGRESA)
Activity: Conditional cash transfers (CCTs)
Actors involved: Government of Mexico Secretariat for Social Development, national and State coordination agencies of the programme, and education and health service providers
Target group: Extremely poor households
Time span: Started in 1997 and still active
Outcomes in capacity development: Coverage of 5million households (approximately 18% of the country's total population); incidence of 35 per cent of poorest quintile

As of 2002, in Mexico, 906,000 children and adolescents under age 18 lived in extreme poverty (less than USD 1 a day). The Government's social policy therefore focused on poverty reduction through ***Oportunidades***, a CCT programme to encourage education and preventive health and nutrition behaviours. Implemented in 1997, PROGRESA first started in rural areas and later extended to cover Mexico's urban areas (under the name of ***Oportunidades***); it aims to ease the immediate burdens of poverty while breaking the cycle of poverty as it passes from one generation to the next by providing the means for parents to invest in their child's health and education. Although issues related with migration are not explicit in ***Oportunidades***, there are some "unintended" consequences that have been documented as a result of the project's success, including reducing international migration.

By 2005, ***Oportunidades*** covered about 5 million low-income households in both rural and urban areas. Cash transfers are provided to women as financial incentives for preventive health and nutrition behaviours and for retaining children in school. Some conditions were imposed, such as compliance by all household members with the required number of preventive medical check-ups and lectures; school enrolment and a minimum attendance rate of 80 per cent monthly and 93 per cent annually.

According to the results published in ***The Lancet*** in 2006, the cash transfer element of ***Oportunidades*** and other programmes were associated with better health, growth and development outcomes for the 2,400 children and adolescents surveyed. The World Bank also concluded that CCTs led to significant, and sometimes substantial, increases in the use of services. School enrolment rates increased among programme beneficiaries, especially among those who had low enrolment rates at the outset.

The impact of public assistance policies on migration depends on the conditionality and magnitude of the assistance. However, randomized data from the programme has shown that on average, PROGRESA tends to reduce migration levels (Angelucci, 2004, 2005).

Republic of Moldova

Name of the Project: Intergenerational support for social protection of children left behind
Activity: Building capacity of volunteer networks to support older people caring for grandchildren to prevent institutionalization and reintegrate children with their families
Actors involved: Help Age International (HAI), UNICEF
Target group: Children left behind
Time span: Six months
Outcomes in capacity development: The project addressed 514 older-people-headed families in care of children left behind from two regions, including both rural and urban areas.

The Republic of Moldova has gone through a turbulent period of economic and social change over the past decade. A rigid labour market, rural poverty and the lack of income-earning opportunities, particularly for the youth, has fueled a steady migratory outflow of women and men in their productive prime who leave to find work in Europe. Data from 2006 estimated the number of migrants at 551,000 people, representing close to 30 per cent of the country's economically active population, and approximately 15 per cent of the

total population. More than 25 per cent of the Republic of Moldova's emigrants had left a spouse and family behind, constituting the highest proportion of children affected by migration in the Commonwealth of Independent States region.

To better understand what effects migration has had on children, UNICEF Moldova and the International Organization for Migration conducted a survey in 2006, which estimated that approximately 177,000 children aged 0 to 18 years were left behind by a parent who had migrated abroad. Around 40,000 children were separated from both parents. According to the Republic of Moldova's Demographic and Health Survey 2005, nearly one third of children under the age of 15 do not live with either parent. The country's declining birth rate, ageing population and a restructuring of the family unit have been attributed to the high migratory outflow.

Children of migrant parents are far from being considered victims by Moldovan society. It is supposed that these children are privileged due to a better financial situation. Research suggests, however, that they are exposed to a wide range of risks and psychological traumas. The older people who often become caregivers for these children, moreover, are not supported by the State, and suddenly have an increase in responsibilities. According to HAI/UNICEF research, older caregivers are mostly women (92%in urban areas and 65% in villages). The number of children living with their grandparents who suffer from chronic disease is considerable; in the village, this group represents 14 per cent, while in the town, it rises to 51 per cent.

In the HAI/UNICEF project, a network of volunteers was established to provide counselling and assist vulnerable families in which older people care for children of migrant parents. The volunteers were trained in social assistance, legal, psychological, NGO development and child protection issues relating to the situation of children living in the extended family of grandparents. The volunteers were effective in providing moral support to older caregivers and identifying their needs, which include the following: (a) clothing for children and support in completing guardianship and ID documents; (b) free medical assistance; (c) subscription to special kindergarten/schools; and (d) the problem of human trafficking (both parents and children), child abuse and HIV. The volunteers identified the needs in each family and addressed them to local authorities and Social Assistance Departments in the community to be resolved in close cooperation. The volunteers also provided regular assistance and counselling to the most vulnerable families through peer-support home visits. Their role was strengthening the relationship between older people and local authorities, and enabling access to information.

Source: UNICEF.

African Countries: Senegal, Mali, Mauritania, Ghana, Ethiopia, South Africa, Uganda, Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda, United Republic of Tanzania and Mauritius

Name of the Project: Extending social security coverage to African migrant workers and their families
Activity: Strengthen national and regional strategies for the extension of social security coverage to African migrant workers and their families
Actors involved: Ministries of Labour and Social Security, Workers' and Employers' Organizations, National Social Security Institutions, Regional Economic Communities such as the East African Community (EAC) and International Labour Organization (ILO)
Time span: Three years (2008–2011)

Outcomes (expected): To develop mechanisms for extending social security coverage to African migrant workers and their families. These include the following:

- ✓ The conclusion of bilateral or multilateral social security agreements to ensure maintenance of acquired (or partially acquired) social security rights for migrant workers and their families;
- ✓ The inclusion of social security provisions in temporary labour migration programmes; and

- ✓ Voluntary insurance that could be offered by national social security schemes of origin countries to its migrant workers abroad and their family members.

To achieve its objective, project activities are focusing on consolidating information knowledge on social security and labour migration in the region, building institutional capacities of entities responsible for social security policies, and implementing operational measures to offer social security benefits to migrant workers and their families.

There are three main project components: (a) building knowledge; (b) strengthening capacities; and (c) providing support to the negotiation process of bilateral social security agreements. The project also has a focus on advancing subregional integration through support to the negotiation process of multilateral social security agreements.

The EAC started a process for the conclusion of an EAC multilateral social security agreement, which will take the form of an Annex to the Protocol for the Establishment of the EAC Common Market. The Annex on Social Security will establish the framework for coordination of EAC Member States social security schemes, and subsequent regulations adopted by the EAC Council of Ministers to establish the modalities for applying the framework. Together, the Annex on Social Security and the regulations made pursuant to it will constitute a multilateral social security agreement. The EAC Secretariat requested ILO's assistance for the drafting of the Annex. A draft model annex has been prepared and discussed at a regional workshop titled "Social Security benefits within a Common Market" held 19–23 October 2009 in Kampala. This workshop produced a tripartite consensus on a road map for implementation of social security provisions in the framework of the EAC Common Market. The objective of the EAC Secretariat is to develop a draft annex on social security that will be adopted by the EAC heads of government in June 2010.

Source: ILO.

Annex 2

(MoEWOE: Monthly Report format)

Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas employment
71-72, Eskaton Garden

Monthly Report Format for Labour Wings

Reporting Month .....

NAME OF LABOUR WING:

1. Meeting/discussion held with various recruiting agents, employers:

Particulars of the person met	Organization	Issues discussed	Outcome

2. Participation in relevant conferences/after seminar etc.

Details of the Seminar/ Conference	Topic/Issues discussed	Outcome/Comments made

3. Visits:

3.1. Company Visit**: [2.1.4]

Name and Address of the Company	Outcome

3.2. Residence Visit:

Name and Address	Outcome

3.3. Deportation Centre Visit:

Name and Address	No of Bangladeshi worker in each centre

3.4. Jail Visit:

Name and Address	No of Bangladeshi worker in the Jail

3.5. Hospital Visit:

Name and Address	No of Bangladeshi worker in Hospital

3.6. Migrant Shelter Visit:

Name and Address	No of Bangladeshi worker in Migrant Shelter

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4. Assistances provided to the Migrant Workers and Bangladeshi Community

4.1. General Assistances provided to the workers and other expats** [3.2.1]:

Name & address of the person	Issue	Action taken

4.2. Legal Assistances provided to the Community Members:

Legal Issues	Name of the Person	Assistance provided

5. Liaison with the expatriates association abroad** [3.5.1, 3.5.2]

No of Meetings Held	Outcome

6. Labour Market Promotional Activities:

6.1. Opportunities identified and materialized in the potential Employment Sectors:

Category	Expected Number	Action taken

6.2. Market assessment activities:

Activity	Outcome	Remarks

6.3. Information on trades useful for potential job seekers in Bangladesh:

Nature of Trades	Type of Query	Remarks

6.4. Initiatives to enhance employment for Bangladeshi workers:

Type	Outcome	Remarks

7. Service, Salary and Work place related Activities:

6.1. Information on the disputes between the employer and the employee and the action taken:

Employer & Employee name and address	Issue	Action Taken

7.2 Various problems solved during the month** [3.2.2]:

Type of the problem	Total number

7.3 Arbitration & disputes issues between the workers and the employers** [3.2.3]:

Type	Total number	Resolved cases (No)

7.4 Cases relating to arrear pay** [3.5.3]:

Person concerned	Total number	No r of cases resolved

7.5 Terms and condition of services verified through visit** [3.1.2]:

Places Visited	Total Number verified	Action Taken

7.6 Pending death/disability/other compensation cases:

Category	Number	Present status	Remarks

7.7 Complains:

Total Number	Action Taken

8 Compensations:

Type	Number	Details	Pending since	Action taken
Death case (accidental)				
Death case (Industrial)				
Death case (others)				
Disability (fully)				
Disability (Partially)				
Others compensations				

9 Publicity and action made to remit FC through official channels :

Type	No	Outcome

10 Queries received from various person/organizations :

Details of the Person/Organi-zation	Nature of the Query	Action Taken

11. Budget:

Type	Total Allocation	Opening Balance of This Month	Total Expenditure of This Month
Revenue			
Welfare			

12. Remitance from Welfare Fund:

Previous Month's Balance	Income of the last month	Amount remitted this month

13. Number of guests entertained during the month and the purpose of such entertainment:

Total number	Purpose

14. Visas/Demand Letter Attestation**:

Category	Number	Total

15. Other Activities (Apart from Labour Affairs):

Name of activity	Description

16. Work plan for the next 6 months: (to be provided in January and July only):

Plan	Expected Result

Sign & date of the officer

List of Key Informants[19]

(Names are in alphabetical order)

1. Faizul Islam (Deputy Chief, GED, Planning Commission, Government of Bangladesh)
2. Hassan Imam (Programme Head, Migration, Building Resources Across Communities)
3. Md. Nurul Islam, PhD (Director, Training Standard and Planning, BMET)
4. Mohammad Monirul Islam (Director General, Multilateral Economic Affairs, MoFA)
5. Mohammed Azharul Huq (Additional Secretary, MoEWOE, Government of Bangladesh)
6. Rahnuma Salam Khan (National Programme Officer, Labour Migration Project, ILO)
7. Sumaiya Islam (Director, Bangladeshi Ovhibashi Mohila Sramik Association)
8. Syed Saiful Haque (Chairman, WARBE Development Foundation)

19 The key informants are not responsible for any of the conclusions drawn in this accompanying study; rather the authors of this study are solely responsible for all the analysis.



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