Migration in Bangladesh

A COUNTRY PROFILE 2018

China

Bhutan

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Lao People's
Democratic
Republic

Migration in Bangladesh

A COUNTRY PROFILE 2018

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FOREWORD

This first Migration Profile for Bangladesh is a country-specific policy tool that provides internationally comparable data and a nationally relevant monitoring framework for migratory processes. The Migration Profile is a single document that combines a large amount of the primary and secondary data related to migration in a manageable way, and is aligned with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (in particular SDG Target 10.7), the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration (Objective 1), and the IOM Migration Governance Framework (Principle 2).

With a view to addressing inadequate evidence of migratory processes and their impacts in countries, IOM has assisted Member States to produce a series of Migration Profiles. IOM Bangladesh developed this Migration Profile for Bangladesh under the guidance of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MoFA) and the Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment (MoEWOE) and in consultation with a wide range of stakeholders. The hope is that government and other stakeholders will be able to use this Migration Profile to enhance policy coherence, evidence-based policymaking and the mainstreaming of migration into development plans. The Migration Profile was developed under the project Bangladesh: Sustainable Reintegration and Improved Migration Governance, or Prottasha, which is funded by the European Union.

This Migration Profile was based on *Bangladesh Annual Migration Report 2017*, which was published jointly with the MoEWOE in 2019. The Migration Profile is designed to be owned and used by governments for strategic policy development. To my knowledge, the Migration Profile is the only document that records and maps out data from a wide range of sources on migration-relevant issues in Bangladesh.

IOM is grateful to the Government of Bangladesh, particularly the MoFA and the MoEWOE, for guiding the process of development of the Migration Profile and sharing the secondary and administrative data to complete the analysis. IOM is also thankful to the Technical Advisory Committee (TAC), which was formed in 2019. The TAC supported IOM in providing strategic guidance to maintain the quality of the report and facilitated access to important sources of information in government and civil society.

IOM believes that this Migration Profile positively contributes to the migration conversation in Bangladesh by addressing data and analysis gaps, as well as supporting national and regional initiatives to ensure migration data and information is utilized. IOM hopes this initiative will strengthen the capacity of State and non-State stakeholders to increase their knowledge, and that they will actively contribute to updates to the Migration Profile periodically. I hope the recommendations in this Migration Profile will assist in developing evidence-based policy interventions to manage migration effectively in Bangladesh.

Giorgi Gigauri
Chief of Mission
IOM Bangladesh

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TECHNICAL ADVISORY COMMITTEE

The TAC was established in 2019 to guide the development of the 2018 Bangladesh Migration Profile and effectively ensure the ownership of the Migration Profile. The MoEWOE and MoFA co-chaired the TAC, providing leadership on facilitating access to relevant information in the Government of Bangladesh and the non-governmental sector.

In July 2019, the inaugural TAC workshop was convened in Dhaka, where stakeholders clarified the TAC's role. During the workshop, TAC members were among the participants who matched the Migration Profile's data requirements with the relevant sources of information in the country.

Especially since this is the first Migration Profile for Bangladesh, government ministries and departments constituting the TAC deserve a special mention for their contribution.

1. Bangladesh Bank
2. Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics
3. Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training
4. General Economics Division
5. Ministry of Disaster Management and Relief
6. Ministry of Environment
7. Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment
8. Ministry of Foreign Affairs
9. Ministry of Home Affairs (Special Security Branch, Special Police)

The TAC's work continues after the publication of the Migration Profile. We hope that the TAC will devise strategies to promote the adoption and use of the Migration Profile in government agencies.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BBS	Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics
BMET	Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training
BOESL	Bangladesh Overseas Employment and Services Ltd.
CBR	crude birth rate
CDR	crude death rate
DESA	(United Nations) Department of Economic and Social Affairs
EWOEP	Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment Policy
GER	gross enrolment ratio
ILO	International Labour Organization
LDC	least developed country
LMIS	labour migrant information system
MGI	Migration Governance Indicators
MiGOF	Migration Governance Framework
MoEWOE	Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment
MoFA	Ministry of Foreign Affairs
MoHA	Ministry of Home Affairs
MTO	money transfer operator
OEMA	Overseas Employment and Migrants Act
PSHT Act	Prevention and Suppression of Human Trafficking Act
RSP	remittance service provider
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
TAC	Technical Advisory Committee
USD	United States dollar
WEWB	Wage Earners' Welfare Board
WEWF	Wage Earners' Welfare Fund

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

To facilitate the safe, orderly, regular, and responsible migration and movement of people, and to protect the rights of migrants and their families, there is a need to develop robust, coherent, gender-sensitive, and evidence-based policy and legislative frameworks (IOM, 2019). Governments play a critical role in gathering accurate data to design evidence-informed migration policies and address adequately the needs of migrants and their families (IOM, 2011). An important tool which governments can use to gather data to meet migration governance demands is the IOM Migration Profile, as it contributes to the design and implementation of migration policies, increasing migration management capacity. The Migration Profile is a country-owned policy tool, developed in consultation with a wide range of stakeholders that government and other stakeholders can use to enhance policy coherence, evidence-based policymaking, and the mainstreaming of migration into development plans (IOM, 2011).

This Migration Profile seeks to achieve the following objectives:

Objective 1: Map out national, regional and international data sources on diverse migrant categories and their characteristics;

Objective 2: Consolidate, review, and present recent data and statistics on migration-specific and migration-related indicators in a concise and internationally comparable way;

Objective 3: Consolidate and compile disaggregated data on all migration-relevant aspects in a national context – including data on labour market needs, labour market demand and availability of skills; the economic, environmental and social impacts of migration; remittance transfer costs; health; education; occupation; living and working conditions; wages; and the needs of migrants and receiving communities – to develop evidence-based migration policies;

Objective 4: Support institutional, national and regional initiatives to ensure migration data and information is utilized through analysis and monitoring and evaluation of outcomes.

Objective 5: Document key findings, policy implications and recommendations for migration-related issues in Bangladesh.

The Migration Profile for Bangladesh primarily relied on a desk review approach, although primary data collection was used to fully understand migration dynamics and trends. Establishing the data needs in line with the above objectives and the guidelines specified in *Migration Profiles: Making the Most of the Process* was the first critical step in the methodology (IOM, 2011). The IOM guidance document specifies the structure of the Migration Profile and provides the scope of the data requirements. Following this step, the consultancy team defined the relevant indicators to guide the data collection. A critical step accomplished early on was the establishment of the TAC, which comprises government agencies that deal with one or more aspects of migration. Among other roles, the TAC was instrumental in facilitating the collection of administrative and service data from relevant government ministries in Bangladesh. The MoFA and the MoEWOE co-chaired the TAC.

Following the identification of data requirements and indicators, secondary data sources – including reports, policy briefs, journal articles, book chapters and websites – were used and relevant information was retrieved, analysed, and synthesized. Whereas the literature review of published sources generated significant information, this was insufficient to develop the Migration Profile, prompting the research team to request primary information from the relevant agencies in Bangladesh. All administrative data was requested in liaison with the TAC through emails and telephone and in-person meetings. By and large, the data requested from government agencies includes information ordinarily generated and stored by the agency on a daily basis, such as information about the applicants for visas and permits. To exemplify, the details on the work permits and visas issued to foreigners could be used to analyse immigration trends for employment, providing information such as the countries of origin and the fields of employment in Bangladesh.

With a population of 150 million in 2011, up from 89.9 million in 1981, a population density of 1,116 people per square kilometre (BBS, 2019), Bangladesh is one of the most populous countries globally. Its population is young, with 43.5 children dependent on 100 economically active individuals. Bangladesh can remain a country of origin for labour migrants for many years to come, as the country goes through a demographic transition. Appropriate policies, such as on education and skills development, can maximize the brawn power in the country. However, population growth increases human activity, negatively impacting land use and ecosystem services (Ranjan, 2016). Moreover, since much of the country is less than five metres above sea level, increasing population density, anthropogenic activities and worsening climatic conditions will increase many

households' vulnerability across the country. The risk of tidal flooding, salinization and waterlogging will increase in the coming years, displacing many Bangladeshi families.

In recent years, sustained economic development propelled Bangladesh into the World Bank's lower-middle-income category in 2015 (Zafar et al., 2020). Bangladesh's economy has expanded at a remarkable pace in the past few years, with an annual average of 6.1 per cent before 2010 and 6.5 per cent after 2010 (World Bank, 2018a). Apart from declining poverty, the population's health status has significantly improved in the past two decades, raising the life expectancy from under 55 years in the 1981 census to 72.3 in 2018. The share of people living under the national poverty line has dramatically declined from about 50 per cent in 2000 to only 24.3 per cent in 2016 (ibid.).

Migration trends

In nominal terms, the population of international migrants has only increased slightly since the 1990s. Still, the foreign-born population has never exceeded 1 per cent of the population, although the period after 2015 witnessed a dramatic increase in foreign-born population, most likely due to the inflow of forcibly displaced Muslim Rohingya people from Myanmar.

Bangladesh is primarily a country of origin of labour migrants. Despite the fast-paced expansion of the economy and rising living standards, the labour market has remained exclusive to most labour market entrants, with depressed wages and poor working conditions in the country's main sectors, creating a strong economic rationale for departure. With much of Bangladesh's territory less than five metres above sea level, Bangladesh's low-lying, deltaic geography makes the country vulnerable to natural disasters, such as tropical cyclones, flooding, waterlogging and other weather-related events that threaten the livelihoods of thousands of people yearly, creating a compelling ecological push factor for migration (Mallick and Siddiqui, 2015). Besides, the persistent economic and environmental insecurity and Bangladeshi culture orient aspirant migrants towards overseas employment (Dannecker, 2009; Raitapuro and Bal, 2016). In general, migration from Bangladesh is not an individual affair. Members of a *bari* – a social network of individuals who may or may not be related by blood or affinity but live in the same settlement, providing social support – jointly make migration decisions, share information, and contribute money and other resources to facilitate the aspirant migrant's departure (Rahman, 2017).

For many aspirant Bangladeshi migrants, the cliché that the grass is always greener on the other side holds true. In everyday discourse, Bangladeshi people typically imagine and speak about the prosperity and way of life in the places of destination in unrealistic and exaggerated terms, depicting life abroad as stable and rewarding (Thompson, 2016). Such mental images of faraway places and the way of life of the people living there are compelling pull factors, fuelling the aspirations of the Bangladeshi people (Dannecker, 2009; Raitapuro and Bal, 2016). By far, labour migration is the most documented type of migration, with records dating back to the early years of Bangladesh's independence. In concert with licensed recruiters, the Government of Bangladesh facilitates the labour migration of thousands of its citizens yearly. From 1976 to 2018, an estimated 12.2 million (12,199,124) labour migrants left the country to work abroad. Between 2001 and 2017, the annual number of labour migrants significantly increased, despite fluctuations. In 2017, over a million (1,008,525) Bangladeshi men and women departed to take up employment abroad, five times more than the 2001 figure of 198,060. However, in 2018, far fewer Bangladeshi people migrated for labour (734,181).

While many Bangladeshi labour migrants return home after short stints of employment abroad, there are no administrative records to analyse return migration. Therefore, it is not easy to analyse accurately the number of Bangladeshi migrant workers who return after a period of employment overseas. Nonetheless, Siddiqui et al. (2019) estimate that nearly one fifth of the total number of migrant workers are return migrants, although such estimates have yet to face scholarly scrutiny. Equally unavailable are figures of Bangladeshi nationals who remigrate, that is, those who leave the country to take up employment abroad after the initial return.

Countries in the Gulf region absorbed the lion's share of Bangladeshi labour migrants between 2009 and 2018. However, a significant number of Bangladeshi men and women took up employment in Malaysia and Singapore. Between 2009 and 2018, Oman, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates provided employment opportunities to more than a million workers. Nearly half a million workers participated in Singapore's labour market between 2009 and 2018, while Malaysia employed 368,869. Increasingly, Malaysia and Singapore are becoming essential countries of destination for labour migrants. Although female labour migration increased a 100-fold from 1,216 in 2002, peaking at 121,925 in 2017, men continue to dominate labour migration. In fact, in 2017, women accounted for approximately 12 per cent of the total labour migrants. The majority of Bangladeshi nationals who take employment abroad are semi-skilled and less skilled (Rashid and Ashraf, 2018).

Besides the statistics for labour migration, the Government of Bangladesh provided data on irregular migration for the years 2010–2018 through the MoHA. The data suggests that all the irregular migrants were foreigners and held a regular status in Bangladesh. In other words, the numbers from the MoHA represent foreigners who entered the country legally but overstayed, indicating that they knowingly remained in Bangladesh beyond the time allowed by the Government. In response, Bangladesh prosecuted and deported very few non-nationals between 2014 and 2018, with men dominating this category of migration. In 2018, only 613 men and 114 women overstayed. In 2010, there were 298 male and 115 female overstayers, demonstrating that men were typical overstayers. Malaysians, numbering 939, represented the largest group of foreigners who paid a fine for violating migration laws between 2010 and 2018.

Impacts of migration and remittances

As Bangladeshi families engage in labour migration to increase livelihood options and mitigate risk, they contribute immensely to national development through remittances. Bangladesh is the seventh largest remittance-recipient country in the world, behind India and China. Yet, in recent years, remittance inflows to Bangladesh have been 33 per cent higher than what India has received, in per capita terms (Sikder et al., 2017), indicating that remittances are a significant source of national revenue. The volume of international remittance inflows surged from 14.2 billion in fiscal year (FY) 2013–2014 to USD 16.4 billion in FY2018–2019 – the most considerable amount of wage earners' remittances received in a single year during this period. In the intervening years, the annual volume of remittances shrunk to 12.8 billion in FY2016–2017. Since FY2016–2017, Bangladesh has received much of the remittances from Asian countries, especially those in the Gulf region. In 2018, approximately only 10 per cent of remittance inflows originated from countries of destination outside the Gulf region.

Remittance outflows from Bangladesh have been increasing in the past few years. Still, they remain relatively insignificant relative to remittance inflows and other macroeconomic indicators, such as the GDP and tax revenue. Bangladesh Bank provided data for two categories of remittance outflows processed through the Bank, namely remittance study outflows and remittance family outflows. Remittance outflows show an upward trend, steadily increasing from USD 142.1 million in FY2013–2014 to USD 264.8 million in FY2018–2019 – a small fraction (1.6%) of remittance inflows which stood at USD 16.4 billion.

International remittance inflows are a net foreign currency earner, drive GDP growth and can be relied upon even when the economy is not attractive to international investors. Remittance-receiving households are known to be better off compared to non-remittance-receiving households. For instance, remittance-receiving households are more likely to buy land after the migrant worker's departure, and their consumption is relatively higher than their non-remittance-receiving counterparts. For the vast majority of remittance-receiving households, remittances provide the capital to enable self-employment. Even when a tiny percentage of remittances go to investment, consumption of remittances alone generates a multiplier effect of 3.3, which means that an injection of 1 million taka in remittances will contribute 3.3 million taka to the national economy.

The Migration Profile provides these recommendations, among others, for managing migration:

- Establish an overarching migration governance institution with representatives from key ministries and agencies that address different migration issues. The MoEWOE and the MoFA are in the best position to co-chair the migration governance institution.

- Develop a centralized and accessible administrative data management system to collect, store, organize and share data on different migration types includes arrivals and departures, student emigration, emigration for employment, returning migrant workers and naturalization.

- Develop a reliable, up-to-date and accessible labour market information system, led by the BMET, which will increase aspirant migrants' access to reliable and accurate information about skills demand, conditions of employment and legal issues concerning a given labour market.

- The MoEWOE and the MoFA should lead efforts to design a standard package of services that labour wings in destination countries should provide to wage earners abroad and provide adequate capacity to deliver such services.

PART A: THE SOCIOECONOMIC CONTEXT OF MIGRATION

A.1. Population dynamics

Bangladesh is a deltaic country with a population density of 1,116 people per square kilometre in 2018, a significant increase from 1,063 people per square kilometre in 2014. With approximately 162.7 million people in 2018, of whom 81.4 million were men and 81.3 million were women, on 148,000 sq km of land mass, Bangladesh is among the most densely populated countries in the world (BBS, 2019).

Its territory comprises a low, flat land characterized by an extensive network of rivers, including the Ganges–Padma, the Brahmaputra–Jamuna and the Megna rivers, which are the major waterways (NIPORT and ICF, 2019). These rivers make up the Ganges–Brahmaputra–Meghna (GBM) Delta – an indispensable source of diverse livelihoods, such as traditional monsoon rice cultivation, riverine fishing and marine fishing. Furthermore, much of Bangladesh's surface area is, on average, less than five metres above sea level, increasing the country's environmental vulnerability to river and rainwater flooding, tropical cyclones, salinization, waterlogging and coastal erosion, among other ecological disasters (Brown and Nichols, 2015). Even small changes in the climate could have catastrophic consequences for this South Asian country, multiplying the risk of natural disasters. A combination of changing climatic conditions and intensifying human activity will likely lead to more climate-induced migration in the future (MoFA, 2018).

As shown in Table A.1, Bangladesh's population grew modestly from 89.9 million in 1981 to 150 million in 2011 (BBS, 2019), with a projection of 179 million and 192.5 million people in 2035 and 2050, respectively (World Population Review, 2019). The sex ratio, that is, the ratio of men to women in a population, was nearly 100 in 2018 (100.2), signifying parity in the population of both women and men at the national level. However, in the rural areas, females outnumber males, and the opposite is observed in the urban areas (BBS et al., 2019).

Table A.1. Selected demographic indicators in Bangladesh, 1981, 2011 and 2014–2018

Indicator	1981	2011	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Population density (people per sq km)	–	–-	1 063	1 077	1 090	1 103	1 116
Population – total (thousands)	89 912	149 772	–	–	–	–	–
Population – female (thousands)	43 617	74 792	–	–	–	–	–
Population – male (thousands)	46 295	74 980	–	–	–	–	–
Sex ratio (M/F*100) (2014–2018)	–	–	100.6	100.5	100.4	100.3	100.2
Life expectancy – both sexes (years)	–	–	70.7	70.9	71.6	72.0	72.3
Life expectancy – female (years)	–	–	72.3	72.0	71.6	70.9	70.7
Life expectancy – male (years)	–	–	69.1	69.4	70.3	70.6	70.8
Dependency ratio – total (%)	–	–	57.0	55.0	54.0	53.0	51.0
Dependency ratio – urban (%)	–	–	50.0	47.0	49.0	49.0	50.0
Dependency ratio – rural (%)	–	–	60.0	59.0	58.0	57.0	55.0
Crude birth rate – total (number of live births per 1 000 population)	–	–	18.9	18.8	18.7	18.5	18.3
Crude birth rate – urban (number of live births per 1 000 population)	–	–	17.2	16.5	16.1	16.1	16.1
Crude birth rate – rural (number of live births per 1 000 population)	–	–	19.4	20.3	20.9	20.4	20.1
Crude death rate – total (number of deaths per 1 000 population)	–	–	5.2	5.1	5.1	5.1	5.2
Crude death rate – urban (number of deaths per 1 000 population)	–	–	4.1	4.6	4.2	4.2	4.4
Crude death rate – rural (number of deaths per 1 000 population)	–	–	5.6	5.5	5.7	5.7	5.4
Infant mortality rate – both sexes (number of deaths per 1 000 live births)	–	–	30.0	29.0	28.0	24.0	22.0
Infant mortality rate – female (number of deaths per 1 000 live births)	–	–	28.0	28.0	28.0	23.0	21.0
Infant mortality rate – male (number of deaths per 1 000 live births)	–	–	31.0	30.0	27.0	25.0	23.0
Maternal mortality rate – total (number of deaths per 1 000 live births)	–	–	1.93	1.81	1.78	1.72	1.69
Maternal mortality rate – urban (number of deaths per 1 000 live births)	–	–	1.82	1.62	1.6	1.57	1.32
Maternal mortality rate – rural (number of deaths per 1 000 live births)	–	–	1.96	1.91	1.90	1.82	1.93

Sources: BBS, 2018b and 2019.

On the back of a sustained improvement in the health status of the Bangladeshi population, the life expectancy at birth of males and females increased from 55.3 and 54.5 years in 1981 to 70.8 and 70.7 years in 2018, respectively (BBS, 2019; Zafar et al., 2020). Whereas the Government's expenditure on health has remained under 3 per cent of the GDP since 2000, the South Asian country is on course to achieve the 80 per cent target for most universal health care indicators, under the SDGs by 2030 (Kamal et al., 2016). For instance, the proportion of women receiving more than one antenatal care visit from a medical provider increased remarkably, from 64 per cent in 2014 to 82 per cent in 2017 (NIPORT and ICF, 2019). Furthermore, the percentage of women receiving at least four antenatal visits during pregnancy also increased from 31 per cent to 47 per cent in the same period. Despite this achievement, less than 18 per cent of pregnant women receive quality care – defined as "four or more antenatal visits, with at least one visit from a medical provider, measurement of weight and blood pressure, testing of blood and urine, and receipt of information on potential danger signs during pregnancy" (NIPORT and ICF, 2019:25). Overall, despite the significant achievements in realizing some of the critical targets for health indicators, the nation faces many problems such as pro-rich inequality, the prominence of private-sector health provision and emergency health expenditure. Sustained investments in health care are required over the next decades , given the adverse effects of climate change and weather-related events in the foreseeable future (Shafique et al., 2018).

Bangladesh's population is relatively young, with a significant proportion of the population under 15 years, creating pressure for educational and employment opportunities in the country. A large number of relatively young people make for a potent push factor for international migration, because many labour market entrants may not find jobs in the local market, opting to pursue careers abroad. With a relatively small portion of the working population in employment, 51 economically inactive individuals were dependent on 100 economically active individuals in 2018, with a child dependency ratio and an aged dependency ratio of 43.5 and 7.5, respectively. Concerning the rural–urban division, more people in the rural areas than those in the urban areas depend on the workforce. This dependency ratio implies that there is a significant pressure on the working-age population to economically support the non-working population. However, the total dependency ratio had remarkably declined since the last census when it stood at 68.4.

Measures of fertility and mortality have diminished in recent years, signifying rising living standards in this South Asian country. Both the CBR and the CDR have dropped in recent years. Overall, the CBR declined steadily from 18.9 live births per 1,000 population in 2014 to 18.3 live births per 1,000 population in 2018, yet the rural areas' CBR was 4 births higher than the urban areas' in 2018. As illustrated in Table A.1, the overall CDR in 2014 was 5.2 deaths per 1,000 population, declining slightly to 5.1 deaths per 1,000 population in 2015. However, it bounced back up to 5.2 in 2018. Declining fertility and relatively low mortality rates are often associated with increasing affluence and rising life expectancy, contributing to a reserve army of potential labour entrants.

Bangladesh's maternal mortality rate contracted too from 1.93 maternal deaths per 1,000 live births in 2014 to 1.69 in 2018, representing a 12 per cent decline in just five years. However, urban women tend to have a lower maternal mortality rate (1.32 maternal deaths) than their rural counterparts (1.93). In keeping with the same pattern, the infant mortality rate declined steadily from 30 per 1,000 live births in 2014 to 22 per 1,000 live births in 2018, with a relatively small urban–rural variation of 21 against 22.

A.2. Socioeconomic background

A.2.1. Education

Bangladesh has four official levels of education, namely pre-primary (at age 3–5), primary (at age 6–10), secondary (at age 11–17) and tertiary (at age 18–22), with the five primary schooling years from age 6 to 10 compulsory. The overall participation of Bangladeshi men and women in the country's education system has improved over the past decade. For example, in 2018, the GER for primary education was 116.47 per cent, a significant improvement of 13.54 per cent from 102.93 per cent in 2009. The GER for the tertiary level also increased between 2009 (10.86%) and 2018 (20.57%), although this level of participation remains too low, reflecting constrained capacity to absorb more participants in higher education.

Overall, women have maintained a superior level of participation in the first three levels of education – that is, from pre-primary education through secondary education – during the past decade, in comparative terms (UIS, n.d.). However, the opposite is true for participation in higher education. Participation rates of men and women in the tertiary level in 2019 were 13.54 per cent and

8.12 per cent, respectively. Men posted a GER of 24.02 per cent against a female GER of 16.98 per cent in 2018. While women were availing themselves of the opportunity to get education, it appears that their progression to tertiary education was severely restricted. Furthermore, the percentage of female tertiary graduates plunged from 41.89 per cent in 2014 to 28 per cent in 2018, suggesting inferior participation of women relative to men's over the past decade (ibid.). The inferior participation rate of women in tertiary education has negative implications for women's participation in other spheres of the economy and society, including labour migration. This is because low levels of tertiary education constraints women's career choices in the country and abroad.

Table A.2. Selected education indicators in Bangladesh, 2001–2018

Indicator	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Gross enrolment ratio – total (secondary)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	50.00	51.64	52.43	55.21	60.17	–	65.63	71.42	69.66	72.69
Gross enrolment ratio – female (secondary)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	51.91	54.68	56.2	58.82	62.58	–	65.63	65.63	75.22	78.27
Gross enrolment ratio – male (secondary)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	48.16	48.72	48.81	51.74	57.85	–	57.65	61.65	64.35	67.35
Gross enrolment ratio – total (tertiary)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	10.86	–	13.69	13.8	–	13.87	–	17.87	18.15	20.57
Gross enrolment ratio – female (tertiary)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	8.12	–	11.2	11.56	–	11.74	–	14.68	14.91	16.98
Gross enrolment ratio – male (tertiary)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	13.54	–	16.13	15.99	–	15.93	–	20.95	21.28	24.02
Pupil–teacher ratio – total (primary)	–	–	–	–	47.04	47.54	44.75	43.73	45.76	42.97	–	–	–	–	–	–	30.05	–
Pupil–teacher ratio – total (secondary)	37.50	–	31.08	–	23.92	–	25.24	–	28.16	–	30.62	–	35.20	–	–	–	33.98	–
Female students in the tertiary level (%)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	41.89	–	28.31	28.31	28.00
Current health expenditure (% of GDP)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2.50	2.56	2.57	2.50	2.50	2.46	2.37	–	–

Source: UIS, n.d.

A.2.2. Poverty reduction

On the back of Bangladesh's sustained economic growth, poverty is falling, albeit slower in the past few years. At the turn of the new millennium, nearly half of the population was classified as poor based on the national poverty line. However, based on the 2011 purchasing power parity,[1] Bangladesh had halved the number of people living in poverty 16 years later, to 24.3 per cent (World Bank, 2018a). As a percentage of the population, the poverty headcount ratio at USD 1.90 a day diminished significantly from 44.2 per cent in 1990 to 14.8 per cent in 2018. Despite contracting national poverty numbers, extreme poverty reduction in the urban areas has registered little or no progress, while the rate of urbanization has increased in recent years (ibid.). Consequently, urban areas are now home to a larger share of people living in extreme poverty.

Table A.3. Selected economic indicators in Bangladesh, FY2011–FY2018

Indicator	FY2011 (2011–2012)	FY2012 (2012–2013)	FY2013 (2013–2014)	FY2014 (2014–2015	FY2015 (2015–2016	FY2016 (2016–2017)	FY2017 (2017–2018)	FY2018 (2018–2019)
GDP growth (%)	–	6.5	6.0	6.1	6.6	7.1	7.3	8.1
Sectoral growth at constant prices – agriculture (%)	–	–	–	–	2.7	2.9	4.1	3.5
Sectoral growth at constant prices – industry (%)	–	–	–	–	11.0	10.2	12.0	13.0
Sectoral growth at constant prices – service (%)	–	–	–	–	7.3	6.6	6.3	6.0
Percentage contribution to GDP – agriculture	–	–	–	16.0	15.4	14.7	14.2	13.6
Percentage contribution to GDP – industry	–	–	–	30.4	31.5	32.4	33.7	35.1
Percentage contribution to GDP – service	–	–	–	53.6	53.1	52.9	52.1	51.3

Sources: Ministry of Finance, 2020; World Bank, 2018a.

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1 Purchasing power parity is a metric used in economic analysis that compares economic productivity and living standards between countries.

A.2.3. Economic development

In 2015, the World Bank recategorized Bangladesh from a low-income to a lower-middle-income country, which is evidence of sustained economic development in past decades (Zafar et al., 2020). In FY2012–2013, Bangladesh achieved a significant GDP growth rate of 6.5 per cent, except the country's economic growth slowed down to 6 per cent in the following year, the slowest pace during the period covered. From 2013 onwards, the economy gathered more steam, increasing steadily to 8.13 per cent in 2018 (provisional figure).

The expansion in Bangladesh's main domestic sectors – namely industry, services and agriculture – has had a bearing on accelerating the country's GDP growth. Figure A.1 presents the growth rates of these three main domestic sectors, contributing to the GDP and the GDP growth.

Figure A.1. Sectoral growth at constant prices and GDP in Bangladesh, FY2015–2016 to FY2018–2019
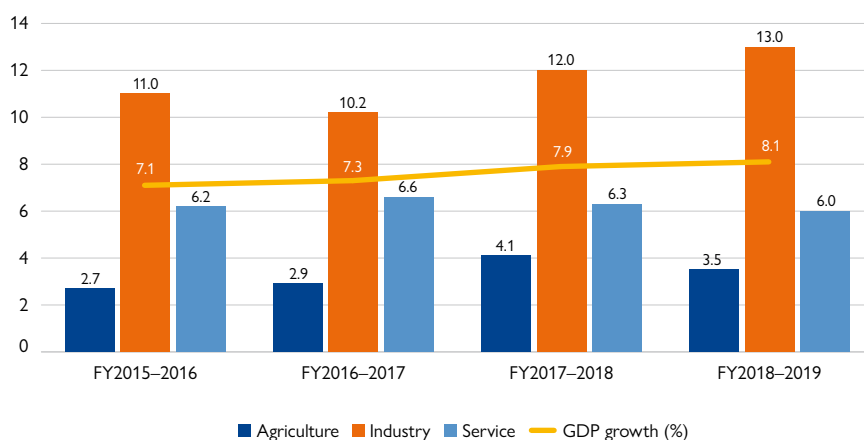
Sources: World Bank, 2018a; Ministry of Finance, 2020.

Of the three main sectors driving the GDP, industry has expanded at an astronomical pace, achieving double-digit growth in recent years (World Bank, 2018a). However, the industry sector's growth rate dropped from 11.0 per cent in FY2015–2016 to 10.2 per cent in FY2016–2017. Unlike agriculture and services, which posted lower growth than in the previous year, industry ended on a peak of 13.0 per cent expansion. However, the services sector was the highest contributor to the GDP, while agriculture had the least GDP share. For example, the industry sector's contribution surged from 30.4 per cent in FY2014–2015 to 35.1 per cent in FY2018–2019.

From FY2012 to FY2017, imports exceeded exports, creating a fluctuating negative trade balance, which worsened in FY2017–2018, as shown in Figure A.2.

Figure A.2. Trade balance and current account balance in Bangladesh, FY2012–2013 to FY2017–2018
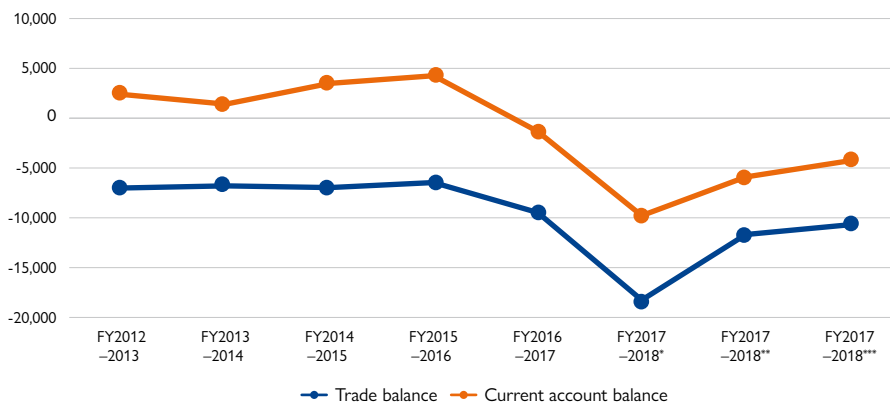
Source: Ministry of Finance, 2020.
Note: *Bangladesh Bank estimates; **revised; ***estimates up to February.

As shown in Figure A.3, the United States has been the largest single-country destination of Bangladesh exports over the past decade. The World Bank (2018a) estimated that the United States received 16.7 per cent of the total exports from Bangladesh between FY2008–2009 and FY2018–2019. Bangladesh predominantly exports women's garments, textiles and frozen foods to the United States. Other large export destinations were countries in the European Union, namely France, Germany and the United Kingdom.

Figure A.3. Bangladesh export earnings by country destination, FY2008–2009 to FY2018–2019
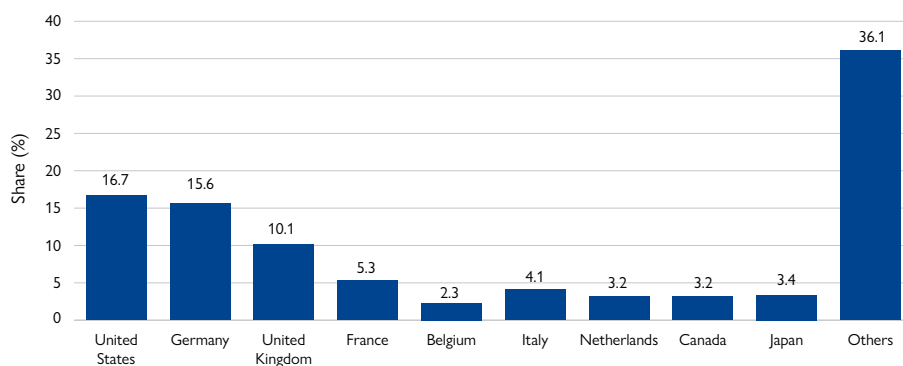
Source: Bangladesh Bank, 2019.

Figure A.4. Bangladesh imports by source country, FY2008–2009 to FY2018–2019
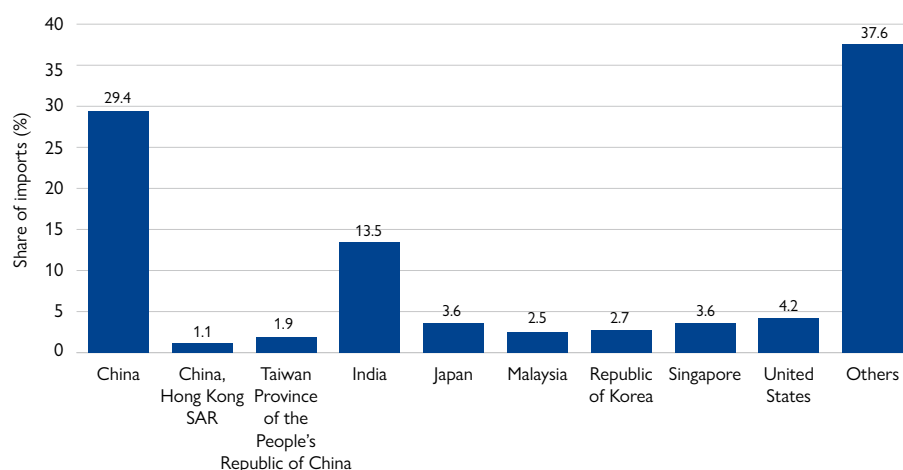
Source: Bangladesh Bank, 2019.

Notably, Asian countries are not among the primary recipients of Bangladesh exports. Yet, Bangladesh predominantly imports goods from these countries, as presented in Figure A.4. China and India were the largest source countries of imports, accounting for 29.4 per cent and 13.5 per cent of the imports, respectively, over the decade.

PART B: MIGRATION TRENDS AND MIGRATION CHARACTERISTICS

Part B presents an analysis of emigration and immigration trends for different categories of migrants, including labour emigrants, return migrants and asylum seekers.

Bangladesh is simultaneously a country of origin, transit and destination. Nonetheless, available data indicates that Bangladesh is primarily a country of origin, with more people leaving its territory than those entering the country. The net number of migrants – that is, the number of immigrants minus the number of emigrants – has been negative since the 1990s, indicating that Bangladesh is predominantly a country of origin. Therefore, a detailed review of the main drivers of international migration from Bangladesh is necessary.

B.1. Key driving factors of migration and general cross-border mobility

Since migration is a complex process, many factors – including but not limited to individual attributes, links to migrant networks and access to labour market information – which interact on different levels, influence the migration process (Raitapuro and Bal, 2016; Rahman, 2017).

To better understand the drivers and impacts of the prominent migration patterns in Bangladesh, some researchers have proposed three main components of the labour migration process, namely migration motivation, migration occurrence and actual migration (see, for example, Rahman, 2017). This conceptualization can be applied when analysing other categories of migration. Actual migration involves spending some time abroad and sending remittances, while the first two phases constitute the emigration process, comprising the pre-departure, departure and transit stages. The remittance process entails working abroad and remitting money and goods (ibid.). The last phase is return and reintegration, which may involve remigration at a later stage.

In the pre-departure phase, economic factors, social considerations, and the policy context in Bangladesh and the country of destination are essential drivers of migration. Part D discusses in detail the policy context of the sending country. Suffice to say, legislation and policy that facilitate safer and gender-sensitive migration tend to encourage migration for labour. The next section examines the factors that shape the decision to migrate from Bangladesh and the actors who wield influence over the migration decision-making process.

B.1.1. Migration motivation

Sociocultural factors

Social and cultural factors have a significant influence on the decision to emigrate from Bangladesh. In a study of labour migration from Bangladesh to Singapore, Rahman (2017) established that migration is a collective affair, as members of the family and the bari wield considerable influence over the decision to migrate. The bari is a social and spatial unit of kin-connected individuals who identify with it in the broader community and cooperate in domestic activities and share social support. Generally, in Bangladesh, members of the bari contribute money collectively and share information to help a family member migrate overseas. This cooperation suggests that lineage-based social networks of people shape aspirant migrants' motivation to migrate. Since migration increases the bari's status, its members usually raise money to cover migration costs, as they have a stake in the bari's collective reputation (ibid.).

Yet, just as cooperation between bari members contributes to aspirant migrants' successful departure, inter-bari competition among households, families and social groups is also a powerful driver of migration (ibid.). Social differentiation in the bari and the broader community of origin fuels inter-bari competition, leading to sustained migration.

The images and myths about life in the destination country are equally decisive pull factors of emigration from Bangladesh (Thompson, 2016). Also known as geographical imaginations, these cultural imageries of the world abroad are often unrealistic and exaggerated (Dannecker, 2009), yet they fuel migration motivation. Indeed, the mental images of faraway places and the way of life of the people living there are strong drivers of migration because aspirant migrants in the communities of origin use them to construct their self-images, new ideals and aspirations for the future (Raitapuro and Bal, 2016). Raitapuro and Bal's (2016:386) study of the Garos in the small town of Birisiri in Bangladesh established that "in the contemporary globalizing context of Bangladesh, young Garos have constructed aspirations which can no longer be fulfilled in their native villages". Thus, although the Garos are members of a marginal social group in Bangladesh, the narratives they share are a powerful psychological force that helps them dream of a life beyond their small town to improve both their social mobility and status. Consequently, the Garos view education as a precondition for international migration, which, in turn, is a prerequisite for upward mobility and the process of becoming part of a global community through migration. The imaginations of life now and how it may be in faraway places influence the Garos' desire to pursue a higher social status and modern lifestyles through education,

technology and migration. Therefore, cultural imageries which paint a picture of life abroad as stable, rewarding and conflict free have transformed the aspirations for upward mobility and migration among the Garos (Raitapuro and Bal, 2016).

In the same vein, various migration symbols equally engender new meanings of work in the community of origin, shaping the motivation to pursue careers overseas (Rahman, 2017). Especially in rural Bangladesh, migration has contributed to a shift in the meanings of good work *(bhalo kaz)* and bad work *(mandha kaz)* in ways that obligate young Bangladeshi men and women to consider employment opportunities abroad. In communities of origin, the types of work, such as working in someone's fields for money, are now considered a disgrace for the individual, the family and the bari (Rahman, 2017). Such new notions of work may prevent Bangladeshi men and women from engaging in local employment, forcing them to pursue a career abroad. So powerful are these meanings of work that some returnees are known to opt to remain unemployed to sustain the family and the bari's status, achieved through migration. Similarly, as Dannecker's (2009) study of migration from Bangladesh to Malaysia found, return migrants often omit information about their bad experiences while abroad from their migration narratives to maintain their social position. This selective narration of migration experiences further exaggerates the unrealistic images of work and life in the foreign labour market.

Educational achievement, too, is a cultural impediment to local employment and a driver for labour migration. Bangladeshi villagers are known to distinguish work meant for educated people, which is typically non-manual, from jobs for uneducated people. A perceived absence of jobs for educated people in rural Bangladesh can be a powerful migration driver for those young men and women who have accumulated significant human capital (education, know-how and skills) in Bangladesh (Raitapuro and Bal, 2016). Inevitably, educated young men and women in the community of origin are compelled to pursue opportunities abroad.

Economic and environmental insecurity

Persistent economic insecurity connected with poor labour market conditions and environmental vulnerability in Bangladesh is a potent driver of migration. Combined poverty and labour market conditions in Bangladesh provide a strong motivation for labour migration. Although the share of individuals objectively categorized as very poor has diminished to just a quarter of the population in recent years (World Bank, 2018a), many people have remained poor and economically insecure in relative terms (Raihan et al., 2018). The services and industry sectors in Bangladesh are expanding slowly, resulting in fewer employment

opportunities (World Bank, 2018a; Zafar et al., 2020). Besides, the agriculture sector – which employs nearly half of the formal labour force – is characterized by depressed wages, providing a strong push factor for overseas migration. Relatedly, while Bangladesh has a low unemployment rate of 4.3 per cent, most people in the labour force (87.4%) eke out a living in the informal sector, with limited access to formal social security arrangements such as old-age pensions and privately funded medical insurance (World Bank, 2018a). Therefore, poverty and labour market conditions increase individuals' and families' propensity to pursue alternative economic opportunities abroad.

Bangladesh is prone to weather-related events such as tropical cyclones, river and rainwater flooding, waterlogging, and coastal erosion due to its deltaic and low-lying geography (Brown and Nichols, 2015). Recurrent floods affect thousands of families every year. The environmental disruptions, which are expected to increase due to worsening climatic conditions, create real and perceived ecological insecurity. The risk of extreme of weather events is a compelling push factor for migration in Bangladesh where hundreds of households are displaced each year (Mallick and Siddiqui, 2015).

However, with the exception of extreme weather events, push factors – such as poverty, unacceptable labour conditions and income squeeze – and a perceived inferior status do not entirely influence the decision to leave, because, as Mallick and Siddiqui (2015:165) argue, "migration requires some kind of pull incentives". Therefore, Bangladeshi men and women are likely to migrate to a country with a more robust economy, which they evaluate in terms of perceived general economic conditions (Sultana and Fatima, 2017).

Nevertheless, in general, an increase in the destination country's manufacturing capacity tends to lower the demand for unskilled labour in the manufacturing sector. Moreover, higher industrialization levels at destination increase the demand for unskilled female labour in the destination countries' domestic sectors, resulting in more unskilled Bangladeshi women in destination countries' domestic sectors. Similarly, the expansion of the destination country's agriculture sector tends to attract unskilled male and female labour from Bangladesh.

B.1.2. Migration occurrence

Especially for labour migrants, the motivation to migrate is insufficient to facilitate and sustain migrants' flow from Bangladesh. Even when highly motivated to pursue a career overseas, the aspirant migrant should organize all the paperwork required to accomplish the migration. To successfully do this, the aspirant migrant must have access to migrant networks and institutions facilitating migration (Rashid and Ashraf, 2018). Migrant networks and institutions, alternatively known as migration engines, play a critical role in the recruitment process and connect aspirant migrants in Bangladesh with foreign employers (Rahman, 2017). Thus, in large part, migration occurrence depends on one's access to migrant networks and migrant institutions.

Recruitment is a major part of the migration process. While the recruitment agencies and brokers play an intermediary role between would-be migrant labourers and foreign employers, they tend to dominate the recruitment process in Bangladesh at the expense of public institutions that are more transparent and affordable (World Bank, 2018b). These private intermediaries mobilize, recruit and facilitate the necessary documentation (visa, permits and other papers) and organize migrants' travel. According to Rashid and Ashraf (2018), aspirant migrants tend to rely more on informal agents than formal migrant institutions which are less transparent, making the recruitment process more expensive. Furthermore, generally, few aspirant migrants have good access to the relevant migration information and are unaware of the correct sources of migration-related information (World Bank, 2018b). In the absence of accurate information, migrants tend to pay unnecessarily more money for the informal agents' services.

B.2. Immigration

B.2.1. Foreign-born population and immigration

In 2017, there were approximately 1.5 million international migrants in Bangladesh, corresponding to 0.9 per cent of the national population (DESA Population Division, 2017). Furthermore, the number of international migrants in Bangladesh increased from 882,000 in 1990 to 1.5 million in 2017. Figure B.1 shows that, in nominal terms, the foreign-born population increased gently over nearly three decades. However, the share of the international stock of migrants in proportion to the country's total population fluctuated between 1990 and 2017, as illustrated on Figure B.2. The international stock of migrants dropped from

0.9 per cent of the population in 1990 to 0.8 per cent in 1995, flattening for the next decade before jumping up to 0.9 per cent in 2010 (ibid.).

Figure B.1. International migrants in Bangladesh, 1990–2017
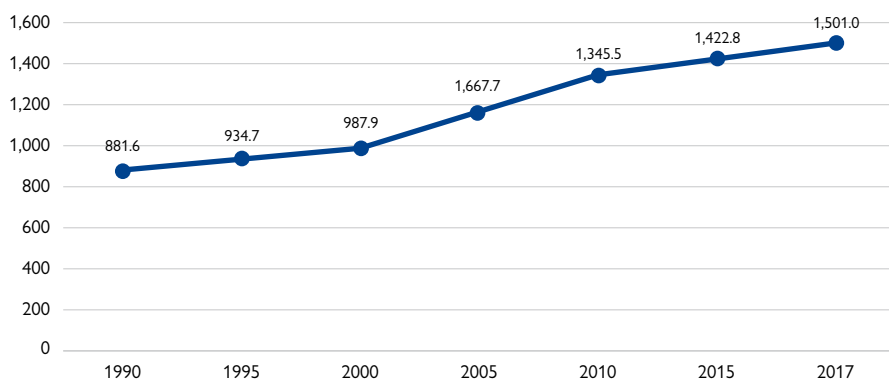
Figure B.2. International migrants as a share of the total population in Bangladesh, 1990–2017
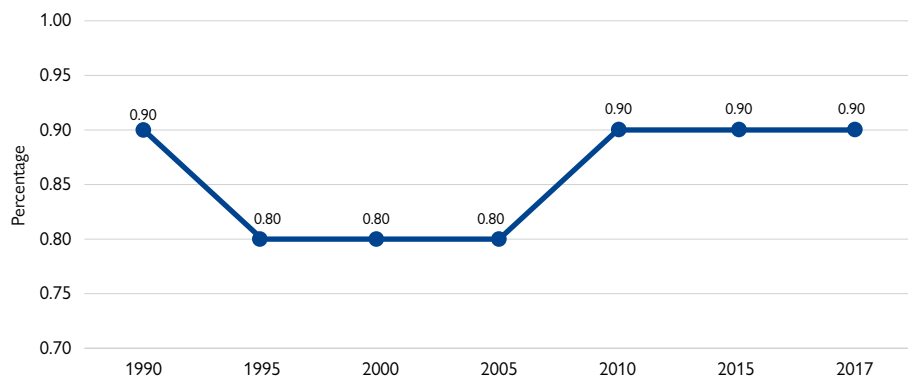
Sources: DESA Population Division, 2017 and 2019; IOM, n.d.b.

Table B.1 presents information regarding some selected indicators for the foreign-born population. Women constituted nearly half (47.1%) of the foreign-born population in Bangladesh in 2017. In 2015, one in five foreigners (international migrants) was 19 years old and below (DESA Population Division, 2019). Forcibly displaced people made up over two fifths of the foreign-born population in 2017.

Table B.1. International stock of migrants in Bangladesh by selected variables, 1990–2017

Variable	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015	2017
International migrants (thousands)	881.6	934.7	987.9	1 166.7	1 345.5	1 422.8	1 501.0
International migrants as a share of total population (%)	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9
Refugees (thousands)	0.1	11.0	21.9	125.6	229.3	232.6	932.3
Refugees as a share of international migrants (%)	0.0	1.2	2.2	10.8	17.0	16.3	42.7
Women among international migrants (%)	46.0	46.1	46.2	46.8	47.2	47.1	–
Median age of international migrants (years)	22.6	27.2	30.5	32.9	34.2	33.8	–

Source: DESA Population Division, 2019.

After 2016, a prominent feature of the foreign-born population is the spike in the number of forcibly displaced foreigners – typically documented as persons of concern – from Myanmar. Figure B.3 presents the trends in the number of persons of concern, according to UNHCR.

Figure B.3. Persons of concern (refugees) in Bangladesh, 2009–2018
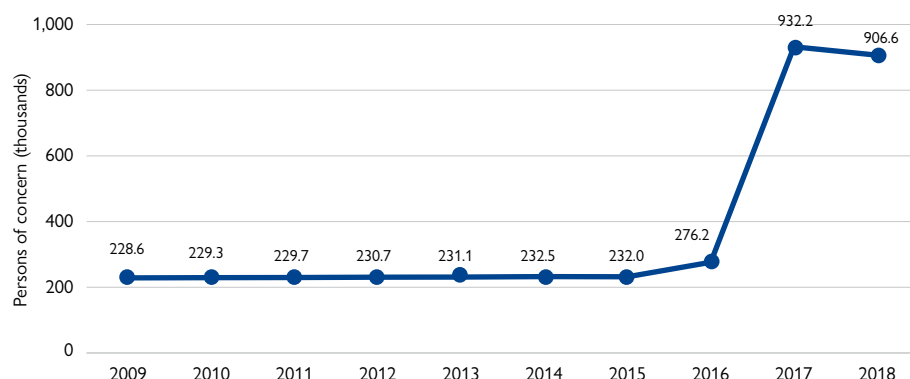
Source: DESA Population Division, 2019.

From 2009 to 2016, a flattened graph characterized the trend of forcibly displaced foreign people and people of concern. However, in nominal terms, the population of persons of concern[2] expanded significantly rapidly between 2016 and 2017. For instance, the population of persons defined by UNHCR as persons of concern or refugees as a share of the international migrant stock dramatically increased from 16.3 per cent in 2015 to 42.7 per cent in 2017 (DESA Population

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2 "Persons of concern" is a UNHCR category which primarily includes refugees and forcibly displaced persons.

Division, 2019). It is highly likely that the inflow of people who identify as the Muslim Rohingya, an ethnic Muslim minority in predominantly Buddhist Myanmar (Post et al., 2019), is associated with the astronomical increase in the number of persons of concern.

B.2.2. Forced immigration

The Muslim Rohingya people have experienced "systematic discrimination, statelessness and targeted violence" in Myanmar's northern Rakhine State for many decades (OCHA, n.d.b). Bangladesh is one of the top destination countries for the Rohingya people fleeing from violence in Myanmar. For many decades, violence and persecution have been an existential threat to the Rohingya people, most of whom are stateless. However, violence – which includes indiscriminate killing, destruction of property and raping of women – spiked in 1978, 1991–1992, and recently, in 2016 (Reid, 2020). In 1978, approximately a quarter of a million Rohingya people entered Bangladesh to escape violence in Myanmar (ibid.). A significant population of the Rohingya people who had fled into Bangladesh to escape violence in Myanmar in the 1990s returned to their home country in subsequent years. Nonetheless, a sizeable number of the forcibly displaced Rohingya people remained in the southern part of Cox's Bazar district of Bangladesh (International Crisis Group, 2019).

The recent violence in Myanmar's Rakhine state has led to the most prominent and fastest cross-border flow of Rohingya men, women and children looking for a place of safety in Bangladesh. Approximately 750,000 people, primarily comprising children, fled across the border to join those who had already taken shelter in the country before August 2017 (International Crisis Group, 2019; Post et al., 2019). As of 2018, Bangladesh was host to over a million Rohingya people in Cox's Bazar district, mainly in Ukhia and Teknaf subdistricts (ibid.).

The data presented in Table B.2 shows the categories of the Rohingya community in Cox's Bazar according to the time of arrival. As depicted in the table, 80 per cent of the Rohingya population in Cox's Bazar arrived between August and December 2017.

Table B.2. Period of arrival of Rohingya refugees in Cox's Bazar, Bangladesh

Arrival period	Number of persons	Percentage of total
Before 9 October 2016	72 821	8
Between 9 October 2016 and 24 August 2017	93 645	11
Between 25 August 2017 and 31 Dec 2017	712 179	80
Jan–July 2018	13 223	1

Source: Tay et al., 2018.

Vulnerability among the Rohingya people was typically high. Table B.3 presents the categories of vulnerable Rohingya people in Cox's Bazar. More than a third of the Rohingya people are very vulnerable for many reasons; among these are female family headship (a single mother), severe medical conditions and ageing.

Table B.3. Protection vulnerabilities among Rohingya refugees in Cox's Bazar, Bangladesh

Protection concern	Percentage of families
Single mother	16
Serious medical conditions	5
Older persons at risk	4
Disability	4
Separated child	2
An older person with children	2
Unaccompanied child	1
Single male parent with an infant	1

Source: Tay et al., 2018.

Most of the Rohingya people in Cox's Bazar were very poor, with 75 per cent living below the minimum expenditure basket. A further 33 per cent were living below the national poverty line in 2018 (Post et al., 2019). The Rohingya population who lived below the national poverty line was larger than the national average of 25 per cent. Nine in 10 Rohingyas experienced food insecurity and almost 44 per cent had borderline consumption. Therefore, a significantly large number of Rohingya refugees lacked access to nutritious food.

Moreover, the Rohingya were concentrated in Cox's Bazar, one of the poorest districts in Bangladesh. The subdistricts of Ukhia and Teknaf, where most of the Rohingya people live, were among the poorest subdistricts in Cox's Bazar. In fact, the influx of refugees was linked to falling wages in Cox's Bazar's formal and informal sectors, fuelling potential tensions in 2018 (ibid.).

B.3. Emigration

B.3.1. Emigration for employment

Bangladesh is one of the main countries of origin of international migrants in the world. From the time Bangladesh achieved independence until 2018, approximately 12.2 million Bangladeshi people had emigrated to work in foreign countries (Siddiqui et al., 2019). While a considerable number of Bangladeshi labour migrants return to Bangladesh at the end of the contract of employment, administrative data for return migrants does not exist, making it difficult to calculate the number of Bangladeshi return migrants. Equally impossible to tell is the number of Bangladeshi nationals who leave the country to take up employment abroad after the initial return. Despite this knowledge gap, some very rough estimates of return migration indicate that return migrants are equivalent to 20 per cent of the number of labour emigrants (ibid.).

Overall, the number of migrants per year increased from 189,060 in 2001 through 2017, reaching a peak of a million (1,008,525) labour emigrants in that year. However, the annual total number of labour migrants diminished to 734,181 in 2018 – a 17 per cent decline. Despite the upward trend, the number of labour emigrants fluctuated between 2001 and 2018. For instance, in 2008, 875,055 Bangladeshi nationals migrated to take up short-term contract employment abroad, yet only 475,278 migrated for the same purpose in 2009 – a 46 per cent decline in a single year.

Figure B.4. International labour migrants from Bangladesh, 2001–2018
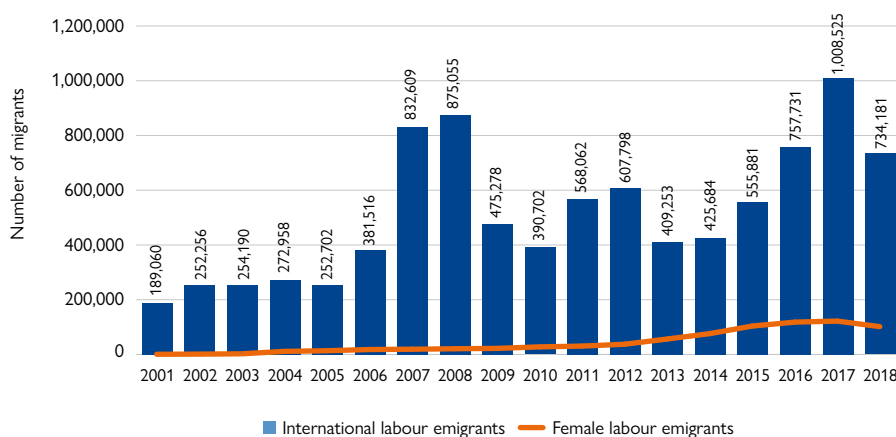
Source: BMET, 2019.

Another notable feature of labour migration from Bangladesh is that although female labour migration has been increasing, women make up a small fraction of the total annual labour migrants (see Figure B.4). For instance, of over a million Bangladeshi labour migrants in 2017, just fewer than 122,000 were women. The top destinations of labour migrants from Bangladesh are examined in the section that follows.

Figure B.5. Bangladeshi nationals' overseas employment by country of destination (top 10), 2009–2018

Number of Bangladeshi nationals
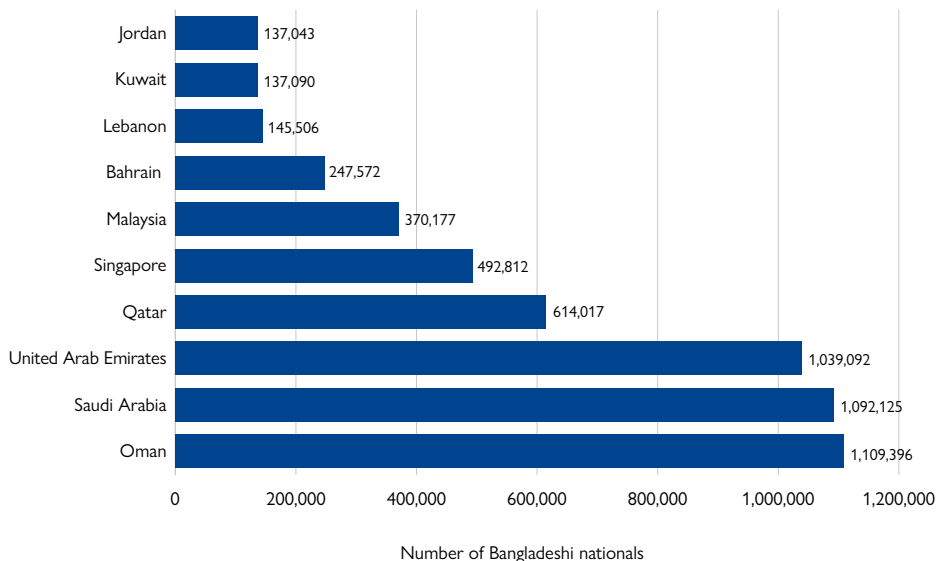
Source: BMET, 2019.

Figure B.5 presents the top 10 countries of destination for Bangladeshi labour migrants from 2009 to 2018. Countries in the Gulf region were among the major destinations for Bangladeshi labour migrants, although a significant proportion took up short-term employment in Singapore and Malaysia. Oman, Saud Arabia and the United Arab Emirates each provided employment opportunities to more than a million workers from 2009 through 2018. In the same period, nearly half a million workers found work in Singapore, while Malaysia employed 370,177 Bangladeshi nationals. Singapore and Malaysia are increasingly becoming key labour markets for Bangladeshi nationals.

The majority of Bangladeshi nationals who gained employment abroad belong to semi-skilled and low-skilled categories. Figure B.6 shows the distribution of overseas migrants according to the skills category.

Figure B.6. Bangladeshi nationals' overseas employment by skills category, 2000–2018
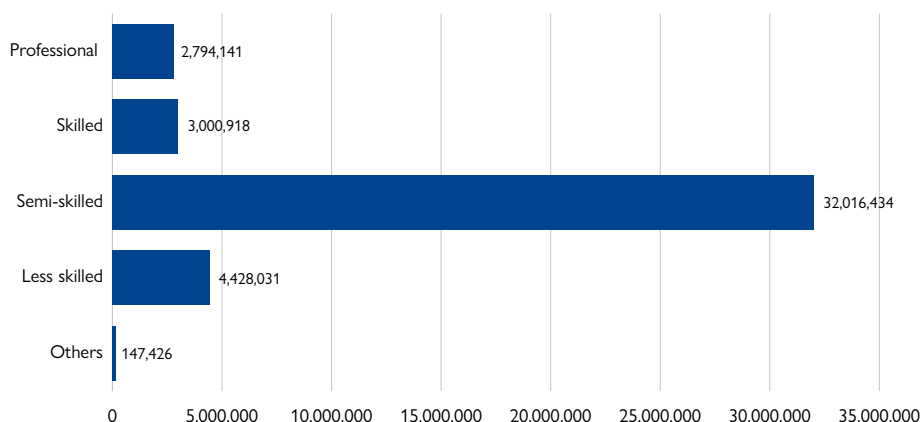
Source: Rashid and Ashraf, 2018.

The BMET categorized just a small proportion of Bangladeshi labour migrants as skilled and professional. After arrival, most Bangladeshi emigrants worked in the lower rungs because they lacked the requisite skills and education to work in the manufacturing sector.

According to BMET officials, Cumilla, Brahmanbaria, Tangail, Dhaka, Chattogram, Narsingdi, Chandpur, Kishoreganj and Noakhali were among the top 10 sending districts in 2018. However, for the period between 2005 and 2018, Cumilla, Chattogram, Tangail, Chandpur and Noakhali were among the top five communities of origin of labour migrants, as shown in Figure B.7. Furthermore, Figure B.7 illustrates that Manikganj, Faridpur and Narayanganj were the main communities of origin of female labour migrants between 2005 and 2018. Bangladesh's labour migration remains dominated by men, with far fewer women migrating to work.

Figure B.7. Bangladeshi nationals' overseas employment by district of origin (top 20) and sex, 2005–2018

Female labour migration

Unlike the total number of labour emigrants, which fluctuated throughout the period as shown in Figure B.4, female labour migration had been increasing slowly since 2000, except in 2018.

Figure B.8. Female labour migrants from Bangladesh, 2000–2018
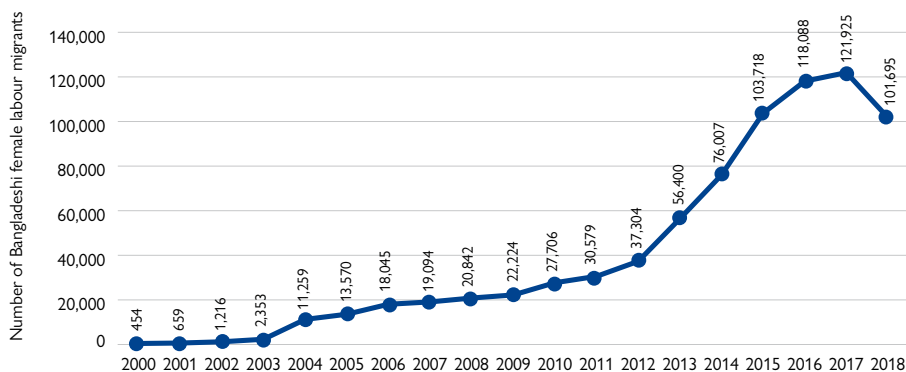
As shown in Figure B.8, the number of women who left Bangladesh to get a job outside the country grew from 454 in 2000 to 121,925 in 2017, but it dropped by 16.5 per cent to 101,695 in 2018. Despite a strong trend towards feminization of migration, women still constitute a small fraction of annual labour migrants. Even at the peak of female migration in 2017, women made up just less than one fifth of the total number of labour migrants.

Saudi Arabia, Jordan, the United Arab Emirates, Lebanon and Oman were the five significant destinations for female labour migrants from Bangladesh between 2010 and 2018, employing over 90 per cent of Bangladeshi women. As shown in Figure B.9, female migration to the top five countries of destination declined in 2018.

Figure B.9. Female labour migration from Bangladesh by country of destination (top 5), 2010–2018
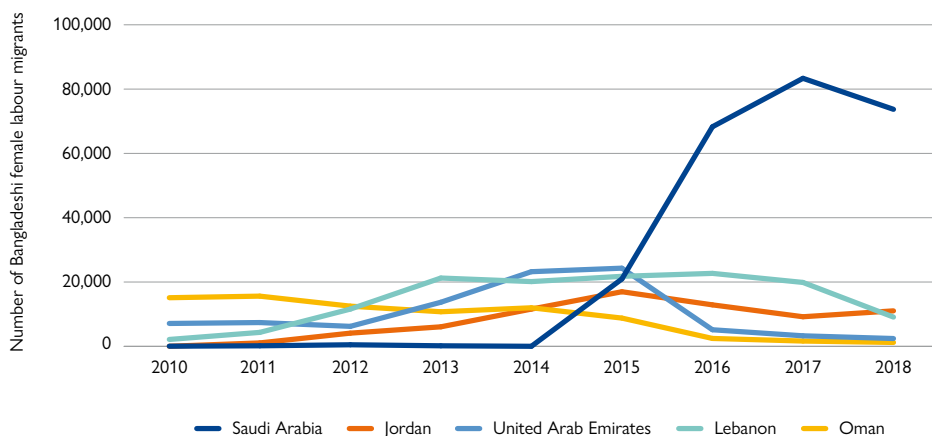
Source: BMET, 2019.

Although Saudi Arabia was the number one destination for Bangladeshi female labour migrants between 2010 and 2018, female labour migration to the destination country followed a somewhat different pattern. As presented in Figure B.9, Saudi Arabia received a relatively low double-digit number of female migrants (44) in 2010 and recorded an even lower annual total in 2014 (13). However, the 2014 volume of female migrants to Saudi Arabia increased exponentially to 83,354 in 2017, which is the highest yearly number of Bangladeshi women employed in a single country of destination in the period under review. Except for Oman, the leading destinations of Bangladeshi female migrants absorbed fewer female migrants in 2018 than in the previous year.

Table B.4 presents the top 15 destinations for Bangladeshi female migrants between 2010 and 2018. The countries in the Middle East are, by far, the top destinations for this group of migrants.

Table B.4. Female labour migration from Bangladesh by country/territory of destination (top 15), 2010–2018

Country/Territory of destination	Number of female migrants
Saudi Arabia	277 830
Jordan	138 920
United Arab Emirates	125 226
Lebanon	105 307
Oman	75 472
Qatar	29 013
Mauritius	16 438
Kuwait	4 355
Bahrain	3 282
Malaysia	1 731
Hong Kong SAR, China	1 530
Singapore	1 295
Libya	531
Italy	452
Cyprus	159

Source: BMET, 2019.

Of the top 10 countries, three are not in the Gulf region, namely Mauritius, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (SAR), China, and Singapore. With 16,438 Bangladeshi female migrants in its labour market, Mauritius is the seventh largest destination of female migrants for the period commencing 2010 through 2018. Singapore and Hong Kong SAR, China, are equally important destinations for Bangladeshi female migrants. While the volume of migration to these three countries has been falling since 2014, they will likely remain critical destinations for Bangladeshi female migrants beyond 2018.

Although female migration has dramatically increased in the last decade or so, most female labour migrants from Bangladesh do not possess the levels of education and the skills required to work outside the domestic sectors in the

destination countries (Rahman, 2017). As a result, over 90 per cent of Bangladeshi women work in low-end jobs in the care sector (Rashid and Ashraf, 2018). Most women who are employed in the Gulf countries' domestic sectors work for long hours, do not receive their wages and salaries, and experience verbal and sexual abuses (ibid.). One arrangement that has contributed to the multifaceted abuse that women face is the Kafala visa regime, which prohibits workers from changing employers (ibid.).

B.4. Irregular migration

IOM defines irregular migration as "movement of persons that takes place outside the laws, regulations, or international agreements governing the entry into or exit from the State of origin, transit or destination" (IOM, 2019:144).

According to the information provided by the Government of Bangladesh concerning foreigners who violated the country's immigration laws between 2010 and 2018, the majority of irregular migrants had been overstaying. That is, they had knowingly remained in the country beyond the time allowed by the Government.

Figure B.10. Migrants who overstayed in Bangladesh by sex, 2010–2018
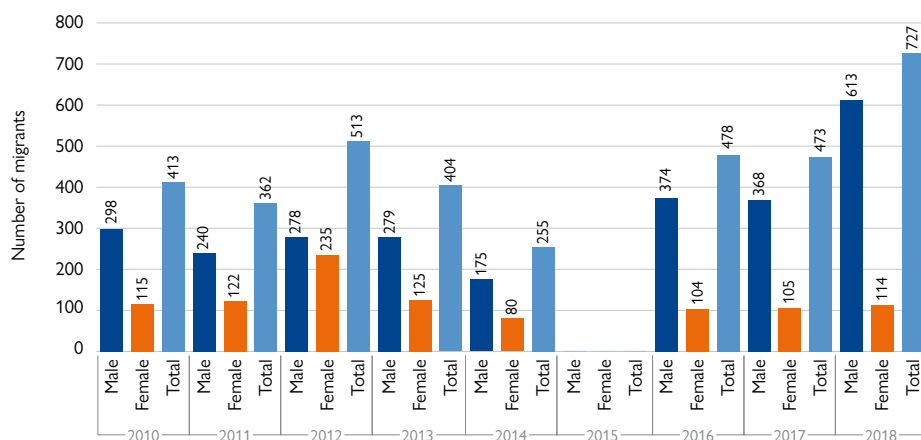
Source: MoHA, 2019.

Note: 2015 data is not available.

As shown in Figure B.10, overall, more men than women overstayed. In 2018, 613 men compared with 114 women overstayed in Bangladesh. It seems that not all the non-nationals who overstayed paid a fine (Figure B.11). Figures B.11 and B.12, respectively, present the annual number of foreigners who paid a fine for a migration-related offence and their countries of origin.

Figure B.11. Total number of foreigners who paid a fine for violating migration rules in Bangladesh, 2010–2018

Year	Number of foreign migrants
2010	413
2011	362
2012	501
2013	404
2014	255
2015	
2016	478
2017	473
2018	620

Number of foreign migrants
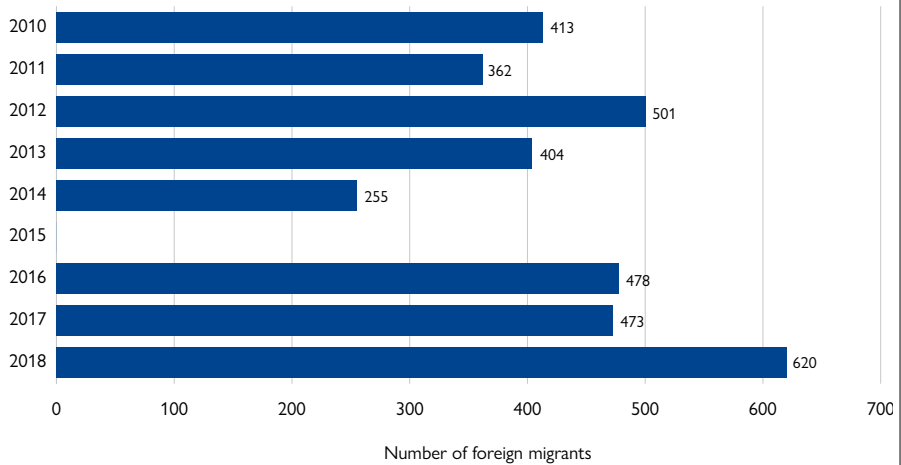
Figure B.12. Total number of foreigners who paid a fine for a migration-related offence in Bangladesh by country/territory of origin, 2010–2018

Country/territory	Number of foreign migrants
Malaysia	939
United States	648
United Kingdom	512
Germany	284
Canada	237
Singapore	190
France	188
Italy	149
Taiwan Province of the People's Republic of China	107
India	98
Republic of Korea	91
Australia	77
Pakistan	50
Norway	27
Nepal	17
Denmark	11
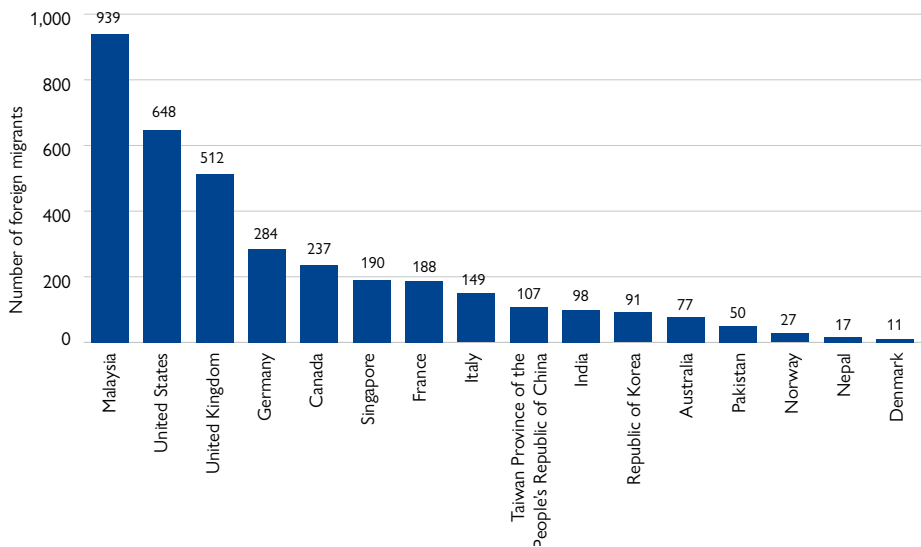
Source: MoHA, 2019.

Note: In Figure B.11, 2015 data is not available.

In 2012, there were 513 overstaying foreigners (Figure B.10), but only 501 paid fines (Figure B.11). Between 2010 and 2018, 3,506 foreigners paid a fine for violating migration-related rules. The largest number of persons from a

single country who paid a fine came from Malaysia, as shown in Figure B.12. By far, among Asians, Malaysians constituted the largest national group who paid a fine in the period covered. The number of Malaysians who paid a fine in this period was twice as large as the combined number of nationals from Singapore, Taiwan, India, Pakistan and Nepal who also paid a fine in Bangladesh. Furthermore, more than two thirds of the total number of foreigners who were fined between 2010 and 2018 were nationals of high-income countries in Northern America, Europe and Australia.

Bangladesh prosecuted a minimal number of non-nationals for migration-related offences, as shown in Figure B.13.

Figure B.13. Total number of foreigners who were prosecuted for migration-related offences in Bangladesh, 2013–2018
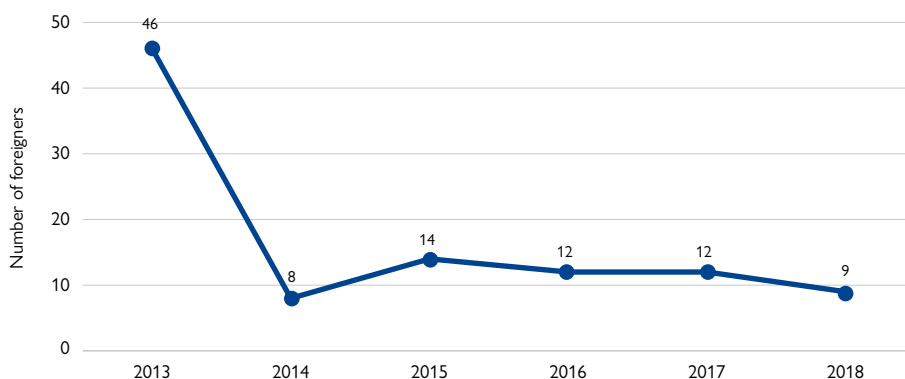
Source: MoHA, 2019.

The number of foreigners prosecuted in Bangladesh drastically fell from 46 in 2013 to 9 in 2018. Similarly, Bangladesh deported a small number of foreigners between 2013 and 2018. Only 49 non-nationals were deported in 2018, up from 27 in 2017. Deportations peaked in 2016 when Bangladeshi authorities forcibly removed 89 foreigners from the country for violating immigration laws. Approximately half of the foreigners deported between 2014 and July 2018 were Chinese nationals. Nigeria and Cameroon were the second and third largest countries of origin of non-nationals who were deported between 2014 and 2018, as illustrated in Figure B.14. All the Africans ever deported between 2014 and 2018 were nationals of Nigeria and Cameroon.

Figure B.14. Number of foreigners deported from Bangladesh by country of origin, 2014–2018

■	China
■	Nigeria
■	Cameroon
■	Myanmar
■	Pakistan
■	India
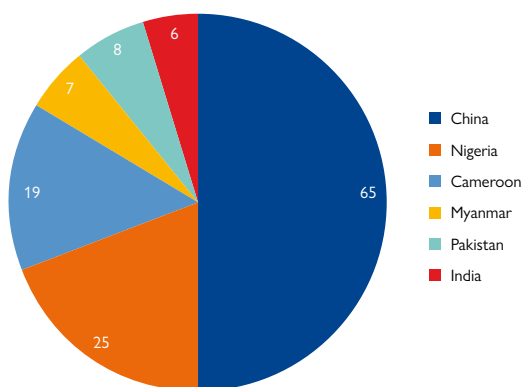
Source: MoHA, 2019.

Figure B.15. Yearly deportations from Bangladesh, 2014–2018
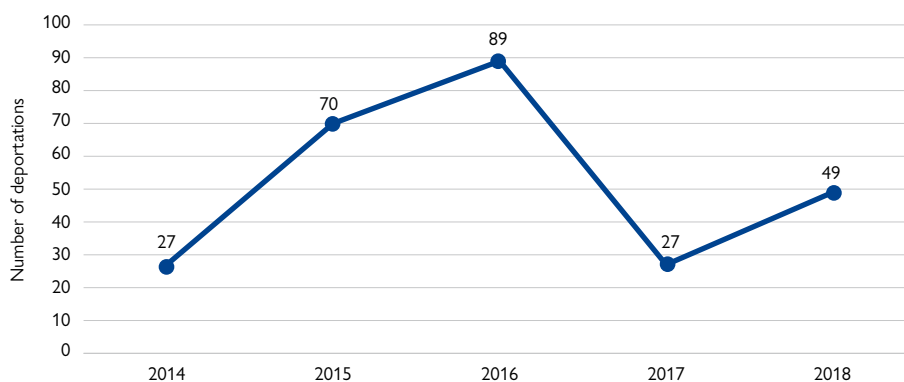
Source: MoHA, 2019.

The non-nationals who violated immigration-related rules (mainly overstaying) in Bangladesh were typically male. More men were prosecuted and deported between 2014 and 2018, demonstrating that migration remains a male-dominated affair. Interestingly, approximately two thirds of the foreigners who paid a fine for violating migration-related rules come from high-income countries in Europe, Northern America and Australia. As noted already, the number of people who violated immigration-related rules does not adequately reveal the nature and magnitude of irregular migration, principally because this type of human mobility is clandestine. However, strengthening formal migration procedures is necessary to lower irregular migration.

B.5. Return migration

Administrative data to describe return migration in Bangladesh is scarce. As a result, migration stakeholders rely on survey data to make sense of the returning migrants' population. Yet, nationally representative surveys of returning migrant workers are similarly rare. The ILO, the Government of Bangladesh and other stakeholders conducted the latest return migration survey. First published in 2015, the survey remains one of the most detailed studies on return migration to Bangladesh (Ahmed et al., 2015).

By and large, returning migrants constitute a relatively young population, with more than three quarters (77.1%) of all survey participants aged between 18 and 35. While returning migrants were typically male, female returning migrants were relatively younger. Men's predominance in the category of returning migrants is a common feature in many forms of migration, including irregular and forced migration.

The largest number of returning migrants came from two divisions, namely Dhaka and Chittagong, as shown in Figure B.16. Returning migrants from the two divisions account for more than three quarters (77.3%) of all returning migrant workers.

Figure B.16. Distribution of returning Bangladeshi labour migrants by division
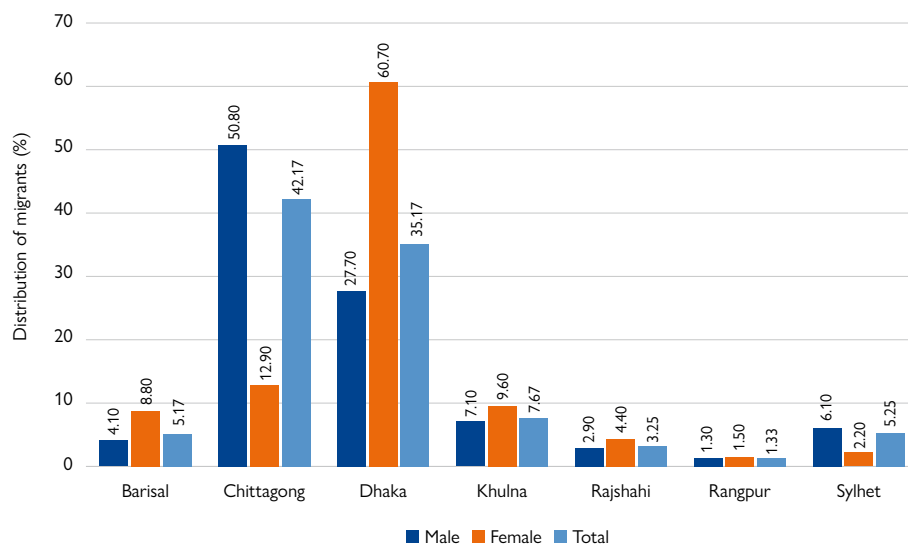
Source: Ahmed et al., 2015.

As shown in Figure B.16, half of all the returning male migrants sampled came from Chittagong. However, the highest percentage of returning female migrants came from Dhaka.

Regarding marital status, Figure B.17 illustrates that most (approximately two thirds) returning migrants were married.

Figure B.17. Distribution of Bangladeshi returning migrants by marital status
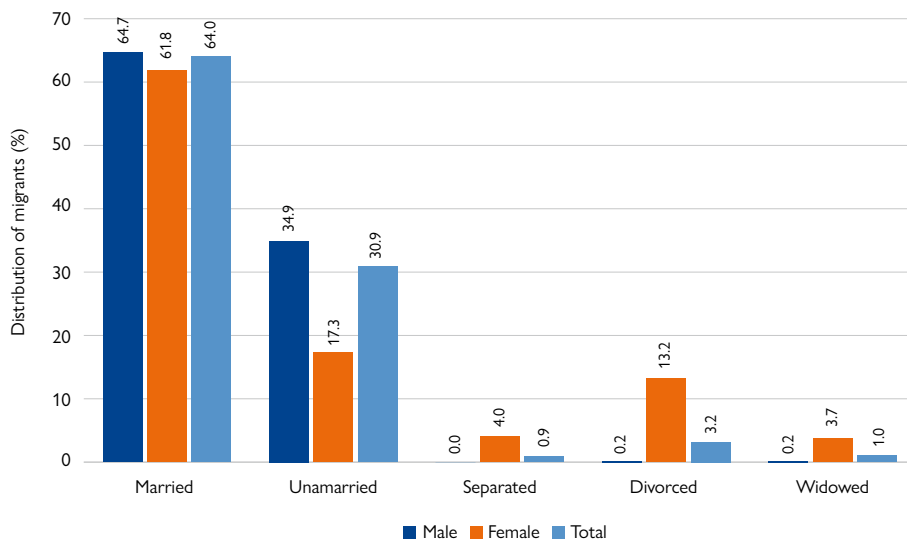
Source: Ahmed et al., 2015.

Women were overrepresented in the categories of widowed, divorced and separated. Returning migrants came from generally larger households (5.87 members) than the national average household size of 4.38 members (Figure B.18). Therefore, this suggests that return from migration potentially impacts the lives of many people in the household.

**Figure B.18. Distribution of Bangladeshi returning migrants
by number of household members**

Distribution of returning migrants (%)

Category	Male	Female	Total
No dependants	1.7	7.4	3.0
1–2	20.1	29.1	22.2
3–4	43.5	46.7	44.2
5–6	26.8	12.5	23.6
7–8	6.4	3.7	5.8
9–10	1.1	0.7	1.1
11 or more	0.3	0.0	0.0

■ Male ■ Female ■ Total
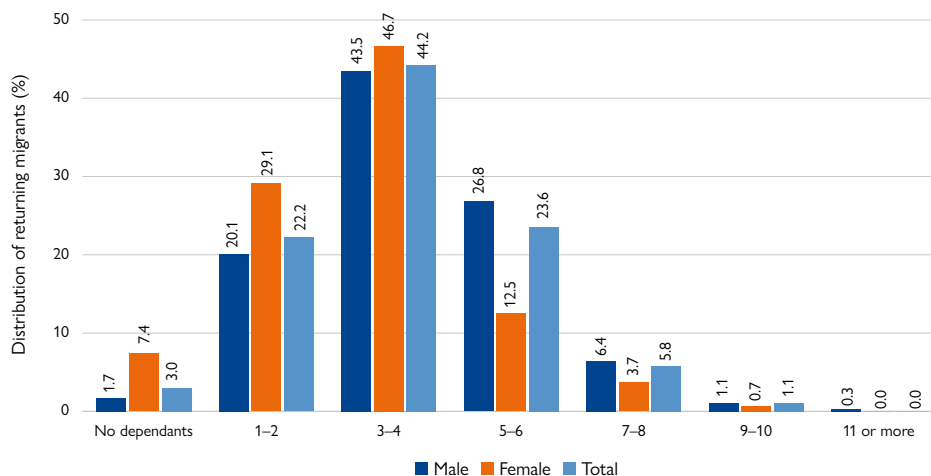
Source: Ahmed et al., 2015.

Figure B.18 illustrates that, on average, 3–5 members of a household depend on the returning migrant's income, with approximately 44.2 per cent supporting 3–4 household members using their overseas earnings.

Generally, returning migrants did not complete primary and secondary levels of education, with a tiny proportion of workers (3.5%) completing higher secondary schooling (i.e. up to 12 years approximately). Only a quarter of the returning migrant workers sampled had completed five years of primary education, while one fifth (21.1%) lacked formal education. However, more female returning migrant workers (31.3%) than male returning migrant workers (18.1%) had never attended school.

The idea that, generally, returning migrants had low education levels indicates that migrants worked in labour-intensive, lower rungs of the destination country's labour market. Even before departure, most returning migrants were involved in low-end occupations. Nearly a quarter (23.0%) and 12.2 per cent worked in the agriculture and services sectors, respectively, before migration. Approximately 16.3 per cent of the returning migrants were self-employed prior to departure, with 2.7 per cent operating a tailoring and embroidery shop. Before departure, returning migrants operated a food shop (0.4%), a mobile phone shop (0.1%) and a grocery shop (3.8%). Fewer returning migrants were involved in farming before they left to take up employment abroad, with only 0.3 per cent who were engaged in poultry.

B.6. Internal migration

Simply defined, internal migration takes place within the country and involves individuals changing residences (BBS, 2019).

Figure B.19 provides information on some of the indicators used to measure internal migration in Bangladesh, including in-migration and outmigration, gross migration, rural to urban, and urban to rural. In the course of life, people leave their neighbourhood and move to another administrative unit. Moving to a new residence is known as in-migration. Conversely, the process of moving out in order to establish residence in another place in the same country is out-migration. Rural-to-urban migration and urban-to-rural migration are, generally, the dominant types of internal migration, because many people leave the village to live in an urban area.

Figure B.19 presents selected indicators of internal migration.

Figure B.19. Bangladesh internal migration indicators, 2014–2018
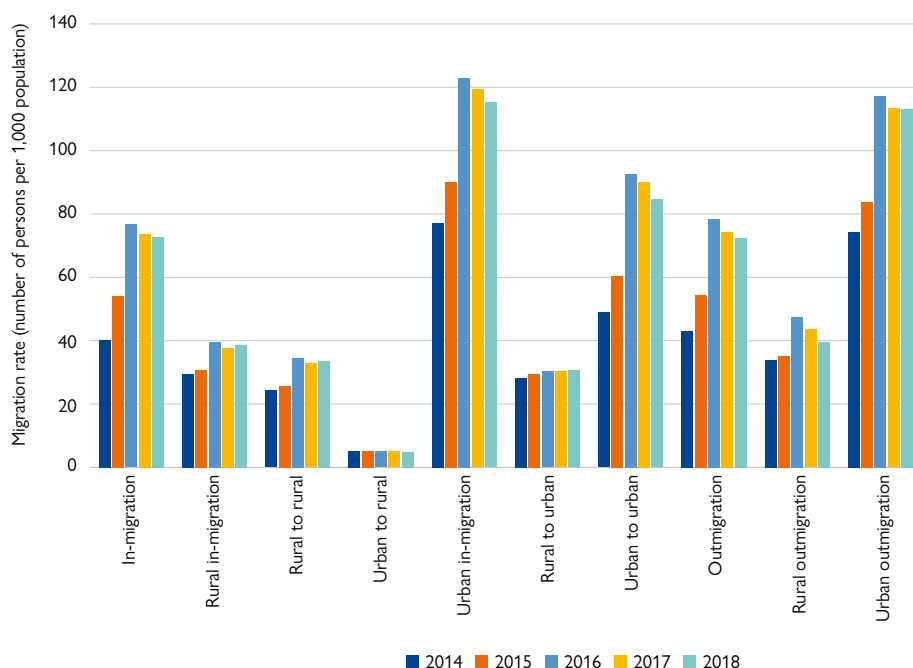
Source: BBS, 2019.

Figure B.19 illustrates that, generally, internal migration is declining, with a small difference between outmigration and in-migration recorded in the sample area in 2018. The variation between the in-migration rate of 72.8 persons per 1,000 population and the outmigration rate of 72.4 persons per 1,000 population in 2018 resulted in a gain of 0.4 persons per 1,000 population.

In terms of rural and urban trends, in-migration to the metropolitan areas was nearly three times higher (a rate of 115.2 persons per 1,000 population) than in-migration to the rural areas (38.6 persons per 1,000 population). While the urban areas attracted more people, urban outmigration was comparably high, resulting in the urban areas losing population, with a net loss of 3.4 persons per 1,000 population. In terms of spatial–political units, Dhaka recorded the highest rates of in-migration and outmigration, with a loss of 2.7 persons per 1,000 population (BBS, 2019). Similarly, Chattogram, Rangpur and Sylhet divisions lost population due to migration. On the contrary, other divisions, namely Barishal, Khulna, Rajshahi and Mymensingh, gained population due to a net balance between in-migration and outmigration.

Women were overrepresented in both outmigration and in-migration. For instance, 65.0 per 1,000 men compared to 80.6 per 1,000 women moved to the SVRS sample area in 2018. Similarly, women recorded a higher out-migration rate (79.4 per 1,000 population) than men (65.4 per 1,000 population). Men and women in the 15–29 years age group tended to dominate internal migration (BBS, 2019).

B.7. Internal displacement

According to IOM (2019:107), internally displaced persons are "persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border". The two primary drivers of internal displacement in Bangladesh are conflict and environmental shocks related to climate change.

Figure B.20 presents the number of disaster-induced new displacements from 2008 to 2018 as of 1 January of each year. The category of "new displacement" represents the number of new cases or incidents of displacement recorded instead of displaced people.

Figure B.20. Disaster-induced new displacements in Bangladesh, 2008–2018
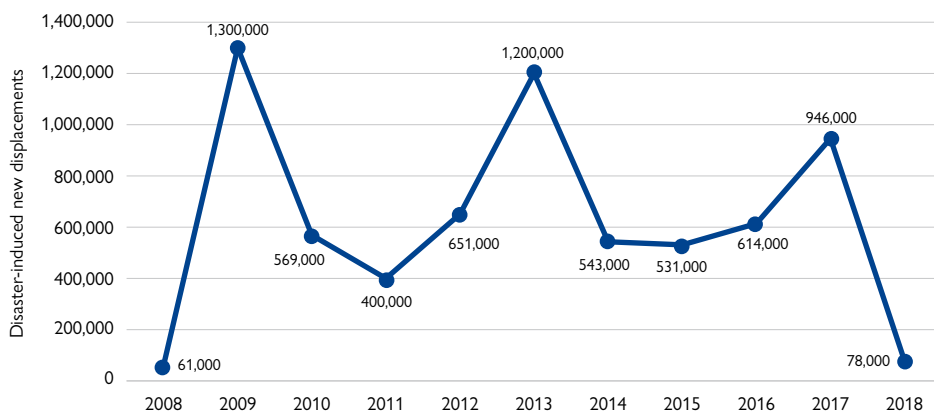
As shown in Figure B.20, Bangladesh recorded 61,000 disaster-induced new displacements in 2008 and 78,000 displacements in 2018. In the intervening years, the number of disaster-induced new displacements fluctuated, reaching a peak of 1.3 million in 2009. Far fewer conflict-induced new displacements were recorded in Bangladesh in the decade. Figure B.21 presents the number of conflict-induced new displacements between 2009 and 2018.

Figure B.21. Conflict-induced new displacements in Bangladesh, 2009–2018
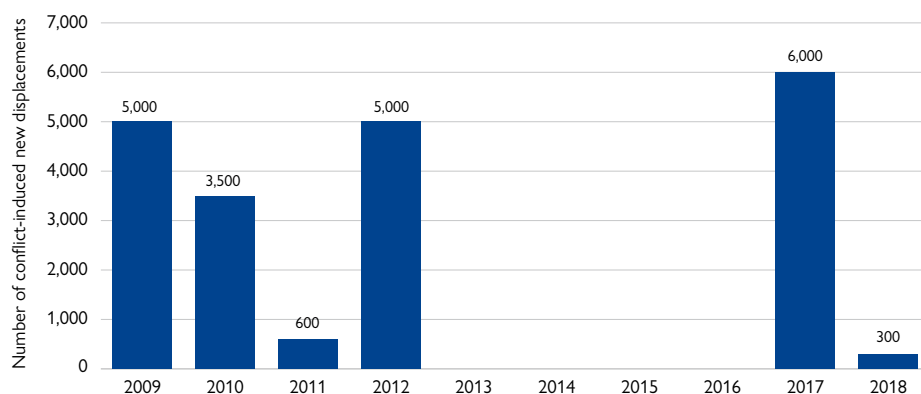
Conflict-induced new displacements diminished from 5,000 in 2009 to 600 in 2011 but increased to 5,000 in 2012. Data on conflict-induced new displacements from 2013 to 2016 was not available. In 2017, conflict led to 6,000

new displacements – the highest number of new displacements in the period, as shown in Figure B.21. Yet, only 300 conflict-induced new displacements occurred in 2018 – the lowest number ever recorded since 2009.

Bangladesh experiences weather-related and geophysical events, which result in thousands of disaster displacements annually. Most of the disaster-induced displacements are life-saving, pre-emptive evacuations, reflecting years of disaster preparedness in Bangladesh. Table B.5 presents some of the recorded disaster-induced displacements between March 2017 and September 2018 and the number of IDPs affected by them. Unlike geophysical hazards, weather-related events lead to a large number of displacements. However, geophysical events have equally significant long-term socioeconomic impacts on the IDPs and their families.

Table B.5. Weather-related and geophysical events in Bangladesh and number of affected internally displaced persons

Event (weather-related or geophysical)	Affected area	Date of occurrence	Number of internally displaced persons affected (estimates)
North-east flood	Sylhet, Moulvibazar, Sunamganj, Habiganj, Netrokona, Kishoreganj	28 March 2017	12 000
Tornado	Pabna, Sunamganj	3 April 2017	12 000
Riverbank erosion	Sirajganj, Shariatpur	12 April 2017	600
Tropical cyclone Mora	Bangladesh, India, Myanmar	28 May 2017	478 000
Landslides as an impact of tropical cyclone Mora	Bangladesh	12 June 2017	6 000
Landslides	Chittagong	22 July 2017	1 500
Monsoon season	Rangpur, Rajshahi, Mymensingh, Sylhet, Chittagong, Dhaka, Khulna	19 July 2017	436 000
Nor'wester	Sunamganj	30 March 2018	170
Lightning	Rupganj	15 April 2018	290
Nor'wester	Barisal, Bhola, Jhalkathi	17 April 2018	84
Landslide risk	Chittagong	1 June 2018	2 500
Monsoon riverine floods	Sylhet, Moulvibazar	12 June 2018	12 000
Flood	Dighinala upazila, Khagrachari district	12 June 2018	6 000
Flash flood	Feni district	15 June 2018	180
Waterlogging	Maheshkhali upazila, Cox's Bazar district	3 July 2018	1 300
Floods	Gaibandha, Bogra, Jamalpur, Tangali districts	5 September 2018	11 000
Riverbank erosion	Naria upazila, Zarija upazila, Shariatpur district	6 September 2018	44 000
Riverbank erosion	Bagerhat district	18 September 2018	17

Source: Created by the author based on data from OCHA (n.d.a).

The risk of sudden-onset, disaster-induced internal displacement will increase in the near future due to climate change hazards and geophysical events. Figure B.22 presents the statistics on these hazards and the estimated annual displacements.

Figure B.22. Average number of expected disaster-induced displacements per year in Bangladesh

- Earthquake: 37,930
- Flood: 1,055,616
- Storm surge: 9,038
- Tsunami: 2,185
- Clyclone wind: 109,949
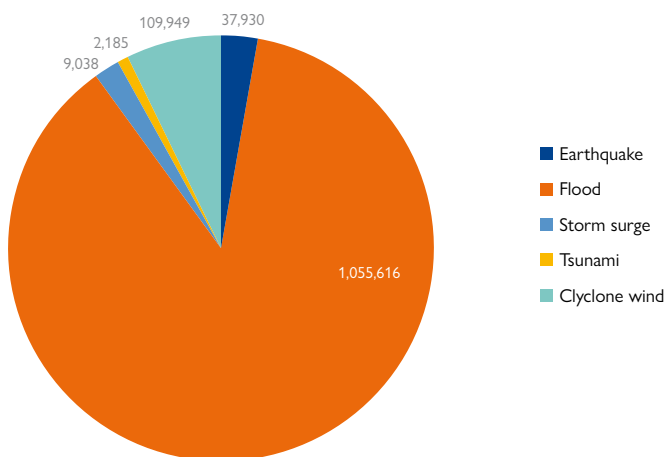
Source: Created by the author based on data from the IDMC (n.d.).

As shown in Figure B.22, the average expected number of displacements per year is more than 1.2 million. Bangladesh is prone to weather-related events since nearly two thirds of the country is less than five metres above sea level. The sea level is projected to rise due to climate change. Flooding, storm surges and cyclones are expected to worsen (IDMC, n.d.). Such weather-related events displace more people in the not too distant future. Furthermore, other less direct impacts will result in weather-related events, including salinization, which contaminates drinking water sources (EJF, 2020).

PART C: IMPACTS OF MIGRATION

Part C presents an assessment of both the desirable and negative impacts of migration and migrant remittances on different analytical levels across the migration cycle. Broadly, migration and remittances have positive and negative impacts on Bangladesh's development on various levels. For example, on the one hand, most poor households that experience deprivation in communities of origin are known to deliberately use migration as a strategy for diversifying sources of income (Ratha et al., 2011). On the other hand, remittance-receiving households can use remittances to import luxury products instead of investing remittances in income-generating projects, jeopardizing the local productive sector's viability and contributing to a negative balance of trade (Taguchi and Shammi, 2018).

Figure C.1 describes the impacts of migration and remittances for Bangladesh on four interconnected levels, namely macro, community, household and family, and individual.

Figure C.1. Conceptual levels of impacts of migration and remittances relevant to Bangladesh

Remittances contribute to national development including long-term GDP growth. They are a significant foreign currency earner, they finance productive imports, and they increase national and private savings. However, remittances can increase foreign exchange rates and imports, leading to a negative trade balance.

Migration transforms the structure of a community (e.g. through increased feminization of migration). However, it leads to brain drain and loss of labour, among others.

Remittances increase consumption (e.g. expenditure on food and clothing) and spending on home construction and repair. They also boost savings, drive investment (e.g. purchase of land, health and education), cover loan repayment and fund chain migration. Consumption of remittances generates a multiplier effect. However, remittances can lead to unproductive consumption.

Migration and remittances advance gender transformations (i.e. the decision-making power of women either increases or decreases). Remittances enable labour force participation, as the capital received by the household empowers it to engage in self-employment and waged labour.

Macro-level impacts

Community-level impacts

Household- and family-level impacts
(household and extended family members)

Individual-level impacts

Source: Created by the author based on IOM (2005), de Haas (2007), Moniruzzaman (2016), Hassan and Shakur (2017), Rahman (2017), Sikder et al. (2017), and Hassan and Jebin (2020).

C.1. Migration and macroeconomic development

Overall, international remittances, also known as the wage earners' remittance inflows, have increased in the past six years, from USD 14.2 billion in FY2013–2014 to USD 16.4 billion in FY2018–2019 (Figure C.2). However, remittance growth fluctuated in this period: The upward trend in wage earners' remittances from USD 14.2 billion in FY2013–2014 to USD 15.3 billion in FY2014–2015 was reversed in the two fiscal years that followed, with the lowest amount of wage earners' remittances of USD 12.8 billion recorded in FY2016–2017.

Figure C.2 presents the trends in remittance inflows to Bangladesh in recent years.

Figure C.2. Wage earners' remittance inflows to Bangladesh, FY2013–2014 to FY2018–2019
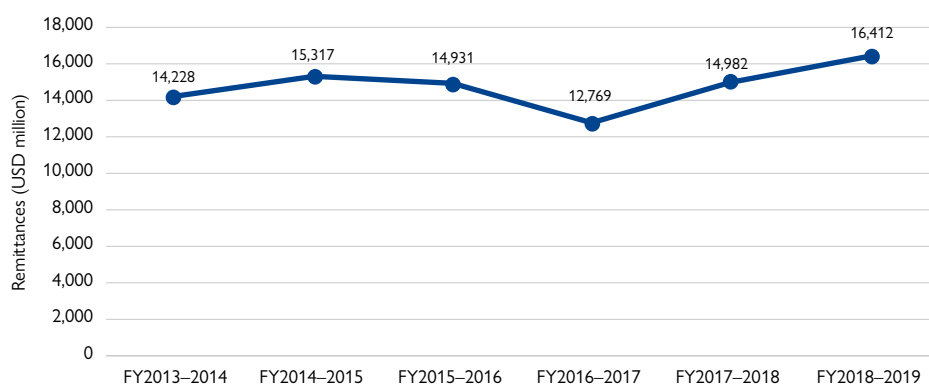
Source: Bangladesh Bank, 2019.

Yet, remittance revenue surged in the subsequent years, reaching a peak of USD 16.4 in FY2018–2019, as shown in Figure C.2. When looking at the sheer volume of international remittance inflows, Bangladesh is the seventh largest recipient country in the world.

Figure C.3 provides information on the 10 source countries of highest remittance values from FY2013–2014 to FY2018–2019. As shown in the figure, in the past six years, Asian countries, especially those in the Gulf region, have contributed the bulk of remittance inflows.

Figure C.3. Wage earners' remittance inflows to Bangladesh by source country, FY2013–2014 to FY2018–2019
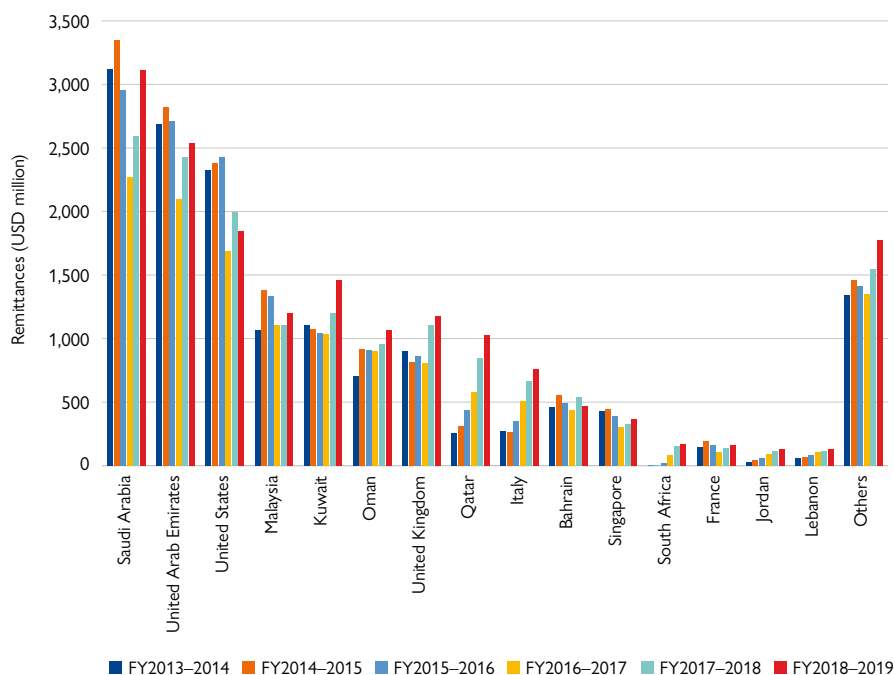
Source: Bangladesh Bank, 2019.

Figure C.3 illustrates that the highest remittance volumes received in Bangladesh between FY2013–2014 and FY2018–2019 were sent by Bangladeshi wage earners in countries in the Gulf region. Although approximately 90 per cent of the remittance inflows to Bangladesh came from 15 countries comprising 10 Asian countries, Gulf countries were the top sources of international remittances, with Saudi Arabia contributing the most to Bangladesh's remittance revenue in the period. The share of remittances received from Saudi Arabia peaked at 26.2 per cent in FY2014–2015, which remains the highest wage earners' remittance contribution from a single country in the period. However, the share of remittances from Saudi Arabia shrunk to a low of 17.3 per cent in FY2017–2018, before climbing back up to 18.9 per cent in FY2018–2019.

Next to Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates, the United States is the third largest source of remittance inflows to Bangladesh. Remittances from the United States accounted for 19 per cent of the remittance inflows received in FY2015–2016. In the same year, the United Arab Emirates contributed 21.2 per cent to the annual remittance inflows, which is 2 percentage points above the share of the United States. The fact that the United States is one of the largest

source countries of remittance inflows to Bangladesh points to a significantly large Bangladeshi diaspora in that country. The United States is one of the major destinations for the Bangladeshi diaspora, home to over half a million citizens in 2014 (ILO, n.d.). Next to the United States, Malaysia and Kuwait contributed significant remittance inflows during the periods covered. Remittances from Malaysia and Kuwait amounted to 10.8 per cent and 8.4 per cent, respectively, in FY2014–2015.

While professional and semi-skilled labour migrants can contribute more remittances through social mobility, low-skilled and unskilled migrants send the bulk of officially recorded remittances (Rashid and Ashraf, 2018). However, labour migrants from Bangladesh tend to possess lower technical and linguistic skills required to move up the salary scale and increase earnings. Furthermore, migrant labourers with low skills find it more challenging to negotiate better wages and salaries, as they experience the most human rights abuses (World Bank, 2018b). Since emigration for employment in Bangladesh remains a male-dominated affair, with females accounting for only 12 per cent of the total migrant labourers in 2017 (Rashid and Ashraf, 2018), most remittances come from male migrants.

C.1.1. Remittance outlook in the future

In the absence of diversified sources of revenue, reliance on remittances can increase the economy's vulnerability. The World Bank (2018a) and the Ministry of Finance of Bangladesh (2020) project that the wage earners' remittances will diminish in the next few years (Figure C.4), while tax revenue will increase (Figure C.5).

Figure C.4. Remittance change in Bangladesh, 2015–2016 to 2021–2022
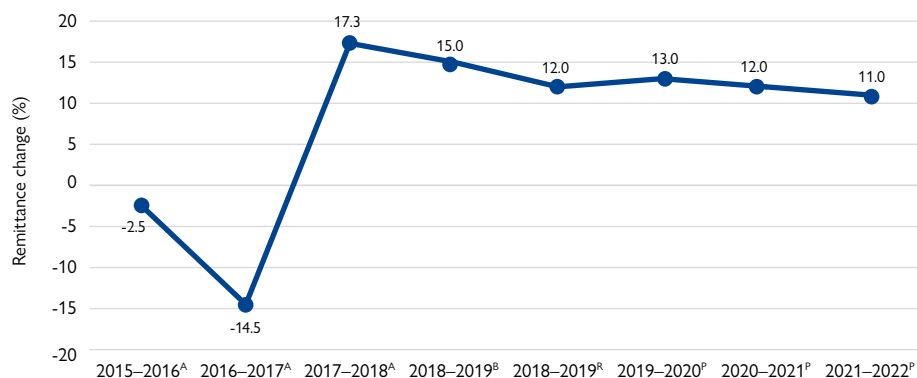
Source: Ministry of Finance, 2020.

Note: A = actual, B = budget, R = revised budget, P = projection.

Figure C.5. Remittances and revenue as a percentage of Bangladesh GDP, FY2012–2013 to FY2021–2022
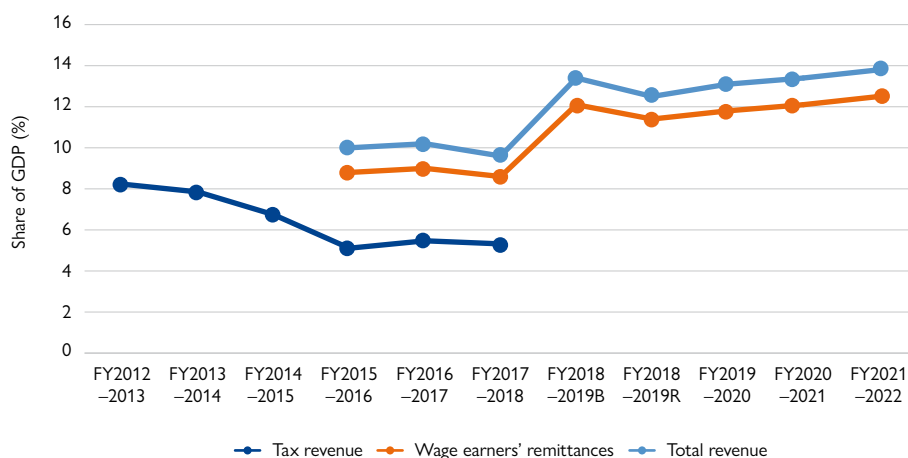
Source: Ministry of Finance, 2020.

Note: B = budget, R = revised budget.

The pessimistic forecast in remittance inflows has implications for macroeconomic planning. Thus, the projected decline in remittance inflows requires innovative policies that reduce the country's dependence on wage earners' remittances while increasing the size of domestic sources of revenue. There is a need to find new labour markets that potentially employ a range of occupations while building a more skilled labour force at home.

C.1.2. International remittance outflows

Remittance outflows have received relatively less policy and scholarly attention compared to remittance inflows. The largest remitters are often workers in the more developed countries with a larger GDP. Yet, many researchers and policymakers tend to focus on the developing countries that receive remittances, resulting in little research on remittance outflows from the major remittance-receiving countries.

Research indicates that, in general, remittance outflows are much smaller in volume relative to the GDP, with the benefits of foreign labour significantly outweighing the costs of workers' remittance outflows in most cases (Naufal and Genc, 2017).

Bangladesh Bank categorizes formal remittance outflows into remittance study outflow and remittance family outflow. The latter includes payments for tourism, such as medical tourism and the money families spend abroad during visits. Remittance study outflows are payments processed by Bangladesh Bank to cover costs associated with studying abroad, and they mainly include tuition and related fees.

Figure C.6. Remittance outflows from Bangladesh, FY2013–2014 to FY2018–2019
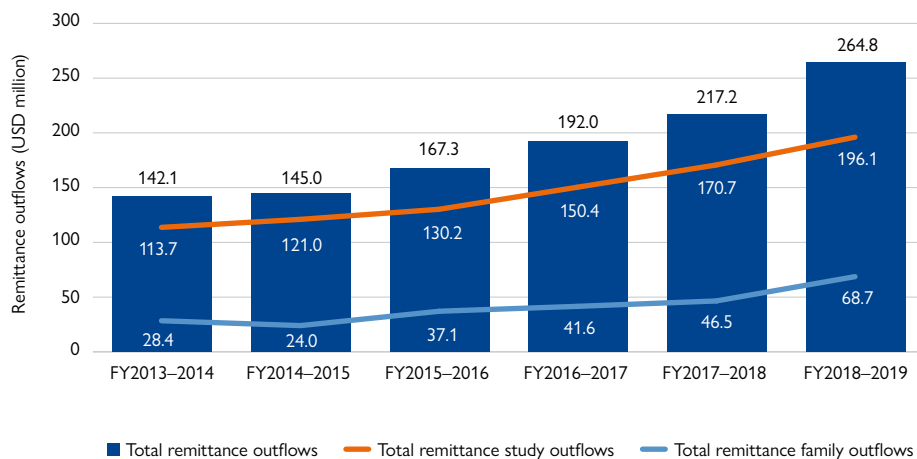
Source: Bangladesh Bank, 2019.

Figure C.6 presents remittance study outflows, remittance family outflows and total remittance outflows from FY2013–2014 to FY2018–2019. Overall, remittance outflow steadily increased from USD 142.1 million in FY2013–2014 to USD 264.8 million in FY2018–2019. However, in FY2018–2019, the total remittance outflow (USD 264. 8 million) was equivalent to a small fraction (1.6%) of remittance inflow, which stood at USD 16.4 billion. Relative to most macroeconomic variables, such as the GDP and exports, remittance outflow accounts for a small fraction.

In terms of volume, remittance study outflows were larger than the remittance family outflows. For every US dollar of officially recorded remittance outflow from Bangladesh, more than USD 3 covered the cost of studies abroad. Therefore, between 2014 and 2018, Bangladeshi nationals spent more income to pay for the costs associated with international education abroad than any other purposes.

Figure C.7 shows the recipient countries of remittance family outflows from Bangladesh from FY2013–2014 to FY2018–2019.

Remittance outflow analysis by country

By far, India is the single country recipient of remittance family outflows sent from Bangladesh, with about 30 per cent of remittance family outflows from Bangladesh went to India in FY2013–2014. Since then, the share of remittance family outflows to India skyrocketed to 65.2 per cent, making the country the largest recipient of remittance outflows from Bangladesh in the period shown in Figure C.7.

Figure C.7. Remittance family outflows from Bangladesh by destination country, FY2013–2014 to FY2018–2019
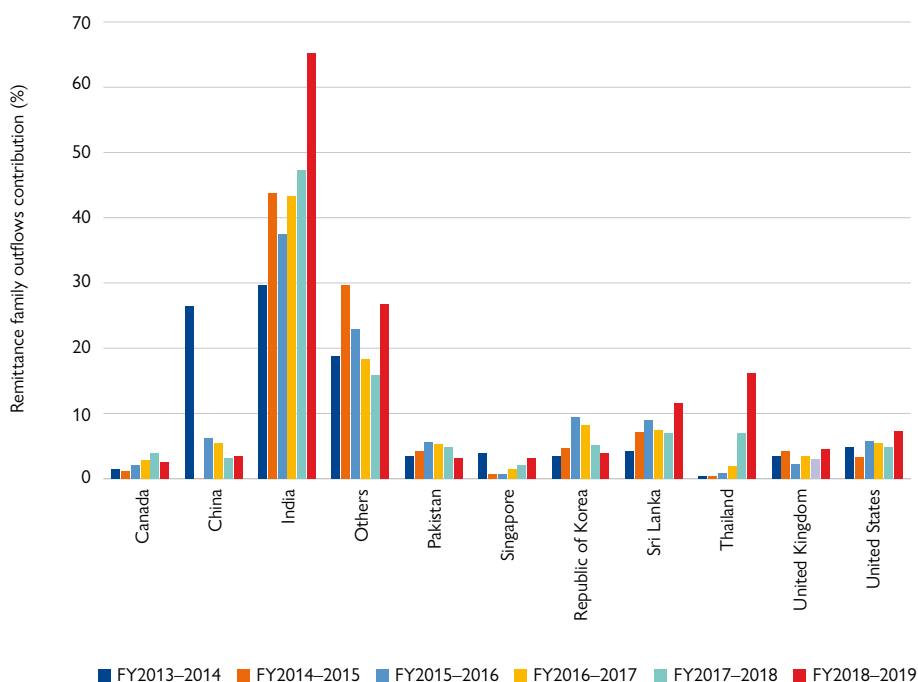
Source: Bangladesh Bank, 2019.

Remittance family outflows to China peaked in FY2013–2014 at 26.4 per cent of the total remittance outflows for family purposes, yet they fell drastically in subsequent years to 3.4 per cent in FY2018–2019.

As illustrated in Figure C.7, the primary recipients of remittance family outflows were Asian countries with which Bangladesh had historical and cultural ties. While the remittance outflows to Thailand and Sri Lanka remain very little in volume, they notably increased to two-digit levels in a single year. Markedly, the proportion of money remitted from Bangladesh to Thailand more than doubled to 16.1 per cent in FY2018–2019, compared with 6.9 per cent in the previous year. Similarly, the remittance outflows to Sri Lanka jumped from 6.9 per cent in FY2017–2018 to 11.6 per cent in FY2018–2019. Asian countries, predominantly India, Thailand and Sri Lanka, were the primary recipient countries of remittance family outflows from Bangladesh.

Concerning the recipient countries for remittance study outflows from Bangladesh, an entirely different picture can be observed. The top recipients of remittance study outflows from Bangladesh were the most developed nations, namely Canada, the United States, Australia, the United Kingdom, Germany, Sweden, Japan and Malaysia. Figure C.8 compares the recipient countries of remittance study outflows from Bangladesh from FY2013–2014 to FY2018–2019.

Figure C.8. Remittance study outflows from Bangladesh, FY2013–2014 to FY2018–2019
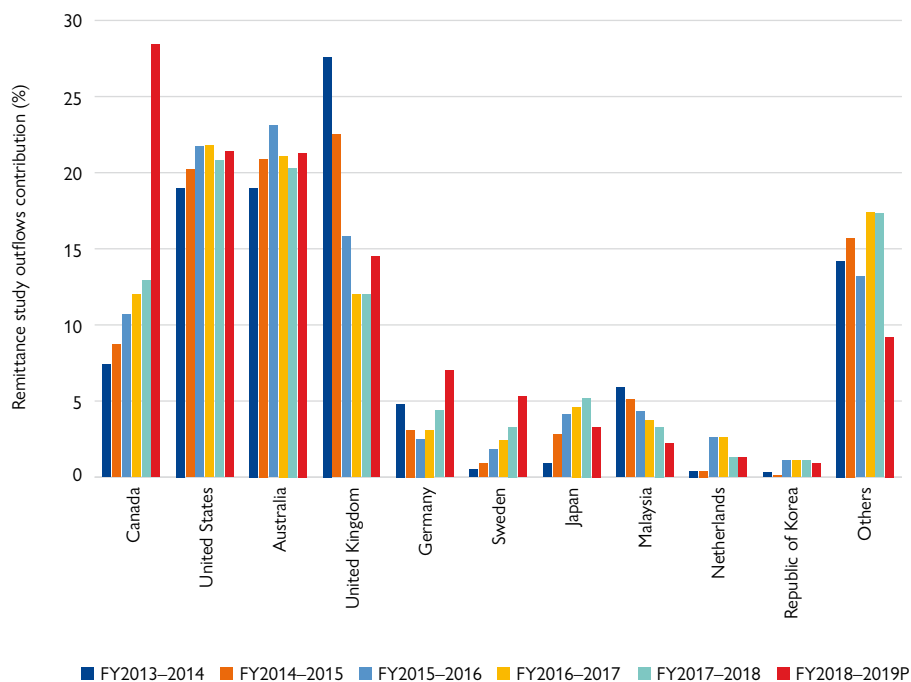
Source: Bangladesh Bank, 2019.

Note: P = provisional.

Figure C.8 illustrates that the share of remittance study outflows to Canada has grown tremendously from 7.4 per cent to 28.4 per cent in the past six years. On the contrary, the proportion of remittance study outflows to the United Kingdom slumped from 27.6 per cent in FY2013–2014 to 14.5 per cent in FY2018–2019.

C.1.3. Macro-level economic impacts of remittances

International remittances contribute significantly to Bangladesh's GDP and total foreign currency earnings. Figure C.9 compares the primary sources of external revenue of Bangladesh, including export of goods and services, wage earners' remittances and foreign direct investment.

Figure C.9. Bangladesh external sources of revenue, FY2013–2014 to FY2018–2019

Legend: ■ FY2013–2014 ■ FY2014–2015 ■ FY2015–2016 ■ FY2016–2017 ■ FY2017–2018 ■ FY2018–2019
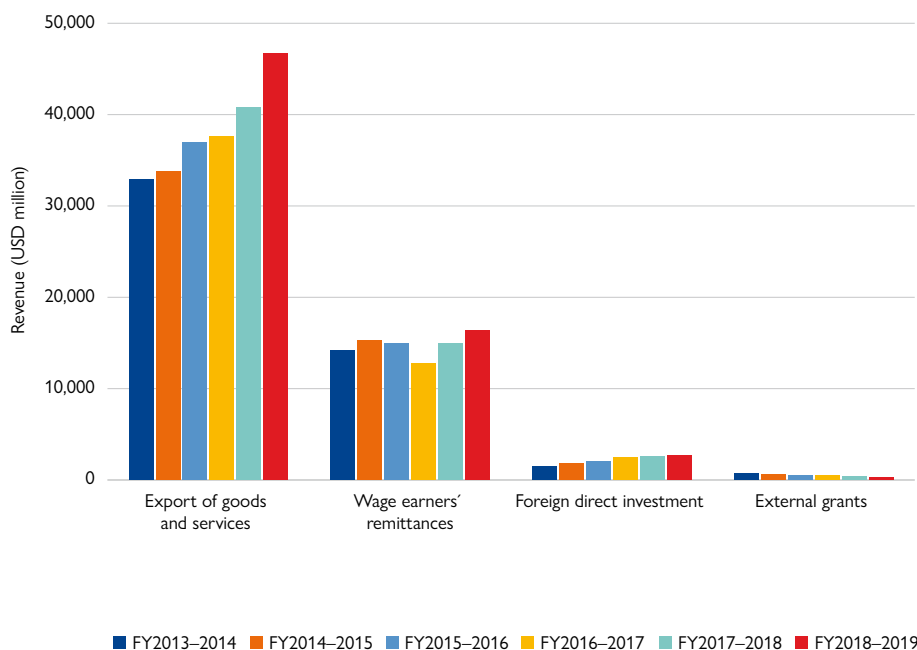
Source: World Bank, 2018a.

As shown in Figure C.9, wage earners' remittances were the second largest source of external revenue from FY2013–2014 to FY2018–2019. The top source – the export of goods and services – stood at USD 46.7 billion in FY2018–2019. Remittances for the same period reached USD 16.4 billion, equivalent to

approximately 35 per cent of the export of goods and services, suggesting that international remittances were a significant foreign currency earner relative to the contribution of other export sector categories. According to Sikder et al. (2017), international remittances represent the most influential foreign currency-earning sector for Bangladesh. These authors argue that in FY2009–2010, export earnings from garments, including knitwear and woven garments, reached USD 12.5 billion, equivalent to 77.1 per cent of the total export income of Bangladesh (ibid.). However, a closer analysis indicates that the net foreign currency earnings from garment exports are about 50 per cent lower than USD 12.5 billion since half of the earnings cover the cost of import raw materials. Therefore, remittances emerged as the top export revenue earner for the country during that period.

International remittances also contribute significantly to GDP growth, as illustrated in Figure C.10.

Figure C.10. Contribution of production sectors and expenditure components to Bangladesh GDP growth, FY12–FY17
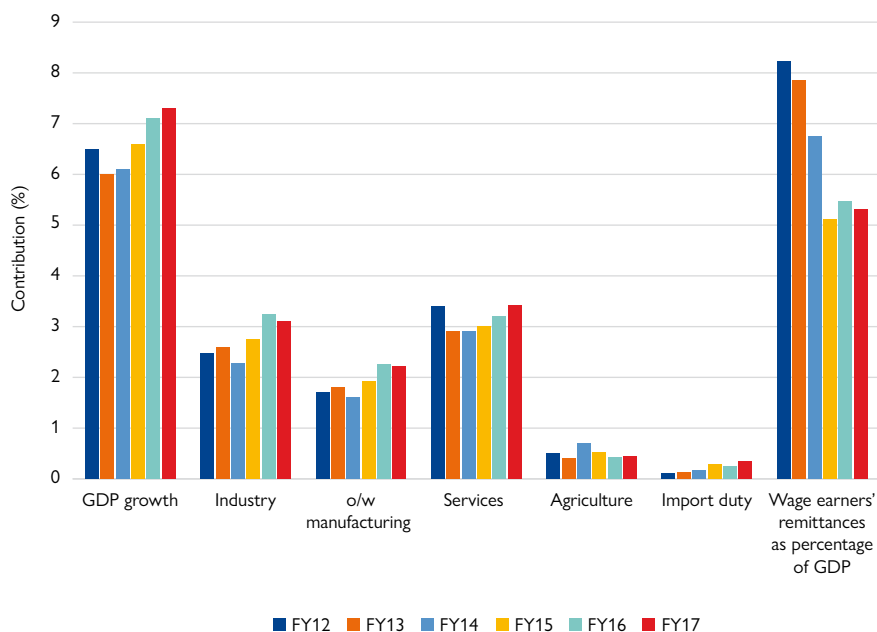
Source: World Bank, 2018a.

Figure C10 shows that, although the percentage contribution of wage earners' remittance inflows has been declining in recent years, remittances remain a significant driver of GDP growth.

C.2. Impacts at the subnational level

As discussed in section C.1, remittances contribute to Bangladesh's national development. Equally, migration and remittances have micro-level impacts on communities, social networks, families and individuals. Figure C.11 is a word cloud representing the impacts of migration and remittances on the micro level.

Figure C.11. Impacts of remittances at the household and family levels in Bangladesh

Source: Created by the author, 2020.

As shown in Figure C.11, remittances have a marked influence on land, savings, food, spending, capital formation and human development, among other things, at the community, family and individual levels. These micro-level effects of migration and remittances are analysed in the following subsections.

C.2.1. Migration and social development

Remittance-receiving households in Bangladesh are generally better off in comparative terms. For example, among the households considered living in subsistence poverty in Bangladesh, remittance-receiving rural households tend to have more disposable income to spend on consumer goods – including food, clothing and furniture – and investment in education (Murata, 2018). According to Siddiqui et al. (2019), remittance-receiving households commit between 10 per cent and 25 per cent of the remittance income to the education of their children, using the money to buy textbooks and stationery and pay for school fees. Regarding health outcomes, recipient households use remittances "to compensate the food deficit ultimately contribute to migrant household food and nutritional security" (Sikder et al., 2017:48). Improved expenditure on food leads to higher nutritional status and better health outcomes.

Furthermore, apart from the expenditure on health and education, recipient households tend to spend money on non-food items such as clothing, furniture and household appliances, thereby improving household members' living standards. Moreover, remittance-receiving households use a significant share of remittances to purchase land, improving food security outcomes through improved cultivation. According to IOM (2005), rural households spent as much as 40 per cent of remittances on land purchases. As a result, landlessness is much lower among recipient households. For example, Murata (2018) holds that, in 2016, landlessness was much lower (2.23%) among families that received remittances compared to the national average of 9.58 per cent.

Sikder et al. (2017) claim that in the context of Bangladesh – a country that is vulnerable to weather-related disasters – remittances strengthen recipient households to withstand future shocks to livelihoods. Remittances enable higher expenditure, more considerable savings, diverse livelihoods, asset accumulation, and investments in a dwelling and small businesses, which result in improved social resilience – a concept used to understand "how to maintain stability through adaptation and coping when faced with social change" (Sikder et al., 2017:55). Remittances increase families' livelihood options, thereby increasing family members' life chances. Despite economic and environmental shocks – such as ecological disasters that affect the availability of farm produce inevitably cause price hikes that are associated with extreme events – remittance-receiving households can maintain household consumption and expenditure in health and education (Ranjan, 2016; Sikder et al., 2017).

C.2.2. Migration and community development

Recipient households play a significant role in the modernization of agriculture in Bangladesh. Remittances enable investments in land, agriculture and housing construction works, which boost rural land markets and stimulate local rural economies (Murata, 2018). Raihan et al. (2018) estimated that four in five remittance-recipient households were self-employed in the agriculture sector. Also, they typically make tangible investments in the mechanization of agriculture, increasing the production of cash crops and fisheries and stimulating the rural economies (Murata, 2018).

Furthermore, migrants contribute directly to local community development programmes (Raitapuro and Bal, 2016). For instance, migrants are known to contribute to the public life of their communities of origin via different forms of giving through the so-called hometown associations. According to

Rahman (2017), Bangladeshi migrants abroad donate money and learning materials to local schools, libraries and places of worship. Furthermore, remittances enable recipient households to participate in the community's public life because they can hire extra labour and make donations to support community initiatives.

C.2.3. Migration and individual social and cultural status

Since most Bangladeshi labour migrants are men with low levels of education and skills, they have a very little chance of settling permanently abroad. As a result, they tend to remit the bulk of their earnings (World Bank, 2018a; Hassan and Jebin, 2020). Even those migrants with long-term residency in the country of destination are known to send money to Bangladesh. Some maintain some level of involvement in the community of origin through hometown associations (Raitapuro and Bal, 2016; Hassan and Jebin, 2020). Remitting and participating in the life of the place of origin increases the migrant's status and the social position of remittance-receiving household, family and bari.

On the individual level, remittances potentially have positive impacts on women's empowerment. A common explanation often suggested is that, since labour migrants are predominantly married men, migration creates opportunities for Bangladeshi women to make decisions and execute them in the absence of migrant men (Rahman, 2017). Hassan and Jebin's (2020) study established that "husbands' migration gives left-behind wives more authority in spending decision such as food, housing, health-care, child education, and clothing; increases freedom of mobility; and reduces the prevalence of domestic violence against them in [comparison] to the peer group" (ibid.:127). While the decision-making authority of women who stay behind increased in the absence of their migrant men, some researchers have found that migrant men continue to make some or all critical decisions from afar. For example, in a study of circular between Zimbabwe and South Africa – two countries that share a contiguous border – Chereni (2017) found that non-migrant spouses deferred major decisions that involved land, vehicle and significant expenditures. Therefore, one is led to speculate that the departure of Bangladeshi men may only lead to marginal gender transformation at home, if at all.

C.2.4. Remittance expenditure and the national economy

With remittance income, households can build savings to rely upon in the event of shocks (Sikder et al., 2017). Remittance-driven spending is, therefore, not incompatible with savings. Studies conducted in Bangladesh have established

that recipient households receive remittance money through the bank. Most families keep their money in a savings account, contributing significantly to national savings (Sikder et al., 2017; Murata, 2018). In FY2009–2010, remittances increased national savings by 13, 40 per cent (Sikder et al., 2017). Murata (2018) observed that, in 2015, two in five recipient households saved part of their remittances with a bank, and about half used savings accounts, resulting in positive impacts on both the liquidity and the balance of payments.

By increasing the demand for various goods, such as building materials, cash crops, fish products and other raw materials, remittance utilization in Bangladesh directly contributes to the local economy, stimulating markets for land, cash crops and labour (Rahman, 2017). Such transactions feed into the national development through the multiplier effect, which refers to the increase in the final money earned after initial spending. According to Hassan and Shakur (2017), the multiplier of remittances corresponds to 3.3, which means that an injection of 1 million taka worth of remittances will contribute 3.3 million taka to the national economy.

C.3. Migration and employment

In Bangladesh, migration and remittances have tangible impacts on labour force participation. An individual is in the labour force if he or she is 15 years of age or older and has been looking for employment in the recent past or is willing to work or is already working (Raihan et al., 2018). However, this definition excludes the aged and the disabled. Raihan et al. (2018) established that most individuals from remittance-recipient households were dominantly involved in agriculture, suggesting that "international remittance has a larger capital generation effect for self-employment" in agriculture. Besides, Murata (2018) observed remittance-receiving households allotting nearly three quarters of their remittances for house construction, contributing to rural employment by increasing the demand for labour and raw materials.

C.4. Negative micro-level impacts of migration and remittances

Aspirant migrants in Bangladesh continue to pay large sums of money to recruiters, especially those in the private sector, despite the existence of an extensive labour migration governance system that regulates international recruitment (see Part D) (Barkat et al., 2014; World Bank, 2018b). Recruiters

are known to exploit aspirant migrants throughout the process of migration. For instance, sub-agents and informal recruiters often provide incorrect information to potential labour migrants. Furthermore, over a fifth of the migrants in the study conducted by Barkat et al. (2014) took up work not specified in the contract, signifying a worrying lack of transparency in the recruitment process.

Apart from these costs, aspirant migrants typically pay large sums of money to private recruiters. According to Rashid and Ashraf (2018), an individual who migrates successfully to take up short-term employment will part with 300,000 taka on average, which is a far cry from the yearly per capita GDP of 85,000 taka. This means that since individuals (and their families) shoulder pre-departure costs of migration, migrants take longer to recoup their money. While the ability to recoup the funds used to facilitate migration depends on many factors, including one's post-arrival occupation and level of remuneration, the recruitment comes with a considerable cost for most poor migrants and their households and has negative implications for their welfare and equality (Barkat et al., 2014; World Bank, 2018b).

Another issue is that since migration costs have remained somewhat prohibitive, the worst-off households often fail to participate in the labour migration processes, widening the socioeconomic disparities in the communities of origin. For many individuals from impoverished families, the costs are too high because they typically lack access to accurate information and rely on informal agents (Rashid and Ashraf, 2018). Thus, labour emigration potentially creates inequalities between migrant-sending households and their counterparts.

PART D: MIGRATION GOVERNANCE

This part examines the migration governance ecosystem in Bangladesh. Migration governance is a complex concept that represents multidimensional processes involving a wide range of actors, including individuals, government and non-governmental organizations, and the private sector. For this reason, there is considerable debate as to how best to define migration governance.

D.1. Migration governance in Bangladesh

Governance is a process that takes place at the international or global level. It represents "the combined framework of legal norms and organisational structures [that] regulate and shape how [S]tates act in response to international migration, addressing rights and responsibilities and promoting international cooperation" (OHCHR, cited in EIU, 2016:12). It is clear that, even when applied to the field of migration, the notion of governance is rather broad. When examining migration management in Bangladesh, defining "well-governed migration" helps to facilitate meaningful conversations among various stakeholders in the migration field. Specifying well-governed migration helps to establish how far or close to the ideal migration governance in Bangladesh is.

Even then, migration governance covers a broad range of areas specified in the MiGOF developed in 2015 and the MGI. Moreover, both the MiGOF and the MGI can be used to promote action towards achieving relevant SDGs and targets (DESA Population Division, n.d.). For instance, SDG 10, which spells out our shared aspirations to reduce inequality. The following targets under SDG 10 relate to migration:

10.2:   By 2030, empower and promote the social, economic and political inclusion of all, irrespective of age, sex, disability, race, ethnicity, origin, religion, or economic or other status

10.3:   Ensure equal opportunity and reduce inequalities of outcome, including by eliminating discriminatory laws, policies, and practices and promoting appropriate legislation, policies and action in this regard

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

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

Good migration governance should adequately ensure that States accomplish these targets. Overall, Bangladesh has mature migration governance institutions, although some areas need further improvements (World Bank, 2018b). Table D.1 summarizes the status of migration governance in Bangladesh according to the six domains, namely the whole-of-government approach; partnerships; the well-being of migrants; migrant rights; safe, orderly and regular migration; and the mobility dimension of crises.

Table D.1. Summary of the dimensions of migration governance in Bangladesh

Domain	Focus of indicators	Evidence of the state of governance

Whole-of-government approach	• Institutional framework
	• Migration strategy
	• Legal framework
	• Institutional transparency and coherence
	• Migration data
		Areas of mature governance
		
		• Bangladesh is primarily a country of origin and, therefore, its overriding migration policy goal is to maximize the benefits of emigration for national development.
		
		• The MoEWOE was established to lead policy action in all labour migration issues concerning overseas employment and expatriate workers' overall welfare.
		
		• The MoEWOE plays a crucial role in developing policies and plans; enacting laws, rules and regulations; and developing projects and programmes relating to overseas employment.
		
		• There are mechanisms to involve relevant line ministries and other non-State actors in civil society and the private sector to contribute to specific migration governance issues.
		
		• Apart from the MoEWOE, the MoFA contributes to migration governance through its foreign relations mandate and foreign diplomatic missions. Simultaneously, the MoHA is responsible for addressing human trafficking issues.
		
		• The EWOEP 2016 established a steering committee chaired by the Prime Minister.
		
		• The EWOEP has also created the National Migration Forum, with representatives from all the line ministries and civil society organizations, enabling coordination across relevant ministries.
		
		• There are mechanisms to achieve policy coherence across various issues and ministerial mandates. There is policy coherence across various policy documents, including the Seventh Five-Year Plan (2016–2020) of Bangladesh and the EWOEP.
		
		• Bangladesh has principal migration-related laws to govern migration and protect migrants, such as the OEMA (ILO, 2013), the WEWB Act of 2018 and the PSHT Act of 2012.
		
		  – The OEMA 2013 intends to promote opportunities for overseas employment for Bangladeshi workers, establish a safe and fair migration system, and protect the rights and promote the welfare of migrant workers and members of their families, in line with the international labour and human rights conventions and treaties ratified by Bangladesh.
		
		  – The PSHT Act of 2012 was enacted "to make provisions to prevent and suppress human trafficking, to ensure the protection of victims of the offence of human trafficking and their rights, and to ensure safe migration" (Government of Bangladesh, 2012).

Domain	Focus of indicators	Evidence of the state of governance
		– The newly promulgated WEWB Act of 2018 seeks to promote the establishment of the Wage Earners' Welfare Board to protect migrants and their dependants and to secure their welfare, considering the international conventions and charters ratified by Bangladesh (Government of Bangladesh, 2018).
		• There are devolved structures under the MoEWOE at the district level that provide information to aspirant migrants and promote ethical recruitment.
		• The National Strategy on Myanmar Refugees and Undocumented Myanmar Nationals in Bangladesh (Government of Bangladesh, 2014) deals with forcibly displaced foreign nationals on a case by case basis.
		Shortfalls
		• Bangladesh has mature institutions for labour emigration, but it lacks a comprehensive legal framework for managing immigration.
		• Mechanisms to monitor the implementation of migration-related initiatives are not precise.
		• A well-maintained, up-to-date and comprehensive database with information on migrants and returnees does not exist.
		• Similarly, an LMIS to provide timely information to job seekers and policymakers in the area of migration is not in place.
		• There is a need to increase the proportion of women in technical and vocational training and competency-based training.
Partnerships	• Regional cooperation • Global cooperation	**Areas of mature governance** • Regional and global cooperation is a well-established area of migration governance for Bangladesh. • Bangladesh has actively collaborated with other State and multilateral actors to address migration issues through various platforms and agreements, such as the Global Forum on Migration and Development – a state-led global platform for discussing migration and development in collaboration with the United Nations system organizations.

Domain	Focus of indicators	Evidence of the state of governance
		• At the regional level, Bangladesh is an integral part of several consultative processes. These include the following:
		– **Inter-governmental Asia-Pacific Consultations on Refugees, Displaced Persons and Migrants:** Established in 1996 and with 34 members to date, the Inter-governmental Asia-Pacific Consultations on Refugees, Displaced Persons and Migrants provides a forum for deliberating on different populations' movements, including refugees, displaced persons and migrants.
		– **Abu Dhabi Dialogue:** The Abu Dhabi Dialogue is a collaborative agreement to improve temporary labour migration governance and includes the Gulf countries that are the main destinations for Bangladeshi labour migrants, namely Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates.
		– **Bali Process:** This is a forum for policy dialogue, information exchange and cooperation to address people smuggling, trafficking in persons and related international crimes. The Bali Process seeks to disturb criminal networks by facilitating collaborative action, creating policy guides and tools, and building capacity.
		– **Budapest Process:** The Budapest Process is a platform for facilitating dialogue on human migration and the Silk Routes region with the People's Republic of China, Iraq, Jordan, Libya, Malaysia, Oman and the United Arab Emirates.
		– **Colombo Process:** The main focus of the Colombo Process is to improve the management of overseas employment and contractual labour for countries of origin in Asia while upholding the human rights and labour rights of workers and promoting decent work.
		• The Government of Bangladesh has concluded many bilateral labour agreements with countries of destination. Recent bilateral labour agreements were signed with Qatar and Kuwait – major countries of destination in the Gulf region.
		• At the country level, the Government of Bangladesh has developed platforms to engage organizations, civil society and the private sector in migration governance. The EWOEP allows non-State actors (including the private sector) to participate in migration governance.
		• There is also a task force chaired by the Economic Relations Division of the Ministry of Finance, which is spearheading the work of engaging the Bangladeshi diaspora.
		Shortfalls
		• The implementation and memorandums of understanding after the conclusion of the agreements could improve.

Domain	Focus of indicators	Evidence of the state of governance
Well-being of migrants	• Labour migration management • Skills and qualification recognition schemes • Student migration regulation • Bilateral labour agreements • Migrant remittances	**Areas of mature governance** • Bangladesh has established mechanisms to protect the rights of nationals working and living abroad. • There are laws and policies in place to protect Bangladeshi labour migrants at the different stages of the migration process. • Before departure, labour migrants go through competence and orientation to increase their awareness of rights while in the country of destination. • The OEMA has provisions to prevent unethical recruitment practices and punish perpetrators. • The labour welfare wings in diplomatic missions abroad monitor the protection of the rights of Bangladeshi migrants. • The WEWB Act of 2018 provides welfare programmes for migrant workers abroad and their families in Bangladesh, including scholarships, grants and repatriation of the deceased. • The EWOEP also has a provision for collaborative social safety net programmes to address the needs of migrant families. • The National Skills Development Policy of 2011 guides training institutions to design labour market-responsive training, assure quality and provide standardized qualifications. • The national Technical and Vocational Qualifications Framework guides the recognition of international students' qualifications. • Students can work while studying in Bangladesh, and they can access employment after qualification, provided they have a work permit. **Shortfalls** • Although the EWOEP contains some provisions for return and integration, these remain. For example, the mechanisms to coordinate the State and civil society organizations are not stipulated in policy frameworks.

Domain	Focus of indicators	Evidence of the state of governance
Migrant rights	• Migrants' access to essential social services and social security • Family reunification • Right to work • Long-term residency and path to citizenship • Civil participation • Signature and ratification of international conventions • Bilateral agreements	**Areas of mature governance** • Regular migrants have equal access to State-funded education in Bangladesh, and they can enrol at any level. • Migrants with adequate documentation (including work permits) can have equal access to the labour market. Foreign nationals can work in the private sector or the public sector on an equal footing with citizens, except that foreigners cannot hold public office and decision-making positions that involve protecting State interests. • A pathway to permanent residence administered by the Bangladesh Investment Development Authority and MoHA that requires foreign nationals to invest a minimum of USD 75,000 in the domestic industrial and social sectors of the economy exists. **Shortfalls** • The right to indefinite residence and pathway to citizenship for foreign nationals that do not use the business route is not clearly articulated in law and policy. • The mechanisms to enable the political participation of Bangladeshi migrant workers abroad and the diaspora could be more transparent. For example, the involvement of Bangladeshi nationals living legally abroad in the elections could be more exact. • Migrants are not entitled to the benefits of publicly funded social protection programmes.
Safe, orderly and regular migration	• Border control and enforcement • Admission and eligibility criteria • Return and reintegration policies • Measures to combat human trafficking and smuggling	**Areas of mature governance** • Bangladesh endorsed the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration in 2018. The Global Compact for Migration is a non-binding cooperative framework that emphasizes safe migration, research and migrants' protection, among other things. • The WEWB Act of 2018 has a provision for social protection programmes for Bangladeshi migrant workers abroad and their families in the country. • The WEWB Act of 2018 creates a fund to provide social welfare services and benefits to Bangladeshi migrant workers and their families, including the repatriation of the deceased, medical treatment, grants and competitive scholarships for migrant children. • There are precise procedures to help Bangladeshi nationals apply for passports and foreigners file applications for visas. Visas are usually issued before travel departure.

Domain	Focus of indicators	Evidence of the state of governance
		• The National Plan of Action for Prevention and Suppression of Human Trafficking 2018–2022 seeks to build stakeholders' capacity and extend economic and social assistance to victims of trafficking and people at risk, particularly children. **Shortfalls** • The offences typically committed by recruitment agencies attract relatively softer penalties under OEMA, which leaves migrants less protected. • Moreover, the case referral from mobile courts to district courts has loopholes in cases where the accused have successfully appealed.
Mobility dimension of crises	• Crisis resilience and preparedness • Emergency response • Post-crisis actions • Inclusiveness of migrants	**Areas of mature governance** • Bangladesh has a well-developed early warning system for natural disasters. • Under the 2012 Disaster Management Act, provisions, media, and broadcast centres issue early and emergency warnings in the local languages. • The Act stipulates procedures during the response, including the movement of people to safe ground. • Under the National Plan for Disaster Management (2016–2020), the Committee for Speedy Dissemination of Disaster-Related Warning/Signals facilitates the quick and effective dissemination of information and emergency alerts. • The National Plan for Disaster Management for 2016–2020 covers the return and reintegration of people displaced due to weather-related events. • The OEMA (ILO, 2013) addresses the emergency return of Bangladeshi nationals abroad in a humanitarian crisis. **Shortfalls** • The nature and extent of assistance to migrants during disasters is not explicit in existing legislation.

Table D.1 shows that while migration governance is multidimensional, many areas across the domains of migration governance are already well developed in Bangladesh. However, some critical areas require further improvements. For instance, in the area of regional and global partnerships, Bangladesh has yet to ratify many international conventions relating to people's movement. Table D.2 lists the fundamental international conventions and the status of ratification concerning Bangladesh.

Table D.2. International conventions relating to Bangladeshi migrants and their families and statuses and years of ratification

Convention	Status of ratification by Bangladesh	Year of ratification
ILO Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97)	No	N.A.
United Nations Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, 1951	No	N.A.
United Nations Convention relating to the Status of Stateless Persons, 1954	No	N.A.
United Nations Convention on the Reduction of Statelessness, 1961	No	N.A.
ILO Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143)	No	N.A.
United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989	Yes	1990
United Nations International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, 1990	Yes	2001
United Nations Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees, 1967	No	N.A.
United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, 1979	Yes	1984
ILO Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102)	No	N.A.
ILO Convention concerning Decent Work for Domestic Workers, 2011 (No. 189)	No	N.A.
United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and the Protocols Thereto, 2000	No	N.A.
ILO Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29)	Yes	1985

Source: IOM, 2020.

Concerning the national frameworks, the main legal instruments used to govern migration include the OEMA 2013 (ILO, 2013), the PSHT Act of 2012, the WEWB Act of 2018 and the EWOEP 2016. These national policy and legal frameworks are relevant to all migration stages, although they each have a very low emphasis on reintegration. This section closely examines these instruments.

The OEMA 2013 seeks to promote overseas employment opportunities and develop a safe and fair system of migration and ensure the rights and welfare of migrant workers and members of their families throughout the migration cycle. It is the principal legislation for labour migration. This law provides a framework for regulating labour migration, which specifies the roles and responsibilities of different government agencies such as the BMET, recruitment agencies and agents, and the labour welfare wings of Bangladesh's diplomatic missions in destination countries. Specific provisions in the OEMA 2013 cover the licensing of recruitment agencies and agents, registration of migrant workers, emigration clearance, restoration of migrants' rights, and the formulation of bilateral agreements on migration, among other themes. However, the Act has several shortfalls including the following:

- The OEMA 2013 does not adequately specify the oversight role of the Government of Bangladesh. It seems that the OEMA does not require government oversight of labour concluded with migrant workers and, as a result, quality assurance of pre-departure support remains inadequate.

- Although the OEMA 2013 particularly emphasizes equity, it remains unclear what constitutes equity and how the various actors will uphold it as part of their mandate. Furthermore, it appears that actors that are actively involved in the recruitment process are not obliged to address equity in their work, as several clauses such as those relating to the compensation of migrant workers are mere guidelines and not enforceable obligations.

- The protection needs of irregular migrants are not adequately covered in the OEMA 2013. The rights of workers who access foreign labour markets using informal channels and are in irregular situations are not specified in the legislation.

- Under the OEMA 2013 workers can claim compensation as stipulated in Section 18 (subsections 2 and 3). However, the OEMA is short on details of the eligibility criteria and the approaches to determine compensation level and value.

The PSHTA of 2012 and corresponding implementing rules, which took effect in 2017 (namely the Prevention and Suppression of Human Trafficking Rules, the National Anti-Human-Trafficking Authority Rules and the Human Trafficking Prevention Fund Rules), were developed to govern human trafficking. It replaced the Suppression of Immoral Traffic Act of 1933 and Sections 5 and 6 of the Women and Children's Repression Prevention Act of 2000.

The PSHTA of 2012 and its implementation could improve. For instance, the PSHTA 2012 seems to be misaligned with some specific provisions of Bangladesh's Constitution. The Act provides for the continuation of any order, decision or action taken under the legislation it replaced. However, this stipulation is at odds with Article 35(2) of the Constitution of Bangladesh, which states that "no person shall be convicted of any offense except for violation of a law in force at the time of the commission of the act charged as an offense, nor be subjected to a penalty greater than, or different from that which might have been inflicted under the law in force at the time of the commission of the offense".

- While, under the PSHTA of 2012, an investigation into an international case must be completed within 90 days, with a possible 30-day extension subject to approval by the tribunal in matters of global investigations, the Act does not specify the conditions which may lead to an inability to complete an investigation within the specified time.

- While the PSHTA of 2012 stipulates that the court may accept electronic or digital evidence used in court, it does not specify the measures for establishing the credibility of such evidence. Because the electronic evidence can be created and modified, the admissibility of such evidence can be challenged, thereby lowering the chances for prosecution.

- Several factors affect the implementation of the PSHTA of 2012, including lack of resources, such as technology.

The EWOEP 2016 draws on a rights-based framework, and it is relevant to all the stages of migration, from pre-departure through reintegration. The right of migrants to safe and orderly migration, migrants' rights and the welfare of their families, and the rights of women migrants are addressed in the policy. However, there is an overemphasis on labour migration at the expense of other pertinent themes such as the voting rights of Bangladeshi migrants and diaspora abroad.

Another legal instrument for social welfare programmes for Bangladeshi migrants working abroad and their families in Bangladesh is the WEWB Act of 2018. The Act creates a fund to provide social welfare services and benefits to Bangladeshi migrant workers and their families, including the repatriation of the deceased, medical treatment, grants and competitive scholarships for migrants' children. It appears that the WEWB Act of 2018 is out of sync with other migration legislation.

The national migration governance frameworks of Bangladesh focus on labour migration at the expense of other cross-border human mobility types. This is not surprising because Bangladesh is a net country of origin and is among the leading remittance-receiving countries in per capita terms. The remainder of Part D examines labour migration governance.

D.2. Labour migration system in Bangladesh

The policy frameworks in Bangladesh recognize the role of migration and remittances in national development (Government of Bangladesh, 2015). Part C demonstrates that labour migration and remittances play an important role in national development, relieving rural employment pressure, modernizing agriculture and alleviating poverty on many levels. As labour migration becomes increasingly essential, strong institutions for governing labour migration are becoming indispensable. According to the World Bank (2018b), strong institutions are required to take deliberate action to maximize the economic benefits of migration while minimizing risks associated with human mobility. For example, with strong institutions, Bangladesh can improve worker placement and income from migration while widening access to emerging labour markets.

D.2.1. Conceptualizing labour market institutions

Apart from facilitating and boosting access to foreign labour markets, labour-sending systems should ideally play a key role in maximizing economic gains from migration (World Bank, 2018b). A nuanced understanding of access to foreign labour markets helps to analyse labour migration governance. The World Bank (2008b) conceptualizes access in terms of four pillars, namely (a) framework for access, (b) facilitating access, (c) fortifying access and (d) furthering access.

The first pillar, the *framework for access*, comprises legal and policy frameworks, including international agreements that enable labour mobility between countries. Bilateral and multilateral agreements and international treaties belong to this pillar. *Facilitating access*, the second pillar, includes instruments and practices for labour intermediation that match labour demand overseas and supply in Bangladesh and assist aspirant migrant workers through the often challenging process of landing job opportunities abroad. What is required to facilitate the labour market include scouting foreign markets for jobs and preparing aspirant migrants for potential migration through, among other things, tips for designing

an effective curriculum vitae and attending job interviews as well as short training programmes. Even after jobs have been identified abroad, it is necessary to match these with aspirant migrants' characteristics, which requires research and marketing.

After departure, various factors, such as below-minimum wages and salaries, unpaid salaries and workplace abuse, endanger migrants' access to better labour market opportunities. Furthermore, these risks tend to diminish the economic benefits of migration. For this reason, fortifying access, which involves setting up mechanisms for protection abroad and support services that alleviate risks for labour migrants, is necessary to secure and strengthen access to the foreign labour market. Mechanisms for protecting and supporting migrants in foreign labour markets, labour attaches at Bangladesh missions abroad and channels for transmitting money are necessary for optimum access to foreign labour markets.

Increasing gains from migration requires the broader participation of Bangladeshi nationals in the labour migration system, and it is also necessary that they possess diverse educational profiles and skills to enable them to be employed in a wide range of jobs in a foreign country. The fourth pillar is about *furthering access* to the labour market. It comprises institutional arrangements to broaden and diversify the foreign labour market. Skills audits and skills verification exercises are necessary to widen access to labour markets, and so are training and on-the-job training, which are known to diversify access.

One can examine these four analytical pillars of the governance system for countries of origin in the context of the entire migration process conceptualized in three overlapping parts: emigration process, remittance and support, and return integration.

Figure D.1. Labour migration system in Bangladesh
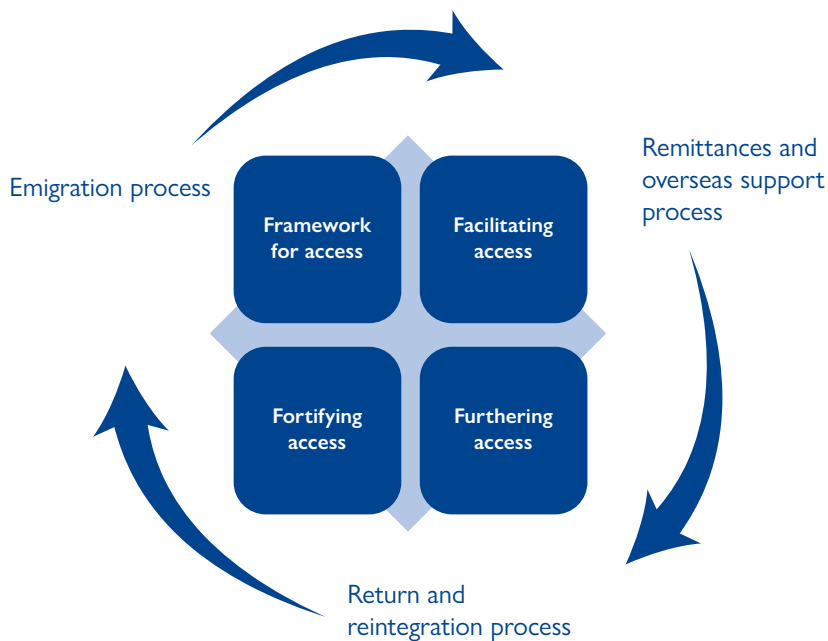
Table D.3 presents the conceptual pillars of the labour migration governance system related to the phases of migration (i.e. the migration cycle).

Table D.3. Conceptual pillars of Bangladesh's labour migration governance and the process of migration

	Pre-departure, departure and transit	Post-arrival	Post-return
	Emigration process	*Remittance and overseas support*	*Return and reintegration*
Framework for access			
Facilitating access			
Fortifying access			
Furthering access			

A framework for access is relevant throughout the migration cycle, as shown in Table D.3. The policy action designed to facilitate access and further access is most appropriate in the first two stages: (a) emigration and (b) remittance and overseas support. Fortifying access, however, is more pertinent in the last two stages. A labour migration system should have institutional arrangements to manage the migrant's access to the foreign labour market and his or her well-being from recruitment through return and reintegration (Rahman, 2017).

In addition to facilitating, securing, strengthening and broadening access to the foreign labour markets, good governance of labour migration also involves effective management of return migration, which requires intense cooperation and coordination of the institutional actors and stakeholders in the countries of origin and destination. The World Bank (2018b) argues that the cross-border alignment of institutions involved in migration is a prerequisite for effective labour migration governance. Streamlining of migration in relevant bureaucracies and strong stakeholder coordination boosts administrative efficiency. Furthermore, effective management of the labour migration system requires a regulatory framework of legal and policy instruments.

D.2.2. Institutional arrangements and legal and policy framework for access in Bangladesh

Legal and policy frameworks

Section D.1 examines the various international and country-level policy and legal frameworks – including international conventions, agreements, and laws and policies – which enable safe, orderly, and regular migration of Bangladeshi nationals in the country of origin and abroad. Such instruments allow for standard departure from Bangladesh and documented admission into the foreign country, ensuring formal access to the labour market in the destination country. Equally, the policy and legal instruments ensure migrants' access to rights and protections throughout their stay abroad. Legal and policy tools for governing remittances are part of the framework for access. This section continues this discussion and zoom in on national and policy frameworks relevant to labour migration.

Two types of national policies and laws influence labour migration: (a) laws and policies that govern migration and the labour market broadly and are equally relevant to non-migrants, and (b) rules and policies specific to the movement of workers. Apart from the legal and policy instruments, institutions in the country of origin involved in migration management also fall under this framework since they implement the instruments.

Table D.4. Laws and policies for labour migration governance in Bangladesh

Category 1: laws and policies that govern migration and the labour market broadly	
Law/Policy	**Focus**
The Passport Act, 1920 (Act No. XXXIV of 1920)	• Requires foreigners to carry passports in the country
The Registration of Foreigners Act, 1939 (Act No. XVI of 1939)	• Mandates the registration of foreigners entering, being present in and departing from Bangladesh
The Bangladesh Passport Order, 1973 (President's Order) (President's Order No. 9 of 1973)	• Mandates the issuance of passports and travel documents to regulate the departure from Bangladesh of citizens of Bangladesh and other persons
Bangladesh Passport Rules, 1974	• Stipulates the types of passports and procedures for applying for a passport
The Bangladesh Labour Act, 2006 (XLII of 2006)	• Consolidates and amends the laws relating to labour employment, relations between employers and workers, determination of minimum wage, payment of wages and compensation for injuries to workers, and resolution of labour formation of trade unions, among other things
Bangladesh Labour (Amendment) Act, 2013 (Act No. 30 of 2013)	• Stipulates further amendments to the Bangladesh Labour Act, 2006 (XLII of 2006)
National Skills Development Policy, 2011	• Reforms the technical and vocational training education in Bangladesh
Emigration Rules of 2002	• Stipulates rules on governance of emigration from Bangladesh
Prevention and Suppression of Human Trafficking Act, 2012	• Makes provisions for the prevention and suppression of human trafficking, ensuring the protection of victims of the offence of human trafficking and their rights, and to ensure safe migration
Category 2: laws and policies specific to the movement of migrant workers	
Overseas Employment and Migrants Act, 2013	• Ensures the rights, protection, and welfare of migrants and their families throughout the migration cycle; provides a legal framework to guide labour migration governance, including recruitment and protection of migrant workers
Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment Policy, 2016	• Aims to widen the magnitude of regular migration while reducing the irregular flows and protecting the rights and safety of migrant workers while in the destination country
Wage Earners' Welfare Board Act of 2018	• Establishes a fund from government grants and fees realized (as prescribed by the Government), among other sources, to support the welfare of migrant workers and their families
Dhaka Principles for Migration with Dignity	• Sets out a plan that traces the workers from recruitment to the end of their contracts, based on the United Nations guiding principles
Prevention and Suppression of Human Trafficking Act (PSHT Act of 2012)	• Makes provisions for the prevention and suppression of human trafficking to ensure safe and orderly migration
Overseas Employment and Migrants Act, 2013	• Ensures the rights, protection, and welfare of migrants and their families throughout the migration cycle; provides a legal framework to guide labour migration governance, including recruitment and protection of migrant workers

Some of the significant instruments of labour migration governance presented in Table D.4 are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Section D.1 already examines some aspects of the OEMA 2013. The OEMA 2013 defines a migrant worker as any citizen of Bangladesh who, for wages, (a) is in the planning process to migrate for work or is departing to any foreign country for employment; (b) is employed in a trade or profession in any foreign country; or (c) has returned to Bangladesh at the end of the tenure of employment or without having completed the tenure of work in a trade or profession from a foreign country (section 2 (3)). This broad definition of the migrant worker includes aspirant and return migrants. Therefore, the OEMA 2013 is relevant to all the migration stages from pre-departure through return and integration.

The OEMA 2013 attempts to cover various aspects of the labour migration process from recruitment to return. The OEMA 2013 encourages the fair treatment of all workers. It seeks to protect aspirant migrant workers from unethical recruitment practices during the recruitment process through registration and agencies' licensing and facilitation of employment contracts. Moreover, the OEMA 2013 mandates the establishment of labour welfare wings to cater to migrants' well-being after departure. The rights of migrants and the welfare of migrant workers and their families are observed in line with the international labour and human rights conventions and treaties that Bangladesh has ratified thus far.

Other provisions of the OEMA 2013 worth noting are as follows:

- Another essential contribution is that the Act sets forth the migrant workers' rights, including the right to return home.

- Section 9 of the OEMA 2013 stipulates the requirements for a licence to recruit for the international labour market and legalizes the licensed recruiters while criminalizing the activities of all intermediaries and sub-agents involved in the recruitment process.

- Section 10 of the OEMA sets out local recruiters' eligibility and specifies the terms and conditions of the international recruitment organizations that wish to work from Bangladesh. International recruitment agencies can work in Bangladesh, provided that 60 per cent of shares of the organization's capital ownership is with Bangladesh.

- Concerning international recruiting agencies, change of ownership arrangements requires the approval of the Government of Bangladesh. This arrangement ensures that Bangladesh maintains a relative amount of control over the recruitment process.

The EWOEP 2016 seeks to expand the volume of regular migration while diminishing the magnitude of irregular flows. The policy's overriding goal is to protect the rights and safety of migrant workers while in the country of destination. At the same time, the EWOEP sets forth the social protection of families who remained behind. It regulates the recruitment process and creates an institutional framework for negotiating fair contracts.

Five-year plans are part of the framework for access. Running from 2016 to 2020, the Seventh Five-Year Plan acknowledges the critical role migration and remittances play in macroeconomic development. It recognizes that migration and remittances are essential drivers of social growth on all levels. For instance, families from diverse backgrounds have migrated out of poverty; they have increased social protection at the household level. The Seventh Five-Year Plan focuses on the following:

- Improving the coherence and coordination of the different ministries and agencies (i.e. policy, research, labour diplomacy, finance, skills development, welfare and social services) involved in labour migration;

- Investing concerted efforts in increasing the share of migrant workers from underrepresented economic regions;

- Increasing the proportion of skilled and semi-skilled migrant workers;

- Diminishing the costs associated with migrating for labour and sending remittances;

- Increasing financial inclusion by ensuring that recipients use bank accounts;

- Leveraging remittance savings as a source of finance to develop productive activities;

Among other things, the Seventh Five-Year Plan seeks to create a comprehensive digitalization of the migration process. If implemented adequately, this initiative will improve access to data that, in turn, will enhance the implementation and evaluation of programmes for labour migration.

D.2.3. Key institutions involved in labour migration governance

Bangladesh has established institutions to manage the process of labour emigration, remittances, and return and integration. Emigration for labour starts with recruitment. The process of recruitment can either be private or managed by government.

In Bangladesh, five government line ministries deal with international labour migration:

- MoEWOE
- MoHA
- MoFA
- Ministry of Finance
- Ministry of Civil Aviation and Tourism
- Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment

Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment

The MoEWOE was founded in 2011 and assumed the responsibilities previously performed by the BMET within the Ministry of Labour. The MoEWOE is responsible for implementing the rules framed in 2002 under the Emigration Ordinance 1982 and now the 2013 OEMA.

Under the MoEWOE, there are four entities, namely:

- BMET
- WEWB
- Probashi Kallyan Bank – expatriates' welfare bank
- BOESL
- Labour welfare wings in Bangladesh's foreign missions

The remit of the MoEWOE falls into two broad fields: (a) to create overseas employment opportunities and (b) to address challenges experienced by expatriates and to ensure their well-being. Box D.1 presents the more specific roles of the MoEWOE.

The MoEWOE is a critical ministry in labour migration and is known for a results-oriented approach. While this ministry is known to have committed leadership, it requires more human and financial resources to execute its mandate currently. Another challenge the MoEWOE faces is effectively coordinating with agencies across other line ministries. Although migration is increasingly becoming part of the portfolio of other ministries such as the Ministry of Labour and the Ministry of Education, the MoEWOE appears to lack the wherewithal to coordinate and cooperate effectively with relevant agencies and institutional structures outside its structures. For example, the Word Bank (2018b) has observed that the coordination between the MoEWOE and the MoFA, which co-chair various labour migration structures, could improve. Coordination between the MoEWOE and the Immigration Police at ports of entry is similarly inadequate. An example of the lack of coordination is the failed attempts to establish a database for return migrants

The BMET is implementing the MoEWOE in matters related to labour migration. The BMET manages the whole migration process and participates in the overall planning and implementation of workforce development and utilization strategies in the country. It is responsible for the following functions:

• Regulating and licensing labour recruiting agencies;

• Collection and analysis of labour market information and market research;

• Registration and clearance of job seekers for local and foreign employment;

• Development and implementation of training programmes in response to specific labour demand in the national and international labour markets;

- Development of apprentice and on-the-job skilling programmes within existing industries;
- Organizing pre-departure briefing sessions as well as several technical training programmes;
- Resolving legal disputes.

While the BMET is responsible for a wide range of functions, it often carries out its functions with a shoestring budget, constraining its ability to increase efficiency.

The WEWB under the MoEWOE provides various services and benefits to migrants and their families. Before departure, the WEWB organizes briefing sessions designed to increase migrants' awareness of the rules, laws, rights and duties, customs, languages, and the country of destination's social environment. The pre-departure briefings are designed to prepare migrants to quickly settle in and deal with obstacles after arrival in their destination country.

Children and young people in migrant families are eligible for competitive scholarships to pursue various subjects on various levels, provided by the WEWB. If the migrant gets injured abroad and returns to Bangladesh because he or she can no longer continue to work, the WEWB provides up to 100,000 taka for treatment in Bangladesh. Moreover, if the migrant died while working abroad, the WEWB facilitates the repatriation of the corpse to Bangladesh and hands over the body to the family. The WEWB can also make the arrangements to bury the deceased migrant in Bangladesh, with the consent of the deceased migrant's family. Additionally, the WEWB facilitates the processing and payment of compensation, insurance and other employment-related benefits of the deceased migrant to his or her family members.

Another notable benefit is the welfare grant, which targets Bangladeshi workers who die while abroad during the contract or while on leave in Bangladesh. Additionally, those undocumented Bangladeshi men and women working legally in the diaspora and have a membership of the WEWB are eligible for the grant. The grant is payable to the deceased migrant's family up to 300,000 taka (3 lakhs) within two months from the date of receiving the dead body.

D.2.4. Key institutions involved in remittance governance

Remittances are integral to Bangladesh's national development. In recent years, the country has relied less on external aid than remittances (Rahman, 2017; Akter, 2018). Therefore, it is necessary to improve the governance of remittances to maximize the role remittances play in national development. As with other remittance-receiving countries, Bangladesh has policies and institutions designed to incentivize and promote investment in the national economy. According to Moniruzzaman (2016), the financial institutions and markets for remittances work across borders, while policy tools to attract and channel remittances to investment markets operate within the national borders. Despite the transnational nature of remittance governance, remittance-receiving country governments can leverage the policy context to protect remittance investment.

In Bangladesh, State and non-State actors interact to shape the remittance market. There are official and unofficial RSPs and a regulatory framework for governing remittances products. RSPs include the following:

- Commercial banks;
- MTOs;
- Foreign exchange houses:
- Specialized banks, a wide range of commercial agents and financial institutions;
- Informal actors.

The Ministry of Finance is a crucial player in the governance of international remittances. It deals with legal and policy issues related to banks' operations, non-bank financial institutions, capital markets and the microcredit sector involved in the transmission of remittances. As the regulator of the monetary landscape, Bangladesh Bank is directly involved in the governance of remittances. The bank participates in policy formulation, including setting guidelines, providing instructions, and sending circulars that require bank and non-bank financial institutions to meet service requirements.

Private commercial banks, nationalized commercial banks and other specialized financial institutions are the significant RSPs in Bangladesh. The banking sector has the highest (73%) share of the remittance market. Also, microfinance institutions are visible players in the remittance market. In recent years, microfinance institutions have introduced new technology in their operations, which has

further reduced service delivery costs. These have influenced competition in the remittance market, lowering the costs of sending and receiving money.

Recently, in a more progressive policy initiative, nationalized commercial banks and private commercial banks have been allowed to establish foreign branches and exchange bureaus in major migrant destination countries. Furthermore, all private commercial banks and nationalized commercial banks have made agreements with foreign banks and Western Union to facilitate the transfer of remittances. As more players entered the remittance market, competition increased, leading to a more improved payment system. MTOs are key actors in the remittance governance infrastructure in many countries, and Bangladesh is not an exception. In other countries, remitters prefer MTOs such as Western Union and MoneyGram because they offer anonymity, unlike banks that require the sender's details.

Consequently, MTOs would suit irregular migrants to a more considerable extent. Nevertheless, in Bangladesh, the market share of MTOs is approximately 8 per cent despite the vast network of Western Union and MoneyGram (12,000 and 4,000 branches, respectively). In other words, only 8 per cent of migrant workers remit money through MTOs (World Bank, 2018b). According to Moniruzzaman (2016), the low cost of sending and receiving money through nationalized banks explains the low utilization of MTOs by migrant workers. Moreover, many nationalized banks have created branches in the destination country, making it easier for migrant workers to send remittances to Bangladesh.

Many people believe that a significant portion of remittances remain unrecorded since money and goods clandestinely move through informal channels across borders. Informal transfer agents are known to operate outside the formal regulatory system, facilitating the movement of pecuniary and in-kind transfers from abroad. The use of friends and relatives operates in the same way outside the formal regulatory system. An example is the *hundi* system. It works in the following manner: a migrant makes a payment into an account in the country of destination. The recipient gets the money in local currency in the home country through a local agent. Both the migrant and the remitter using the hundi system retain anonymity and enjoy speed and convenience. However, such transactions do not enter the official records; they remain unaccounted for in the GDP computations.

Numerous laws and policies in Bangladesh influence the regulation of remittances. Laws that deal with foreign exchange, employment contracts, and the welfare of migrant workers and their families impact remittances regulation. Furthermore, legal and policy instruments meant to incentivize Bangladeshi

nationals working abroad and their remitting behaviour are part of the remittance governance framework. Equally, laws that seek to prevent terrorism and money laundering imply the governance of remittances. Bangladesh has a battery of legal and policy instruments for the governance of remittances.

First enacted in 1947 and modified up to 1996, the Foreign Exchange Regulation Act 1947 regulates all dealings in foreign exchange, licensing, code of practice, and the import and export of currencies and bullion (Government of Bangladesh, 1947). However, while providing for a very excessive restriction in buying, selling, conversion and possession of foreign currency by any person other than an authorized dealer divorced from the market's realities, the law does not address the movement of remittances into the country. For example, it does not articulate provisions for the remittance market and competition among RSPs, including money MTOs.

The WEWB Act of 2018 mandates the establishment of a fund from government grants, fees realized (as prescribed by the Government), interest accrued on the security money deposited by recruiting agents, government grants, and profits generated from investments and fees, among other sources. The fund extends various services and benefits to migrants and their families, including grants, competitive scholarships for the children of the migrants, medical insurance and the repatriation of the deceased migrant's body. However, the fund could increase its impact on migration and remittances if used to support migrant families' income-generating projects. Such projects could potentially improve return and reintegration outcomes and eventual remigration.

Instruments that encourage non-resident Bangladeshi entrepreneurs to invest in the country of origin can positively impact remittance inflows. According to Moniruzzaman (2016), the Commercially Important Persons (Non-Resident Bangladeshi) Selection Policy of 2006 and the Special Privilege for Expatriate Bangladeshi Remitters Policy of 2008 stipulate privileges for the migrants who remit above a specified threshold. The benefits include prioritization in reserving seats in airlines, public transit, using special lounge and handling facility at the airport; prioritization in getting facility at government hospitals; and an invitation to different national programmes. However, these policies could have provided clear guidelines for supporting business creation, favourable interest rates and reduced import duties for specified productive goods to channel remittances towards domestic investment.

The Anti-Terrorism (Amendment) Act 2013 sets forth the procedure for detecting and preventing terrorist financing, monitoring suspicious domestic and international transactions, recording and reporting transactions, governing financial crimes and imposing penalties for non-compliance. However, it has undesirable implications for remittance inflows (Bangladesh Bank, 2013). The Money Laundering Prevention Act of 2012 stipulates transaction surveillance and compliance monitoring, detecting suspicious transactions, investigation and trial, central bank financial intelligence and suspicious transaction report (Bangladesh Bank, 2012). Nevertheless, oversurveillance and reporting requirements can be a barrier to the newcomer RSPs in the market. The stringent regulation and compliance requirements are difficult to fulfil for the RSPs and can push out small providers. There is no strategy on designing fiscal regimes to encourage new RSPs to enter into the market.

Consequently, oversurveillance tends to discourage the development of a competitive market environment. There seems to be a rather inadequate policy focus on improving the remittance market by, for instance, encouraging new entrants into the RSP market. Whereas the OEMA 2013 has focused extensively on regulating the recruitment landscape, it does not adequately deal with RSPs and MTOs. Overall, the focus on fostering competition among RSPs and MTOs and lowering remitting costs has been neglected by and large.

D.3. Institutional arrangements and mechanisms for facilitating access

There is a need to diminish inequalities in access to labour market information to facilitate broad-based access to the labour market. Therefore, it means that aspirant migrant workers should have access to reliable and accurate information about skills demand, employment conditions and legal issues concerning a given market. A functional LMIS is required to improve migrants' access to reliable, up-to-date information. On top of that, governance mechanisms for intermediation are necessary to ensure employment outcomes, income outcomes and welfare outcomes, which are aspects of access.

Table D.5 lists the institutions that participate in the governance of intermediation with the foreign labour market.

Table D.5. Institutions engaged in the governance of intermediation with the foreign labour market

Institution	Key role	Gap
Formal institutions		
District Employment Manpower Offices	Centralized source of information about overseas employment	Further decentralization is required to reach aspirant migrant labourers.
BMET	• Responsible for the recruitment process, information collection and dissemination • Responsible for recruitment through government-to-government agreements • Responsible for maintaining a database of labour migrants, recruiters and agencies	There is a need to improve the LMIS.
BOESL	• Create competition among private recruiters • Minimize costs of recruitment • Generate examples of quality recruitment • Process foreign labour demands	The market share of BOESL remains relatively small.
Private recruiters	Involved in the recruitment process	• They charge very high fees despite ceiling/cap placed by the Government. • They are involved in the illicit sell of visas and letters of demand. • They are concentrated in Dhaka and hard-to-reach areas outside Dhaka.
Bangladesh Association of International Recruiting Agencies	• Strengthening regulation • Connection with government • Addressing complaints made against members	• The Association sets high legal recruitment fees. • It fails to adequately compensate workers who lodged complaints. • It fails to address illegal practices of its member agencies.
Informal Institutions		
Dalals	Responsible for initial contact with aspirant migrants, as they are accessible to aspirant migrants	Migrants do not have sufficient information about dalals, increasing the possibility of abuse.
Individual initiative and social networks	Responsible for 55–65% recruitment Are able to help based on trust and reciprocity	It is difficult to get information about nationals who migrate through these networks.

Sources: Moniruzzaman, 2016; Rahman, 2017; Sikder et al., 2017; Murata, 2018; Rashid and Ashraf, 2018; World Bank, 2018b; and IOM, 2020.

One of the factors that hinder labour market access in Bangladesh is the lack of information about overseas job markets. Poor availability of information to job seekers increases the costs of participation in the labour market, including time costs associated with gathering information on job vacancies and procedural costs of preparing and processing applications. Often, the recruiting agency lacks information about overseas employment opportunities.

D.4. Institutional arrangements for fortifying access

Although migrants face barriers throughout the migration journey, post-arrival risks pose a real threat to earnings. The vulnerabilities migrants experience after arrival tend to reduce the economic benefits of migration. Such vulnerabilities stem from the relative absence of social and legal protections and information asymmetries in the destination country. According to the World Bank (2018b), these factors are the sources of risk; they threaten migrants' well-being and social protection throughout their stay abroad, with a negative impact on income.

Bangladesh has established the following institutions to mitigate the risks throughout the migration process.

D.4.1. Labour welfare wings at missions/attachés

Among other functions, the labour welfare wings explore potential labour markets abroad, certify documents concerning recruitment, provide consular services (such as travel advice, legal advice and assistance with repatriation) and ensure the welfare of Bangladeshi migrant workers. Currently, the labour welfare wings run safe houses for migrants who need protection from abuse. Because many female migrant workers face abuse at the workplace, Bangladesh labour welfare wings have female workers. Safehouses have already been established in Riyadh, Dubai and Lebanon. Thus far, most cases brought to the attention of the labour welfare wings include delay in the payment of wages and salaries and, in worst cases, non-payment of wages and harassment by law and order.

Additionally, the labour welfare wings also deal with the renewal of passports and lost documents. While the institution of labour welfare wings could potentially protect large numbers of migrants, especially women, far few migrants have used this service thus far. Moreover, many migrants were not aware of its existence. It appears that the labour welfare wings cannot deal with most

grievances brought to their attention because they lack capacity. According to the World Bank (2018b), Bangladesh labour welfare wings do not provide standard services comparable to the missions of other countries of origin.

D.4.2. Wage Earners' Welfare Fund

Another mechanism that Bangladesh has put in place to mitigate the risks that migrant workers face is the WEWF, stipulated in the WEWB Act of 2018. As discussed earlier in this document, the WEWF is used to finance the deceased migrants' repatriation and burial and the surviving family members' stipends. In addition, the WEWF covers the costs of pre-departure orientation as well as welfare desks at the airports. Some analysts have expressed concern that the WEWF does not cover the range of contingencies associated with the migrants' way of life, protected by other sending countries' similar funds (see, for example, World Bank, 2018b). These contingencies include:

- Integration and reintegration assistance;
- Life insurance;
- Loans;
- Return home in circumstances where the worker feels unsafe and is unable to fund his or her return home.

D.4.3. Smart cards

Introduced in early 2010, Bangladesh's smart card is a tag with a small computer chip. The smart card contains all the information found in the migrant's passport, the migrant's fingerprints, and the recruiting agency's details such as name and licence number. The smart card enables the Government to verify the key parties involved in the migration process. If used at the ports of entry and exit, the smart card can be a useful mechanism to generate data to understand migrants' mobility, including the eventual return. Furthermore, the smart card is incredibly helpful in cases where the migrant has lost his or her passport since the smart card information can be used to reissue a new passport. By 2013, 1.7 million smart cards had been issued to migrant workers before their departure (World Bank, 2018b). However, there seems to be an understanding among the migrant workers that the smart card is not useful after departure. Consequently, most migrant workers do not keep the card and cannot produce it upon return. This negatively impacts the efforts to build a database of return migrants.

D.4.4. Private protection mechanisms

There are non-State protection mechanisms involved in the mitigation of post-arrival risks. A case in point are toll-free lines in Dubai developed by the ILO. Information to establish the extent to which migrants have used this service is inconclusive. Hometown associations made up of Bangladeshi migrant workers residing in a specific town, region or State in the destination country constitute a relatively informal but useful protection arrangement. Hometown associations are known to improve migrants' sense of belonging, as they organize cultural events and observe various national days of Bangladesh. Moreover, they make different sorts of information available among association members, including details about safe and affordable accommodation and markets that sell home products. Associations often help new migrants to quickly gain cultural fluency, thereby making their stay less cumbersome. The Government of Bangladesh has also engaged hometown associations to mobilize migrants for on-the-job training.

D.5. Mechanisms for furthering access

The fourth pillar, furthering access, involves increasing the efficiency of the labour market in allocating resources. To boost labour market efficiency in resource allocation, information about local and overseas labour market opportunities should be accessible to all actors. Furthermore, increasing the diversity of both aspirant migrant workers and those already employed abroad is a prerequisite. In the same vein, skills audits and verifications are necessary to ensure that the gap between skills supply and demand has been reduced. A sound qualifications authority is a requirement for screening qualifications that meet the prescribed criteria, and there is a need to improve the existing information sharing mechanisms. Notably, an up-to-date LMIS is required to access the local and foreign labour markets further.

PART E: KEY FINDINGS, POLICY IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

E.1. Main findings on the current trends in migration, migration policies and the impacts of migration

Bangladesh is one of the world's leading remittance-receiving countries, surpassing India and China in per capita terms, in recent years (Sikder et al., 2017). As a result, labour migration has received the lion's share of scholarly and policy attention than other migration types, such as student migration and return migration.

Another type of migration that is relatively well documented both in the literature and policy papers is environmentally induced migration. Arguably, the growing interest in environmentally motivated migration is fuelled by Bangladesh's vulnerability to disaster displacements due to its geographical location.

E.1.1. Findings on drivers of migration in Bangladesh

Recent studies of human mobility from Bangladesh conceptualize migration as a context-specific and complex process that unfolds in the broader sociocultural, environmental, economic and political setting involving the countries of origin and destination (Raitapuro and Bal, 2016; Rahman, 2017). Studies of the drivers and dynamics of migration in Bangladesh recognize the importance of the economic rationale that generates movement, social networks that maintain it, and the political systems that regulate it. As in other labour-sending countries, poverty and the labour market conditions in Bangladesh provide strong motivation for emigration. Whereas the proportion of poor people have declined significantly to just a quarter of the population in recent years, many people remain poor and economically insecure in relative terms (Raihan et al., 2018). The formal job market can only absorb a few labour entrants despite the recent expansion of the services and industry sectors. Consequently, many Bangladeshi men and women work in the informal market and contend with persistent social insecurities such as irregular income and limited access to health insurance.

The deltaic location of Bangladesh and worsening climatic conditions also provide a compelling push factor for migration. While the delta ecosystem in Bangladesh provides multiple livelihood options for millions of people, including crop farming and fishing, it is vulnerable to river and rainwater flooding, tropical

cyclones, salinization, waterlogging and coastal erosion. Recurrent floods affect a quarter of the country every year (Mallick and Siddiqui, 2015; Ranjan, 2016). Because most of Bangladesh is less than five metres above sea level, worsening climatic conditions and increasing human activity will aggravate these vulnerabilities (EJF, 2020). Invariably, despite the level of motivation, an aspirant migrant requires social networks that provide various tangible resources and labour market information. Social capital resources in networks help reduce the costs of migration and sustain labour migration despite the low economic impact of migration.

Recent studies about Bangladesh labour migration underscore the role of culture in how individuals, households, families and social networks influence the decisions to migrate (Dannecker, 2009; Raitapuro and Bal, 2016; Rahman, 2017). This is especially true in rural Bangladesh where collective decision-making arrangements based on the way of life Bangladesh people tend to influence both the aspirations to migrate and the likelihood of actual migration. While, in the end, migration is the aspirant migrant's journey, joint decision-making involving members of the household, the family network and the bari is a crucial driver of migration from Bangladesh. A bari is a social unit comprising of members who are usually connected through blood ties and live in the same courtyard, cooperating in domestic activities. It is common in Bangladesh for the bari members to cooperatively raise money to facilitate the migration of a relative, as this boosts the social group's collective reputation and social status. Consequently, aspirant migrants perceive international migration as a feasible strategy to boost their social standing and that of the family and the bari. For that reason, bari members are more inclined to pool resources (including information) to help one of their own migrate to strategic destinations, setting in motion chain migration.

The images and myths people in Bangladesh have about migration and life in the destination country are potent drivers of migration from Bangladesh (Thompson, 2016). Studies conducted with Bangladeshi nationals demonstrated that aspirant migrants and other actors involved in migration manufacture and reproduce mental images that fabricate life in faraway places and the way of life of the people living there as stable, modern and conflict-free (Dannecker, 2009; Raitapuro and Bal, 2016). Also known as cultural imageries, the mental images of the world abroad are somewhat unrealistic. According to Raitapuro and Bal (2016), potential migrants use them to construct notions of self, social mobility and aspired belonging, which can no longer be realized in the community of origin. Motivated by these imaginations of life now and how it may be in faraway places, Bangladeshi men and women want to pursue a higher social status and modern lifestyles through labour migration. Therefore, cultural imaginations are a powerful psychological force that motivates aspirant migrants to dream life in faraway places to uplift their social status (Dannecker, 2009).

In Bangladesh, culture is a strong force that fuels migration and sustains labour migration. Especially in rural Bangladesh, the history of migration has shifted the meanings of work so that the perceptions of the sort of work for educated people vis-à-vis work for the less educated tend to orient men with more years of education towards overseas labour migration. In rural Bangladesh, menial jobs are being shunned as villagers opt for overseas migration overseas (Rahman, 2017). So powerful are the cultural images concerning labour migration from Bangladesh that prior migration has become an important marker of coming of age among Bangladeshi young men. Migration has thus become the new rite de passage for young men transitioning into adulthood (Rahman, 2017). These new meanings of work and adulthood in rural Bangladesh are becoming significant drivers of migration from Bangladesh.

Policies and institutions that facilitate migration from recruitment to departure are also important drivers of migration. Bangladesh has matured institutional arrangements, including many legal and policy frameworks, to enable migration from recruitment to remittance and overseas support. This legal and policy migration regulation framework encourages safe and orderly labour migration. It provides legal safeguards within which aspirant migrants transform motivation into actual migration. However, there is a need for improvement, as shown in the section on recommendations.

E.1.2. Findings on migration numbers and data sharing systems

A Migration Profile enables States to document and disseminate data to describe types and migration trends concerning the many categories of migrants, in line with international guidelines and standards. Through the Migration Profile, stakeholders in Bangladesh get an opportunity to compile the numbers associated with different types of migration concerning their context. A complete Migration Profile includes an analysis of administrative data for migration trends, including student immigration, immigration for employment and labour emigration. Where systems to collate, store and share data exist in the government, administrative data can be more accurate than estimates from surveys and modelling extrapolations.

In compiling this Migration Profile, administrative data on labour migration and remittances was accessed from the BMET and Bangladesh Bank through the TAC. Also, the MoHA provided administrative data about foreigners who overstayed in Bangladesh. However, these data sets fall far too short of the requested administrative data. Administrative data to describe irregular migration, student emigration, student immigration and immigration, among other types

of human mobility, was inaccessible. The lack of access to administrative data – which is ordinarily examined in a Migration Profile – has inevitably limited the scope of the 2018 Migration Profile for Bangladesh. As already observed, surveys, modelling and other methods can potentially provide the appropriate data to fill the gaps. However, in Bangladesh, the regular, recent national surveys, such as those conducted by the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, do not sufficiently cover migration-related indicators, leaving gaps in migration knowledge.

Bangladesh is primarily a country of origin. More Bangladeshi nationals leave their homeland to take up short- and long-term residency abroad compared to the number of foreigners who get admitted into the country. In nominal terms, the stock of international migrants in Bangladesh has steadily grown in the last three decades. Yet, the percentage of the foreign-born population in Bangladesh has not exceeded 1 per cent since 1990. There was, however, an astronomical increase in the percentage of forcibly displaced people whom UNHCR categorizes as refugees and persons of concern in the foreign-born population after 2015. For instance, the number of persons of concern in Bangladesh jumped from 276,200 in 2016 to 906,600 in 2017 (IOM, n.d.b). Undoubtedly, this dramatic increase coincided with the inflows of forcibly displaced foreigners who identify as the Muslim Rohingya who fled violent conflict from Myanmar's Rakhine state (International Crisis Group, 2019; Post et al., 2019.

However, Bangladesh is not a signatory to the 1951 United Nations Convention relating to the Status of Refugees. Therefore, the country categorized the Rohingya people as forcibly displaced foreigners rather than refugees after 2016.

Regarding emigration, administrative data is mostly unavailable, except for overseas employment facilitated by government and designated agencies, which is addressed later in this section. The number of Bangladeshi citizens who applied for asylum is available on the publicly accessible portal WorldData.info (n.d.). Figures from the portal show that, in 2018, approximately 18,079 Bangladeshi nationals, equivalent to 0.011 per cent of the national population, fled the country and applied for asylum in other countries (WorldData.info, n.d.). The top five countries of destination for Bangladeshi people seeking asylum abroad in 2018 were Italy, France, Greece, the United Kingdom and South Africa in that order (ibid.). Unfortunately, comprehensive and accurate databases of Bangladeshi nationals currently studying abroad were either non-existent or merely inaccessible during fieldwork. The same can be said about Bangladeshi nationals who emigrated for employment without the facilitation of government and designated agencies.

Unfortunately, rigorous estimates of different categories of Bangladeshi emigrants are hard to come by in literature.

Since, as indicated, administrative data on student immigration and foreigners working in Bangladesh is inaccessible, this Migration Profile falls short of adequate descriptions of immigration for employment and immigration for study purposes. In the absence of such administrative data, it is difficult to describe the characteristics of foreign nationals who immigrate to take up employment or to pursue studies in the country. For example, it is impossible to adequately describe the types of jobs that foreign nationals take up in Bangladesh without appropriate immigration statistics. Comparably, it is difficult to explain the disciplines and courses that foreigners studied in Bangladesh.

Such data shortfalls were not expected since the applicant ordinarily provides the information regarding the purpose of immigration when launching the application for a visa or permit. The issuing authority ordinarily collects and stores information about the applicant, such as the year of issue of the visa or permit, the applicant's country of origin, gender and age. When preparing this Migration Profile, this data was requested from the relevant line ministries through the TAC. Unfortunately, the TAC was not successful in accessing the requested data, without which the Migration Profile is "incomplete".

On a positive note, however, apart from the data on labour migration, remittances and selected economic indicators provided by the BMET and Bank of Bangladesh, the Government provided information on irregular migration through the TAC. Also known as clandestine migration, irregular migration is difficult to account for because "migrants in irregular situations" tend to avoid identification. All the irregular migrants were foreigners who had entered the country regularly, suggesting that the non-nationals represented in the statistics on irregular migrants had knowingly remained in the country beyond the time allowed by the Government. In response to violations of the country's immigration laws, the Government of Bangladesh has prosecuted very few non-nationals for migration-related offences in the past six years.

Similarly, in the same period, Bangladesh has deported few foreigners (the number of deportees has not exceeded double-digit figures each year) for migration-related offences. Men were disproportionately represented in irregular migration statistics. In 2018, only 613 men and 114 women overstayed, suggesting that men were the typical overstayers. Although the numbers fluctuated in the intervening years, men dominated irregular migration, as is the case with most migration categories.

Malaysians, numbering 939, represented the largest group of foreigners who paid a fine after violating migration laws between 2010 and 2018. Other nationalities in the top five that were fined hailed from the developed countries of the North (the United States, the United Kingdom, Germany and Canada). Combined, the annual total prosecutions and deportations never exceeded double-digit figures during the period under review. Notably, the Chinese were overrepresented in deportations, while Nigerians and Cameroonians were the only African nationalities. Given the clandestine nature of irregular migration, its scope is undoubtedly more considerable than the number of foreigners who overstayed. Therefore, no matter how comprehensive it is, an analysis of the overstayers will not adequately describe irregular migration. Nonetheless, Bangladesh can use the number of overstayers to evaluate the effectiveness of port control processes in Bangladesh.

Data to analyse internal migration was accessible from regular surveys. Additionally, data to make sense of internal displacement was available from the IDMC website (IDMC, n.d.). Generally, internal migration slightly declined between 2017 and 2018, yet urban areas recorded nearly three times higher in-migration rates than the rural areas under study (115.2 per 1,000 population compared with 38.6 per 1,000 population) (BBS, 2019). However, urban outmigration was comparably high because the urban areas were losing population, recording a net loss of 3.4 persons per 1,000 population (ibid.). Despite the increased urbanization connected to Bangladesh's transition from a predominantly agricultural economy to a manufacturing one, population in some urban places is declining due to internal migration.

By and large, internal displacements in Bangladesh are a result of weather-related events, as most of Bangladesh's territory is less than five meters above sea level (Brown and Nichols, 2015). Moreover, Bangladesh is one of the most densely populated countries, with many people engaged in farming, increasing the risk of flooding, erosion and salinization. The country's deltaic ecosystem and high population density create huge vulnerabilities (Ranjan, 2016). While the whole country faces a heightened risk of weather-related events, its coastal regions are particularly vulnerable to tidal flooding and salinization. Disasters cause thousands of displacements each year. In 2009, 1.3 million displacements were recorded in Bangladesh, the highest tally in a decade. In 2017, 946,000 displacements were recorded (IDMC, n.d.). Climate change will intensify the risk of weather-related events in the future, with more floods and cyclone winds in particular to be expected. Consequently, the recorded yearly displacements have already surpassed the annual average expected displacements of 1.2 million (ibid.).

Undoubtedly, emigration for employment is the most documented category of migration in Bangladesh. The BMET, one of the departments under the MoEWOE, maintains an up-to-date database for labour migrants that use the prescribed channels for labour migration. Labour migration is a growing phenomenon in Bangladesh. Between 1976 and 2018, approximately 12.2 million migrated to work in foreign countries (Siddiqui et al., 2019). The number of people who depart each year has been increasing, exceeding targets. In 2001, 198,060 left to participate in short-term job contracts abroad. Over a million (1,008,525) departed in 2017 alone, five times more than the 2001 figure.

Nevertheless, the number of nationals who emigrated to work in foreign labour markets fluctuated in the intervening years. Between 2009 and 2018, the Gulf countries absorbed most of the Bangladeshi migrant workers. Yet, a significant portion took up short-term employment in Singapore and Malaysia, indicating that these Asian countries may become important destinations in future. During this period, Oman, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates provided employment opportunities to more than a million workers. Singapore and Malaysia are emerging as productive labour markets for Bangladesh. Almost half a million workers participated in Singapore's labour market between 2009 and 2018, while Malaysia employed 368,869 Bangladeshi nationals during the same period.

While the total number of labour migrants has been in a zigzag course since the early 2000s, female labour migration steadily increased a 100-fold from 1,216 migrants in 2002 to 121,925 in 2017. The removal of restrictions imposed on female employment abroad and arrangements that enabled female migrants to migrate without paying fees may have boosted female migrants (Rashid and Ashraf, 2018). Bangladeshi women mostly work in the domestic sector of the Gulf countries, as they lack the necessary skills for other sectors. However, while more and more women participate in labour migration, men have dominated labour migration since independence. Even at the peak of female labour migration in 2017, when 121,925 took up employment abroad, female labour migrants make up just 12.1 per cent of the total number of labour migrants.

The majority of Bangladeshi nationals who work abroad are semi-skilled and less skilled (ibid.), with a small percentage of Bangladeshi labour migrants in the skilled and professional categories. Therefore, Bangladeshi nationals mostly have participated in the peripheries of the countries of destination, as they are not eligible to work in destination countries' manufacturing sectors, which require higher educational attainment and language skills.

E.1.3. Findings on the impacts of migration and remittances

Migration and remittances have observable effects on Bangladeshi society, and these can be conceptualized on four levels, namely macro, community, household and family, and individual. In Bangladesh, migration and remittance primarily have positive impacts on national development. Remittances contribute to the long-run growth of the GDP because international wage earners' remittances make up the highest net foreign currency earner for Bangladesh. Besides, remittances increase private savings and can finance strategic imports that ultimately boost local productivity.

However, although few empirical studies have focused on the link between remittances and imports for Bangladesh, generally remittances can potentially encourage expenditures on luxury imports, resulting in an unsustainable trade deficit (Taguchi and Shammi, 2018). Still, the benefits of remittances outweigh the downsides, since remittances can be relied upon in good and bad weather.

Overall, remittance inflows increased from USD 14.2 billion in FY2013–2014 to USD 16.4 billion in FY2018–2019. Notably, the Gulf countries contributed most to the wage earners' remittances received in Bangladesh between FY2013–2014 and FY2018–2019, with the largest share coming from Saudi Arabia. The percentage of remittances received from Saudi Arabia peaked at 26.2 per cent in FY2014–2015, which remains the highest contribution of wage earners' remittances from a single country. The United Arab Emirates and the United States are the second and third largest source countries of all international remittances during the same period. The prominence of the United States as a source country for remittance inflows to Bangladesh signifies that a remarkably large Bangladeshi diaspora live in that country (ILO, n.d.).

Remittance outflows from Bangladesh constituted a fraction of the total remittance inflows between 2013 and 2018, and their impact on the country's macroeconomic performance remains unknown. Remittance outflows gradually

increased from USD 142. 1 million in FY2013–2014 to USD 264.8 million in FY2018–2019. Bangladesh Bank maintains data on remittance study outflows and remittance family outflows. In terms of size, the volume of remittance study outflows had been larger than remittance family outflows since FY2013–2014. Seventy-five per cent of the officially recorded remittance outflows from Bangladesh were allotted to cover the costs of studies abroad. Therefore, Bangladeshi nationals spent more money to pay for international education abroad than any other expense. The primary recipients of remittance study outflows were those countries with a renowned tertiary education system and a stronger focus on internationalization, including Canada, the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, Germany and Sweden. On the contrary, the two largest recipients of remittance family outflows from Bangladesh were India and China.

Taxes for remittance inflows are smaller and they are expected to contract in the next few years, unless new labour markets are developed sooner. Still, international remittances contribute significantly to Bangladesh's GDP relative to other external sources of revenue. Remittance inflows (wage earners' remittances) were the second largest external revenue source from FY2013–2014 to FY2018–2019. Remittances are the biggest net foreign currency earner.

E.1.4. Findings on policy, legal and institutional frameworks

Whereas Bangladesh has matured institutions for managing migration, a single lead institution to coordinate all aspects of migration governance in Bangladesh did not exist at the time of preparing this Migration Profile. However, given the importance of labour migration for the country's national development over the years, the MoEWOE and the MoFA have co-chaired the migration governance structures in recent years. During fieldwork in July 2019, it emerged that an interministerial cell or department (comprising the MoFA, the MoHA, the MoEWOE and other relevant line ministries) could be established under the jurisdiction of the Prime Minister's Office. Before that, different institutions in Bangladesh will continue to manage the various aspects of migration, albeit with inadequate coordination among them. For instance, information-sharing mechanisms were either non-existent or ineffective at the time of fieldwork, resulting in failed attempts to secure data on various immigration categories. Thus, this Migration Profile does not include some standard sections in Part B.

Nonetheless, Bangladesh has matured institutions governing labour migration and remittances. Based on a framework that comprises four conceptual pillars of governing labour migration, this Migration Profile reviewed the labour migration governance frameworks in Bangladesh. The four pillars are as follows:

- *Framework for access* comprises the legal and policy frameworks – including international agreements – that facilitate and enable labour mobility between countries including bilateral and multilateral agreements and international treaties.

- *Facilitating access* includes labour intermediation instruments and practices that match labour demand overseas and supply in Bangladesh and assist potential migrant workers through the often challenging process of finding jobs abroad.

- *Fortifying access* involves setting up mechanisms for protection abroad and support services that alleviate migration risks for labour migrants. This entails policy action designed to not only fortify access but also reduce the post-departure risk associated with overseas employment while protecting and supporting migrants.

- *Furthering access* is achieved through institutional arrangements to widen and diversify the foreign labour market, such as skills audit and skills verification exercises.

Ideally, institutions and legal and policy frameworks that boost access to the labour market are required throughout the migration cycle – conceptualized in three parts: (a) the emigration process, (b) remittance and overseas support, (c) and return and reintegration. An adequate framework for access is required throughout the migration process. While facilitating and furthering access is mainly relevant in the first two parts of the migration cycle (the emigration process and remittance and overseas support), fortifying access by minimizing risks is more pertinent in the last two stages (remittance and overseas support and return and reintegration). This is because post-departure risks can lower the positive impacts of migration.

Policies and laws that affect labour migration governance can be classified into two categories: (a) laws and policies that govern migration and the labour market broadly and are equally relevant to non-migrants and (b) laws and policies specific to the movement of workers. Several laws and policies affect the governance of labour migration and remittances. The leading national policy

and legal instruments for managing migration in general and labour migration in particular are as follows:

- OEMA 2013
- PSHT Act of 2012
- WEWB Act of 2018
- Seventh Five-Year Plan (2016–2020)
- EWOEP 2016

These policies and legal instruments protect the rights and welfare of labour migrants throughout the migration cycle, ensuring safe and gender-sensitive migration.

Although the legal and policy instruments that manage labour migration and remittances are numerous, some remaining gaps affect access to the foreign labour markets and migrant workers' subsequent well-being. The OEMA 2013, for example, does not adequately cover the rights of irregular migrants. Furthermore, while the principle of equity underpins the OEMA 2013, it is not clear what equity entails and how it will be achieved in the context of labour migration. The PSHT Act of 2012 responds to trafficking in persons and sets out procedures to prosecute perpetrators. However, the stipulation for prosecution seems to contradict the Constitution (Government of Bangladesh, 1972). For instance, the PSHT Act of 2012 mandates the continuation of any order, decision or action taken under the legislation it replaced. This stipulation is at odds with Article 35(2) of the Constitution of Bangladesh, which forbids the prosecution and conviction of a person concerning a violation of a law that was not in force when the offence was committed (ibid.).

Several policies and laws influence the governance of remittances, including legal and policy tools designed to encourage Bangladeshi nationals living and working abroad to increase the money they send through formal channels. Similarly, the Government of Bangladesh has put in place laws that seek to prevent terrorism and money laundering, and these have consequences for the governance of remittances. Notable legislation for the governance of remittances includes the Foreign Exchange Regulation Act of 1947, modified up to 1996, which regulates all foreign exchange transactions, licensing of operators, code of practice, and the import and export of currency and precious minerals (Government of Bangladesh, 1947).

However, the Foreign Exchange Regulation Act of 1947 sets forth excessive restriction in the trade in foreign currency and precious metals. Furthermore, the Act does not adequately address the inflow of remittances into the country. For example, it does not include articulate provisions for the remittance market, competition among RSPs, including MTOs. Several other instruments have overlooked the remittance market. The Money Laundering Prevention Act, 2012, which stipulates transaction surveillance and compliance monitoring, detecting suspicious transactions and prosecution, may have unintended effects on the remittance market. For example, over-surveillance and strict reporting requirements can discourage new RSPs to enter the market. Furthermore, the stringent regulation and compliance requirements are onerous on all RSPs and can drive out small-scale RSPs (Moniruzzaman, 2016).

Further decentralization of migration governance institutions is needed so that they can be accessible to aspirant labour migrants. Yet regulating subagents and informal players in the labour migration and remittance markets remains a challenge. Bangladesh has established institutional mechanisms to secure gains from labour migration while migrants are working abroad, including the labour welfare wings at Bangladesh missions abroad. While the establishment of labour welfare wings could potentially protect large numbers of migrants, especially women, far few migrants have used this service due to a lack of awareness. The other challenge is that labour welfare wings cannot adequately deal with most grievances brought to the officers' attention. For example, labour welfare wings abroad rarely address workplace issues such as workplace abuse brought to their attention. The smart card is similarly ineffective as a risk mitigation measure, since migrants rarely use it after departure. A sound, up-to-date, stakeholder-driven labour management information system is lacking and, therefore, matching skills demand and training programmes remains a challenge.

E.2. Recommendations regarding the migration governance framework

Effective coordination of the institutions that govern labour migration and remittances is a prerequisite for labour market outcomes, including remittance inflows. There is a need to develop an overarching migration governance institution with representatives from key ministries and agencies involved in different migration issues, to improve migration policy and implementation and research. The MoEWOE and the MoFA are best to co-chair the migration apex

institution. Nonetheless, there is a need to specify the accountability lines, roles and responsibilities of the institutional actors represented in the institution. These are the additional recommendations regarding migration governance:

- Information asymmetries increase the cost of migration and reduce the economic benefits of migration. Therefore, the BMET should lead efforts to develop a reliable, up-to-date and accessible labour market information system, which will increase aspirant migrants' access to accurate and reliable information about skills demand, conditions of employment and legal issues for a given labour market.

- The BMET is best to lead programmes, including information campaigns, to disseminate labour migration information in the country, especially in the least accessible areas.

- The MoEWOE and the MoFA should lead efforts to design a standard package of services that labour wings in destination countries should provide to wage earners abroad and the ways of building these institutions' capacity to deliver such services.

- The WEWB should expand the scope of contingencies covered by the WEWF. For example, the WEWF could cover the costs of returning home in cases where the migrant feels unsafe but lacks the resources.

- The WEWB should focus more on the strategies to help remittance-receiving families engage in income-generating activities.

- Bangladesh Bank should consider interventions to stimulate the remittance market and increase competition among RSPs and MTOs.

- Bangladesh Bank should revise entrance and capital requirements for first-time RSPs to widen the Bangladeshi people's participation in this sector.

- The size of the Bangladeshi diaspora may be significantly large given the number of Bangladeshi nationals that leave the country to take up employment abroad. The MoEWOE and the MoFA are suitably positioned to develop a Bangladeshi diaspora database and lead efforts to generate policies to involve the Bangladeshi diaspora in the country's economy, such as formulating investment guidelines for the diaspora.

E.3. Recommendations regarding mainstreaming migration into development

- To build a skilled workforce, the Ministry of Education and the BMET should lead efforts to expand opportunities for education and skills training at all levels and address the current bottlenecks that hinder access to secondary and post-secondary tertiary education and training.

- A more skilled labour force increases the likelihood of higher migration gains, thereby increasing the size of remittances to individuals and households and the national economy. The BMET and other State and non-State actors should intensify the implementation of the National Skills Development Policy, especially the provision on flexible, demand-driven, and responsive training, accreditation of qualifications and skills, credit transfers, and apprenticeships.

E.4. Recommendations concerning improvements to migration statistics and the overall evidence base

E.4.1. Administrative data management systems

The MoHA, the MoEWOE and the MoFA should spearhead the efforts to develop a centralized, accessible administrative data management system to collect, store, organize, and share data on different types of migration, including arrivals and departures, emigration for studies, emigration for employment, returning migrant workers and naturalization.

Although Bangladesh is not a signatory to the 1951 Convention and other refugee-relevant UNHCR statutes, it has acknowledged its obligations to the forcibly displaced foreigners through the country's legal and policy frameworks. It is recommended that the MoHA develop effective systems to document and share information concerning forcibly displaced foreign people in Bangladesh.

The development of such a system should be stakeholder-driven. Furthermore, stakeholders should agree on a range of indicators to guide the system's collection of information.

E.4.2. Research, data collection and information availability

The MoFA and the Ministry of Education should lead stakeholder-driven efforts to identify the gaps in the available migration information and commission studies, including surveys and robust estimations where possible. There is a need to include local universities in developing short-term research agendas with two- to four-year cycles to study topical migration issues for which information does not exist. Apart from labour migration, the following areas require urgent research:

- The size of Bangladeshi diaspora and the nature of their current involvement in the economic and political affairs of the country;

- Return migration;

- Bangladeshi students abroad, including their learning programmes, intentions and potential participation in the home country;

- International students in Bangladesh;

- Migrant labour in Bangladesh;

- Remittance use.

GLOSSARY

Asylum seeker. A person who seeks refuge from persecution or serious threat in a country other than his/her own and is awaiting the outcome of his/her application for refugee status under relevant national and/or international instruments (IOM, 2019).

Balance of payments. A system of accounting that tracks transactions between one country and the rest of the world (World Bank, 1996).

Balance of trade. A dimension of the balance-of-payments system, it is the difference between exports of goods and services and imports of the same (World Bank, 1996).

Bilateral labour migration agreements. Agreements concluded between two States, which are legally binding and are essentially concerned with inter-State cooperation on labour migration (IOM, 2019).

Bilateral labour arrangements. All types of bilateral arrangements between States, regions and public institutions that provide for the recruitment and employment of foreign short- or long-term labour. A bilateral labour arrangement is a broader concept compared to a bilateral labour agreement; it includes arrangements between national employment agencies in different countries (IOM, 2019).

Birth rate (or crude birth rate). The number of live births per 1,000 population in a given year. (This term is not to be confused with the population growth rate.) (BBS, 2018a)

Brain drain. Emigration of trained and skilled individuals from their country of origin to another country, leading to a reduction in skills resources in the former (IOM, 2019).

Brain gain. Immigration of trained and skilled individuals into a receiving country (IOM, 2019).

Circular migration. The temporary and usually repetitive movement of a labour migrant (also, "migrant worker") between his/her home and host countries, typically for employment purposes (IOM, 2019).

Community of origin. A national or local community (administrative unit) of an individual or group of persons who have migrated internally or internationally (IOM, 2019).

Consumption. The process by which goods and services are utilized for their ultimate end purpose, meeting specific human needs and/or desires (World Bank, 1996).

Country of origin. A country that is a source of migratory movements, whether regular or irregular (IOM, 2019).

Country of destination. A country that is the destination for a person or a group of persons, irrespective of whether they migrate regularly or irregularly. In the case of internal displacement, the term is "place of destination" (IOM, 2019).

Country of transit. In the migration context, the country through which a person or a group of persons pass on any journey to the country of destination or from the country of destination to the country of origin or the country of habitual residence (IOM, 2019).

Death rate (or crude death rate). The number of deaths per 1,000 population in a given year (BBS, 2018a).

Debt. The sum of money yet to be paid to people and organizations from whom a government has borrowed (World Bank, 1996).

Deficit. The amount by which government spending within a period exceeds the amounts raised through taxes and other government revenue streams. A deficit is typically addressed through government borrowing (World Bank, 1996).

Dependency ratio. The sum of people either too young or too old to work divided by the active population (16–64 years) and multiplied by 100. The dependency ratio is arbitrarily specified as the ratio of the elderly (aged 65 and older) plus the young (under the age of 15) population to the population in the working age (15–64) (BBS, 2019).

Deportation. The expulsion or removal of foreigners from the country's territory (IOM, 2019).

Diaspora. Migrants or descendants of migrants whose identity and sense of belonging, either real or symbolic, have been shaped by their migration experience and background. They maintain links with their homelands and with each other based on a shared sense of history, identity, or mutual experiences in the destination country (IOM, 2019).

Disaster. A catastrophic disruption of the functioning of a community or a society at any scale due to hazardous events interacting with conditions of exposure, vulnerability and capacity, leading to one or more of the following: human, material, economic, and environmental losses and impacts (IOM, 2019).

Disaster displacement. The movement of persons who have been forced or obliged to leave their homes or places of habitual residence due to a disaster or to avoid the impact of an immediate and foreseeable natural hazard (IOM, 2019).

Disaster risk. The potential loss of life, injury, or destroyed or damaged assets which could occur to a system, society or a community in a specific period of time, determined probabilistically as a function of hazard, exposure, vulnerability and capacity (IOM, 2019).

Displacement. The movement of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights, or natural or human-made disasters (IOM, 2019).

Drivers of migration. Complex set of interlinking factors that influence an individual, family or population group's decisions relating to migration, including displacement (IOM, 2019).

Emigrant. From the perspective of the country of departure, a person who moves from his or her country of nationality or usual residence to another country, so that the country of destination effectively becomes his or her new country of usual residence (IOM, 2019).

Emigration. The act of leaving or departing from one country with a goal of settling in another (IOM, 2019).

Exchange rate. The price at which one currency can be bought or sold for another (World Bank, 1996).

Export. A good or service that is produced for sale in a foreign country/market (World Bank, 2018a).

Forced migration. A migratory movement in which an aspect of coercion exists, including threats to life and livelihood. Such threats may arise from natural or human-made causes (IOM, 2019).

Forced return. The act of returning an individual, against his or her will, to the country of origin, transit or to a third country that agrees to receive the person, generally carried out on the basis of an administrative or judicial act or decision (IOM, 2019).

Foreigner. A person in a State of which he [or she] is not a citizen or national (IOM, 2019).

Foreign direct investment (FDI). Occurs when a company registered in one country does business in another, and includes real, physical capital assets such as buildings, machinery and equipment (World Bank, 2018a).

GDP. A measure of the value of goods and services produced in a country within a given period (usually one year) (World Bank, 1996).

Human rights. Universal legal guarantees protecting individuals and groups against actions and omissions that interfere with fundamental freedoms, entitlements and human dignity (IOM, 2019).

Immigration. A process by which non-nationals move into a country for the purpose of settlement (IOM, 2019).

Import. The sale of a good or service from a foreign country by a purchaser in the domestic market (World Bank, 1996).

Infant mortality rate. The number of deaths of infants under the age of 1 per 1,000 live births in a given year (BBS, 2019).

Inflation. A rise in the overall price level (World Bank, 1996).

Internally displaced person(s) (IDP(s)). Persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border (IOM, 2019).

Internal migrant. Any person who is moving or has moved within a State for the purpose of establishing a new temporary or permanent residence or because of displacement (IOM, 2019).

International migrant. Any person who is outside a State of which he or she is a citizen or national, or, in the case of a stateless person, his or her State of birth or habitual residence. The term includes migrants who intend to move permanently or temporarily, and those who move in a regular or documented manner as well as migrants in irregular situations (IOM, 2019).

Irregular migration. Movement of persons that takes place outside the regulatory norms of the sending, transit and receiving countries (IOM, 2019).

Migrant flow (international). The number of international migrants arriving in a country (immigrants) or the number of international migrants departing from a country (emigrants) over the course of a specific period (IOM, 2019).

Migrant stock (international). For statistical purposes, migrant stock refers to the total number of international migrants present in a given country at a particular point in time who have ever changed their country of usual residence (IOM, 2019).

Migrant worker. 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 (IOM, 2019).

Migration governance. The combined frameworks of legal norms, laws and regulations, policies and traditions as well as organizational structures (subnational, national, regional and international) and the relevant processes that shape and regulate States' approaches with regard to migration in all its forms, addressing rights and responsibilities and promoting international cooperation (IOM, 2019).

Migration Profile. An analysis of available accurate and disaggregated data on some or all migration-relevant aspects of a country's national context, prepared in consultation with a broad range of stakeholders, which can be used to enhance policy coherence, evidence-based policymaking on migration and the mainstreaming of migration into development plans (IOM, 2019).

Net migration. Net number of migrants in a given period, that is, the number of immigrants minus the number of emigrants (IOM, 2019).

Overstay. To remain in a country beyond the period for which entry or stay was granted (IOM, 2019).

Passport. A document issued by the competent authority of a State, valid for international travels, which identifies the holder as a national of the issuing State and constitutes evidence of the holder's right to return to that State (IOM, 2019).

Permit. In the migration context, documentation, such as a residence or work permit, which is usually issued by a government authority and which evidences the permission a person has to reside and/or carry out a remunerated activity (IOM, 2019).

Pre-departure orientation programmes. Courses designed to help prospective migrants, including refugees, acquire the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to facilitate their integration into the country of destination. Pre-departure orientation programmes address expectations and provide a safe and non-threatening environment in which to answer migrants' questions and address concerns (IOM, 2019).

Push-pull factors. A model categorizing the drivers of migration into push and pull factors, whereby push factors are those which drive people to leave their country and pull factors are those attracting them into the country of destination (IOM, 2019).

Ratification. Approval of an international treaty whereby a State establishes on the international plane its consent to be bound by a treaty (IOM, 2019).

Reintegration. A process which enables individuals to re-establish the economic, social and psychosocial relationships needed to maintain life, livelihood and dignity and inclusion in civic life (IOM, 2019).

Reintegration (social). In the context of return migration, the reinsertion of a returning migrant into the social structures of his or her country of origin or country of nationality (IOM, 2019).

Remittances (migrant). Private international monetary transfers that migrants make, individually or collectively (IOM, 2019).

Repatriation. The personal right of a prisoner of war, civil detainee, refugee, or of a civilian to return to his or her country of nationality under specific conditions laid down in various international instruments (IOM, 2019).

Social remittances. The transfer of ideas, behaviours, identities and social capital from migrants to their communities of origin (IOM, 2019).

Visa. An endorsement by the competent authorities of a State in a passport or a certificate of identity of a non-national who wishes to enter, leave, or transit through the territory of the State that indicates that the authority, at the time of issuance, considers the holder to fall within a category of non-nationals who can enter, leave or transit the State under the State's laws. A visa establishes the criteria of admission into, transit through or exit from a State (IOM, 2019).

Vulnerability. Within a migration context, vulnerability is the limited capacity to avoid, resist, cope with, or recover from harm. This limited capacity is the result of the unique interaction of individual, household, community, and structural characteristics and conditions (IOM, 2019).

ANNEXES

Annex 1: Interview templates

DEVELOPING A MIGRATION PROFILE FOR BANGLADESH, 2018

International Organization for Migration (IOM)

The UN Migration Agency

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Migration dynamics: Characteristics and trends

The consultancy team requested information through the Technical Advisory Committee (TAC).

Introduction

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Objective 1: Map out national, regional and international data sources on diverse migrant categories and their characteristics;

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Objective 4: Support institutional, national and regional initiatives to ensure migration data and information is utilized through analysis and monitoring and evaluation of outcomes;

Objective 5: Document key findings, policy implications and recommendations for migration-related issues in Bangladesh.

The process of developing the Migration Profile for Bangladesh uses a mixed-method design to collect and analyse data. The research design combines a secondary review of published information with primary data collection from participants, who are representatives of agencies that deal with one or more aspects of human migration in Bangladesh.

The TAC would like to hear your views about different aspects of human migration in Bangladesh. To facilitate our discussion, we have designed a set of questions based on indicators for the Migration Profile.

Migration dynamics

Regular migration

The Migration Profile compiles and analyses data on the characteristics and trends of migration. This tool is collecting data regarding:

- Departures
- Arrivals
- Regular immigration
- Regular emigration
- Immigration for employment
- Immigration for study
- Local border traffic
- Forced and irregular migration
- Naturalization

The TAC is requesting administrative data from relevant public agencies, such as:

- MoHA
- MoEWOE
- MoFA
- BMET
- Bangladesh Export Processing Zones Authority
- Board of Investment (for firms outside export processing zones)
- Others

A. Data management and sharing

A.1. Is there a system for collecting administrative data regarding: (a) the number of departures, (b) arrivals, (c) irregular migrants who come into contact with the law and (d) foreigners who have been naturalized?

A.2. Is there a system for sharing data about: (a) the number of departures, (b) arrivals and (c) irregular migrants who come into contact with the law?

A.3. Let us move on to local border traffic.

Are there local border traffic agreements between Bangladesh and neighbouring countries?

A.4. What are the terms of exemptions from visa and other travel requirements?

A.5. Is there a system to collect and share administrative data on local border traffic?

B. Foreign-born population

Let us consider the foreign-born population in Bangladesh.

B.1. What are the characteristics of the foreign-born population in Bangladesh?

Prompts

a. Can we identify the groups of the foreign-born population in Bangladesh?

b. What about the national group and gender?

c. Are there "immigrant" persons of productive age or otherwise? *(This insight can feed into emigration analyses for employment.)*

d. What about immigrants forcibly displaced from their countries?

e. For each of the above groups, what is the number/proportion/percentage of children?

f. If children were included in the above categories, how many children were unaccompanied?

C. Immigration to Bangladesh for employment

C.1. Let us first look at the categories of permits issued to foreigners. What are the categories and pre-conditions?

Prompts

a. How many work permits have been issued annually since January 2014?

b. How many applicants were female and male (sex)?

c. Can we present employment permits by sector of employment, trade and profession?

d. How many permits were issued for the employment of expatriates in Bangladesh?

e. How many men and women have been naturalized yearly since 2014?

C.2. What factors explain the number of immigrants for work in Bangladesh?

C.3. Are there surveys of irregular labour migration to Bangladesh?

C.4. What are the estimates of foreigners employed in the domestic service sector?

D. Immigration for studies

D.1. How many study permits have been issued annually since 2014?

D.2. Can we present the number of study permits by sex, study programme, educational institution in Bangladesh and source country?

D.3. What factors explain the patterns in the number of immigrants for studies in Bangladesh?

D.4. Do students change to another immigrant status after completion of studies?

E. Emigration for employment

E.1. The BMET maintains up-to-date data about migrant workers. What is your opinion about the quality of the BMET data?

E.2. There seem to be a high number of migrant workers who use the government labour migration channels to work abroad. Is there available data on migrant workers who make private arrangements to migrate?

E3.　Is there data about migrants who go through some stages of the migration process but fail to migrate?

Prompts

a. What is the rate of migration failure?

b. What obstacles do prospective migrant workers face after completing the initial stage of the migration process?

E.4.　Is administrative data about the following available: (a) migrant workers (age, sex), (b) industry/sector of work abroad and (c) income in US dollars?

F.　Internal migration

F.1.　What is the nature of internal migration in Bangladesh?

Prompts

a. What factors influence internal migration over time?

F.2.　Is there any data that can be used to describe the patterns of internal migration?

F.3.　What is the magnitude of internal displacement due to climatic and environmental factors?

F.4.　Is there a system for collecting, storing and managing data about the Bangladeshis displaced because of climatic and environmental conditions?

G.　Forced immigration and emigration

Let us focus on forced immigration.

G.1.　Is there a system for recording those foreigners who came to Bangladesh because they had been forcibly displaced in their home countries?

G.2.　How many foreigners came to Bangladesh because they had been forcibly displaced in their home countries?

Prompts

a. What is the proportion of female children?

b. What is the proportion of unaccompanied minors?

G3.　Is there available data on Bangladeshi nationals who sought asylum in other countries?

H. Irregular migration

H.1.   What are the numbers for irregular migration from 2014 to 2018?

H.2.   Can you briefly describe how Bangladesh manages irregular migration?

H.3.   How many foreign migrants were detained for immigration law offences? Can you provide data by sex, age group and country of origin from 2014 to 2018?

Prompts

a. May you please include the periods of detention (average period, most prolonged period, shortest period)?

b. Please provide the number of Bangladeshi nationals detained for violating immigration law offences, by gender, age group and destination country.

c. Please provide the number of Bangladeshi nationals who were prosecuted for violating immigration law offences, by gender, age group and country of destination.

H.4.   How many migrants were removed from Bangladesh for violating immigration laws? Can you provide data by gender, age group and country of origin?

Prompts

a. Please provide the number of Bangladeshi nationals who were removed from a foreign territory for violating immigration laws, by gender, age group and country of destination.

b. Can you present the number of deportations by station and/or port?

H.5.   How many migrants were prosecuted for violating immigration laws? Can you provide data by gender, age group and country of origin?

Prompts

a. What were the reasons for the prosecution? What was the outcome of the prosecution? What was the result of the trial?

b. How many Bangladeshi nationals were prosecuted for violating immigration laws? Can you provide data by gender, age group and destination country?

H.6. How many foreigners voluntarily elected to return to their countries of origin and were repatriated? Can you provide data by gender, age group and country of origin?

H.7. How much money was committed to detaining, prosecuting and deporting irregular migrants? How much percentage does the amount hold of the total budget of the implementing agency?

DEVELOPING A MIGRATION PROFILE FOR BANGLADESH, 2018

International Organization for Migration (IOM)

The UN Migration Agency

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Remittances and migration impacts (development, economic and non-economic)

The consultancy team requested information through the Technical Advisory Committee (TAC).

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The TAC would like to hear your views about different aspects of human migration in Bangladesh. To facilitate our discussion, we have designed a set of questions based on indicators for the Migration Profile.

Remittances

Remittances and their economic impacts

A. Dynamics of remittances

A.1. Is remittance data about the receiver (migrant's household) available?

A.2. Is data about the sender collected as administrative data?

A.3. Are remittances more significant than any other currency inflows?

A.4. How do remittance inflows compare to foreign direct investment (FDI) over the years going back to 2014?

A.5. How do remittance inflows compare to overseas development assistance (ODA) over the years going back to 2014?

A.6. What is the percentage of FDI to GDP yearly from 2014 to current?

A.7. What about the percentage of ODA to GDP yearly from 2014 to current?

A.8. What about the percentage of individual wage earners' remittances to GDP over the years?

A.9. What are the factors that account for the yearly fluctuations in remittances?

A.10. What are the factors that explain the number of remittances from single source countries?

B. Impacts

B.1. How significant are the remittances sent by individuals for (a) food security, (b) social investments in education, (c) entrepreneurship, (d) agriculture and (e) employment?

B.2. In international literature, there are concerns that migrants tend to spend their remittances on non-productive sectors. Is data available to demonstrate migrant workers' investments in entrepreneurship?

Prompts

a. What sort of entrepreneurship projects do migrant workers typically invest money in?

b. What sort of entrepreneurship projects do female migrant workers typically invest in?

B.3. Let us speak more about remittance use at the household level. Let us identify the typical expenditures of remittance money in the household.

Prompts

a. What is the nature of the migrant's asset accumulation (immovable assets, mainly)?

b. How about investments in health and education – does the migrant household spend part of the remittance on education and health?

B.4. More specifically, can we know the impact of remittance flows on the state of the country's current account?

B.5. What are the effects of remittances on prices?

B.6. In some countries, researchers have found evidence of the Dutch disease effects. Do you see these effects of remittances in Bangladesh?

B.7. Do remittances have an observable impact on export growth?

B.8. Do remittances generate additional demands for goods that are met via increased imports?

B.9. Do remittances generate additional demands for services that are met via increased imports?

B.10. In the opinion of Bangladesh Bank officials, do remittances have a positive impact on human development?

C. Data on remittances and impacts

C.1. Is there data to show the effects of remittances on poverty?

C.2. Is data to show the effects of remittances available?

C.3. Let us consider the nature of administrative data on remittances and impacts? What available data sets exist?

Prompts

a. What are the indicators for which administrative data is routinely collected?

b. Which public agencies collect, store and manage data about remittances and their impacts?

c. Can we learn about the impacts of remittances on trade from administrative data?

d. Is there any study conducted by public agencies to demonstrate the impacts of remittances on the prices of goods?

e. What kinds of administrative data about remittances does Bangladesh Bank collect?

f. Is there any information/data on impacts of remittances that Bangladesh Bank routinely collects or generates through analyses?

C.4. Is there a system for collecting and sharing data on remittances and their impacts across the Government?

D. Other dimensions of remittances

D.1. Much literature focuses on formal monetary remittances. Let us explore other dimensions of migrants.

Prompts

a. What are the kinds of goods that migrant workers remit (e.g. household appliances, vehicles machinery)?

b. What do we know about informal remittance flows into Bangladesh? What is the magnitude of these flows?

c. Is it a policy priority to reduce informal flows of remittances?

D.2. There is a lot of emphasis on remittance flows into Bangladesh. Little has been written about remittance flows out of Bangladesh to other countries. Can we explore this theme?

Prompts

a. What do we know about remittance outflows from Bangladesh?

b. How do we define such outflows?

c. Who remits from Bangladesh? Expatriates? Women? Male?

d. What is the magnitude of such remittance outflows?

e. Do families send money to migrant workers abroad?

E. Any other information on remittances and their impacts

E.1. Would you like to add any other information relevant to the themes we touched on so far?

E.2. Do you have any additional migration-related information to add?

DEVELOPING A MIGRATION PROFILE FOR BANGLADESH, 2018

International Organization for Migration (IOM)

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INTERVIEW GUIDE

Migration governance

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Migration governance

A. Institutions and institutional linkages

A.1. Let us first identify the government institution responsible for the overall coordination of migration governance issues, including internal displacement, irregular migration, student migration and labour migration. Is there a single entity with the overall responsibility of coordinating migration governance?

Prompts

a. If yes, please provide the name of the organization, website and scope of work.

b. If no, let us discuss the implications of the absence of an agency that coordinates migration governance across sectors.

c. Is the existence of such an agency in Bangladesh desirable, after all?

A.2. What mechanisms exist for cross-sectoral coordination of migration governance?

Prompts

a. Do representative committees exist, and are these functional?

b. Do steering committees exist, and are these functional?

A.3. Can you describe your organization's contribution to the governance of migration in the country? What are aspects of human migration do you address in your organization?

Prompts

a. Is your organization involved in addressing the following: (i) aspects of labour migration, (ii) aspects of environmentally induced displacement and (iii) internal displacement?

A.4. Does your organization get funding from the Government for migration-related activities?

A.5. Let us move on to those institutions in government institutions with which to collaborate. Can we list them?

A.6. Can you describe the nature of the collaboration between your organization and such institutions?

Prompts

a. Do you hold any joint meetings? How often? Any regular meetings?

b. Do you plan any joint migration-related strategies, programmes, projects, etc., with any public institution?

c. Do you jointly implement any migration-related strategies, programmes, projects, etc., with any public institution?

B. Information management and information-sharing

Let us focus on information available to stakeholders, and information-sharing mechanisms are necessary for transparency. IOM believes that openness in migration-related information is an integral aspect of a developed migration management framework.

B.1. In your opinion, to what extent do potential migrant workers have access to information about visas, permits, costs of migration and work opportunities?

Prompts

a. Is there a system to share labour market information?

b. Do people who live outside Dhaka have access to labour market information?

B.2. What mechanisms exist to make the information that migrants need accessible to prospective migrant workers?

Prompts

a. Is there a one-stop-shop that has information for prospective migrant workers?

B.3. Does a system to share migration-related information (information-sharing system) between government departments in different sectors exist?

B.4. If yes, describe the aspects of the system. Is it a website? Are there sharable, portable files and databases?

B.5.	Let us talk about the kinds of migration-related information that government departments share.

Prompts

a.	Apart from data related to labour migration, is there information about other aspects of migration (e.g. regular arrivals and departures, visas issued, permits issued, number of forced migrants, number of Bangladeshi students studying abroad and number of irregular migrants)?

B.6.	Are there mechanisms to collect information about Bangladeshi migrants abroad?

## C.	Policy and legislative frameworks

C.1.	Policy and legislative frameworks are necessary to ensure safe, gender-sensitive and orderly migration. Let us explore the adequacy of policy and legislative frameworks for migration.

C.2.	In your experience, what aspects of migration should receive more emphasis on policy and legislation than is currently possible?

Prompts

a.	Can we list those aspects of migration that your fees require policy attention?

b.	Is there any aspect of pre- and post-departure processes during migration for employment that should receive more emphasis in policy and legislation?

c.	What about female labour migrants?

d.	What about returning female labour migrants?

e.	What about returning labour migrants in general?

f.	What about the internal displacement of people due to climatic and environmental factors?

g.	Let us talk about children on the move.

h.	Let us talk about Bangladeshi students abroad.

i.	How about international students in the country?

j.	Let us talk about the non-economic impacts of migration.

C.3. Mature policy and legislative frameworks have established policy links with other sectors of the economy. I would like to know how the current migration policies in Bangladesh are connected to the critical sectors of the economy and society?

Prompts

a. Health

b. Education

c. Agriculture

d. Services

e. Services – tourism

C.4. In your opinion, do migration policies sufficiently establish links between migration and sectors of the economy?

C.5. What provisions exist in current policy, legislative and institutional arrangements to ensure the protection of the following groups of migrants:

a. Bangladeshi migrant workers before and after migration

b. Bangladeshi female migrants

c. Bangladeshi student migrants abroad

d. International students in Bangladesh

C.6. A policy challenge for Bangladesh is the sustainability of remittances. Although countries of destination will certainly demand labour in the future, advances in artificial intelligence and automation will reduce human labour demand. What is Bangladesh's policy with regard to the sustainability of remittances?

C.7. In literature, some researchers have suggested that remittances negatively affect the competitiveness of the economy unless they are channelled to specific factors.

C.8. What are policy arrangements to channel remittances to the desirable sectors of the economy?

C.9. Are there policy strategies to expand remittances soon?

C.10. In literature, bilateral agreements provide a promising channel for protecting the rights of migrant workers abroad. Do you think Bangladesh has been prosperous in using bilateral agreements to protect migrant workers abroad?

D. Governance of labour migration from Bangladesh

Labour migration is a large income and foreign exchange earner for the country. Let us briefly talk about some governance aspects of labour migration.

D.1. In literature, female migrant workers experience many gender-specific violations, including rape, unwanted touching and verbal insults. What are the policy and institutional arrangements to address the labour malpractices and violations that women endure?

D.2. Do current formal policies have provisions to help returning female migrants who experience traumatic events while working abroad?

D.3. In your view, what are the main challenges for migrants who return after a period of employment abroad?

Prompts

a. Do returning female migrants face specific challenges after arrival?

b. What challenges are specific to returning male migrants?

D.4. Do returning migrant workers report any psychological and physical trauma?

D.5. Do they indicate any physical and mental health challenges?

Prompts

a. Let us list some of them.

b. Let us list the health and other services available to returning migrant workers.

D.6. Do return migrants have access to financial resources in the country?

D.7. Let us move on to the policy, legislative and institutional arrangements for reintegrating returning migrants. What are the policy provisions for reintegration? What are the benefits and services accessible to help integrate returning migrant workers?

D.8. What challenges do return migrant workers face when reintegrating?

E. Recruitment processes

Let us consider some governance issues around the recruitment of prospective migrants for overseas employment.

E.1. Some commentators have suggested that the recruitment process is too long and has many stages. Furthermore, the opportunities for unauthorized exchange of money exist at many steps. What is your reaction to such criticism of the recruitment process?

Prompts

a. In your opinion, are reports of corruption in the migration process exaggerated?

E.2. In your opinion, is it necessary to reduce the number of stages of prospective migrants follow to migrate?

E.3. How up-to-date is the list/database of recruitment agencies online?

E.4. What are the mechanisms for monitoring the activities of recruitment agencies?

E.5. What mechanism exists in government to enforce compliance of recruitment agencies?

E.6. Can we speak about ethical conduct for recruitment agencies? What does it involve?

Prompts

a. How is ethical conduct in the migration process enforced?

E.7. Is there a reporting mechanism for recruitment agencies in Bangladesh?

Prompts

a. Are there forms, electronic or otherwise, that recruitment agencies fill to ensure compliance?

E.8. Some commentators have noted that brokers (dalals) pose some challenges to ethical recruitment. Do you think strategies to address the challenges associated with labour brokers have been successful? Why?

E.9. At different stages of the migration cycle, migrant workers access financial services. What are the success rates for accessing loans?

Prompts

    a. What is the rate of default?

    b. Let us talk about migration failure.

E.10. What are the safeguards to protect migrants from exploitation by lenders?

Prompts

    a. Are interest rates gazetted and reviewed regularly?

F. Any other migration governance issues

F.1. Would you like to add any other information relevant to migration governance in Bangladesh?

F.2. Would you like to add any other information connected to the governance of migrant workers?

F.3. Do you have any additional migration-related information to add?

ANNEX 2: DATA TABLES REQUESTED THROUGH THE TECHNICAL ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Table number	Title
1	International migrant stock by age and sex, 1980–2018
2	Migrant stock by country of origin, 1990–2018
3	International migrant stock by age and sex, 2000–2018
4	Work visas (temporary work permits) issued by year and sex, 2010–2018
5	Permanent residency visas/permits issued to foreigners, 2010–2018
6	Distribution of temporary work visas (permits) issued by sex and country of origin (top 10 countries), 2010–2018
7	Distribution of temporary work visas (permits) issued by sex and sector of employment in Bangladesh, 2000–2018
8	Distribution of citizenship status granted by sex and country of origin (top 10 countries), 2010–2018
9	Study/student visas issued to foreigners by sex and country of origin (top 10 countries), 2010–2018
10	Student visas issued by sex and field of study in Bangladesh, 2010–2018
11	Forcibly displaced foreigners in Bangladesh by sex and country of origin (top 5 countries), 2010–2018
12	Forcibly displaced foreigners in Bangladesh (adult and children population), 2010–2018
13	Forcibly displaced foreigners (children population) in Bangladesh by age group and country of origin, 2010–2018
14	Bangladeshi nationals living abroad by sex and country of destination (top 15 countries), 2010–2010
15	Bangladeshi tertiary students studying outside Bangladesh by sex and country of destination (top 10 countries), 2010–2018
16	Bangladeshi tertiary students studying outside Bangladesh by sex, field of study and country of destination (top 10), 2010–2018
17	Bangladeshi tertiary students studying outside the country by sex and place of origin in Bangladesh, 2010–2018
18	Bangladeshi nationals living outside the country by year, sex and place of origin in Bangladesh, 2010–2018
19	Foreigners who paid a penalty fee for violating immigration rules in Bangladesh by sex and country of origin (top 10 countries), 2010–2018
20	Foreigners prosecuted in Bangladesh for violating migration rules by sex and country of origin (top 10 countries), 2010–2018
21	Foreigners deported from Bangladesh for violating migration rules by sex and country of origin (top 10 countries), 2010–2018
22	Foreigners who overstayed in Bangladesh by sex and country of origin (top 10 countries), 2010–2018
23	Bangladeshi nationals forcibly returned to the country by sex and foreign country, 2010–2018

Table number	Title
24	Bangladeshi nationals seeking refuge (due to threats to their life from disasters and political violence) in other countries by sex and place of asylum, 2010–2018
25	Bangladeshi nationals who were returned by a foreign country after a violation of migration rules by sex and destination (top 10 destinations), 2010–2018
26	Internally displaced persons and new displacement associated with disasters (number of cases), 2010–2018
27	Total internal displacement due to conflict and violence (number of people), 2010–2018
28	Selected economic indicators, 2009–2018
29	Wage earners' remittances (USD) received by source country and percentage contribution to the annual total individual remittances received, 2010–2018
30	Remittance outflows (USD) from Bangladesh to other countries for family purposes and study purposes by destination country and percentage contribution to the total remittance outflow, 2010–2018
31	Overseas employment by sex and destination country (top 20 and others), 2000–2018
32	Returning migrants by division and sex, 2010–2018
33	Returning migrants by division and marital status, 2010–2018
34	Migrants by sex, year of departure and occupation/profession before migration, 2000–2018
35	Occupations/Professions of migrants recorded at departure or after, by sex and country of destination/emigration, 2010–2018
36	Cost of migration recruitment (maximum, minimum, average) by destination, 2010–2018 (USD)

ANNEX 3: FUNCTIONS OF THE TECHNICAL ADVISORY COMMITTEE

The TAC was established to:

- Provide strategic advice to IOM and the international consultant to ensure the use of quality data and robust analysis in the development of the migration profile;

- Facilitate access to relevant contacts and sources of information in government and non-governmental organizations;

- Help determine the credibility of sources of information;

- Review the intermediate outputs (which include an inception report, study protocol, data matrices, and drafts of the Migration Profile and the policy brief) profile and put forward suggestions to improve their quality;

- Review the progress of the Migration Profile development and address any constraints to data collection and write-up;

- Provide input to requests for information circulated via email and telephone;

- Participate in the validation meeting/workshop;

- Identify and co-opt other prospective TAC members.

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