



PATHWAYS FOR EMPOWERING EMPLOYMENT

DIVERSITY AND CHALLENGES FOR WOMEN MIGRANT WORKERS OF BANGLADESH



Schweizerische Eidgenossenschaft
Confédération suisse
Confederazione Svizzera
Confederaziun svizra

Swiss Agency for Development
and Cooperation SDC



International
Labour
Organization



Pathways for Empowering Employment:
Diversity and Challenges for Women Migrant Workers of Bangladesh

Research conducted by

Julaikha Bente Hossain
Asian Institute of Technology (AIT), Thailand

Review team: UN Women

Shoko Ishikawa, *Country Representative*
Palash Das, *Programme Management Specialist*
Tapati Saha, *Programme Analyst*
Punna Islam, *Jr. Programme Officer*

Published

September 2018

© 2018 UN Women

Design and Print

PATHWAY
117/1, Shantinagor
Dhaka-1217, Bangladesh
www.pathway.com.bd

Pathways for Empowering Employment:
Diversity and Challenges for Women Migrant
Workers of Bangladesh

MESSAGE

I am immensely delighted to learn that UN Women, in coordination with the International Labour Organization (ILO) and with support from the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC), is publishing a study aimed at exploring Japan as a new potential employment market and a study of caregiver and beautician as two potential trade opportunities for the upgradation of female migrants from Bangladesh.

The Government of Bangladesh recognizes the importance of Japan as an attractive and suitable destination for semi-skilled women migrant workers from Bangladesh and has been taking the necessary initiatives to build strong partnerships with this blooming country of destination, the Technical Intern Training Programme being just one such initiative. We highly appreciate UN Women and ILO's in-depth analysis to unveil new trade opportunities that are well-suited and that can open up wider and safer avenues of employment for Bangladeshi women migrant workers. I also acknowledge their endeavour to support the Government of Bangladesh in this regard by conducting a study on labour markets in Japan, outlining the specific needs to prepare a skilled labour force for the market, mapping the usefulness of trade-specific skills training and the value in training on the Japanese language, work culture and lifestyle.

I strongly believe that both the studies will be very useful guiding tools and resources to aid the government in the expansion and upgradation of Bangladesh women migrant workers in the overseas employment market.

Once again, I take the opportunity to express my heartfelt gratitude for this timely initiative to SDC for supporting the project, to UN Women and ILO officials, the researcher and all the associated individuals. The findings from the studies are an indispensable means to commit to achieving a safe, orderly and regular migration. They greatly supplement our efforts to reduce vulnerabilities and to economically empower women migrant workers.



Dr. Nomita Halder, ndc

Secretary
Bangladesh Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment

FOREWORD

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development recognizes migration as a critical element for sustainable development. Bangladesh is strongly committed to achieving safe, orderly and regular migration for all migrant workers — including women. The Government of Bangladesh is also committed to Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) General Recommendation 26 that addresses the concerns of female migrant workers and calls on states to formulate gender-sensitive and right-based policies. UN Women is working together with the government, development partners, civil society organizations and the private sector to help achieve these global commitments at all levels.

Safe migration is empowering for women. However, the prevailing migration trends in Bangladesh, where the majority of women migrant workers are working as domestic help (primarily in Gulf Cooperation Council countries), restricts their empowerment with unsafe and challenging migration experiences. Forced labour, confinement, informal (and unregulated) employment, confiscation of legal documents, trafficking, physical abuse and sexual violence and limited economic and social return for their overseas labour are only a few of the risks, vulnerabilities and challenges that migrant women workers face.

The government has an obligation to protect the human rights of its people, and hence a responsibility to reduce the vulnerability of Bangladeshi women migrating abroad for work. The government considers this to be an area of utmost priority. It therefore needs to take strict measures to address these challenges and to make significant efforts to develop overseas employment processes, including improving the quality of the labour force.

According to the Seventh Five-Year Plan of the Government of Bangladesh (2016–2020), semi-skilled labour for overseas employment should rise from 17.10 per cent to 22 per cent during the period; the percentages for female migrant workers should rise from 17.86 per cent to 30 per cent. The government also projects a growth of formal employment for women, from 7.7 per cent to 15 per cent and projects a reduction in informal sector growth from 92.3 per cent to 85 per cent.

Committed to ensuring the protection and empowerment of women migrant workers in alignment with the outlined targets, the Government of Bangladesh recognizes the need to explore new employment markets and additional trade opportunities that are safe and that provide dignified work opportunities. For this reason, UN Women (in collaboration with the International Labour Organization and financial support from the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation) commissioned these two studies: an analysis of Japan as a potential destination for work for Bangladeshi women and an analysis of caregivers in health care and beauticians in beauty parlours as two potential formal labour sector occupations.

The first study reveals the potential for Japan to become an alternative destination for women migrant workers, particularly with recent changes in Japan's Technical Intern

Training Programme. These changes have expanded opportunities for semi-skilled and skilled foreign workers in a number of occupations. The study identifies investments that the Government of Bangladesh will need to make in high-quality occupation/trade-specific skills training, language training and training on Japanese work culture and lifestyle, among others, to upgrade women workers' skill sets such that they are able to take advantage of the new opportunities. The information and data analysis combined with the perspectives and practical experiences of current workers provide a strong outlook on this potential market for women.

The second study analyses the possibilities of shifting from labour migration focused on domestic work to labour migration focused on semi-skilled and higher value-centric jobs. The study presents unexplored opportunities for Bangladeshi women workers to fill labour shortages as caregivers for ageing populations in high-demand Asian countries such as Hong Kong SAR, Japan, the Republic of Korea, Singapore and Taiwan (Republic of China).

It also analyses the opportunities to work in beauty parlours in the Gulf Cooperation Council countries, which are heavily reliant on Asian migrant workers. The study unveiled that in addition to relevant education and basic work experience, specific skills training is a major factor that affects the demand for Bangladeshi female workers in the beautician and caregiving fields.

In this context, it is notable that over the last decade, the Government of Bangladesh has enacted the Overseas Employment and Migrants' Act, 2013 and has undertaken several initiatives to ensure the safe and beneficial migration of female workers. Such steps include training in languages and trade-specific skills.

We hope these two studies will be useful for the Government of Bangladesh to develop a roadmap towards realizing the potential of new employment options and new markets for women so that they have safer and more fulfilling options to build a better future for themselves and their families. .



Mr Tuomo Poutiainen
Country Director
ILO Country Office for
Bangladesh



Ms Beate Elsässer
Deputy Head of Mission and
Director of Cooperation
Swiss Agency for Development
and Cooperation (SDC)



Ms Shoko Ishikawa
Country Representative
UN Women Bangladesh

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

BMET	Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training
BOESL	Bangladesh Overseas Employment Services Limited
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
GDP	Gross domestic product
Hong Kong SAR	Hong Kong Special Administrative Region of the People's Republic of China
ICRRA	Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act
ILO	International Labour Organization
IT	Information technology
JICWELS	Japan International Corporation of Welfare Services
JITCO	Japan International Training Organization
MoU	Memorandum of understanding
NGO	Non-governmental organization
SDC	Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation
TITP	Technical Intern Training Programme
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (formerly UNIFEM)

TABLE OF CONTENT

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY	11
CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION	21
<i>Background of the Research</i>	22
<i>Selecting the Country of Destination and Specific Occupations</i>	25
<i>Scope of the Research</i>	26
<i>Methodology</i>	27
<i>Research Approach</i>	29
<i>Ethical Considerations</i>	30
CHAPTER II EXPANDING EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES FOR BANGLADESHI FEMALE MIGRANT WORKERS IN JAPAN	33
2.1 MAJOR FINDINGS	34
<i>Overview of Japan's Labour Immigration Policies</i>	34
<i>Current Employment Trends and Demand for Female Migrant Workers</i>	39
<i>Salary Structures and Trends: Pay Projections, Labour Rights and Protections and Access to Other Services and Benefits</i>	45
<i>Entry and Employment Requirements for Female Migrant Workers in Japan</i>	47
<i>Current Rules and Regulations for Migrant Workers and Common Human Rights Issues in Japan</i>	50
<i>Supply Opportunities from Bangladesh to Japan</i>	52
<i>Potential Effects and Implications within the Stages of the Migration</i>	54
<i>Prospects and Projections of Employment by Occupation for Bangladeshi Female Migrant Workers in Japan</i>	59
2.2 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	62
CHAPTER III SELECTED OCCUPATIONS TO EXPLORE NEW OPPORTUNITIES FOR BANGLADESHI FEMALE MIGRANT WORKERS	67
3.1 MAJOR FINDINGS	68
<i>An Introduction to Female Migrant Workers of Bangladesh</i>	68
<i>Caregiving Work: An Overview</i>	69
<i>Beautician work: An Overview</i>	82
<i>Female labour migration process from Bangladesh</i>	86
<i>Analysis of International Migration of Bangladeshi Female Workers and Policy Implications</i>	92
3.2 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	98

FIGURE

Figure 1:	Cumulative Percentage of Migrant Workers from Bangladesh, by Gender, 2001–2017	23
Figure 2:	Overseas Employment of Female Workers from 1991 to 2017	25
Figure 3:	Trends in the Number of Technical Intern Trainees by Nationality in Japan, 2011-2016	38
Figure 5:	Migrant Workers in Japan	40
Figure 4:	Foreign share of Japan's Population (%), 1970–2016	40
Figure 6:	Foreign Workers in Service Sectors, Japan (2016)	43
Figure 7:	Flow of the Technical Intern Training Programme	48
Figure 8:	Requirements Specific to Care Workers	49
Figure 9:	Number of Bangladeshi Female Workers Migrating in Each Year, 1991 to 2017	69
Figure 10:	Percentage of Women in Bangladesh's Overseas Migrant Worker Flow, 1991 to 2017	69
Figure 11:	Percentage Distribution of Population Aged 65 and Over by Region: 2015 and 2050	71
Figure A1:	Major Differences between the Old System and the New System after 2016 Labour Law Revision	105

TABLE

Table 1:	Application of Laws and Regulations in Japan (revised in 2016)	50
Table 2:	Labour Market Needs and Potential Opportunities for Bangladeshi Female Migrant Workers under the Trainee System in Japan	53
Table 3:	Projection of Number of Bangladeshi Female Migrant Workers Employed in Japan, by Occupation, 2018 – 2022	61
Table 4:	Ageing Population (65 and Over) as Percentage of Total Population	71
Table 5:	Total Number of Migrant Care Workers in Asia's Main Destination Countries, 2014	74
Table 6:	Pay Projection for Foreign Care Workers in Singapore and Hong Kong SAR, in US dollars	76
Table 7:	Projections by BMET for the Number of Bangladeshi Female Caregivers Employed in Singapore and Hong Kong SAR, 2018 to 2023	83
Table 8:	Pay Projection for Bangladeshi Female Migrant Beauticians in Gulf Countries	84
Table 9:	Comparative Table of Domestic Worker Provisions in Saudi Arabia, Qatar and UAE	89
Table 10:	Projection for the Number of Bangladeshi Female Migrant Beauticians Employed in the Gulf Countries	92
Table A1:	Overseas Employment in Japan from Bangladesh, 2004 to October 2017	103
Table A2:	Occupations of Female Migrant Workers who Departed Bangladesh Each Year from 2011 to 2016	126

TABLE

Annex A:	List of People Interviewed for this Study	102
Annex B:	Overseas Employment in Japan from Bangladesh, 2004 to October 2017	103
Annex C:	Major Differences Between the old System and the New System After 2016 Labour Law Revision	105
Annex D:	Approved Occupations for Technical Intern Training II	106
Annex E:	Special Limitations on the Number of Accepted Technical Intern Trainees	111
Annex F:	Care Worker in Technical Intern Training Programme	112
Annex G:	List of People and Organizations Interviewed	125
Annex H:	Occupations of Female Migrant Workers Who Departed Bangladesh Each Year from 2011 To 2016	126

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Research Background

This report comprises two overlapping external market analyses of opportunities for Bangladeshi female migrant workers: 'External Market Analysis to Expand Employment Opportunities for Bangladeshi Female Migrant Workers in Japan' and 'External Market Analysis of Selected Occupations to Explore New Opportunities for Bangladeshi Female Migrant Workers'.

'External Market Analysis to Expand Employment Opportunities for Bangladeshi Female Migrant Workers in Japan' analyses the labour migration policies that affect new job opportunities for Bangladeshi female migrants in Japan and the labour migration processes that may permit or prevent these women from accessing those jobs. It identifies the occupational sectors that the migrants could possibly enter and the skills they would need to acquire to do so.

To date, low-skilled, semi-skilled and less-educated Bangladeshi women have been going abroad mostly for domestic work. 'External Market Analysis of Selected Occupations to Explore New Opportunities for Bangladeshi Female Migrant Workers' explores new opportunities for Bangladeshi female migrant workers — caregiving and the beautician business — that offer semi-skilled and higher-value jobs in countries of destination, primarily in East and South-East Asia and in the Persian Gulf region.

These new opportunities could help to reduce the number of female migrants in low-skilled domestic work. Very few studies have documented new corridors and new labour opportunities for Bangladeshi female migrant workers that match destination countries' market demands. This study hopes to fill that gap from a gender perspective and a human rights-based approach. Such information could be very valuable in making policies to promote the female migrant flow, thus lifting the status of Bangladeshi female migrant workers. Bangladesh has been one of Asia's major labour-sending countries for a long time, particularly since 2000.¹ Overseas employment is very important for Bangladesh's economy and people. Remittances increased to over \$17 billion in 2017, from less than \$2 billion in 2000.² From 2012 to 2014, 500,000 Bangladeshis found jobs abroad.³

Bangladeshi female migrant workers have been working primarily in Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries⁴ and in west-Asian countries such as Jordan and Lebanon. Other destination countries for Bangladeshi female workers have emerged in recent years, including Hong Kong SAR, Italy, Japan, Mauritius, Republic of Korea and Singapore. Bangladeshi female migrants are mostly concentrated in particular occupations like

1 BMET. See <http://www.bmet.gov.bd/BMET/viewStatReport.action?reportnumber=17> (accessed 27 November 2017).

2 Ibid.

3 Asian Development Bank, *Bangladesh: Looking beyond Garments, Employment Diagnostic Study (Manila, 2016)*.

4 GCC countries include Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates.

housekeeping, cleaning and ready-made garment machine operator; few are involved as occupations such as beauticians, babysitting or sales.

Bangladeshi female workers often migrate abroad in order to support their families. If the migration is safe and dignified, overseas employment can enhance their earnings, skills, autonomy and empowerment, thereby changing traditional gender roles and responsibilities and contributing to gender equality.

After the country's ban on female workers' international migration was lifted in 2006, Bangladeshi women increasingly travelled abroad. From 1991 to 2017, 696,000 women migrated for overseas employment (6.07 per cent of all migrant workers).⁵ A 2014 UN Women study found adequate opportunities for female migrant workers to diversify their skills and explore new job prospects and new destinations.⁶ A systematic market analysis is needed as an initial step towards expanding such opportunities for Bangladeshi women.

A desk review and field research in Bangladesh and Japan were conducted for these analyses. The field data was drawn from in-depth interviews and focus group discussions from August to October 2017. Interviews and focus group discussions included Bangladeshi female migrant workers who had worked in Japan and other countries, government representatives and agencies, recruiting agencies, employers in Japan, international organizations (including the International Labour Organization, the International Organization for Migration, the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation and UN Women), non-governmental organizations and migrants' associations in Bangladesh and Japan, banking institutions that facilitate remittances and research institutions that conduct research and advocacy on behalf of migrants.

Key Findings

External Market Analysis to Expand Employment Opportunities for Bangladeshi Female Migrant Workers in Japan

Bangladesh is one of Asia's major labour-sending countries, but its flow is highly gendered. Of the 11.29 million Bangladeshi migrants who were working or who had worked abroad during the 2001 to 2017 period, only 6.07 per cent were women. From 2004 to 2017, the total number of Bangladeshi migrant workers in Japan was 1,153 – but just 23 were women.

The type of work for which migrant workers are hired is gendered in nature as well, with Bangladeshi women in Japan concentrated in garment, housekeeping and sales work, while Bangladeshi men hold production-related, diversified jobs.

Female migrant workers from Bangladesh, who are predominantly semi- and low-

5 BMET. See <http://www.bmet.gov.bd/BMET/viewStatReport.action?reportnumber=28> (accessed 25 March 2018).

6 UN Women, Study on External Market Analysis for Women Migrant Workers under the project Promoting Decent Work through Improved Migration Policy and its Applications in Bangladesh (UN Women, 2014).

skilled, currently fill labour shortages in Japan. These women migrate to Japan because of unemployment and insecurity of livelihoods in Bangladesh and the desire for higher earnings and economic independence. The Technical Intern Training Programme has brought these women significant financial benefits and has empowered them by enabling them to learn new skills and to enhance their decision-making power and freedom.

Previously, Japan admitted only short-term migrant workers (de facto low-skilled workers). More recently, it has adopted immigration policies focused on creating more (and more diversified) opportunities for foreign migrant workers and professionals through increased private-sector employment. The Government of Japan has also implemented migrant recruitment schemes targeted at workers across the skills spectrum and expanded the numbers of migrants and length of stay, offering trainees up to five years of residency.

The study found that there is high demand for professionals and skilled female (and male) migrant workers in information technology (IT) and in nursing and caregiving services in Japan. There is also demand for low-skilled and semi-skilled migrant workers in the textile/garments industry, manufacturing and services sectors. Priority will be given to skills for specific occupations, though, according to Japanese recruiting agencies, the Government of Japan would prefer female migrants for the health-care and service sectors.

Employment demand in the information technology, nursing and caregiving sectors in Japan opens new alternative employment opportunities for Bangladeshi women. To avail themselves of these opportunities, they will need occupation/trade-specific skills, proficiency in Japanese and comprehension of Japanese work culture and lifestyle.

Bangladesh's public and private training institutes do not appear to offer good-quality orientation, or the kinds of skills training needed by women going to Japan to work (e.g. language, culture, living style, workplace behaviour, trade-specific skills). In the case of occupation/trade-specific skills trainings, there are no proper mechanisms to incorporate the skills required by Japanese companies into the curricula of the training institutes. For example, trainers in private institutions (mainly diploma degree holders) lack appropriate knowledge and methods to incorporate the demands of Japanese companies into the training curricula, nor do they research what skills potential migrants need in Japanese companies.

This results in inefficiencies in developing both the short-term and long-term skills of Bangladeshi female workers. Compared with the training institutes, recruiting agencies might be a better choice in that they provide short-term, occupation/trade-specific skills trainings tailored to the requirements of Japanese companies.

Accommodations during workers' pre-departure training programmes in Bangladesh are another problem reported by Bangladeshi female workers in Japan. It is extremely difficult for female workers to find adequate accommodations when they attend Technical Training Centres that do not have accommodation facilities. Even when the centres do have such facilities, they are not secure and provide low-quality food and accommodation to the potential migrants. As a result, women may not attend for the entire duration of a training. This report emphasizes the importance of pre-departure and skills training.

Many Bangladeshi female workers migrating to Japan are still using the services of unregulated individual intermediaries (*dalals*) to facilitate migration instead of directly contacting authorized recruitment agencies. Their significant dependence on *dalals* at every stage of the migration process — without an adequate understanding of the process — makes them highly vulnerable to abuse and exploitation (more vulnerable than male migrant workers). Using the *dalals* also results in higher costs for the workers. This is both an economic and a human rights problem.

Lack of knowledge about the Bangladesh diplomatic mission in Japan and its functions hinders female migrant workers from seeking help when faced with communications and other problems.

External Market Analysis of Selected Occupations to Explore New Opportunities for Bangladeshi Female Migrant Workers

Ageing populations and domestic labour shortages are generating demand for more migrant caregivers, both in Western countries and in Asian countries, including Hong Kong SAR, Japan, Republic of Korea, Singapore and Taiwan (Republic of China). Demand in East and South-East Asia also results from increased cultural acceptance of the outsourcing of family care to non-family caregivers and the reluctance of the rising middle classes to do this work.

While Bangladeshi women have good opportunities to work as caregivers in Asian countries such as Hong Kong SAR, Japan and Singapore, they also have good opportunities to work in beauty parlours in the Gulf Cooperation Council countries. These countries are heavily reliant on Asian migrant workers and are engaged in large-scale infrastructure projects and other significant economic and social changes.

Asian destinations such as Hong Kong SAR and Singapore maintain immigration and labour policies that facilitate the hiring of migrant care workers by local families. Working conditions and salaries are relatively good. In the GCC countries, notwithstanding recent reforms that have improved conditions, various studies and testimony from Bangladeshi women who have worked as caregivers and beauticians there have shown a range of rights violations, including underpayment of wages, excessive working hours, restrictions on movement, charges in terms of employment and physical or sexual abuse. Critics attribute many of these problems to the *kefala*, or sponsorship, system in which employers maintain a regulated set of rights over the workers they bring into the country.

This report highlights specific actions to protect female migrant workers' rights and identifies certain legislative and policy gaps that must be addressed in order to ensure a comprehensive gender-sensitive approach to migration.

The Government of Bangladesh has taken several good initiatives over the last decade to ensure the safe and beneficial migration of female workers, including the Overseas Employment and Migrants' Act, 2013; a Code of Conduct for recruitment agencies; public information programmes on how to migrate safely; training in trade-specific skills; and instruction in the Arabic and English languages.

This study found that while relevant education and work experience have major roles, skills training is the one factor that could decide the demand for Bangladeshi female workers in occupations like caregiving. Thus, if these women can be trained in relevant skills (and have those skills recognized through proper certification), Bangladesh can strengthen its negotiation and bargaining power in the international labour market and can open up greater opportunities for its female workers.

Recommendations

Based on these findings, the following recommendations can be made:

Promoting job opportunities for Bangladeshi women in diversified sectors in Japan

- The capacity of government-approved sending organizations (particularly the Bangladesh Overseas Employment Services Limited and the Bureau of Manpower and Training⁷) to look for and offer more jobs for women in diversified sectors in Japan can be strengthened.
- For female workers to go to Japan, government-to-government recruitment will be made through government-authorized recruiting agencies. Starting 1 September 2018, all workers migrating through Japan's Technical Intern Training Programme must go through government-approved sending organizations such as Bangladesh Overseas Employment Services Limited (BOESL) and Bureau of Manpower Employment and Training (BMET).⁸
- The Bangladesh Embassy in Japan should continue to promote opportunities for Bangladeshi female workers in diversified sectors in Japan, such as by organizing seminars for Japanese employers and recruiters on the specific sectors (such as health care, IT, garments, construction and services) in which Bangladeshi women now have good opportunities for employment.
- Bilateral negotiations and agreements can be valuable instruments for promoting Bangladesh as a source of female (and male) workers for occupations in demand in Japan. Japanese recruiting associations prefer to recruit Bangladeshi workers through bilateral negotiations. The Bangladesh Embassy in Japan should facilitate these channels.

Bilateral negotiations and agreements

- The Government of Bangladesh can negotiate with Japan and other destination countries to establish sets of standards on migration costs, wages and terms and conditions of employment consistent with host countries' labour laws.
- The 2016 Technical Intern Training Act has tried to address some of the concerns for the protection of migrant workers as technical intern trainees by putting in place a stronger supervisory system. However, the Government of Bangladesh needs to be aware of this, strengthen support to the Labour Attaché in Tokyo and keep in close coordination and dialogue with the Organization for Technical Intern Training (OTIT) to ensure that the supervisory system really protects the trainees.

7 <http://www.otit.go.jp/files/user/docs/300328-2.pdf>

8 Source: Bangladesh Embassy in Japan.

- To facilitate direct labour recruitment, the Government of Bangladesh can negotiate with Japan to establish a database that would allow Japanese employers to directly select workers from Bangladesh. The database should contain a specific list of available workers sorted by international standard job classification (e.g. International Standard Classification of Occupations).
- Government-to-government recruitment channels should be encouraged in order to increase job opportunities for female migrant workers and to lessen the role of unregulated intermediaries (*dalals*) in migration processes.
- Negotiations and memorandums of understanding with destination countries should include agreements on skills accreditation and standardization of training for female migrant workers (such as caregivers).
- The Government of Bangladesh should negotiate with other destination countries to establish an organized database that would allow employers to directly select workers from Bangladesh. The database would contain a list of available workers sorted by international standard job classification (the current BMET database does not follow international standard job classification). An improved and updated classification system would help recruiting agencies and employers better see what types of workers are available for openings. It also would help counter perceptions in some countries that Bangladesh can only supply low-skilled labour.

Pre-departure orientation training

- The Government of Bangladesh should ensure that standard pre-departure training for female migrant workers to Japan and other destination countries includes information on human rights and international labour standards, consular support, legal redress, shelter support and mechanisms for reporting and resolving complaints.
- Orientation trainings for female migrant workers need more focus on the Japanese and English languages and on Japan's society, economy and culture. Japanese companies are very selective in hiring foreign workers and are particularly demanding in these requirements.
- The Institute of Language at the University of Dhaka and Alkhamis International (a recruiting agency in Japan with a language centre in Dhaka) have started providing Japanese language training to prospective migrants. The Government of Bangladesh will benefit if the Technical Training Centres follow these institutes lead on improving their training structure.
- Female migrant workers should be given orientation earlier – not while they are unable to focus on the orientation because they are making travel preparations and worried about leaving their families. Orientations should be given during the pre-selection period when the workers are waiting for final confirmation from the recruiting agencies on their job applications. Orientations given at that time will also help the applicants decide if they will be able to adjust to and work in destination countries (e.g., Japan).
- It will benefit the Government of Bangladesh if it financially supports the capacity building of a core of proficient teachers who can teach the Japanese language and Japanese etiquette, behaviour and attitudes.
- Opening district-level branch offices and engaging civil society organizations to provide pre-departure training would reduce the pressure on central government training centres.

- The government should intensify monitoring of orientation training institutes and penalize recruitment agencies and agents who issue spurious training certificates.

Skills training

- The Government of Bangladesh can take the initiative to prepare female migrant workers through skills training geared towards the diversified sectors (e.g. caregiving and beautification as well as health care, IT, garments, construction and services) in which they have good opportunities for employment.
- Before organizing skills training, the government should commission a needs-based study to identify the particular skills required for female migrant workers in current and emerging labour markets.
- The government's Technical Training Centres should seek accreditation from internationally recognized training authorities.
- The government should provide incentives for female workers to invest in developing their skills before migrating; they currently have little such incentive.
- Skills training should be offered in collaboration with Japanese and other destination country companies and associations in order to ensure that the training meets employers' specific demands. For example, care work training can be coordinated with the Japan International Corporation of Welfare Services; the Bangladesh Embassy can facilitate such arrangements. The Government of Bangladesh should work with certified private recruiting agencies in Japan and Bangladesh that specialize in providing occupation and trade-based skills training. Such public-private partnerships would improve training programmes.
- Training centres should keep in mind that Japan is highly advanced in technology. Thus, training in caregiving, for example, should include training the workers on how to use the actual machines and technology that are used in caregiving in Japan.

The role of Bangladesh embassies in destination countries

- The embassies and missions should take the lead to help promote job opportunities for female migrant care workers and beauticians and to ensure that their rights are protected.
- BMET, Bangladesh missions, Bangladesh Association of International Recruitment Agencies members and workers' organizations should hold regular dialogues to ensure the safe migration of care workers and beauticians and the protection of their rights in destination countries.
- The Government of Bangladesh and its overseas embassies should cooperate to try to dispel employers' perceptions that Bangladeshi female workers are low-skilled, compared to workers from India and Pakistan, who are perceived as semi-skilled.
- Bangladesh missions should maintain registries of all arriving female migrant care workers and beauticians. The missions should use social media to inform and update the workers about local labour rights laws and practices and encourage workers to report any violations to the missions.
- The government should ensure that its ministries and overseas missions have adequate human and financial resources to provide legal assistance to female migrant care workers and beauticians in the destination countries.
- To expand job opportunities for these care workers and beauticians and to

showcase the skills of Bangladeshi workers, Bangladesh's development partners and embassies should organize job fairs and seminars for Bangladesh recruitment agencies and employers from recruiting countries.

- The Government of Bangladesh should consider deploying to all foreign missions qualified staff members dedicated to helping female migrant workers at risk of occupational safety, health and social problems.

The role of intergovernmental and international agencies

- Bangladesh ministries and UN Women should conduct advocacy campaigns to dispel negative misperceptions about female migrant workers, such as that they are low-skilled or have religious practices that would hamper their work. This could include putting documents on their websites showcasing success stories of these workers and their education and skills. They can also organize seminars and dialogues with employers for this purpose.
- Intergovernmental agencies, such as UN Women, ILO and the International Organization for Migration, should act as intermediaries between Bangladesh and destination countries in balancing the interests of both sides in female labour migration by providing technical support in their areas of expertise.
- ILO should consider providing technical assistance to any potential initiative to enable formal recognition of beauty parlours as an industry in Bangladesh. This would help returning migrants who wish to make use of their overseas work experience to set up their own beauty parlours.
- Development partners should give Bangladesh financial and technical support to ensure a lawful migration process with demand-supply matching in terms of workers' skills.

Information sharing on migration

- The government should share more of its data and information on its international labour migration policies and actions with civil society organizations and academia. Government offices are often unwilling to share such information. This lack of transparency impedes advocacy work to secure the rights of migrants, especially female migrants, and attempts by researchers to get proper data on labour migration.

Regulating intermediaries in female labour migration

- Bangladesh should consider establishing a new gender-sensitive legal framework to regulate exploitative intermediaries, recruiting agents and subagents.

Building awareness on safe migration

- Civil society organizations should be more proactive at the grass-roots level in raising awareness among women and girls about prospects for overseas employment, the benefits of formal migration channels, the risks of informal channels and the exploitation of female domestic workers in countries where there are no laws or policies protecting them.

Helping returnee migrants

- The government and civil society organizations should consider helping returnee migrants who wish to set up their own beauty parlours by providing them with information and support for access to credit.

Further research needed

- This research is aimed at exploring job opportunities for Bangladeshi female migrants in care work and beautician work. Its limitations include limited reliable labour market information, especially in the GCC countries. Further research is needed to cover these gaps, especially human resource development in the caregiving and beautician sectors. Cross-country research should be done on the supply and demand of female migrant workers in these sectors.
- Further research is also needed to address legislative and policy gaps in these sectors in order to ensure a coherent and comprehensive, gender-sensitive approach to female labour migration.

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Background of the Research

Bangladesh has been an important labour-sending country for a long time; labour flows have become increasingly substantial, especially since 2000. BMET Statistics show that over 1,008,525 Bangladeshis migrated for work from 2001 to 2017,⁹ Bangladeshi women have reaped significant financial benefits from migrant work, which also has enhanced their decision-making power in their families and allowed them to learn new skills.¹⁰

Overseas employment is very important to Bangladesh's economy and people. Remittances from Bangladeshi migrant workers have been a major source of the country's foreign exchange and economic development over the last decade.¹¹ According to the Government's Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training (BMET), remittances increased to over \$13.5 billion in 2017, from less than \$2 billion in 2000.¹²

Female migrants¹³ used to account for an insignificant proportion of Bangladesh's overseas migrant flow — only 1 per cent in 2004.¹⁴ Previous government policies

discouraged Bangladeshi female workers from migrating, and society stigmatized those who challenged traditional gender roles and migrated for work. In 1997, the government responded to widespread reports of physical and sexual abuse of domestic workers (particularly in the countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council) by banning migration of semi-skilled and low-skilled female workers. However, female workers continued to migrate overseas through irregular channels. Thus, a policy designed to protect women made them more vulnerable to trafficking, abuse and exploitation. Critics, including civil society groups, said the ban reflected a paternalistic view of women and violated their right to migrate for employment. Under pressure, the government lifted the ban in 2006.¹⁵ The Bangladesh Overseas Employment Policy of 2006 has brought about significant changes in migration policy, including age limits of 25 to 45 years for women seeking overseas employment.¹⁶

The government's Perspective Plan (2010-2021) and the Sixth Five Year Plan (2011-2015) recognize Bangladeshi female migrant workers as an important part of

9 BMET, <http://www.old.bmet.gov.bd/BMET/viewStatReport.action?reportnumber=20> (accessed 25 March 2018).

10 Nurul Islam, Migration Scenario: Nature, Patterns and Trends, BMET, Country Paper. Available from <http://www.bmet.gov.bd/BMET/resources/Static%20PDF%20and%20DOC/publication/Country%20Paper%20Migration.pdf>

11 Asian Development Bank, Overseas Employment of Bangladesh's Workers. ADB Briefs No. 63. (Manila, August 2016).

12 BMET. See <http://www.old.bmet.gov.bd/BMET/viewStatReport.action?reportnumber=20> (accessed 27 November 2017).

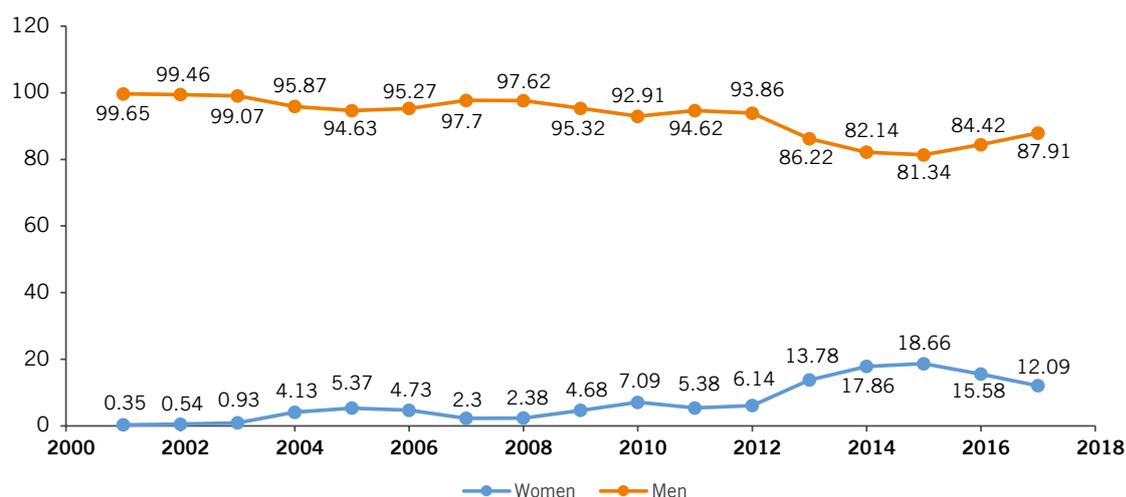
13 This research follows the definition of "migrants/migrant workers" in the United Nations International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families. Migrant worker refers to a person who is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national.

14 BMET report on gender analysis of migration. Available from <http://www.bmet.org.bd/BMET/resources/Static%20PDF%20and%20DOC/publication/Gender%20Analysis%20of%20Migration.pdf>

15 Martin van der Velde and Ton van Naerssen, *Mobility and Migration Choices: Thresholds to Crossing Borders* (Routledge, 2016).

16 MFA members in Bangladesh, CEDAW and the female labour migrants of Bangladesh. Available from http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CEDAW/Shared%20Documents/BGD/INT_CEDAW_NGO_BGD_48_8124_E.pdf

Figure 1: Cumulative Percentage of Migrant Workers from Bangladesh, by Gender, 2001–2017



Source: BMET

the economy.¹⁷ The Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment and its auxiliary bodies have taken initiatives to meet the needs of female migrant workers with consideration for their family circumstances, such as by having government banks give them loans for migration costs. Current programmes are geared towards enhancing their skills before they migrate.¹⁸

The number of Bangladeshi female migrant workers has increased in recent years. Of the 757,731 labour migrants in 2016, 118,088 (15.58 per cent), were women (see Figure 1). While the overall number of Bangladeshi migrant workers fell during the global financial crisis in 2009, the percentage of women steadily rose as the government found new jobs

and destination countries for them. Still, labour migration from Bangladesh has been highly gendered¹⁹ overall. According to BMET data, of the 1,008,525 Bangladeshi who were working or had worked abroad from 2001 to 2017, only 696,000 (6.07 per cent) were women while 10,768,943 (93.93 per cent) were men.²⁰

Bangladeshi male migrants work in more than 132 countries, but female migrants in only 51.²¹ Most Bangladeshi female migrant workers are working in Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries²² and in West Asian countries such as Jordan and Lebanon. 2017 data from the Bangladesh Government's Bureau of Manpower and Training (BMET) shows that Saudi Arabia is the top destination for Bangladeshi female migrant workers,

17 Bangladesh, Sixth Five Year Plan (FY2011–FY2015): Accelerating Growth and Reducing Poverty – “Part 1: Strategic directions and policy framework” (Dhaka, 2011), p. 19–20.

18 Barkat and Ahsan, Gender and Migration from Bangladesh.

19 ‘Gendered’ means relating or specific to people of one particular gender (male or female).

20 BMET. See <http://www.bmet.org.bd/BMET/viewStatReport.action?reportnumber=18> (accessed 25 March 2018).

21 Nurul Islam, BMET, Study on Women Migrants Situation: Profile of Women Migrants, Causes, Problems & Prospects of Migration.

22 Gulf Cooperation Council countries include Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates.

followed by Jordan and UAE (see Figure 2).²³ According to Annual Report 2015 of the Government's Bangladesh Overseas Employment Services Limited (BOESL), Bangladeshi women are concentrated in particular occupations such as domestic workers, garment workers, nurses, doctors, babysitters and office coordinators.²⁴

Apart from GCC countries, other destinations for Bangladeshi female migrant workers have emerged in recent years, such as Hong Kong SAR, Italy, Japan, Mauritius, Republic of Korea and Singapore. In those countries, female migrants are entering into occupations such as in agriculture, beauty parlours, carework, cashierwork, catering, cleaning, electronics factories, manufacturing, nursing, sales, service and small-scale entrepreneurships.²⁵

Demands for labour abroad, fuelled by economic globalization in the 1980s and 1990s, opened many opportunities for Bangladeshi migrants, mostly in semi-skilled and less-skilled work.²⁶ Though Bangladeshi female migrant workers are employed, mainly in the GCC countries, demand is increasing in new markets (see Figure 2). Recently, the flow of Bangladeshi female workers has shifted to other key destination countries such as Hong Kong SAR, Italy, Japan, Mauritius, the Republic of Korea and Singapore.

Bangladeshi male workers are migrating to

Bahrain, Brunei, Ireland, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Malaysia, Mauritius, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, the Republic of Korea, United Arab Emirates and the United Kingdom. Some countries, such as Kuwait, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia, have imposed significant restrictions on male migrant workers from Bangladesh. For example, according to the International Labour Organization (ILO), the Government of Saudi Arabia (a top destination for Bangladeshi female migrant workers) had imposed restrictions until 2014 after the number of Bangladeshi male migrants in the country had surpassed the official quota and numerous migrants entered the country illegally.²⁷

A 2014 UN Women study showed that there were ample opportunities for Bangladeshi female migrant workers to diversify their skills and to explore new prospects and new destinations.²⁸ For example, Bangladeshi women have opportunities to work as caregivers and to gain much higher wages in the countries of the European Union and in the United States because of the ageing populations there. A systematic market analysis is needed as the first step towards expanding market opportunities for these workers. The objective of this research is, therefore, to analyse one external market in order to identify demand for additional occupations and markets for Bangladeshi female workers, especially the low-skilled, semi-skilled and lower-

23 Bangladesh, BMET statistical reports. Available from <http://www.bmet.gov.bd/BMET/viewStatReport.action?reportnumber=28> (accessed 12 March 2018).

24 BOESL, Annual Report 2015 (BOESL, Bangladesh).

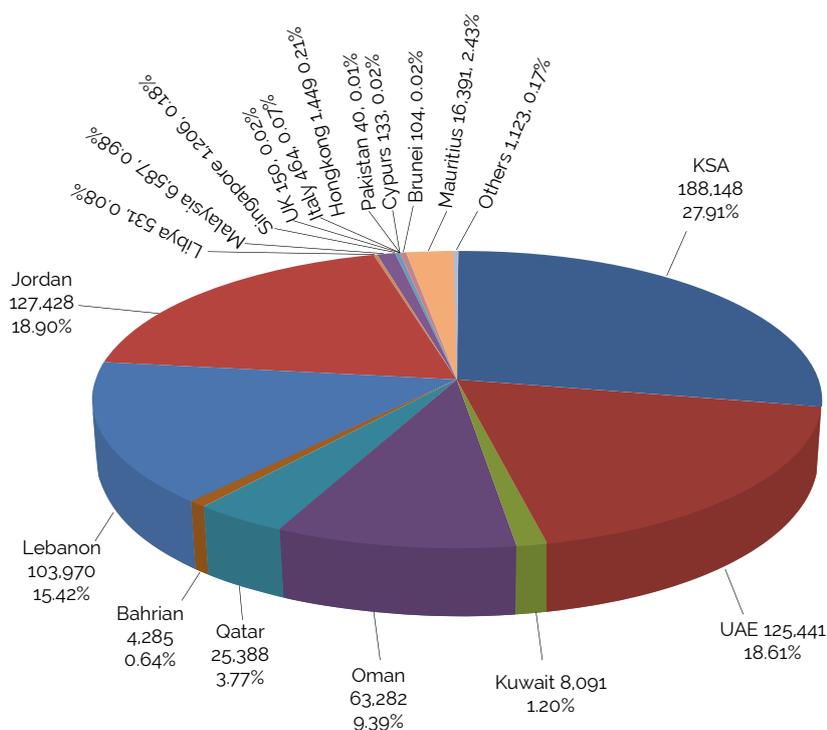
25 Nurul Islam "Study on women migrants situation: Profile of women migrants, causes, problems & prospects of migration", BMET. Available from <http://www.bmet.org.bd/BMET/resources/Static%20PDF%20and%20DOC/publication/Survey%20on%20Female%20migrant.pdf>

26 Abul Barkat, Md. Ismail Hossain and Ehsanul Hoque, The Cost: Causes of and Potential Redress for High Recruitment and Migration Costs in Bangladesh, ILO Country Office for Bangladesh (Dhaka, 2014).

27 ILO, Global Wage Report 2014/2015. Available from http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@dgreports/@dcomm/@publ/documents/publication/wcms_324678.pdf

28 UN Women, Study on External Market Analysis for Women Migrant Workers, under the project Promoting Decent Work through Improved Migration Policy and its Applications in Bangladesh (UN Women, 2014).

Figure 2: Overseas Employment of Female Workers from 1991 to 2017



Source: Bangladesh, BMET statistical reports

educated women who so far have been going abroad mostly for domestic work.

Selecting the Country of Destination and Specific Occupations

Initially, five destination countries (Hong Kong SAR, Jordan, Lebanon, Malaysia and Singapore) were selected as possibilities for this research.²⁹ These countries were analysed and ranked based on their economic indicators; legal and policy framework for female migrant workers; and sociocultural aspects in relation to Bangladeshi female migrant workers.

After further discussions with the Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment, UN Women and ILO,³⁰ Japan was selected as the destination country for detailed research for

expanding employment opportunities for Bangladeshi female migrant workers. Considering and selecting Japan to explore new markets for women migrant workers adds value to government efforts to prioritize the employment and welfare of Bangladeshi workers in Japan.

On 13 August 2017, discussions among the researcher, UN Women and the International Labour Organization (ILO) in Bangladesh led to the selection of five occupations that have not been traditionally associated with female migrant workers as possibilities (caregiving, cleaning, factory work, garment work, and nursing). These occupations were analysed in relation to: (a) the high-growth sectors in countries that take in significant numbers of female migrant workers; (b) sectors that employ female migrant workers in large numbers;

29 In discussions with UN Women and ILO in Bangladesh on 13 August 2017.

30 The five-country analysis was presented to the Ministry on 20 October 2017.

and (c) data from secondary sources, including the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, the International Migrant Stock database and the ILO International Labour Migration Statistics Database.

The researcher's analysis was presented at a meeting held on 20 October 2017 at the Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment. At the meeting, it was recommended to select the kind of trades that do not require additional education and communication skills. Based on discussions with the Ministry, UN Women and ILO, the following two service sector occupations were selected for detailed research: caregiving/care work in health care, and beautician work in beauty parlours.

The basic intent of the research was to identify non-traditional occupations for Bangladeshi female migrant workers. In addition, taking a phased approach was considered important. Moving up to non-traditional occupations would require education and skills that many Bangladeshi women do not currently have. Doing so also requires changes in mindsets and social acceptance, a long-term process. Hence, there must be a phased approach that involves both improving women's capacities and changing society's attitudes. In light of these facts, this study explores new opportunities — caregiving and the beautician business — that offer semi-skilled and higher-value jobs, i.e. for moving women domestic workers from the informal to the formal sector and from unskilled to semi-skilled labour.

Although both these occupations are traditionally associated with women, they could improve work conditions for Bangladeshi female migrant workers if measures are taken to give them opportunities to diversify their skills

and to explore new prospects. These occupations can also help the women mitigate economic challenges, allow them to directly support their families and improve their autonomy, self-esteem and social standing.³¹

Scope of the Research

The study focused on short-term overseas employment of semi-skilled and low-skilled workers because most Bangladeshi female workers fall under this category. It covers only regular migration because there is insufficient data available on irregular, undocumented migration. The research focused on:

- Current employment scenarios in Japan and other destination countries, including opportunities for Bangladeshi female migrant workers, by types of occupation in all labour sectors;
- Salary structure and trends, including pay projections, labour rights and protections and access to other services/benefits;
- Entry and employment requirements for female migrant workers in Japan and other destination countries;
- Skills requirements;
- Rules and regulations for migrant workers;
- Common human rights issues in Japan and other destination countries;
- Risks and vulnerabilities for female workers regarding occupational safety and health and other gender-based vulnerabilities in entering the labour market in Japan and other destination countries;
- Potential for matching with labour supply from Bangladesh; and
- Potential effects and implications throughout the stages of the migration

³¹ H.de Haas, "Mobility and human development", Human Development Research Paper No. 1, Human Development Report Office, New York (2009).

cycle, such as the economic and social benefits and costs for the female workers in entering the new market in Japan and other destination countries.

Methodology

A desk review was conducted along with field research in Bangladesh and in Japan from August to October 2017. Qualitative research methods were used for the field research, which included in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, key informant interviews and observations. Quantitative research methods were used from secondary sources. The qualitative research method helped articulate, interpret and explain the facts gathered from the field research and desk review. This enabled the researcher to provide a clear picture of the research findings and to justify the study's conclusions. The quantitative data and qualitative information were triangulated in line with the study objectives.

Desk Review

The researcher reviewed secondary data (key documents and reports) made available by Bangladesh government agencies, ILO, International Organization for Migration, UN Women, and other sources to assess the employment demand for Bangladeshi female workers in Japan and other destination countries. This data included Bangladesh's and Japan's labour migration policies; employment trends and demand scenarios; rules and regulations for female migrant workers; human rights issues and practices; risks and vulnerabilities for Bangladeshi women regarding occupational safety and health and other gender-based vulnerabilities; opportunities for female

workers from Bangladesh; new markets and new occupations in the countries of destination; and potential effects and policy implications within the stages of the migration cycle. The study also noted the efforts of the Government of Bangladesh to improve its laws and policies.

Field Research

The researcher travelled to Bangladesh and Japan to gather information from key groups involved in migration: government representatives/agencies; recruiting agencies in Bangladesh and Japan; employers in Japan; international organizations (including UN Women Bangladesh, ILO Bangladesh,³² Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation Bangladesh and the International Organization for Migration);³³ non-governmental organizations (NGOs); migrants' associations in Bangladesh and Japan; banking institutions in Bangladesh that facilitate remittances; and research institutions in both countries that conduct research and advocacy on behalf of migrants. In-depth interviews and focus group discussions were done with Bangladeshi female workers in Japan and with women who had worked or were working as care workers or beauticians in Asia and in GCC countries. Informal contacts with recruiting agency representatives were made through the Bangladesh Embassy in Thailand; at their suggestions, sources were identified and contacted for interviews. These key stakeholders were interviewed by telephone or in person.

In-depth interviews with Bangladeshi female workers

Separate interviews were conducted with eight Bangladeshi women working

32 The researcher met ILO representatives in Bangladesh before the actual field research.

33 International Organization for Migration Bangladesh and Thailand offices.

in semi-skilled jobs in different sectors³⁴ in Japan under trainee visas and with four workers currently employed in Hong Kong SAR, Japan and Singapore (by telephone or in person with workers who were in Bangladesh on leave). The length of their stay abroad ranged from three to eight years. Snowball sampling³⁵ was used to identify respondents for this study. Informal contacts with company representatives were made through the Bangladesh Embassy in Tokyo. They helped identify companies and locations where Bangladeshi women were working.

A semi-structured questionnaire was used to ensure a better understanding of the female workers' employment and migration experience. The workers were interviewed by telephone and in person. Each interview lasted one to two hours and was conducted in Bengali. The interviews were recorded, transcribed and inductively analysed.

Focus group discussions

One focus group discussion was done with four women working in a garment factory in Japan. The length of their stay in Japan ranged from seven months to three years. The researcher conducted the focus group discussion in order to contrast and triangulate data with the in-depth interviews, in a context where the female workers could discuss and exchange views.

Focus group discussions were also held with returning migrant workers, conducted in Dhaka on 22 September 2017. Four women who had worked in Qatar, Saudi Arabia and UAE took part. The

average length of their stay abroad was three years. They were selected through information from recruiting agencies and NGOs working on migration issues.

Key informant interviews

Key informant interviews were conducted with representatives from the Government of Bangladesh, recruiting agencies in Bangladesh and Japan; employers in Japan; the Bangladesh Embassy in Japan; international NGOs, migrants' associations in Bangladesh and Japan; and research institutions doing research and advocacy on behalf of migrants. Thirty-five interviews were conducted for the Japan component of the research. See Annex G for a categorized list of key informants (in order to maintain participant anonymity, this study does not provide a personalized list of key informants). Due to time constraints, the researcher was not able to contact other key groups (e.g. economists). Information on economic growth patterns, demographics, etc., was gathered through secondary sources.

All research ethics and anonymity of respondents/participants were ensured during primary data collection.

On 29 March 2018, the author discussed the study's preliminary findings in multi-stakeholder consultations with Bangladesh's Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment, ILO, migrants' associations, non-governmental organizations, recruiting agencies and UN Women. Feedback from ILO and UN Women was incorporated into the final report.

34 Semi-skilled jobs are manual work that require some training and skills but not enough to do specialized work. Of the eight respondents, six were machine operators sewing garments in a garment factory, one was a housekeeper in a hotel, and one was a salesperson selling goods and services in a shop.

35 Snowball sampling (also referred to as 'chain', 'chain-referral' or 'referral sampling') can happen in a number of ways, but generally it is when a group of people recommends potential participants for a study. Those participants then recommend additional participants, and so on, thus building up like a snowball rolling down a hill.

Limitations of the methodology

This research was heavily reliant on secondary data and information due to the limited scope for primary field research; the study did not have scope for wide-scale data collection or a large sample survey for primary data collection. The field data was gathered using a qualitative research method. Secondary data and information were gathered from official national databases and information from other widely accepted reports/articles in order to substantiate the findings drawn from the qualitative data.

Several representatives from Japan's Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare and Japanese recruiting agencies that place migrant workers as trainees in companies (such as the Japan International Training Organization (JITCO) and International Manpower Development Organization, Japan) declined key informant interviews. However, two representatives from JITCO informally provided information for this study, especially about current migration policies in Japan. Organizations that offer jobs to female migrant workers in Japan were more responsive and were interested in the possibility of working with Bangladeshi female migrant workers.

The biggest challenge in researching new opportunities for female migrant workers as caregivers in health care and as beauticians in beauty parlours was trying to assess labour market demand without discussions with the employers in the destination countries and with only limited labour market information, especially in the Gulf countries where most Bangladeshi female migrant workers work. Nevertheless, this study raises

several important points that warrant consideration in policy formulation and further research.

Research Approach

This research used a gender perspective and a rights-based approach to identify employment demands in diversified occupations for Bangladeshi female migrant workers in Japan and other destination countries as well as risks and vulnerabilities there. A 'gender perspective' means that the research took into account specific situations, priorities, interests, challenges, risks and vulnerabilities based on gender. A gender perspective on migration is necessary because "the conditions under which women migrate and the consequences of their migration for particular types of work are not the same as men's, and so the policy implications are likely to differ."³⁶

A 'human rights-based approach' is normatively based on respect for universal human rights and labour standards and focuses on states' obligations to work towards respecting, promoting, fulfilling and protecting human rights.³⁷ Per the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) General Recommendation and Migrants Convention, "states should use the document to formulate gender-sensitive, rights-based policies of equality and non-discrimination in order to regulate and administer all aspects of migration; facilitate women's access to work opportunities abroad; promote safe migration; and to ensure the protection

36 Graeme J. Hugo, "Migration and women empowerment", in *Women Empowerment and Demographic Process: Moving Beyond Cairo*, Harriet B. Presser and Gita Sen, eds. (Oxford, Oxford University Press, 2000).

37 United Nations, *Migration and Human Right; Improving Human Rights-based Governance of International Migration* (Geneva, 2013).

of the rights of female migrant workers (Articles 2 (a) and 3).”³⁸

While migration may benefit female workers, it also poses a lot more risks for them than for men, including unfair treatment, exploitation and violence. This is especially true for female migrant workers in low-skilled jobs such as domestic work. A gender-responsive approach to migration is rights-based because it recognizes that despite gender discrimination, poor women still migrate for work and suffer abuse and exploitation during transit and upon arrival in destination countries. A gender-responsive, rights-based approach that ensures that female migrants can assert their rights in all phases of migration should be at the centre of any credible migration and development strategy.³⁹

This research explores diverse occupational sectors in Japan that Bangladeshi women can enter and the skills required for them to do so, so that they are no longer bound by the occupations traditionally associated with female migrants. Through a rights-based point of view, this report looks at migration policies in Japan and the social, cultural and economic factors that may allow or prevent Bangladeshi women from entering these newly identified sectors.

This study examines the current employment trends of Bangladeshi female migrant workers in Japan and other destination countries, including their remittance flows to Bangladesh, the positions they hold in Japan and other destination countries, the sectors in which they are employed and the skills they possess. It also examines the various

dimensions of their migration experience, including the pros and cons of overseas life as well as their status and the scope of their job opportunities upon return home.

The study also analyses the potential effects and implications of migration for Bangladeshi female workers throughout the migration cycle to Japan and other destination countries. This includes the economic and social benefits and costs that migration brought to their livelihoods and social positions.

Very few studies have documented new corridors and new market opportunities for Bangladeshi female migrants. This study hopes to fill that gap from a gender-responsive, rights-based perspective. Such information could be very valuable in making policies that give Bangladeshi women new opportunities for economic empowerment.

Ethical Considerations

It is important to adhere to ethical norms and standards in research. Norms promote the aims of research, such as knowledge, truth and error avoidance. Similarly, since research often involves substantial cooperation and coordination among different people in an array of disciplines and institutions, ethical standards promote the values that are essential to research and collaborative work, such as trust, accountability, mutual respect and fairness. This study maintained following ethical norms and standards:

- Safety and security in focus group discussions, in-depth interviews and key informant interviews:

38 CEDAW, General recommendation No. 26 on Women Migrant Workers. CEDAW/C/2009/WP.1/R. Available from http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/cedaw/docs/GR_26_on_women_migrant_workers_en.pdf

39 UNIFEM, Empowering Women Migrant Workers in Asia, A Briefing Kit – Migration as a Human Rights Issue. Available from <http://www.unwomeneseasia.org/projects/migrant/Briefing%20kit%20files.htm>

- Guaranteed confidentiality, particularly for Bangladeshi female migrant workers;
- Considered safety, particularly for Bangladeshi female migrant workers;
- Considered risks and benefits; and
- Protected the reputations of the organizations interviewed.

Quality data collection techniques and integrity/honesty:

- Participants in this study were informed of the purposes, processes, risks and benefits of participation and were given the opportunity to decline to participate (particularly Bangladeshi female migrant workers);
- The researcher addressed important and relevant questions, provided clear and understandable results and included meaningful recommendations; and
- Information was collected, analysed, reported and interpreted accurately and impartially.

CHAPTER II

EXPANDING EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES FOR BANGLADESHI FEMALE MIGRANT WORKERS IN JAPAN

2.1 MAJOR FINDINGS

This chapter presents the main findings and underlying evidence from the research, sectioned into eight focus areas: an overview of Japan's labour immigration policies; current employment trends and demand for female migrant workers; salary structures and trends; entry and employment requirements; current rules and regulations for migrant workers and common human rights issues in Japan; supply opportunities from Bangladesh to Japan; potential effects and implications within the stages of the migration cycle; and prospects and projections of employment by occupation for Bangladeshi female migrant workers in Japan.

Overview of Japan's Labour Immigration Policies

Japan is one of the most economically advanced countries in the world. In 2016, its GDP (gross domestic product) per capita was \$38,883; its population was 126.7 million people (it is the tenth-largest country by population); its male-female ratio was 1.06;⁴⁰ the unemployment rate was 2.08 per cent; and its labour force participation rate was 70.4 per cent for men and 50.3 per cent for women.⁴¹ In 2015, its net migration rate was 0.56

migrants per 1,000 people, which ranked 59 among 186 countries.

According to recruiting agency representatives in Japan, the country severely restricts the entry of foreign workers because the government has chosen not to depend on foreign labour. The Government of Japan usually prohibits the entry and use of foreign workers in industrial employment except those with specialized skills and knowledge, such as IT specialists. A study done by Nadya Kartikasari said that these circumstances have resulted in Japan being more vigilant in regard to restrictive foreign labour immigration policy.⁴² Foreign labour migration has remained low relative to that of other industrialized countries.

Japanese labour immigration policy,⁴³ past and present⁴⁴

In the past, Japan maintained a strict "closed-door" immigration policy. Under the First Basic Employment Measures Plan (1967), foreign workers were not allowed into the country. This policy was maintained until the Second Basic Employment Measures Plan (1973) and the Third Basic Employment Measures Plan (1976). The late 1970s brought rising numbers of refugees from the former Indochina, female foreign workers from South-East Asia, second-generation descendants of Japanese who had remained in China following World War II, and European and

40 Index mundi, Japan country profile 2018. <https://www.indexmundi.com/japan/#Introduction>

41 Statistics Bureau, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, Japan. "Statistical yearbook, Japan 2017." Available from <http://www.stat.go.jp/english/data/handbook/index.htm>

42 Nadya Kartikasari, "Effect of labour immigration policies on Indonesian migrant workers in Japan and South Korea", National Graduate Institute for Policy Studies (Tokyo, 2013).

43 The concept of "foreign labour immigration policy" in this research broadly follows Hammar's definition of immigration policy, which includes two main aspects: 1) immigration control policy, meaning admissions schemes that regulate and control the inflows and outflows of migrant workers; and 2) immigration policies, namely the conditions provided to the migrants, including the treatment and rights of migrant workers in host countries, and the delivery of social and advocacy services. T. Hammar, *European Immigration Policy: A Comparative Study* (Cambridge/New York, Cambridge University Press, 1985), pp. 7-9.

44 Atsushi Kondo, "Migration and law in Japan", *Asia & the Pacific Policy Studies*, vol. 2, No. 1 (2015), pp. 155-168.

Box 1: Chronology of Immigration Law and Integration Policy in Japan

- No immigration during period of national seclusion (1639–1853);
- Opening the door, substantial emigration and colonial immigration (1853–1945);
- Strictly controlled migration under the Supreme Commander of Allied Powers (1945–1951);
- Strict immigration, even during the period of rapid economic growth (1952–1981);
- The 1951 Immigration Control Order; Exclusion, discrimination and assimilation policy (Act since 1952);
- The Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act (1981);
- Strict immigration with some refugees accepted and improved foreign citizens' rights; Equality and internationalization policy (1982–1989);
- Relatively strict immigration controls, but ethnic Japanese (front door), trainees/ technical interns (side door) and irregulars (back door) come to work as unskilled workers (1990 – present);
- The 1989 Revised Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act (1990 – present); and
- Settlement and “intercultural living-together” policy (1990 – present).

North American businesspersons.⁴⁵

Even though Japan suffered chronic labour shortages during its first economic boom in the late 1980s, it consistently prohibited unskilled foreign migrant workers. However, the 1990s began with the implementation of a revised immigration law that allowed in two basic categories of foreign migrant workers: (i) specialized and technical workers and professionals, and (ii) unskilled labourers.⁴⁶

In the 1990s and 2000s, Japan experienced a large influx of foreign workers for the first time in its history; the government began to reform the 1981 Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act (ICRRA). The government

approved only the visas of professional and skilled personnel and people of Japanese ancestry while maintaining its official policy of not admitting unskilled foreign workers.⁴⁷ However, in practice, three detours ('front', 'side' and 'back' doors) were established; these doors allowed in *Nikkeijin* (descendants of Japanese emigrants), trainees and part-time workers.⁴⁸

Nikkeijin, descendants of Japanese emigrants who came mainly from Latin American countries, entered the labour market through the 'front door'. Under the ICRRA reform, *Nikkeijin* can enter and work without restriction under the residence status of spouse or child of a Japanese national.⁴⁹

45 Ibid.

46 Malissa B. Eaddy, "An analysis of Japan's immigration policy on migrant workers and their families", Seton Hall University Dissertations and Theses (ETDs). 2189. (2016).

47 Tsuneo Akaha and Chikako Kashiwazaki, "Japanese immigration policy: Responding to conflicting pressures", Migration Policy Institute (1 November 2006). Available from <http://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/japanese-immigration-policy-respondingconflictingpressures> (accessed October 21, 2015).

48 Atsushi Kondo, "Migration and law in Japan", *Asia & the Pacific Policy Studies*, vol. 2, No. 1 (2015), pp. 155–168.

49 Ibid.

Second, Japan opened a 'side door' for trainees and technical interns, who came mainly from China and other Asian countries such as Indonesia, the Philippines, Thailand and Viet Nam. These migrants can stay in Japan for a maximum of three years. Trainees cannot accept wages, but technical interns can.

Third, there is a 'back door' for irregular migrants, who are mainly from China, the Philippines, the Republic of Korea and other countries. For example, if a migrant has difficulties in going home due to the situation in their home country, the person is granted special permission to stay even if an application for refugee status is rejected.⁵⁰ Another study revealed that irregular/undocumented Korean female migrants find jobs through networks of Korean relatives who reside in Japan.⁵¹ Furthermore, college/university students can work part-time for up to 28 hours per week during semester time and eight hours per day during vacation time. Pre-college students can work up to four hours per day during semester time and eight hours per day in July and August.⁵²

Trainees and technical interns

The trainee system was institutionalized in 1993 by the launch of the Technical Intern Training Programme (TITP, 技能実習制度 *Ginou Jisshuu Seido*). It allows Japanese companies to employ foreign

migrants as "technical intern trainees," mainly people from developing Asian countries, to acquire the skills and other necessities relating to Japanese industry, to take advantage of the skills and knowledge that they acquired after their return to their home country and to play an active role in the development of the industries of their home countries.⁵³ However, TITP has faced growing criticism both within Japan and internationally. Diverse observers allege that in practice, the programme has functioned as a tool to procure low-wage, low-skilled workers to balance labour shortages with little technical knowledge passed on to the temporary foreign workers. A second criticism claims that it involves widespread exploitation and human rights abuses, including human trafficking and forced labour.⁵⁴

In July 2010, the government revised the law to provide legal protections for interns and trainees, establish their legal status and to improve employers' management of foreign workers.⁵⁵ In November 2016, a new Technical Intern Training Act was passed, coming into effect in November 2017. The new Act established regulations for organizations implementing and supervising technical intern training, reinforced the system of supervision and management and established necessary measures to protect technical intern

50 Ibid.

51 Eaddy, "An analysis of Japan's immigration policy".

52 Kondo, "Migration and law in Japan."

53 Technical Intern Trainee Handbook, available from <http://www.otit.go.jp/files/user/docs/300226-09%E3%80%80.pdf>

54 Junichi Akashi, "New aspects of Japan's immigration policies: Is population decline opening the doors?" Contemporary Japan - Journal of the German Institute for Japanese Studies, Tokyo 26, no. 2 (09): (2014) 175-196; Mike Douglass and S. Glenda Roberts. Japan and Global Migration: Foreign Workers and the Advent of Multicultural Society (Hawaii: University of Hawaii Press 2003); H. Komai, Foreign Migrants in Contemporary Japan (Melbourne: Trans Pacific Press; NIRA/ Citizenship Research Group, ed. (2001). *Tabunka shakai no sentaku; citizenship no shiten kara* (Choice of Multicultural Society: From the Perspective of Citizenship). (Tokyo: Nihon Keizai Hyōron Sha). (Chapters on trainees and interns are written by Chieko Kanbayashi and Akira Hatade).

55 Takashi Kodama, Japan's Immigration Problem: Looking at Immigration through the Experience of Other Countries, Economic Research Department, DAIWA Institute of Research (29 May 2015).

trainees. It has since become possible for excellent implementing and supervising organizations to offer more advanced technical intern training.⁵⁶

New immigration reforms and economic success, 2012–2017

In July 2012, the ICRAA was further amended to add a new 'Highly Skilled Foreign Professional' visa under a points-based system. A point total of 70 would give a person preferential treatment by immigration control. However, Japan has been unable to attract many such professionals.⁵⁷ Only 1,446 such visas were issued in 2014; 1,159, or 80.2 per cent, were from Asian countries. One reason is the language issue.⁵⁸

Japanese policymakers, researchers and civil society groups have said that rather than hurrying to attract highly skilled professionals, it would be more realistic to increase the number of foreign workers in stages in sectors where there are clear labour shortages in Japan.⁵⁹ Accordingly, the migration policy was further amended in 2014 under the Japan Revitalization Strategy.⁶⁰

Under the Japan Revitalization Strategy, which includes "utilization of foreign workers," the government allowed one-

time three-to-five-year working visas for foreign migrants to "work and raise incomes for a limited period in Japan, and then return home."⁶¹ Municipal-level services in Japan now incorporate multilingual meetings, Japanese language classes, interpretation services, medical referral services, employment assistance and explanatory sessions on accessing public education. The government also encourages urban communities to create "multicultural participation" plans that outline how they will integrate their foreign migrant workers.⁶² Japan's overall migration picture is becoming more diverse, creating more opportunities for foreign migrant workers and professionals of different nationalities, both men and women, through increased private-sector employment.⁶³

In 2016, there were 218,589 technical intern trainees in Japan (120,770 women and 97,819 men), or 9 per cent of the total foreign migrant worker population. Most were Chinese, Filipinos, Indonesians and Vietnamese.⁶⁴ As of June 2017, there were 261,721 technical intern trainees in Japan (see Figure 3 for trends in the number of technical intern trainees by nationality).⁶⁵ The majority of the technical intern trainees are employed in the construction, health-care, service and textile and clothing sectors, according to a JITCO

56 Technical Intern Trainee Handbook, available from <http://www.otit.go.jp/files/user/docs/300226-09%E3%80%80.pdf>

57 Takashi Kodama, Japan's Immigration Problem: Looking at Immigration through the Experience of Other Countries, Economic Research Department, DAIWA Institute of Research (29 May 2015).

58 Green, "As its population ages, Japan quietly turns to immigration." Available at <https://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/its-population-ages-japan-quietly-turns-immigration>

59 Kodama, Japan's Immigration Problem.

60 The Asia Pacific Mission for Migrants, Global Migration Report 2015: On Migration, Development & Migrant Movement, November 2015. Available from <http://www.apmigrants.org>

61 Eaddy, "An analysis of Japan's immigration policy."

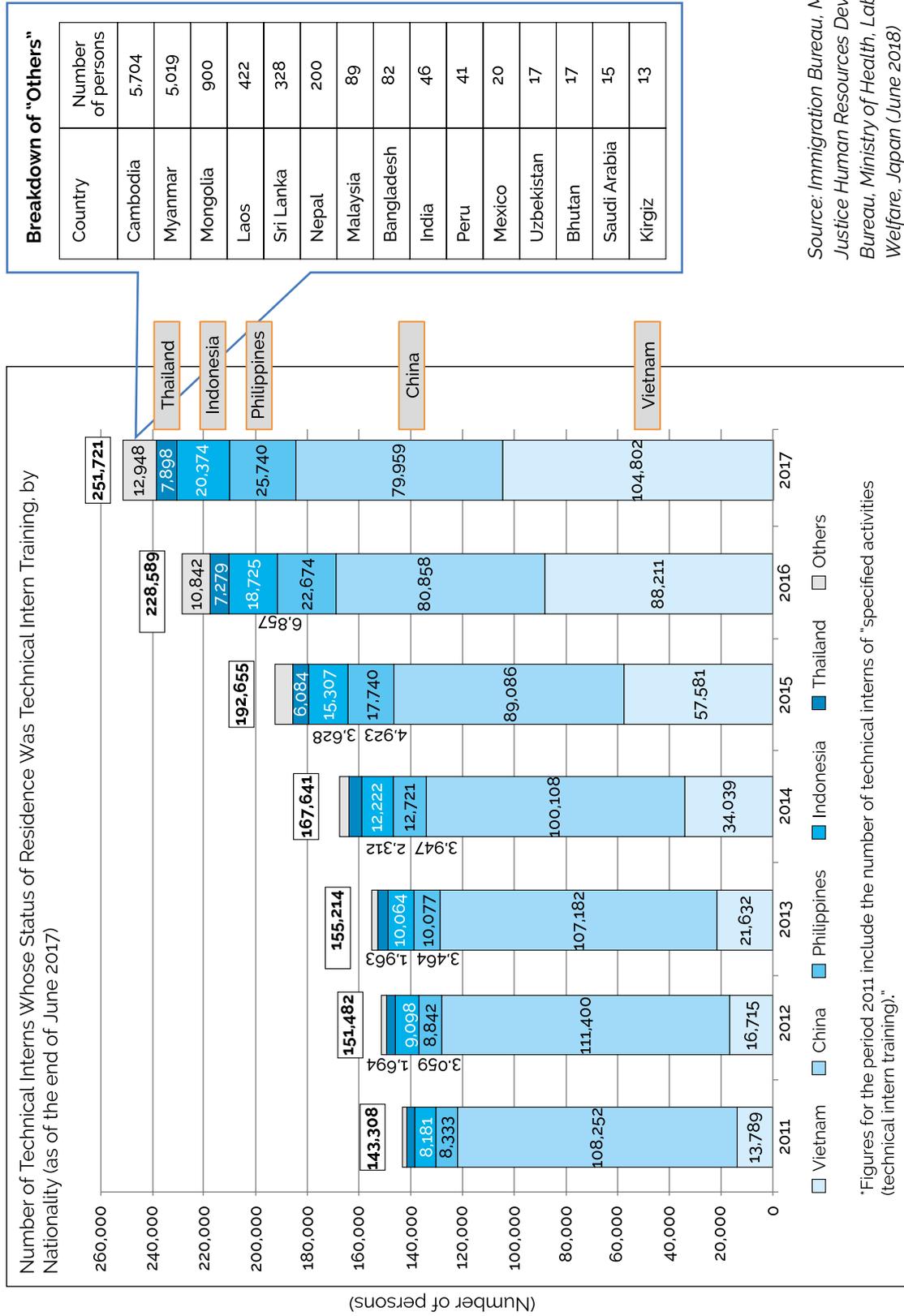
62 Green, "As its population ages, Japan quietly turns to immigration." Available at <https://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/its-population-ages-japan-quietly-turns-immigration>

63 Ibid.

64 Ibid.

65 Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, Japan, "New Technical Intern Training Programme". June 2018. Available from <http://www.otit.go.jp/files/user/300614-1.pdf>

Figure 3: Trends in the Number of Technical Intern Trainees by Nationality in Japan, 2011-2016



Source: Immigration Bureau, Ministry of Justice Human Resources Development Bureau, Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, Japan (June 2018)

representative in Thailand. The clearest path for Bangladeshi female workers to work in Japan currently is through the Technical Intern Training Programme.

Current Employment Trends and Demand for Female Migrant Workers

In 2016, Japan's labour force participation rate was 70.4 per cent for males and 50.3 per cent for females.⁶⁶ The trends from 1996 to 2016 show that the Japanese female labour force participation rate develops in an M-shaped curve, i.e., the rate declines when women are in their late 20s through their 30s⁶⁷ and increases again after that due to a tendency to delay marriage and childbirth and the rise in the proportion of unmarried females.⁶⁸ Women were prominent among service workers (67.6 per cent) and clerical workers (59.6 per cent).⁶⁹ While the male labour force participation rate has not changed significantly overall, the number of males aged 60 and over has grown. According to 2016 data, men were particularly prominent among construction and mining workers (98.0 per cent) and transport and machine operation workers (97.7 per cent).

Japan is a fascinating country of economic and business prowess, rich culture and technical wizardry. It is projected to

retain this position through at least 2050. The proportion of elderly (people 65 and over) in the population, which was already high at 26 per cent in 2015, is expected to rise to 35.7 per cent in 2050. Because of its rapidly ageing population, the government is reassessing many economic, social and political policies and programmes, including those relating to international migration.⁷⁰

While Japan does not consider itself a country of immigration and the government says it is promoting the labour force participation of its elderly and female workers, the foreign workforce has in fact steadily risen, growing 40 per cent since 2013. Figure 4 shows the foreign workforce share of the overall population rising from 0.7 per cent in 1990 to 1.8 per cent in 2016.⁷¹

The increase in the foreign workforce includes a rise in the number of female migrant workers. In the early 1990s, a considerable number of young female workers, especially from the Philippines and Thailand, migrated to Japan; they mostly entered the entertainment and sex-related industries. They hold 'entertainment' visas, which are not classified under Japanese labour law. At the same time, a number of other women entered Japan as spouses of foreign male workers and Japanese men.⁷²

66 Japanese Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications Statistics Bureau, "Statistical yearbook, Japan 2017", p.122. Available from <http://www.stat.go.jp/english/data/handbook/index.htm>

67 This is because many leave work to get married and have children during that time.

68 Japanese women's work pattern and M-shaped curve: Japanese women often leave employment after either getting married or having children. Many return to the workforce after their children reach a certain age or after they feel secure about leaving their children while they are at work. This work pattern results in a labor force participation rate (population of workers accounted for in the population of people aged 15 and older) that resembles the letter 'M'.

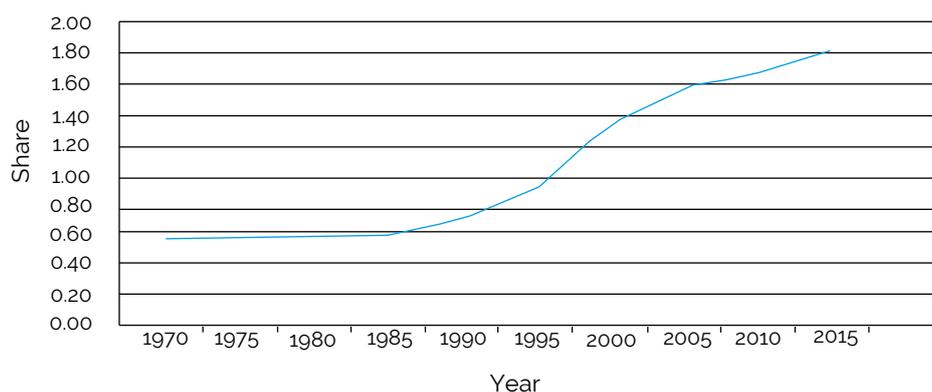
69 Japanese Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications Statistics Bureau, "Statistical yearbook, Japan 2017", p.124.

70 United Nations, Replacement Migration: Is It a Solution to Declining and Ageing Populations? (2001).

71 Compiled from the Japanese Ministry sources listed in Green, "As its population ages, Japan quietly turns to immigration." Available at <https://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/its-population-ages-japan-quietly-turns-immigration>

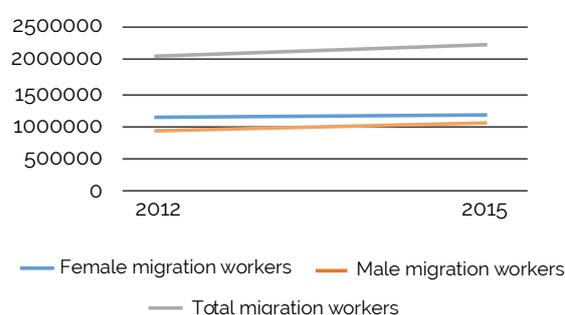
72 Yoko Sellek, "Female foreign migrant workers in Japan: Working for the yen", Japan Forum, Vol. 8, Issue 2 (1996). Available from <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/pdf/10.1080/09555809608721567>

Figure 4: Foreign share of Japan's Population (%), 1970–2015



Source: Compiled from the Japanese Ministry sources listed in Green, "As its population ages, Japan quietly turns to immigration."

Figure 5: Migrant Workers in Japan



Source: ILO Database 2017

Female migrant workers gradually entered into other occupations such as construction, textile and factory work under the Technical Intern Training Programme,⁷³ though such work does not require a high level of skill. Male migrant workers are concentrated in a wider range of occupations, such as construction and manufacturing, hotel management, restaurant work and other service jobs rather than in professional and highly

technical fields.⁷⁴ In 2017, 2.231 million foreign workers (1.181 million female and 1.050 million male) have migrated under the Technical Intern Training Programme (see Figure 5).⁷⁵

Shortages of labour in Japan and demand for foreign workers

Declining birth rates, combined with an ageing population, have led to labour shortages in Japan — particularly in the farming, fishing, construction and small manufacturing industries.⁷⁶ As a result, employers in these industries are increasingly relying on foreign workers, particularly workers from China, Indonesia, the Philippines and Viet Nam.⁷⁷ Key stakeholders in Japan interviewed for this study said that Japan needs more foreign workers, both female and male, in order to balance labour shortages as well as to achieve sustainable long-term growth. They said that the fundamental

73 Shoko Sasaki, "Clandestine labour in Japan, sources, magnitudes and implications", paper presented at the UNCRD Expert Group Meeting, Nagoya, Japan, 1990.

74 Ibid.

75 ILO Database 2017. Available from <http://www.ilo.org/ilostat/faces/oracle/webcenter/portalapp/> (accessed 29 October 2017).

76 Apichai Shipper, *Contesting Foreigner's Rights in Contemporary Japan*, N.C. J. INT'L L. & COM. REG. (2011), 505-06.

77 Shipper, *supra* note 1, at 506.

problem of the Japanese economy is that the growth rate is low and to raise it, large-scale structural reforms — including of migration policy — are vital. Japan should permit more skilled and less-skilled foreign workers to enter temporarily as many companies are struggling to fill positions, they said.

A 2017 study found that there were approximately 143 jobs for every 100 applicants in Japan (foreigners make up just 2 per cent of the population).⁷⁸ A 2015 Manpower Survey revealed that 83 per cent of Japanese companies had difficulty filling jobs, compared with a global average of 38 per cent.⁷⁹

Considering this situation, in some sectors the government has been more welcoming towards foreign workers, especially highly skilled workers and a certain portion of unskilled and less-skilled workers under the Technical Intern Training Programme.⁸⁰ Policymakers in Prime Minister Abe's Liberal Democratic Party supported a bill that would expand the programme to include foreign migrant workers for elderly care (which was under a special earlier programme) and manufacturing and construction, the sectors experiencing serious labour shortages.⁸¹

In the lead-up to the 2020 Tokyo Olympics, the government is taking steps to double the number of work visas under the Technical Intern Training

Programme for middle-skilled positions in specific industries, particularly construction, service and health care.⁸² The government also has implemented migrant recruitment schemes targeted at workers across the skills spectrum. On the low-skilled end, the Technical Intern Training Programme continues to grow, expanding the numbers and length of stay, potentially offering trainees up to five years of residency.⁸³ Recruiting agencies and employers in Japan interviewed for this study said Japan will accept migrant workers in those labour-shortage industries regardless of gender. Priority will be given to skills for specific occupations, though, according to Japanese recruiting agencies, the Government of Japan would prefer female migrants for the health-care and service sectors.

The rising proportion of ageing people in Japan's population has created shortages of labour in the care of aged people. In response, the government has started allowing in caregivers from overseas. The Health, Labour and Welfare Ministry forecasts that by 2025, Japan will face a shortage of some 380,000 care workers at elderly nursing care facilities.⁸⁴

To mitigate this 'care deficit', Japan has allowed in migrant care workers via bilateral Economic Partnership Agreements and signed agreements with the Philippines in 2008, India in

78 Nithin Coca, "Japan's migrant worker challenge", Equal Times, 11 May 2017. Available from <https://www.equaltimes.org/japan-s-migrant-worker-challenge#.Wf8xaY-CyM8>

79 Enda Curran, "Japan quietly accepting foreign workers — just don't call it immigration", The Japan Times, 3 November 2016. Available from <https://www.japantimes.co.jp/news/2016/11/03/national/japan-quietly-accepting-foreign-workers-just-dont-call-immigration/#.WgFmFo-CyM8>

80 Alfred Bayle, "Japan immigration policy to focus on highly skilled foreign workers", Inquirer.net, 21 February 2017. Available from <http://newsinfo.inquirer.net/873861/japanese-immigration-policy-to-focus-on-highly-skilled-foreign-workers#ixzz55Y734GdH>

81 The Japan Times, 3 November 2016.

82 Green, "As its population ages, Japan quietly turns to immigration."

83 Ibid.

84 The Japan Times, 27 January 2017. Available from <https://www.japantimes.co.jp/news/2017/01/27/national/foreign-workers-japan-hit-1-million-mark-first-time-last-autumn-ministry/#.Wh1b-tKWaM8>

2011, Indonesia in 2011, and Viet Nam in 2013. A total of 1,033 nurses and 5,329 caregivers from these countries arrived in Japan between 2009 and October 2017, according to representatives from Japan International Corporation of Welfare Services (JICWELS, a recruitment association).

These workers are employed by long-term care institutions under the Long-term Care Insurance system rather than in private homes. The door is open to foreign caregivers under Economic Partnership Agreements, not through labour policy but through trade negotiations with Japan. In November 2016, the Government of Japan expanded the scope of the Technical Intern Training Programme and created a new visa status for nurses, caregivers and domestic helpers.⁸⁵ In interviews for this report, JICWELS representatives said that in 2017, Japan's health-care sector needed qualified applicants for 150 nurse and 600 caregiver positions. This means the sector is in need of significant numbers of foreign migrant workers.

There is also a shortage of labour in the construction industry, a core industry that accounts for about 10 per cent of both GDP and all employed persons.⁸⁶ In January 2017, *The Japan Times* reported that this shortage has significantly affected construction work at a time when demand has risen sharply ahead of the 2020 Tokyo Olympics and for rebuilding after the 2011 earthquake and tsunami. In a 29 March 2018 report, the newspaper

said that more than 41,000 foreign migrant workers had been allowed to work in the construction industry as of October 2016, up from around 29,000 in 2015.⁸⁷

The *Daily Observer*, a Bangladeshi newspaper, quoted Olympic Games organizers as saying Japan needs "not less than 6 million" foreign workers for the Olympics, and they planned to hire from countries like Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Thailand and Viet Nam because of the low costs of labour compared to that of other countries.⁸⁸ Key groups interviewed for this research said Japan also needs foreign workers in the construction sector for holding the Rugby World Cup in 2019 and the Winter Olympics in 2020. They said Japan will prefer more male than female migrants because of safety issues.

Bangladesh Embassy of Japan officials interviewed said that the Bangladesh Government has been in consultation with the International Manpower Development Organization, Japan recruiting association about its immediate requirements for infrastructure construction workers from Bangladesh (including less-skilled and semi-skilled men and women). The officials said a group of 16 Bangladeshi workers (including one woman) recently migrated to Japan for five-year periods for construction work ahead of the 2020 Olympic Games. On 12 March 2017, a memorandum of understanding on this was signed between the International Manpower Development Organization

85 Reuters, "Foreign workers in Japan hit 1m for the first time", Asia Pacific, 27 Jan 2017. Available from <http://www.channelnewsasia.com/news/asiapacific/foreign-workers-in-japan-hit-1m-for-the-first-time-7545644>

86 Japanese Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications Statistics Bureau, "Statistical yearbook, Japan 2017."

87 The Japan Times, "Number of foreign caregivers who passed Japan's certification exam doubled in 2017: welfare ministry", 29 March 2018. Available from https://www.japantimes.co.jp/news/2018/03/29/national/number-foreign-caregivers-passed-japans-certification-exam-doubled-2017-welfare-ministry/#.Wt_2YNRua70

88 Daily Observer, 19 August 2015. Available from <http://www.observerbd.com/2015/08/18/105634.php>

and Bangladesh's Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment.⁸⁹

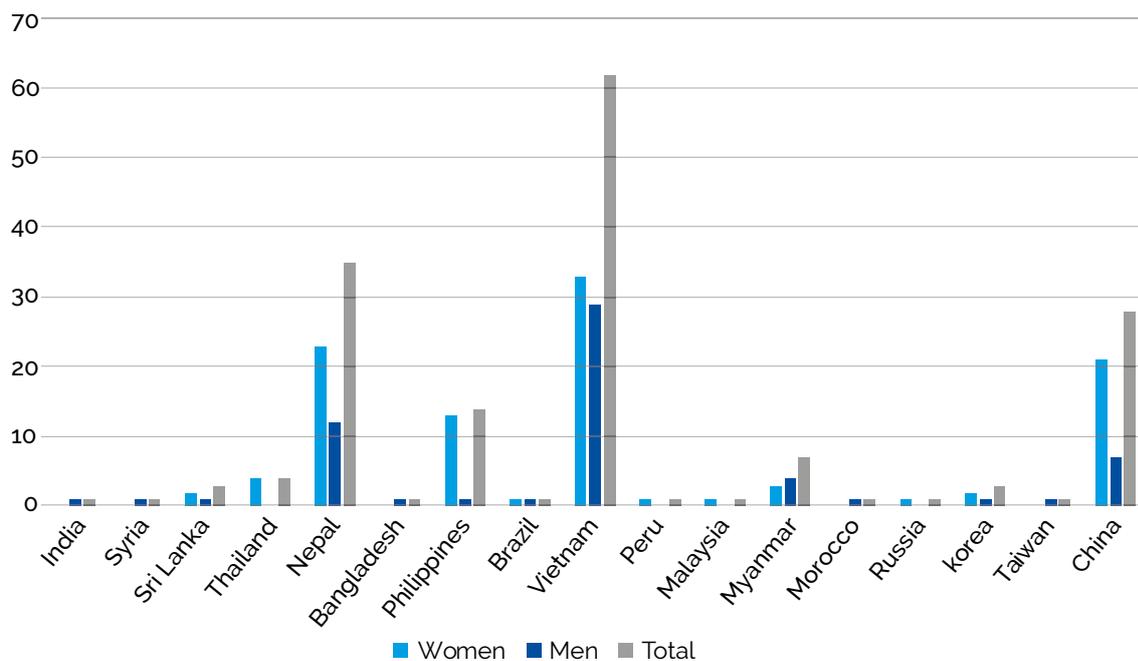
Embassy officials said they are giving priority to exploring the labour market in Japan. To explore opportunities for Bangladeshi skilled workers, in 2017 the Embassy organized four seminars (including two in Tokyo) attended by representatives of more than 100 prominent IT companies of Japan. In an interview for this research, the Bangladesh Ambassador to Japan, H.E. Rabab Fatima, said that the Japanese authorities are eager to welcome IT experts and professionals from Bangladesh to work in Japan. She said Japan and Bangladesh enjoy "excellent" relations and "what's more important is that, Japan has a shortage of workforce such as in the IT sector, while Bangladesh has an abundance of that."

The Ambassador said that while Japan offered better pay and working

conditions than other Asian countries, Japan's prerequisites are high and selective, especially with regards to nursing and care work. In addition to having occupation-specific education and skills, to work in Japan Bangladeshi professionals and workers need to learn the language and work culture and adapt to Japanese society. But the Ambassador said it is not extremely hard to work in Japan – if Bangladeshi migrants accept those requirements and prepare themselves before arriving. She was very optimistic in this regard.

In interviews, various key stakeholders in Japan said that there is high demand for professionals and skilled female (and male) migrant workers in IT, nursing and caregiving services in Japan. There is also demand for low-skilled and semi-skilled female and male migrant workers in the textile/garments industry, manufacturing and service sectors, such as cleaning and housekeeping (see Figure 6). Currently,

Figure 6: Foreign Workers in Service Sectors, Japan (2016)



Source: Provided by a representative of the STARTS recruiting agency in Japan, October 2017

89 Per Bangladesh Embassy of Japan Officials in interviews for this report.

female workers from Indonesia, Nepal, Philippines and Viet Nam are largely employed in those sectors, and Japanese companies prefer to recruit more women rather than men for these occupations. Representatives of Japanese companies and recruiting agencies alike said female workers are more "sincere" and "hard-working."

Bangladeshi female migrant workers in Japan

Until recently, the number of Bangladeshi female migrants working in Japan was negligible, mostly women who arrived with companions who had secured work there. In the male-centric culture of Bangladesh, women's mobility and decision-making power are significantly constrained.⁹⁰ Nonetheless, poverty and the growing disparity in living standards in Bangladesh have prompted more women to head overseas for employment.⁹¹

According to the Bangladesh Embassy in Tokyo, as of October 2017, a total of 130 Bangladeshi women and men were residing in Japan; the majority of these people are diplomats, professionals and students and their family members.

According to BMET, the aggregate number of Bangladeshi migrant workers in Japan from 2004 to 2017 was 1,153. Only 23 of them were women (around 2 per cent). Table A1 (see Annex B) shows that the type of work for which Bangladeshi women are hired is gendered in nature; 21 female migrants were garment workers, one was a housekeeper and one was a sales worker. In contrast, Bangladeshi male migrant workers performed production-related, diversified jobs. The Technical

Intern Training Programme offers the most promising route for Bangladeshi female migrant workers to find more diversified jobs in Japan.

There is current demand for Bangladeshi female workers in Japanese garment factories, particularly in the Chiba, Gunma and Osaka prefectures, according to a representative of a recruiting agency in Japan. The representative said the first group of Bangladeshi female garment workers came to Japan as technical intern trainees in November 2011 for three-year periods. He said a private labour exporting agency in Japan, Radies International Limited, had recruited the 11 women under the Technical Intern Training Programme. These women each earned a monthly salary of \$1,500.

According to recruiting agencies in Japan, Japanese garment and textile companies want to employ more semi-skilled Bangladeshi female workers through the trainee programme. Currently, these companies are in contact with recruiting agencies in Bangladesh. In an interview for this research, a representative of a garment factory, Shibukawa Factory in Gunma, Japan, said "Japanese employers in garment factories are pleased to see the performance of Bangladeshi female migrants working in their factory. They prefer to hire more female workers from Bangladesh for their company because of their docility, eagerness and patience in carrying out hard work. Additionally, it costs less to recruit South and South-East Asian workers than to hire other nationals, for example, [from] Brazil."

90 UNICEF Bangladesh, *Women and Girls in Bangladesh* (June 2010). Available from https://www.unicef.org/bangladesh/Women_and_girls_in_Bangladesh.pdf

91 Abul Barkat and Manzuma Ahsan, *Gender and Migration from Bangladesh: Mainstreaming Migration into the National Development Plans from a Gender Perspective* ILO (Dhaka, ILO Country Office for Bangladesh, 2014).

The reduced cost of hiring South and South-East Asian workers is partly due to reduced airfares given their proximity to Japan, but reduced costs should not mean exploitative conditions for workers or lower wages compared with other nationalities, the representative said. While Japanese garment companies anticipate hiring more Bangladeshi female workers, they are still assessing the pros and cons because proficiency in Japanese and comprehension of Japanese culture remain noteworthy concerns, according to the representative.

There is high demand for professionals and skilled female (and male) migrant workers in IT, nursing and caregiving services in Japan. According to Japanese recruiting agencies, the Government of Japan would prefer female migrants for the health-care and service sectors. However, according to representatives from Japanese recruiting agencies, Japanese employers in those sectors are reluctant to hire Bangladeshi female workers due to factors such as Bangladeshi females being perceived as less productive, as conservative and as unable to adapt to Japanese culture. If Bangladeshi female workers are given more opportunities to enhance their skills and vertical mobility, such perceptions can be changed.

Salary Structures and Trends: Pay Projections, Labour Rights and Protections and Access to Other Services and Benefits

Salary structure and trends in Japan

A recruiting agency representative said that female workers are usually paid less than male workers in almost all sectors

in Japan, including the garment/textile sector. The average wage of Japanese garment-sector workers aged 20 to 29 ranges from \$2,100 to \$2,450 for men and \$1,650 to \$1,850 for women.⁹² This indicates that the gender wage gap exists in Japan as in other countries.

The Bangladeshi female garment workers interviewed for this research said they make \$1,750 a month, a fixed salary under a three-year contract. Representatives of the recruiting agencies said this is the minimum salary for female garment workers from Bangladesh.

According to Japanese labour law, migrant workers should receive the same wages as Japanese workers. In practice, however, migrant workers' wages depend on company policy, according to a representative of a garment factory in Japan. In recent years, many Japanese companies have adopted wage determination based on job performance skills.⁹³ This implies that Bangladeshi migrant workers can earn more by upgrading their skills in their occupations.

The Bangladeshi female garment workers interviewed for this study entered the country as technical intern trainees. They said that in addition to their salary, they receive one day off per week, overtime benefits (at least two hours per day), a three-year job contract and employer-provided return-trip travel expenses (the labour laws of the host country are applied if the worker returns home before the end of the contract). They said they spend approximately \$500 per month for living expenses, including food, accommodation and medicine. They live in a four-bedroom house with two people sharing a room; they usually bicycle to work.

92 Japan Statistical Yearbook 2015. Available at: <http://www.stat.go.jp/english/data/nenkan/back64/index.html>

93 Japanese Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications Statistics Bureau, "Statistical yearbook, Japan 2017", p. 134.

Labour rights and protections for migrant workers in Japan

According to representatives of Japanese companies, after Japan's labour law was amended in 2010 and under the new Technical Intern Training Act on Proper Technical Intern Training and Protection of Technical Intern Trainees,⁹⁴ migrant workers under the Technical Intern Training Programme enjoyed the same rights as Japanese workers. Migrant workers can work a maximum of eight hours per day and 40 hours per week. Their remuneration must be the same as that of Japanese workers, and they are eligible for extra wages for overtime. In addition, they must have at least one day off per week or four days off in a four-week period. The workers are now also protected by the Japanese Labour Standards Law for their entire five years in the country, which was not the case earlier. Foreign migrant workers can now claim pay for overtime from the beginning until the end of their five-year contract. Earlier, they were not able to claim for overtime in the first year, only in the second and third years.⁹⁵

After Japan's labour law was amended in 2010, JITCO was responsible for supervising the social protection and rights of technical intern trainees. Since the new Technical Intern Training Act came into place in 2016, the supervision responsibility moved to the responsibility of the Organization for Technical Intern Training (OTIT). OTIT is an authorized juridical person under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare established pursuant to the Technical Intern Training Act. The OTIT is to provide counselling,

assistance and protection for technical intern trainees. There are major differences between the old TITP and new TITP system (see Figure A1 in Annex C).

Technical intern trainees are now able to submit a report to the OTIT competent minister in cases of violation of laws and regulations. The new 2017 Technical Intern Training Act also requires employers to include technical intern trainees in their employment insurance and workers' compensation insurance plans. It prohibits dismissal without a legitimate reason.⁹⁶

The labour law contains some protective provisions specifically for female workers, both local and migrant. According to the NGO Solidarity Network with Migrants Japan (Solidarity Network), under the labour laws, upon the worker's request the employer must provide to female workers asked to work late at night with:

- Safety measures specifically for female workers;
- Due consideration if they are raising children or taking care of family members;
- A room for rest and naps; and
- Medical check-ups and maternity protection.

The Solidarity Network said that if a female worker is sexually harassed, she can consult a labour administration office or a women's centre. The Social Insurance Office provides information on health insurance. Both offices provide translations to workers seeking their services. The Solidarity Network

94 Approved in December 2016; enforcement began in November 2017.

95 JITCO's White Paper, 2012.

"Learning Experience? Japan's Technical Intern Training Programme and the Challenge of Protecting the Rights of Migrant Workers" (October 2017) Available at: <https://www.ihrb.org/focus-areas/mega-sporting-events/japan-titp-migrant-workers-rights>.

96 Ibid.

representative said that despite the labour law, employers sometimes treated foreign migrant workers differently (especially less-skilled workers).

Entry and Employment Requirements for Female Migrant Workers in Japan

Japan's immigration law covers the rights of immigrant and migrant workers, who and how many people can enter the country, to what extent they can stay. These policies are in the form of visa entries, landing questionnaires and customs services.⁹⁷

Officials of the Bangladesh Embassy in Tokyo said that migrant workers (except caregivers and domestic helpers) falling under the "Approved Occupations for Technical Intern Training" can enter Japan on a trainee visa, apply for the status of technical intern a year later, and remain in the country for a total of five years. Currently, there are 77 occupations and 139 "selective works" approved for migrant workers under the Technical Intern Training Programme (see Annex D). However, there are special limitations on the number of technical intern trainees. For example, an organization with 201 or more regular employees can employ a maximum of 15 technical intern trainees. An organization with 50 or fewer regular employees can employ a maximum of three (see Annex E).

In an interview, a JITCO representative explained the visa procedures. Before entering Japan, migrant workers must obtain from a Japanese embassy or consulate abroad a visa corresponding to the purpose of their visit. Since 1989, there have been two types of visa procedures. The traditional procedure has eight steps;

the new procedure has four steps and involves a "certificate of eligibility," which is designated by the Immigration Office in Japan.

For the landing examination by an immigration inspector, applicants need to establish that they fulfil the landing conditions. The Ministry of Justice Ordinance provides the landing examination criteria for each residential status. The certificate of eligibility was introduced in order to speed up and simplify the landing procedure. Applicants holding the certificate are deemed to conform to the requirement that their proposed activity is valid, and must fall within one of the activities of residential status stipulated in the Immigration Control Act.

Common requirements of the Technical Intern Training Programme include:

- The technical intern trainee has experience in the same kind of work in a foreign country as the work the trainee intends to engage in while in Japan, or there are special circumstances necessitating that the person engage in the technical intern training; and
- The technical intern trainee plans to engage in work requiring the skills acquired in Japan after returning to his or her home country.⁹⁸

Figure 7 illustrates the main steps involved in the current TITP process once interns enter Japan.

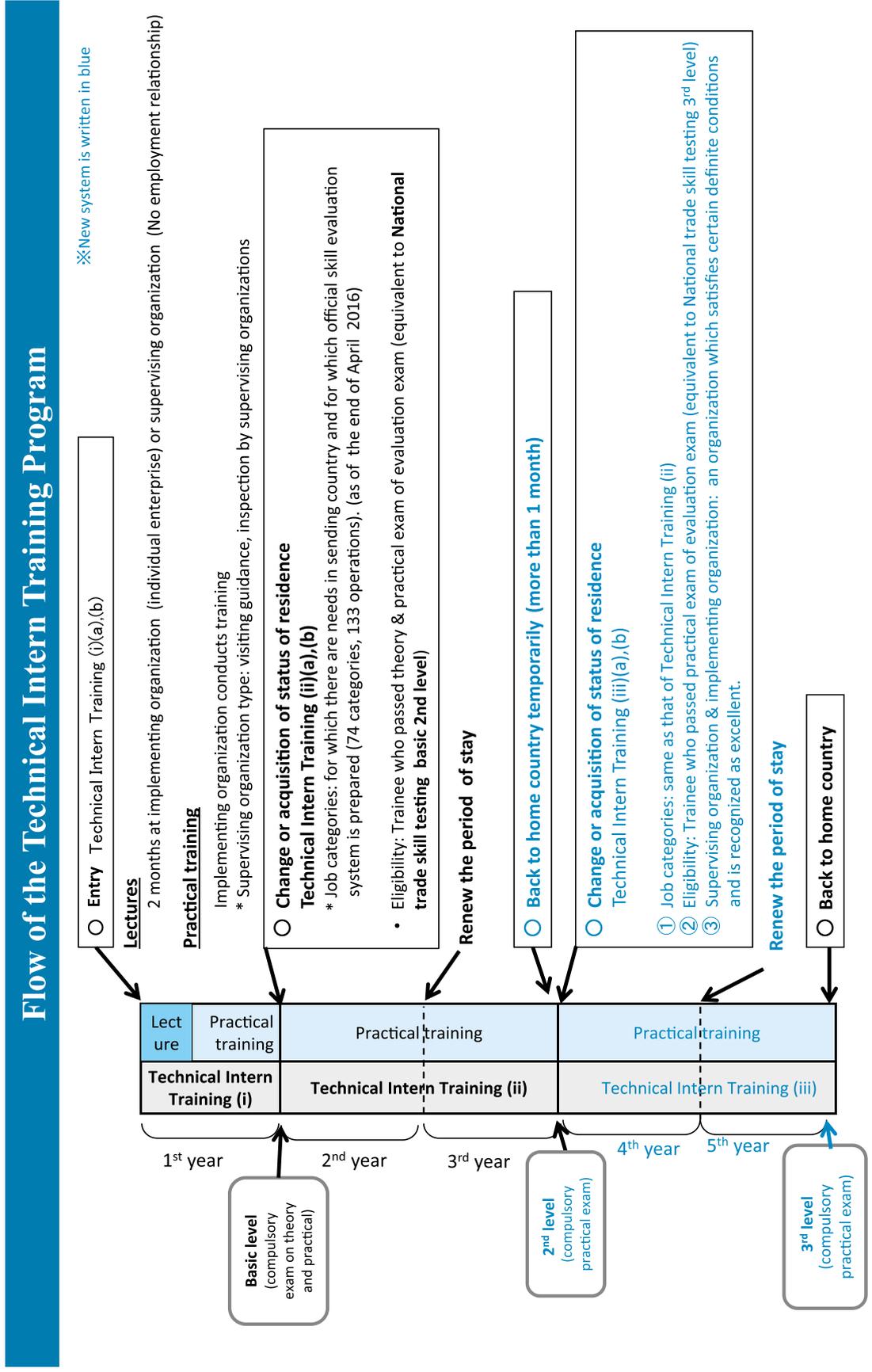
Entry requirements for migrant caregivers in Japan

The requirements for entering Japan for caregiving and nursing work differ from those of the general Technical Intern Training Programme. There are

97 Eaddy, "An analysis of Japan's immigration policy."

98 For more information about TITP, see <http://www.otit.go.jp/files/user/300614-1.pdf>

Figure 7: Flow of the Technical Intern Training Programme



Source: Immigration Bureau, Ministry of Justice Human Resources Development Bureau, Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, Japan (June 2018)

two channels for foreign caregivers or nurses to enter in Japan: through a work permit under an Economic Partnership Agreement and through a trainee visa under a special job category of the Technical Intern Training Programme. The trainee visa is different from a work permit.

JICWELS representatives said foreigners seeking work as caregivers and nurses under an Economic Partnership Agreement must apply through JICWELS, which is responsible for the recruitment of candidates, the identification of host institutions and the provision of support services. Under Economic Partnership Agreements, candidates have to study Japanese language and culture for six months before starting employment. If their language ability remains inadequate, they are required to take an entire year of study (six months before arrival and six months in Japan). JICWELS representatives said that host institutions pay for and arrange the training (including the six months preparatory

study before starting employment), which either will provide lessons directly or through language schools, universities or businesses. Candidates also have to undergo a ten-day induction period during which they learn about laws on immigration, employment and taxation; the basic structure of the nursing/caregiving sector; and practical topics such as Japanese communication styles and norms.

Outside of Economic Partnership Agreements, the Government of Japan addressed the growing critical shortage of nursing care workers by including the “care worker” job category in the Technical Intern Training Programme. Caregivers can obtain a trainee visa under this special job category. The trainee visa enables foreign caregivers who possess the Japanese Certified Caregiver qualification to work in Japan for five years. They are required to have Japanese language proficiency (see Figure 8). For further details of the requirements for foreign care workers, see Annex F.

Figure 8: Requirements Specific to Care Workers

- The technical intern trainee meets the following requirements. (Japanese language proficiency requirement)

Technical Intern Training (i)	Persons who passed N4 of the JLPT, or other persons with equivalent or greater competence ^{*1} .
Technical Intern Training (ii)	Persons who passed N3 of the JLPT, or other persons with equivalent or greater competence ^{*2} .

^{*1} Persons who passed N3, N2 or N1 of the JLPT.
Persons who scored 350 or more in the E-F level test or scored 400 or more in the A-D level test of the J.Test.
Persons who passed level 4,3,2 or 1 of the NAT-TEST.,

^{*2} Persons who passed N2 or N1 of the JLPT.
Persons who scored 400 or more in the A-D level test of the J.Test
Persons who passed level 3,2 or 1 of the NAT-TEST

(Trainees must also meet the common requirements of the Technical Intern Training Programme)

Source: Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, Japan. “Care Worker’ in Technical Intern Training Programme.” Social Welfare and War Victims’ Relief Bureau, Japan.

Current Rules and Regulations for Migrant Workers and Common Human Rights Issues in Japan

Since 1979, Japan has ratified a number of international rights treaties, including the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights; International Covenant on Economic, Social and Political Rights; United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women; Convention on the Rights of the Child, International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination; and Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment. But it has not ratified ILO Convention 97, Migration for Employment, or ILO Convention 143, Migrant Workers Convention (Supplementary Provisions). Japan has firmly opposed the International Convention on the Protection of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families.⁹⁹

Table 1 shows the Japanese labour laws and regulations that will apply to the foreign workers under the TITP.

Table 1: Application of Laws and Regulations in Japan (revised in 2016)

Name of the Act	Regulations
Technical Intern Training Act	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provisions regarding prohibitive acts in order to protect technical intern trainees. Technical intern trainees are able to submit a report to the competent minister in cases of violation of laws and regulations. Provisions for OTIT to provide counselling, assistance and protection for technical intern trainees
Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provisions regarding the status (residence status) of foreign nationals to reside (stay) legitimately in Japan and to engage in activities that may be conducted in Japan.
Labour Standards Act Minimum Wage Act Industrial Safety and Health Act	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Technical intern trainees work based on an employment relationship with an implementing organization, and therefore, the Labour Standards Act applies to you in the same way as to other workers working in Japan. (In addition, if you undergo lectures immediately after entry into Japan, this will apply after the end of the lectures). These Acts specify the minimum standards for working conditions. In cases of violation of the laws or regulations, you will be able to submit a report to the Labour Standards Inspection Office.
Other Acts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Acts on social insurance (health insurance and pension), labour insurance and tax will also apply.

Source: *Technical Intern Trainee Handbook*

99 S.S. Bhattacharjee, "Legal protection for migrant trainees in Japan: Using international standards to evaluate shifts in Japanese immigration policy", University of Pennsylvania, *Journal of International Law*, vol. 35, Issue. 4, Art. 10 (2014).

Human Rights issues under the Technical Intern Training Programme

The objectives of the Technical Intern Training Programme are to have workers from other countries acquire the skills and other necessities relating to Japanese industry, for workers to take advantage of the skills that they acquired after their return to their home country and for the workers to play an active role in the development of their home country's industries.

This programme has faced growing criticism within Japan and internationally for the exploitation and abuse (including sexual harassment) that trainees often face. For example, TITP stipulates that the wages of trainees should not be lower than minimum wages and that they should be on "an equal level to Japanese employees." However, according to Ministry of Justice 2011 figures, TITP wages were below average minimum wages and 37 to 48 per cent less than the average of workers in the manufacturing industry.¹⁰⁰

Various studies further report the following violations under the Technical Intern Training Act, despite the labour law:¹⁰¹

- The wages indicated in the employment terms and conditions are not being paid;
- Despite working overtime, workers are not being paid overtime compensation;
- Despite actually doing overtime, workers are instructed to stamp their

time card as though they do not have any overtime work;

- Workers are not given any break times;
- Workers are not allowed to take annual paid holidays;
- Technical intern training is forced by means of assault, intimidation, etc.;
- The content of the technical intern training differs from that given in the contract;
- Passports or residence cards have been taken away for 'safe keeping';
- Going outside is unjustly restricted; and
- Unfair restrictions on freedom in daily life.

Another important issue is that the Basic Law for a Gender-equal Society, Japan's national gender equality policy, lacks any clause on what must be done to ensure gender equality for female migrant workers under TITP. Researchers have argued that many female technical intern trainees in low-skilled or semi-skilled jobs are treated as "the other" and excluded from Japanese society and its social security.¹⁰²

The UN Human Rights Committee, UN Special Rapporteur on Migration, CEDAW Committee and the US Government Trafficking in Persons Report have criticized Japan's national gender equality policy. In 2014, the UN Committee voiced concern that, despite the TITP-related 2010 amendment extending labour law protection to foreign trainees, "there are still a large number of reports of sexual abuse, labour-related deaths and

100 "Learning Experience? Japan's Technical Intern Training Programme and the Challenge of Protecting the Rights of Migrant Workers" (October 2017) Available at: <https://www.ihrb.org/focus-areas/mega-sporting-events/japan-titp-migrant-workers-rights>.

101 Technical Intern Trainee Handbook, available from <http://www.otit.go.jp/files/user/docs/300226-09%E3%80%80.pdf>

102 Eaddy, "An analysis of Japan's immigration policy."

conditions that could amount to forced labour.”¹⁰³ It urged Japan to consider replacing TITP with a scheme genuinely promoting capacity-building rather than hiring low-paid labour and, in the interim, “to increase the number of on-site inspections, establish an independent complaint mechanism and effectively investigate, prosecute and sanction labour trafficking cases and other labour violations.”¹⁰⁴

Amid growing pressure to address the issues (specifically United States and UN concerns), the Japanese government in 2016 introduced legislation on TITP, enforced in November 2017. This new Technical Intern Training Act has tried to address some of the concerns by putting in place a stronger supervisory system, such as provisions regarding prohibitive acts in order to protect technical intern trainees (who are able to submit a report to the competent minister in cases of violation of laws and regulations) and provisions for OTIT to provide counselling, assistance and protection for technical intern trainees.¹⁰⁵

In a positive move, in late 2016 the Japanese government stated that it

will develop a national action plan to implement the UN Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights. This is significant as key features of the Guiding Principles, and the Protect, Respect and Remedy Framework they rest on, are crucial to addressing the challenges of TITP.¹⁰⁶

However, Japan needs a strategy to adopt relevant international standards and tools to ensure that migrant workers under TITP are fairly treated and protected and not the victims of exploitation and human rights abuses. For example, in terms of migrant worker protection, Japan has not ratified the ILO Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97)¹⁰⁷ or the Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143).¹⁰⁸

Supply Opportunities from Bangladesh to Japan

Similar to other South Asian countries, Bangladesh has a labour surplus that the domestic market is unequipped to utilize. An additional 2 million young people are added to the country’s labour force every year. In 2016, the unemployment rate was

¹⁰³ See Paragraph 16 of the report available at <http://www.mofa.go.jp/mofaj/files/000054775.pdf>.

¹⁰⁴ “Learning Experience? Japan’s Technical Intern Training Programme and the Challenge of Protecting the Rights of Migrant Workers” (October 2017) Available at: <https://www.ihrb.org/focus-areas/mega-sporting-events/japan-titp-migrant-workers-rights>.

¹⁰⁵ Technical Intern Trainee Handbook, available from <http://www.otit.go.jp/files/user/docs/300226-09%E3%80%80.pdf>

¹⁰⁶ <https://www.ihrb.org/focus-areas/mega-sporting-events/japan-migrant-workers-titp>

¹⁰⁷ http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:11310:0::NO:11310:P11310_INSTRUMENT_ID:312242:NO

¹⁰⁸ http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:11310:0::NO:11310:P11310_INSTRUMENT_ID:312288:NO

4.20 per cent;¹⁰⁹ in 2015, the underemployment¹¹⁰ rate was 7.1.¹¹¹ There is an immense pool of men and women in Bangladesh looking for work both at home and abroad.

The number of Bangladeshi female migrant workers has been rising since 1991, reaching a cumulative total of 696,000 by 2017.¹¹² According to BMET and the Bangladesh Embassy in Japan, in 2017, a total of 12 Bangladeshi women were working in Japan: nine as machine operators, one as a sales worker, one as a housekeeper and one as a construction worker (she had just arrived in October). Though very few currently work in Japan, opportunities for Bangladeshi female workers there seem promising — if women get the proper knowledge and skills training.

The Bangladesh Embassy in Japan promotes the employment and welfare of Bangladeshi workers in Japan in accordance with Bangladesh's Overseas Employment and Immigration Law of 2013, the Overseas Resident Welfare Policy of 2016 and the Workers' Welfare Fund Policy of 2002. The Embassy also gathers recruitment information from hiring agencies and provides valuable information to government agencies and recruitment agencies in Bangladesh.

Table 2 shows the opportunities for Bangladeshi female migrant workers in Japan according to this research, recruiting agencies and employers in Japan and the Bangladesh Embassy.

Table 2: Labour Market Needs and Potential Opportunities for Bangladeshi Female Migrant Workers under the Trainee System in Japan

Job Sectors	Occupation	Skill level	Preparation/training
Health care	Caregiver (high demand)	Semi-skilled	Skills training needed to Japan standards (Japanese language, care work education certificate, etc.) (see Annex F)
	Nurse	Nursing skills	Professional nursing skills training needed to Japan standards (Japanese language, nursing education certificate)

¹⁰⁹ <https://tradingeconomics.com/bangladesh/unemployment-rate>

¹¹⁰ Underemployment is defined as a situation where people are working fewer hours than they wish (e.g. a worker would like to work 40 hours a week but the firm only gives her 20 hours). Underemployment may also refer to the fact that workers accept jobs that don't utilize their skills (e.g. a college graduate working in housekeeping may be considered to be underemployed). See <https://www.economicshelp.org/blog/2129/unemployment/underemployment-definition/>

¹¹¹ Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, November 2015. Available from http://bbs.portal.gov.bd/sites/default/files/files/bbs.portal.gov.bd/page/96220c5a_5763_4628_9494_950862accd8c/QLFS_2015.pdf

¹¹² BMET statistical report on Overseas Employment of Female Workers from 1991 to 2017. Available from <http://www.bmet.gov.bd/BMET/statisticalDataAction>

Service	Cleaner	Less-skilled	Need to upgrade skills to learn Japanese work culture and Language
	Housekeeper	Less-skilled	Need to upgrade skills to learn Japanese work culture and Language
	Sales worker	Semi-skilled	Need to upgrade skills to learn Japanese work culture and Language
	Cashier	Semi-skilled	Specific skills training needed
	Catering worker	Semi-skilled	Need to upgrade skills to learn Japanese work culture and Language
Garment/ Textile	Machine Operator	Semi-skilled	Need to upgrade skills to learn Japanese work culture and Language
Construction	Construction worker*	Semi-skilled	Need to upgrade skills to learn Japanese work culture and Language
IT	IT technician	Semi-skilled/ skilled	IT skills training needed
	IT professional	IT Skilled	Certified IT degree

*Note: *Japanese employers prefer male migrant workers over female migrant workers for this occupation.*

Bangladesh already has a large number of females in the ready-made garment sector, and the country has the necessary training and skills development facilities to raise them to the standards of the Japanese labour market. Therefore, Bangladesh can send workers from this sector first and then gradually move on to send caregivers, a sector that requires a rigorous training process to prepare them. The government's Bangladesh Overseas Employment Services Limited (BOESL) is taking female ready-made garment workers to Jordan, a very good model to adopt for sending workers to Japan.

Potential Effects and Implications within the Stages of the Migration

Effects of Bangladeshi female labour migration in Japan and gender implications

International labour migration has progressively become a livelihood strategy for Bangladeshis. Changing global labour markets have expanded both opportunities and pressures for them to migrate in larger numbers.

All the Bangladeshi female migrant workers interviewed already had over five years of overseas employment experience before going to Japan, their second destination. Some left their

previous job abroad to come to Japan. They said they preferred to work in Japan because they consider it a more “prestigious destination,” in addition to the better salary and working environment.

Bangladeshi female migrants currently working in Japan earn a monthly salary of \$1,750 as garment workers. All interviewees said they have individual bank accounts in Tokyo and remit money directly into their accounts in Bangladesh. More than half said they had opened two bank accounts before migrating to Japan, one for themselves and the other one for their parents/spouses. More than half said their account nominees were their parents/spouse (other nominees were siblings or close friends and relatives). All of them used IME/Western Union Money Transfer to send remittances.

Most of the women said they can save 100,000 taka to 110,000 taka (\$1,230 to \$1,350) every month, using part of it to support their families in Bangladesh. Just one female worker, who had arrived in Japan in August 2017, said she cannot save monthly because she needs to send most of her income to her family. She said, “I cannot save like others, as I need to use most of my income for my daughter’s education and furthermore for my spouse to maintain his business. I am additionally supporting my parents and siblings.” She said her spouse started a business after returning to Bangladesh from overseas migrant work and needed her remittances because his business has not gone well. This is not an isolated story, and it makes clear how Bangladeshi female workers provide significant support to their families.

Bangladeshi female migrant workers interviewed for this report freely expressed their satisfaction working in Japan and said they felt secure and protected. According to the Japanese company’s representatives, this is

because migrant workers under the Technical Intern Training Programme are now also protected by the Japanese Labour Standards Law for their entire three years in the country, which was not the case earlier. One a garment worker said “the reason I moved to Japan was not just the relatively better earning facility, but in addition, better security, desire for a better living standard and for a better future. Bangladeshi people think we are not protected here. But we are very secure here, very protected here, and even our parents cannot provide us with that.”

These are the workers’ subjective views as they contrast their Japan experience with circumstances back home. These workers may not clearly understand what decent working conditions and social security are according to ILO definitions and in terms of human rights. The ‘Current Rules and Regulations for Migrant Workers and Common Human Rights Issues in Japan’ subsection details the situation of foreign migrant workers in Japan under the Technical Intern Training Programme, particularly concerning human rights issues.

Another Bangladeshi female migrant worker, who has been working in Japan since 2016, said “I am getting a higher salary here in Japan as simply a machine operator, which is much better than my previous stay in Mauritius. Money, accommodation, protected workplace — all are much better in Japan than other Asian countries that we have stayed in and experienced. I am more confident about my future. My family always discusses any family matter with me before it is done. They consider me as the main decision-maker for my family, which earlier was my elder brother. My financial contribution to the family is higher than that of my elder brother, who is also working in Malaysia. Not only my family but my friends and well-wishers also respect me a lot after I took an overseas job.” These comments

reflect how employment in Japan seems to contribute to the economic empowerment of Bangladeshi women as well as their ability to make autonomous decisions.

However, most of the garment workers said they had problems getting permission from their families to work in Japan due to the social stigmas associated with Bangladeshi women going into overseas employment. One worker said "our social condition is not in favour of us. Many Bangladeshi people think that working women, especially in overseas jobs, are not good. Our neighbours still blame my parents for allowing me to work in a foreign country. They talk ill towards my family for any reason, like it is a shame for my parents to depend on my earnings."

Such perceptions may change if women are encouraged to get higher-value jobs in diversified sectors such as those available in Japan.

Challenges and problems faced by Bangladeshi female workers migrating to Japan

Informal networks in the migration process

Bangladeshis can secure employment in Japan through the public recruiting agencies BOESL and BMET and through BMET-approved licensed private recruiting agencies. However, these agencies (including BOESL) depend on vast networks of informal intermediaries, called *dalals*, across Bangladesh who locate and mobilize female workers. Recruiting agencies said that because they are located in Dhaka, reaching women for overseas employment is challenging because those interested are mostly in rural areas. Therefore, many *dalals* serve as informal, irregular subagents

of the recruiting agencies, even though Bangladesh law unequivocally disallows the use of subagents and requires recruiters to publish job opportunities in the press.¹¹³ Recruiters interviewed said that women, more than men, prefer to use a subagent for migration rather than a recruitment agency based far away from their homes.

For the pre-departure stage, the female migrant workers interviewed for this study said they used *dalals* rather than direct contact with the formal, licensed recruiting agencies. (The one exception was a woman who migrated through her husband who was living in Japan). The *dalals* managed all pre-migration processes and travel arrangements on behalf of both sides (the workers and the recruiting agencies).

This study found that in most cases, the *dalals* dominated decision-making, procured travel documents, fulfilled legal obligations and organized the travel process. The female workers interviewed said they met with the recruiting agencies for their medical tests only. They said that though the *dalals* exploited them some of the time, they still preferred to depend on them rather than the recruiting agencies. According to a representative of the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Council, "Migrant workers feel safe and depend more on intermediaries because they think these people are nearer to them. That is the reason they don't go through the trouble or simply ignore the formal procedure. They go to the agency for medical tests only."

Costs of migration

The Government of Bangladesh stipulates that the total recruitment and migration cost for each worker should not exceed 84,000 taka (about \$1,014),

113 Provisions in the Bangladesh Overseas Employment and Migrants Act 2013 (S. 2 (15), S.19 (3) and S. 32).

but in practice this has not been followed. The Bangladeshi female migrant workers currently working in Japan said they had paid between 300,000 taka and 400,000 taka (about \$3,618 to \$4,825). The cost included air tickets and other expenses and a high fee to the recruiting agencies and intermediaries. In addition, they also had to pay for travel papers, medical test registration, pre-departure preparation and training. A 2014 study said the average migrant worker spends 309,259 taka (about \$3,730) on recruitment and migration.¹¹⁴

Most of the female migrant workers interviewed said they borrowed money for the migration process from their relatives and neighbours. Only two said that they had used their own money. None of them took a loan from a bank or other formal financing institution, though they were aware of that option. Female migrant workers have little direct interaction with official procedures because of the substantial inclusion of unpredictable intermediaries in their migration process.

Another risk associated with the use of informal channels is that if something unexpected prevented the workers from going to the destination country, they would not be able to recoup what they paid to the recruiting agencies and intermediaries. One of the Bangladeshi women working in Japan related the story of a group of six people (both female and male workers) who were not able to go to Japan for garment work because of false job certificates issued by their local recruiting agency and who were unable to recoup the sum paid to the intermediaries. Workers are vulnerable to fraudulent practices because they lack awareness of legitimate migration procedures and the required documentation.

In interviews for this study, BMET representatives said such information was

provided at orientation programmes held at the Technical Training Centres. They said a one-stop service centre was set up in Eskaton, Dhaka, with all types of services for prospective migrant workers relating to the migration process, including accommodation, ticketing, medical and testing facilities, communications and pre-departure briefings.

Pre-departure orientation trainings

BMET-affiliated training centres, private training institutions and private recruiting agencies provide migrant workers with pre-departure orientation training that uses modules developed to suit the general demands of the destination countries. This study found that to some extent, these trainings did help the Bangladeshi female workers currently working in Japan learn about the service conditions, working environment, wages and other benefits, remittance system, Japanese language and its sociocultural environment. But there are no proper mechanisms to incorporate the particular occupation/trade-based skills trainings that are needed to work in Japanese companies into the training curricula.

Most of the female migrant workers interviewed in Japan had attended a pre-departure briefing session and a three-month pre-departure training organized by a private training institute in Dhaka that taught life skills and basic Japanese language skills. The women received an additional month of training after joining the garment factory in Japan. They said the training in Bangladesh was not very effective compared with that in Japan, especially with regard to trade-specific skills and communication skills. This contributed to the biggest challenges they faced working in Japan.

114 Barkat, Hossain and Hoque, *The Cost: Causes of and Potential Redress*.

Risks and vulnerabilities

When asked about problems they encountered in Japan, the majority of the Bangladeshi female migrant workers interviewed for this study mentioned the Japanese language and communication requirements and issues relating to skills needed to advance their careers. Even though they appeared exceptionally energetic and dedicated, none of the women has the language skills needed to fully function at work. Since they can't communicate easily in Japanese, and learning English is not an adequate substitute, occasional misjudgements occur. This places an additional strain on these workers. They mentioned needing adequate time to get used to new accents and dialects and to generally improve Japanese language skills. As one worker said, "I had difficulties in the beginning because my English and Japanese language were poor when I came to Japan. I had attended a pre-departure training programme in Dhaka, but it did not work for me. Now I am trying hard to adapt to these challenges by learning by myself at home."

Asked why they did not seek assistance from the Bangladesh Embassy, most of the female migrant workers said they did not know where to contact or never considered approaching the mission for social services. While Bangladeshi missions in Japan play an important role in protecting the interests of Bangladeshi labour migrants, this lack of knowledge hinders female migrant workers from getting help for problems, particularly related to communication.

Skill Trainings

The women said that it is very important to learn the language, culture, living style, workplace behaviour, trade-specific skills, and other relevant skills before coming to

Japan, but they were taught more of that in the one-month training in Japan than in the four-month training in Bangladesh. They had to pay a 25,000 taka (approximately \$316) training fee in Bangladesh, whereas the training in Japan was free. They also complained about the competency of the trainers in Bangladesh.

Delivering quality training for Bangladeshi migrants to Japan depends on having competent instructors who have adequate knowledge and skills to meet the demands of Japanese employers. However, this study found that private training institution trainers are mainly diploma degree holders who lack appropriate knowledge and methods to incorporate the demands and requirements that are needed to work in Japan into the training curricula. They do not do any research on what skills female workers need in the Japanese labour markets. This results in inefficiencies in developing both the long-term and short-term skills of Bangladeshi female and male workers planning to work in Japan.

The private recruiting agencies that have trade-specific training facilities might be better service providers in this regard. Private-sector and research experts in Bangladesh said that these agencies provide short-term, trade-based training tailored to foreign companies' requirements. This study also found a few private recruiting agencies that have training centres in both Japan and Bangladesh that provide this kind of training. However, these recruiting agencies just teach the skills required for short-term jobs offered by specific Japanese employers. They do not take any initiative to enhance the long-term capacities of migrant workers seeking jobs in Japan. Some recruiting agencies do hire returning migrants who have adequate knowledge of Japanese society, language and work culture.

BMET recently launched a technical training centre in Dhaka for people planning to work in Japan. The Honorable Secretary Nomita Halder of the Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment said that technical specialists – including from the International Organization for Migration Japan and two Japanese consulting companies, GETCO and Media Bank – visited the centre and suggested ways to better prepare trainees. In addition, the government has signed a memorandum of understanding with Universal Medical Hospital, Mahakhali, to give caregiving courses in order to prepare workers for the Japanese and European Union labour markets. The private sector has shown interest in collaborating to establish training centres.

Another problem, the women said, was finding adequate accommodations while attending the Technical Training Centres in Dhaka. They said that even where the centres did have accommodation facilities, the facilities were not secure and provided low-quality food. One of the workers said, "before going for work, we went to the training centre but many times we had to go back without training due to the absence of the trainer. The training centre was very far and many of my friends were not able to go for training every day. Accommodation facilities provided by the centre also were poor."

Even though they did not attend all sessions, all the women interviewed said they received their training certificates.

Prospects and Projections of Employment by Occupation for Bangladeshi Female Migrant Workers in Japan

Japan is a major source of support for Bangladesh's economic and social development. The Ministry of Labour promotes the employment and welfare of Bangladeshis working in Japan in accordance with Bangladesh's Overseas Employment and Immigration Law of 2013, the Overseas Resident Welfare Policy of 2016 and the Workers' Welfare Fund Policy of 2002.

Bilateral agreements/ memorandums of understanding between Japan and Bangladesh

Bilateral agreements and memoranda of understanding between labour-sending and labour-receiving countries are promising mechanisms to establish effective government-to-government channels and methods of managing migration that the countries implement jointly. These agreements are based on collaboration and shared responsibility to enhance employment opportunities in the destination countries as well as to strengthen the rights of migrant workers.¹¹⁵ Bilateral negotiations and agreements between Japan and Bangladesh can be valuable instruments for promoting Bangladesh as a source of female workers for occupations in demand in Japan.

The Governments of Bangladesh and Japan have signed the following bilateral labour agreements:

- On 29 January 2018, a Memorandum of Cooperation was signed between the Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment of Bangladesh and the Ministry of Labour

115 Shamim, Ishrat and Holliday, Jenna, Country Overview and Migration in Bangladesh, UN Women, 2018.

of Japan to send technical interns to Japan. Bangladesh was the seventh country to sign the memorandum. The main purpose of the memorandum is to monitor and control the sending organizations as well as the selection of technical interns.¹¹⁶

- On 12 March 2017, the Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment of Bangladesh signed a memorandum of understanding with the International Manpower Development Organization, Japan on sending technical interns via BMET. Under this memorandum of understanding, Japan will support all the technical interns' expenses for five years as they do construction work for the Olympic Games in 2020 in Tokyo. The trainees will work as managers and supervisors with handsome honorariums and will receive a lump sum at the time of their return to Bangladesh after the completion of the job.¹¹⁷
- The Bangladesh Embassy in Japan said that a group of 16 Bangladeshi workers, including one female worker, migrated to Japan for five-year periods for construction work for the Olympic Games in October 2017.
- An agreement between BOESL and JITCO concerning the Technical Intern Training Programme is being negotiated; details are not available. Private labour-sending organizations of Bangladesh are also trying to enter this process.¹¹⁸
- In 2015, Bangladesh and the International Human Resources Development Organization of Japan

entered into a memorandum of understanding on sending Bangladeshi technical intern trainees.¹¹⁹

- In 2012, Bangladesh and JITCO signed an agreement on recruiting technical interns for different industrial institutions; accordingly, 24 Bangladeshi female workers were sent to Japan.¹²⁰
- In 2005, the Bangladesh Overseas Resident Benefits/Overseas Employment Ministry and JITCO signed "Minutes on Trainee Dispatch Proceedings."¹²¹

Projections of employment by occupation for Bangladeshi female migrant workers in Japan

Beyond the traditional Middle East destinations, Bangladeshi female workers are moving to other parts of the world, including Japan, and they want to work in higher-level positions such as supervisor and line manager. Japan is revitalizing its migration strategy to increase its foreign workforce in various sectors (see Table 3). In this context, these projections can be made about the migration of workers from Bangladesh to Japan:

- Japan will provide more employment opportunities to Bangladeshi female workers, but only if the level of skills needed match what Bangladesh can offer;
- There will be a smooth supply of female workers from Bangladesh to meet Japan's rising demand, but only if the level of skills match what Bangladesh can offer;
- The job opportunities for Bangladeshi

116 Source: Bangladesh Embassy in Japan.

117 Ibid.

118 Ibid.

119 Ibid.

120 The Daily Sun, "Bangladesh to export technical interns to Japan", 11 March 2017. Available from <http://daily-sun.com/post/211275/Bangladesh-to-export-technical-interns-in-Japan>

121 Ibid.

Table 3: Projection of Number of Bangladeshi Female Migrant Workers Employed in Japan, by Occupation, 2018 – 2022

Job Sectors	Occupation	Average* 2011-2017	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Health care	Caregiver/care work (high demand)	1	1	3	6	9	12	15
	Nursing	-	-	1	4	7	10	12
Service	Cleaning	-	-	1	3	6	9	12
	Housekeeping	1	1	3	6	9	12	15
	Sales person	1	1	3	6	9	12	15
	Cashier	-	-	1	3	6	9	12
	Catering	-	-	1	3	6	9	12
Garment/Textile	Machine operation	4	9	12	15	18	21	24
Construction	Construction labourer*	1	1	3	6	9	12	15
IT	IT support	-	-	1	3	6	9	12
	IT professional	-	-	1	3	6	9	12
TOTAL		8	13	30	58	91	124	156

Note: Indicates average employment of three-year moving average during the last seven years.

Source: Researcher's projections based on data from BMET and Bangladesh Embassy in Japan (October 2017)

female workers in Japan could lead to a rise in the proportion and number of women in Bangladesh's international labour force;

- On the macroeconomic side, this increasing flow will reduce the pressure on the domestic labour market and the higher remittances sent by Bangladeshi female migrant workers in Japan will increase Bangladesh's foreign exchange earnings; and
- Through their earnings and other benefits, these female migrant workers will improve their position and status in Bangladesh society. Thus, this migration will help empower Bangladeshi women.

The average number of Bangladeshi female migrant workers in Japan over the last seven years (2011-2017) was eight (see Table 3). If there will be a rise of three in each occupation each year (in some

categories and years there will be fewer because of difficulties and/or standards in recruitment and selection of Bangladesh workers), around 156 Bangladeshi female migrants will be employed in Japan by 2022. This is a very conservative estimate. The rationale for the rise of only at most three in each consecutive year is that there are special limitations on the number of Technical Intern Trainees (see Annex E).

2.2 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

This research highlighted these facts:

- Bangladesh is one of Asia's major labour-sending countries, but its flow is highly gendered. Of the 11.29 million Bangladeshi migrants who were working or who had worked abroad from the 2001 to 2017 period, only 6.07 per cent were women. From January 2004 to December 2017, the total number of Bangladeshi migrant workers in Japan was 1,153 – but just 23 were women.
- The type of work for which migrant workers are hired is gendered in nature, with Bangladeshi women in Japan concentrated in garment, housekeeping and sales work, while Bangladeshi men hold production-related, diversified jobs.
- The research for this report focuses on the Government of Japan's Technical Intern Training Programme because it is the most promising route for Bangladeshi women to diversify their skills and to secure job opportunities.
- Female migrant workers from Bangladesh, who are predominantly semi- and low-skilled, currently fill labour shortages in Japan. These women migrate to Japan because of unemployment and insecurity of livelihoods in Bangladesh and the desire for higher earnings and economic independence. The Technical Intern Training Programme has brought women significant financial benefits and has empowered them by enabling them to learn new skills and to enhance their decision-making and freedom.
- Previously, Japan admitted only short-term migrant workers (de facto low-skilled workers). More recently, it has adopted immigration policies focused on creating more (and more diversified) opportunities for foreign migrant workers and professionals through increased private-sector employment. The government also has implemented migrant recruitment schemes targeted at workers across the skills spectrum and expanded the numbers of migrants and length of stay, offering trainees up to five years of residency.
- The study found that there is high demand for professionals and skilled female (and male) migrant workers in information technology (IT) and in nursing and caregiving services in Japan. There is also demand for low-skilled and semi-skilled migrant workers in the textile/garments industry, manufacturing and services sectors. Priority will be given to skills for specific occupations, though, according to Japanese recruiting agencies, the Government of Japan would prefer female migrants for the health-care and service sectors.
- Employment demand in these sectors in Japan opens new alternative employment opportunities for Bangladeshi women. To avail themselves of these opportunities, they will need occupation/trade-specific skills, proficiency in Japanese and comprehension of Japanese work culture and lifestyle.
- Bangladesh's public and private training institutes do not appear to offer good-quality orientation or the kinds of skills training needed by women going to Japan to work. In the case of occupation/trade-specific skills trainings, there are no proper mechanisms to incorporate the skills required by Japanese companies into the curricula of the training institutes.

- This results in inefficiencies in developing both the short-term and long-term skills of Bangladeshi female workers. Compared with the training institutes, recruiting agencies might be a better choice in that they provide short-term, occupation/trade-specific skills trainings tailored to the requirements of Japanese companies.
- Some of the Bangladeshi female workers in Japan mentioned problems finding adequate accommodations while attending the pre-departure training programme in Bangladesh. It is extremely difficult for female workers to find adequate accommodations when they attend Technical Training Centres that don't have accommodation facilities. Even when the Centres do have such facilities, they are not secure and provide low-quality food and accommodation to the workers. As a result, women may not attend all the trainings. This report emphasized the importance of pre-departure and skills training.
- Many Bangladeshi female workers migrating to Japan are still using the services of unregulated individual intermediaries (*dalals*) to facilitate migration instead of directly contacting authorized recruitment agencies. Their significant dependence on *dalals* at every stage of the migration process – without an adequate understanding of the process – makes them highly vulnerable to abuse and exploitation (more vulnerable than male migrant workers). Using the *dalals* also results in higher costs for the workers. This is both an economic and a human rights problem.
- Lack of knowledge about the Bangladesh diplomatic mission in Japan and its functions hinders female migrant workers from seeking help

when faced with communications and other problems.

Recommendations

Based on these findings, the following recommendations can be made:

Promoting job opportunities for Bangladeshi women in diversified sectors in Japan

- The capacity of government-approved sending organizations (particularly the Bangladesh Overseas Employment Services Limited and the Bureau of Manpower and Training¹²²) to look for and offer more jobs for women in diversified sectors in Japan can be strengthened.
- Government-to-government recruitment will be made the regular channel for female workers to go to Japan. Starting 1 September 2018, all workers migrating through Japan's Technical Intern Training Programme must go through government-approved sending organizations such as Bangladesh Overseas Employment Services Limited (BOESL) and Bureau of Manpower Employment and Training (BMET).¹²³
- The Bangladesh Embassy in Japan should continue to promote opportunities for Bangladeshi female workers in diversified sectors in Japan, such as by organizing seminars for Japanese employers and recruiters on the specific sectors (such as health care, IT, garments, construction and services) in which Bangladeshi women now have good opportunities for employment.
- Bilateral negotiations and agreements can be valuable instruments for promoting Bangladesh as a source of female (and male) workers for

122 <http://www.otit.go.jp/files/user/docs/300328-2.pdf>

123 Source: Bangladesh Embassy in Japan.

occupations in demand in Japan. Japanese recruiting associations prefer to recruit Bangladeshi workers through bilateral negotiations. The Bangladesh Embassy in Japan should facilitate these channels.

Bilateral negotiations and agreements

- The Government of Bangladesh can negotiate with Japan to establish sets of standards on migration costs, wages and terms and conditions of employment consistent with Japan's labour laws.
- The 2016 Technical Intern Training Act has tried to address some of the concerns for the protection of migrant workers as technical intern trainees by putting in place a stronger supervisory system. However, the Government of Bangladesh needs to be aware of this, strengthen support to the Labour Attaché in Tokyo and keep in close coordination and dialogue with the Organization for Technical Intern Training (OTIT) to ensure that the supervisory system really protects the trainees.
- To facilitate direct labour recruitment, the Government of Bangladesh can negotiate with Japan to establish a database that would allow Japanese employers to directly select workers from Bangladesh. The database should contain a specific list of available workers sorted by international-standard job classification (e.g. International Standard Classification of Occupations).
- The bilateral labour agreements between Bangladesh and Japan can incorporate Mutual Recognition of Qualification Agreements in order to promote job opportunities for Bangladeshi women in diversified sectors such as health care, IT, garments and services.

Pre-departure orientation training

- The Government of Bangladesh should ensure that standard pre-departure training for female migrant workers to Japan includes information on human rights and international labour standards, consular support, legal redress, shelter support and mechanisms for reporting and resolving complaints.
- Orientation trainings for female migrant workers need more focus on the Japanese and English languages and on Japan's society, economy and culture. Japanese companies are very selective in hiring foreign workers and are particularly demanding in these requirements.
- The Institute of Language at the University of Dhaka and Alkhamis International (a recruiting agency in Japan with a language centre in Dhaka) have started providing Japanese language training to prospective migrants. The Government of Bangladesh will benefit if the Technical Training Centres follow these institutes lead on improving their training structure.
- Female migrant workers should be given orientation earlier — not while they are unable to focus on the orientation because they are making travel preparations and worried about leaving their families. Orientations should be given during the pre-selection period when the workers are waiting for final confirmation from the recruiting agencies on their job applications. Orientations given at that time will also help the applicants decide if they will be able to adjust to and work in Japan.
- It will benefit the Government of Bangladesh if it financially supports the capacity building of a core of proficient teachers who can teach the Japanese language and Japanese etiquette, behaviour and attitudes.

Skills training

- The Government of Bangladesh can take the initiative to prepare female migrant workers through skills training geared towards the diversified sectors (e.g. health care, IT, garments, construction and services) in which they have good opportunities for employment in Japan.
- Before organizing skills training, the government should commission a study to identify the particular skills required for female migrant workers in the current and emerging labour market in Japan.
- Female workers need to be equipped with the right level of skills appropriate to the high standards in Japan.
- Skills training should be offered in collaboration with Japanese companies and associations in order to ensure that the training meets the specific demands of Japanese employers. For example, care work training can be coordinated with the Japan International Corporation of Welfare Services; the Bangladesh Embassy can facilitate such arrangements.
- The Government of Bangladesh should work with certified private recruiting agencies in Japan and Bangladesh that specialize in providing occupation and trade-based skills training. Such public-private partnerships would improve training programmes.
- Training centres should keep in mind that Japan is highly advanced in technology. Thus, training in caregiving, for example, should include training the workers on how to use the actual machines and technology that are used in caregiving in Japan.
- The Government of Bangladesh will benefit if it considers working with private businesses that are interested in collaborating to establish technical training centres.

The role of the Bangladesh Embassy in Japan

- The Bangladesh Embassy in Japan should take the lead in promoting job opportunities for women in Japan and in ensuring that their rights are protected.
- The Bangladesh Embassy in Japan should maintain a registry of all Bangladeshi migrant workers in the country. It should use social media to inform and update the migrant workers about local labour rights laws and practices and it should encourage them to report any violations to the Embassy.
- The Government of Bangladesh should consider deploying at the Embassy an officer dedicated to helping female migrant workers who face occupational safety and health and other risks.

Controlling the role of the intermediaries in labour migration

- The Government of Bangladesh will benefit if it makes the current legal framework more gender-sensitive in the regulation of intermediaries, recruiting agents and sub-agents.

The role of intergovernmental and international agencies

- Agencies such as UN Women, the ILO and International Organization for Migration should provide technical support to Bangladesh and Japan in balancing the interests of both sides in labour migration.
- The Government of Bangladesh should seek technical assistance from these agencies to address issues of recruitment and migration costs, emigration and immigration systems and the development of standard terms and conditions of employment, including concerning occupational safety and health, protection of workers and social security for migrant workers.

CHAPTER III

SELECTED OCCUPATIONS TO EXPLORE NEW OPPORTUNITIES FOR BANGLADESHI FEMALE MIGRANT WORKERS

3.1 MAJOR FINDINGS

This chapter discusses the general situation of Bangladesh's female migrant workers, then examines aspects of caregiving work, such as employment trends and demand for female migrants; salary structure and trends; entry and employment requirements; rules and regulations and common human rights practices; risks and vulnerabilities; and supply opportunities from Bangladesh. This chapter then gives an overview of the beautician sector. Finally, it analyses the international labour migration of Bangladeshi women and the potential effects and implications within the stages of the migration cycle in care work and in beautician service.

An Introduction to Female Migrant Workers of Bangladesh

Overseas employment is Bangladesh's second-largest source of income.¹²⁴ There is now a total of 11 million migrants working overseas in 151 countries; 750,000-830,000 migrate each year.¹²⁵ Females comprise half of Bangladesh's population. Overseas labour migration allows them to significantly enhance their, their family's and the country's

overall economic empowerment. BMET data shows that from 1991 to 2017, 696,000 women migrated overseas for work. Figures 9 and 10 show the increasing number of women in migration flows. However, the percentage is still low compared to other countries that export large numbers of female migrant workers.¹²⁶

Migrants' overseas remittances to Bangladesh have grown at an average rate of 17 per cent per year since 2001, reaching over \$17 billion in 2017.¹²⁷ The BMET data on remitters is not sex-disaggregated. Experts said men generally remit larger amounts than women because they earn more, but women tend to send back a greater portion of their earnings.¹²⁸ An unpublished research report says Bangladeshi women remit on average 72 per cent of their income (compared to men's 45 to 50 per cent). Therefore, it is clear that despite the low proportion of female migrant workers abroad, their remittances have a significant effect on their families as well as on the national economy.¹²⁹ (Indeed, the expectation that female workers will remit more may place a burden on them.¹³⁰) Remittances may also increase the female workers' decision-making power at home and their social status, as social status is often displayed through material wealth.¹³¹

124 Bangladesh, BMET statistical reports, "Overseas employment and remittances from 1976-2017." Available from <http://www.bmet.gov.bd/BMET/viewStatReport.action?reportnumber=17> (accessed 29 November 2017).

125 Ishrat Shamim and Jenna Holliday, Country Overview and Migration in Bangladesh, UN Women, 2018.

126 Ibid.

127 Bangladesh, BMET statistical reports, "Overseas employment and remittances from 1976-2017." Available from <http://www.bmet.gov.bd/BMET/viewStatReport.action?reportnumber=17> (accessed 29 January 2018).

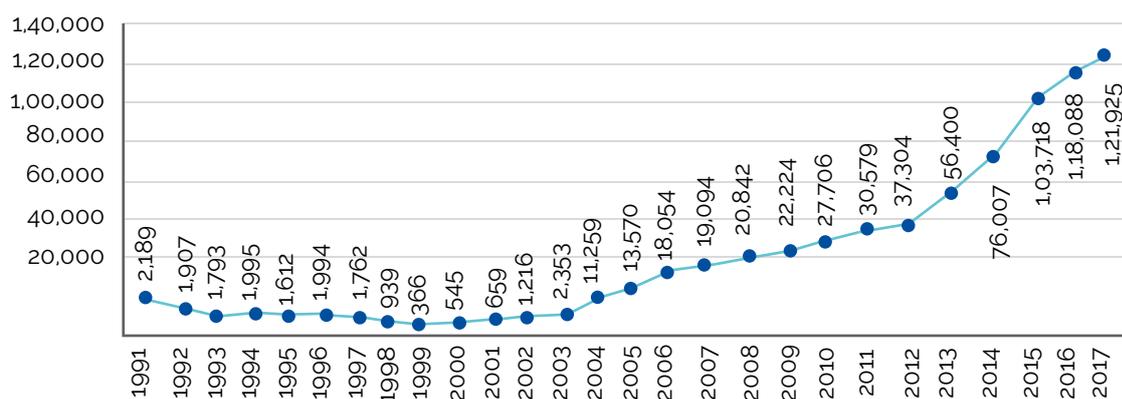
128 UN-INSTRAW & IOM2000, Omelanuik 2005, and International Federation for Human Rights, 2007, cited in Shamim and Holliday, Country Overview and Migration in Bangladesh.

129 Uttam Kumar Das, "Female migrant workers' remittances and contribution to the national economy: An exploratory research", May 2012 (unpublished). Available from <http://www.bomsa.net/Report/R1001.pdf>

130 Susie Jolly and Hazel Reeves, Gender and Migration: Overview Report, BRIDGE (2005).

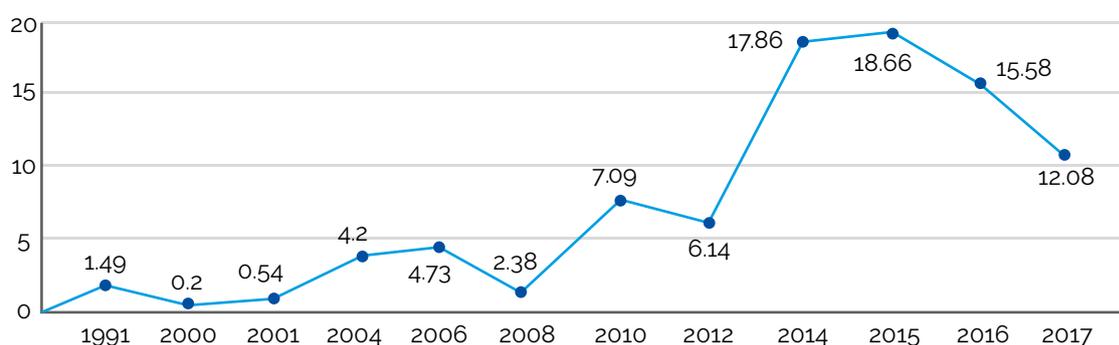
131 Barkat and Ahsan, Gender and Migration from Bangladesh.

Figure 9: Number of Bangladeshi Female Workers Migrating in Each Year, 1991 to 2017



Source: Bangladesh, BMET statistical reports, "Flow of migrant women workers from 1991 to 2017."

Figure 10: Percentage of Women in Bangladesh's Overseas Migrant Worker Flow, 1991 to 2017



Source: Bangladesh, BMET statistical reports, "Flow of migrant women workers from 1991 to 2017."

The top destination countries for Bangladeshi female migrant workers between 1991 and 2017 are shown in Figure 2. Saudi Arabia has become the top choice, followed by Jordan, UAE, Lebanon, Oman, Qatar, Mauritius and Kuwait. These countries are preferred by both Bangladeshi female and male migrant workers because of religion, culture and social network systems developed over the years.

Most Bangladeshi female migrant workers are engaged in less-skilled occupations such as domestic worker, ready-made garment factory worker, babysitter or

sales attendant. A small percentage are semi-skilled and skilled workers such as paramedics, accountants and teachers. See Annex H for a list of Bangladeshi female migrant workers by occupational classification.

Caregiving Work: An Overview

Caregiving or care work¹³² generally refers to a "range of tasks and activities to promote the personal health and welfare of people who cannot, or who are not inclined to, perform those activities themselves."¹³³ Care work can be defined as

132 Caregiving/care work is provided by a person called a caregiver/care worker, who provides direct care for elderly people, children, or chronically ill/disabled people.

133 Nicola Yeates, "Global care chains: Critical reflections and lines of enquiry", *International Feminist Journal of Politics*, 6 (3) (2004) 369-391.

"looking after the physical, psychological, emotional and developmental needs of one or more other people."¹³⁴ Code 5322 of the International Standard Classification of Occupations says care workers provide routine personal care and assistance with activities of daily living to persons who are in need of such care due to ageing, illness, injury, or other physical or mental condition in private homes and other independent residential settings. It is one of the most important sectors for employment of skilled or semi-skilled female migrant workers and provides essential contributions to economic growth.¹³⁵ This research focused on those who provide paid services for elderly and disabled people only, not babysitters or nannies for children.

The nature of the work and the working conditions differ greatly between institutional care and home-based personal care. In institutional care, the care worker usually works in a team with experts such as nurses, physical therapists and social workers, and working conditions are regulated. In home-based personal care, the work of the care worker converges with that of a domestic worker and thus is less regulated and more isolated.¹³⁶

Care work is an expanding sector for migrant workers worldwide. Particularly in industrialized countries, jobs caring for elderly or disabled people are often filled by female migrant workers from developing countries. Female workers

are increasingly migrating independently or as primary household earners to improve their own and their families' well-being, to earn income and to send remittances home.¹³⁷

In East Asia, elder care is undertaken by a wide range of individuals with various qualifications, including registered nurses and auxiliary nurses, care workers with some training or certificates, domestic workers with some experience and families and members of the local community. Migrants are meant to fit within this spectrum of qualifications, experience and skills needs.¹³⁸

Ageing populations and domestic labour shortages are generating demand for more migrant caregivers both in Western and Asian countries. Europe and Asia combined hosted nearly two thirds of all international labour migrants worldwide, with 76 million in Europe and 75 million in Asia.¹³⁹ In Asia, male migrants (58 per cent of all migrants) significantly outnumbered female migrants due to the strong demand for male migrant workers in the oil-producing countries of Western Asia. The demand for female migrants is intra-regional, with female migrants mainly working as caregivers, nurses, domestic workers and in other service jobs.¹⁴⁰

A 2016 study by Ito Peng found strong demand for (mostly) female migrant care workers in East and South-East Asia resulting from diverse changes, including rapid demographic ageing and low

134 Guy Standing, "Care work: Overcoming insecurity and neglect", in M. Daly, ed., *Care Work: The Quest for Security* (ILO, Geneva, 2001).

135 World Health Organization, "Women on the move: migration, care work and health", Geneva, 2017. Available from <http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/259463/9789241513142-eng.pdf?jsessionid=B0B6578AA729F30F1E10C6B8476B3200?sequence=1>

136 Ito Peng, "Transnational migration of domestic and care workers in Asia Pacific", MIGRANT working paper, ILO Global Action Program on Migrant Domestic Workers and their Families, Geneva, ILO, 2016.

137 World Health Organization, "Women on the move: migration, care work and health."

138 Reiko Ogawa, "Transformation of care in East Asia: Migration and emerging regional care chain", paper presented at workshop organized by Transforming Care Net, Japan, June 2017.

139 United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), *International Migration Report 2015: Highlights*, 2016 (ST/ESA/SER.A/375).

140 Ibid.

Figure 11: Percentage Distribution of Population Aged 65 and Over by Region: 2015 and 2050

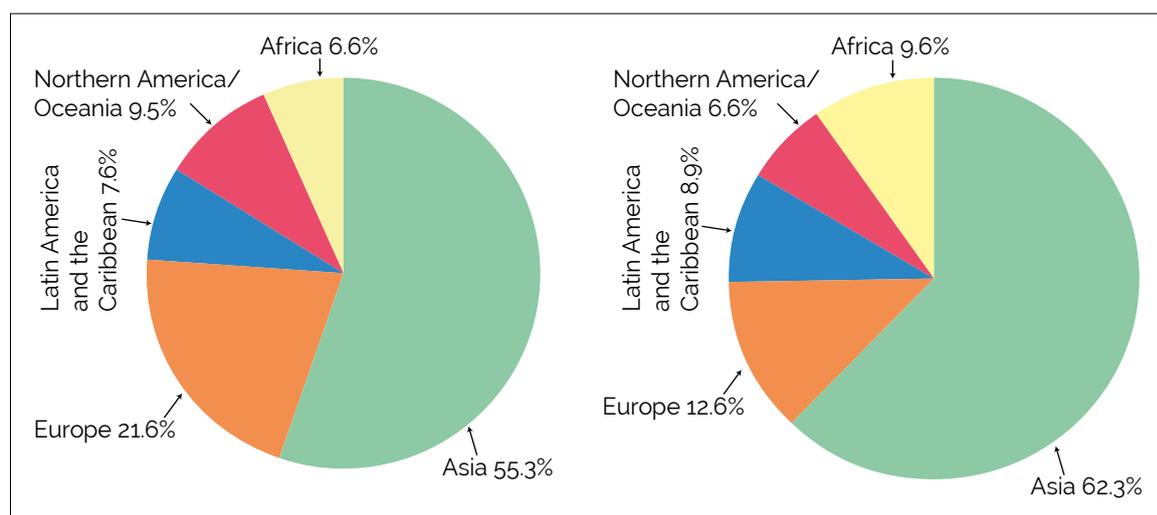


Table 4: Ageing Population (65 and Over) as Percentage of Total Population

Countries	1990	2000	2010	2035
China	5.5	6.7	8.2	21.3
Hong Kong	8.7	11	12.9	29.2
Indonesia	3.8	4.7	4.9	9.9
Japan	11.9	17.2	22.9	31.9
Philippines	3.1	3.2	4.2	7.5
Singapore	5.6	7.3	9.0	26.7
Korea	5.0	7.3	11.1	27.4
Taiwan	6.1	8.5	10.8	27.5
Thailand	4.5	6.6	8.9	22.8
Vietnam	5.7	6.4	6.5	14.6

Source: UNDESA, *World Population Prospectus: The 2015 Revision* (2016).

fertility, and women joining the workforce in richer countries; increased cultural acceptance of outsourcing family care to non-family caregivers; increased economic imperatives and incentives for female care workers to migrate for employment; and changes in social, economic and immigration policies in sending and receiving countries that together work to facilitate increased migration of female care workers.¹⁴¹

Fertility rates have fallen to very low

levels in most world regions, and people aged 65 and over¹⁴² are living longer. An expert study published in 2016 said the proportion of ageing people had reached 8.5 per cent of the world's total population and that Asia had the biggest ageing population, 617.1 million in 2015 (see Figure 11). By 2050, almost two thirds of the world's older people will be living in Asia.¹⁴³

Table 4 shows the rising proportions of ageing people in East and South-

141 Peng, "Transnational migration of domestic and care workers in Asia Pacific."

142 In this report, 'ageing' or 'elderly' refers to those aged 65 and over.

143 Wan He, Daniel Goodkind and Paul Kowal, *An Aging World: 2015*, U.S. Census Bureau, International Population Reports, P95/16-1 (U.S. Government Publishing Office, Washington DC, 2016).

East Asian countries. It is projected that one quarter to almost one third of the populations in these countries will be 65 or over by 2035, increasing demands for caregivers.¹⁴⁴

Current employment situation of migrant caregivers in destination countries

Western countries facing shortages of professional and home-based caregivers get their supply of female migrant care workers primarily from developing countries. For example, a substantial share of migrant workers in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland come from other European nations, while in the United States of America and Canada, they come from Central and Latin America.¹⁴⁵

In Asia, there is an active flow of female migrant care workers from poorer South-East and South Asian countries to richer East and South-East Asian countries that are facing labour shortages in health care. The main destinations for female migrant care workers are Hong Kong SAR, Japan, Republic of Korea, Singapore and Taiwan, while the key sourcing countries are Indonesia Philippines and Viet Nam (a small proportion come from India, Myanmar and Bangladesh).¹⁴⁶

There are diverse approaches to elder care and care policies among East and South-East Asian countries. This, in turn, influences the use of migrant care workers, policies towards them, migration patterns; working conditions, labour protection and the quality of elder care.¹⁴⁷

In Japan, female migrant care workers from the same South-East Asian countries enter under bilateral free trade agreements and the Technical Intern Training Programme and work in institutional care facilities. In the Republic of Korea, there is no formal immigration classification for migrant care workers.

In Taiwan, female migrant care workers from South-East Asia care for the elderly predominantly in private homes (home-based care work). Most of the female migrant care workers in Taiwan are ethnic Koreans, or *Chosonjok*, many of whom are long-term residents of the country and have a special work visa. In Singapore and Hong Kong SAR, home-based elder care has become increasingly dependent on short-term employment of female migrant care workers who provide basic services that local workers are reluctant to perform. All of these situations show that female migration for care work is linked to demand in both home-based elder care and long-term institutional care in the health-care sector.¹⁴⁸

Though there is no official gender-disaggregated data on foreign care workers in these countries; most of the caregivers are women who come from Indonesia, Philippine and Viet Nam.¹⁴⁹ The study said that the Philippines was the largest provider of female migrant care workers for several East Asian countries until the early 2000s. Since then, Indonesia and more recently Viet Nam and India have gained significant market shares. Of the 224,356 foreign migrant care workers in Taiwan in 2014, 79 per cent were from Indonesia, 12.3

144 Peng, "Transnational migration of domestic and care workers in Asia Pacific."

145 He, Goodkind and Kowal, *An Aging World: 2015*.

146 Peng, "Transnational migration of domestic and care workers in Asia Pacific."

147 Ibid.

148 Ibid.

149 Ibid.

per cent from the Philippines, and 8.4 per cent from Viet Nam.¹⁵⁰ The increase in Indonesian care workers in Taiwan has been explained by Indonesian brokers and Taiwanese recruiters effectively "marketing" Indonesians as naïve and subservient employees.¹⁵¹ One study, published in 2010, found that private agencies and intermediaries in Indonesia played important roles in recruiting, training and deploying Indonesian domestic and care workers abroad, often with active support from the government in advancing the labour deployment business.¹⁵² The number of Vietnamese care workers in Taiwan also increased significantly, from 5,221 in 2001 to 18,919 in 2015. Government data shows that of the 28,499 Vietnamese who arrived there from 2001 to 2016, about 26,500 were care workers.¹⁵³

Though much fewer in numbers, Indonesia and Philippines have been the main sources of foreign care workers and nurses in Japan. Eighty per cent of foreign care workers and nurses there are female.¹⁵⁴

The "live-in-foreign-caregiver programme" in Taiwan formally limits migrant care workers to providing care to frail elderly, and thus classifies them as caregivers rather than domestic workers.¹⁵⁵ Migrant care workers in Singapore are registered

as foreign domestic workers. In Hong Kong SAR, they are registered as foreign domestic helpers because there are no formal occupational classifications for these workers in their immigration laws.¹⁵⁶

A 2012 national survey of Singaporeans aged 75 and over found that approximately 50 per cent of them were dependent on foreign care workers for their daily care.¹⁵⁷ The care workers in Singapore are mostly from Indonesia, Philippines and Sri Lanka and a small proportion from India, Myanmar and Bangladesh. According to Humanitarian Organization for Migration Economics, a Singapore NGO, the government estimates that the number of migrant workers in Singapore will increase by 300,000 by 2030 as more caregivers arrive to serve the ageing population.

Hong Kong SAR introduced a new immigration channel for its rising middle class to hire care workers from other Asian countries. The combination of strong economic growth, rising domestic wages and the availability of foreign care workers has led to a steady increase in the intake of such workers. Today, Hong Kong SAR has Asia's second-highest ratio of migrant care workers to households, with one worker for every 7.5 households; Singapore has one worker for every five households (see Table 5). Hong

150 Ibid.

151 Li-Fang Liang, "The making of an 'ideal' live-in migrant care worker: Recruiting, training, matching and disciplining", *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 34 (11) (2011), 1815-1834.

152 Johan Lindquist, "Labor recruitment, circuits of capital and gendered mobility: Reconceptualising the Indonesian migration industry", *Pacific Affairs*, 83(1) (2010), 115-132.

153 Taiwan Ministry of Labor, "Foreign workers in productive industries and social welfare, 2014-2016" (2016). Available from <http://statdb.mol.gov.tw/statis/jspProxy.aspx?sys=210&kind=21&type=1&funid=q13016&rdm=eA3ignho>

154 Japan International Corporation of Welfare Services, 2017.

155 Peng, "Transnational migration of domestic and care workers in Asia Pacific."

156 Ibid.

157 Truls Ostbye, Rahul Malhotra, Chadima Arambepola and Angelique Chan, "Does support from foreign domestic workers decrease the negative impact of informal caregiving? Results from Singapore survey on informal caregiving", *The Journals of Gerontology* (2013).

Table 5: Total Number of Migrant Care Workers in Asia's Main Destination Countries, 2014

Country	Total number of foreign care workers	Total number of households (million)	Total population (million)	Ratio of foreign care workers to households
Hong Kong SAR	320,000	2.4	7.19	1/7.5
Japan	1,211*	51.84	126.95	1/42,807.6
Republic of Korea	70,000**	18.5	50.5	1/264.3
Singapore	231,500	1.17	5.47	1/5.1
Taiwan	224,356	8.19	23.4	1/36.5

Sources: Singapore Ministry of Manpower 2016, Taiwan (Republic of China) Ministry of Labor 2016, and Japan International Corporation for Welfare Services 2017

Notes: * Based on the number of Economic Partnership Agreement nurses and care workers residing and working in Japan as of 2014. ** Estimated, including undocumented foreign workers

Kong SAR has increased its budget and provisions for community-based elderly care services, largely run by non-profit volunteer organizations.¹⁵⁸ Singapore and Hong Kong SAR have long histories of using foreign migrant workers to fill labour shortages. The two countries share a similar official national rhetoric favouring a multi-ethnic and multicultural society and social and cultural norms favouring the use of non-familial care workers.¹⁵⁹

Care sector in GCC countries

GCC countries increasingly depend on migrants for elder and child care. Public expenditure contraction in the care economy, combined with falling state capacity to provide welfare, has created a greater need for migrant care workers employed by households in GCC countries.¹⁶⁰ ILO estimates that at least 2.1 million additional migrant domestic workers, including care workers, will be required in GCC countries¹⁶¹ over the next few decades due to the changing demographic profile and family structure.¹⁶² In the UAE, the proportion of the population over 60 was 40,000 in 2013.

158 Peng, "Transnational migration of domestic and care workers in Asia Pacific."

159 Ibid.

160 I. Bosc, "The *Kafala* system in the context of the care economy", Work In Freedom Presentation, ILO, 12 October 2016. Cited in Froilan T. Malit, Jr. and George Naufal, "Labour migration, skills development and the future of work in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries", Working Paper, International Labour Organization. October 2017.

161 The statistic includes all workers employed by private households, including gardeners, drivers, and butlers, who fall under the definition of the "care sector." ILO, Domestic Workers Across the World: Global and Regional Statistics and the Extent of Legal Protection, 2013. Available from http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@ed_protect/@protrav/@travail/documents/publication/wcms_155951.pdf. (accessed 20 June 2017).

162 Malit et al., "Globalization and the Khadama dependency syndrome: Effects, determinants, and implications of future domestic work demand on local families' socioeconomic status in the United Arab Emirates", Arabian Humanities (forthcoming). Cited in Malit, Jr. and Naufal, "Labour migration, skills development and the future of work in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries."

projected to increase to 207,000 in 2025.¹⁶³ In Saudi Arabia, at least 10 million people are expected to be 65 or older by 2050.¹⁶⁴

Regardless of the skills levels required, care work will continue to be carried out by migrants, mostly from Ethiopia, Indonesia, Kenya and the Philippines.¹⁶⁵ Low wages, difficult working conditions and the stigma attached to care work often generate demand and preference for migrants and discourage nationals from pursuing such careers in the Gulf countries.¹⁶⁶

While there are no official statistics, representatives of Bangladeshi recruiting agencies and NGOs working on migration issues who were interviewed for this report said Bangladeshi female workers are going to work as caregivers for the elderly in Lebanon, Qatar and Saudi Arabia. They said that though Bangladeshi female migrant workers are hired mainly to care for the elderly, in reality, they also care for sick people and children and do domestic work. In other words, regardless of the formal classifications, Bangladeshi female migrant care workers in these countries do a wide range of domestic and care services that often go beyond their formal job descriptions.

Salary structure and trends in caregiving work in Singapore and Hong Kong SAR

In Singapore and Hong Kong SAR, almost all the foreign care workers are registered as foreign domestic workers/helpers.

There is no legislated minimum wage in Singapore, whether for citizens or migrant care workers. Wage levels are determined by market demand and supply for labour. The labour law says employers should pay their employees, whether local or foreign, based on their skills, capabilities and competencies.¹⁶⁷ The monthly salary of a migrant care worker in Singapore started at S\$350 (for those with no nursing training) to S\$510 (US\$268 to \$390), and the average salary was about S\$450 (US\$334).¹⁶⁸ The NGO also said late payment of wages is a prominent problem faced by migrant workers in Singapore.

In Hong Kong SAR, on average, a migrant care worker/domestic helper gets about HK \$4,110 (US\$530) per month.¹⁶⁹ Recruiting agencies in Bangladesh said that although the minimum wage doesn't apply to migrant domestic workers,

163 S. Leigh, "Growing problems of an ageing Emirati population", *The National*, 15 June 2013. Available from <https://www.thenational.ae/uae/growing-problems-of-an-ageing-emirati-population-1.320346>.

164 H. Abusaaq, "Population aging in Saudi Arabia", *Saudi Arabia: SAMA*, 2015. The improvement in life expectancy across the GCC countries will likely generate more demand for migrant care workers for the ageing population's health care needs. Available from <https://www.thenational.ae/uae/care-plan-for-the-uae-s-ageing-population-1.397260> and <http://www.sama.gov.sa/en-US/EconomicResearch/WorkingPapers/population%20aging%20in%20saudi%20arabia.pdf>.

165 R. Jureidini, "Migrant workers and xenophobia in the Middle East", 2003. Available from [http://www.unrisd.org/80256B3C005BCCF9/\(httpAuxPages\)/045B62F1548C9C15C1256E970031D80D/\\$file/jureidin.pdf](http://www.unrisd.org/80256B3C005BCCF9/(httpAuxPages)/045B62F1548C9C15C1256E970031D80D/$file/jureidin.pdf).

166 Malit, Jr. and Naufal, "Labour migration, skills development and the future of work in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries."

167 Singapore, Ministry of Manpower, "Is there a prescribed minimum wage for foreign workers in Singapore." Available from <http://www.mom.gov.sg/faq/workpermit-for-foreign-worker/is-there-a-prescribed-minimum-wage-for-foreign-workers-in-singapore> (accessed 12 January 2017).

168 Humanitarian Organization for Migration Economics, "Wage theft & exploitation among Singapore's migrant workers", position paper, January 2017. Available from <http://home.org.sg/homeosg/wp-content/uploads/2017/07/Wage-Theft-Exploitation-among-Singapores-Migrant-Workers.pdf>

169 Hong Kong SAR, "Minimum allowable wage and food allowance for foreign domestic helpers to increase", press release. Available from <http://www.info.gov.hk/gia/general/201409/30/P201409300619.htm>. (accessed 26 Oct 2017).

Table 6: Pay Projection for Foreign Care Workers in Singapore and Hong Kong SAR, in US dollars

Destination Country	Average monthly salary			
	2016-2017	2018	2019	2020
Singapore	\$334	\$347.36	\$361.25	\$375.70
Hong Kong SAR	\$530	\$551	\$573	\$596

Note: Assume 4% increment in each consecutive year from 2018 to 2020

Source: Author's projections from field research, September 2017

under the Bangladesh-Hong Kong memorandum of understanding (MoU), it does apply to migrant care workers, even though they entered Hong Kong SAR as domestic workers. The Minimum Wage Ordinance that came into effect on 1 May 2011 set a minimum wage of HK\$28.50 (US\$ 3.65) per hour. That rate has been increased every two years, and as of 1 May 2017, it was HK\$34.50 (US\$ 4.41) per hour. The next review will be on 1 May 2019. The statutory minimum wage applies to most employees except live-in domestic workers.

Table 6 shows that the average monthly salary of migrant care workers in 2016 to 2017 in these countries was \$334 and \$530. If we assume an increase of 4 per cent in each consecutive year — a figure recruiting agencies and other sources said the care workers should be able to get for work experience and performance — by 2020 the increase will amount to \$41 and \$66 in Singapore and Hong Kong SAR, respectively. This is a very conservative estimate.

Though the increase may seem minimal, it is a good amount for a Bangladeshi female migrant care worker who earned less than \$50 without any increment year after year back home. A Bangladeshi female migrant interviewed for this study said that one of the reasons she went abroad as a care worker was to earn more. Since the pay mainly depends

on workers' skills, Bangladeshi female migrant care workers can earn more by upgrading their skills in caregiving.

This study found that in some countries, including Singapore, employers usually provide additional training to all new caregivers before sending them to their clients (the elderly people). In Hong Kong SAR, employers prefer already-trained caregivers.

The Bangladeshi female migrant care workers interviewed for this study who looked after elderly people in Hong Kong SAR and Singapore said they received a 15-day skills training from their employers after arriving. They had previously worked in Gulf countries, where they had to take care of both children and elderly people besides doing other housework.

According to recruiting agency representatives, the average monthly salary of Bangladeshi female migrant care workers in the GCC countries is \$250. That is generally \$50 more than the minimum salary of a migrant domestic helper. However, the representatives noted that wages and fringe benefits depend on employers' preferences in these countries.

A 2015 study by the German development agency GIZ and ILO said employers are likely to hire based on general perceptions; if they think a certain country is more skilled in a specific area, they may

favour female care workers from that country and give them higher wages and fringe benefits.¹⁷⁰

Labour rights and protections

The Governments of Hong Kong SAR, Singapore and Taiwan have all used financial support, tax incentives and immigration policy reforms to help families employ foreign care workers. This has led to a large intake of such workers in the three countries.¹⁷¹

The main regulatory instrument in Singapore for managing the employment of foreign workers is the Employment of Foreign Workers Act (No. 21 of 1991). A Guide for Employers, published by the Ministry of Manpower, recommended that employers draw up an employment contract with the foreign worker. The actual content of the contract, including terms and conditions of employment and wages, is to be negotiated by the worker (or the agency) and the employer without government involvement. The Guide describes a way of settling employment disputes. It also enumerates a list of penalties for different kinds of abuses of foreign domestic workers. The Ministry of Manpower has a free conciliation service and helpline. There also are a few NGOs in Singapore that advocate for the rights of migrant workers, such as the Humanitarian Organization for Migration Economics.¹⁷²

Under the revised Employment of Foreign Workers Act (2012), migrant care workers are protected from exploitation in working hours and rest days. An employer can require a maximum of 14 hours a day

with the employees' consent in writing. A migrant care worker is not supposed to work for more than 44 hours a week or overtime of more than 72 hours per month and must have one whole day for rest every week. The worker is eligible for free medical care. Employers are required to provide the workers with safe working conditions, adequate accommodations, bedding and sanitation facilities.

According to an ILO press release in 2011, Singapore's Government said, "while everyone must adhere to a universal standard of human rights, the interpretation and implementation of rights could not be divorced from their societal context and would evolve as society evolves." The release said Singaporeans have positive attitudes towards migrant workers and Singapore is considered to have an effective system and administration for protecting their rights.¹⁷³

In Hong Kong SAR, the Employment Ordinance is the main employment legislation. It covers migrant care workers under the national labour laws and regulations. It guarantees certain minimum benefits, including paid annual leave, paid sick leave, paid maternity and paternity leave, a minimum notice of termination and a right to make a payment in lieu of notice.¹⁷⁴

In general, Hong Kong SAR has a high level of civil liberties. Human rights protections are enshrined in the Basic Law and the Bill of Rights ordinance (Chapter 383). The Basic Law allows people who are not of Chinese nationality to apply for

170 Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH and ILO, Labour Market Trends Analysis and Labour Migration from South Asia to Gulf Cooperation Council Countries, India and Malaysia (2015).

171 Peng, "Transnational migration of domestic and care workers in Asia Pacific."

172 Asian Migration News, December 2001.

173 ILO, "New ILO survey reveals limited public support for migrant workers' rights in Asia; ILO campaign aims to improve understanding between host population and migrant workers", 20 July 2011.

174 Thoma and Gillian, "Employment and employee benefits in Hong Kong."

permanent residency if they entered on a valid travel document, ordinarily resided in Hong Kong SAR for a continuous period of seven years and have taken the territory as their place of permanent residence. In 2011, the High Court held that the Basic Law applies equally to all people, including foreign care workers. Human rights advocates called this an important step forward in eliminating discrimination against migrant workers.¹⁷⁵

In March 2016, the Equal Opportunity Commission in Hong Kong SAR announced the outcome of its Discrimination Law Review and set out 73 recommendations for reform. In March 2017, the government announced that nine of the recommendations will be taken forward as priorities. They include strengthening protections against discrimination and harassment of people in a common workplace and in service industries and repealing provisions requiring proof of intention to discriminate.¹⁷⁶

These facts demonstrate that Hong Kong SAR could be a good destination for Bangladeshi women to do care work. However, to enter this market, they will need to strengthen their skills in this field. One of the initiatives the Government of Bangladesh has taken on international labour migration over the last decade is to offer female workers trade courses on care work and beatification as well as life skills. However, according to recruiting agencies and NGOs, this initiative was not successful because of inadequate resource mobilization and implementation.

Entry and employment requirements for female migrant workers in care work

Both Singapore and Hong Kong SAR have reformed their immigration policies to enable families to secure foreign care workers.¹⁷⁷

The Singapore government has implemented clear migration policies with visa categories for migrant workers. The Employment of Foreign Workers Act prohibits the employment of foreign workers without valid work permits and penalizes employers who do so. The employer must pay a fee to the government to obtain the work permit for the worker. Employers are required to post a S\$5,000 (US\$2,749) bond with the government to guarantee the worker's repatriation at the end of her two-year work permit. Singapore is said to be relatively successful in regulating the inflow of migrant workers.¹⁷⁸

Hong Kong SAR Government regulations are also protective of the employer and the domestic labour market. Foreign workers cannot take up part-time or unauthorized work. If the worker's contract is prematurely terminated, the worker can only remain in Hong Kong SAR until the contract's original end date or for two weeks, whichever is shorter.¹⁷⁹

Almost all foreign care workers are registered as foreign domestic helpers in Hong Kong SAR. They usually obtain employment contracts with local employers through recruitment agencies in their home countries or in Hong Kong SAR.¹⁸⁰ Bangladeshi women seeking care

175 Peng, "Transnational migration of domestic and care workers in Asia Pacific."

176 Thoma and Gillian, "Employment and employee benefits in Hong Kong."

177 Peng, "Transnational migration of domestic and care workers in Asia Pacific."

178 Laws of Singapore are available from <http://statutes.agc.gov.sg>

179 Thoma and Gillian, "Employment and employee benefits in Hong Kong."

180 Peng, "Transnational migration of domestic and care workers in Asia Pacific."

work overseas are statutorily required to apply either through government recruiting agencies or government-approved (licensed) private recruitment agencies.

In order to secure an offer of employment in Hong Kong SAR, foreign care workers must enter into a three-year Standard Employment Contract, which sets out the responsibilities and entitlements of both employer and worker. The contractual provisions include the employer's obligation to provide the worker with suitable accommodations and the worker's entitlement to all rest days and statutory holidays. Employers may not enter into alternate contracts with the workers; such contracts are not legally enforceable in Hong Kong SAR. Aside from the rights contained in the Standard Employment Contract, labour protections conferred by the Employment Ordinance and Employment Agency Regulations extend to foreign care workers.¹⁸¹

Existing and required skills for care work and potential supply and demand

According to representatives of BOESL and the Bangladesh Association of International Recruitment Agencies, both Hong Kong SAR and Singapore stipulate basic requirements for female migrant caregivers, including: aged between 25 and 45 years, an educational certificate of at least graduation from higher secondary school, caregiver skills training, at least two years of work experience and basic English language ability. They said workers with a diploma degree in paramedics/nursing will get better opportunities in these destinations.

The Bangladeshi female migrant care

workers interviewed for this study said they went to Hong Kong SAR and Singapore initially as domestic helpers through recruiting agencies and later moved into care work; they did not explain how they made this transition. All of them had a higher secondary school certificate. They had gone to Gulf countries four to five years before as domestic helpers, where they cared for both children and elderly people. They had left the jobs due to various reasons, including low salary with no other benefits, late payments and unacceptable working environments.

The women said they were able to get their current jobs because of their previous work experience and training abroad. They said employers prefer job-specific skills in this sector along with work experience. The recruiting agencies and government officials also highlighted the importance of caregiving training because this could mean higher salary and other benefits as well as preferential treatment and greater opportunities in the destination countries, especially in South-East and East Asia.

Having skills that are formally recognized and certified can strengthen a female migrant caregiver's ability to negotiate higher wages and to access better jobs.¹⁸² For these reasons, the Government of Bangladesh, with support from ILO, UN Women and other development partners, has organized programmes for skills development of workers. BMET-affiliated training centers, private training institutions and private recruiting agencies provide pre-departure orientation training. These trainings are mostly provided to female workers who migrate as domestic workers to GCC countries, Malaysia, Hong Kong SAR and other places.

181 Thoma and Gillian, "Employment and employee benefits in Hong Kong."

182 ILO and Asian Development Bank, ASEAN Community 2015: Managing Integration for Better Jobs and Shared Prosperity (Bangkok, 2014), p. 74.

However, while these trainings may prepare the women to cope with the sociocultural environment in destination countries, they often lack market relevance because of the dated curricula and technology used in the training courses.¹⁸³

Furthermore, in the case of trade-based trainings, there are no mechanisms to incorporate specific foreign demand into the training curricula.¹⁸⁴ The job placement cells at the Technical Training Centres are unable to perform efficiently. They have no specific process or system to determine how many trainees who had participated in trade-based training there migrated for jobs overseas. Female migrant worker participation in trade-based training is low. This is in part due to the high demand for female migrant workers to do domestic work overseas. Another reason is that social norms in Bangladesh disapprove of women's participation in trade-based occupations.¹⁸⁵

The demand for unskilled Bangladeshi workers abroad has meant that the institutes give less emphasis to occupation-specific skills training. Thus, the particular occupational skills required by employers overseas have not been adequately incorporated into the trainings.¹⁸⁶

Singapore is heavily reliant on foreign labour. Approximately 35 per cent of its total workforce consists of foreign workers. The number of workers has been increasing in three major industries:

construction, manufacturing and services (including care work).¹⁸⁷ This presents an opportunity for Bangladeshi female migrant care workers to enter a new market.

Bangladesh does not have a bilateral labour agreement or MoU with Singapore,¹⁸⁸ which would be useful in tapping potential opportunities for Bangladeshi female migrant care workers. MoUs between countries of origin and countries of employment are an example of a rights-based good practice because they provide effective government-to-government migration channels, set out methods of jointly managing migration and guarantee migrant workers coverage under the labour laws. An MoU would also help to improve the skills of Bangladeshi care workers who migrate to Singapore, including through exchanges of instructors to provide better training on care work.

In November 2017, the Hong Kong SAR newspaper *South China Morning Post* quoted the territory's Secretary for Labour and Welfare, Law Chi-kwong, as saying Hong Kong SAR needs a fresh wave of domestic helpers to take care of a rapidly ageing population. Dr Law said "today we have 360,000 foreign domestic helpers. Because of an ageing population, 30 years down the road, that demand will grow to 600,000. That means an additional 240,000 foreign domestic helpers, just for looking after the elderly." He said the Labour and Welfare Bureau is actively exploring new sources such as Cambodia

183 Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment, BMET and ILO, Skills for the International Labour Market: Bangladesh Country Report (Dhaka, 2015).

184 Ibid.

185 Ibid.

186 Ibid.

187 Singapore, Ministry of Manpower, "Is there a prescribed minimum wage for foreign workers in Singapore." Available from <http://www.mom.gov.sg/faq/workpermit-for-foreign-worker/is-there-a-prescribed-minimum-wage-for-foreign-workers-in-singapore> (accessed 12 January 2017).

188 Barkat and Ahsan, Gender and Migration from Bangladesh.

and Myanmar and increasing efforts to tap into existing ones such as Bangladesh to cope with growing demand.¹⁸⁹

Bangladesh does have a 2012 MoU with Hong Kong SAR that is useful in tapping this opportunity.¹⁹⁰ Average salaries for home-based care work there are much higher than in the Gulf countries, so Hong Kong SAR could present a financially attractive destination for Bangladeshi female care workers.

According to a representative of a Bangladesh public recruiting agency, from 2012 to 2014 the government sent 291 women to take up jobs as domestic workers in Hong Kong SAR with two months of vocational and language training. The women received loans from the state-owned Probashi Kallyan Bank in Bangladesh for migration costs and initial living expenses in Hong Kong SAR.

Rules and regulations for female migrant care workers and common human rights practices in destination countries

In Hong Kong SAR and Singapore, families commonly outsource familial care to foreign live-in workers. Studies note that because these workers work in private homes and in live-in situations, public monitoring is often difficult and enforcement of regulations to protect them from employer violations of work conditions is limited.¹⁹¹

In Hong Kong SAR, foreign care workers

have been contractually required to live and work in their employer's residence since the immigration policy was amended in 2003. The cited rationale for the requirement is to ensure "provision of a full-time, live-in domestic service" for Hong Kong SAR residents. Since the workers must stay for extended periods of time in their employer's home, there have been concerns about increased vulnerability to exploitation and abuse. And while employers are contractually obligated to provide workers with suitable accommodations with "reasonable privacy," the government has yet to establish a mechanism to enforce this.¹⁹²

Singapore law protects migrant care workers from exploitation in terms of working hours and rest days. A migrant care worker is not supposed to work for more than 44 hours a week or overtime of more than 72 hours per month and must get one whole day for rest every week. Workers are eligible for free medical care. Safe working conditions are regulated. Employers are required to ensure that workers are provided with adequate accommodations, bedding and sanitation facilities.¹⁹³

A Bangladeshi female migrant care worker in Singapore interviewed for this study said she shared a room with her client, an elderly person. She said she did not experience wage discrimination, but referred to a general discontent across all nationalities regarding low levels of pay in elderly care. This research found that other factors that constrained

189 South China Morning Post, "Hong Kong will need 600,000 domestic helpers in next 30 years amid demand for elderly care, labour chief says", 05 November 2017. Available from <http://www.scmp.com/news/hong-kong/community/article/2118462/hong-kong-will-need-600000-domestic-helpers-next-30-years>

190 UN Women, Study on External Market Analysis for Women Migrant Workers.

191 Brenda S.A. Yeoh and Shirlena Huang, "Foreign domestic workers and home-based care for elders in Singapore", *Journal of Aging and Social Policy*, 22 (1) (2010) 69–88.

192 Ibid.

193 Laws of Singapore are available from <http://statutes.agc.gov.sg> (accessed 12 January 2017).

the relationship between clients and caregivers included language and communication problems; inadequacies in job-specific education and training; and quality of care, notably due to staff shortages and lack of time for caregivers to attend to the needs of elderly clients and to form strong relationships.

The female migrant caregivers interviewed said they needed more time to improve their English and local language and job skills. The female caregiver in Singapore said "I had some difficulties in the beginning because my English was very poor when I came to Singapore. Now I feel pretty much okay because my employer and client understand me."

Potential for matching with supply opportunities from Bangladesh and projection of employment opportunities

Both Singapore and Hong Kong SAR have long histories of using foreign migrant care workers to fill labour shortages. They share a similar official national perspective favouring a multi-ethnic and multicultural society and therefore have little aversion to foreign care workers as long as they don't remain as long-term residents. Social and cultural norms favouring non-familial care workers are also widespread in these two countries.¹⁹⁴

Bilateral agreements between Bangladesh and destination countries have mostly focused on the expansion of markets for migrant workers without a significant focus on skills development.¹⁹⁵ Establishing linkages between supply and demand for skills would require addressing skills accreditation and standardization issues in bilateral agreements.¹⁹⁶

This study found some good practices in this regard. For example, under their bilateral agreement, the Governments of Indonesia and Singapore are working together to improve the skills of Indonesian workers who migrate to Singapore, including through exchanges of instructors to provide better training on care work. This is a step Bangladesh could take.

In both Singapore and Hong Kong SAR, trends in demographics and economic growth are likely to continue to increase the demand for caregivers for elderly and disabled people. Under these circumstances, the employment of Bangladeshi female caregivers is projected to grow steadily in coming years (see Table 7).

This study was not able to assess job opportunities for female migrant caregivers in Gulf countries due to limited labour market information in these countries. In reality, Bangladeshi women who work as caregivers for the elderly in Gulf countries do a wide range of domestic and care services that often go beyond their formal job descriptions.

Beautician work: An Overview

According to the International Standard Classification of Occupations definition, beauticians and related workers provide facial and body beauty treatments, apply cosmetics and make-up and give other kinds of treatment to individuals in order to improve their appearance (Code 5142). Tasks include: cleaning and applying creams, lotions and related products to face and parts of body; giving facial and body massages; applying make-up to

194 Peng, "Transnational migration of domestic and care workers in Asia Pacific."

195 The Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment, the Bureau of Manpower Employment and Training, and the International Labour Organization, Skills for the International Labour Market: Bangladesh Country Report, Dhaka, 2015

196 Ibid.

Table 7: Projections by BMET for the Number of Bangladeshi Female Caregivers Employed in Singapore and Hong Kong SAR, 2018 to 2023

Occupation	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Singapore	200	300	400	500	600	700
Hong Kong SAR	800	900	1000	1100	1200	1300

clients of a beauty parlour or to actors and other performers; cleaning, shaping and polishing fingernails and toenails and treating ailments of the foot such as corns, calluses or deformed toenails; attending to clients taking baths and administering elementary massage; using waxing, sugaring and depilation techniques to remove unwanted bodily hair; advising clients on diet and exercise to assist in weight loss and slimming; and arranging appointments and collecting payments.¹⁹⁷

Beauticians usually complete a training programme before obtaining a license. Training may be available at community beauty parlours and post-secondary institutes. Professional training programmes that may lead to a certificate or an associate degree can last from 9 to 24 months and cover one or more specific practices, such as cosmetology or hairstyling. Beauticians may specialize in certain areas, such as make-up application, nail art, colour analysis or personal styling services.¹⁹⁸

Beauty care is among the new service sectors that are undervalued, unrecognized and generally gendered in nature.¹⁹⁹

Due to this study's limited research

on the experiences of female migrant beauticians in Asia, the following sections are primarily based on analysis of publicly available information.

Current employment situation of Bangladeshi beauticians in destination countries

A Global Beauty report by Euromonitor International (published in June 2015) said that GCC countries constitute the world's fastest growing beauty and personal care market. It forecasts that the value of the region's market will grow by 4.25 per cent annually, compared with the global average of 2.6 per cent.²⁰⁰

This presents a new corridor for female migration for beautician work, and Bangladeshi women are now entering this sector in the GCC countries. However, the number currently remains very low. According to BMET data, only five Bangladeshi women migrated to the GCC countries as either beauticians or beauty therapists from 2011 to 2016 (see Annex H). Further, they entered as low-skilled workers. This study included interviews with four returning female migrants who had worked as beauticians in beauty parlours in Qatar, Saudi Arabia and UAE. There is no formal labour market information on employment

197 International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-08). Available from <http://www.hkfhkhr/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=qZbDEbaW4Rs%3D&tabid=38>

198 Study.com, "Beautician: Job description, outlook and requirements." Available from https://study.com/articles/Beautician_Job_Description_Outlook_and_Requirements.html

199 Paula Black, "Ordinary people come through here: Locating the beauty salon in women's lives", *Feminist Review* (2002) 71:2-17.

200 Khaleej Times, "UAE shoppers spent \$1.64b on beauty products in 2015", 12 March, 2016. Available from www.khaleejtimes.com/business (access: 9.07.2016).

trends of female beauticians in these three countries.

In an interview for this study, a representative of a recruiting agency in Bangladesh said that Bangladeshi women migrated for beautician work because of unemployment at home, prospects for better income or aspirations to change their lives with the overseas experience. One worker who had worked in a beauty parlour in Sharjah, Saudi Arabia, said "I learned beautician work as that was the work available for me when I came through a private recruiting agency here. Though I did not enjoy it much, still I chose to take it on and learned the skills, as some work is better than doing work as a housemaid in Saudi Arabia."

Many female migrants also entered this sector illegally, according to the Bangladeshi women interviewed.

Salary structure and trends in beauty services

No sex-disaggregated data could be found for salary levels for the GCC countries. There is no specific data on salary levels for Qatar or UAE, but anecdotal evidence suggests that the differences between local and migrant

workers there are similar to that in Saudi Arabia.²⁰¹ While Saudi Arabia has no official minimum wage for the private sector, the public-sector minimum is 3,000 riyals (\$800).²⁰²

A 2014 UN Women study found that Bangladeshi semi-skilled beauticians in beauty parlours in UAE were paid 750 dirhams (\$200) a month. That is the same as the minimum salary of housemaids, possibly because workers who became beauticians were recruited as housemaids. Beauty parlour managers received 2,000 dirhams (\$545) or more per month, depending on their seniority and efficiency and size of the parlour.²⁰³ The salary may vary from country to country. Female migrant workers interviewed for this study said that a beautician from the Philippines was getting about \$300 per month in those countries.

Table 8 shows pay projections for Bangladeshi female beauticians in the Gulf countries, assuming a 4 per cent increase each year.

Labour rights and protections

Recruiting agency representatives in Bangladesh said that because beautician work is a temporary job, salary increases

Table 8: Pay Projection for Bangladeshi Female Migrant Beauticians in Gulf Countries

Destination countries	Recent minimum salary	2018	2019	2020
Saudi Arabia, Qatar, UAE	\$200	\$208	\$216.32	\$225

Source: Researcher's projections based on UN Women, *Study on External Market Analysis for Women Migrant Workers, 2014*

201 GIZ and ILO, *Labour Market Trends Analysis and Labour Migration from South Asia*.

202 Minimum Wage Organization, "Saudi Arabia minimum wage, labor law, and employment data sheet—Saudi Arabia minimum wage rate 2018." Available from <https://www.minimum-wage.org/international/saudi-arabia>

203 UN Women, *Study on External Market Analysis for Women Migrant Workers*.

depend on the satisfaction of employers in GCC countries. They said female migrants working as beauticians get only a salary, no overtime or medical benefits. The women interviewed confirmed this and said that they worked 12 to 15 hours a day (from 9 am to 12 am). That meant that they were entitled to double their salary, but they never received it. They also didn't have days off on public holidays or during national events, and sometimes not even on religious holidays.

Various studies and *Gulf News* reports said that working conditions of female migrant workers in the service sector (e.g. domestic helpers, beauticians, caregivers) are likely to be more precarious due to the irregular labour market structures in the Gulf countries and their social and cultural practices. Female beauticians in different beauty salons in Dubai claim they are maltreated by their sponsors.²⁰⁴ The report said the salon owners allegedly force female beauticians to work long hours daily without rest. Some are even forced to double as cleaners. A worker from India said she could not lodge a complaint at the Ministry of Labour because her sponsor threatened to have her deported and banned for life from re-entering the country. "We are helpless as the sponsors can deport us. One of my friends who tried to file a complaint at the Ministry was deported and given a life ban," she said.

A GIZ and ILO study reported that female migrant workers in the Gulf countries have faced rights violations including

underpayment of wages; denial of access to medical facilities; long working hours with no rest or free weekends; no sick leave or annual leave; changes in the terms and conditions of employment and living arrangements; confiscation of passports and restrictions on movement; contract substitution; and physical or sexual abuse.²⁰⁵

Women's access to justice is also hampered by the lack of employment contracts; fear of arrest, detention and deportation for reporting employer abuse; and a lack of awareness of existing complaint mechanisms. Low-skilled beauticians face more rights violations than semi-skilled beauticians. Even those who are covered by the law often have limited information about their rights, no means to support themselves while in dispute with employers and must contend with employers who threaten them with job loss and deportation.²⁰⁶

Some countries have recently reformed their labour laws.²⁰⁷ For example, the Ministry of Labour and Social Development in Saudi Arabia has allowed migrant workers in the service sector to transfer to other employers if it is proved that the current employer was late in paying salaries for a total of three months. In addition, migrant workers can transfer to another employer in cases where the first employer leased the worker's services to others without the worker's knowledge, assigned the worker to work for people who are not blood relatives or had the worker perform tasks that threatened

204 The *Gulf News*, "No such thing as beauty treatment for salon staff", 16 November 2009. Available from <https://gulfnews.com/business/sectors/employment/no-such-thing-as-beauty-treatment-for-salon-staff-1.527925>

205 GIZ and ILO, "Labour Market Trends Analysis and Labour Migration from South Asia."

206 Ibid.

207 International Labour Organization, "Employer-migrant worker relationships in the Middle East: Exploring scope for internal labour market mobility and fair migration", White Paper, International Labour Organization, Regional Office for Arab States, Beirut, February 2017.

their health and safety.²⁰⁸ Although this sounds very good in theory, in practice workers are unable to actually make the switch to new employers and often lack knowledge about the institutional procedures for filing complaints.

In December 2016, Gulf News reported that in UAE, a new licensing programme will apply to all beauticians within five years. The report said the programme will ensure consumer safety coupled with better customer service. Salon and parlour workers will be trained in mandatory health and safety requirements as well as parlour skills. They will then be assessed through a theoretical and practical test. The Abu Dhabi Quality and Conformity Council told Gulf News that workers who pass the test will receive a certificate of conformity and a licence to practise in the emirate.²⁰⁹

Entry and employment requirements for work as beauticians

The recruitment and issuance of temporary work permits and visas in all GCC countries take place under a system popularly called *kafala*, or sponsorship.²¹⁰ Under this system, a migrant worker is sponsored by an employer of GCC citizenship who assumes full financial and legal responsibility for the worker. These sponsors, who can be individuals or companies, hold a regulated set of rights over each sponsored worker. Reports by both the ILO and UN Women

say that *kafala* severely restricts migrant workers from changing employers and makes them completely dependent on their sponsors, creating a number of risks of human rights abuses and labour exploitation by employers.²¹¹

The ILO report said "the most problematic feature of *kafala* is the delegation or 'outsourcing' of responsibility by the state to the private employer to oversee both a migrant worker's immigration and employment status. Through the linking of residence and work permits, a migrant worker's immigration status is dependent on the contractual relationship with the sponsor. If the employment relationship is terminated, there is no longer a legal basis for the migrant worker to stay in the country. As 'owner' of the permit, the sponsor is given the authorization to exert far-reaching control over the lives of migrant workers employed by them, making this employer-worker relationship much more asymmetrical than is common in a normal labour market situation."²¹²

The report said a number of GCC countries have recently taken legislative initiatives to improve the *kafala* system.

Female labour migration process from Bangladesh

The cost of recruitment and migration for women is substantially less than that for men. On average, women spend

208 Human Rights Watch, 15 November 2015. Available from <https://www.hrw.org/news/2015/11/15/saudi-arabia-steps-toward-migrant-workers-rights>

209 The *Gulf News*, "Salon and parlour workers have to be licensed to practice", 19 December 2016. Available from <https://gulfnews.com/news/uae/health/salon-and-parlour-workers-have-to-be-licensed-to-practise-1.1948734>

210 International Labour Organization, "Employer-migrant worker relationships in the Middle East."

211 UN Women Asia Pacific Regional Office, Review of Laws, Policies and Regulations Governing Labour Migration in Asian and Arab States: A Gender and Rights-based Perspective (Bangkok, Thailand). Available from <http://asiapacific.unwomen.org/>

212 International Labour Organization, "Employer-migrant worker relationships in the Middle East." 2014.

188,273 taka (\$2,269); men spend 311,301 taka (\$3,752).²¹³ About 42 per cent of all migrants spend between 281,921 taka (\$3,397) and 422,880 taka (\$5,096), which is a significant amount of money in Bangladesh.²¹⁴ The government has set maximum recruitment and migration costs for certain destination countries; recruiting agents are forbidden from demanding any more from the workers.²¹⁵

There is no formal data about what Bangladeshi women pay to migrate to work as beauticians in the Gulf countries.

While the private recruitment agency route incurs high costs, workers migrating to Saudi Arabia through government channels have recently been able to do so at zero cost, representatives of BOESL and BMET said in interviews for this research. They said that this system does not require upfront payments and that women can be recruited, processed and placed in employment without much difficulty.

Existing and required skills for beautician services and potential supply and demand

Though in very small numbers, Bangladeshi women are starting to migrate overseas to work as beauticians, particularly in the Gulf countries (see Annex H). However, they are likely to be hired as low-skilled workers and receive lower salaries than female beauticians from other South Asian countries such as India and Pakistan; while Bangladeshi women are hired mainly for applying henna, Indian and Pakistani workers

perform skilled work such as facials, hair cutting and plucking.²¹⁶

On future demand for foreign workers in GCC countries, the GIZ and ILO study recognized "the economic trends in the GCC countries largely indicate 'more of the same' — new areas of labour demand are not particularly evident, whereas a continued demand for the present profile of migrant labour is clear."²¹⁷ Therefore, there is good demand for Bangladeshi female migrant workers in some trades, including beauticians, but to avail themselves of these opportunities, Bangladeshi women must get training in basic language and job-specific skills. Further, before departure they must get an orientation on the destination country's sociocultural features, labour and immigration laws, support networks and services.

The returning migrant beauticians interviewed for this study said that to improve their conditions they would need to acquire skills and get certification for those skills; their foremost request for employers, the government and ILO is for skills upgrading programmes.

The Government of Bangladesh has taken some steps on this in recent years. For example, the National Skills Development Policy (approved in January 2012) is aimed at bringing Bangladeshi migrant workers up to internationally recognized skills standards. To strengthen this policy, the government and ILO are developing a Technical and Vocation Education and Training framework.²¹⁸

213 Ibid.

214 Abul Barkat, Md. Ismail Hossain and Ehsanul Hoque, *The Cost: Causes of and Potential Redress for High Recruitment and Migration Costs in Bangladesh*, ILO Country office for Bangladesh (Dhaka, 2014)

215 Ibid.

216 UN Women, *Study on External Market Analysis for Women Migrant Workers*.

217 GIZ and ILO, *Labour Market Trends Analysis and Labour Migration from South Asia*.

218 Bangladesh, Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment, BMET and ILO, *Skills for the International Labour Market*.

Rules and regulations for female migrant workers and common human rights practices in destination countries

Various studies said that the Gulf countries have a track record of restricting workers' rights, particularly those of migrants. For example, Saudi Arabian labour law does not allow for labour unions and has no provision for strikes or collective bargaining. However, the country's *kafala* system is slowly being dismantled with reforms such as passport retention, sponsorship transfer and insurance requirements. For domestic labourers and other low-skilled workers (such as beauticians) hired in small numbers, the recruitment agencies rather than employers are increasingly acting as sponsors, changing the nature of the system.²¹⁹

In UAE, workers are not allowed to form unions, except in the case of professional bodies; the labour law specifically excludes domestic, agricultural and government workers. The government has reformed the *kafala* system, recently taking measures to assist migrant workers in recouping unpaid wages. From 2008, it has made electronic bank payment of wages compulsory, facilitated employment transfers, enhanced the legal rights of workers vis-à-vis employers and introduced compulsory health insurance for all workers — including those in domestic service. Employment contracts for domestic workers were instituted recently, protecting their rights on pay, accommodation, health care and working hours.²²⁰

The Government of Qatar labels non-citizens as “contract labourers,” which means that they do not accumulate any legal or citizenship rights for their duration of stay in Qatar. Migrant workers are not allowed to work for any other employer and cannot transfer to another sponsor until they have worked for two years and have been granted a release letter from their present employer.²²¹

In August 2017, Qatar ratified the Domestic Workers Law, which guarantees migrant workers in the home a maximum 10-hour workday, a weekly rest day, three weeks of annual leave and an end-of-service payment of at least three weeks each year. The law does not, however, set out enforcement mechanisms.

The law stipulates the minimum qualifications a person must have to be employed as a domestic worker, which includes those performing housework, drivers, nannies, cooks and gardeners. It also requires employers to treat workers “in a good manner that preserves their dignity and bodily integrity” and mandates that employers not harm them physically or psychologically or endanger their life or health.²²²

The *kafala* system in Qatar still works in favour of employers, enabling them to exercise command over migrant workers' work and personal lives.

Neither the Domestic Workers Law nor supporting legislation sets a minimum wage.²²³

Table 9 shows an ILO comparative table

219 International Labour Organization, “Employer-migrant worker relationships in the Middle East.”

220 Maysa Zahra, “United Arab Emirates' legal framework of migration”, Gulf Labour Markets and Migration, GLMM - EN - No. 2/2017, European University Institute and Gulf Research Center, 2017.

221 Qatar Embassy. Available from [http://www.qatarembassy.net/work % 20Permits.asp](http://www.qatarembassy.net/work%20Permits.asp)

222 Human Rights Watch, 22 August 2017. Available from <https://www.hrw.org/news/2017/08/24/qatar-new-law-gives-domestic-workers-labor-rights>.

223 Human Rights Watch, World Report 2012 - Qatar, 22 January 2012. Available from <http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/4f2007c8c.htm> (accessed 25 January 2018)

of domestic worker legislation.

Table 9: Comparative Table of Domestic Worker Provisions in Saudi Arabia, Qatar and UAE

	Saudi Arabia	Qatar	UAE
<i>Key Legislation</i>	Ministerial Decision No. 310 of 1434 regulating employment of domestic workers (2013). (a)	Domestic Workers Law No. 15 of 2017	Federal Law No. 10 of 2017 on Support Service Workers
<i>Contract</i>	A written employment contract in Arabic must be executed	Contracts must be in Arabic and certified by the Ministry of Administrative Development, Labour and Social Affairs	Employment contract must be in accordance with the Approved Standard Employment Contract, In English and Arabic, and must be registered with the Ministry of Human Resources and Emiratization (b)
<i>Minimum wage</i>	No minimum wage	750 QR (\$200) per month.	No minimum wage
<i>Working hours</i>	Up to 15 hours per day	Up to 10 hours per day excluding rest breaks, but can be longer if both parties agree (c)	Up to 12 hours per day (and at least eight consecutive hours rest)
<i>Rest periods</i>	1 day per week	1 day per week	1 day per week
<i>Overtime</i>	Not specified in the law	Overtime cannot exceed two hours in a day; the domestic worker shall be due compensation equal to the wages of half a day	Not specified in the law
<i>Payment of wages</i>	Wages must be paid by the Islamic calendar month end unless contractually agreed otherwise	Wages must be paid at the end of the month and no later than the third day of the following month	Wages paid monthly no later than the tenth of the following month, and a receipt is signed upon every payment
<i>Annual leave</i>	One month every two years	Three weeks per year	30 days per year
<i>Other requirements</i>	Workers must be given suitable accommodations, paid sick leave and health care	Workers must be given accommodations, food and health care; no provisions for sick leave.	The worker must be given appropriate accommodations, medical care, food and supplies, 15 days of paid sick leave, 15 days of unpaid sick leave, and compensation for work-related injuries or illnesses

	Saudi Arabia	Qatar	UAE
<i>End of service gratuity</i>	One month wage for every four consecutive years of service.	At least three weeks per year	Not specified in law
<i>Lodging/resolving dispute</i>	Amicable resolution: shelter in Riyadh (see Judicial resolution: Commission for Settlement of Domestic Worker Disputes)	Not specified in law	This will be determined through Executive Regulations under the Domestic Work law
<i>Shelters and protection services</i>	The Ministry of Social Affairs, in cooperation with the police, operates a shelter in Riyadh to help domestic workers to claim their wages and return home	Not specified in law	Not specified in law
<i>Sponsorship and Changing employers</i>	A worker can only transfer to another sponsor/employer after having worked with the current employer for at least two years, except in cases including where an employer: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • failed to renew the worker's residency permit; or • failed to pay wages for three consecutive months and at any time during the year that follows the due date of the third month of delay; or • has a complaint made against them (d) 	Not specified in law	Not specified in the domestic workers law; under existing residency laws, domestic workers have 30 days to find a new employer following completion of their contract and the cancelling of their work permit and residence visa by their employer-sponsor
<i>Leaving the country</i>	An exit permit is required for migrant workers to leave Saudi Arabia	Migrant workers wishing to leave Qatar must apply for permission up to three days in advance to the Ministry of Interior, though it is likely that this will soon be amended (e)	No exit permit required

Source: Adopted from ILO, "Employer-migrant worker relations in the Middle East," 2017.

Notes:

- (a) Additionally, Ministerial Decision No. 605, dated 15/5/1438 H (2017) outlines domestic workers' ability to transfer between sponsors.
- (b) No alteration or substitution may be entered unless it benefits the worker and it is approved by both the worker and the Ministry.

- (c) Period of rest breaks not specified.
- (d) Following changes to the labour law and the enactment of new Implementing Regulations that came into effect in April 2016 (Ministerial Decree No. 1982), the transfer of sponsor/employer is permitted without the approval of the current sponsor/employer.
- (e) Currently, after the worker's notification, officials contact the sponsor for approval. If such permission is denied, workers can appeal to a Grievance Committee. This Committee includes representatives from the Ministry of Interior; the Ministry of Administrative Development, Labour and Social Affairs; and the National Human Rights Committee. A decision is made within three working days and can be appealed by the worker or a recruiter. Common reasons for rejection include the existence of financial claims against the worker or a travel ban as a result of court proceedings.

Risks and vulnerabilities for female migrant workers in beauty parlours

A 2012 study reported that female migrant beauticians in UAE usually earn less than other beauticians and work for long hours without paid overtime, especially if they had entered the country as domestic helpers.²²⁴ The present study found that the working conditions for migrant beauticians in the Gulf countries were not very satisfactory. All returning Bangladeshi female migrant beauticians interviewed said they worked 12 to 15 hours per day and never received overtime pay. They also didn't get time off on public holidays, and sometimes not even on religious holidays. Vacations were also unpaid. They said that recruitment agents had promised them decent working conditions and that they had signed contracts stipulating good salaries before leaving Bangladesh – but upon arrival, found it was less than promised. One woman said she did not receive wages for three months. The Bangladeshi beauticians also indicated dissatisfaction regarding sick leave. One who had worked in a beauty parlour in Dubai said, "I was told that I would get \$200 per month but after coming here, I got only \$160, while an Indian girl got \$250 because she can speak better English than me."

Potential for matching with supply from Bangladesh and projection of employment opportunities for the Bangladeshi female migrants in Gulf countries

Job prospects for Bangladeshi female migrants are promising in various occupations, including beauticians.²²⁵ This study found that factors likely to influence Bangladeshi female workers' migration for overseas jobs include the state of the global economy; the reputation of Bangladeshi workers' skills development facilities in Bangladesh; the workers' own interest in becoming beauticians; and migration policies in destination countries. It appears that local people in the Gulf countries are not interested in low-skilled or semi-skilled blue-collar jobs, so these countries will continue to rely on migrants to fill them. In addition, a number of major infrastructure development projects planned or ongoing in Qatar, Saudi Arabia and UAE will demand more migrant workers, mostly low-skilled, for the medium term.

On 26 September, 2017, the Government of Saudi Arabia announced that as of June 2018, it would allow Saudi women to drive. This increased mobility may help women overcome some of the difficulties they face in getting jobs. Some studies say it will inevitably impact the foreign male workers, especially

224 Shipra Saxena, "Young migrant women from South Asia in the UAE : Negotiating identities under the *Kafala* system", unpublished research paper, Institute of Social Studies, Netherlands, 2012.

225 GIZ and ILO, Labour Market Trends Analysis and Labour Migration from South Asia.

Table 10: Projection for the Number of Bangladeshi Female Migrant Beauticians Employed in the Gulf Countries

Occupation	Average number *	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026
Beautician/Barber	32	39	41	45	49	54	60	66	72	79	85

Note: Indicates average employment of three-year moving average during the past nine years.

Source: These are BMET projections.

Indians and Bangladeshis, who are currently employed as drivers. However, more Saudi women employed outside the household may create a need for additional migrant workers to care for children and elderly people as well as for other service work, such as for beauticians in homes. Thus, the demand for female migrant workers may increase as a result of the reform on driving.²²⁶

Given the range developments in the region, both the short- and long-term demand for Bangladeshi migrant workers will likely increase in the care, construction, service and hospitality sectors in the GCC region.²²⁷ See Table 10 for the projected trend of Bangladeshi female migrant beauticians in the region.

Bilateral agreements and MoUs between sending and receiving countries are promising mechanisms to establish effective government-to-government channels and methods of managing migration that the countries implement jointly. These agreements are based on collaboration and shared responsibility to enhance employment opportunities in the destination countries and to strengthen migrant workers' rights.²²⁸

Bangladesh has signed bilateral agreements with Qatar (1988/2008), UAE (2007), Malaysia (2003/2006/2012), the Republic of Korea (Employment Permit System–2007), Jordan (2012), Hong Kong SAR (2013), and Saudi Arabia (2015).²²⁹

Analysis of International Migration of Bangladeshi Female Workers and Policy Implications

Though the number of Bangladeshi female migrant workers has been increasing over the years, most of these workers enter low-skilled occupations with lower salaries. This is more evident in the Gulf countries, perhaps indicating the perceptions of employers there and their preferences for workers from certain countries. While destination countries perceive India and the Philippines as good sources of skilled female workers, Bangladesh is seen as a source of unskilled and low-skilled female workers.²³⁰ This has an important influence on what kinds of workers a country can send abroad. The correct training and investments in skills can change these perceptions.

²²⁶ Françoise De Bel-Air, Nasra M. Shah, Philippe Fargues and Usamah Alfarhan, "Possible impact of Saudi women driving on female employment and reliance on foreign workers", Gulf Labour Markets and Migration, GLMM - EN - No. 4/2017 (European University Institute and Gulf Research Center, 2017).

²²⁷ IMF, Regional Economic Outlook: Middle East and Central Asia, 2016. Available from <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/reo/2016/mcd/eng/pdf/mreo1016.pdf>. (accessed 24 January 2018).

²²⁸ Shamim and Holliday, Country Overview and Migration in Bangladesh.

²²⁹ Ibid.

²³⁰ GIZ and ILO, Labour Market Trends Analysis and Labour Migration from South Asia.

Labour rights and protections of Bangladeshi female migrant workers

Certain workers' rights — such as the rights to free association without external interference, to collective bargaining and to sick leave — are considered basic. In addition, there are basic rights relating to migrant workers, such as non-discrimination between local and foreign workers in wages and other conditions of work and adherence to contractual obligations. Protections are also needed for workplace injuries and accidents.

This study found that in the Gulf countries, low-skilled female migrants face more problems than semi-skilled workers in terms of protection of their rights. Bangladeshi low-skilled beauticians suffer from underpayment of wages; denial of access to medical facilities; excessively long working hours with no rest; and unilateral changes in terms of employment and living arrangements. No proper law was followed when determining such benefits as wages or leave.²³¹

Despite taking in increasing numbers of female migrants, destination countries often formulate migration policies with women placed at the margins. Most of the Gulf countries place age restrictions on female migrant workers. According to a recruiting agency in Bangladesh, migration is restricted to women between 25 and 45 years old and to men between 20 and 49 years old.

Labour standards are weak or non-existent in fields such as domestic work. The risks of discrimination, exploitation and abuse are compounded by the absence of social security, health coverage or other social protection provisions. Female workers' abilities to

address their situations and to defend their rights is further suppressed in situations where freedom of association and collective bargaining rights guaranteed under international law are denied in national legislation and policy or in practice.²³²

Though all destination countries have ratified the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), none has ratified ILO Conventions 97 on migration for employment, 143 on abusive migration conditions or 181 on private recruitment agencies. In addition, many have failed to ensure that domestic laws are in line with CEDAW provisions on employment, equality of treatment, violence and access to justice. Some countries infringe upon migrant workers' freedom of association and freedom of movement, which is inconsistent with CEDAW and core ILO Conventions. In Saudi Arabia and UAE, the labour laws do not allow for labour unions and have no provisions for workers to strike or engage in collective bargaining. Singapore requires employers to pay a security bond, which employers use to restrict migrant workers' movements. Female worker's access to justice is limited in many countries.

Nonetheless, there are signs of progress, including the introduction of specific migrant work contracts and supporting legislation. The Qatar Constitution provides non-citizens with freedom of movement within the country, foreign travel, emigration and repatriation. Visas now can be obtained through local sponsors; previously, migrant workers could enter only through recruiting agencies. Hong Kong SAR covers migrant domestic workers under the national labour laws and regulations and

231 GIZ and ILO, Labour Market Trends Analysis and Labour Migration from South Asia.

232 Khoda and Akram, Good Governance in the Labour Migration Process.

has developed standard employment contracts that include important provisions on the responsibilities of employers and recruitment agents and the rights of migrant workers. Hong Kong SAR also ensures that migrant workers get one rest day per week, and by ensuring their freedom of movement, enables them to build a supportive migrant community.

Overall, in most countries, awareness of migrants' rights and gender aspects of migration are in the early stages. Countries have a long way to go in fulfilling human rights standards in migration governance at every point of the migration cycle. Legislative and policy gaps must be addressed in order to ensure a coherent and comprehensive gender-sensitive approach to migration.

Some Asian countries, such as Indonesia and the Philippines, have taken initiatives to ensure better protection of their female workers abroad. In 2007, the Government of Indonesia stopped sending women to work as domestic workers to Malaysia because of violations of their rights there. It demanded that an MoU be negotiated to include protections for these rights. The MoU was signed in 2012, and the migrant flow resumed. The new protections include the rights to sick leave, vacations and other rights provided for in ILO conventions.²³³

Migrants and their family members must have access to accurate and up-to-date information on the costs and benefits of migration in order to avoid illegal migration and other fraudulent practices. In Bangladesh, apart from the Ministry

of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment, civil society groups and migrants' associations such as the Welfare Association of Repatriated Bangladeshi Employees and the Bangladeshi Ovibasi Mohila Sramik Association actively disseminate information on the prospects and problems of migration.²³⁴

Bangladeshis who had migrated earlier could play a critical role in guiding those intending to migrate and in linking them up with opportunities in destination countries. In an interview for this research, a woman who had worked in UAE said that she went to Dubai to work as a housemaid through a private recruiting agency in Bangladesh. Later, she moved to a beautician job through a cousin ("sister") who was working there. She said, "my sister has been working there for many years and is doing very well. I went to Dubai as a housemaid but was not able to continue because of ill-treatment by the landlord. He had tried to harass me sexually. I informed my sister of this and she helped me to leave that house and to find a job in a beauty parlour. I had to pay huge money to change employers. I worked for two-and-a-half years in that parlour and came back home. I am planning to work in a beauty parlour in Dhaka for a few years and have a plan to open my own beauty parlour once I have enough money to run the business."

This woman's story shows how female workers from Bangladesh build informal social networks that support them in handling work issues and finding alternative employment. These informal social networks also provide crucial social

233 Indonesia, Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration, "The Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration of RI to stop TKI placement as domestic workers by 2017", 05 January 2012. Available from <http://indonesia.go.id/en/ministries/ministers/ministry-of-manpower-and-transmigration/497-ketenagakerjaan/10279-kemnakertrans-targetkan-hentikan-penempatan-tki-domestik-worker-tahun-2017.html?start=50>

234 Bangladesh, Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment, BMET and ILO, Skills for the International Labour Market.

and emotional cushioning to continue staying in the country.²³⁵

Migration is most likely to empower women and girls when it occurs through regular channels, when they can make informed choices and when they have access to legal protection, services and social networks in countries of origin and destination.²³⁶ Achieving this requires action at different levels, from the community level to the international level, and cooperation within and across sectors, including by international organizations, government agencies, the private sector and civil society.

Gender-specific challenges

- Bangladesh is one of the major labour-sending countries in Asia, but its flow is highly gendered.²³⁷ Only a small percentage of its migrant workers are women, and most of these women are in low-skilled occupations with lower salaries and limited social protection, particularly in the Gulf countries. The feminization of care work and beautician work means that even when these female migrant workers have legal rights, those rights are less likely to be enforced than the rights of male migrant workers. This is because low-skilled female migrant care workers and beauticians tend to be in more isolated environments and less aware of their rights than low-skilled male migrants who work in better-regulated, more visible and better-paid sectors such as construction, manufacturing and agriculture.
- In both occupations, female migrant workers are usually required to work

and live in their employers' residence, particularly in home-based care work in Taiwan, Hong Kong SAR and Singapore, and for beautician work in the GCC countries. Thus, public monitoring is often difficult and enforcement of regulations to protect them from employer violations is limited.

- Since most of the Bangladeshi female migrant care workers and beauticians are less educated and low-skilled, their ability to address their situations and to defend their rights is weaker than that of male migrants.
- Bangladeshi female workers significantly depend on *dalals* at every stage of the migration process and are more vulnerable than male workers to abuse and exploitation by *dalals*.
- Lack of knowledge about the Bangladesh diplomatic mission and its functions hinders female migrant workers from seeking help for problems in destination countries.

Good practices

Recognizing the importance of labour migration, the Government of Bangladesh has taken several steps over the last decade that can serve as examples of good practices.²³⁸

The Expatriates Welfare and Overseas Employment Policy, 2016

Formulated in line with international laws on migration, the Expatriates Welfare and Overseas Employment Policy amends the short policy of 2006 and links to the National Skills Development Policy 2011 and the Government's Seventh Five

235 Saxena, "Young migrant women from South Asia in the UAE."

236 Tam O'Neil, Anjali Fleury and Marta Foresti, "Women on the move: Migration, gender equality and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development", Briefing, Shaping Policy for Development, odi.org, July 2016

237 'Gendered' means relating to or specific to people of one particular gender (male or female).

238 Shamim and Holliday, Country Overview and Migration in Bangladesh.

Year Plan 2016 – 2020. It specifies steps to regulate the recruitment process, including computerized registration and a database of workers who wish to migrate. Though still in their initial stages and not without some technical difficulties, the Smart Card, online visa checking and online worker registration are notable achievements resulting from this Policy.

The Policy contains a separate chapter on female workers who migrate for specific types of work and makes several recommendations, including that the government establishes a special unit for female migrants; promotes skills development; appoints trained female officials in embassies to provide health, economic and legal advice to female migrants; ensures the safety and empowerment of female migrants by establishing a database of these migrants at embassies; establishes a secure banking system for sending remittances; and allocates a budget for gender-responsive training for female migrants.

The Overseas Employment and Migrants' Act, 2013

Replacing the Emigration Ordinance of 1982, the Overseas Employment and Migrants' Act, 2013 was the first law on migration and overseas employment passed by the Parliament. The Act has a dedicated chapter on regulating recruitment. The Act requires the registration of migrant workers and the protection of their interests. Section 16 requires that the government establishes a performance-based grading system for classifying recruitment agents. Subsections 17 (4) and 17 (5) require that the all recruitment agent's work premises are recorded with the government and made available as public knowledge.

Recruitment Agency Code of Conduct and Classification System

The Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment and BMET set up the Recruitment Agency Code of Conduct and Classification System within BMET for the regular grading of recruitment agents, to serve as a Code of Conduct for recruitment agents and to promote compliance with laws and rules protecting migrant workers. These were developed in cooperation with the Bangladesh Association of International Recruiting Agencies and with technical assistance from ILO's project on Promoting Decent Work through Improved Migration Policy and its Application in Bangladesh.

Government Technical Training Centres

Government Technical Training Centres were set up to provide pre-departure orientation and skills training to migrant workers.

Trade-specific training programmes in Arabic and English for migrant workers

The Bangladesh Rural Advancement Council Institute of Languages, in collaboration with ILO and the BMET Labour Migration project, developed four English and Arabic language modules on caregiving, housekeeping, construction and electrical work. The two languages are used so that the workers can practice the languages they will need for their work abroad. After training for course trainers is completed, the courses will be available at Government Technical Training Centres across Bangladesh.

Development of standardized pre-departure orientation training manuals

As part of the ILO project, two pre-departure training manuals have been developed: a training-of-trainers

manual covering emigration, transit and immigration (for one to three hours of training), and a standardized manual covering labour laws, regular recruitment, working and living conditions, health, social protection and other topics, for training specifically on Oman and Qatar (three to five days of training). A core technical group comprising all organizations providing pre-departure training and orientation developed the manuals with an NGO leading the effort. A survey of existing resources has found differences in approaches and content and a serious gap in information about labour rights.

Data sharing between BMET and Airport Immigration

Data collection, sharing and analysis are integral to improving the migration management system in Bangladesh. All migrant workers going abroad are required to register with BMET. This data is shared with Airport Immigration officers who verify that the worker is adhering to the correct processes. This ensures that the government is able to closely monitor workers leaving the country and safeguard against illicit acts by unscrupulous recruitment agencies. The International Organization for Migration has facilitated the data collection and sharing between Airport Immigration and BMET. Another change is that the Airport Immigration database now includes data on returnee migrants, with a specific focus on female migrants.

National Communication Strategy on Safe Migration

The government and the communications firm Asiatic 360 are collaborating to develop the National Communication Strategy on Safe Migration. The Communication Strategy seeks the most effective media to use and the most

effective messages to disseminate in communities to ensure that all workers know the safest and most beneficial channels of migration to better avoid exploitation and abuse.

Theatre for Development

UN Women partnered with the firm Bangla Communications for a nine-month public information campaign on how to migrate safely. The campaign was launched at the Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare in March 2017, where many migrant workers gathered to see the first interactive Theatre for Development event of the campaign. The event demonstrated the risks of using irregular migration channels and the benefits of using government channels.

Complaint Management Cell for Expatriate Female Workers

The Complaint Management Cell for Expatriate Female Workers was set up at BMET to ensure the security of the female migrant workers and to quickly resolve complaints. A telephone hotline and a website were launched for lodging complaints.

The Expatriate Welfare Bank

The Expatriate Welfare Bank provides loans for the costs of migration.

3.2 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

The number of Bangladeshi female migrant workers is increasing, including those seeking employment in more diversified occupations such as caregiving and beauty services. The rise in demand for their services abroad has given low-skilled women opportunities to learn new skills and to empower themselves. It offers them immense scope for social and economic mobility.

The experiences of living abroad and interacting with people from different cultures and social classes have deeply affected the Bangladeshi female migrant workers. A 24-year-old female migrant who worked as a beautician in UAE said, "I learned a lot there. I liked the way we dressed up, the new things we saw, new styles we used. My life became very good. I felt happy there meeting people, their culture, lifestyle. I miss all this."

Such comments show that these female migrant workers aspire to be independent and that their experiences abroad empowered them and strengthened their sense of identity. Many defy social norms by moving to a new country, on their own and without being married.

However, both Bangladesh and the receiving countries need to incorporate gender sensitivity into their migration policies. The government should place the women at the focal point of migration policy and ensure the creation of safe migration structures both in Bangladesh and in the destination countries.

The government should also provide female migrant care workers and beauticians with more opportunities to upgrade their skills and enhance their potential for vertical mobility. Relevant education and work experience have a major role, but relevant skills training is the most important factor determining the demand for Bangladeshi female workers for occupations such as caregiving in countries like Hong Kong SAR, Singapore and Taiwan. Thus, if female migrants can be trained in the relevant skills and have those skills recognized through proper certification, Bangladesh's negotiating and bargaining power in the labour market will be strengthened, thereby advancing national development.

Enhancing the skills of the workforce and simultaneously engaging in bilateral negotiations with destination countries to send skilled workers are necessary steps to ensure the long-term employability of Bangladesh's migrant workers.²³⁹

Recommendations

To enhance opportunities for low-skilled Bangladeshi women to secure jobs as caregivers and beauticians in the destination countries:

Development of a framework for skills qualification:

- The Government of Bangladesh should take the initiative to prepare female migrant workers through skills training geared towards the diversified occupations (such as caregiving and beautification) in which Bangladeshi women now have good opportunities for overseas employment. Before organizing such training, the government should commission a needs-based study to

²³⁹ Bangladesh, Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment, BMET and ILO, *Skills for the International Labour Market*.

identify particular skills that the female migrant workers will require.

- The government's Technical Training Centres should seek accreditation from internationally recognized training authorities.
- The government should provide incentives for female workers to invest in developing their skills before migrating; they currently have little such incentive.

Bilateral negotiations and agreements

- The Government of Bangladesh should negotiate with destination countries in order to establish sets of standards on migration costs, wages and terms and conditions of employment consistent with the destinations countries' labour laws.
- Government-to-government recruitment channels should be encouraged in order to increase job opportunities for female migrant workers and to lessen the role of unregulated intermediaries (*dalals*) in migration processes.
- Negotiations and memorandums of understanding with destination countries should include agreements on skills accreditation and standardization of training for female migrant workers (such as caregivers).
- The Government of Bangladesh should negotiate with destination countries to establish an organized database that would allow employers to directly select workers from Bangladesh. The database would contain a list of available workers sorted by international standard job classification (the current BMET database does not follow international standard job classification). An improved and updated classification system would help recruiting agencies and employers better see what types of workers are available for openings.

It also would help counter perceptions in some countries that Bangladesh can only supply low-skilled labour.

The role of Bangladesh Embassies in destination countries

- The embassies and missions should take the lead to help promote job opportunities for female migrant care workers and beauticians and to ensure that their rights are protected.
- BMET, Bangladesh missions, Bangladesh Association of International Recruitment Agencies members and workers' organizations should hold regular dialogues to ensure the safe migration of care workers and beauticians and the protection of their rights in destination countries.
- The Government of Bangladesh and its overseas embassies should cooperate to try to dispel employers' perceptions that Bangladeshi female workers are low-skilled, compared to workers from India and Pakistan, who are perceived as semi-skilled.
- Bangladesh missions should maintain registries of all arriving female migrant care workers and beauticians. The missions should use social media to inform and update the workers about local labour rights laws and practices and encourage workers to report any violations to the missions.
- The government must ensure that its ministries and overseas missions have adequate human and financial resources to provide legal assistance to female migrant care workers and beauticians in the destination countries.
- To expand job opportunities for these care workers and beauticians and to showcase the skills of Bangladeshi workers, Bangladesh's development partners and embassies should organize job fairs and seminars for Bangladesh recruitment agencies and

employers from recruiting countries.

- The Government of Bangladesh should consider deploying to all foreign missions qualified staff members dedicated to helping female migrant workers at risk of occupational safety, health and social problems.

The role of intergovernmental and international agencies

- Bangladesh ministries and UN Women should conduct advocacy campaigns to dispel negative misperceptions about female migrant workers, such as that they are low-skilled or have religious practices that would hamper their work. This could include putting documents on their websites showcasing success stories of these workers and their education and skills. They can also organize seminars and dialogues with employers for this purpose.
- Intergovernmental agencies, such as ILO and the International Organization for Migration, should act as intermediaries between Bangladesh and destination countries in balancing the interests of both sides in female labour migration by providing technical support in their areas of expertise.
- ILO should consider providing technical assistance to any potential initiative to enable formal recognition of beauty parlours as an industry in Bangladesh. This would help returning migrants who wish to make use of their overseas work experience to set up their own beauty parlours.
- Development partners should give Bangladesh financial and technical support to ensure a lawful migration process with demand-supply matching in terms of workers' skills.

Information sharing on migration

- The government should share more of its data and information on its international labour migration policies and actions with civil society organizations and academia. Government offices are often unwilling to share such information. This lack of transparency impedes advocacy work to secure the rights of migrants, especially female migrants, and attempts by researchers to get proper data on labour migration.

Regulating intermediaries in female labour migration

- Bangladesh should consider establishing a new gender-sensitive legal framework to regulate exploitative intermediaries, recruiting agents and subagents.

Building awareness on safe migration

- Civil society organizations should be more proactive at the grass-roots level in raising awareness among women and girls about prospects for overseas employment, the benefits of formal migration channels, the risks of informal channels and the exploitation of female domestic workers in countries where there are no laws or policies protecting them.

Helping returnee migrants

- The government and civil society organizations should consider helping returnee migrants who wish to set up their own beauty parlours by providing them with information and support for access to credit.

Further research needed

- This research is aimed at exploring job opportunities for Bangladeshi female migrants in care work and beautician work. Its limitations include limited reliable labour market information, especially in the GCC countries. Further research is needed to cover these gaps, especially human resource development in the caregiving and beautician sectors. Cross-country research should be done on the supply and demand of female migrant workers in these sectors.
- Further research is also needed to address legislative and policy gaps in these sectors in order to ensure a coherent and comprehensive, gender-sensitive approach to female labour migration.

ANNEX A: LIST OF PEOPLE INTERVIEWED FOR THIS STUDY

Participants/organizations	Number of respondents
<i>In-depth interviews</i>	
Bangladeshi female migrant workers in a garment factory in Japan	6
Bangladeshi female migrant worker (housekeeper) in a hotel in Tokyo	1
Bangladeshi female migrant worker (salesperson in a shop) in Japan	1
<i>Focus group discussions</i>	
Bangladeshi female migrant workers in a garment factory in Japan	4
<i>Key informant interviews</i>	
Bangladesh	23
Bureau of Manpower Employment and Training	3
Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment	1
Bangladesh Overseas Employment Services Limited	1
Probashi Kalyan Desk	1
Bangladesh Association of International Recruitment Agencies	2
Private recruiting agencies (anonymous)	3
Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation	2
International Labour Organization	2
UN Women	1
International Organization for Migration	1
Bangladesh Ovivashi Mohila Sramik Association (Bangladesh Association of Women Migrant Workers)	1
Bangladesh Rural Advancement Council	3
Refugee and Migratory Movement and Research Unit	1
Ovivashi Kormi Unnayan Programme	1
<i>Key informant interviews</i>	
<u>Japan</u>	12
Bangladesh Embassy in Tokyo	2
Japan International Corporation of Welfare Services (recruiting agency)	2
LINKSTAFF (employer)	1
OISCA (NGO)	1
STARTS (recruiting agency)	1
Sadiatech Co. Limited (Bangladeshi employer, based in Japan)	1
Al Khamiz (Employer)	1
Asakusa Hourai Care Giving Centre (Employer)	1
Japan International Training Cooperation Organization (Unofficial recruiting association)	2
Solidarity Network with Migrants Japan (NGO)	1

Note: Researcher agreed to the respondents' requests for anonymity.

ANNEX B: OVERSEAS EMPLOYMENT IN JAPAN FROM BANGLADESH, 2004 TO OCTOBER 2017

Table A1: Overseas Employment in Japan from Bangladesh, 2004 to October 2017

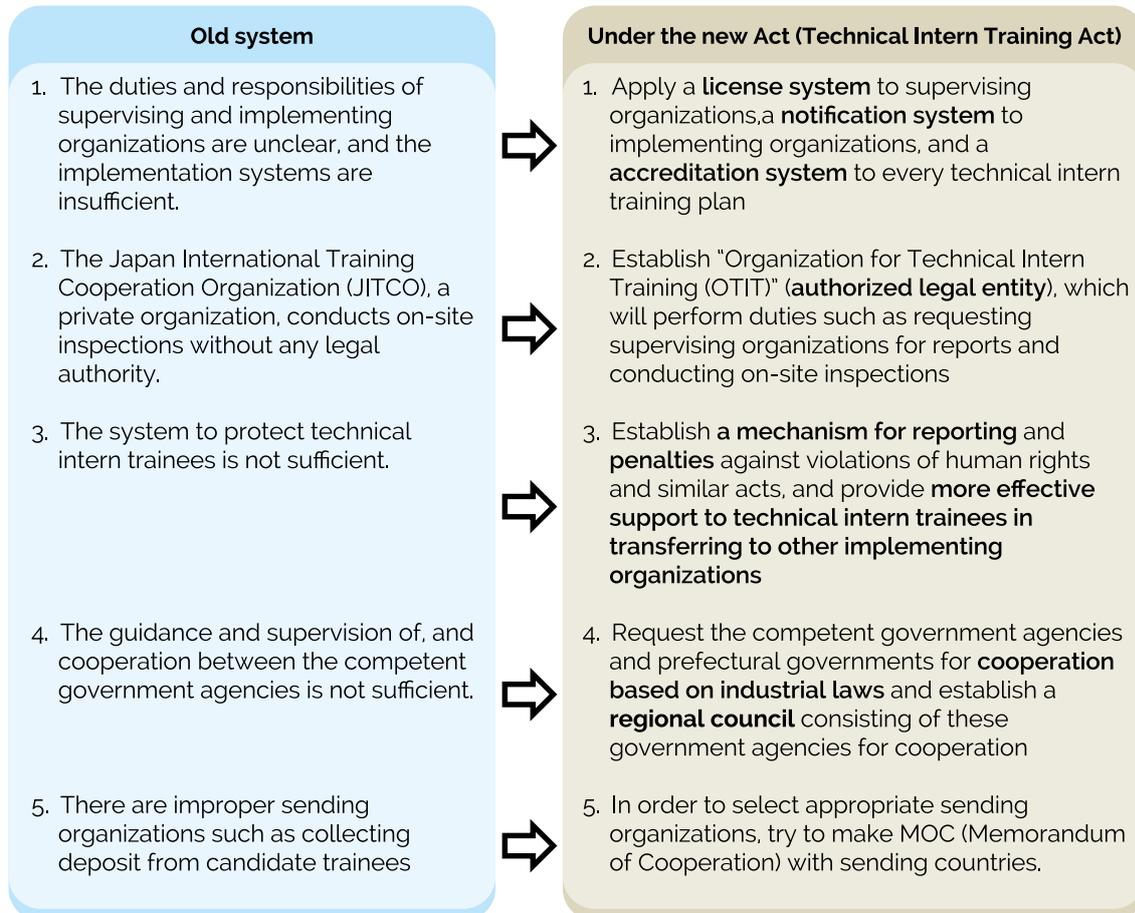
SL	BMET Occupation Classification	Bangladeshi Migrants(#)	SL	Occupation	Bangladeshi Migrants (#)
1	Labour (male)	468	32	Teacher (male)	2
2	Cook (male)	173	33	Car painter (male)	2
3	Engineer (male)	143	34	Technical Haddad Armed [sic] (male)	2
4	Worker (male)	79	35	Chef/cook (male)	2
5	Technician (male)	32	36	IT professional (male)	2
6	Private service (male)	24	37	Sales manager (male)	2
7	Operator (male)	22	38	Marketing executive/ marketing manager (male)	2
8	Sewing operator (female)	21	39	Technical coating (male)	2
9	Waiter (male)	19	40	Graphics and animation (male)	2
10	Information technology engineer (male)	16	41	Servants (male)	2
11	Scaffolder Grade-A (male)	15	42	Caster (male)	2
12	Construction worker (male)	12	43	Software engineer (male)	2
13	Construction worker (male)	11	44	Skilled worker (male)	1
14	Scaffolding labour (male)	9	45	Computer programmer/ software developer (male)	1
15	Manager (male)	9	46	Officer (male)	1
16	Garments worker (male)	6	47	Director (male)	1
17	Civil engineer (male)	5	48	Machine Operator (male)	1
18	Communication system engineer (male)	5	49	Mason (male)	1
19	Accountant (male)	5	50	Cook helper (male)	1
20	Agriculture labour (male)	5	51	Mechanics (male)	1
21	Salesman (male)	4	52	Housekeeper (female)	1
22	Specialist doctor (male)	4	53	Executive chef (male)	1
23	Maker (male)	3	54	Computer engineer (male)	1

24	Catering hand (male)	3	55	Trainer (male)	1
25	Painter (male)	3	56	Computer operator (male)	1
26	Mechanical engineer (male)	3	57	Instrumentation and controls engineer (male)	1
27	Reinforcing (male)	3	58	Electrician / electrical technician (male)	1
28	System analyst (male)	2	59	Skilled labour (male)	1
29	Welder/fabricator (male)	2	60	Sales representative (female)	1
30	Tailor (male)	2	61	Physician (male)	1
31	Welder Grade-A (male)	2	62	Restaurant labour (male)	1
TOTAL					1,153

Source: BMET, 2017

ANNEX C: MAJOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE OLD SYSTEM AND THE NEW SYSTEM AFTER 2016 LABOUR LAW REVISION

Figure A1: Major Differences between the Old System and the New System after 2016 Labour Law Revision



Source: Immigration Bureau, Ministry of Justice Human Resources Development Bureau, Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, Japan (June 2018).

ANNEX D: APPROVED OCCUPATIONS FOR TECHNICAL INTERN TRAINING II

(77 types of occupations, 139 selective works)

1. Agriculture (6 operations in 2 job categories)

Job categories	Operations
Cultivation agriculture	Facility horticulture
	Upland field cropping/ Vegetable growing
	Fruit growing
Livestock agriculture	Hog raising
	Poultry farming(collecting chicken eggs)
	Dairy

2. Fishery (9 operations in 2 job categories)

Job categories	Operations
Fishin boat fisheries	Skipjack pole and line fishery
	Long-line fishery
	Squid jigging
	Purse seine fishery
	Trawl and seine net fishery
	Gill net fishery
	Set net fishery
	Crab and shrimp basket fishery
Aquaculture	Scallop and oyster farming

3. Construction (31 operations in 21 job categories)

Job categories	Operations
Well drilling	Percussion type well drilling operation
	Rotary type well drilling operation
Building sheet metal work	Duct sheet metal operation
Freezing and air conditioning apparatus installing	Freezing and air harmonizing equipment installation work
Fixture making	Hand processing work of wooden fixture
Carpentry	Carpentry construction work
Frame working	Framing construction work
Reinforcing bar construction	Assembling reinforced rod bar work
Scaffolding	Scaffolding building work
Building stone construction	Stone processing work
	Work of putting out stones

Tiling	Tiling work
Tile roofing	Tile-roofing work
Plastering	Plasterers work
Plumbing	Construction piping work
	Plant piping work
Heat insulation	Heat-retention and cool-retention construction work
Interior finishing	Plastic-material floor finishing construction work
	Carpeting floor finishing construction work
	Metal-made foundation construction work
	Board finishing construction work
	Curtain installation work
Sash setting	Building sash installation work
Waterproofing	Sealing water-proof construction work
Concrete pressure feeding	Concrete pressure transfer construction work
Well point construction	Well-point construction work
Paper hanging	Painting work
Application of construction equipment	Dozing work
	Loading work
	Excavating work
	Road rolling work

4. Food Manufacturing (14 operations in 9 job categories)

Job categories	Operations
Can seaming for canned foods	Can seaming for canned foods
Poultry processing industry	Poultry processing
Marine Heated fishery processed foodstuff manufacturing work	Extract manufacturing
	Heated dried product manufacturing
	Flavored product manufacturing
	Smoked product manufacturing
Non-heated fishery processed foodstuff manufacturing work	Salted product manufacturing
	Dried product manufacturing
	Fermented foodstuff manufacturing
Fish paste making	Boiled fish paste producing work
Beef and pork processing industry	Primal cut of beef and pork processing
Ham, sausage and bacon making	Production work of ham, sausage and bacon
Bread Baking	Bread baking work
Ready-made meal manufacturing work	Ready-made meal processing

5. Textile (22operations in 13 job categories)

Job categories	Operations
Spinning operation	Pre-spinning work
	Spinning process
	Winding process
	Twisting and doubling work
Weaving operation	Sizing and warping work
	Weaving process
	Inspecting work
Dyeing	Thread permeation dyeing work
	Fabric and knit dyeing
Knit goods manufacturing	Socks producing work
	Round knitting producing work
Warp knitted fabrics manufacturing	Warp knitting producing work
Ladies' and children's dress making	Sewing work of ready-made clothes for ladies and
Tailoring men's suit making	Sewing work of men's ready-made clothes
Underwear manufacturing	Underwear manufacturing operation
Bedclothes making	Bedding products work
Carpet manufacturing	Woven carpet producing work
	Tufted carpet producing work
	Needlepunched carpet producing work
Canvas product making	Canvas cloth products related work
Cloth sewing	Dress-shirt producing work
Seat product sewing	Car seat product sewing work

6. Machinery and Metals(27 operations in 15 job categories)

Job categories	Operations
Casting	Casting iron and article operation
	Casting nonferrous metal and article operation
Forging	Hammer type forging operation
	Press type forging operation
Die casting	Hot chamber die-cast work
	Cold chamber die-cast work
Machining	Lathe operation
	Milling machine operation
Metal press	Metal press operation
Iron work	Steel processing operation for structure
Factory sheet metal work	Machine sheet metal operation

Electroplating	Electric plating work
	Meltdown zinc plating work
Aluminum anodizing	Anode oxidation treatment work
Finishing	Melting equipment finishing work
	Metal mold finishing work
	Machine assembling finishing work
Machine inspection	Machine inspection work
Machine maintenance	Machine maintenance work
Electronic equipment assembling	Electronic devices assembling work
Electric equipment assembling	Spinning electric machine assembling work
	Transformer assembling work
	Control panel and distribution panel assembling work
	Open-close control device assembling work
	Spinning electric cord-reel producing work
Print wiring board manufacturing	Print distribution panel design
	Print distribution panel production

7. Others (24 operations in 12 job categories)

Job categories	Operations
Furniture making	Hand processing on furniture making
Printing	Off-set printing work
Book binding	Binding work
Plastic molding	Compressing forming work
	Injection forming work
	Inflation forming work
	Blow forming work
Reinforced plastic molding	Hand-loaded layer forming work
Painting	Construction painting work
	Metal painting work
	Metal bridge painting work
	Spray painting work
Welding	Manual welding
Industrial packaging	Industrial wrapping work
Carton box and corrugated card board box making	Printing box punching work
	Printing box producing work
	Paste box producing work
	Cardboard producing work

Industrial manufacturing of pottery	Roller jigger forming work
	Pressure casting work
	Pad printing work
Automobile repair and maintenance	Automobile repair and maintenance work
Building cleaning management	Building cleaning management work

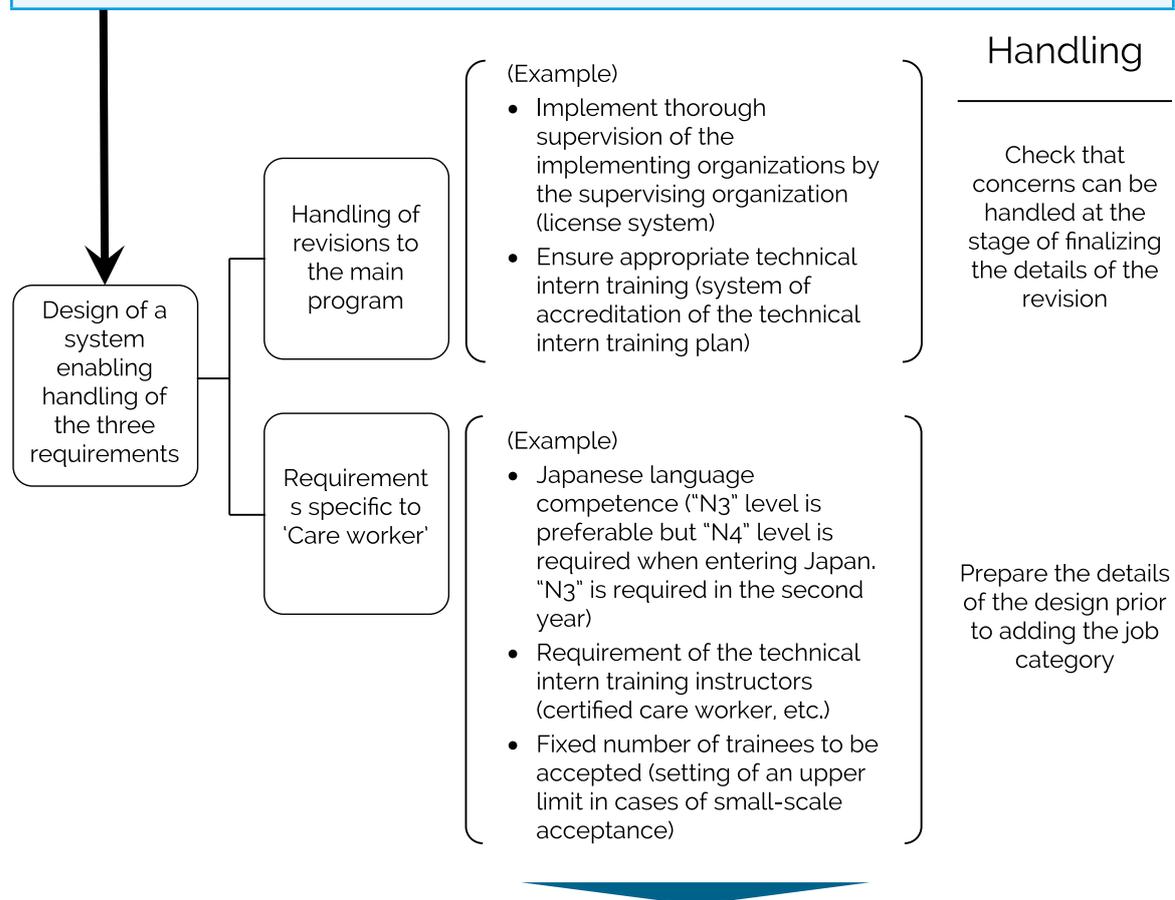
Source: *Technical Intern Trainee Handbook*

ANNEX F: CARE WORKER IN TECHNICAL INTERN TRAINING PROGRAMME

Social Welfare and War Victims' Relief Bureau, Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare

Basic concept

- The aim in accepting foreign care worker is not to secure care workers, but to respond in accordance with the objective of the program which to transfer skills.
- When adding this job category, because of the need to respond to the various concerns of the specific characteristics of the care worker, this job category was added based on the assurance of the following three requirements.
 1. Assurance that the care worker does not take on the image of "simple work carried out by foreign nationals"
 2. With respect to foreign nationals, they are to be accorded the same kind of treatment as a Japanese national would receive, and efforts to improve the treatment and work environment of Japanese workers must not be compromised
 3. Assurance of the quality of the care worker's service, and assurance not to cause anxiety to users of the services



- Proceed with a specific system design so as to respond to the various concerns towards adding a job category. Check that it is possible to handle the various concerns in conjunction with the requirements specific to the care worker at the stage of finalizing the details of revision of the technical intern training program.

Furthermore, add the job category at the same time as the enforcement of the new technical intern training program

Source: Social Welfare and War Victims' Relief Bureau Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. 2018. 'Care Worker' in Technical Intern Training Program.

**Concept of the System Design Pertaining to the Addition of Care Worker
(Interim Report of the Review Committee on the Methods of Acceptance of
Foreign Care Worker(February 4, 2015))**

<p>1. Clarification of the appropriate content and scope of work subject to transfer</p>	<p>The following work as supported by the acquisition of a steady level of communication skills, respect for human dignity, the principles of caregiving practices, and understanding of the structure of society and the structure of the mind and body is eligible for transfer</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Required work = physical care (care for bathing, meals, toilet support, etc.) • Related work = support other than physical care (cleaning, washing, cooking etc.), indirect work (keeping of records, passing on of relevant information, etc.) • Peripheral work = others (management of bulletin board notices such as information)
<p>2. Ensuring the necessary communication skills</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First year (at the time of entry into Japan), "N3" level is the preferred level but "N4" level is required. In the second year the "N3" level is required • After entering Japan, familiarization with technical terms, dialects and the like through on-the-job- training etc. <p>(Reference) "N3": able to understand Japanese used in everyday situations to a certain extent "N4": Able to understand the basic Japanese language (Japanese Language Proficiency Test: implemented by the Japan Foundation and the Japan Educational Exchanges and Services)</p>
<p>3. Establishment of an appropriate official evaluation system</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The organizations that meet the requirements required by the new program of technical intern training are selected for test implementation organization. • The level of achievement for each year is as follows: First year: Able to provide basic care according to determined procedures, etc., if given instructions Second year: Able to provide a certain level of care tailored to the state of the mind and body of the service user if given instructions Third year: Able to provide a certain level of care tailored to the state of the mind and body of the service user based on the trainee's abilities and concepts, which are the foundation of caregiving, without instructions. Fifth year: Able to provide care tailored to the state of mind and body of the service user based on the abilities and concepts, which are the foundation of caregiving, without instructions.

<p>4. Setting of the applicable scope of appropriate implementing organizations of technical intern training</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Facilities where the work of "caregiving" is actually being conducted (facilities which have first-hand experience of the certified care worker national examination) would come within the scope However, from the perspective of protecting the human rights of technical intern trainees and appropriate residence management, home visit services are not included • Limited to facilities with a certain level of stable management (in principle, three years have passed since establishment of the facility)
<p>5. Securing of an appropriate technical intern training structure</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maximum number of trainees to be accepted: in the case of a small implementing organization (the number of full-time staff members being 30 or less), up to 10% of the total number of full-time staff • Calculation criteria for the fixed number of trainees: the scope of "full-time staff" is limited to "those whose principal work is caregiving" • Requirement for technical intern training instructors: a care worker, etc. who has experience of working as a care worker for 5 years or more • Technical intern training plan: required to prepare details for each applicable item of the skills transfer • Lectures at the time of entry: acquisition of technical terms and basic matters of caregiving
<p>6. Assurance of treatment equivalent to that of a Japanese national</p>	<p>The following measures should be taken in order to thoroughly ensure that "remuneration of an equivalent amount as a Japanese national engaging in the work would receive".</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • At the time of acceptance: confirmation of the wage regulations, etc. • After acceptance: interviews with the relevant people at the time of a visit for guidance, checking of the wage register, and regular reports to be submitted to the supervising organization (Implementing organizations that do not comply with the checks by the supervising organization shall not be permitted to implement technical intern training)
<p>7. Implementation of thorough supervision by the supervising organization</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reinforce the supervision based on the new program through the revision of the technical intern training program itself

Requirements of the Technical Intern Trainee

Common Requirements of the Technical Intern Training program (Extract)

- The technical intern trainee has experience of engaging in the same kind of work in a foreign country as the work the trainee intends to engage in while in Japan, or there are special circumstances necessitating the technical intern trainee engage in the technical intern training (**) (only in cases pertaining to supervising-organization-type technical intern training)
- The technical intern trainee plans to engage in work requiring the skills etc. acquired in Japan after returning to his or her home country.

Requirements Specific to 'Care Worker

< Trainees need to meet the following requirements besides the common requirements in TITP >

- The technical intern trainee meets the following requirements. (Japanese language proficiency requirement)

Technical Intern Training (i)	Persons who passed N4 of the JLPT, or other persons with equivalent or greater competence*1.
Technical Intern Training (ii)	Persons who passed N3 of the JLPT, or other persons with equivalent or greater competence*2.

*1 Persons who passed N3, N2 or N1 of the JLPT.

Persons who scored 350 or more in the E-F level test or scored 400 or more in the A-D level test of the J.Test.

Persons who passed level 4,3,2 or 1 of the NAT-TEST.,

*2 Persons who passed N2 or N1 of the JLPT.

Persons who scored 400 or more in the A-D level test of the J.Test

Persons who passed level 3,2 or 1 of the NAT-TEST

(Trainees must also meet the common requirements of the Technical Intern Training Programme)

Requirements of the Implementing Organization

Common Requirements of the Technical Intern Training program (Extract)

- Appointment of the following persons for each place of business "Technical intern training manager" (person in charge for the implementation of the technical intern training): a full-time officer or employee who is able to be in the position of supervising the staff involved in the technical intern training and who has completed the course for technical intern training managers within the past 3 years (transitional measures available with regard to the course) "Technical intern training instructor" (person responsible for instruction for the technical intern trainees): a full-time officer or employee who has at least 5 years'experience with regard to the skills which the trainee is to acquire "Living guidance instructor" (person responsible for everyday living guidance for the technical intern trainees): a full-time officer or employee
- Must not be in excess of the maximum number of technical interns to be accepted.

Requirements Specific to 'Care worker'

< Implementing organizations need to meet the following requirements besides the common requirements in TITP >

- One or more of the technical intern training instructors is a person who is qualified as a certified care worker, or other persons with equivalent or greater expert knowledge and skills (*nurse, etc.).
- One or more technical intern training instructors is appointed for every five technical intern trainees.
- The facility conducting the technical intern training engages in the work of caregiving (excluding work that provides services in the residence of the users). (See p5)
- Three years have passed since the setting up of the facility conducting the technical intern training.
- When assigning technical intern trainees to night shift work or other work with a small number of workers, necessary measures to ensure the safety of the users and protection of the technical intern trainees are taken.(*). Specifically, in light of the purpose of the technical intern training program, it is necessary to assign care workers other than the technical intern trainees at the same time.
- The number of the technical intern trainees at the facility conducting the technical intern training must not be in excess of the maximum number of technical interns to be accepted. (See p6)

Object Facilities

The following facilities/services are the facilities where people can engage in the work of caregiving which is recognized to be practical experience qualifying them for taking national examination of certified care worker Excluding home-visit services such as Home-visit long-term care.

Facilities / services under the Child Welfare Law
Designated development support medical institutions
Child development support
After school day services
Facilities for children with disabilities
Child development support center
Visiting services to day care centers
Facilities / services of the Law on Comprehensive Support for the Daily Lives and Social Lives of Persons with Disabilities
Short-stay service
Support facilities for persons with disabilities
Care for daily life in medical facilities
Care for daily life
Group home with aid (group home)

Rehabilitation service
Transition support for employment
Continued employment support
Welfare home
Temporary day support
Community life support centers
Facilities and services of the Law on Social Welfare for the Elderly and Long-Term Care Insurance Law
1st day-care services
Day service center for the elderly
Outpatient day long-term care (including designated medical outpatient day long-term care)
Community-based outpatient day long-term care
Outpatient preventive day long-term care
Outpatient day long-term care for dementia patients
Outpatient preventive day long-term care for dementia patients
Short-term admission facility for the elderly
Short-term admission for daily life long-term care
Short-term admission daily life long-term care for preventive long-term care
Intensive care home for the elderly (long-term care welfare institution for the elderly)
Multifunctional long-term care in small group home
Combined multiple service
Communal daily long-term care for dementia patients
Preventive communal daily long-term care for dementia patients
Long-term care health facilities
Outpatient rehabilitation service
Outpatient preventive rehabilitation service
Short-term admission for recuperation
Short-term admission for recuperation for preventive long-term care
Daily life long-term care for the elderly in a specified facility
Daily preventive long-term care a for the elderly in a specified facility
Daily life long-term care for a person admitted to a community-based specified facility
Facilities related to Public Assistance Law
Relief facilities
Rehabilitation facility
Other social welfare facilities
Community welfare center
Settlement house day care services business
Independent Administrative Institution National Center for Persons with Severe Intellectual Disabilities, Nozominosono
Hansen's disease sanatorium

Atomic bomb victim nursing home
Atomic bomb survivor day service program
Short-stay program for atomic bomb survivors
Work accident special nursing home business
Hospital or clinic
Hospital
Clinic

Number of Technical Intern Trainees

The number of technical intern trainees must not be in excess of the number set according to the total number of full-time staff whose main work is caregiving (full-time care worker) (maximum is the total number of full-time care worker) at each facility.

*The number of full-time care workers does not include technical intern trainees ((i), (ii), or (iii))

Supervising-Organization-Type

Total number of full-time care workers at the facility	Regular/Implementing Organizations		Excellent/Implementing Organizations	
	Technical Intern Trainees (i)	Technical Intern Trainees (i), (ii)	Technical Intern Trainees (i)	Technical Intern Trainees (i), (ii), (iii)
1	1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2	2
3~10	1	3	2	3~10
11~20	2	6	4	11~20
21~30	3	9	6	21~30
31~40	4	12	8	31~40
41~50	5	15	10	41~50
51~71	6	18	12	51~71
72~100	6	18	12	72
101~119	10	30	20	101~119
120~200	10	30	20	120
201~300	15	45	30	180
301~	1/20 of the total number of full-time care workers	3/20 of the total number of full-time care workers	1/10 of the total number of full-time care workers	3/5 of the total number of full-time care workers

*Enterprises that the Minister of Justice and the Minister of Health, Labor and Welfare recognize as having a structure that allows continuous and stable technical intern training is the same.

Individual-Enterprise-Type

Regular Implementing Organizations		Excellent Implementing Organizations	
Technical Intern Trainees (i)	Technical Intern Trainees (i), (ii),	Technical Intern Trainees (i)	Technical Intern Trainees (i), (ii), (iii)
1/20 of the total number of full-time care workers	3/20 of the total number of full-time care workers	1/10 of the total number of full-time care workers	3/5 of the total number of fulltime care workers

Requirements of the Supervising Organization

Common Requirements of the Technical Intern Training program (Extract)

- Ajuridical person not for the purpose of profit. A Chamber of Commerce and Industry,* Chamber of Commerce*, Small Business Association*, agricultural cooperative*, fisheries cooperative association*, vocational training corporation, public interest incorporated association or public interest incorporated foundation, etc. * Limited to cases where the implementing organization which is supervised is a member of the such supervising organization.
- With regard to guidance on preparing the technical intern training plan from the perspective of having the technical intern trainees acquire the skills, etc. appropriately and effectively, officers or employees who have certain experience or knowledge pertaining to the skills,etc. is to be put in charge.

Requirements Specific to Care Worker

< Supervising organizations need to meet the following requirements besides the common requirements in TITP >

- Ajuridical person not for the purpose of profit.
 - ▶ Chamber of Commerce and Industry,* Chamber of Commerce*, Small Business Association*, vocational training corporation, public interest incorporated association or public interest incorporated foundation. * Limited to cases where the implementing organization which is supervised is a member of the such supervising organization.
 - ▶ Nationwide organizations (including their branches) where the purpose of the organization includes contributing to the development of long-term care, medical care or social welfare, and which are composed of business operators engaged in long-term care or medical care.
- With regard to guidance on preparing the technical intern training plan from the perspective of having the technical intern trainees acquire the skills, etc. appropriately and effectively, officers or employees who have at least five years' experience of engaging in the work of caregiving, etc. and are qualified as certified care worker, etc. (*nurses, etc.)
- The supervision of technical intern training (iii) in the 'Care worker', and whether or not increase the fixed number for acceptance (requirements for excellent supervising organization in the 'Care worker') depends on past performance in the 'Care worker'.

* The list of Licensed Supervising organization will be open in the website of OTIT.

Requirements of Post-entry Lectures

- As for the post-entry lectures, the basic operation follows the common rule of the TITP. In addition to the common rule, with regard to 'Japanese language' and 'Introduction of caregiving', certain requirements are imposed for the number of hours, the educational contents and the teachers. The detail of the requirements is as follows.

Post-entry lecture	
Subject*	Minimum hours
Japanese Language	240
Introduction of Caregiving	42
Necessary Information for Legal Protection 8*	8
Knowledge of general life in Japan	-
Total*	320*

* Four subjects, and the number of minimum hours of 'Necessary Information for Legal Protection' and the total number of hours are prescribed as common rules of TITP. The total number of hours '320' is given as a standard.

Japanese Language	
Educational content	Minimum hours(*)
General Japanese language	90(100)
Listening comprehension	18(20)
Reading comprehension	11(13)
Writing	24(27)
Pronunciation	6(7)
Conversations	24(27)
Compositions	5(6)
Japanese language in Caregiving	36(40)
Total	240

* The number of hours in parentheses is shown as a standard.

Introduction of Caregiving	
Educational content	Minimum hours
Foundational Caregiving	6
Communication skills	6
Care for mobility	6
Care for meals	6
Care for excretion	6

Care for dressing and disrobing	6
Care for bathing and bodily cleanliness	6
Total	42

As for the trainees who passed N3 level test, with regard to 'Japanese language', it is necessary to take lectures of 'Pronunciation', 'Conversation', 'Compositions' and 'Japanese language in Caregiving'(minimum hours are same as the table above) and the total number of Japanese language needs to be 80 hours or more.(Instead of taking 'Japanese language' lectures which meet the requirements given in the table above.)

As for Pre-entry Lectures

- As a common rule of TITP, in case pre-entry lectures are given(lectures need to have a program of at least 160 hours a month), the total number of hours of post-entry lectures can be shortened by a month.
- As for the 'Care worker', in case 'Japanese language'lectures are given for at least 120 hours(in case trainees passed N3, 40hours) in the preentry lectures, the total number of hours of 'Japanese language' in post-entry lectures can be shortened by half the required hours(120hours) . Besides, in case 'Introduction of caregiving' lectures are given for at least 21 hours in the pre-entry lectures, the total number of hours of 'Introduction of caregiving'in post-entry lectures can be shortened by half the required hours(21 hours) too. (As for each educational content, the number of hours of educational content can be shortened by the hours trainees take for in pre-entry lectures.)
- For shortening hours of post-entry lectures as described above, the educational contents and teachers of pre-entry lectures need to meet the requirements of the post-entry lectures; provided, however, with regard to 'Japanese language', the following persons* are approved as Japanese language teachers in pre-entry lectures. * Persons who have graduated from a foreign university or completed a course of a foreign graduate school, and who have experience of working for one year or more as Japanese language teacher staff at a Japanese language education institution in a foreign country on a day within three years of the date of the application for accreditation of the technical intern training plan, and moreover, who have not actually left the position of Japanese language teacher of the relevant Japanese language education institution.

< Example of Pre-entry lectures(for shortening 'Japanese language')>

[Pre-entry]

Educational content	Hours
General Japanese language	70
Listening comprehension	20
Reading comprehension	10
Writing	20

Pronunciation	0
Conversations	0
Compositions	0
Japanese language in Caregiving	0
Total	120

[Post-entry]

Educational content	Hours(*)
General Japanese language	30(100)
Listening comprehension	0(20)
Reading comprehension	3(13)
Writing	7(27)
Pronunciation	7
Conversations	27
Compositions	6
Japanese language in Caregiving	40
Total	120

* The number of hours in parentheses is shown as a standard of post-entry lectures.

Requirements of Post -entry Lectures teacher

Japanese language*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persons who completed a course relating to Japanese language education at a university or a graduate school , and graduated from the same university or the graduate school. • Persons who earned at least 26 credits in a subject related to Japanese language education at a university or a graduate school and graduated from the same university, or the graduate school. • Persons who passed the Japanese Language Teaching Competency Test conducted by the Japan Student Services Association. • Persons who have a bachelor's degree and completed training on Japanese language education deemed to be suitable (limited to courses of at least 420 unit hours (one unit time being 45 minutes). • Persons who completed a course related to Japanese language education at a foreign university or graduate school and graduated from the same university or the graduate school. • Persons with a bachelor's degree, who have experience of working for one year or more as Japanese language teacher at the Japanese language education institution on a day within three years of the date of the application for accreditation of the technical intern training plan, and moreover, who have not actually left the position of Japanese language teacher of the relevant Japanese language education institution.
--------------------	--

** This requirement is based on the criteria about Japanese language teacher of the Japanese language education institution in Japan*

Introduction of Caregiving	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Person with experience of giving lectures relating to Caregiving as a teacher of the training institution for certified care workers. • Person with experience of giving lectures relating to Caregiving in the Initial Training Program for Care Workers etc.
----------------------------	---

The schedule leading to the reception of the technical intern trainees in 'Care worker' in Japan

Main topics	Date
Promulgation of the Ministerial Ordinance for addition of the 'care worker' and Public Notice for the stipulations of the requirements specific to the 'care worker'	9.29
The commencement of the application for Supervising organization	10.16
The commencement of the application for accreditation of training plan	11.1

The enforcement of addition of the 'Care worker': 11.1

Considering a period of time of examination of the contents of the application, technical intern trainees in 'care worker' will be able to enter Japan about four months after the application for accreditation of training plan.

Source: Social Welfare and War Victims' Relief Bureau Ministry of Health , Labour and Welfare. 2018. 'Care Worker' in Technical Intern Training Program.

ANNEX G: LIST OF PEOPLE AND ORGANIZATIONS INTERVIEWED

List of People and Organizations Interviewed for the External Market Analysis of Selected Occupations to Explore New Opportunities for Bangladeshi Female Migrant Workers

People/organizations	Number of individuals
<i>In-depth interviews</i>	
Bangladeshi female migrant worker (caregiver) in Singapore	1
Bangladeshi female migrant worker (caregiver) in Hong Kong SAR	1
Bangladeshi female migrant worker (caregiver) in Japan	1
<i>Focus group discussion</i>	
Bangladeshi female migrant workers returning from Saudi Arabia, Qatar and UAE	4
<i>Key informant interviews</i>	
Bangladesh	25
Bureau of Manpower Employment and Training	3
Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment	1
Bangladesh Overseas Employment Services Limited	1
Probashi Kalyan Desk	2
Bangladesh Association of International Recruitment Agencies Private recruiting agencies	3
Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation	2
International Labour Organization	1
UN Women	1
International Organization for Migration	1
Bangladesh Ovivashi Mohila Sramik Association	3
Bangladesh Rural Advancement Council	1
Refugee and Migratory Movement and Research Unit	1
Ovivashi Kormi Unnayan Programme	2
Bangladesh Embassy in Thailand	

Note: Researcher maintained the anonymity of the interviewees.

ANNEX H: OCCUPATIONS OF FEMALE MIGRANT WORKERS WHO DEPARTED BANGLADESH EACH YEAR FROM 2011 TO 2016

Table A2: Occupations of Female Migrant Workers who Departed Bangladesh Each Year from 2011 to 2016

Occupation	Number of Women					
	Year 2011	Year 2012	Year 2013	Year 2014	Year 2015	Year 2016
1st Commis (Kitchen)		1	1	8		1
Accountant			1	1	3	4
Administrative Officer				1		1
Administrator				1		
Artist	125	1				
As falt Cutting	1					
Baby Sitter	329	78	90	288	41	65
Backer	1					
Banker		1				
Batch Plant Operator	31					
Beautician	1		2	1		
Beauty Therapist	1					
Buttonhole Maker	50					
Captain	1					
Carpenter		1	1	3		
Cashier						1
CCR Operator P and W					1	
Chamber Man		2				
Checker	57	5	62	7	131	66
Cleaner	128	157	37	234	240	282
Cleaning Labour	172	177	36	201	7	58
Cleaning Labour (Female)	271	684	257	13	623	153
Clerk	11	10			1	1
Conc Worker					153	
Construction Worker	1				261	32
Consultant			1	236		
Cook	154	48	39		54	42
Coordinator			1			1
Cutter	26			1		
Cutting Master	4	2				
Dentist	1			1		
Designer						1

Occupation	Number of Women					
	Year 2011	Year 2012	Year 2013	Year 2014	Year 2015	Year 2016
Director	1	1		2	1	
Doctor	11	6	2	7	8	3
Doctor (Female)	1	1		2		1
Drafts Man			1			
Driver	6	1		15		3
Economics Teacher			1			
Electrician			1	1		
Electrical Engineer					1	
Engineer	4	4	3	3	3	2
Erector	2		2		15	7
Estimator		2				1
Executive Chef			1			1
Fabricator	1					
Factory Worker	2	1	27	13	12	3
Farmer		4				2
Feed of the arm Operator	60					
Female Labour	230	166	63	4		
Finishing Man	63					
Fish Cutter	113	55	272	139	168	357
Fisherman					3	
Fitter	1	1				
Food Server						1
Garments Worker		6				5
General Labour	27					
Guard		1		2	1	
Hairdresser	2					
Hand Pressers					10	
Head Waiter				1		
Helper	45	32	76	49	131	14
Hospital Attendant						50
Hospital Cleaning Labour					37	
House Boy		8	24	7	5	29
House Keeper	32	69	7	32	68	34328
House Keeping Attendant				1		4
House Worker	115	21	16351	33212	16142	31214
HSE Manager						1
Hunter				1		12

Occupation	Number of Women					
	Year 2011	Year 2012	Year 2013	Year 2014	Year 2015	Year 2016
Indian Cook						5
Instructor			1			14
Janitress		86	3			
Juice Labour		24				
Kitchen Steward	1					
Laboratory Assistant	4					
LD Driver			1			
Labour	4461	6412	2996	95	125	72
Labour (Junior)	1	1				
Laundry Man	1					
Life Guard	3					
Lineman				3		
Linking Operator (Female)	168		145		164	60
Loaders		1	3			
Machine Labour		28	4	33	10	1
Machine Operator	88	150	779	3025	960	400
Machine Operator(Female)	3293	2808	1306	1260	3250	3099
Machinist	1					
Maker	21	9		2		1
Manager	1	5		4	3	4
Management Information System						1
Manufacturing		71				
Marketing Specialist					1	
Mason	6	9	5	10	4	16
Mechanics	1					
Medics					10	
Messenger	1					
Mid Wife		10				
Nurse	1	59	3	2		1
Occupational Safety Technician						2
Office Boy	2					
Office Assistant						4
Officer	15	29	4	11	2	2
Operation Manager						1
Operator	218	320	2655		144	45
Overlock Machine Operator	223	9		642		
Packing Technician					2	16

Occupation	Number of Women					
	Year 2011	Year 2012	Year 2013	Year 2014	Year 2015	Year 2016
Painter		1		18	1	5
Performance Engineer						1
Pharmacist						1
Physician	4	4		1		
Pipe Fitter	1					
Plumber						2
Press Labour						15
Private Service	51	11	8	18	4	9
Production Assistant			1			
Production Manager				2		
Production Operator (Female)						3
QA/QC Engineer						1
QA/QC Inspector					4	3
Quality Checker	7		12	22	48	25
Quality Controller	24	14	17	1		5
Recreation Attendant	20					
Representative	1				1	2
Room Boy						61
Safety Controller	16	3	3	2	10	5
Safety Engineer		1			2	1
Sales Representative	2					
Salesman	4	2			1	2
Sea Guard	95	127	6	5	23	28
Seaman	11	17		3	5	2
Seat Maker	2	3				
Secretary				1		1
Seeds Grinding Man						2
Security Guard		4				
Security Services		3				
Servant	17621	23493	28069	34107	76126	42449
Sewer	1	1	100			1
Sewing Operator(Female)	832	1483	2640	1951	1693	1262
Single Niddle Operator	435	3				
Skilled Worker						2
Sorter Operator		1				
Specialist Doctor	3			2		1
Sterilization Technician						28

Occupation	Number of Women					
	Year 2011	Year 2012	Year 2013	Year 2014	Year 2015	Year 2016
Steward			1			
Supervisor	37	3	8	22		2
Supervisor(Female)				1		1
Shepherd					1	
Supervisor (Finishing)	2					
Supervisor(Female)	4				29	
Swear					4	
Swing Line Checker(Female)	8	1				
Tailor	40	18	19		2653	3246
Teacher	4	1	2	2	1	2
Technician			1	1		1
Translator						3
Waiter	45	13	1		7	1
Waitress	1					30
Weaving Tech	3	2				
Wiring Electrician				1		
Window Cleaner						20
Wood Designer	7	4				3
Wood Worker	3	2				
Worker	702	511	251	273	293	441
Workshop Worker		1				

Note: This table, which contains some unclear terms, is reproduced here as it was received from BMET.



UN Women

Bangladesh Country Office
House # 11A, Road # 113
Gulshan - 2, Dhaka-1212, Bangladesh