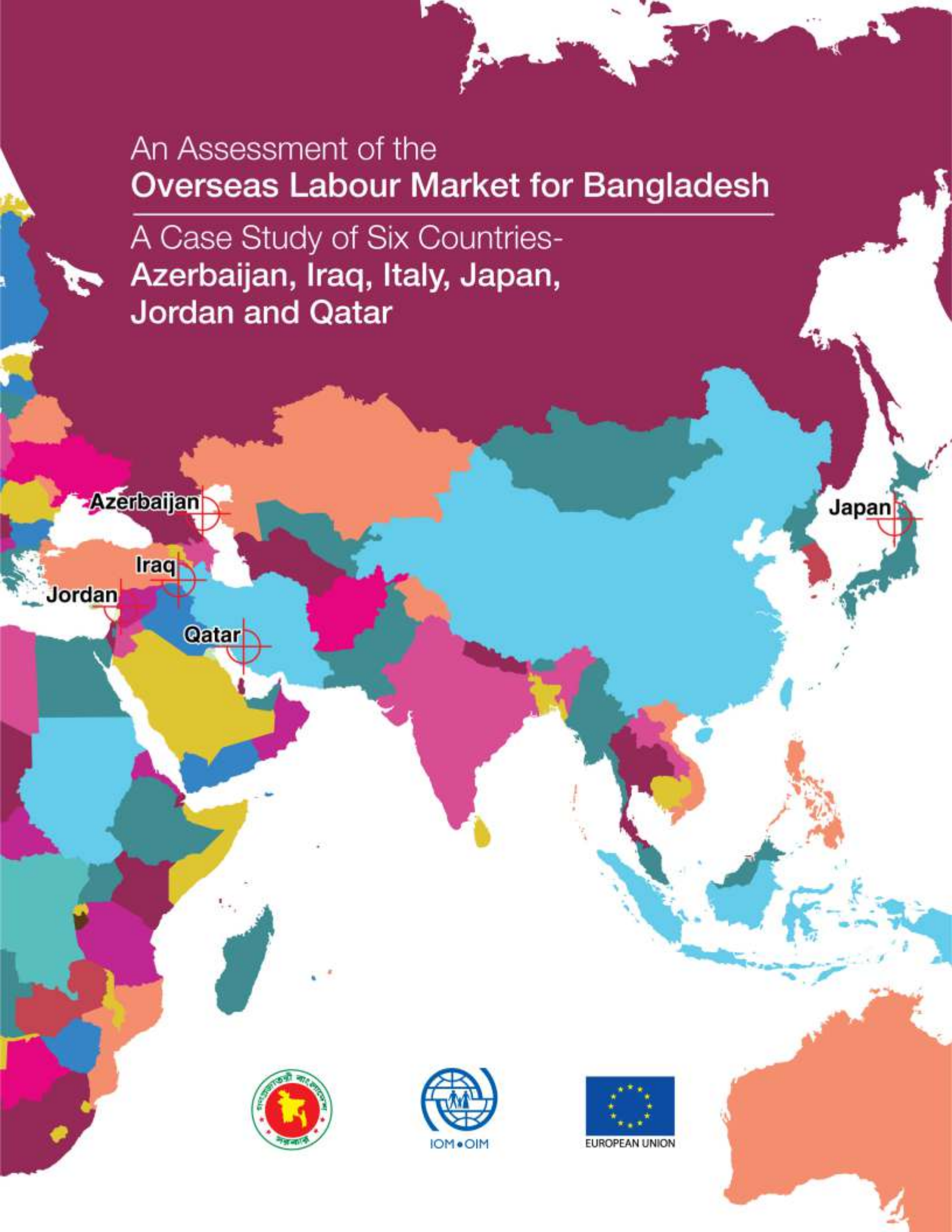


An Assessment of the Overseas Labour Market for Bangladesh

A Case Study of Six Countries-
Azerbaijan, Iraq, Italy, Japan,
Jordan and Qatar



An Assessment of the Overseas Labour Market for Bangladesh: A Case Study of Six Countries – Azerbaijan, Iraq, Italy, Japan, Jordan and Qatar



International Organization for Migration
Dhaka, June 2014



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Foreword

Over the past decade, labor migration has become increasingly important for the Bangladesh employment sector. As one of the top ten remittance receiving countries in the world, migration also plays a crucial role in the overall development of the country.

The Middle East and Gulf countries continue to be primary destinations for Bangladeshi migrants, but the Government of Bangladesh is also continually striving to explore new market destinations for entry. To this end in 2008 in collaboration with the International Organization of Migration (IOM) a Market Research Unit was established in the Bureau of Manpower Employment and Training (BMET), which ensures that the Ministry of Expatriates Welfare and Overseas Employment (MoEWOE) actively engages in labor market analysis. It is with this view, that the MOEWOE also warmly welcomes this latest study conducted by IOM "An Assessment of the Overseas Labour Market for Bangladesh: A Case Study of Six Countries - Azerbaijan, Iraq, Italy, Japan, Jordan and Qatar".

The labor market study will inform the ministry on its efforts to further identify, gather, analyze and disseminate overseas employment opportunities to concerned stakeholders. Furthermore it will support comparative labour market analysis for providing strategic guidance to policy interventions.

This report contains information related to six labour receiving countries and highlights the skills sectors available for Bangladeshi migrant workers. It also provides challenges and risks associated particularly for protection of migrant workers in these destination countries.

The report was made possible by the lead researcher, Mr Abdul Hye Mondal and the dedicated IOM project team.

I thank IOM for taking this initiative to conduct this study which provides in-depth information on employment trends, skill categories, opportunities and challenges. The recommendations highlighted will provide a basis for policy makers to take necessary action for establishing new labour markets for Bangladeshi migrants in six new destination countries.

We hope that such support, enhancing the capacity of government entities to make informed decisions, will continue to be extended in the future.

Khandker Md. Iftexhar Haider

Secretary
Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare &
Overseas Employment
Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh



IOM International Organization for Migration
আইওএম আন্তর্জাতিক অভিবাসন সংস্থা

Foreword

This report, commissioned by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) provides a labour market analysis of six destination countries with the potential of increased market demand for workforces from overseas. These countries were selected under strategic considerations and in close cooperation with the Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment and Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training (BMET). The report provides an overview of labour market developments and employment opportunities in Azerbaijan, Iraq, Italy, Japan, Jordan and Qatar. It examines sectors and occupations that have a labour surplus in Bangladesh which can be matched with shortages of labour in the study countries. After an analysis of the employment outlook for skilled workers from Bangladesh it concludes with specific policy recommendations to enhance the employability of migrant workers from Bangladesh based on - needs and dynamics of overseas labour market.

In Bangladesh, the contributions of more than 600,000 citizens going abroad each year play a vital role for the national development and livelihood of the families at home. Households of migrant workers in Bangladesh were found to have better living conditions. Remittances sent to Bangladesh have been accounting for over ten per cent of the annual GDP for several years.

Labour migration further helps ease the manifold economic and social pressures that are associated with a surplus labour force. Following the principles of safe and human migration, overseas employment provides an opportunity for the workers to generate higher incomes for better livelihoods and to develop skills and qualifications that may also be in strong demand at the national market.

It remains a challenge for policy makers to ensure that the Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) systems kept abreast of labour market dynamics and distinct features of different destination countries. IOM remains committed to supporting the Government of Bangladesh in producing accurate and applicable overseas market analysis.

This Six Country Study was initiated by IOM through the project 'Strengthening migration management capacities in Bangladesh, Indonesia, Nepal and the Philippines for replication in other Colombo Process Member States' funded by the European Commission. We take this opportunity to record our sincere appreciation to the Commission for their support.

I would further like to thank Dr. Abdul Hye Mondal for his tireless effort for conducting the research study and ensuring the inclusion of hard to reach primary information, as well as the project team for their contribution.

We hope that this study will assist the Government of Bangladesh in exploring new overseas markets in order to provide safe migration channels and better employment opportunities for migrant workers from Bangladesh.

Sarat Dash

Chief of Mission



Abbreviations and Acronyms

BAIRA	Bangladesh Association of International Recruiting Agencies
BBS	Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics
BMET	Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training
BOESL	Bangladesh Overseas Employment and Services Limited
CBI	Central Bank of Iraq
CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
DFI	Development Fund for Iraq
EDP	Executive Development Program
EP	Eastern Partnership
EPR	Employment to Population Ratio
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GOB	Government of Bangladesh
G-RAM	Global Risk Assessment Matrix
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IER	Informal Employment Rate
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IOM	International Organization for Migration
JITCO	Japan International Training Cooperation Organization
LFPR	Labour Force Participation Rate
MEWOE	Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment
NEET	Youth Not in Education and Not in Employment and Training
NSDP	National Skill Development Policy
PEOs	Public Employment Offices
QIZs	Qualifying Industrial Zones
SMEs	Small and Medium Enterprises
UR	Unemployment Rate

I. Introduction

I.1 Study Background

“Throughout the history of mankind, human beings have migrated in search of greater opportunities and a better life. While migration is driven by many complex factors, most migrants want to earn a better living, to live in a more agreeable environment or to join family or friends abroad. Many, however, do not move of their own free will but are forced to do so – refugees escaping persecution, for instance; people devastated by conflict or natural disasters; or victims of trafficking. But those who willingly choose to migrate are largely driven by the desire for greater happiness, prosperity and well-being” (IOM, 2013a).

In Bangladesh, labour migration is seen as a viable employment option for both skilled and unskilled workers with more than 600,000 citizens choosing to migrate each year. While labour migration can ease unemployment issues in the country and add to the national economy through their remittances, it is a challenge to ensure that policy keeps pace with new trends and opportunities for migrants.

The National Skill Development Policy of 2011 (NSDP) is a milestone defining and articulating a strategic plan for young people's skill development. The National Technical and Vocational Qualification Framework defines qualifications in the country to better reflect the changing occupational and skill profiles in both domestic and international labour markets regardless of gender. In order to properly match workers with jobs at home and abroad, Labour Force Surveys are undertaken by the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS) to quantify skills available in the country. All of the aforementioned information can be used to identify sectors of employment which are available in surplus inside Bangladesh and match these with countries with shortages in the same sector as well as to make projections and plans for future skills training. As the skills available in Bangladesh change, so should change the profile of countries where labour migrants are currently placed.

While the Middle East and Arab countries have always been top labour receiving countries for low skilled Bangladeshi workers, the protection of worker's rights is often not guaranteed by law in those states. Therefore, it is important to analyse available protection mechanisms as well as labour market opportunities. In order to improve protection mechanisms available for Bangladeshi migrants, the Government of Bangladesh (GOB) is piloting new initiatives such as the Government to Government (G2G) agreement with Malaysia. While it is important to identify countries that have opportunities for the skill sets of workers currently available, it is also important to look for new skill sectors which the country plans to develop in the coming 5 to 10 years through the skills development plan. Although a majority of migrant workers from Bangladesh have been recruited for the construction and textiles sectors (male migrants) and the service sector (female migrants), the GOB is looking for new opportunities for potential skilled workers not only into new countries but also in new skill sectors within traditional countries of destination.

Given this context, the International Organization for Migration in Bangladesh aims to support the Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training (BMET) to enhance its overseas market research capacity and support the government in exploring new destinations and new skill sectors. Through the Strengthening Labour Migration Management Capacities in Bangladesh, Indonesia, Nepal and the Philippines Project, a research study was planned covering six destination countries.





I.2 Objective of the Study

The central objective of the research is to understand current overseas labour market situations in the six labour receiving study countries and map diversified skill sectors available for Bangladeshi migrant workers in the light of the skills currently available within Bangladesh and the skill sets targeted by the government for development in the next five and ten years. The study will also identify challenges, such as migration laws or lack of protection measures to enter the new skill market.

I.3 Study Methodology and Approach

The study is essentially based on the quantitative and qualitative secondary data and information available from BMET, MEWOE, IOM, BAIRA, BOESL and other key national and international organizations recording databases for Bangladeshi migrants. The study also draws upon past and present study reports – published and unpublished. This was supplemented and updated by in-depth interviews with relevant officials as agreed upon with IOM.

Assessing employment opportunities in the six study countries

In assessing employment opportunities in the six study countries a number of indicators have been used. According to ILO (2012), employment opportunities encompass eleven statistical indicators.¹ The legal framework indicators corresponding to these statistical indicators are: government commitment to full employment and unemployment insurance. For the present study we used four main indicators, namely, employment-to-population ratio (EPR) including employment elasticity, unemployment rate, labour force participation rate and informal employment rate and a some additional indicators such as youth unemployment rate, percentage of youth who are not in employment and not in education or training (NEET) and informal employment rate (IER) as well as immigration rules and regulations of the labour receiving countries for which some data and information are available. Whenever possible, all indicators were disaggregated by sex in order to evaluate the differences in employment opportunities experienced by women and men (see Table-1).

Table-1: Common indicators for assessing employment opportunities in six study countries

Indicators of employment opportunities	Method of Calculation
GDP growth rate (year-to-year)	$(\text{Growth year GDP value at constant prices} - \text{Previous year GDP value at constant prices}) \div \text{Previous year GDP value at constant prices} \times 100$
Employment growth rate (year-to-year)	$(\text{Growth year employment} - \text{Previous year employment}) \div \text{Previous year employment} \times 100$
Employment elasticity (point)	$\text{Percentage change in the number of persons employed} \div \text{Percentage change in the economic output measured by GDP}$
Employment-to-population ratio – Total	$\text{Number of employed persons in the working-age population (15-64)} \div \text{Total number of persons in the working-age population (15-64)} \times 100$
Employment-to-population ratio – Men	$\text{Number of employed men in the working-age population (15-64)} \div \text{Total number of men in the working-age population (15-64)} \times 100$

1. These eleven indicators are: (i) Employment-to-population ratio, (ii) Unemployment rate, (iii) Percentage of youth not in education and not in employment, (iv) Informal employment rate, (v) Labour force participation rate, (vi) Youth unemployment rate, (vii) Unemployment rate by level of education, (viii) Employment share by status in employment, (ix) Proportion of own-account and contributing family workers in total employment, (x) Share of wage employment in non-agricultural employment, and (xi) Labour underutilization rate (see ILO, 2012).

Indicators of employment opportunities	Method of Calculation
Employment-to-population ratio – Women	Number of employed women in the working-age population (15-64) ÷ Total number of women in the working-age population (15-64) x 100
Unemployment rate – Total	Number of unemployed persons in the working-age population (15-64) ÷ Total number of persons in the labour force (15-64) x 100
Unemployment rate – Men	Number of unemployed men in the working-age population (15-64) ÷ Total number of men in the labour force (15-64) x 100
Unemployment rate – Women	Number of unemployed women in the working-age population (15-64) ÷ Total number of women in the labour force (15-64) x 100
Youth not in education and not in employment & training (NEET)% (15-24)	{(Number of unemployed youth + Number of youth not economically active) – (Number of youth not economically active and unemployed youth who are in education or training)} ÷ Total number of youth x 100
Informal employment rate	Number of employed persons in informal employment ÷ Total number of employed persons x 100
Labour force participation rate – Total	{Number of persons employed (15-64) + Number of persons unemployed (15-64)} ÷ Total number of persons in the working-age population (15-64) x 100
Labour force participation rate – Men	{Number of men employed (15-64) + Number of men unemployed (15-64)} ÷ Total number of men in the working-age population (15-64) x 100
Labour force participation rate – Women	{Number of women employed (15-64) + Number of women unemployed (15-64)} ÷ Total number of women in the working-age population (15-64) x 100
Youth unemployment rate (15-24) – Total	Number of youth in the working-age population who are unemployed (15-24) ÷ Total number of youth in the labour force (15-24) x 100
Youth unemployment rate (15-24) – Men	Number of men youth in the working-age population who are unemployed (15-24) ÷ Total number of men youth in the labour force (15-24) x 100
Youth unemployment rate (15-24) – Women	Number of women youth in the working-age population who are unemployed (15-24) ÷ Total number of women youth in the labour force (15-24) x 100



The interpretation of the indicators requires careful analysis, as changes in the levels or trends in a given indicator must be understood in terms of underlying components and factors and, moreover, should be evaluated jointly with changes in other related indicators, both quantitative and qualitative indicators. In addition, it is important to analyse them together with economic and social context indicators. Thus a decline in a given indicator in one country could contribute towards progress in that dimension while signalling a deterioration in that particular area in another country due to differences in underlying components or factors.

Employment-to-population ratio

The EPR is often considered a basic yardstick for understanding the overall demand for labour in an economy as it provides information on the ability of an economy to generate employment. A high ratio means that a large proportion of a country's population is employed, while a low ratio means that a large share of the population is not involved directly in market-related activities, because they are either unemployed or (more likely) out of the labour force altogether. An increasing trend of the EPR usually indicates increasing employment demand within the economy in terms of the quantity



of workers. A high ratio is not necessarily a positive result, as it may signal, for example, limited education options for young people, minimal or non-existent unemployment assistance or other social benefits and/or economic hardship. Ratios above 80 percent often indicate an abundance of low quality jobs. Sharp increases could point to decreasing levels of labour productivity if not matched by increases in Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

A low ratio means that a large share of the working-age population is unemployed and/or not attached to the labour force. Persons may not be in the labour force for reasons such as enrolment in an educational institution, retirement, carrying out domestic chores in their own household, illness or incapacity for work. Still others in this group may express a desire to work and be available to work but may not be seeking work for various reasons, both economic and noneconomic. This kind of information is essential for interpreting the EPR of various demographic groups, including youth, women and older persons. It should also be emphasized that this indicator has a gender bias in so far as there is a tendency to undercount women who do not consider their work as “employment” or are not perceived by others as “working”. Women are often the primary child caretakers and responsible for various tasks at home, which can prohibit them from seeking paid employment, particularly if they are not supported by socio-cultural attitudes and/or family-friendly policies and programmes that allow them to balance work and family responsibilities.

There is no optimal value and the EPR alone is not sufficient for assessing the employment opportunities. For a better understanding of the labour demand and labour supply dynamic, changes in the indicator should be analysed jointly with changes in other key employment opportunities indicators, especially the unemployment rate and the labour force participation rate.

Employment elasticity seeks to measure the employment intensity of output growth and may provide insights regarding changes in the EPR vis-à-vis GDP growth. Such elasticity can be disaggregated by economic activity for a more targeted analysis. The total employment elasticity shows how total employment in a country has varied with total economic output. An elasticity of 1 implies that every 1 percentage point of GDP growth is associated with a 1 percentage point increase in employment. An elasticity of 0.4 implies that every 1 percentage point of GDP growth is associated with employment growth of 0.4 percentage points, and so forth (KILM-19).

Unemployment rate

The unemployment rate (UR) signals to some extent the underutilization of the labour supply. It reflects the inability of an economy to generate employment for those persons who want to work but are not doing so, even though they are available for employment and actively seeking work. It is thus seen as an indicator of the efficiency and effectiveness of an economy to absorb its labour force and of the performance of the labour market. Progress is measured by achieving acceptably low UR levels. Frictional unemployment is always present as persons laid off from their jobs seek new ones and new entrants and re-entrants to the labour market begin their job search. At the same time, structural unemployment is also commonly present as industry-occupation staffing patterns shift over time. Thus in the best of circumstances, the UR can be expected to remain above zero.

In most developed countries, the unemployment rate continues to prove its usefulness as an important indicator of labour market performance, and specifically, as a key measure of labour underutilization. In developing countries, the significance and meaning of the unemployment rate is much more limited. In the absence of unemployment insurance, other unemployment relief schemes or social safety nets, the majority of persons of working age must engage any type of economic activity, however insignificant or inadequate. These persons often work in the informal economy and in self-employment characterized by poor working conditions and inadequate social protection.

The indicator is often used to analyse gender differences in labour force behaviour and trends. The unemployment rate is often higher for women than for men, but it varies by country. While labour markets have unique characteristics reflecting their particular social, cultural and economic factors, this overall result points to the fact that worldwide, women are more likely than men to exit and re-enter the labour force for family-related reasons. Moreover, there is a general “crowding” of women

into fewer occupations of lower decision-making status as compared to men so that women often find a smaller number of opportunities for employment. Other gender inequalities, for example in access to education and training, also negatively affect how women fare in finding jobs.

The UR is relatively volatile and its trends should be analysed with changes in total output measured by the GDP. Healthy economic growth is often associated with a decrease in the UR, but this may depend on the point in the business cycle. At the start of economic expansion, the UR may actually increase as discouraged workers and other persons previously not in the labour force test the labour market by commencing a job search. Changes in the UR should also be analysed jointly with measures of total labour supply and labour demand, in particular the labour force participation rate (LFPR) and the EPR respectively. In most cases, a decline in the UR is accompanied by an increase in the EPR. Occasionally however, the UR declines in the context of falling labour demand. The UR should also be analysed together with complementary measures of labour slack and labour underutilization, including time-related underemployment and discouraged workers whose ranks often increase during periods of economic weakness. Complementary indicators regarding the proportion of the unemployed who benefit from unemployment insurance schemes or temporary work schemes (where they exist) should be analysed together with the UR. Moreover, information on the availability of job skills development training and/or apprenticeships and the number of persons benefitting from such programmes (including separately the number of unemployed who benefit) should be collected and analysed jointly with the UR (ibid.).

Youth not in education and not in employment

The indicator for youth not in education and not in employment (NEET), provides a measure of the youth who are outside the educational system and not in employment, and thus serves as a broader measure of potential youth labour market entrants than youth unemployment. A high NEET rate as compared with the youth unemployment rate could mean that a large number of youths are discouraged workers, or do not have access to education or training. Some of these youths may be unable to participate in education or in employment due to severe disabilities or lack of transportation among other factors, and it is important to evaluate such reasons for potential policy interventions.

A high NEET rate among females as compared with males is often an indication that female youths are engaged in household chores such as washing clothes, cooking, cleaning and taking care of siblings. Such activities can be detected in the labour force survey questionnaire with appropriate probing of persons who are not in the labour force or through time-use surveys. When they involve excessive hours, such activities prevent female youth from going to school, thus placing young women at risk of not gaining the skills they need to succeed in the labour market.

While the NEET rate includes unemployed and not-in-labour force youth who are not in training, it may be useful to analyse information on the availability of existing job skills development training and/or apprenticeships in the economy and the number of youth benefitting from such programmes (including separately the number of unemployed youth who benefit) together with the NEET. If no job skills training or apprenticeship programmes exist, it could be useful to develop a core set of indicators related to the skills gap or requirements vis-à-vis jobs that exist or are likely to be in demand and that are suitable for youth at different levels of educational attainment. Such a core set of indicators could complement the NEET and provide information for policy action related to enhancing the youth labour supply and employability, for example through the development of targeted skills training or apprenticeship programmes (ibid.).

Informal employment rate

Informal employment is a job-based concept and encompasses those jobs that generally lack basic social or legal protections or employment benefits and may be found in the formal sector, informal sector or households. Nearly all categories of informal sector employment are also classified as informal employment. The informal employment rate (IER) is considered an important indicator regarding the quality of employment in an economy, and is relevant to developing and developed countries alike.





A decreasing IER indicates progress as regards the proportion of persons employed that generally lack basic social or legal protections or employment benefits, whether they work in the formal sector, informal sector, or households. As informal employment consists of several component categories defined by status in employment and type of production unit, data users need to analyse the levels and changes in component rates which may differ in direction and magnitude from the overall change in the IER.

Employees in informal employment and its subcomponents (such as those in the formal sector, or paid domestic workers) may be of particular relevance to countries with a high proportion of employees in total employment where the informal sector is very small. Analysing the levels and trends of the component categories of informal employment will be critical to addressing policy needs. It is also recommended that data users analyse the trends of the proportion of total employment in the informal sector and evaluate this jointly with changes in the IER to analyse the interaction between the two indicators. Employment in the informal economy is defined as the sum of employment in the informal sector and informal employment which is outside the informal sector. It is also useful to track this aggregate indicator to understand the full dimensions of informality in an economy (ibid).

Ready references/sources of data and information on the above indicators include:

1. ILO, "Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM), Various Editions, www.ilo.org/kilm; ilo.org/empelm/pubs/WCMS_114060/lang--en/index.htm; www.ilo.org/global/publications/books/WCMS.../lang.../index.htm;
2. The World Bank, World Development Indicators. data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.EMP.TOTL.SP.ZS/.../1W?;
3. US Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: International Labor Comparisons (ILC);
4. www.tradingeconomics.com;
5. The World Factbook-CIA <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/Cached>;
6. Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD);
7. Statistical Office of the European Union (Eurostat);
8. International Monetary Fund, World Economic Outlook;
9. National Labour Force Survey.

Labour market data reported by these sources need to be used and interpreted with great care and caution because direct comparisons of national statistics across countries can be misleading due to differing concepts, definitions, scope of coverage, reference period and methods. For countries with less-developed labour market information systems, information are not readily or easily available. Many of these countries, however, do collect and compile labour market information through household and establishment surveys, population censuses and administrative records, so that the main problem remains the communication of such information to the global community. In the present exercise, an extensive effort was made to tap into the existing datasets that are increasingly made public by national statistical offices and international organizations through the internet. Besides, information on some indicators are either missing due to limited survey coverage or are outdated. Defining effective labour market strategies at the country level requires first and foremost the collection, dissemination and assessment of up-to-date and reliable labour market information. Once a strategy is decided, continuing information and analysis are essential to monitor progress towards goals and to adjust policies where needed. Labour market information and analysis must be viewed as the cornerstone for developing integrated strategies to promote standards and fundamental principles and rights at work, productive employment, social protection and dialogue, as well as to address the cross-cutting themes of gender and development.

The quality of the results of the labour force survey may be assessed by comparing the survey data with data from other sources deemed more accurate. Lack of coherence of data from different sources is a problem because users of data are puzzled when faced with different figures referring to identical or similar concepts. From the point of view of data producers, reconciliation of the survey data with other sources can help to identify measurement errors and to take actions to reduce them.

The labour force framework is designed to maintain consistency between the employment statistics obtained from labour force surveys and the production statistics compiled in national accounts. “The economically active population comprises all persons of either sex who furnish the supply of labour for the production of goods or services within the production boundary, as defined by the latest version of the SNA, during a specified time-reference period.”(ILO, 2008). One therefore expects that the trends of employment and production follow the same pattern. If the labour force survey shows an increase in employment, one would expect to see also an increase in production in the national accounts. Similarly, a decline in the level of employment according to the labour force survey should be reflected in a decline in the level of production in the national accounts. But this is hardly found in the labour market data used for the present study. The accuracy, precision and reliability of the data, therefore, remain subject to question. However, achieving a harmonious balance between coverage and comparability is a difficult task. The only way out was to deal with the question by sticking to as much common methodological information as was possible.

Making employment projection for Bangladeshi migrant workers in the six study countries

For conducting a employment projection for Bangladeshi migrant workers in the six study countries, we resorted to the BMET database on overseas employment for the last nine years (five years for Iraq depending upon data availability) because planned labour market survey in these countries did not work out. However, BMET database could not be readily used because BMET does not follow any standard classification of occupations. In many instances, recorded data overlap by occupation under different names. In other instances, data appear sporadically though regularity is discovered after much ado. Besides, there is sharp difference in the employment figures for most of the occupations. Despite all the weaknesses, BMET data provide the base for employment projections in all the six study countries.

2013 base-year employment: For projection purposes 2013 has been chosen as the base year. BMET dataset provides time-series data for the occupational employment patterns for Bangladeshi migrant workers in each study country. Employment in a given occupation in the base-year (2013) has been estimated by averaging out three-year moving averages of employment in that given occupation during the last nine years (five years for Iraq) in order to correct for the sharp variation in the employment figures in different years. Occupations in which employment in the most recent years disappears have been excluded because of their lack of current demand.

Projected-year employment: Estimates of projected occupational employment in each year are derived by multiplying base-year employment by each occupation's trend growth rate of three-year moving averages adjusted for expected economic growth rate and prospective labour market developments in the next five and ten years in keeping with the occupation's base-year ratio in total employment of Bangladeshi migrants. Historical employment pattern data were closely examined in order to work out demand for a given occupation during the projection decade. Such factors primarily include shifts in occupation and changes in technology or business practices. These change factors were developed which give the proportional change in an occupation's share in total employment over the next 5-year and 10-year projection period. These change factors are applied to the 2013 occupational employment patterns to derive projected occupational patterns. Historical data indicate that the occupational distribution shifts over time as the demand for some occupations changes relative to that of other occupations.



II. Six Study Countries

II.1 Azerbaijan

Azerbaijan: Country Summary

Azerbaijan is one of the most advanced countries in the migration transition in moving from being an exporter of labour to a net importer. This unique feature is the direct result of the economic success of the past decade, stimulated by the massive increase in oil and gas revenues. As a result of the successful implementation of its oil and gas strategy, Azerbaijan has joined the group of middle-income countries. Despite rapid economic growth, macroeconomic stability was well maintained. Despite these positive developments, significant challenges remain in ensuring the long-term sustainability of future growth in the non-oil sectors, namely developing human capital and closing the productivity gap with competitors as well as higher income countries in the years ahead. The government of Azerbaijan has put emphasis on strengthening the labour market, given its importance for growth, competitiveness and poverty reduction. Policies and regulatory changes have focused on job creation and growth through promoting private investment and enabling the market entry of small and medium enterprises (SMEs). As a result, the employment rate has increased substantially, particularly among women.

Hundreds of thousands of people migrated to and out of Azerbaijan, causing substantial changes in the demographic situation of the country. The start of oil exploration and subsequent economic boom in the country began to reverse the negative tide of migration: the country started to attract people from abroad rather than serve mainly as an outflow country. Labour market in Azerbaijan has undergone a turbulent transition period marked by low levels of economic activity, high unemployment and underemployment rates, and frequent changes in the employment status of individuals.

Employment and activity rates in Azerbaijan have generally been modest (66%) and tend to increase with declining unemployment rates. Female youth unemployment rate, however, tends to increase in most recent years. The EPR is as high as 62 percent in 2012 and tends to increase during the last five years indicating increasing employment demand within the economy in terms of the quantity of workers. Youth participation rates are low, partly as a result of high levels of enrolment in university education. However, these activity rates are significantly distorted by the large contribution of rural self-employment and the high level of informal activities (61%). Overall, productivity improvements translated almost exclusively into better wages for insiders, since enhanced economic performance failed to create more jobs especially during 2007-2010. However, employment elasticity in Azerbaijan steadily increases over the 2007-2012 period implying that growth is gradually translating into more jobs. Apparently, economic growth has contributed less to the reduction in unemployment than has emigration.

The dynamics of job destruction and creation, aimed at a better reallocation and skills readjustment of the workforce, have been weak. Labour market restructuring has resulted in many losers, and some questions remain after two decades of reforms: why, after so many years, has the lack of employment opportunities pushed so many people to emigrate while a significant proportion of those who have stayed live in poverty? There is no clear answer to this dilemma; what is certain is that the process of transition has not yet led to the creation of enough decent jobs. To date, government has been much more concerned with limiting job destruction than with creating new jobs.



Azerbaijan is turning into an attractive hub for tens of thousands of labour migrants. They are mostly involved in construction sector which has seen an economic boom in the recent years. Migrants also show an interest in the fields of ICT, oil industry, tourism, hotel business, and education, which are developing rapidly and attracting larger amounts of foreign investments. Azerbaijan has improved its migration legislations in accordance with international norms over the past few years. The changes made to the Migration Code on 01 August 2013 have simplified the registration of the migrants at their residences and application for other relevant standards. The Code also updated the order of transit passage through the country for foreigners and stateless persons and the order of their registration at their residences.

GDP growth in Azerbaijan is likely to average 9 percent during the next five-year period and 15 percent during the next second five-year period in a way to recover earlier growth scenario. Therefore, employment growth rates are likely to average 3 percent in the former and 5 percent in the latter projection period.

In Azerbaijan, largest shortage of labour is seen in the case of general labour followed distantly by industrial workers, private service and welding/fabrication. In Azerbaijan there is very limited demand for waitress. However, in general, potential market for Bangladeshi women migrant workers in Azerbaijan remains to be explored.

According to Allahveranov & Huseynov (2013), of all the Eastern Partnership (EP) countries, Azerbaijan is perhaps the most advanced in the migration transition, namely in moving from being an exporter of labour to a net importer. This unique feature is the direct result of the economic success of the past decade, stimulated by the massive increase in oil and gas revenues. Upon gaining its independence, Azerbaijan faced much deeper political, economic and social challenges than other former Soviet republics. The military conflict over the disputed Nagorno Karabakh territory of the country with neighbouring Armenia, domestic political instability along with the collapse of traditional trade relations led to a severe economic depression with substantial worsening across all social well-being indices. Having lost almost 60 percent of its pre-independence GDP, the country experienced the largest economic decline of the post-Soviet area.

Nevertheless, thanks to radical economic stabilization programmes and reforms supported by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank (WB), macroeconomic stability was quickly restored and positive economic growth was achieved since 1995. The Production Sharing Agreements signed with major international oil companies to explore, extract and export the vast oil and gas reserves of the country were critical in attracting much-needed foreign direct investment (FDI), and the construction of the Baku-Tbilisi-Ceyhan (BTC) – the main export oil pipeline – enabled a huge windfall of revenues from exports of oil and gas. As a result of the successful implementation of its oil and gas strategy, Azerbaijan has joined the group of middle-income countries, according to World Bank Atlas methodology. In per capita terms, GDP increased by 8.7 times to reach \$5,798 in this period, with Azerbaijan rising to 82nd place among the 182 countries ranked according to this indicator. The poverty rate was reduced from about 70 percent to single-digit, underpinned by the creation of a State Oil Fund and a successful targeted social assistance programme enabling improvements in the distribution of wealth and the modernization of the economy.

Despite rapid economic growth, macroeconomic stability was well maintained. Average annual inflation in 2000-2011 did not exceed 8 percent; the average surplus on the current account during the decade was about 8 percent of GDP, strategic foreign exchange reserves increased 31-fold to account for 65 percent of GDP. Despite these positive developments, significant challenges remain in ensuring the long-term sustainability of future growth in the non-oil sectors, namely developing human capital and closing the productivity gap with competitors as well as higher income countries in the years ahead. The government of Azerbaijan has put a lot of emphasis on strengthening the labour market, given its importance for growth, competitiveness and poverty reduction. Policies and regulatory changes have focused on job creation and growth through promoting private investment and enabling the market entry of small and medium enterprises (SMEs). As a result, the employment rate has increased substantially, particularly among women. The government has also achieved considerable progress on the regulatory side with, for example, Azerbaijan moving up the Doing Business ranking from 67 in employment practices in 2008 to 15 in 2009.





Favourable demographic trends resulted in an increasing economically active population and also in women's labour participation rate over the period 2000-2010. Population growth with growing labour force and the lowest unemployment rate in the Caucasus, are the key factors contributing to a stable increase in employment in Azerbaijan. More than one million new jobs were generated in the 10-year period, which drove the poverty rate down from 51 percent in 2000 to 7.6 percent in 2011. However, there was only a negligible improvement in other labour market indicators, which remain highly concentrated in low value-added activities. Agriculture is still the largest employer, comprising about 40 percent of total employment, while generating only 6 percent of total GDP. The oil and gas sector, on the other hand, generated about 53 percent of GDP in 2007, while contributing only 1 percent to total employment. Symptoms of Dutch Disease are well represented by a clear shift of the labour force from tradable to non-tradable sectors, where the government is the dominant employer (Allahveranov & Huseynov, *ibid*).

The main critical issue related to education in Azerbaijan is the low productivity of the labour force in employment. According to the World Bank (LSMS 2008), 70 percent of higher education graduates in Azerbaijan work in the public sector, despite low salaries, and only just fewer than 25 percent are engaged in the high-productivity private sector. Given the fact that agriculture is one of the largest employers in the economy and the fact that lower educated employees are concentrated predominantly in this sector, such an employment structure is no surprise. Azerbaijan's migration experience has taken place against this economic background as well as the wider political transformation and ethnic conflict during the last twenty years. Hundreds of thousands of people migrated to and out of Azerbaijan, causing substantial changes in the demographic structure of the country. At the beginning of the 1990s, the economic crisis and political instability caused by the collapse of the Soviet Union and exacerbated in the case of Azerbaijan by the war with Armenia, resulted in the decision of many people to emigrate from Azerbaijan. Along with the difficulties related to the economic transition, this emigration was in particular caused by the grave economic consequences of the Nagorno-Karabakh conflict with Armenia leading to the emergence of about one million refugees and internally displaced persons.

However, starting from the mid-1990s, migration became more determined by solely economic factors. The start of oil exploration and subsequent economic boom in the country began to reverse the negative tide of migration: the country started to attract people from abroad rather than serve mainly as an outflow country. According to official statistics, the largest migration flows in Azerbaijan were recorded in the first half of the 1990s. Emigrants continued to outnumber immigrants during the second half of the 1990s. However, starting from 2001, the nature of the migration processes started to change and evidence showed that migration dynamics turned in favour of immigrants. The last two years have also been remarkable due to the fact that immigrants have outnumbered those emigrating from Azerbaijan (*ibid*).

Meanwhile, mirroring the developing status of Azerbaijan as a host country to labour migrants, outward remittances have also been increasing. Several policy activities are being undertaken with regard to migration policy in Azerbaijan. These include institutional strengthening of the various divisions of government ministries that actively participate in the area of migration, changes in migration policies, a widening of international relations and, given Azerbaijan's peculiar feature of being both an exporter and importer of migrants, measures to curb illegal migration.

II.1.1 Labour Market Developments and Employment Opportunities in Azerbaijan

According to ETP (2011), labour market in Azerbaijan has undergone a turbulent transition period marked by low levels of economic activity, high unemployment and underemployment rates, and frequent changes in the employment status of individuals. The end of Soviet-era full employment led to declining participation rates, the emergence of unemployment as a new concept and increasing wage differentials. Meanwhile, the size of the working-age population as a proportion of the total population increased during the transition period as a result of the baby boom of the 1970s and 1980s. In 2008 the 15–64 age group accounted for around 70 percent of the population as a whole (67% in the EU-27). This growth trend is expected to continue for several more years, coinciding with the ageing of the population and a slight feminisation of the labour force.

Employment opportunities in Azerbaijan

Employment and activity rates in Azerbaijan have generally been modest (66%) and tend to increase with declining unemployment rates. Female youth unemployment rate, however, tends to increase in most recent years. The EPR is as high as 62 percent in 2012 (Table-2) and tends to increase during the last five years indicating increasing employment demand within the economy in terms of the quantity of workers. Youth participation rates are low, partly as a result of high levels of enrolment in university education. However, although these activity rates are comparable with those in the EU, they are significantly distorted by the large contribution of rural self-employment and the high level of informal activities (61%). Overall, productivity improvements translated almost exclusively into better wages for insiders, since enhanced economic performance failed to create more jobs especially during 2007-2010. However, employment elasticity in Azerbaijan steadily increases (apart from 2011 – an outlier) over 2007-2012 period implying that growth is gradually translating into more jobs. Apparently, economic growth has contributed less to the reduction in unemployment than has emigration.

Table-2: Employment opportunities in Azerbaijan

Indicators of employment opportunities	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
GDP growth rate	25.0	10.80	9.30	4.96	0.09	2.17
Employment growth rate	1.25	1.28	1.33	1.34	1.06	1.60
Employment elasticity	0.05	0.12	0.14	0.27	11.78	0.74
Employment-to-population ratio – Total		60	61	61	62	62
Employment-to-population ratio – Men		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Employment-to-population ratio – Women		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Unemployment rate – Total			5.7	5.6	5.4	5.2
Unemployment rate – Men			4.9	4.4	4.5	4.3
Unemployment rate – Women			6.6	6.9	6.4	6.1
Youth not in education and not in employment & training (NEET)% (15-24)		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Informal employment rate						60.6
Labour force participation rate – Total			65	65	65	66
Labour force participation rate – Men			68	67	68	69
Labour force participation rate – Women			62	62	62	63
Youth unemployment rate – Total			13.9	15.4	14.7	14.4
Youth unemployment rate – Men			12.9	17.3	14.2	12.2
Youth unemployment rate – Women			14.9	13.4	15.2	16.3

Sources: (1) ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM), 2013, www.ilo.org/kilm (2) For GDP IMF, World Economic Outlook Database, October 2013. (3) For employment www.tradingeconomics.com/azerbaijan/employed-persons. (4) The World Bank, World Development Indicators, 2013.

An important characteristic of the employment structure in terms of employment status is the low proportion of wage employment. In 2007, wage employment as a share of total employment was only 41.8 percent in Azerbaijan. Self-employment therefore has a very high incidence: 58.2 percent of Azeris. Such high level of self-employment indicates the great fragility of the labour market, and is mostly the outcome of limited wage employment opportunities. They reflect a survival strategy for people forced to take up small-scale own-account informal activities or subsistence agriculture on small plots of land. Labour market vulnerability is also evident in the sectoral structure of employment where the proportion of agricultural employment is still high. Agriculture plays a key





role in absorbing employment in Azerbaijan (39.0%). However, agricultural value added to GDP is extremely low indicating low productivity and possibly high poverty levels. Industrial employment is much lower, at around 10–15 percent. Azerbaijan has a high employment rate for the services sector being above 50 percent of employment (ETP, 2011).

At the sectoral level, Azerbaijan has maintained – and even expanded – labour-intensive activities that have relatively low added value and that require low qualification levels. Employment restructuring has taken place mostly at the inter-sectoral level, i.e. across economic sectors and between public and private sectors. In the case of shifts between economic sectors, two types can be distinguished: between agricultural and non-agricultural sectors, and within non-agricultural sectors. The shift from the public to the private sector was much greater in the first decade of transition as a result of mass privatisation and land distribution. As against the worldwide informal employment of 60 percent (1.8 billion) and formal employment of 40 percent (1.2 billion) and world weighted average of 33 percent informal employment, Azerbaijan records an informal employment rate of 60.6 percent. High levels of informality were the result of several factors: the reduction of public formal employment, largely supported by privatisation and subsequent restructuring; land reform resulting in self-employment activities; an oversupply of labour as a result of closures that enabled employers to enter into informal and semi-formal arrangements; an erosion in incomes that forced many people to look for alternative income sources; and the cost-cutting strategies of enterprises. The ultimate outcome is that a significant proportion of the labour market now functions under low-productivity and low-wage conditions. The labour markets is heterogeneous and heavily localised as a result of varying speeds of reform, unequal investment activities, geographical patterns of demand for goods and services and other factors favouring regional disparities. The labour market has a dual nature in various respects: formal versus informal, with most of those who are self-employed belonging to the informal sector; and rural versus urban, with higher rural rates of participation and informality because of subsistence agriculture. The dynamics of job destruction and creation, aimed at a better reallocation and skills readjustment of the workforce, have been weak. Labour market restructuring has resulted in many losers, and some questions remain after two decades of reforms: why have the transformations not been less costly in social terms, and why, after so many years, has the lack of employment opportunities pushed so many people to emigrate while a significant proportion of those who have stayed live in poverty? There is no clear answer to this dilemma; what is certain is that the process of transition has not yet led to the creation of enough decent jobs (ETP, *ibid*).

Employment policies

In Azerbaijan employment support has been an important objective, given the high levels of job destruction experienced from the beginning of transition. Actions to support employment have been focused in three main areas. The first is labour market regulation, with the aim of reducing the rigidity inherited from the Soviet era and facilitating labour turnover from less productive to more productive sectors. Azerbaijan has revised its labour legislation to relatively flexible approaches implying further flexibilisation in labour market functioning. The second area is the formulation of overly ambitious employment policy, given that it was not accompanied by specific action plans or adequate financing. In 2008 public spending on active and passive measures was much lower than the EU-27 average (1.6% of GDP), despite higher unemployment level. This spending was around 0.1 percent of GDP in Azerbaijan with increased spending on labour market measures in 2008. The limited ‘cheap-credit’ and social assistance programmes for the poor were also suspended in 2009 in response to the economic crisis. Azerbaijan has unemployment insurance systems in place and most labour market funds are used for unemployment benefits. However, a large number of unemployed people receive no income, since the strict eligibility criteria restrict access to only a small number of formal workers, and the amount of benefits is too low to be considered an adequate measure of income security. In 2008, only 1 percent of unemployed people in Azerbaijan received cash benefits. Spending on active labour market measures to enhance the employability of unemployed people is even lower. Of total public spending on labour market policies, only 15 percent is spent on active measures in Azerbaijan. The menu of active labour market measures is quite rich. Job-creation measures (specific public works and employer subsidies for the recruitment of specific population groups) are the most common measures and absorb most of the

budgets, although employability measures (such as training) and job-search facilitation (including job clubs and job fairs) are also common. The problem is that the reach of these measures is quite limited given the funds available. Nonetheless, the overall impact of employment policies on employment enhancement has been insignificant. The third area is the improvement of the capacity of labour market institutions. Another gap in the employment policy of Azerbaijan is its weak focus on job creation through the development of a friendly business environment. To date, government has been much more concerned with limiting job destruction than with creating new jobs (ETP, *ibid*).

Labour Emigration

Another sign of the existence of dysfunctional labour markets is the fact that Azerbaijan is the source of substantial labour outflows, which have a profound impact on domestic labour markets, human capital stocks and demographics. According to the World Bank database, Azerbaijan has 1.43 million total number of emigrants abroad with 16 percent of total population. Different socioeconomic, ethnic and political factors played a role in the earlier migratory flows of the period 1990–2000, including refugees fleeing civil wars, trans-border conflicts and diasporas returning to ethnic homelands. Thereafter, migration became a coping mechanism in the face of a rapid deterioration in living standards, and widespread poverty. Migrant outflows since the early 2000s have increasingly been motivated by work factors, and have become an important income-generating activity, given the limited jobs and low wages, insufficient capital and lower quality of life in poorly functioning home labour markets. Labour emigrants typically have relatively high formal education levels (although quality remains an issue), include a considerable proportion of females and are from diverse age groups. The types of job held abroad are mostly low-paid positions, mainly in labour-intensive sectors with low skill requirements, such as construction, agriculture, hotels and catering and domestic services (house cleaning, childcare and care of the elderly).

According to Babayeva (2014), with a growing economy and improving life standards, Azerbaijan is turning into an attractive hub for tens of thousands of labour migrants. The country has ranked first in CIS (Commonwealth of Independent States) region in attracting migrants due to its socio-political and economic stability. The migrants are mainly from neighbouring countries like Iran, Russia, Georgia, and Turkey, as well as from Great Britain, China, Pakistan, Australia, and Philippines. They are mostly involved in construction sector which has seen an economic boom in the recent years. Migrants also show an interest in the fields of ICT, oil industry, tourism, hotel business, and education, which are developing rapidly and attracting larger amounts of foreign investments.

Regulations affect the opportunities for businesses to grow and create jobs. Regulations can increase the cost of doing business, in money or in time needed to comply. Steps taken to meet requirements or to pay fees are a burden for businesses, as are delays or discretionary decisions, such as those for work permits for migrants. Regulations more clearly affect job flows, creating “stickiness” in the labour market and slowing the pace of labour reallocation.

Improving migration legislations

The Azerbaijan State Migration Service (2013) reported that Azerbaijan has improved its migration legislations in accordance with international norms over the past few years. The changes made to the Migration Code on 01 August 2013 have simplified the registration of the migrants at their residences and application for other relevant standards. The Code also updated the order of transit passage through the country for foreigners and stateless persons and the order of their registration at their residences.

The permission for temporary residence and immigrant status for permanent residence of foreigners is issued by ASAN Service (the State Agency for Public Service and Social Innovations under the President of Azerbaijan). In 2013, Azerbaijan State Migration Service issued temporary residence permits for 40,800 foreigners and stateless persons and permanent residence for 2,338 foreigners and persons without citizenship while stay of 729 people were extended in the country. In this period 9,021 people got permission to work, while similar permission was extended for 3,647 people and stay of 3,007 foreigners in Azerbaijan were legalized.





Azerbaijan also has toughened sanctions against illegal migrants. The parliament adopted relevant changes to the Criminal Code of Azerbaijan in early December 2013. In accordance with changes, mandatory banishment will be applied to foreigners or stateless persons imprisoned for a term not exceeding one year, or sentenced to the penalty of deprivation of freedom. The legislation sets a punishment as a fine in the amount of 2,000 - 5,000 Manats (\$2,549-\$6,374), or correctional labour up to two years, or imprisonment up to three years for organizing illegal entry and residence of a foreigner or a stateless person in Azerbaijan, as well as illegal transit through the territory of Azerbaijan. Notably, 30,867 foreigners and stateless persons violated immigration laws in 2013, the State Migration Service reported.

In accordance with the Code of Administrative Offences, 25,796 foreigners got deportation orders from Azerbaijan for 48 hours, while 1,746 foreigners were deported from Azerbaijan. In 2013, some 5,838 foreigners were exempted from the fine, and 202 people were expelled from the list of the deported. The Service carried out inspections at 564 entrepreneurial facilities to prevent violations of the law by employers, and revealed violations of rules for issuing work permits for foreigners at 256 entrepreneur facilities.

Obtaining the citizenship of Azerbaijan

The number of persons applying to obtain citizenship has increased over the last years due to economic, cultural and social developments in Azerbaijan. As many as 231 persons obtained citizenship of the Republic of Azerbaijan, and citizenship of 10 persons was restored in 2013. The persons who obtained citizenship that are mainly from CIS countries will apply to relevant state bodies to get identity cards from February 1. The new citizens of Azerbaijan are mainly foreign students and workers. Those who wish to obtain citizenship of the Republic of Azerbaijan must apply to the President of Azerbaijan by filling an application. Other documents to be attached include a biography, four photos (3x4cm), reference from the place of residence about family, receipt for paid state duty, reference from the Ministry of Education about Azerbaijan Republic's official language skills, a copy of the permission card for permanent residence in the territory of Azerbaijan Republic, notarized copy of the document certifying the identity, document certifying existence of legal source of income (one of the following documents: reference from workplace, reference on getting pension, grant or social assistance, reference from tax collecting body on income of physical persons, reference on receipt of alimony, inheritance certificate, etc., based petition of state body inviting him/her to Azerbaijan Republic (highly qualified specialists in the fields of science, technology, culture or sport stipulated in 1st item of the fourth paragraph of 14th Article of Azerbaijani Republic Law "on citizenship of the Republic of Azerbaijan").

Expanding international cooperation

Azerbaijan also expands international cooperation in the field of migration. Azerbaijan and the European Union established a framework for future cooperation in the field of migration and mobility in December 2013. Mobility partnership with Azerbaijan defines a number of policy objectives and a number of areas in which further dialogue and cooperation between the EU and Azerbaijan will continue to ensure that the movement of people will be as effective as possible. Measures will be taken in order to expand opportunities of Azerbaijan for legal labour migration management, including provision of asylum and refugee protection, prevention and fight against illegal migration, smuggling of migrants and human trafficking, etc. Azerbaijan and the EU started negotiations on mobility partnership in February 2012.

II.1.2 Projection of Employment for Bangladeshis in Azerbaijan for the Next Five and Ten Years

The future evolution of labour migration in Azerbaijan is difficult to forecast, but it will probably be shaped by a series of conflicting and complementary forces. Demographic trends point to increases in the size of the labour force for the next decade or so. Strong economic growth is likely to continue in the future, and with it the demand for labour could continue to increase. But questions abound as to the ability of Azerbaijan's educational system to provide job opportunities for all. At the same time, at least in the next three to five years, the oil revenue-induced construction

spree, together with high and increasing wages compared to neighbouring countries, is likely to attract more workers. Thus it would not be surprising if the picture of the past few years were to continue to apply in the future, with gross emigration flows moving in parallel with increasing immigration.

The preceding analysis has shown that migration in Azerbaijan is influenced by rapidly-changing economic circumstances, which make it particularly difficult to predict future developments of Bangladeshi migrants to Azerbaijan. Mixed results are obtained from the migration trends conducted by various international organizations periodically in the country. It is clear from the results of these studies that the number of people wanting to leave Azerbaijan is falling year on year. It is also evident that the number of labour migrants is also increasing. It is clear from the data of the State Statistics Committee of the Republic of Azerbaijan that in the last three years migration flows have been positive. It is also evident from the official statistics that on the one hand, the number of the immigrants coming into the country is more than the number of emigrants who leave the country, while on the other hand, the number of foreign labour migrants who arrive in the country with the purpose of being engaged in labour activities is increasing. All of the above confirms that migrants' interest in Azerbaijan has increased, this situation especially appearing in the intensification of migration processes in terms of both qualitative and quantitative indicators.

Under these circumstances, in making projections for employment of Bangladeshi migrants to Azerbaijan in the next five and ten years the following assumptions are made:

- i. GDP in Azerbaijan will grow faster than 2.17 percent in 2012 averaging 9 percent during the first five-year period and 15 percent during the second five-year period in a way to recover earlier growth scenario. Therefore, employment growth rates are likely to average 3 percent in the former and 5 percent in the latter projection period.
- ii. Other things remaining the same, Azerbaijan will continue to encourage Bangladeshi migrants over the next decade.
- iii. Relative share of Bangladeshi migrants in Azerbaijan will gradually increase due to elastic supply of job aspirants in Bangladesh over the next decade.

In making these projections, average number of Bangladeshi migrants to Azerbaijan based on three-year moving averages during the last nine years has been used as the base in 2013. Projections have been made only for those occupations which predominate in the most recent years reflecting current market demand. Considerations have been given to (i) occupations with the most job growth, (ii) fastest growing occupations, and (iii) occupations with the largest projected number of job openings due to growth. Results of the projections are presented in Table-3.

Table-3: Projection of Employment for Bangladeshis in Azerbaijan by Occupation in the Next Five and Ten Years

Occupation	Average*	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Electrician/Electrical Technician	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	5
General Labour	70	74	78	83	88	93	100	108	116	125	135
Welder/Fabricator	6	6	6	7	7	7	8	8	9	9	10
Industrial Workers	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	13	15	16	18
Waiter/Waitress	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Private service	7	7	7	7	7	7	8	9	10	11	12
Total	67	106	110	116	121	127	136	146	158	169	184

Note: * indicates average employment of 3-year moving averages during the last nine years.

Source: Based on BMET data.



Shortages of Labour: In Azerbaijan, largest shortage of labour is seen in the case of general labour followed distantly by industrial workers, private service and welding/fabrication (Table-3).

Markets for Bangladeshi women migrants: As evident from Table-3, in Azerbaijan there is very limited demand for waitress. However, in general, potential market for Bangladeshi women migrant workers in Azerbaijan remains to be explored.

II.2 Iraq

Iraq: Country Summary

Iraq's state-dominated economy grew by over 9 percent in 2011 and over 10 percent in 2012, propelled by high oil prices and the recovery of the oil industry, which provides more than 90 percent of government revenue. In Iraq, oil extraction is the most important sector of the economy and accounts for 55 percent of GDP. With its economic growth highly volatile, Iraq's ongoing economic reconstruction, though facilitated by the oil sector and foreign economic aid, has been fragile. Iraq is exceptionally rich in oil, but its economy suffers from severe structural weaknesses: (i) The non-oil sector represents only 46 percent of the economy. (ii) The economy is dominated by the public sector. Government and state-owned enterprises (SOEs) employ approximately half of the labour force. (iii) Unemployment is high, and poverty remains pervasive. Unemployment is officially estimated at 11 percent in 2011, although actual levels, particularly among the youth, are likely to be considerably higher. Demographic pressure is strong, with 41 percent of the population under 15 years. The labour force lacks basic skills due to years of war and sanctions, and massive emigration since 2003. Poverty is widespread, affecting 22.9 percent of the population. (iv) The business environment is very weak.

The government has been plagued by political infighting with increasing sectarian undertones. Nevertheless, macroeconomic developments have been broadly positive: Economic growth has accelerated from 5.9 percent in 2010 to over 8.4 percent in 2012. Over the medium term, Iraq's macroeconomic outlook will continue to be driven by developments in the oil sector. Overall, growth will remain above 8 percent over the medium term. Risks to the macroeconomic outlook of Iraq remain high. They include (i) inadequate policy implementation; (ii) a deteriorating political and security situation; (iii) a larger-than-projected decline in global oil prices; and (iv) delays in developing Iraq's oil fields and oil export capacity.

Iraq's labour market is fragile and its unemployment and underemployment have damaging impact on its economic stability. Unemployment in Iraq is 18 percent, and a further 10 percent of the labour force are part-time workers wanting to work more hours. Overall, therefore, 28 percent of the labour force remains underutilised. Iraq's unemployment rate has changed little since 2004. Unemployment is concentrated and rising among young males aged 15-29 years, while decreasing among older workers. Between 2006 and 2008, there has been an increase in the labour force participation of those aged 45 to 64 years. This reduces job opportunities for the approximately 450,000 new entrants into the labour market yearly, the majority of whom are young men. Part-time workers currently make up nearly a third (29%) of the labour force. Most are working in Iraq's private sector, where jobs tend to be informal, insecure and low wage compared to public sector jobs. Only 17 percent of women participate in the labour force. Of these, 23 percent are unemployed. Public sector employment has risen in the last five years. Numbers of public employees and employees in SOEs have almost doubled since 2005, and now account for 43 percent of all employed, while full time private employment has fallen from 25 percent in 2003 to 17 percent in 2008. Iraq's public sector has been dominant over the private sector because of three primary factors: (i) state subsidies and salaries, (ii) lack of economic diversification and an unfavourable investment climate, and (iii) investors' concern about Iraq's stability being a major factor inhibiting investment in job creating industries.

By and large, Iraq's private and public sectors are ill equipped to provide jobs for the 450,000 new entrants yearly into the labour force. The public sector overwhelms the private sector and can no longer expand while the private sector has seen insufficient investment and opportunities



for expansion. Iraq's budget structure and financial laws limit possibilities for job creation. In addition, Iraq's growing jobless population is a socioeconomic challenge for a country in transition. This unemployed pool of young men and women is critical to Iraq's future socioeconomic health.

Employment elasticity in Iraq shows no clear trend. However, unemployment rate in Iraq decreased to 16 percent in 2012 from 23 percent in 2011. From 2003 until 2012, Iraq unemployment rate averaged 20 percent reaching an all time high of 28 percent in December 2003 and a record low of 15 percent in December 2010. EPR remains constant at a low of 20 which indicate limited and stagnant employment opportunities in Iraq.

The Iraqi government is aiming to rejuvenate the Iraqi economy by providing clear and outlined procedures for the employment of expatriate workers in the country. This is shown through the implementation of laws such as the Iraqi Investment Law No. 13 of 2006. However, it is clear that a lot of work is yet to be done as the current volatile economic and political situation does not allow there to be a stable grounds for the importation of foreign workers.

Given that the data on the Iraqi economy is scant projection of employment in Iraq for the next five and ten years is probably anybody's guess. GDP in Iraq is likely to average 10 percent during the next five-year period and 12 percent during the next second five-year period. Therefore, employment growth rates are likely to average 3.3 percent in the former and 4 percent in the latter projection period.

In Iraq, shortage of labour predominates in the case of industrial workers, skilled workers/mechanics, cleaners, general labour and masons. Shortage in other occupations is mostly for skilled workers in different sectors. In Iraq there is high demand for women cleaners while limited demand for domestic workers and waitresses.



Iraq's state-dominated economy grew by over 9 percent in 2011 and over 10 percent in 2012, propelled by high oil prices and the recovery of the oil industry, which provides more than 90 percent of government revenue. Oil exports rose to 2.6 million barrels per day – a 30-year high. Inadequate infrastructure, weak property rights, bureaucratic sloth, and widespread corruption continue to impede development. In the absence of a well-functioning labour market, informal labour activity persists. The state uses oil revenues to subsidize basic services such as water and housing, and total subsidies for oil, natural gas, and electricity equal nearly 20 percent of GDP (Index of Economic Freedom, 2014).

The GDP in Iraq expanded 10.2 percent in 2012 from the previous year. From 1991 until 2012, Iraq GDP annual growth rate averaged 8.2 percent reaching an all time high of 54.2 percent in December of 2004 and a record low of -56.4 percent in December 1991. In Iraq, oil extraction is the most important sector of the economy and accounts for 55 percent of GDP. The services sector constitutes 33 percent of the output. Within services the largest segments are: community, social and personal services (13% of GDP); finance, insurance and real estate services (9%) and wholesale and retail trade and restaurants and hotels (7%). Manufacturing, construction and water and electricity production and distribution account for 8 percent of the wealth and agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing for the remaining 4 percent (Trading Economics, 2014).

With its economic growth highly volatile, Iraq's ongoing economic reconstruction, though facilitated by the oil sector and foreign economic aid, has been fragile. Political instability and corruption continue to undermine the limited progress made in the past years. Operating well below potential, the Iraqi economy is burdened by systemic problems. A lack of transparency exacerbates the negative impact on entrepreneurial activity of inefficient business regulations, forestalling the emergence of a dynamic private sector. The economy lacks effective monetary and fiscal policies. The weak state of the financial system, coupled with its limited role within the economy, hampers investment and the everyday operation of businesses.

According to IMF (2013), Iraq is exceptionally rich in oil, but its economy suffers from severe structural weaknesses. Iraq's proven reserves, at approximately 143 billion barrels of oil, are among the highest in the world, with extremely low oil extraction costs. The increase in production since



2003 has contributed to a rise in GDP per capita from \$1,300 in 2004 to \$6,300 in 2012. There are still many weaknesses: (i) The non-oil sector represents only 46 percent of the economy. Non-oil activity (services, construction, transport, and a small agricultural sector) is highly dependent on government spending, given the limited direct spillovers from the oil sector, which is operated mostly by international oil companies. (ii) The economy is dominated by the public sector. Government and state-owned enterprises (SOEs) employ approximately half of the labour force. Most of the population depends on government employment or transfers for its income. Moreover, the population sees the public sector as the main vehicle to distribute oil wealth. Rising government employment and high wages contribute to social stability, but improvements in public service delivery have been scarce. (iii) Unemployment is high, and poverty remains pervasive. Unemployment is officially estimated at 11 percent in 2011, although actual levels, particularly among the youth, are likely to be considerably higher. Demographic pressure is strong, with 41 percent of the population under 15 years. The labour force lacks basic skills due to years of war and sanctions, and massive emigration since 2003. Administrative capacity is weak at all levels of government. Poverty is widespread, affecting 22.9 percent of the population according to 2008 data, with 40 percent of poverty in rural areas. Because of low access to services, housing, and education, Iraq occupies the 131st place in the UNDP's Human Development Index. (iv) The business environment is very weak. Poor governance, an inefficient judiciary system, inconsistent regulations, and insufficient security keep Iraq at the bottom of global rankings for doing business. FDI, particularly in the non-oil sector, is lower than in other oil-exporters in the region.

Recent Developments

The political situation deteriorated steadily since the withdrawal of U.S. troops in December 2011. The government has been plagued by political infighting with increasing sectarian undertones, exacerbated by instability in Syria². Ministers from various parties have been intermittently boycotting the cabinet since early 2012, and parliament has been able to meet only a few times in the course of 2013. Tensions between the semi-autonomous Kurdistan Regional Government and the central government remain high due to disagreements about sharing of oil export revenues and territorial disputes. The security situation remained critical in 2013 in parallel to the political crisis, with March recording the highest number of casualties of the past three years. Nevertheless, macroeconomic developments have been broadly positive: Economic growth has accelerated from 5.9 percent in 2010 to over 8.4 percent in 2012, when oil production averaged 3 million barrels per day (mbpd), the highest level reached in the last 30 years. In 2013, IMF staff expected growth to rise to 9 percent as oil production increased to about 3.3 mbpd and activity in non-oil sectors (government services, trade, real estate, construction, and transportation) picked up (IMF, *ibid*).

Medium-Term Outlook

Over the medium term, Iraq's macroeconomic outlook will continue to be driven by developments in the oil sector. IMF staff projections assume the implementation of sound macroeconomic policies and gradual progress on structural reform. The authorities broadly agreed with the baseline scenario, but noted that policy implementation will be challenging because of the complex political environment, large spending pressures, and security issues. IMF staff projects that: (a) Oil production will rise gradually by about 400–500 thousand barrels per day (tbpd) per year, reaching 5.7 mbpd by 2018. The non-oil sector will grow by about 56 percent and reach 51 percent of GDP in 2018. Overall, growth will remain above 8 percent over the medium term. (b) Strong oil export revenues will lead to higher non-tradable prices and cause an appreciation of the real exchange rate. Domestic inflation at 5–6 percent will be higher than inflation in trading partners. (c) Containment of current spending growth will allow a ramp-up in investment spending and the build-up of fiscal buffers. Fiscal reserves are targeted to double from about six months of salaries and pensions at end-2012 to 12 months by end-2018 (*ibid*).

2. Please note that the recent emergency situation in Iraq where insurgents belonging to the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL) terrorist group seized control of large swathes of land, only occurred after the finalization in this report. Given the severity of these events, a further deterioration of the security situation in the country can be expected and foreign employment in Iraq will pose a very high risk until the end of the conflict.

Risks to the macroeconomic outlook of Iraq remain high. They include (i) inadequate policy implementation; (ii) a deteriorating political and security situation; (iii) a larger-than-projected decline in global oil prices; and (iv) delays in developing Iraq's oil fields and oil export capacity. These risks can translate into lower oil revenues, deterioration in the fiscal position, pressures to use CBI reserves for fiscal purposes leading to depreciation pressures, and higher inflation. Policies to mitigate their impact include strengthening fiscal institutions and oil revenue management, improving monetary policy transmission, and reducing the economy's dependence on the oil sector. At present, the authorities depend solely on fiscal policy to address these vulnerabilities, underscoring the need for the authorities to urgently build up sufficient fiscal buffers, since Iraq's fiscal and external performance is very sensitive to fluctuations in oil prices. The authorities agreed that building sufficient buffers is essential, but highlighted that containing current spending to achieve this objective will be difficult in the current fragile social context without broad political consensus. Outward spillovers are mostly related to the impact of the oil sector on global markets (ibid).


A low-case scenario modelling a temporary decline in oil prices stemming from a deeper-than-expected slowdown in emerging markets illustrates the economy's dependency on oil. IMF staff estimated the impact of the downside emerging markets Global Risk Assessment Matrix (G-RAM) scenario, envisaging a fall in oil prices 15 percent below the World Economic Outlook baseline in 2013. Given the lack of other policy instruments, the authorities would respond to the oil price shock in part through the worsening of the fiscal balance (which would require using up fiscal buffers) and in part by tightening spending (mainly investment expenditure, as they did in response to the decline in oil prices in late 2008). Both CBI (Central Bank of Iraq) and DFI (Development Fund for Iraq) reserves would be lower throughout the medium term. Iraq is even more vulnerable to the tail risk of a much larger fall in oil prices – of the magnitude of the 40 percent oil price shock of 2008-09 – which would lead to the complete depletion of the fiscal buffers held at the DFI in less than one year, additional tightening (including on current spending), and depreciation pressures following the sudden drop in oil revenues.

II.2.1 Labour Market Developments and Employment Opportunities in Iraq

IAU (2009) in its “Analysis: Iraq's Labour Market 2008” maintains that Iraq's labour market is fragile and its unemployment and underemployment have damaging impact on its economic stability. Key conclusions of IAU analysis of Iraqi labour market are as follows:

1. **Unemployment and part-time workers:** Unemployment in Iraq is 18 percent, and a further 10 percent of the labour force are part-time workers wanting to work more hours. Overall, therefore, 28 percent of the labour force remains underutilised. Iraq's unemployment rate has changed little since 2004. However, a closer inspection reveals a more complex situation. Unemployment is concentrated and rising among young males aged between 15 and 29 years (men in this age bracket make up 57% of all unemployed), while decreasing among older workers. The government primarily employs older workers, leading to the drop in unemployment among older age groups. Between 2006 and 2008, there has been an increase in the labour force participation of those aged 45 to 64 years. This reduces job opportunities for the approximately 450,000 new entrants into the labour market yearly, the majority of whom are young men. Part-time workers currently make up nearly a third (29%) of the labour force. Most are working in Iraq's private sector, where jobs tend to be informal, insecure and low wage compared to public sector jobs. A third of these part-time workers (10% of the labour force) would like to work more hours.
2. **Women out of the labour force:** Only 17 percent of women participate in the labour force – a low proportion compared to most of Iraq's neighbours. Of these, 23 percent are unemployed. COSIT data (2008) shows that women without a university education are more likely to be unemployed or not seeking a job. Only 30 percent of working age women with a secondary education participate in the labour force, and this figure drops to 10 percent for those with just a primary education. By contrast, around 80 percent of university educated women are seeking a job or employed, and of these most are employed.



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3. **Public sector dominance over private sector growth:** Public sector employment has risen in the last five years. Numbers of public employees and employees in SOEs have almost doubled since 2005, and now account for 43 percent of all employed, while full time private employment has fallen from 25 percent in 2003 to 17 percent in 2008. The increase in full time private sector work since 2007 is largely due to government outsourcing to the private sector. Iraq's public sector has been dominant over the private sector because of three primary factors:
- i. **State subsidies and salaries:** The secure, relatively highly paid jobs in the public sector compare favourably against the more insecure, lower paid jobs in the private sector. This means that the public sector attracts skilled and educated workers while micro and small businesses experience problems in recruiting qualified workers. Potential entrepreneurs are restricted by the presence of subsidised SOEs. In addition, high public sector salaries and income from oil exports have driven inflation higher, indirectly leading to problems for potential investors: high inflation has meant interest rates being maintained at similarly high levels, making borrowing for investment more expensive.
 - ii. **Lack of economic diversification and an unfavourable investment climate:** The lack of diversification away from the low labour oil industry into more labour intensive industries has limited the ability of the public and private sectors to create jobs. Iraq's legal structures also provide a poor climate for competition. Businessmen lack knowledge about, and have limited access to, formal financing. In addition, few businesses have taken on new employees in 2007 underlining the private sector's limited ability to generate enough work for current employees and job seekers.
 - iii. **Security:** Investors' concern about Iraq's stability has been a major factor inhibiting investment in job creating industries. Though the security outlook remains uncertain, trends of the past year suggest some improvement.
4. **Impact of a drop in oil prices:** The fall in oil prices combined with the absence of other budget sources have dramatically affected Iraq's revenues. In a climate of financial constraint caused by the drop in oil prices, public sector salaries and pensions will strain the government budget. If the oil price drops below US\$52 per barrel, spending will have to be diverted from investment to financing public salaries. In the long run, however, reduced spending on investments means fewer new jobs.
5. **Impact at the household level:** These labour market trends affect the ability of Iraqi households to cope. The Food Security and Vulnerability Survey 2007 data shows that 6 percent of households do not have any income from work. In addition, if a household does not contain a civil servant, it is more likely to be vulnerable to poverty. The average per capita income for a household with one civil servant (and no other workers) is 14 percent greater than that of a household with just one non-civil servant. However, the gap is wider in rural areas (22%) than in urban areas (7%), suggesting that well-paid work opportunities for those who are not civil servants are fewer in rural areas. Furthermore, the average per capita income of a household with one civil servant is 25 percent greater than that of a household with no civil servants. No matter how many workers there are in a household, a household without a civil servant is likely to be worse off and 55 percent of households do not contain a civil servant. It is likely that men aged 15 to 29 years will suffer the most from any increase in unemployment, should current trends continue.

By and large, Iraq's private and public sectors are ill equipped to provide jobs for the 450,000 new entrants yearly into the labour force. The public sector overwhelms the private sector and can no longer expand while the private sector has seen insufficient investment and opportunities for expansion. Iraq's budget structure and financial laws limit possibilities for job creation. In addition, Iraq's growing jobless population is a socioeconomic challenge for a country in transition. This unemployed pool of young men and women is critical to Iraq's future socioeconomic health. More immediately, it is a key factor in consolidating Iraq's political and security gains into a fuller recovery. However, amongst other initiatives, a Private Sector Development programme has been launched through a partnership between the Government of Iraq, the UN and the World Bank.

Employment opportunities in Iraq

No updated information on employment in Iraq is available. The number of employed persons in Iraq increased to 924397 in 2001 from 880756 in 2000. Employed persons in Iraq averaged 870725 from 1994 until 2001, reaching an all time high of 924397 in 2001 and a record low of 831523 in 1994. Some estimates, however, have been made to figure out employment for the recent years. Employment elasticity so estimated shows no clear trend. However, unemployment rate in Iraq decreased to 16 percent in 2012 from 23 percent in 2011 (Table-4). From 2003 until 2012, Iraq unemployment rate averaged 20 percent reaching an all time high of 28 percent in December 2003 and a record low of 15 percent in December 2010. EPR remains constant at a low of 20 which indicate limited and stagnant employment opportunities in Iraq.

Table-4: Employment opportunities in Iraq

Indicators of employment opportunities	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
GDP growth rate	1.38	6.61	5.81	5.86	8.58	8.43
Employment growth rate	8.53	6.88	-5.35	5.08	2.92	
Employment elasticity	6.18	1.04	-0.92	0.87	0.34	
Employment-to-population ratio – Total			36	36	36	36
Employment-to-population ratio – Men			n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Employment-to-population ratio – Women			n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Unemployment rate – Total		15.34	15.3	15.0	23.0	16.0
Unemployment rate – Men		14.35				
Unemployment rate – Women		19.64				
Youth not in education and not in employment & training (NEET)% (15-24)			n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Informal employment rate 32.2 (2006)	66.9*					
Labour force participation rate – Total			42	42	42	42
Labour force participation rate – Men			69	70	70	70
Labour force participation rate – Women			14	15	15	15
Youth unemployment rate – Total			-	-	-	-
Youth unemployment rate – Men			-	-	-	-
Youth unemployment rate – Women			-	-	-	-

Sources: (1) ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM), 2013, www.ilo.org/kilm (2) The World Bank, World Development Indicators, 2012.

* Iraq Household Socioeconomic Survey (IHSES), 2006-07.

Employment: Despite the large size of the public sector, unemployment remains high. The oil sector employs only an estimated 80,000 workers out of a total of about 8 million in the labour force. The government absorbs most entrants to the labour market, with about 40 percent of the workforce in the public sector, up from 31 percent in 2007. Job security and a generous pay structure in the public sector set a high reservation wage and crowd out private employment. As a result, total job creation has been weak, averaging around 1 percent a year. Female participation in the labour force, at only 13 percent, is particularly low compared to international and regional standards. Aggregate labour market indicators also mask large geographical disparity, with official unemployment in some provinces at 20 percent (IAU, 2009).

Over the medium term, demographic trends will put pressure on the labour market. The IMF's labour template, based on conservative assumptions (whole-economy growth projections and





average growth-employment elasticity estimates of MENA oil producers), suggests that employment creation in 2013–18 will likely not be strong enough to absorb the 2.1 million total new entrants in the labour force estimated by the International Labour Organization (ILO), leading to a rise in the unemployment rate. These results should be interpreted cautiously given significant data quality issues, but they do underline the need for higher growth or better job-creation strategies to help generate adequate employment.

The IMF (2013) medium-term projections stress that the current employment model hinging on public-sector employment may soon reach its limits. So far, like other oil-exporting economies in the region, Iraq has relied on the public sector to employ almost half of the labour force, and government hiring has increased at a fast pace (the government hired about 120,000 workers in 2012 alone). Public salaries are in many cases effectively transfers as many employees do not actually work. Moreover, the need to control violence is reflected in the large size of the security forces. The authorities pointed out that the public sector is reaching the limits of absorptive capacity to employ new workers, and that a new model for employment growth is needed. For example, in 2013, the ILO projects about 300,000 new entrants in the labour force, while the authorities expect the public sector to hire about 150,000 new employees, and only 130,000 are projected to be taken in by the private sector.

Private-sector employment creation is hindered by a very weak business environment. Since 2003, the authorities have not undertaken any major reform to create an enabling environment for the private sector. Apart from security problems, red tape is pervasive and governance is poor. The country ranks 165 out of 183 in the World Bank's 2012 Doing Business rankings. Iraq fares particularly badly in starting a business, access to credit, trading across borders, enforcement of contracts, and resolving insolvency. The poor state of infrastructure – particularly the provision of electricity – constitutes a major hurdle for the private sector. Moreover, private companies face competition from the large number of SOEs – operating in agriculture, manufacturing, and trade – that are generously subsidized and staffed, and enjoy favourable treatment in government contracts and access to public bank financing (IMF, 2013).

The findings of a study (IAU/OCHA, 2009) underline the fragility of Iraq's labour market and the damaging impact of unemployment and underemployment on its economic stability. The depletion of the 2009 fiscal budget due to the recent drop in oil prices will also impact negatively on the Iraqi labour market. These findings suggest that civil service reform, private sector development and job creation in Iraq should be key foci of development planning. The Iraqi government has already launched several programmes tackling these issues in partnership with the United Nations and the World Bank.

Key conclusions of this study are that: (i) The economy is unable to provide enough work for 28 percent of the labour force. Unemployment in Iraq is 18 percent. A further 10 percent of the labour force is part-time workers wanting to work more hours. (ii) Unemployment is concentrated and rising among younger men. 28 percent of the male labour force aged 15–29 years is unemployed compared to the national average of 18 percent. (iii) Only 17 percent of Iraqi women participate in the labour force. Women without a university education make up the vast majority of non-participants. (iv) Opportunities for private sector job creation have been limited by a dominant public sector, the absence of a conducive regulatory environment, high dependence on oil revenues and security issues. (v) The number of Iraqis employed in the public sector has doubled since 2005, with the public sector currently providing 43 percent of all jobs in Iraq and almost 60 percent of all full-time employment.

The recent sharp drop in oil prices and absence of other budget sources will make it harder for the government to continue to grow its civil service as a strategy for job creation. High public sector salaries are straining the public budget, consuming over a third of planned government expenditure in 2009. Households without a civil servant wage earner are now more vulnerable to poverty. However, Iraq cannot afford to expand its public sector any further. Without a concerted effort to boost the private sector, most of the 450,000 new entrants into Iraq's labour force in 2009 did not find secure jobs. This challenges socio-economic recovery and stability in many of Iraq's governorates. In view of this, Iraq's government is already seeking options for civil service reform and private sector development.

Rules and Regulations for Migrant Workers in Iraq

According to Jawad (2014), in spite of the hazardous and unusual situation in Iraq, there is a lot of interest from expatriate workers wanting to move to Iraq for work. This is evident by the millions of dollars invested in construction and reconstruction projects, as well as the increasing number of foreign businesses setting up in Iraq. In order to facilitate the increasing number of expatriate workers in Iraq, the government has recently implemented a number of laws and regulations. Article 12 of the Iraqi Investment Law (the "Law") No. 13 of 2006 gives the investors the right to employ expatriate workers and insures to the said workers' right to reside in Iraq. In addition, it gives the workers the right to transfer their wages and salaries abroad and outlines the process of entering and exiting the country.

Owing to the laws and regulations that regulate the process of employment of the workers in Iraq, Chapter I (Employment) of Part II (Employment and Vocational Training) of the Iraqi Labour Code No. 71 of 1987 (the "Labour Code") states that the 'Department of Labour and Social Security in the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs shall be responsible for organising the process of employing the workers'. This Law distinguishes between the Iraqi workers, expatriate workers with Arabic nationalities and the non-Arab expatriate workers. According to the Law, an employer is obliged to inform the labour office of the employment of Iraqi workers within a period not exceeding 10 days from the date of employment. The Law provides that in the case where the employer is employing expatriate workers with Arabic nationalities, he shall inform the labour office of that employment within a period not exceeding 30 days from the date of employment. However, in the case of non-Arab expatriate workers; the employer can employ the workers after obtaining a work permit in accordance with the conditions and the procedures determined by the instructions of the Minister of Labour and Social Affairs, stated herein (ibid).

Article 6 of Instructions No. 18 of 1987 states that:

First – Foreigner individuals, who are outside Iraq, and are interested in working in Iraq, should follow the following procedures in order to obtain a work permit:

Submit a written request to the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs through the representatives of the Republic of Iraq abroad, or their attorney in Iraq, or the employer who wants to recruit them in Iraq. The request should include all the required information and supporting documents, and should clearly indicate their name, nationality, type of work, duration of the work, and the employer's name as well as the employer's full address. The Department of Labour and Vocational Training, or its divisions in the other provinces, will check all the legal conditions and the obtainment of the work permit in Iraq then will approach the competent authorities and issue an entry visa to this foreigner individual. When the workers enter Iraq, they are required to go to the Department of Labour and Vocational Training within 7 days from the date of their entry in order to finalize the procedures for obtaining the work permit.

Second – When it comes to foreign individuals already in Iraq wishing to obtain an Iraqi employment visa should follow the following steps:

Submit all the legal papers and documents that prove the legitimacy of their entry and residency in Iraq. Submit a written request to the Department of Labour and Vocational Training in Baghdad, or its divisions in the other provinces, or the employer who wants to recruit them in Iraq. The request should include all the information related to their qualifications supported by the available certificates and documents, and should clearly indicate their name, nationality, type of work, duration of the work, and the employer's name as well as the employer's full address. Furthermore, Chapter I of Part II of the Labour Code outlines the imposed penalties applicable to the breach of this law. All employment contracts for expats are deemed to be for a definite term. If the employment contract does not specify a definite term such term will be assumed to be the validity duration of that foreign employee's work visa (Restrepo, 2012). The regulatory framework concerning employment of foreigners in Iraq, however, looks favourable. Instructions No. 4 of 1989 have amended several provisions of Instruction No. 18 of 1987 and provides that the technical foreign workers must present a written promise to train one or more Iraqi workers working in the same job.





Finally, it is worth mentioning that, and because of the current circumstances in Iraq, this matter faced two important incidents in the past two years. On February 9th, 2010, the Consulate Department of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued an official letter No. 65046 which provided, in accordance with the approval of the National Security Council and the General Commander of the Armed Forces, that no work visas are to be issued to expatriate workers of both Arab or non-Arab nationalities until further notice. Additionally, on February 8th, 2011, the Prime Minister's Office issued an official letter numbered MRND/2/27/209 which included directions from the Prime Minister informing all the concerned parties in the state that they should refrain from granting any work permits to non-Arab expatriate workers unless they obtain an official consent from the Council of Ministers or National Security Council. This letter, however, did not address the employment of workers with Arab nationalities (Restrepo, *ibid*).

In light of the above, it is clear that the Iraqi government is aiming to rejuvenate the Iraqi economy by providing clear and outlined procedures for the employment of expatriate workers in the country. This is shown through the implementation of laws such as the Iraqi Investment Law No. 13 of 2006. However, it is clear that a lot of work is yet to be done as the current volatile economic and political situation does not allow there to be a stable grounds for the importation of foreign workers. This is why until the Ministry of Foreign Affairs allows the recommencing of issuing work permits to Arab and non-Arab expatriate workers, investors are not going to be able to bring in foreign workers in the hope of improving the economic situation in Iraq (Jawad, 2014).

II.2.2 Projection of Employment for Bangladeshis in Iraq for the Next Five and Ten Years

Given that the data on the Iraqi economy is scant projection of employment in Iraq for the next five and ten years is probably anybody's guess. However, in making employment projections the following assumptions are made:

- i. GDP in Iraq will grow faster than 8.43 percent in 2012 averaging 10 percent during the first five-year period and 12 percent during the second five-year period. Therefore, employment growth rates are likely to average 3.3 percent in the former and 4 percent in the latter projection period.
- ii. Other things remaining the same, Iraq will continue to encourage Bangladeshi migrants over the next decade.
- iii. Relative share of Bangladeshi migrants in Iraq will gradually increase due to elastic supply of job aspirants in Bangladesh over the next decade.

In making these projections, average number of Bangladeshi migrants to Iraq during the last five years has been used as the base in 2013. Projections have been made only for those occupations which predominate in the most recent years reflecting current market demand. Considerations have been given to (i) occupations with the most job growth, (ii) fastest growing occupations, and (iii) occupations with the largest projected number of job openings due to growth. Results of the projections are presented in Table-5.

Table-5: Projection of Employment for Bangladeshis in Iraq by Occupation in the Next Five and Ten Years

Occupation	Average*	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Cleaning Labour	215	220	225	230	235	241	248	256	263	271	279
Construction Worker	37	38	39	41	42	44	45	47	49	51	53
General Labour	218	225	233	240	248	256	267	277	288	300	312
Accountant/ Manager/Admn.	42	43	44	45	46	48	50	52	54	56	58
Carpenter	108	111	113	116	118	121	124	128	132	136	140
Cleaner	356	370	385	400	416	433	455	478	501	526	553
Driver (including heavy)	62	64	66	68	71	73	76	79	82	85	89
Electrician	47	49	50	52	54	55	57	60	62	65	67
Steel Fixer	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	36	37	39	40
Fitter	38	39	41	42	43	45	46	48	50	52	54
Foreman	72	75	78	81	84	88	92	97	101	106	112
Helper	22	23	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
Industrial Workers	973	1012	1052	1094	1138	1184	1243	1305	1371	1439	1511
Machine/ Escalator Operator	47	49	50	52	54	55	57	59	61	64	66
Mason	174	179	185	192	198	204	211	218	226	234	242
Painter/Plasterer	50	51	52	54	55	56	58	60	63	65	68
Plumber	37	38	39	41	42	44	45	47	49	51	53
Domestic Worker	17	18	18	19	19	20	21	22	22	23	24
Supervisor/Electrical	24	25	26	26	27	28	29	31	32	33	34
Technicians (Electrical & c.)	58	60	62	64	66	68	71	74	77	80	83
Tiles Worker/Fixer	23	24	25	25	26	27	28	29	30	32	33
Welder/Fabricator	9	9	10	10	10	11	11	11	12	12	13
Waiter/Catering Hand	68	70	73	75	77	80	83	87	90	94	97
Engineer	35	36	37	38	38	39	40	41	42	44	45
Skilled Worker/Mechanic	766	797	829	862	896	932	979	1027	1079	1133	1189
Total	2146	3654	3785	3922	4060	4211	4397	4597	4802	5021	5246

Note: * indicates average for the last five years.

Source: Based on BMET data.

Shortages of Labour: In Iraq, shortage of labour predominates in the case of industrial workers, skilled workers/mechanics, cleaners, general labour and masons. Shortage in other occupations is mostly for skilled workers in different sectors (Table-5).

Markets for Bangladeshi women migrants: As evident from Table-5, in Iraq there is high demand for women cleaners while limited demand for domestic workers and waitresses.

II.3 Italy

Italy: Country Summary

Italy has the eighth largest economy in the world and the third largest in the Euro Zone. GDP growth rate in Italy averaged 0.63 percent from 1960 until 2013, reaching an all time high of 6 percent in the first quarter of 1970 and a record low of -3.5 percent in the first quarter of 2009. The country has a diversified industrial base driven in large part by manufacturing of high-quality consumer goods. Italy experienced several decades of growth rates above 4 percent. Yet, after 1992, the expansion rates went below EU average. Since then, the government has been trying to revive the economy by increasing public spending. As a result, the public debt and budget deficit have reached unsustainable levels and the country is facing tough austerity measures and the second recession in four years.

The Italian labour market is still dealing with the consequences of the economic crisis and with the uncertainty around the timing and intensity of a future recovery. In 2011, there were about 23 million employed workers in Italy; the employment rate was about 56 percent, with male workers being at 67.3 percent and female workers at 46.5 percent. The gap between women and men is still substantially larger than the EU average (12 percentage points) but it shows a clear declining trend in the last years. The number of workers looking for a job is just above 2 million people, with an overall unemployment rate of 8.5 percent and a youth unemployment rate of almost 30 percent. For the year 2011, the number of firms planning to hire new workers in the near future is about 22.5 percent. This can be read as a sign of the existence of positive expectations about the recovery among entrepreneurs: that share had fallen from almost 30 percent in 2008 to a level below 20 percent in both 2009 and 2010.

The Italian economy remains stuck in recession and unemployment may rise further. Italy's recession continued throughout 2013 and the Italian economy is expected to renew with a timid growth only in 2014. As a result, the unemployment rate has risen almost steadily over the past two years to reach 12.2 percent in May 2013. The relative performance of the country has worsened. Youth have been hardest hit by the ongoing recession.

The unemployment rate in Italy remained unchanged at 12.5 percent in October 2013 from 12.5 percent in September 2013. From 1983 until 2013, Italy's unemployment rate averaged 9.1 percent reaching an all time high of 12.5 percent in October 2013 and a record low of 5.9 percent in April 2007. Youth unemployment continued to increase and hit its highest level ever. Italy's youth jobless rate rose to 35.3 percent in 2012 from 20.3 percent in 2007 indicating declining job opportunities. This finding is reinforced by the declining tendency of the EPR.

The proportion of those aged 15-24 years not working has increased by 6.1 percentage points in Italy between the last quarter of 2007 and the last quarter of 2012. More worrisome, this trend is essentially accounted for by an increase in the number of NEET. The 2012 labour market reform is likely to raise job creation in stable jobs in the medium run.

In 2011, there were more than 4.5 million documented immigrants in Italy, corresponding to about 7.5 percent of the population. In 2011, there were almost 2.2 million foreign-born workers employed in Italy, which accounts for almost a tenth of the employed workers in the country. Their employment rate was 63 percent while the employment rate of natives was 56 percent. Immigrant workers mainly work in services (59%), followed by manufacture (20%), construction (17%) and agriculture (4%). As for occupations, about 82 percent of foreign-born workers have a low- or medium-skilled job: 59 percent are blue-collar workers or artisans and 23 percent are in low-skilled jobs. The overall figure is in sharp contrast with the corresponding share for the native population which is approximately half (43%). The skill downgrading and segregation of immigrant workers in the lowest ranks of the occupational ladder is a key and worrying feature of the labour market integration of foreign workers in Italy.

In 2011, there were about 300,000 unemployed immigrants in Italy, which implies an unemployment rate of around 12 percent (compared to 8% for native workers). The



participation rate, instead, was higher for immigrants, being 75 percent for EU27 citizens, 69 percent for non-EU27 citizens and 61 percent for Italian citizens in working age. The number of foreign citizens who are owners of firms in Italy reached almost 360,000 in 2011, about 10 percent of the total.

Italy regulates the access to its labour market differently for EU citizens and non-EU citizens. EU citizens enjoy free access to the Italian labour market. Non-EU citizens' access, instead, faces more restrictions and is subject to yearly quotas. Throughout the 1990s, Italy gradually attempted to set up a quota system to manage the legal inflows of migrant workers. Each year the government establishes the number of immigrants that will be allowed to enter the country in the following year for working purposes. Each region is attributed region-specific quotas and special quotas are reserved for specific countries of origin (mainly those who have signed bilateral agreements with Italy). In order to produce the yearly estimates of the number of new foreign workers needed from abroad – by region and by type (seasonal/non-seasonal) – the Italian Government usually collects information from three main sources: (a) the National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT) regarding demographic trends of the Italian population and the decline of the working population; (b) the Union of Chambers of Commerce, which annually provides an estimate of the additional immigrant workforce to be included in the labour market; and (c) different studies on the state of the Italian productive system.

The government is also allowed to set an entry quota equal to zero in any given year, which implies that no “Flows Decree” is produced for that year, or to allow the access only of seasonal workers. This has happened in the past and the current government also decided to allow the entry of only seasonal workers through the “2012 Flows Decree”. This uncertainty about the size of the quotas inevitably affects firms' strategies of foreign recruitment. The incentives to invest in searching and screening workers who reside abroad are likely to be negatively affected by the risk that the employer will then not be able to hire the workers because the quota system prevents from doing so. This is especially the case if the quotas are binding – that is, are set well below labour market needs.

There are three types of potential employers of foreign workers: families, small firms and medium-large firms. The distinction of firms by their size is particularly salient in the Italian context because of its peculiar firm structure: 95 percent of the 4.5 million Italian firms have less than 10 employees and account for almost 50 percent of the employed workers. Second, immigrant workers in Italy are mostly in demand for low-skilled, manual and domestic care occupations. Third, the size of the underground economy – well above the European average – and the widespread recourse to unlawful employment contracts by both entrepreneurs and families, together with a large presence of undocumented immigrants, are crucial and persistent features of the Italian labour market.

For different reasons, none of the potential employers of foreign workers (families, small and medium-large businesses) seems particularly likely to engage in hiring workers from abroad. The last distinctive feature of the Italian context comes into play at this stage: the large presence of undocumented immigrants and the widespread tolerance for irregular employment practices. Indeed, this feature provides a viable alternative to the difficulties and uncertainty implied by hiring workers from abroad through the quota system. One can un-reportedly hire undocumented immigrants to fill the immediate needs of labour demand and then ex-post legalize – through amnesties or the quota system.

In Italy, main sectors for immigrant employment in mid- and low-skilled jobs include: agriculture (4%), manufacturing industries (20.6%), construction (8.3%), private services (67.2% – information technology and business services, cleaning, maintenance, caregiving, hospitality and gastronomy), commerce and transportation. In Italy, low- and semi-skilled immigrants have higher employment rates than the nationals. Fifty-five percent of foreigners with low educational attainment in 2010 were employed compared to 25 per cent of the native population with similar qualifications. On the contrary, the employment rate of the foreign highly skilled was lower than that of the natives (70.5 and 76.8% respectively). In Italy, the unemployment rate is higher



among the low-skilled immigrants and the highly skilled are somewhat less vulnerable to unemployment (10.4%). For citizens of non-European Union countries the requirements to work in Italy are much more complicated. Extensive paperwork filed by both the visitor and the employer is needed, and the government must be satisfied that a foreigner is not displacing the job of an existing Italian worker.

Given the prevailing GDP growth rates in Italy, employment growth rates are likely to average 4 percent in the next five-year period and 5 percent in the second five-year period in keeping with the observed growth rates of Bangladeshi migrants to Italy during the last nine years.

In Italy, shortage of labour figures most prominently in general labour followed in order by waiter/waitress, industrial workers and QA/QC engineers. Shortage in other occupations is for both skilled and un-skilled workers in different sectors. In Italy there is high demand for waitress while limited demand for housekeepers and nurse.

According to National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT) of Italy, GDP growth rate in Italy averaged 0.63 percent from 1960 until 2013, reaching an all time high of 6 percent in the first quarter of 1970 and a record low of -3.5 percent in the first quarter of 2009. Italy has the eighth largest economy in the world and the third largest in the Euro Zone. The country has a diversified industrial base driven in large part by manufacturing of high-quality consumer goods. After joining the European Union in 1952, Italy experienced several decades of growth rates above 4 percent. Yet, after 1992, the expansion rates went below EU average. Since then, the government has been trying to revive the economy by increasing public spending. As a result, the public debt and budget deficit have reached unsustainable levels and the country is facing tough austerity measures and the second recession in four years (Trading Economics, 2013).

II.3.1 Labour Market Developments and Employment Opportunities in Italy

As in most other European countries, the Italian labour market is still dealing with the consequences of the economic crisis and with the uncertainty around the timing and intensity of a future recovery. In 2011, there were about 23 million employed workers in Italy; the employment rate was about 56 percent, with the employment rate of male workers being at 67.3 percent and that of female workers at 46.5 percent. The gap between women and men is still substantially larger than the EU average (which is about 12 percentage points) but it shows a clear declining trend in the last years. The number of workers looking for a job is just above 2 million people, with an overall unemployment rate of 8.5 percent and a youth unemployment rate of almost 30 percent. According to estimates of the Italian Chambers of Commerce for the year 2011, the number of firms planning to hire new workers in the near future is about 22.5 percent. This can be read as a sign of the existence of positive expectations about the recovery among entrepreneurs: that share had fallen from almost 30 percent in 2008 to a level below 20 percent in both 2009 and 2010 (Unioncamere, 2011).

Employment opportunities in Italy

According to OECD Employment Outlook (2013), the Italian economy remains stuck in recession and unemployment may rise further. Italy's recession will continue throughout 2013 and the Italian economy is expected to renew with a timid growth only in 2014. As a result, the unemployment rate has risen almost steadily over the past two years to reach 12.2 percent in May 2013. The relative performance of the country has worsened with respect to other European Union countries: while the Italian unemployment rate was level with the EU average until a year ago, it is now more than 1 percentage point higher. Youth have been hardest hit by the ongoing recession.

Unemployment rate in Italy remained unchanged at 12.5 percent in October 2013 from 12.5 percent in September 2013. From 1983 until 2013, Italy's unemployment rate averaged 9.1 percent reaching an all time high of 12.5 percent in October 2013 and a record low of 5.9 percent in April 2007. Youth unemployment continued to increase and hit its highest level ever. Italy's youth jobless rate rose to 35.3 percent in 2012 from 20.3 percent in 2007 (Table-6) indicating declining job opportunities. This finding is reinforced by the declining tendency of the EPR.



Table-6: Employment opportunities in Italy

Indicators of employment opportunities	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
GDP growth rate	1.7	-1.2	-5.5	1.7	0.5	-2.5
Employment growth rate	1.0	0.8	-1.6	-0.7	0.4	-0.3
Employment elasticity	0.59	-0.67	0.29	-0.41	0.80	0.12
Employment-to-population ratio – Total	59.6	59.7	59.3	58.7	58.7	58.7
Employment-to-population ratio – Men	72.2	71.8	71.2	70.2	70.0	69.2
Employment-to-population ratio – Women	47.1	47.6	47.5	47.2	47.6	48.2
Unemployment rate – Total	6.1	6.7	7.8	8.4	8.4	10.7
Unemployment rate – Men	4.9	5.5	6.8	7.6	7.6	9.9
Unemployment rate – Women	7.9	8.5	9.3	9.7	9.6	11.9
Youth not in education and not in employment & training (NEET)% (15-24)			22.4 (18-24 age)	19.8	18.1	
Informal employment rate						27.0
Labour force participation rate – Total	63.5	64.1	64.3	64.1	64.1	65.7
Labour force participation rate – Men	75.9	76.0	76.3	75.9	75.7	76.7
Labour force participation rate – Women	51.1	52.1	52.3	52.3	52.7	54.7
Youth unemployment rate (15-24) – Total	20.3	21.3	25.4	27.9	29.1	35.3
Youth unemployment rate (15-24) – Men			23.3	26.8	27.0	33.7
Youth unemployment rate (15-24) – Women			28.7	29.4	32.0	37.4

Sources: (1) OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics (database); OECD.StatExtracts. (2) U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, International Labor Comparisons, August 2013. Youth male & female unemployment rates from WDI, 2012. (3) ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM), 2013, www.ilo.org/kilm



The 2013 OECD Employment Outlook shows that the proportion of those aged between 15 and 24 years not working has increased by 4.3 percentage points in the OECD area between the last quarter of 2007 and the last quarter of 2012. But, over the same period, the rise was even faster in Italy (6.1 percentage points). More worrisome, this trend is essentially accounted for by an increase in the number of NEET. The proportion of youth in this category increased by 5.1 percentage points to reach 21.4 percent at the end of 2012. For Italian NEET youth, there is a growing risk of long-term scarring effects – that is of suffering a permanent reduction in their employability and earnings capacity. Moreover, they are likely to fall behind their counterparts in other countries who, by substituting education for labour market experience, are likely to come out of the crisis better equipped to face future technological challenges. A number of factors explain why youth have borne the brunt of the adjustment. First, youth entering the labour market for the first time lack experience and this hampers their likelihood of quickly finding work, particularly when competition for the few available job vacancies is high. Second, the growth in the share of precarious jobs in Italy during the fifteen years preceding the crisis – notably temporary jobs and other atypical contracts – was one of the most rapid among OECD countries. This was partly due to fiscal and regulatory incentives that were introduced in the late 1990s and early 2000s which encouraged a concentration in hiring on these contracts. As the Italian youth are over-represented in these contracts, their jobs were among the first to be destroyed as the economic outlook deteriorated. The 2012 labour market reform is likely to raise job creation in stable jobs in the medium run.

As documented in the OECD Employment Outlook, Italy undertook reforms in the past five years to improve the adaptability and reduce the dualism of its labour market. In contrast with the previous fifteen years, where greater adaptability was obtained mainly by liberalising temporary contracts,

these more recent reforms were concentrated on dismissal regulations, thereby increasing incentives for employers to hire workers on open-ended contracts. Reform activity in this area was particularly intense in Italy with the most restrictive legislations at the onset of the economic crisis. The reform 92/2012 of July 2012, by limiting the unfair dismissal cases in which reinstatement can be ordered by courts and making the dispute-resolution procedures quicker and more predictable, can be expected to improve productivity growth and job creation in the future. Indeed, the evidence summarized in the report suggests that limiting the extent of reinstatement is key to enhance worker flows and productivity growth. Nonetheless, Italy remains one of the OECD countries with the strictest legislation on dismissal, in particular as regards monetary compensation in the case of unfair dismissal and the restrictive definition of fair dismissal adopted by courts. A careful balance should be found between promoting job creation in the short run and tackling labour market dualism.

The OECD Employment Outlook argues that the 2012 reform rebalanced the incentives to use different types of contracts. In particular, the reform coupled the relaxation of dismissal costs on open-ended contracts with a more neutral fiscal treatment of temporary contracts and measures geared at avoiding misuse of these contracts. It has been argued, however, that these restrictions on atypical contracts may depress hiring in a period of sluggish job creation. In this context, the restrictions on temporary contracts introduced by the reform have been relaxed by a decree ("Pacchetto Lavoro") that was recently approved by the government. While easing hiring regulations on fixed-term contracts as a temporary measure to revive employment growth is welcome given the current economic juncture, care must be taken to preserve the spirit of the reform, which is to tackle abuses in the use of atypical contracts and obtain a more equal fiscal treatment of different typologies of contracts. The decree also includes other measures to promote job creation, especially among youth.

The performance of foreign workers

In 2011, there were more than 4.5 million documented immigrants in Italy, corresponding to about 7.5 percent of the population. More than 50 percent of them are citizens of a European country. The other continents follow with 22 percent arriving from Africa (15% from Northern Africa), 17 percent from Asia and 8 percent from America (95% of which from Latin America). In 2011, there were almost 2.2 million foreign-born workers employed in Italy, which accounts for almost a tenth of the employed workers in the country. Their employment rate was 63 percent – 66 percent for EU27 citizens and 60 percent for non-EU27 citizens – while the employment rate of natives was 56 percent. Immigrant workers mainly work in services (59%), followed by manufacture (20%), construction (17%) and agriculture (4%). With regard to the medium level of qualifications, the distribution of the immigrant population does not differ substantially from that of Italian workers: the share of workers with secondary education is fairly similar in the two groups. Nevertheless, immigrants are more likely to have just primary education (13 versus 6% of natives) and less likely to have college education (8 versus 16% of natives). As far as occupations are concerned, about 82 percent of foreign-born workers have a low- or medium-skilled job: 59 percent are blue-collar workers or artisans and 23 percent are in low-skilled jobs. The overall figure is in sharp contrast with the corresponding share for the native population which is approximately half (43%). The skill downgrading and segregation of immigrant workers in the lowest ranks of the occupational ladder is a key – and worrying – feature of the labour market integration of foreign workers in Italy (Fullin and Reyneri, 2011; Dell’Aringa and Pagani, 2011).

In 2011, there were about 300,000 unemployed immigrants in Italy, which implies an unemployment rate of around 12 percent (compared to 8% for native workers). The participation rate, instead, was higher for immigrants, being 75 percent for EU27 citizens, 69 percent for non-EU27 citizens and 61 percent for Italian citizens in working age. The number of foreign citizens who are owners of firms in Italy reached almost 360,000 in 2011, about 10 percent of the total. Of this 10 percent, about 2 percent are EU27 citizens and the remaining 8 percent are non-EU27 citizens (IOM, 2013b).



Labour migration policy

Legislative framework

Similar to all other EU Member States, Italy regulates the access to its labour market differently for EU citizens and non-EU citizens. EU citizens enjoy free access to the Italian labour market. Non-EU citizens' access, instead, faces more restrictions and is subject to yearly quotas. Throughout the 1990s, Italy gradually attempted to set up a quota system to manage the legal inflows of migrant workers. According to the design of the system, each year the government establishes – through the so-called “Flows Decree” (in Italian: “Decreto Flussi”) – the number of immigrants that will be allowed to enter the country in the following year for working purposes (both seasonal and non-seasonal workers). Each region is attributed region-specific quotas and special quotas are reserved for specific countries of origin (mainly those who have signed bilateral agreements with Italy). In order to produce the yearly estimates of the number of new foreign workers needed from abroad – by region and by type (seasonal/non-seasonal) – the Italian Government usually collects information from three main sources: (a) the National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT) regarding demographic trends of the Italian population and the decline of the working population; (b) the Union of Chambers of Commerce, which annually provides an estimate of the additional immigrant workforce to be included in the labour market; (c) different studies on the state of the Italian productive system (Einaudi, 2010).

The government is also allowed to set an entry quota equal to zero in any given year, which implies that no “Flows Decree” is produced for that year, or to allow the access only of seasonal workers. This has happened in the past and the current government also decided to allow the entry of only seasonal workers through the “2012 Flows Decree” (Ambrosini, 2012). This uncertainty about the size of the quotas inevitably affects firms' strategies of foreign recruitment. The incentives to invest in searching and screening workers who reside abroad are likely to be negatively affected by the risk that the employer will then not be able to hire the workers (or will have to wait for one or more years) because the quota system prevents from doing so. This is especially the case if the quotas are binding – that is, are set well below labour market needs – as seems to have often occurred in the Italian context (Fasani, 2008).³ Moreover, according to the law, the annual “Flows Decree” should be produced within a framework of medium-term planning which should be specified every three years by the Government with the so-called “Three-year Planning Document”. Other than defining the Government's plan of action regarding immigration in the next three years, the document also establishes the general criteria for entry flows which should constitute the basis for defining the annual “Flows Decrees”. It is worth noting that the last “Three-year Planning Document” approved concerned the period 2004–2006. These delays clearly create additional uncertainty for the employers, who are unable to predict the willingness of the government to allow new entries of foreign workers in the next few years and who cannot, as a consequence, make any medium-term recruitment plans.

When the “Flows Decree” is approved and becomes effective, potential employers can start applying to hire immigrant workers until the number established by the quota is reached. According to the law, these immigrant workers should be recruited from abroad and should not be already residing in the country. When applying for an immigrant employee within the quota system, the employer can either request a specific individual or hire the first person in the lists of job-seekers that are compiled by Italian embassies and consulates in origin countries. While the quota system is meant to regulate new entries of foreign workers in the Italian labour market. However, as will be

3. In 2006, for instance, the initial decree provided for 170,000 new immigrant workers, but after receiving more than 500,000 applications, the government decided to expand the quota to 550,000 workers: the new quota basically created enough space to potentially accept all the applications and it was substantially equivalent to an amnesty (Codini, 2007). This has been the only case where the quota has been raised after observing a much larger number of applications than the original quota. Nevertheless, having substantially more applications than the legal threshold set by the annual “Flows Decree” seems to be the norm. Since 2007, employers and immigrants can apply through the Internet: this permits easily measuring the gap between the quota and the actual demand. In 2011, for instance, the quota was set at 98,000 workers, but, within 4 hours from the opening of the process, more than 300,000 applications had been sent (Polchi, 2011). This introduces a degree of randomness in the selection of workers – which ends up depending on the speed in filling in the online form, on the quality of the internet connection, and so forth – which can hardly be optimal for employers and immigrants (Boeri, 2011).





evident below, the way this system works in practice – although agents formally abide by its legal rules – leads to fairly different outcomes.

The rules which regulate the access of non-EU27 citizens to the Italian labour market vary depending on the type of work (seasonal vs. non-seasonal; subordinate employment vs. self-employment) and depending on whether workers are residing abroad or already legally residing in Italy.⁴ These rules are summarized in Table-7.

Table-7: Legal provisions for the access of third-country nationals to the Italian labour market

Non EU27 workers residing abroad

a. Non-seasonal workers: The employer (Italian or foreigner legally residing in the country) willing to hire a non-seasonal non-EU27 worker – within the yearly quotas established by the “Flows Decree” – has to apply at the provincial Single Desk for Immigration. In cases where the employer knows the employee s/he wants to hire, s/he must make a request by name for a work permit. For any worker requested, s/he needs to provide documentation showing that the worker has suitable housing accommodation (according to the criteria established by the norms of each region), as well as the relevant “proposal for a residence permit”. Once the application has been checked and given a positive assessment, the Single Desk issues the work permit to the employer and electronically transmits the documentation to the consular offices in the worker’s country of residence. The worker has then up to six months to obtain the relevant visa in order to enter Italy.

b. Seasonal workers: The procedure is similar to that followed for non-seasonal workers. The authorized period of time is linked to the type of seasonal work, although in no case can it be less than 20 days and more than nine months (six months for certain types of work). The employer may ask for a seasonal employment permit lasting several years (a maximum of three) and granting multiple entries – within the limits of the entry quotas – in favour of an employee who has worked for two consecutive years.

c. Self-employment: Foreigners are expected by law to meet the same moral and professional standards as those set for native self-employed workers, including – if necessary – admission for professional registers or records. Moreover, if one intends to practice professions which require specific qualifications, these qualifications need to be recognized by the proper Italian authorities. One must also show proof of adequate financial resources to carry out self-employment as well as suitable housing accommodation.

Non-EU27 workers already residing in Italy

a. New residence contract for subordinate employment: A non-EU27 foreign worker regularly residing in Italian territory can stipulate a new residence contract for subordinate employment with an employer who replaces or is added to his/her original one. Contracting parties must individually conclude and sign the residence contract and send it to the appropriate Single Desk for Immigration.

b. Conversion of the residence permit: Under certain conditions, a non-EU27 foreign citizen legally residing in Italy who holds a residence permit for studies or professional training, or has a residence permit for seasonal work, and has an opportunity for non-seasonal subordinate employment can apply and convert his/her residence permit.

The (irregular) practice: In spite of the fact that the quota system has officially been referred to as a mechanism to sanction the entry of new workers – as it was in the intentions of the legislator

4. Apart from the case of general amnesties, undocumented immigrants who are unlawfully residing in Italy are considered as resident abroad. In other words, there is no such thing as a permanent mechanism which, under certain conditions, allows the undocumented immigrant who has found an employer willing to legally hire him or her to obtain legal residence status (that is, “case by case” regularizations as those carried out in other EU Member States).

– it is common knowledge in Italy that its real functioning differs from the wording of the law (Ambrosini, 2011b). As often happens in Italy, the economy and the society react to inadequate institutions and legislations by devising shortcuts which better fit their needs. In this case, the outcome of this system is (generally) that foreign workers first enter the Italian labour market as undocumented immigrants (or with a 94 tourist visa) and then, if they find a job and an employer who wants to legalize their employment relationship, they wait for the “Flows Decree” and apply for a place. If their application is accepted, they move back to their origin country and then return to Italy, entering officially this time and pretending not to have been in the country before (Fasani, 2008). The bottom line of this procedure is that, in the Italian context, the main difference between an amnesty and the “Flows Decree” is that the latter procedure establishes a cap to the number of legalized individuals while the first does not.

In order to understand why the quota system is not functioning as it should – namely regulating new entries of foreign workers into the Italian labour market – but rather used mainly to ex post legalize existing (undeclared) employment relations, one has to take into account three specific features of the Italian context. First, there are three types of potential employers of foreign workers: families, small firms and medium-large firms. The distinction of firms by their size is particularly salient in the Italian context because of its peculiar firm structure: 95 percent of the 4.5 million Italian firms have less than 10 employees and account for almost 50 percent of the employed workers.⁵ Second, immigrant workers in Italy are mostly in demand for low-skilled, manual and domestic care occupations. Third, the size of the underground economy – well above the European average – and the widespread recourse to unlawful employment contracts by both entrepreneurs and families, together with a large presence of undocumented immigrants, are crucial and persistent features of the Italian labour market (IOM, 2013b *ibid*).

Families and small firms share many similarities as potential employers of immigrant workers. They both require skills which are, in general, barely certifiable or verifiable at a distance, in other words, for migrants still residing abroad. They both face important limitations (linguistic, organizational, and so forth) which – in the absence of private or public intermediaries – prevent them from engaging in activities of screening and recruiting from abroad. Finally, given that the firms are very small – and by definition so are all families – the employers will personally and continuously interact with the employees, and, therefore, they tend to be more willing to hire someone whom they have already met, whom they find pleasant, and whom they trust.⁶ The situation is different for medium and large firms. In their case, one could clearly envisage the possibility of investing in searching, screening and (possibly) training activities abroad. Still, the uncertainty implied by the quota system becomes pivotal here. One cannot expect firms to invest in recruitment from abroad if they are not given sufficient guarantees that they will actually be able to hire the workers they have chosen (and to do so in a sufficiently short time span).

For different reasons, therefore, none of the potential employers of foreign workers (families, small and medium-large businesses) seems particularly likely to engage in hiring workers from abroad. The last distinctive feature of the Italian context comes into play at this stage: the large presence of undocumented immigrants and the widespread tolerance for irregular employment practices. Indeed, this feature provides a viable alternative to the difficulties and uncertainty implied by hiring workers from abroad through the quota system.⁷ One can unreportedly hire undocumented immigrants to fill the immediate needs of labour demand and then ex post legalize – through amnesties or the quota system – the matches which have proved particularly productive. In the context of a labour market which is still fairly regulated, this option can offer an additional, and



5. Another 20 percent is employed in firms with 10-49 employees, about 12 percent in firms with 50-249 employees and the remaining 20 percent in firms with more than 250 employees. This latter group of large firms accounts for less than 1 percent of the total number of firms (Istat, 2011).
6. An exception could be represented by Italian employers who are willing to hire through referrals by their current foreign-born employees (or by immigrant acquaintances they trust) and by migrant entrepreneurs who want to employ co-nationals. Still, in their case, the uncertainty of the quota system – as discussed in the next paragraph regarding medium-large firms – is likely to dramatically reduce their incentives to recruit workers from abroad.
7. Clearly, the enlargement of the European Union has recently provided a new alternative for both families and firms. Once the transitional period has expired, citizens from NMS of EU27 countries can freely access the Italian labour market and can be legally hired outside of the quota system.

valuable, margin of flexibility in adjusting firms' workforces. The presence of this flexible, but illegal, alternative has also created the conditions for the preservation of the status quo. Indeed, one can reasonably speculate that, in the absence of undocumented immigrants – or, in the presence of a higher level of enforcement of labour market regulations – both families and firms would have advocated for (and probably obtained) a change in the current management of migration flows.

Hiring immigrant workers

Throughout the period 2006–2011 about 15–25 percent of the firms who intended to recruit new personnel were planning to hire an immigrant worker. In all years, this share tends to be slightly higher among larger firms. In the same period, immigrants accounted for a minimum of about 10–20 percent of all new planned hiring (the maximum estimate is around 16–27%). In 2011, this share corresponded to about 140,000 new workers (as a maximum).

The recent numbers of planned hiring of foreign workers seem to have been substantially affected by the economic crisis. In fact, if we consider the time series of non-seasonal hiring of immigrants in the period 2001–2011 (2.4), we can see that the average of total hiring over this period was almost 163,000 expected hiring per year, which accounted, on average, for 23.3 percent of total new hires (and this share reaches 36% in agriculture). The peak was registered in 2007, when firms expected to recruit more than 235,000 immigrants, about 27 percent of the total (Table-8).

Table-8: Planned non-seasonal hiring of immigrant workers, by industry and year, 2001–2011

Year	# of hiring			Share of total hiring		
	Manufacture and services	Agriculture	Total	Manufacture and services	Agriculture	Total
2001	145,000	2,400	147,400	20.3	30.4	20.3
2002	163,800	2,600	166,400	23.9	35.4	24.0
2003	224,400	4,900	229,300	33.4	47.9	33.5
2004	195,000	5,600	200,600	28.9	42.7	29.0
2005	182,900	3,900	186,800	28.2	33.1	28.2
2006	162,300	4,800	167,100	23.3	31.6	23.3
2007	227,600	8,200	235,800	27.1	46.6	27.2
2008	167,800	4,100	171,900	20.3	28.3	20.4
2009	89,100	3,400	92,500	17.0	36.7	17.4
2010	105,800	2,200	108,000	19.2	34.3	19.3
2011	83,000	3,400	86,400	13.9	29.7	14.2
Avg 2001–2011	158,791	4,136	162,927	23.2	36.1	23.3

Source: Based on a table taken from Excelsior data Unioncamere (2011), p. 14.



Families' demand

The employment of immigrants by Italian families for cleaning, personal care and assistance jobs is not easy to measure. As a matter of fact, most of this employment is undeclared, at least at the beginning of the employment relationship (Ambrosini, 2011). According to ISMU estimates, the sector may be currently employing about 1 million workers, the vast majority of whom are women (Ambrosini, 2011). Unsurprisingly, there are no systematic surveys, like the Excelsior survey, which measure the size of labour demand from families and their recruiting strategies. Still, there is a general consensus among experts and researchers that the domestic sector is an area where informal practices are absolutely predominant in Italy. Indeed, informality characterizes not only the way labour demand and supply meets each other, but also the actual employment relationships (at least at the beginning). There seem to be some structural aspects of these occupations which make it very unlikely that families are willing to hire workers from abroad. Indeed, “employers do not usually welcome strangers from abroad into their homes and formally hire them, entrusting them with their most beloved and defenceless family members. Consequently, in the domestic sector, it is common, at least initially, to hire immigrants who still do not have the required documents as a kind of trial period” (Ambrosini, 2011 p.3). The match between families and workers, therefore, usually starts underground and, if it works well for both parties, it can then be legalized ex post when an amnesty or a “Flows Decree” allows the employer to do so. But how do Italian families find the domestic and care workers they need? It is well documented that informal channels are paramount in this area. Direct referral from migrant workers employed by relatives or friends seems to be the preferred method for Italian families. A good immigrant worker will suggest another “good” immigrant worker, given that his/her reputation – and possibly even his/her job – is at stake. Clearly, these referrals usually concern workers that belong to the same ethnic network or national group.

Discrimination against migrant workers

The literature on discrimination against immigrants in the Italian labour market is still very limited. Immigrant workers are less likely to be in employment and substantially more likely to be in the bottom deciles of the earning distribution than native workers with similar characteristics. This disadvantage does not seem to vanish with the length of their stay in Italy. Indeed, Venturini and Villosio (2008) have shown that foreign workers employed in the private sector in Italy earn the same wages as natives upon entry into employment, but that the two wage profiles diverge with on-the-job experience. Foreign workers do not seem to assimilate from an employment perspective either: a difference in employment between foreign and native workers is found even upon entry, and increases over time. At least part of these gaps in wages and employment between immigrants and Italians may be explained by a discrimination against foreign workers.

Economists distinguish between preference discrimination and statistical discrimination. In the first case, discrimination is based on preferences: employers who distrust or do not like a particular ethnic/national group will systematically refuse to hire a member of that group (or will pay him/her a lower salary than comparable workers of other ethnic/national groups). This is essentially an expression of racism and xenophobia. Statistical discrimination, instead, may take place even if the employers are not racist at all, but if they face some important information asymmetries. For instance, if they cannot fully assess the quality of an immigrant worker – because they are not fully able to evaluate his/her foreign qualifications, his/her experience gained abroad, and so on – they may simply assume that he/she must be as good as the average member of his/her ethnic/national group. This implies that a high quality worker who belongs to a group with a poor reputation will find it harder to get a job. If immigrants, or specific groups of immigrants, have a bad reputation (with respect to natives) one can observe discrimination in the labour market even if the employers are not necessarily showing racist attitudes.

Supply side: migrants' perspective

The channels used to find jobs for immigrant workers in Italy can be distributed along a continuum which goes from the maximum degree of informality – that is, personal contacts – to the maximum degree of formality – represented by the Public Employment Offices (PEOs) – while in the middle one can find the standard job posting, private agents (such as the Catholic Church, trade unions, NGOs) and temporary workers agencies (Censis, 2010: 123).





Role of PEOs: A first question allows us to assess the role played by the PEOs in favouring the match between workers and employers in the Italian labour market. About 40 percent of Italian workers have had some contact over the course of their working life, while the share among all foreign workers is about half of that figure (around 22%). At least part of this gap may be mechanically due to the fact that the shorter permanence in Italy of the immigrant workers has not allowed them to make use of the PEOs yet.⁸ Even after 10 years of residence in Italy, the access of immigrants to the services of PEOs remains fairly limited with respect to that of native workers.

The persistent gap in access to PEOs between immigrants and natives may be (at least partially) driven by a differential access of these two groups of workers to unemployment benefits (which require a registration in the unemployed registry held at the PEOs). Or it may be due to limited information about the existence of PEOs and/or to specific difficulties immigrants face in taking advantage of the services offered. A recent survey has shown that about 40 percent of the PEOs do not offer services tailored to immigrant workers.

The second important remark is that the principal channel for finding a job – for both natives and immigrants – is the intervention of relatives or parents (so-called informal job search method). Indeed, almost 40 percent of employed Italian workers found a job through this channel. The share is similar for EU15 immigrants (44%), but it jumps up by more than 30 percentage points for NSM and non-EU27 immigrants. Among these two latter groups, indeed, an impressive 70–73 percent of employed workers found their jobs through relatives and friends. This finding confirms how informality is still the distinguishing feature of the labour market integration of foreign workers in Italy.

The main informal channel (i.e. friends and relatives) is more important for less educated immigrants. Private employment agencies, meanwhile, manage to place a sizeable number of better educated workers, while they appear rather less effective for less educated workers. Interestingly, PEOs are more important for less educated immigrants (although they remain marginal with respect to other channels): for both groups of migrants. Finally, educational level increases the fraction of NMS EU27 workers finding a job through newspapers or the Internet (but the pattern is more confused for non-EU27 immigrants).

Finally, across workers of different industries (agriculture, manufacture, construction, wholesale and retail trade, other services), the informal method (through relatives and friends) is the dominant one in all industries for both natives and immigrants and that this channel is always more important for the latter than for the former. Still, one can observe substantial variation across industries both in the share of workers who got their job through informal methods and in the gap in this share between natives and immigrants. For instance, only 30 percent of native workers employed in the “other services” sector used an informal method, while this share is twice as high in agriculture or in constructions. As far as migrants are concerned, these informal methods of job search seem to be relatively less important in manufacture – with shares of only about 56 percent – while they appear paramount in agriculture, construction and other services, where they approach shares of 75–80 percent.

The channels used vary with different types of occupations. Informal methods (for example through parents and friends) are undeniably predominant for occupations in domestic and personal care (78%) and for less skilled occupations such as blue-collar jobs in manufacture (and construction) and services (with 75 and 76% respectively). For more skilled occupations, however, these shares drop substantially: only 56 percent of technicians and clerks, and only 44 percent of professionals have used personal networks to find a job. For these occupations, indeed, there is a clear increase in the use of formal methods of job search (private agencies, Internet and newspapers).

There is a fairly widespread consensus that Italian government has so far missed the opportunity to play a major role in shaping and leading the labour market integration of foreign workers. On the contrary, throughout the last three decades, one can continually observe an important “gap between market realities and immigration policies” (Ambrosini, 2011b) and recognize how government intervention and legislation have adjusted to, rather than determined, the informal evolution of the migrant presence in the Italian economy and society. The lack of adequate possibilities of legally accessing the Italian labour market – “...the policy of closing the front door of

8. According to the Italian legislation, documented immigrants have exactly the same access to PEOs as native workers (Ministero del Lavoro, della Salute e delle Politiche Sociali, 2008).

legal entry, while keeping the back door for illegal entry half open”, (Zincone, 1998) – is just one example of the absence of governance of the Italian migration policy. Indeed, together with the frequent amnesties that have been granted in Italy over the last 30 years (Fasani, 2010), the “Flows Decrees” has mainly served the purpose of recognizing that the labour market integration of immigrants had occurred outside the legal framework.

Employers can experience serious difficulties in understanding and evaluating the qualifications and skills of Bangladeshi migrant workers and this may severely hinder their willingness to recruit immigrant workers (both from abroad and those already residing in Italy). This is clearly an area where public intervention would be welfare enhancing. Not only could PEOs have a stronger role in this, but the Italian government could collaborate with Bangladesh government in developing efficient methods to recognize Bangladeshi qualifications and to certify skills gained in Bangladesh. This could be done within the framework of bilateral agreement with Bangladesh.

Bilateral agreements: In the last decade Italy has developed a specific diplomatic agenda in order to conclude bilateral agreements with migration source countries for the regulation and management of migratory flows. The central idea of these agreements is that countries that accept collaboration with Italy in the enforcement of its migration policy (for example, countries that accept the repatriation of their citizens who were expelled from Italy for being undocumented) should receive a preferable treatment when it comes to legal access to the Italian labour market. So far, Italy has not signed any bilateral agreement on migration flows with Bangladesh. Ideally, such agreement should induce a profitable exchange of information on both the available Bangladeshi human power and the actual needs of the Italian labour market. Other than the mere number of required/available workers, this information should also specify the professional skills and the work experience of the candidates.

Additionally, Italian employers should have access to specially provided lists which contain information on the Bangladeshi workers who are willing to move to Italy. Moreover, these agreements should incentivize the setting up of special professional training programmes and Italian language courses in Bangladesh. This is a potentially promising strategy to foster recruiting from Bangladesh.

In Italy, main sectors for immigrant employment in mid- and low-skilled jobs include: agriculture (4%), manufacturing industries (20.6%), construction (8.3%), private services (67.2%—information technology and business services, cleaning, maintenance, caregiving, hospitality and gastronomy), commerce and transportation. In Italy, low- and semi-skilled immigrants have higher employment rates than the nationals. Fifty-five percent of foreigners with low educational attainment in 2010 were employed compared to 25 per cent of the native population with similar qualifications. On the contrary, the employment rate of the foreign highly skilled was lower than that of the natives (70.5 and 76.8% respectively). In Italy, the unemployment rate is higher among the low-skilled immigrants (12% for those with ISCED 0-1 and 12.6% for those with ISCED 2) and the highly skilled are somewhat less vulnerable to unemployment (10.4%). In Italy, the unemployment rate between migrant men and women also varies significantly as it was 10.4 percent for the men and 13.3 for the women in 2010. The difference was wider for the educational level ISCED 0-1 as the unemployment rate for migrant men at this level was 10.5 percent whereas for women 15.5 percent. The smallest difference was among the semi-skilled migrants as the unemployment rate of migrant women fell to 12.3 percent, while that of men remained almost the same (10.3%). (IOM, 2012).

Entry Requirements for Migrant Workers in Italy

For citizens of non-European Union countries the requirements to work in Italy are much more complicated. Extensive paperwork filed by both the visitor and the employer is needed, and the government must be convinced that a foreigner is not displacing the job of an existing Italian worker. Non-EU nationals who wish to enter Italy for work must: (i) enter through an official border crossing point; (ii) hold a valid passport or equivalent travel document authorizing them to cross the border; hold an entry or transit visa, if required; (iii) not be listed in the Schengen Information System as an inadmissible person; (iv) not be considered to be a threat to public order, national security, public health, or international relations.⁹ Based on current information identified three important issues need

9. Just Landed: Entry into Italy for non EU nationals, this article has been submitted by The Studio Legale Di Cocco& Duval, <http://www.justlanded.com/english/Italy/Articles/Visas-Permits/Entry-into-Italy-for-non-EU-nationals>





to be resolved which are essentially required for getting the work permit in Italy. These are as follows :

- Visa Application** : Individuals who are not citizens of the European Union must complete an in-depth visa application, which is submitted to the Italian Embassy.
- Labour Certification** : International workers must receive labour certification. This certification is issued by the Provincial Labour Office, and indicates that the worker is skilled and not taking the job of an existing Italian citizen.
- Entry Clearance** : This entry clearance can take up to 120 days to process. The entry clearance can be denied at the discretion of the Italian officials for any reason.¹⁰ Once the entry clearance is granted, the applicant is cleared to work in Italy.

Rules and Regulations for Migrant Workers in Italy

There are two types of legislative matters: Constitutional Law adopted in 1947 and Primary Legislation adopted in 2002. In Italy work is given a high recognition and protection at Constitutional level. Other Constitutional provisions relate to right and duty to work, workers' rights, right to strike, non-discrimination between workers etc. Law 189/02 sets up a system of quotas based on nationality. Entry and issuance of stay permits and work permits are strictly limited within the boundaries of such quotas.¹¹

Constitutional Law (Adopted in 1947)¹²

- Art. 4 : The Republic recognizes the right of all citizens to work and promotes those conditions which will make this right effective.
- Art. 35 : The Republic protects work in all its forms and applications. It provides for the training and professional improvement of workers.
- Art. 36 : Workers have the right to wages in proportion to the quantity and quality of their work and in all cases sufficient to ensure them and their families a free and dignified existence. The maximum working day is fixed by law. Workers have a right to a weekly rest day and paid annual holidays.
- Art. 37 : Working women have the same rights and, for equal work, the same wages as working men. The Republic protects the work of minors by means of special provisions and guarantees them, for equal work, the right to equal pay.
- Art. 38 : Workers have the right to be provided with and assured adequate means for their needs and necessities in cases of accidents, illness, disability and old age, and involuntary unemployment.

Primary legislation (Law189/2002 Adopted in 2002)¹³

- Art. 26 : Non-EU citizens when plan to perform in the non-occasional, self-employed activity, are permitted based on performance and conditions, and when they intend to perform industrial, professional, crafts or commercial activities are allowed. Non-EU citizens intending to carry out in Italy are issued an entry visa for self-employed work indicating the activity to which the visa refers. An entry visa for self-employed work is issued within 120 days from the date on which the request is presented.

II.3.2 Projection of Employment for Bangladeshis in Italy for the Next Five and Ten Years

In making employment projections in Italy the following assumptions are made:

- I. Given the prevailing GDP growth rates in Italy, employment growth rates are likely to average 4 percent in the former and 5 percent in the latter projection period in keeping with the observed growth rates of Bangladeshi migrants to Italy during the last nine years.

10. Benjamin Aries, Italy Work Permit Requirements, http://www.ehow.com/list_6803251_italy-work-permit-requirements.html

11. Antonella C. Attardo, Legislation Online: Italy, Migrant Workers, PhD (History of Law), <http://legislationline.org/topics/subtopic/36/topic/10/country/22>

12. Legislation Online: Constitution of the Italian Republic, <http://legislationline.org/documents/action/popup/id/5098>

13. Legislation Online: Law189/2002, Adopted 2002, Article 26, <http://legislationline.org/documents/action/popup/id/5102>

- ii. Other things remaining the same, Italy will continue to encourage Bangladeshi migrants over the next decade, given the improved diplomatic relations.
- iii. Relative share of Bangladeshi migrants in Italy will gradually increase due to elastic supply of job aspirants in Bangladesh over the next decade.

In making these projections, average number of Bangladeshi migrants to Italy based on three-year moving averages during the last nine years has been used as the base in 2013. Projections have been made only for those occupations which predominate in the most recent years reflecting current market demand. Considerations have been given to (i) occupations with the most job growth, (ii) fastest growing occupations, and (iii) occupations with the largest projected number of job openings due to growth. Results of the projections are presented in Table-9.

Table-9: Projection of Employment for Bangladeshis in Italy by Occupation in the Next Five and Ten Years

Occupation	Average*	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Agriculture Labour	15	18	20	22	24	26	29	32	35	38	41
Carpenter	2	3	4	5	6	7	9	11	13	15	18
Cleaning Labour	2	3	4	5	6	7	9	11	13	15	18
Electrician / Electrical Technician	3	4	5	6	7	8	10	12	14	16	18
Cook	33	35	37	39	42	44	47	51	54	58	62
General Labour	4878	4780	4685	4591	4499	4409	4365	4322	4278	4236	4193
Mason	3	4	5	6	7	8	10	12	14	16	18
Painter/Photographer	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	5
Private Service	294	309	324	340	357	375	398	422	447	474	502
Salesman/Cashier	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	6	6
Housekeeper	33	36	40	44	48	53	61	70	81	93	107
Technician/Mechanic	2	4	6	8	10	12	15	18	21	24	28
Waiter/Waitress	1040	1144	1258	1384	1523	1675	1926	2215	2547	2930	3369
Welder/Fabricator	2	4	6	8	10	12	15	18	21	24	27
Industrial Worker	745	820	901	992	1091	1200	1380	1587	1825	2099	2413
Laboratory Assistant	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	7	7	7	8
Nurse	4	7	10	13	16	19	23	27	31	35	39
QA/QC Engineer	145	149	154	158	163	168	175	182	189	197	205
Wood Designer	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	7	7	7	8
1st Commissar	21	22	23	24	26	27	28	30	32	34	36
Construction Worker	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	7	7	7	8
Driver	2	3	4	5	6	7	9	11	13	15	18
Weaving Technician	8	8	9	9	9	10	10	11	11	12	12
Baker	2	3	4	5	6	7	9	11	13	15	18
Plumber	2	3	4	5	6	7	9	11	13	15	18
Total	6657	7381	7525	7694	7889	8108	8564	9094	9695	10392	11195

Note: * indicates average employment of 3-year moving averages during the last nine years.

Source: Based on BMET data.



Shortages of Labour: In Italy, shortage of labour figures most prominently in general labour followed in order by waiter/waitress, industrial workers and QA/QC engineers. Shortage in other occupations is for both skilled and un-skilled workers in different sectors (Table-9).

Markets for Bangladeshi women migrants: As evident from Table-9, in Italy there is high demand for waitress while limited demand for housekeepers and nurse.

II.4 Japan

Japan: Country Summary

Japan is one of the five strongest economies in the world next to the United States, China, Germany and South Korea. Japan's industrialized, free market economy is the third biggest in the world with the largest electronics industry and the third largest automobile industry in the world. Japan's economy is well-known by its efficiency and competitiveness in exports oriented sectors, but productivity is lower in areas such as agriculture, distribution, and services. GDP growth rate in Japan averaged 0.52 percent from 1980 until 2013, reaching an all time high of 3.2 percent in the second quarter of 1990 and a record low of -4.0 percent in the first quarter of 2009. Macroeconomic volatility hurts employment and earnings, often immediately. According to a recent estimate, a 1 percent decline in GDP is associated with an increase in the unemployment rate of 0.19 percentage point in Japan.

Japan, the world's third-largest economy, suffered a devastating economic blow in 2011 as a result of its record-making March earthquake, tsunami and ensuing radiation. These disasters, coupled with large government debt, persistent deflation, and an aging and shrinking population are major complications for Japan's economy. Growth was hurt by the earthquake and tsunami, which damaged infrastructure and the supply chain and slowed production. But Japan's recovery has been further slowed by uncertainty about the global economy. Moreover, the strong yen is hurting exports and preventing businesses from expanding in Japan. In Japan, growth is now expected to slow more gradually than projected. Annual growth is expected to remain broadly unchanged at 1.7 percent in 2014, given carryover effects, before moderating to 1 percent in 2015.

Japan's labour force consists of some 65.9 million workers. Most are highly educated, with more than 50 percent of high school graduates going on to higher education at junior colleges and universities. If those attending technical and specialized schools are included, the percentage increases to more than 70 percent. The number of employed persons in Japan increased to 63.27 million in October 2013 from 63.19 million in September 2013. Employed persons in Japan averaged 55.73 million from 1953 until 2013, reaching an all time high of 65.84 million in June 1997 and a record low of 38.37 million in May 1953. From 1953 until 2013, Japan unemployment rate averaged 2.7 percent reaching an all time high of 5.6 percent in July 2009 and a record low of 1 percent in November 1968. Japan's jobless rate remained unchanged in October 2013 at 4 percent and the number of employed increased by 0.7 percent from previous year. The number of new job offers rose 0.6 percent in October 2013 from the previous month, and was up 10.8 percent compared with a year earlier. From 1983 until 2013, Japan youth unemployment rate averaged 7 percent reaching an all time high of 10.8 percent in June 2010 and a record low of 4 percent in February 1983. Job vacancies in Japan averaged 504.63 thousand from 1960 until 2013, reaching an all time high of 869.17 thousand in May 2006 and a record low of 266.29 thousand in September 1965. Job vacancies in Japan increased to 816.84 thousand in October 2013 from 811.58 thousand in September 2013. Labour force participation rate in Japan averaged 64.1 percent from 1953 until 2013, reaching an all time high of 74 percent in June 1955 and a record low of 58.5 percent in December 2012. Labour force participation rate in Japan increased to 59.8 percent in October 2013 from 59.7 percent in September 2013.

Japanese labour market is more flexible than those of other industrialized nations, and this flexibility has facilitated to lower the rate of unemployment and to provide a better

macroeconomic performance in general. Japan displays lower and less volatile unemployment, due to lower job destruction rates with a monotonic, increasing trend throughout the 1960-2010 period. Youth unemployment is on average twice the rate of total unemployment, at 19 percent. Long-term unemployment trends hide strikingly different trends in turnover rates. Job destruction rates tend to increase while job-finding rates tend to decrease in Japan. Japan is somewhere in-between relatively high and low support to the unemployed and high employment protection at the same time.

Despite all the challenges to the country, Japan is showing the world a tale of resilience and solidarity as it works together to improve its economic situation. Japanese employers are hiring again across most job sectors, and they feel optimistic about their continued future growth. The return of foreign workers and those possessing soft skills is needed, and employers search for the talent needed to fill the jobs available as the country recovers. Nearly a year after the country's most powerful earthquake and ensuing tsunami, Japan continues its long road to economic and employment recovery. Employers in many job sectors are hiring again and the demand for both foreign workers and soft skills is growing as talent shortages abound.

There are only around 2 million foreign permanent residents of Japan. After the earthquake and tsunami, some foreigners left their jobs either to move temporarily further south or to leave Japan altogether. The loss of so many foreign workers is another challenge to recovery. Japan wants the foreign workers to return. In fact, the Department of Immigration announced last spring that anyone previously in Japan on a technical training or student visa could return without a re-entry if their former employer wants them back.

Job prospects are strongest in the manufacturing sector, where employers are working to return production to the levels prior to the earthquake and tsunami. Employment is up from last year in the finance, insurance and real estate sector as well as the mining and construction and the services sectors. Employers in the transportation and utilities, and the wholesale and retail trade sectors also report slightly higher employment than last year. Jobseekers in public administration and education are likely to encounter a stagnant hiring environment, with employers there reporting the only negative hiring trend of any segment. General demand in education is stagnant.

As high as 80 percent of employers in Japan are having difficulty finding suitable talent to fill open positions. Labourers and researchers have moved up in the rankings compared to previous years, while skilled trades workers and executive/management positions have moved down. Executive-level HR positions have been in demand as companies reorganized their businesses. Mid and junior-level hiring is expected through the rest of this year. Financial analysts and controllers have been in demand in finance departments, and a growing number of experienced managers have been hired in supply chain departments, especially in small to medium-sized firms. Young, aggressive sales professionals are in demand in Osaka. Software sales positions also see a boost in demand. Financial analysts and engineers with bilingual skills are in demand, because they often report to foreign managers based locally or abroad. In Kansai, the pharmaceutical and manufacturing sectors have showed strong performance. Government policies offering incentives for generic medicine drove the demand. A decline in recruitment activity in electronics manufacturing is due to the outsourcing to markets such as China and Korea. Sales staff are expected to be strongly recruited through the rest of this year, as continued investment in business development in Kansai drives demand. Ongoing globalization strategies should prompt hiring of bilingual candidates especially in accounting, finance, supply chain, HR and marketing. Besides, soft skills are in demand in Japan. Employers are seeking candidates with interpersonal, leadership, organizational and language skills. Often, however, candidates tend to focus on the technical or hard skills. Yet these soft skills are highly sought after by employers, who are typically looking for a candidate who not only possesses all the technical requirements needed to perform the role, but who can also bring these additional soft skills to the organization. Some employers are becoming more flexible in their requirements and will offer training to a candidate who is otherwise a good fit for the role. But others will hold out for a candidate that matches all their skill requirements – both hard and soft.



Japan's recovery from the natural disasters of 2011 is ongoing, but experts believe in the resilience of the country and its people. Despite its many challenges, Japan is working to improve its economic situation and the outcome of that is jobs and more jobs. GDP of Japan presents a succession of positive and negative growth rates with low employment elasticity in most recent years. EPR and LFPR show positive trends. Japan's unemployment rate fell to 4.3 percent in 2012, with 2.76 million people without jobs, a decrease of 14 percent from 2010. Youth unemployment rate also declines. The phenomenon of NEET in Japan has been a persistent social problem for the younger generations, most of whom are supported by their parents since Japanese unemployment benefit can only be received for a maximum of six months. Employment rates in Japan have remained stable in the aftermath of the global financial crisis. The average employment rate is among the highest in the OECD countries. However, there are significant differences between men and women: 92 percent of prime-age men work, the second highest rate in the OECD after Switzerland, while only 69 percent of prime-age women are working. The projected fall in the working age population and Japan's high elderly dependency ratio call for measures to raise labour force participation.

In order to work legally in Japan one must have official visa certification. Foreign nationals, who wish to work in Japan, need a work visa from a Japanese embassy or consulate outside of Japan to enter the country on a condition of residence permitting work. After landing in Japan, immigration officials will check the required documents for entering Japan in accordance with the Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act. The requirements include having a valid passport and visa, the purpose of entering Japan, and the planned length of the stay. If the requirements are met, the immigration officer grants the "landing permission".

Following the changes in Japan's immigration policy in 1990, the government launched its Technical Internship Training Program (TITP) in 1993. This was designed to be part of a larger effort to facilitate the transfer of technical skills to neighbouring developing countries through trainee and technical intern programmes while also allowing Japanese employers to avail themselves of a new pool of workers on an interim basis. Today, foreigners entering Japan with a trainee visa can apply for the status of technical intern a year later, and remain in Japan for a total of three years. At its core, the trainee system is another mechanism for recruiting "unskilled labour." Despite the stated goal of fostering the transfer of technical skills, numerous studies have indicated that the majority of businesses accept trainees to lower personnel costs and to offset labour shortages. Nearly half of the technical interns are employed in the textile and clothing industries, the section of Japanese manufacturing that is most vulnerable to losing market share due to international competition. Bangladesh has bilateral agreement with Japan International Training Cooperation Organization (JITCO) to send technical interns under TITP.

In sum, the long economic downturn has not simply led to an overall decrease in the demand for foreign labour. Rather, as Japanese businesses have developed strategies to cope with the recession and with the pressure to maintain competitiveness, specific forms of demand for foreign labour have emerged. If and when the Japanese economy begins to rebound, labour shortages in some sectors will become even more acute. The prospect of significant population decline in the decades ahead will also continue to pose severe challenges to Japan's social and economic health. The debate about whether and how the country should admit more and diverse migrant foreign workers, or even immigrants for permanent settlement, is thus likely to intensify in the not-too-distant future.

Given the prevailing GDP growth rates in Japan, employment growth rates for Bangladeshis are likely to average 2 percent in the next five-year period and 4.6 percent in the second five-year period in keeping with the observed growth rates of Bangladeshi migrants to Japan during the last nine years. Occupations with the largest projected number of job openings due to growth and social needs are nursing, caregiving and housekeeping etc.

Japan's labour market offers work opportunities in IT, investment banking, teacher, office work, security, bars and sales. In terms of laws and immigration rules, Japan seems more conservative. However, Japan provides less area of work opportunities than other comparable



countries. Specific emphasis is placed on high-demand areas of work. It was indicated that during 2005-10 employment of drivers and housekeepers annually increased by 3000 and 12000 respectively. In 2013 there was shortage of 170 thousand construction workers, 380 thousand manufacturing workers 100 thousand ICT personnel compared to decrease in the demand for agricultural labour to the extent of 649 thousand. It was further reported that up to 2025 likely shortage of labour in nursing is 1.23million, in personal caregiving 656,229 and in construction 8 million. In our projection, we assume that Bangladesh will be able to send workers in these occupations to the extent of 1-2 percent.

In Japan, shortage of labour figures most prominently in construction works followed in order by nursing, caregiving, housekeeping, driving, industrial works, cooking and engineering. Shortage in other occupations is mostly for skilled workers in different sectors. In Japan there is high demand for nurses and caregivers while limited demand for housekeepers.

According to the International Monetary Fund's update to its "World Economic Outlook: Transitions and Tensions," survey, released in October 2013, Japan is one of the five strongest economies in the world next to the United States, China, Germany and South Korea. Japan's industrialized, free market economy is the third biggest in the world with the largest electronics industry and the third largest automobile industry in the world. Japan's economy is well-known by its efficiency and competitiveness in exports oriented sectors, but productivity is lower in areas such as agriculture, distribution, and services. GDP growth rate in Japan averaged 0.52 percent from 1980 until 2013, reaching an all time high of 3.2 percent in the second quarter of 1990 and a record low of -4.0 percent in the first quarter of 2009 (Cabinet Office, Japan). Macroeconomic volatility hurts employment and earnings, often immediately. According to a recent estimate, a 1 percent decline in GDP is associated with an increase in the unemployment rate of 0.19 percentage point in Japan (WB, 2013).

Japan, the world's third-largest economy, suffered a devastating economic blow in 2011 as a result of its record-making March earthquake, tsunami and ensuing radiation. These disasters, coupled with large government debt, persistent deflation, and an aging and shrinking population are major complications for Japan's economy, according to a report from the US Commercial Service. Experts may disagree about whether Japan's economy is still in recession, but it has definitely contracted this year more than was originally estimated. Growth was hurt by the earthquake and tsunami, which damaged infrastructure and the supply chain and slowed production. But Japan's recovery has been further slowed by uncertainty about the global economy. Moreover, the strong yen is hurting exports and preventing businesses from expanding in Japan. According to World Economic Outlook (IMF, 2014), In Japan, growth is now expected to slow more gradually compared with October 2013 WEO projections. Temporary fiscal stimulus should partly offset the drag from the consumption tax increase in early 2014. As a result, annual growth is expected to remain broadly unchanged at 1.7 percent in 2014, given carryover effects, before moderating to 1 percent in 2015.



II.4.1 Labour Market Developments and Employment Opportunities in Japan

Japan's labour force consists of some 65.9 million workers. Most are highly educated, with more than 50 percent of high school graduates going on to higher education at junior colleges and universities. If those attending technical and specialized schools are included, the percentage increases to more than 70 percent, according to the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology.

The number of employed persons in Japan increased to 63.27 million in October 2013 from 63.19 million in September 2013. Employed persons in Japan averaged 55.73 million from 1953 until 2013, reaching an all time high of 65.84 million in June 1997 and a record low of 38.37 million in May 1953 (Japan Statistics Bureau, 2013). From 1953 until 2013, Japan unemployment rate averaged 2.7 percent reaching an all time high of 5.6 percent in July 2009 and a record low of 1 percent in November 1968. Japan's jobless rate remained unchanged in October 2013 at 4 percent and the number of employed increased by 0.7 percent from previous year. The number of new job offers rose 0.6 percent in October 2013 from the previous month, and was up 10.8 percent compared



with a year earlier. From 1983 until 2013, Japan youth unemployment rate averaged 7 percent reaching an all time high of 10.8 percent in June 2010 and a record low of 4 percent in February 1983 (Ministry of Internal Affairs & Communications, Japan).

Job vacancies in Japan averaged 504.63 thousand from 1960 until 2013, reaching an all time high of 869.17 thousand in May 2006 and a record low of 266.29 thousand in September 1965. Job vacancies in Japan increased to 816.84 thousand in October 2013 from 811.58 thousand in September 2013 (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, Japan).

Labour force participation rate in Japan averaged 64.1 percent from 1953 until 2013, reaching an all time high of 74 percent in June 1955 and a record low of 58.5 percent in December 2012. Labour force participation rate in Japan increased to 59.8 percent in October 2013 from 59.7 percent in September 2013 (Ministry of Internal Affairs & Communications).

There is a common understanding outside of Japan that the Japanese labour market is more flexible than those of the other industrialized nations, and that this flexibility has facilitated to lower the rate of unemployment and to provide a better performance of the macroeconomy in general. It might be useful to summarize the reasons for the relatively better performance in the Japanese labour market (especially the low rate of unemployment). First, there was no strong pressure of labour supply by young people and female workers. The proportion of the working population of youth has been somewhat declining due largely to both a decrease in the youth population and an increase in the enrolment rate for higher education. The female labour force participation rate had been in a decreasing trend for a long time, although quite recently it is somewhat increasing. Secondly, the pressure of foreign workers was almost negligible, unlike the U.S. and Europe where internationally immigrated workers became one of the main sources for unemployment, especially in Europe. Thirdly, the growth rate of unemployment in the tertiary sector was considerably high, and it absorbed a large number of the workforce in contrast to a minor decrease in employment in manufacturing industries. During the past period of rapid economic growth, the manufacturing sector had absorbed an incredibly large number of workers from the rural areas, where people were predominantly engaged in agriculture. It is no exaggeration to say that the regional and industrial mobility of workers was extremely high. Fourth, the proportion of temporary employees such as part-time workers, employment with fixed durations and others (a very rough estimate is about 30 percent of the total non-agricultural labour force) and of self-employed workers including family workers (about 30%) has been considerably high. As a result, the proportion of permanent employees has been about 40 percent. The high share of temporary employees suggests that employment may fluctuate rather easily, while the high share of self-employed workers implies that those people are rarely unemployed unless they change their labour force status. Fifth, the effect of discouraged workers contributed significantly. Sixth, the movement of labour productivity, working hours and wages was quite flexible. Seventh, union power and 'search intensity' in terms of both the generosity of unemployment compensation and strictness of the unemployment protection laws were weak. Eighth, several forms of labour adjustment to minimize the number of discharges (or layoffs) are adopted by Japanese firms and encouraged by the government. Ninth, the share of non-wage labour costs within the total labour cost has been relatively small. This is related to the relatively poor social security system in Japan at least in comparison with Europe (Tachibanaki, 1991).

Japan displays lower and less volatile unemployment, due to lower job destruction rates with a monotonic, increasing trend throughout the 1960-2010 period. Youth unemployment is on average twice the rate of total unemployment, at 19 percent. Long-term unemployment trends hide strikingly different trends in turnover rates. Job destruction rates tend to increase while job-finding rates tend to decrease in Japan. Japan is somewhere in-between relatively high and low support to the unemployed and high employment protection at the same time (Murtin & Robin, 2011).

Despite all the challenges to the country, Japan is showing the world a tale of resilience and solidarity as it works together to improve its economic situation. Japanese employers are hiring again across most job sectors, and they feel optimistic about their continued future growth. The return of foreign workers and those possessing soft skills is needed, and employers search for the talent needed to fill the jobs available as the country recovers. According to Thompson (2012), nearly a year after the country's most powerful earthquake and ensuing tsunami, Japan continues

its long road to economic and employment recovery. Employers in many job sectors are hiring again and the demand for both foreign workers and soft skills is growing as talent shortages abound.

There are only around 2 million foreign permanent residents of Japan. After the earthquake and tsunami, some foreigners, many of them Chinese, left their jobs either to move temporarily further south or to leave Japan altogether. These departures were controversial and were widely published in the Japanese and international media. The loss of so many foreign workers is another challenge to recovery. Japan wants the foreign workers to return. In fact, the Department of Immigration announced last spring that anyone previously in Japan on a technical training or student visa could return without a re-entry if their former employer wants them back.

A recent survey by the Japanese government revealed women hold only 8 percent of managerial jobs in Japan compared to 43 percent supervisory positions in the US. In fact, only 65 percent of college-educated Japanese women are employed, with many of them in low-paid temporary jobs. This is “a significant lost economic opportunity for the nation,” according to a recent Goldman Sachs report. More than two-thirds of Japanese women leave the work force after their first child, often as a result of cultural norms, as well as insufficient child care. If Japan's 60 percent female employment rate rose to 80 percent (the rate among men), there would be 8.2 million more workers to replenish its rapidly aging population and raise its GDP by as much as 15 percent, said the report.

In a recent report on the impact of Japan's triple disasters, the IMF urged that the country's efforts to provide temporary assistance to firms and workers “could be further complemented by targeted training and job search assistance. The earthquake also provides an opportunity to accelerate broader labour market reforms and measures to raise employment opportunities for women, the young, and the old.”

The Robert Walters Asia Job Index tracks the volume of print and online advertisement for professional positions. The Index reports that the earthquake and tsunami did affect recruitment advertising levels, with job advertisements down 7.3 percent soon after the disasters. However, there has been strong demand for construction and IT professionals, and companies recently began to replace jobs in administration and account servicing that had been cut back during the global economic downturn. Besides, while the outlook from many international head offices is cautious, the sentiment within Japan remains positive. One sector that still suffers from a degree of conservatism is the medical industry. Recruitment activity fell by 23 percent soon after the earthquake, as many biotech companies reassessed their Japanese operations and considered opportunities for relocation (OECD, 2013).



Hiring Increases in Most Job Sectors

The most recent Employment Outlook Survey conducted by Manpower, Inc., a leading global employment services provider, found Japanese employers were optimistic about overall hiring plans, which should result in healthy opportunities for jobseekers through the end of the year. The survey interviewed a representative sample of 1,326 employers in Japan. Sixty-two percent of the employers interviewed anticipate no change in their hiring plans, 14 percent expect to increase headcount during the next quarter, while only 6 percent expect to reduce their workforces during that time, perhaps indicating a growing measure of labour market stability in the upcoming months. Job prospects are strongest in the manufacturing sector, where employers are working to return production to the levels prior to the earthquake and tsunami. Employment is up from last year in the finance, insurance and real estate sector as well as the mining and construction and the services sectors. Employers in the transportation and utilities, and the wholesale and retail trade sectors also report slightly higher employment than last year. Jobseekers in public administration and education are likely to encounter a stagnant hiring environment, with employers there reporting the only negative hiring trend of any segment. But, even though general demand in education is stagnant, Japan is seeing “an English crisis.” English teachers are needed for legions of Japanese businessmen, or “salarymen,” who need to polish their skills in English as Japanese companies look increasingly into overseas business opportunities.

In its most recent Global Talent Shortage survey, Manpower found that 80 percent of employers in Japan were having difficulty finding suitable talent to fill open positions. By way of comparison, the



global average is 34 percent. Employers in the Asia Pacific region cited sales representatives, technicians and labourers as the most difficult employees to find due to lack of available talent. According to Manpower, sales representatives have been the most difficult position to fill in the region every year the survey has been conducted. Labourers and researchers have moved up in the rankings compared to previous years, while skilled trades workers and executive/management positions have moved down. Executive-level HR positions have been in demand as companies reorganized their businesses. Mid and junior-level hiring is expected through the rest of this year. Financial analysts and controllers have been in demand in finance departments, and a growing number of experienced managers have been hired in supply chain departments, especially in small to medium-sized firms. Robert Walters Osaka also reported recently that young, aggressive sales professionals were in demand in Osaka, stressing that the ability to generate business locally was often more important than ability in speaking English. Software sales positions also saw a boost in demand. Financial analysts and engineers with bilingual skills were in demand, because they often report to foreign managers based locally or abroad.

In Kansai, the pharmaceutical and manufacturing sectors have showed strong performance. Government policies offering incentives for generic medicine drove the demand. A decline in recruitment activity in electronics manufacturing is due to the outsourcing to markets such as China and Korea. Robert Walters Osaka anticipates this outsourcing trend to continue. Salaries within Osaka remained largely unchanged from last year. Robert Walters expects sales staff to be strongly recruited through the rest of this year, as continued investment in business development in Kansai drives demand. Ongoing globalization strategies should prompt hiring of bilingual candidates especially in accounting, finance, supply chain, HR and marketing.

Hays Specialist Recruitment, a global human resources firm, reports soft skills are in demand in Japan. Employers are seeking candidates with interpersonal, leadership, organizational and language skills. Often, however, candidates tend to focus on the technical or hard skills. Yet these soft skills are highly sought after by employers, who are typically looking for a candidate who not only possesses all the technical requirements needed to perform the role, but who can also bring these additional soft skills to the organization. Hays is seeing a shortage of candidates with the right technical skills as well as the additional soft skills that employers want in the candidate they will employ. Some employers are becoming more flexible in their requirements and will offer training to a candidate who is otherwise a good fit for the role. But others will hold out for a candidate that matches all their skill requirements – both hard and soft.

Japan's recovery from the natural disasters of 2011 is ongoing, but experts believe in the resilience of the country and its people. According to the IMF, "The Great East Japan earthquake has had a profound impact on Japan's economy and is likely to influence policies for some time." Despite its many challenges, Japan is working to improve its economic situation and the outcome of that is jobs and more jobs. (<http://goinglobal.com/>)

Employment opportunities in Japan

GDP of Japan presents a succession of positive and negative growth rates with low employment elasticity in most recent years. EPR and LFPR show positive trends. Japan's unemployment rate fell to 4.3 percent in 2012, with 2.76 million people without jobs, a decrease of 14 percent from 2010. Youth unemployment rate also declines (Table-10). The phenomenon of NEET in Japan has been a persistent social problem for the younger generations, most of whom are supported by their parents since Japanese unemployment benefit can only be received for a maximum of six months (Noguchi, 2012).

Table-10: Employment opportunities in Japan

Indicators of employment opportunities	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
GDP growth rate	2.2	-1.0	-5.5	4.7	-0.6	2.0
Employment growth rate	0.6	-0.3	-1.5	-0.3	-0.2	-0.3
Employment elasticity	0.27	0.30	0.27	-0.06	0.33	-0.15
Employment-to-population ratio – Total	77.1	77.5	76.9	77.6	77.3	78.0
Employment-to-population ratio – Men	89.8	90.0	88.7	88.6	88.8	89.3
Employment-to-population ratio – Women	64.4	64.8	65.0	66.4	65.7	66.5
Unemployment rate – Total	3.9	4.0	5.0	5.0	4.5	4.3
Unemployment rate – Men	4.0	4.1	5.3	5.4	4.8	4.6
Unemployment rate – Women	3.7	3.8	4.7	4.5	4.1	4.0
Youth not in education and not in employment & training (NEET)%		8.4	8.5			
Informal employment rate						11.3
Labour force participation rate – Total	80.3	80.7	81.0	81.7	81.0	81.5
Labour force participation rate – Men	93.5	93.8	93.6	93.6	93.2	93.6
Labour force participation rate – Women	66.9	67.3	68.2	69.6	68.6	69.3
Youth unemployment rate (15-24) – Total	7.7	7.2	9.1	9.2	8.0	7.9
Youth unemployment rate (15-24) – Men			10.1	10.4	9.4	8.9
Youth unemployment rate (15-24) – Women			8.0	8.0	7.0	7.4

Sources: (1) OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics (database); OECD.StatExtracts. (2) U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, International Labor Comparisons, August 2013. Youth male & female unemployment rates from WDI, 2012. (3) ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM), 2013, www.ilo.org/kilm

Employment rates in Japan have remained stable in the aftermath of the global financial crisis. The average employment rate is among the highest in the OECD countries. However, there are significant differences between men and women: 92 percent of prime-age men work, the second highest rate in the OECD after Switzerland, while only 69 percent of prime-age women are working. The projected fall in the working age population and Japan's high elderly dependency ratio call for measures to raise labour force participation (OECD, 2013).

In the context of very rapid population ageing, a key priority for Japan must be to make full use of its human resources, most notably by increasing the employment rate of women. This would boost its future economic growth prospects. Indeed, while many Japanese women enter the labour force after completing their studies, about 60 percent of female workers withdraw from the labour force when their first child is born. As a result, in the first quarter of 2013, the EPR of prime-age Japanese women was ten percentage points lower than among the best performers in the OECD, i.e. Austria, Iceland, Norway, Slovenia and Switzerland where it exceeded 80 percent. In addition, the 6 percentage point improvement in the female employment rate observed since 1995 was driven by a rising number of women working in non-regular part-time and fixed-term jobs, suggesting a relatively weak connection to the labour market (ibid.).

Entry Requirements for Migrant Workers in Japan

In order to work legally in Japan one must have the proper visa certification. Foreign nationals, who wish to work in Japan, need a work visa from a Japanese embassy or consulate outside of Japan to enter the country on a condition of residence permitting work. The Passports must be valid for the intended period of stay in Japan. In Japan the government made a change in immigration process.



From July 9, 2012 the Immigration office issued Resident Card. For a working visa (status of residence), workers will need to submit the following documents: (i) Application form; (ii) Contract with one's employer, letter of appointment, invitation letter, or any other documents to prove one's activities, position, salary, period of time one will need to stay in Japan etc.; (iii) Company's certificate of registry; (iv) Company's most recent financial statements (Balance Sheet and Profit and Loss statement); (v) Company's withholding tax report; (vi) Description of the company's activities (brochure, catalogues, printed web pages); (vii) Workers' CV/resume; (viii) Certificates of degree, certified transcripts, certificates of diploma, training, awards or qualifications; (ix) Documents to prove one's previous working experience (letters from one's former employers, etc.); and (x) Portrait photo (3cmx4cm).

After landing in Japan, immigration officials will check the required documents for entering Japan in accordance with the Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act. The requirements include having a valid passport and visa, the purpose of entering Japan, and the planned length of the stay. If the requirements are met, the immigration officer grants the "landing permission" (MRU, 2013).

Foreign Workers and the Immigration Control Act of Japan – Realizing the Principle of Selection (Hayakawa, 2011)

The Status of Residence System: According to the Immigration Control Act of Japan, the basic concept relating to the immigration and residence of a foreign national is the "Status of Residence". As defined by the Immigration Control Act, foreign nationals are, in principle, permitted to enter and remain in Japan only if permitted to do so by their status of residence (Article 2-2), and unless they are given permission to renew it (Article 21), they may not remain in Japan longer than the period of their permission to stay. In addition, foreign nationals may not engage in any activity resulting in income or payment, other than those permitted according to the terms of their status of residence (Article 19).

Categories of status of residence that allow employment include "Permanent Resident", "Spouse or Child of Japanese National", "Spouse or Child of Permanent Resident" and "Long-Term Resident". These statuses are awarded based on the identity or position of the applicant, and persons holding these statuses are able to work in any kind of employment. Workers of Japanese descent are treated differently to other foreign nationals in that they have no restrictions placed on the type of work they can do, and they are able to work on the shop floor in manufacturing and other industries because they have been awarded the same status of residence as "Spouse or Child of Japanese National", or "Long-Term Resident". Foreign nationals other than those mentioned above are permitted to immigrate if they have specialist technical skills, but immigration policy dictates that unskilled labourers are not permitted to immigrate¹⁴, and so the scope of activities in which such foreign nationals can engage is defined by their status of residence. Categories of status of residence that permit working are restricted to highly specialist skills such as engineer, specialist in humanities/international services, etc. as well as diplomat, professor and other categories that indicate a commitment to public life. In addition to this, it is also possible to be awarded the status category of "Designated Activities", where the scope of activity is defined by the Minister of Justice. Other categories of status of residence such as "Student" only permit working within the scope permitted as activities other than those permitted under the status of residence.

Prohibition of Illegal Work: Foreign nationals working without a status of residence that allows work under the Immigration Control Act (a work permit) are known as undocumented workers. Persons hiring undocumented workers, placing them under their control or sending them to work for others on a regular basis are liable to be prosecuted for facilitation of illegal work (Article 73-2, Paragraph [1]). Undocumented workers themselves are liable to punishment (Article 70) and forced deportation (Article 24), but the Minister of Justice is able to offer consideration of circumstances during the process of deportation, and if special permission for residence is granted, the person in question may remain in Japan under the terms of the status of residence they were awarded (Article 50).

14. The Basic Plan for Immigration Control (1st Edition, 1992) sets out this policy, which is maintained strongly in the 2nd and 3rd Editions (2000 and 2005). The 4th Edition is released in March 2010, the policy is also basically maintained.



Trainees and Technical Interns

Following the changes in Japan's immigration policy in 1990, the government launched its Technical Internship Training Program (TITP) in 1993. This was designed to be part of a larger effort to facilitate the transfer of technical skills to neighbouring developing countries through trainee and technical intern programmes while also allowing Japanese employers to avail themselves of a new pool of workers on an interim basis. Today, foreigners entering Japan with a trainee visa can apply for the status of technical intern a year later, and remain in Japan for a total of three years. At its core, the trainee system is another mechanism for recruiting "unskilled labour." Despite the stated goal of fostering the transfer of technical skills, numerous studies have indicated that the majority of businesses accept trainees to lower personnel costs and to offset labour shortages (ibid).

Trainees are not protected by labour standards and receive "allowances" that are often significantly lower than the minimum wage. Although technical interns are "workers" in the legal sense, they too have found their wages cut back due to a series of deductions unilaterally imposed by employers. Growing product and price competition from abroad, particularly from China, is one of the factors driving the increase in the number of technical interns and trainees. While some businesses in Japan have relocated their production lines to China, others have had no choice but to maintain their facilities in Japan, retain their place in the Japanese production and supply chain, and recruit young Chinese trainees. Nearly half of the technical interns are employed in the textile and clothing industries, the section of Japanese manufacturing that is most vulnerable to losing market share due to international competition (Kashiwazaki, 2002). Bangladesh has bilateral agreement with Japan International Training Cooperation Organization (JITCO) to send technical interns under TITP.

In sum, the long economic downturn has not simply led to an overall decrease in the demand for foreign labour. Rather, as Japanese businesses have developed strategies to cope with the recession and with the pressure to maintain competitiveness, specific forms of demand for foreign labour have emerged. Legal and administrative changes, such as the revision to the immigration law in 1990 that allowed employers to recruit and employ the Nikkeijin, along with the expansion of trainee and technical internship programmes, have provided businesses with new channels for accessing foreign workers. If and when the Japanese economy begins to rebound, labour shortages in some sectors will become even more acute. The prospect of significant population decline in the decades ahead will also continue to pose severe challenges to Japan's social and economic health. The debate about whether and how the country should admit more and diverse migrant foreign workers, or even immigrants for permanent settlement, is thus likely to intensify in the not-too-distant future (ibid.).



II.4.2 Projection of Employment for Bangladeshis in Japan for the Next Five and Ten Years

In making employment projections in Japan the following assumptions are made:

- i. Given the prevailing GDP growth rates in Japan, employment growth rates are likely to average 2 percent in the former and 4.6 percent in the latter projection period in keeping with the observed growth rates of Bangladeshi migrants to Japan during the last nine years.
- ii. Other things remaining the same, Japan will continue to encourage Bangladeshi migrants over the next decade, given the improved diplomatic relations.
- iii. Relative share of Bangladeshi migrants in Japan will gradually increase due to elastic supply of job aspirants in Bangladesh over the next decade.

In making these projections, average number of Bangladeshi migrants to Japan based on three-year moving averages during the last nine years has been used as the base in 2013. Projections have been made only for those occupations which predominate in the most recent years reflecting current market demand. Considerations have been given to (i) occupations with the most job growth, (ii) fastest growing occupations, and (iii) occupations with the largest projected number of job openings due to growth and social needs (nursing, caregiving and housekeeping etc.). Results of the projections are presented in Table-11.

Japan's labour market offers work opportunities in IT, investment banking, teacher, office work, security, bars and sales. In terms of laws and immigration rules, Japan seems more conservative. However, Japan provides less area of work opportunities than other comparable countries. Specific emphasis is placed on high-demand areas of work. In a response from a questionnaire administered on the Bangladesh Labour Attache in Tokyo it was indicated that during 2005-10 employment of drivers and housekeepers annually increased by 3000 and 12000 respectively. In 2013 there was shortage of 170 thousand construction workers, 380 thousand manufacturing workers 100 thousand ICT personnel compared to decrease in the demand for agricultural labour to the extent of 649 thousand. It was further reported that up to 2025 likely shortage of labour in nursing is 1.23million, in personal caregiving 656,229 and in construction 8 million. In our projection, we assume that Bangladesh will be able to send workers in these occupations to the extent of 1-2 percent.

Table-11: Projection of Employment for Bangladeshis in Japan by Occupation in the Next Five and Ten Years

Occupation	Average*	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Cook	21	21	22	22	23	23	24	24	25	26	27
Engineer	14	14	15	15	16	16	17	17	18	18	19
Industrial Worker	48	48	49	49	50	50	51	52	54	55	56
Private Service	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4
Waiter	5	6	7	8	10	11	14	16	19	23	28
Driver including heavy	-	60	61	62	64	65	67	69	71	73	75
Scaffolding Labour	5	5	6	6	6	6	7	8	8	9	10
Technician/Electrician	6	8	10	13	17	22	30	41	55	74	100
Welder/Fabricator	2	2	2	3	3	3	4	4	5	6	7
Computer Operator / Engineer	8	10	12	16	19	24	30	38	47	59	74
Housekeeping	-	120	123	126	129	132	136	140	150	198	240
Nurse	-	1122	1150	1200	1260	1310	1400	1500	1600	1700	1800
Caregiver	-	596	620	650	750	850	950	1050	1100	1150	1193
Construction workers	-	7270	7343	7416	7490	7565	7643	7750	8000	8500	9000
Total	79	9285	9423	9589	9840	10080	10377	10713	11156	11895	12633

Note: * indicates average employment of 3-year moving averages during the last nine years.

Source: Based on BMET data.

Shortages of Labour: In Japan, shortage of labour figures most prominently in construction works followed in order by nursing, caregiving, housekeeping, driving, industrial works, cooking and engineering. Shortage in other occupations is mostly for skilled workers in different sectors (Table-11).

Markets for Bangladeshi women migrants: Table-11 shows that in Japan there is high demand for nurses and caregivers while limited demand for housekeepers.

II.5 Jordan

Jordan: Country Summary

Jordan is a small, lower middle-income country, with a relatively open economy. It has experienced an accelerated pace of economic change brought about by global economic integration and liberalization policies. The 1990s marked the dominance of macroeconomic and trade liberalization in the Jordanian economy, leading to increasing levels of GDP growth and a

much-idealized macroeconomic stability as manifested in low inflation, a stable currency, and a real GDP growth in excess of 8 percent by 2005. However, despite these trends, high rates of unemployment and poverty continue to persist in the country.

In terms of investment and GDP, the Jordanian economy has performed well in recent years. Private foreign investment has increased dramatically since 2001. Annual GDP growth increased from 3.5 percent during 1996-2000 to 6 percent during 2000-05 and from 2.31 percent in 2010 to 2.8 percent in 2012. However, growth has not translated into a diversified economic structure and a reduction of unemployment and poverty rates. In recent years, Jordan has particularly focused on growth of its external sector, through an export-led strategy. Although these have resulted in high levels of exports, they have failed to produce sufficient and decent jobs and have exposed the economy to the fluctuating waves of international finance and commerce. This vulnerability to external factors is reinforced by Jordan's traditional reliance on external sources of finance, such as worker remittances and foreign aid – something, which limits the government's policy space when it comes to macroeconomic planning.

In 1989, the Jordan economy contracted by 13.5 percent. Together with only around 6 percent arable land and one of the lowest water availability rates in the world, Jordan's reliance on the agricultural sector as a source of output as well as input for the industrial sector has been very limited. As a result, in 2000, agriculture constituted only around 3.8 percent of GDP, whereas services and industry constituted 70.4 percent and 25.8 percent of GDP, respectively. This shift in economic activity has been reflected in the composition of employment. Employment in the agricultural sector has declined by more than 44 percent, whereas it has experienced major increases of over 180 percent and 100 percent in the real estate and health and social work sectors, respectively. To this should be added a further challenge, which relates to the construction sector, which has been the driving force behind much of recent economic growth in Jordan. Propelled by investments from remittances, the wealth of Iraqi immigrants and other factors, the construction sector has been a force for growth. However, the activity in the sector is bound to slow down in the near future, leading to a large-scale loss of jobs.

Jordan has suffered from a jobless growth strategy, whereby economic growth and employment generation have not resulted in increased employment among Jordanians. Unemployment remains at around 12-15 percent, with the highest unemployment rates recorded among women and the highly skilled. Meanwhile, poverty was still affecting 13.3 percent of the population in 2008. These challenges are a result of the nature of Jordanian economic growth as well as its geopolitical position. Among them are: (i) high levels of immigrant labour flows to Jordan that have fundamentally changed the composition of the labour market; (ii) insufficient number of jobs created; (iii) poor quality of jobs available in the market; and (iv) lack of viable, productive and decent employment at home which has led many highly skilled Jordanians to seek employment abroad, with long-term implications for the economy's human capital.

Unemployment rate in Jordan averaged 12.7 percent from 2007 until 2013 reaching an all time high of 14.3 percent in September 2007 and a record low of 10.8 percent in June 2007. It increased to 14 percent in the third quarter of 2013 from 12.6 percent in the second quarter of 2013. Around 180,000 Jordanians were unemployed in 2009; at the same time, more than 335,000 non-Jordanians were working in Jordan during the same year. These numbers highlight a critical paradox in the country's labour market: while demand for labour is high, most job vacancies are filled by migrant workers or remain unfilled, leaving many Jordanians unemployed over long periods of time. Existence of such deep structural problems in the labour market implies that economic growth per se will not be sufficient to reduce the levels of unemployment. It also explains to some extent why GDP and FDI growth in recent years has not resulted in lower unemployment. The government's strategy in recent years has been to attract FDI and generate growth to create 46,000 additional jobs per year, with the expectation that this will reduce unemployment to 6.8 percent by 2017. Indeed, in line with the government's unemployment reduction strategy, GDP growth has generated a substantial number of new jobs: from 2000 to 2005, the Jordanian economy created between 24,000 and 44,000



additional jobs per year. However, unemployment did not decline but fluctuated around a fairly high level of 14 percent. In recent years, more than half of new jobs created in the economy have been filled by migrant workers.

A low EPR ratio of 36 in Jordan means that a large share of the population is not involved directly in market-related activities, because they are either unemployed or (more likely) out of the labour force altogether. A declining tendency in the EPR usually indicates declining employment demand within the economy in terms of the quantity of workers. Besides, persistent unemployment rate at a high of around 12 percent indicates chronic labour underutilization in Jordan. Puzzlingly, however, employment elasticity is all the way positive reaching a high of 1.36 in 2011 implying that 1 percentage point of GDP growth is associated with 1.36 percentage point increase in employment. Employment generating capacity of the Jordanian economy, therefore, seems to be more statistical than real (mixed).

Various elements of Jordan's macroeconomic stabilization policies of the last two decades have resulted in higher levels of job destruction than job creation. One of these factors has been Jordan's drive towards fiscal consolidation and privatization. The public sector has been traditionally one of the largest employers in the Jordanian labour market. The relatively higher wages, social protection entitlements and lack of viable private sector employment opportunity has for long made the public sector a favoured choice of the new entrants to the labour market, particularly women. Another factor, which has resulted in high levels of job destruction in recent years, is the nature of government's investment and trade strategies. Economic liberalization and export promotion in Jordan has particularly focused on low manufacturing sectors, such as apparel manufacturing, that offer poor working conditions, making them less attractive to native workers. Jordan's QIZs with the US are another element of Jordan's trade and investment policy that though attracting high levels of investment, have had devastating consequences for employment of nationals.

The growth of the Jordanian economy has been concentrated in sectors, which do not offer 'high quality' jobs to the educated Jordanian labour force reflecting a mismatch between the labour market demand and the skills and educational backgrounds of the workers. The young, mostly educated Jordanians, do not show any interest in adopting the low-skilled, manual jobs offered by the mining manufacturers or the QIZs, as these not only have no association with their subject of study but are also low-paid, offer poor working conditions and lack social security. Only 42 percent of the labour force in Jordan is covered by the social security system.

Several of the sectors with the highest GDP growth in recent years, including manufacturing and construction, have produced a large number of low-skilled, low-wage jobs that were unattractive to Jordanian workers and were, hence, picked up by migrants. A similar trend has happened in the agricultural sector. This has led to a net decrease in jobs for Jordanians. During 2000 to 2005 between 52 to 63 percent of newly created jobs were filled by migrants. As a result, in 2009, foreign workers in Jordan numbered more than 335,000, far more than the number of unemployed Jordanians which stood at 180,000 in the same year. The exact number of migrant workers in Jordan is estimated at about 20 percent of the Jordanian labour force. They are often concentrated in the export zones as well as the agriculture, construction and manufacturing sectors.

In general, migrant workers are less skilled and have received less training than Jordanian workers, but their readiness to accept jobs with low salaries and poor working conditions and their general flexibility make them a favourable option for most employers. Furthermore, Jordanians' expectations of employment opportunities that satisfy their academic and professional qualifications have made them less 'employable'. Among university study fields, unemployment rates in agriculture, veterinary, and educational specializations have remained twice as high as those of engineers and health care workers. Although highlighting the lack of informative mechanisms and a mismatch between supply and demand in the labour market, this is also an indication of low levels of output and productivity in such sectors, which could potentially be a source of employment.



More recently, the government's National Strategy for Employment has set out plans for replacing migrant workers with Jordanian workers. In the short-term it aims to replace guest workers with local labour, particularly in the services, hospitality, water, electricity, health, construction and trade sectors, whereas in the medium term, this strategy will expand to the sectors of mining, industry and agriculture. Parallel to this, the government aims to boost investments in sectors and industries which employ the majority of Jordanians in order to also ensure a dynamic expansion of employment opportunities in the country.

The new Provisional Amended Labour Law aims to better organize and regulate the employment of non-Jordanians, and include clauses on domestic workers. However, while under the new Social Security Law all workers in Jordan can be potentially covered by social security regardless of their nationality, this does not seem to benefit domestic workers, most of whom are migrants. Under the 'Jordanisation' policies of the Jordanian government, agriculture and construction were considered as the first sectors where Jordanians could start replacing migrant workers. Similar policies were also implemented across the QIZs: any company that hires a new Jordanian is eligible to hire two migrant workers with an exemption of permit fees. Finally, in partnership with the private sector, the Ministry of Labour establishes a number of agreements with some of the occupational sectors to facilitate the replacement of migrant workers with Jordanians by setting some targets for the shares of these two groups in company workforces.

The emigration of Jordanian workers has also led to labour shortage at home, fuelling larger scale entrance of migrant workers, and deprived the economy of essential skills and human capital. In 2008, about 4.9 percent of the total Jordanian population lived abroad. Around 600,000 Jordanians, half the size of the Jordanian labour force at home, work abroad and are often employed in skill-intensive jobs. This is an indication of an imbalanced skills situation whereby local supply of skills exceeds local demand for skills at prevailing wages.

Jordan's economic growth has failed to produce sufficient formal employment that provides social protection for its workers. Thus, employment in the informal economy has gained much importance. The informal economy accounts for about 20 percent of GDP and employs about 25 percent of the workers. The jobs created in the formal economy are inadequate for the 50-60 thousand new entrants to the labour market each year. Other reasons behind the growth of the informal economy in Jordan are the high rates of poverty at 14.7 percent in 2005; a high rate of population growth, especially inflated by large inflows of refugees; the mismatch between the skills of the labour force and the demands of the economy; the bureaucratic tax procedures and licensing requirements for setting up businesses, and the unforeseen costs involved in establishing a formal business; the higher standards of living in urban areas and the labour flight from rural to urban centres; and the acceleration of the privatization and restructuring programmes, which have resulted in large scale job losses.

Micro (1-4 workers) and small (5-19 workers) enterprises constitute 98 percent of all firms in Jordan and are responsible for around half to two-thirds of private sector employment in Jordan. Apart from very limited potentials for employment generation, this private sector structure also limits the resources available for workers in terms of training, career development, and social security. Therefore, added to the prominent presence of non-Jordanian workers, the Jordanian labour market is also segmented between formal employment in the public and private sector and employment in the informal economy with very low mobility between the two areas.

The informal economy is said to be growing faster than the formal economy, as indicated by low official levels of labour participation rate (25%), creating most of the new jobs, with migrant workers and women constituting around 75 percent of employees in this sector. These are mainly agricultural workers, home-workers, domestic employees, the self-employed, unpaid family workers, and workers in unregistered enterprises as well as the QIZs. Although the informal economy provides a cushioning effect at times of economic downturn, low working standards minimize the positive effects of the informal economy employment.

In the next five to ten years Jordan is likely to continue to attract migrant workers. It would not be surprising if the scenario of the past few years were to continue to apply in the future, with gross



emigration flows moving in parallel with increasing immigration. Migration in Jordan is influenced by changing economic circumstances, which make it particularly difficult to predict future developments of Bangladeshi migrants to Jordan. Mixed results are obtained from the migration trends. The number of people wanting to leave Jordan is increasing year on year and at once the number of labour migrants is also increasing.

GDP in Jordan is likely to grow faster averaging 6 percent during the next five-year period and 9 percent during the second five-year period in a way to recover earlier growth scenario. Therefore, employment growth rates are likely to average 2 percent in the former and 3 percent in the latter period.

In Jordan, shortage of labour figures most prominently in RMG followed in order by housekeeping and domestic works. Shortage in other occupations is for both skilled and unskilled workers in different sectors. There is huge market for RMG women workers in Jordan. The RMG occupations which are particularly suitable for the women workers encompass machine operation, sewing, linking and single needle operation. Jordan has also job openings for waitress, cleaners, housekeepers and domestic workers.

Jordan is a small, lower middle-income country, with a relatively open economy. It has experienced an accelerated pace of economic change brought about by global economic integration and liberalization policies. The 1990s marked the dominance of macroeconomic and trade liberalization in the Jordanian economy, leading to increasing levels of GDP growth and a much-idealized macroeconomic stability as manifested in low inflation, a stable currency, and a real GDP growth in excess of 8 percent by 2005. However, despite these trends, high rates of unemployment and poverty continue to persist in the country (Taghdisi-Rad, 2012).

In terms of investment and GDP, the Jordanian economy has performed well in recent years. Private foreign investment has increased dramatically since 2001, triggered by soaring oil profits in the Gulf countries and the immigration of wealthy Iraqis in recent years. Annual GDP growth increased from 3.5 percent during 1996-2000 to 6 percent during 2000-05 (World Bank, 2008). However, evidence suggests that growth has not translated into a diversified economic structure and a reduction of unemployment and poverty rates. In recent years, Jordan has particularly focused on growth of its external sector, through an export-led strategy, an Association Agreement with the European Union, a Free Trade Agreement with the US and membership of the World Trade Organization. Although these have resulted in high levels of exports, they have failed to produce sufficient and decent jobs and have exposed the economy to the fluctuating waves of international finance and commerce. Close economic and trade ties with the region, with half of Jordan's exports and a quarter of its imports taking place with its neighbours, has made the economy vulnerable also to regional economic and political fluctuations. This vulnerability to external factors is reinforced by Jordan's traditional reliance on external sources of finance, such as worker remittances and foreign aid – something, which limits the government's policy space when it comes to macroeconomic planning.

In 1989, the Jordan economy contracted by 13.5 percent. The subsequent decline in the role of the state in the economy, in line with a tight monetary and fiscal policy prescription, had a particularly dire effect on the agricultural sector, where input subsidies were removed without any public sector investment in the sector. Together with only around 6 percent arable land and one of the lowest water availability rates in the world, Jordan's reliance on the agricultural sector as a source of output as well as input for the industrial sector has been very limited. As a result, in 2000, agriculture constituted only around 3.8 percent of GDP, whereas services (including finance, real estate, transport, communications and government services) and industry (including mining and quarrying) constituted 70.4 percent and 25.8 percent of GDP, respectively. This shift in economic activity has been reflected in the composition of employment. Employment in the agricultural sector has declined by more than 44 percent, whereas it has experienced major increases of over 180 percent and 100 percent in the real estate and health and social work sectors, respectively (Al Manar, 2010b). To this should be added a further challenge, which relates to the construction sector, which has been the driving force behind much of recent economic growth in Jordan. The construction sector is typically the most volatile major sector of any economy. Propelled by investments from remittances, the wealth of Iraqi immigrants and other factors, the construction



sector has been a force for growth. However, the activity in the sector is bound to slow down in the near future, leading to a large-scale loss of jobs.

GDP at constant prices in Jordan averaged JOD 3259.96 million from 1999 until 2013, reaching an all time high of JOD 9380 million in the second quarter of 1999 and a record low of JOD 1256.71 million in the first quarter of 2005. GDP at constant prices in Jordan increased to JOD 2040.60 million in the second quarter of 2013 from JOD 1930.30 million in the first quarter of 2013 (Department of Statistics, Jordan).

II.5.1 Labour Market Developments and Employment Opportunities in Jordan

Jordan has suffered from a jobless growth strategy, whereby economic growth and employment generation have not resulted in increased employment among Jordanians. Unemployment remains at around 12-15 percent, with the highest unemployment rates recorded among women and the highly skilled. Meanwhile, poverty was still affecting 13.3 percent of the population in 2008. It is suggested here that this arises from the inability of the growth strategy to address some of the key challenges facing the Jordanian labour market. These challenges are a result of the nature of Jordanian economic growth as well as its geopolitical position. Among them are, first, high levels of immigrant labour flows to Jordan that have fundamentally changed the composition of the labour market. Migrant workers constitute on average 20 percent of the Jordanian labour force. According to official statistics, between 2001 and 2005 there were approximately 300,000 migrant workers in Jordan filling 62.8 percent of the newly created jobs. By 2009, the number of migrant workers had risen to 335,708 (Al Manar, 2010). This has increased unemployment, while pushing the wages down, making employment opportunities less attractive to those 'inactive' members of the labour force.

The second challenge facing the Jordanian labour market is the insufficient number of jobs created. The liberalization of the economy during the course of the 1990s resulted in more job destruction than job creation. Privatization of firms resulted in a large number of small private enterprises with limited employment-generation capacities. The nature of export-oriented production, for example in the Qualifying Industrial Zones (QIZs), has implied more unskilled jobs for migrant workers. Hence, the jobs created by exports have not exceeded the number of jobs that have been lost due to imports.

The third challenge is the quality of jobs, which are available in the market. There is a clear mismatch between the skills of the young and highly educated Jordanians and the jobs, which are available in the market. This, to a large extent, questions the composition of growth and the nature of jobs, which have resulted from this growth in recent years. Finally, lack of viable, productive and decent employment at home has led many highly skilled Jordanians to seek employment abroad, with long-term implications for the economy's human capital. The recent global economic crisis has only aggravated these pre-existing features of the Jordanian labour market (Taghdisi-Rad, 2012).

Employment opportunities in Jordan

Unemployment rate in Jordan averaged 12.7 percent from 2007 until 2013 reaching an all time high of 14.3 percent in September 2007 and a record low of 10.8 percent in June 2007. It increased to 14 percent in the third quarter of 2013 from 12.6 percent in the second quarter of 2013. In Jordan around 180,000 Jordanians were unemployed in 2009; at the same time, more than 335,000 non-Jordanians were working in the kingdom during the same year. These numbers highlight a critical paradox in the country's labour market: while demand for labour is high, most job vacancies are filled by migrant workers or remain unfilled, leaving many Jordanians unemployed over long periods of time. Existence of such deep structural problems in the labour market implies that economic growth per se will not be sufficient to reduce the levels of unemployment. It also explains to some extent why GDP and FDI growth in recent years has not resulted in lower unemployment. The government's strategy in recent years has been to attract FDI and generate growth to create 46,000 additional jobs per year, with the expectation that this will reduce unemployment to 6.8 percent by 2017 (World Bank, 2008). Indeed, in line with the government's unemployment reduction strategy, GDP growth has generated a substantial number of new jobs: from 2000 to 2005, the Jordanian economy created between 24,000 and 44,000 additional jobs per year. However, unemployment did not decline but fluctuated around a fairly high level of 14 percent. This



is despite the low ratio of labour force to population, which is a product of the large pre-working age population as well as low levels of female participation. In recent years, more than half of new jobs created in the economy have been filled by migrant workers (Taghdisi-Rad, 2012).

A low EPR ratio of 36 in Jordan means that a large share of the population is not involved directly in market-related activities, because they are either unemployed or (more likely) out of the labour force altogether. A declining tendency in the EPR usually indicates declining employment demand within the economy in terms of the quantity of workers. Besides, persistent unemployment rate at a high of around 12 percent indicates chronic labour underutilization in Jordan. Puzzlingly, however, employment elasticity is all the way positive reaching a high of 1.36 in 2011 (Table-12) implying that 1 percentage point of GDP growth is associated with 1.36 percentage point increase in employment. Employment generating capacity of the Jordanian economy, therefore, seems to be more statistical than real (mixed).

Table-12: Employment opportunities in Jordan

Indicators of employment opportunities	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
GDP growth rate	7.23	5.48	2.31	2.59	2.8
Employment growth rate	1.54	5.43	1.61	3.52	
Employment elasticity	0.21	0.99	0.70	1.36	
Employment-to-population ratio – Total		37	37	37	36
Employment-to-population ratio – Men		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Employment-to-population ratio – Women		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Unemployment rate – Total	12.0	12.9	12.5	12.9	12.3
Unemployment rate – Men	9.8	10.3	10.4	11.0	10.4
Unemployment rate – Women	22.1	24.1	21.7	21.2	19.9
Youth not in education and not in employment & training (NEET)% (15-24)		-	-	-	-
Informal employment rate		25.0			19.4
Labour force participation rate – Total		43	42	42	41
Labour force participation rate – Men		69	68	67	66
Labour force participation rate – Women		16	16	16	15
Youth unemployment rate – Total					27.0
Youth unemployment rate – Men		22.6	23.8	26.2	25.2
Youth unemployment rate – Women		45.9	47.1	46.8	48.8

Sources: (1) The World Bank, World Development Indicators, 2012. Al Manar, 2010. (2) ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM), 2013, www.ilo.org/kilm

High rates of population growth have resulted in a labour force growth rate of about 4 to 5 percent annually, with more than 50,000 entrants to the labour market each year, resulting in unemployment rates ranging from 12 to 16 percent. Statistics show that in 2009, of the total number of unemployed, more than 58 percent were below the age of 29 (Al Manar, 2010). Unemployment is particularly high among the educated youth and women. Despite the government's extensive and subsidised health and education programme, its lack of targeting has resulted in a segmented labour market characterized by high unemployment amongst the highly educated. More than 80 percent of the unemployed men are educated at the secondary level and above, and as much as 75 percent of the unemployed women have an intermediate and university level education (Al Manar, 2010). Moreover, despite measures such as compulsory education through grade 10 and stricter

child labour laws, women's participation in economic activities is still far below that of men. They also face higher unemployment and lower wages, resulting in high female employment in the informal economy.

It is worth mentioning that the severity of the unemployment problem in Jordan is to some extent disguised by the low labour force participation rate of women with less than higher education. Jordan has one of the lowest labour force participation rates of those above 15 in the world: 64 percent for males and 14 percent for females. The female participation rate declines even further when it comes to females with less than higher education – something which could be due to a host of factors, particularly the very low wages on offer in the private sector resulting from the excess supply of labour (ILO, 2010). This implies that, even if the rate of job creation accelerates, the present high rates of unemployment are likely to persist given the current quality and wage structure of the labour market. If labour demand increases, any improvement in working conditions, most especially rates of pay, is likely to generate an increase in labour supply, as those previously economically inactive find the rewards of employment more attractive. As a consequence, unemployment rates will decline slowly, if at all, until the latent reserve of labour is exhausted. Hence, a continuation of the government's macroeconomic and labour policies in the future will perhaps lead to further growth in terms of GDP and investment, and even jobs, but may not lead to reduction of unemployment. Below, we highlight some of the major structural features of the Jordanian labour market, which need to be taken into account carefully when devising macroeconomic policies with the aim of reducing unemployment. These include the job destruction caused by the recent wave of economic liberalization and stabilization programmes; the significant share of migrant workers; high levels of emigration of Jordanian labour; low quality of jobs available in the market and infrastructure; and the expansion of the employment in the informal economy.

Job destruction after liberalisation: Various elements of Jordan's macroeconomic stabilization policies of the last two decades have resulted in higher levels of job destruction than job creation. One of these factors has been Jordan's drive towards fiscal consolidation and privatization. The public sector has been traditionally one of the largest employers in the Jordanian labour market. The relatively higher wages, social protection entitlements and lack of viable private sector employment opportunity has for long made the public sector a favoured choice of the new entrants to the labour market, particularly women. Female applicants for public sector forces reached 64 percent of the total in 2003. However, a reduction in the size of the government civil servant wage bill and a move towards privatization has been among the major economic 'reforms' of recent years. Jordan's rate of privatization has been faster than many regional economies, helped by its trade agreements with the US and Europe, yet the nature of this privatization process has not been employment-friendly.

Another factor, which has resulted in high levels of job destruction in recent years, is the nature of government's investment and trade strategies. Economic liberalization and export promotion in Jordan has particularly focused on low manufacturing sectors, such as apparel manufacturing, that offer poor working conditions, making them less attractive to domestic workers. The sudden and unprotected inflow of cheaper imports has undermined many domestic producers, pushing them out of business or directly affecting the employment and wages of their workers. Jordan's QIZs with the US are another element of Jordan's trade and investment policy that though attracting high levels of investment, have had devastating consequences for employment of nationals. To be eligible for free access to the U.S. market, products from the QIZs have to have at least 8 percent Israeli content, 11.7 percent Jordanian content, and a total content from Israel, Jordan, West Bank and Gaza, and/or the United States of at least 35 percent (Nazzal, 2005).

Though many have argued that QIZs have resulted in more jobs and higher foreign exchange reserves due to higher exports, the real impact of the QIZs on the Jordanian economy should be assessed on the basis of wages paid and on increases in domestic investment through spillover effects and re-investment of the profits in the Jordanian economy. Figures from the Jordan Investment Board (JIB) show that 88 percent of capital invested in the QIZs is from foreign firms. In addition, more than half of the workers in QIZs are migrant workers. Amongst the Jordanian workers, the majority are women who are paid lower wages. Finally, most of the goods produced in these trade zones are low level manufacturing products such as low cost clothing destined for the





American market, which have low value-added and hardly represent a real diversification of Jordan's productive structure. In a drive to reduce the costs of production, wages and working conditions are being depressed in these trade zones, resulting in higher employment of migrant workers who are willing to accept such conditions. The decline in real wages in Jordan in recent years is an indication of the impact of migrant workers in turning Jordan's labour-surplus economy into a low-skilled, low productivity, low wage equilibrium. This in turn requires a combined macroeconomic and labour policy effort aimed at generating high value added jobs with wages in line with expectations of the Jordanians. This would be also important in order to attract the large number of skilled Jordanian labour force currently working abroad.

Quality of jobs: The growth of the Jordanian economy has been concentrated in sectors, which do not offer 'high quality' jobs to the educated Jordanian labour force. In other words, there is a mismatch between the labour market demand and the skills and educational backgrounds of the workers. The young, mostly educated Jordanians, do not show any interest in adopting the low-skilled, manual jobs offered by the mining manufacturers or the QIZs, as these not only have no association with their subject of study but are also low-paid, offer poor working conditions and lack social security. According to official statistics, only 42 percent of the labour force in Jordan is covered by the social security system. The surge in the rate of inflation in recent years has further dampened the already low wages, which dominate in these sectors, making them even more unattractive to the skilled labour force. Jordanian workers' refusal to accept low-wage employment is often attributed to their high 'expectations' about their employment prospects and earning potential. However, as argued below, rather than being a matter of unrealistic expectations, this highlights the mismatch between the high levels of education, training and experience of the labour force and the prevailing low wages on offer in the economy. Evidence shows that Jordanians would be ready to accept even unpleasant jobs if they paid well enough (World Bank, 2008). This phenomenon has led to high levels of 'voluntary unemployment'— something, which cannot be easily reduced by boosting investment and GDP. Around 54 percent of the unemployed fall under the category of the 'voluntarily unemployed' (World Bank, 2008). An increase in economic growth may lead to a partial reduction in the number of those involuntarily unemployed, but is insufficient to reduce voluntary unemployment. The jobs that have been created in the QIZs, which are characterized by low pay and poor working conditions, have gone to migrant workers who are willing to accept them.

One of the consequences of the low quality of available jobs in the economy is the high rate of 'inactivity' in the labour market. According to its official definition, individuals are considered to be outside the labour force, or 'inactive', if they are neither employed nor unemployed, that is, not actively seeking work. Jordan records high rate of economic inactivity. The latest figures show that as of 2011, 'there are around 3.5 million people aged between 16 and 64 who are eligible for work, out of them 1.4 million are economically active and 2.1 million are inactive, 30 percent of them are students' (Obeidat, 2011). This highlights lack of decent and productive employment opportunities, which could encourage Jordanians to seek employment. The low quality and attractiveness of jobs offered in the Jordanian labour market are further demonstrated through the large number of the 'working poor', which refers to those who work for under US\$ 2 a day. In the case of Jordan, 7.5 percent of the population between 1997 and 2007, and 13 percent of those employed during 1997-2003, constituted the working poor (Saif, 2009).

The high levels of voluntary unemployment and 'inactivity' in the labour market are reinforced by the relatively high reservation wages of Jordanians, which stem from the expectations of obtaining higher-paid public sector jobs and receiving income support from their families. The expectations of civil service jobs, which pay higher wages on average than the private sector, reinforces the unemployed person's hesitation in accepting existing low-wage jobs. In addition, public sector employment offers greater job security. Thus, it is highly attractive, particularly for those with low levels of education. The contrast between the conditions of public and private sector employment for those with basic education is such that new entrants to the labour force are willing to remain unemployed in the hope that they will find a job in the public sector (Al Manar, 2010).

Most recently, the government of Jordan has announced a national strategy for employment through 'striking a balance between demand and supply in the labour market'. Although

establishing funds to support SMEs can lead to some levels of employment creation, it is an increase in and diversification of domestic and international demand for goods and services produced by the Jordanian economy, which would play a more important role in generating further and more sustainable employment levels. Realizing the dangerous nature of very high rates of economic inactivity amongst the labour force and its ability to limit the state's ability to combat poverty and unemployment, the government has proposed the introduction of structural policies in the areas of support to SMEs, introduction of more decent jobs, greater coordination between the demand and supply in the labour market, and a revision of the government's labour immigration policy (Obeidat, 2011).

Similarly in the area of investment in industry and trade, Jordan's Executive Development Program (EDP) for 2011-13 aimed to provide (a) an enabling environment for business and investment, and enhance the competitiveness of the national economy on local, regional and international fronts; and (b) new job opportunities and upgrade and modernize the industrial sector with the aim of expanding its capacity and competitiveness. The government aims to adopt policies which enhance partnership between the public and private sectors in industry and trade, support the industrial sector (Industrial Policy), and promote local industries. Both these agricultural and industrial policies have the potential to expand the economy's employment generating capacity. Although the policies aimed at expansion of trade, industry and agriculture have the potential to increase employment opportunities in these sectors, the EDP's approach to employment generation fails to address the issue of unemployment as a standalone issue and considers it as a spillover of expansion of other economic sectors.

Migrant Workers in Jordan

Jordan's liberalization policies and the drive towards expanding competitiveness through a race-to-the-bottom in terms of reducing wages and prices of other inputs has in some cases resulted in low-paid jobs created by foreign investments which dominate Jordan's trade and investment scene, particularly in the QIZs. These low-paid jobs were often filled by migrant workers who would be ready to accept the low wages and poor working conditions prevailing in these employment categories. The working conditions in these export zones have been repeatedly criticised by various international organizations which have accused them of violating labour rights (National Labour Committee, 2006). In addition, the poor conditions offered in the QIZs have encouraged the expansion of the informal economy.

Several of the sectors with the highest GDP growth in recent years, including manufacturing and construction, have produced a large number of low-skilled, low-wage jobs that were unattractive to Jordanian workers and were, hence, picked up by migrants. A similar trend has happened in the agricultural sector. This has led to a net decrease in jobs for Jordanians. According to the DOS, during 2000 to 2005 between 52 to 63 percent of newly created jobs were filled by migrants. As a result of this trend, in 2009, foreign workers in Jordan numbered more than 335,000 (Table-13), far more than the number of unemployed Jordanians which stood at 180,000 in the same year. Migrant workers are mainly young men with low levels of education from other countries in the region, particularly Iraq, Palestine, and Egypt. The exact number of migrant workers in Jordan is estimated at about 20 percent of the Jordanian labour force. They are often concentrated in the export zones as well as the agriculture, construction and manufacturing sectors (Al Manar, 2010).



Table-13: Comparison of the number of Jordanian unemployed and migrant workers

Year	Registered foreign workers	Employed Jordanians	Total Employment	Unemployed Jordanians
2000	110,580	908,314	1,018,894	143,730
2001	136,573	920,042	1,056,615	158,566
2002	127,181	951,612	1,078,793	171,430
2003	148,823	969,171	1,117,994	164,431
2004	218,756	1,012,734	1,231,490	144,236
2005	261,781	1,023,681	1,285,462	177,359
2006	289,730	1,055,847	1,345,577	171,390
2007	313,196	1,140,446	1,453,642	172,203
2008	303,325	1,172,701	1,476,026	170,114
2009	335,708	1,220,521	1,556,229	180,284

Source: Al Manar, 2010

In general, migrant workers are less skilled and have received less training than Jordanian workers, but their readiness to accept jobs with low salaries and poor working conditions and their general flexibility make them a favourable option for most employers. Furthermore, Jordanians' expectations of employment opportunities that satisfy their academic and professional qualifications have made them less 'employable'. Nonetheless, improving the quality of education continues to be important in promoting relevant fields of specialisation. Among university study fields, unemployment rates in agriculture, veterinary, and educational specializations have remained twice as high as those of engineers and health care workers. Although highlighting the lack of informative mechanisms and a mismatch between supply and demand in the labour market, this is also an indication of low levels of output and productivity in such sectors, which could potentially be a source of employment.

More recently, the government's National Strategy for Employment has set out plans for replacing migrant workers with Jordanian workers. In the short-term it aims to replace guest workers with local labour, particularly in the services, hospitality, water, electricity, health, construction and trade sectors, whereas in the medium term, this strategy will expand to the sectors of mining, industry and agriculture. Parallel to this, the government aims to boost investments in sectors and industries which employ the majority of Jordanians in order to also ensure a dynamic expansion of employment opportunities in the country (Obeidat, 2011).

The new Provisional Amended Labour Law aims to better organize and regulate the employment of non-Jordanians, and include clauses on domestic workers. However, while under the new Social Security Law all workers in Jordan can be potentially covered by social security regardless of their nationality, this does not seem to benefit domestic workers, most of whom are migrants. Under the 'Jordanisation' policies of the Jordanian government, agriculture and construction were considered as the first sectors where Jordanians could start replacing migrant workers (by offering to subsidize the salaries and social security contributions of Jordanian employees). Similar policies were also implemented across the QIZs: any company that hires a new Jordanian is eligible to hire two migrant workers with an exemption of permit fees. Finally, in partnership with the private sector, the Ministry of Labour establishes a number of agreements with some of the occupational sectors to facilitate the replacement of migrant workers with Jordanians by setting some targets for the shares of these two groups in company workforces.

Emigration of skilled Jordanian labour

Jordan is a country, which relies heavily on external sources of revenue, including remittances from Jordanians who have gone abroad in search of better employment opportunities. Since the early



1970s and the first oil boom, Jordan has been exporting a large number of workers to the oil-exporting Gulf countries, providing high levels of remittances for the Jordanian economy. In 2009, remittance constituted 20 percent of Jordan's GDP. Following the Gulf War, around 300,000 Jordanians who had sought employment in the oil-rich Gulf economies since the late 1980s, returned home. As a result, there was a sudden disruption of remittances and aid flows from the oil-rich Gulf economies. In addition, the gradual increase in migrant workers from other regions in the Gulf countries, which began in the mid-1980s, also contributed to a steady decline in remittances observed until the mid-1990s. The Gulf war had a major direct bearing on all the sectors of the Jordanian economy, as well as the labour market, resulting in an unemployment rate of nearly 30 percent and an increase in the poverty rate to 33 percent. The gradual normalisation of political relations between Jordan and the Gulf countries in the years, which followed resulted in the resumption and full recovery of remittances which reached almost USD 2 billion in 2002. Since then, remittances have on average constituted 20 percent of GDP. Some argue that the actual level of remittances can be as much as 60 percent to three times higher than the official figures (El-Sakka, 2005).

The emigration of Jordanian workers has also led to labour shortage at home, fuelling larger scale entrance of migrant workers, and deprived the economy of essential skills and human capital. According to the Ministry of Labour, in 2008, about 4.9 percent of the total Jordanian population lived abroad. Estimates from the International Labour Organization (ILO) indicate that around 600,000 Jordanians, half the size of the Jordanian labour force at home, work abroad and are often employed in skill-intensive jobs. This is an indication of an imbalanced skills situation whereby local supply of skills exceeds local demand for skills at prevailing wages. The decline of oil prices and economic activity in many of the oil-exporting economies following the global economic crisis of 2008-09, resulted in a decline in employment opportunities in the Arab region by around 20 percent in 2009, with demand for labour declining by 30 percent (GMG, 2010). Evidence has also shown that remittances, as a form of unearned income or rent, can reduce labour supply by acting as a disincentive for other members of the recipient households to work. This can lead both to a decline in labour force participation and an increase in unemployment.

Informal Economy

Jordan's economic growth has failed to produce sufficient formal employment that provides social protection for its workers. Thus, employment in the informal economy has gained much importance. According to unofficial estimates, the informal economy accounts for about 20 percent of GDP and employs about 25 percent of the workers. The jobs created in the formal economy are inadequate for the 50-60 thousand new entrants to the labour market each year. Other reasons behind the growth of the informal economy in Jordan are the high rates of poverty at 14.7 percent in 2005; a high rate of population growth, especially inflated by large inflows of refugees; the mismatch between the skills of the labour force and the demands of the economy; the bureaucratic tax procedures and licensing requirements for setting up businesses, and the unforeseen costs involved in establishing a formal business; the higher standards of living in urban areas and the labour flight from rural to urban centres; and the acceleration of the privatization and restructuring programmes, which have resulted in large scale job losses. The drive towards privatization and minimizing public enterprises has resulted in a large number of private establishments (Shawabkeh, 2007).

According to the Department of Statistics, micro (1-4 workers) and small (5-19 workers) enterprises constitute 98 percent of all firms in Jordan. These firms are responsible for around half to two-thirds of private sector employment in Jordan. Apart from very limited potentials for employment generation, this private sector structure also limits the resources available for workers in terms of training, career development, and social security. Therefore, added to the prominent presence of non-Jordanian workers, the Jordanian labour market is also segmented between formal employment in the public and private sector and employment in the informal economy with very low mobility between the two areas (ETF, 2011).

The informal economy is said to be growing faster than the formal economy, as indicated by low official levels of labour participation rate (25%), creating most of the new jobs, with migrant workers



and women constituting around 75 percent of employees in this sector. These are mainly agricultural workers, home-workers, domestic employees, the self-employed, unpaid family workers, and workers in unregistered enterprises as well as the QIZs. Since the employers in the informal economy do not pay taxes, they do not benefit from various labour and business regulations; hence, leaving workers with inadequate protection and social security, lower wages, lack of application of international and national labour laws, lack of occupational safety standards, and harsh working conditions. Although the informal economy provides a cushioning effect at times of economic downturn, low working standards minimize the positive effects of the informal economy employment. Although desirable, provision of training and rehabilitation to the workers in the informal economy is insufficient for moving workers to the formal labour market, as it is the unavailability of productive and decent employment opportunities, rather than labour skills that is the real obstacle to this move (ibid).

Rules and Regulations for Migrant Workers in Jordan

In the words of the Labour Law and its Amendments No. 8 of the Year 1996: Any non-Jordanian worker might not be employed except by the approval of the Minister or whom he authorizes provided that the work shall entail an experience and qualification not available in the Jordanian workers, or that the number of the qualified Jordanian workers does not meet the need, the priority shall be given to the Arab experts, technicians, and workers. The non-Jordanian worker shall obtain an employment permit from the Minister or whom he authorizes before his/her engagement, the term of the permit shall not exceed one year renewable. Upon renewal, the term of the employment permit shall be calculated from the expiry date of the last employment permit he has obtained. The Ministry shall receive a fee from the employer in return for the employment permit that it issues or renews for each non-Jordanian worker including the excluded workers from the provisions of this law by virtue of paragraphs of article (3) of this law, this fee shall be considered as a revenue to the treasury, the amount of this fee shall be determined in accordance with a regulation issued for this purpose. The Ministry shall receive an additional amount for each employment permit issued or renewed by the Ministry from the employer for the employees indicated in item (1) of this paragraph and in accordance with the regulation issued by its virtue, this amount shall be allocated to the Fund for Support of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) established in accordance with the effective Technical And Vocational Education and Training Council Law. By a recommendation of the Ministry of Social Development, the Minister may exempt those who have severe disabilities or their guardians from paying the fees and amounts indicated in this article for one non-Jordanian worker if the disabled was in a sore need for assistance from others to meet his daily life requirements, and the level of his/her income or the income of his/her guardian entails this exemption provided that the duties of the non-Jordanian worker shall be limited to providing assistance to the disabled, the conditions of this recommendation and the procedures of its issuance shall be determined by virtue of instructions issued by the Minister of Social Development for this purpose. The employer or the establishment manager shall be punished by a fine not less than 100 JD and not exceeding 150 JD for each month or part of month of employing a non-Jordanian worker in violation of the provisions of this law. This fine shall not be less than its minimum limit in any case and for any reason. Employing a non-Jordanian worker shall be considered as a violation of the provisions of this law in any of the following cases: (i) Employing the non-Jordanian worker without obtaining an employment permit. (ii) Employing the non-Jordanian worker for an employer other than the one specified in the permit unless he/she has obtained a permission of this from the competent authority in the Ministry. (iii) Employing the non-Jordanian worker in an occupation other than the one for which he/she has obtained the permit. The Minister shall issue a decision of expelling the worker contravening the provisions of this article abroad the Kingdom at the expense of the employer or the manager of the establishment. This decision shall be implemented by the competent authorities, the expelled non-Jordanian worker might not be re-employed in Jordan and may not re-enter Jordan before three years at least from the date of implementing the decision of expel (Article 12).

According to Regulation No. (36) of The Regulation of Employment Permits Fees for Non-Jordanian Workers of the Year 1997, Issued by virtue of Article (12) of the Labour Law No. (8) of the Year 1996, a fee for issuing or the renewal of an employment permit for a full or part of a year shall be



collected from the employer as follows: Three hundred JD for non-Arab workers, including all sectors other than the agricultural one. One hundred and eighty JD for the Arab worker, including all sectors other than the agricultural one. One hundred and twenty JD for the non-Arab worker in the agricultural sector. Sixty JD for the Arab worker in the agricultural sector. The provision of article (2) of the original system is cancelled and replaced by the following: A fee for issuing or renewal of a work permit for a full or part of a year is collected from the employer as follows: (a) Three hundred JD for non-Arabian workers, including all sectors other than the agriculture. (b) One hundred and eighty JD for the Arabian worker, including all sectors other than the agriculture. (c) One hundred and twenty JD for the non-Arabian worker in the agriculture sector. (d) Sixty JD for the Arabian worker in the agriculture sector (Article (4)).

A fee for issuing or renewal of a work permit for each non-Arabian worker, for a full or part of a year is collected from the employer in eligible industrial areas as follows: (i) One hundred and fifty JD for the first three years of establishing the project. (ii) One hundred and seventy five JD for the fourth year and the years that follow the establishment of the project. The fees are collected upon expansion of any existing project at the eligible industrial areas. The rules and terms of expanding the existing projects are specified according to the instructions that are issued by the Minister for that purpose. The provision of article (3) of the original regulation is cancelled and replaced with the following: A fee for issuing or the renewal of an employment permit for each non-Arab worker, for a full or part of a year is collected from the employer in the qualified industrial zones as follows: (i) One hundred and fifty JD for the first year of establishing the project. (ii) Two and twenty five JD for the second year of the project. (iii) Three hundred JD for the third year and the years that follow the establishment of the project. The provisions of this article are effective as of 1/1/2002 for the establishments that exist in the QIZs before issuing this regulation. The fees provided in this article are collected upon expansion of any existing project at the QIZs. The rules and terms of expanding the existing projects are specified according to the instructions that are issued by the Minister for that purpose (Article (3)). The Minister may issue the instructions needed to implement the provisions of this regulation, including the instructions that are related to the terms and procedures of bringing and employing non-Jordanian workers and the form of the employment permit (Article (4)).

According to the Instructions for the Conditions and Procedures of Bringing and Employing Non-Jordanian Workers, Issued by virtue of the Provisions of Article (4) of the Employment Permits: A committee shall be formed from the Ministry officials and shall be called (Employment Committee) which shall have jurisdiction over looking into the applications of bringing workers from outside the Kingdom as well as the applications of employing the non-Jordanian workers inside the Kingdom in the cases instructed by the Minister (Article (3)). Any employer who wants to bring or employ a non-Jordanian worker should do the following: (a) Fill in the used form of bringing and employment, including the following: (i) The name of the establishment, name of its owner or in-charge director, its address, work nature and branches, if any. (ii) The name of the worker as in his/her passport, his/her nationality and the profession that he/she will practise. (b) The employment application should be enclosed with the following documents: (i) Two copies of the work contract. (ii) Presentation of a valid vocational licence of the establishment with a copy attached, or submitting a public works licence and a land registration deed with an attached copy in case the employed worker is a cleaner in a building or villa, or submitting a recommendation from the concerned directorate of agriculture if he/she is an agricultural worker. (iii) A copy of the worker's passport provided that it shall be valid. (iv) A list issued by the General Social Security Corporation, indicating that all the employer's workers are subscribed in the social security and that all the subscriptions are paid by the date of submitting the application. (v) A copy of the projects and tenders undertaken by the employer, if any, indicating the entity referring these tenders to the employer. (vi) A valid medical check-up certificate from one of the health centres that is approved by the Ministry of Health. (vii) A photo of the worker. (viii) The establishment form number (1) or a copy of the notification of its delivery to the directorate. (c) The bringing application should be enclosed with the following documents: (i) Presentation of a valid vocational license of the establishment with a copy attached. Or submitting a recommendation issued by the concerned directorate of agriculture if the worker intended to be brought will be working in the agricultural sector. (ii) A copy of the projects and tenders undertaken by the employer, if any, indicating the entity referring these tenders to the employer. (iii) A copy of the worker's passport that is valid for not less than six months. (iv) Two



copies of the work contract which will be submitted when the application is approved. (v) The required documents shall be submitted when the worker enters the Kingdom territories in accordance with the above-mentioned item, in addition to a duly authenticated certificate of non-conviction issued by the competent authorities of the worker's country. (vi) Once the application is approved, the fees of employment permits shall be paid in advance. (vii) The employer shall submit a judicial or bank guarantee in the agricultural sector and a bank guarantee for all other sectors according to the wording that is endorsed by the Ministry. The guarantee shall be used according to a decision of the competent court, if the employer violates any of the obligations arising from the law, the regulations that were issued accordingly, or these instructions, and to ensure the worker's rights and the value of the ticket needed to repatriate the worker to his/her country (Article (4).

This is accomplished as follows: A guarantee for the workers of the nationalities that are restricted in the Law of Residence – The value of the guarantee is 300 JD for each of these workers intended to be brought or employed. A guarantee for workers whose nationalities are not restricted in the Law of Residence – The value of the guarantee is: (i) 30000 JD if the number of the brought or employed workers is between 201 and 300; (ii) 400000 JD if the number of the brought or employed workers is more than 300; (iii) 1000 JD if the number of the brought or employed workers is between three and ten; (iv) 2000 JD if the number of the brought or employed workers is between eleven and twenty; (v) 5000 JD if the number of the brought or employed workers is between twenty one and fifty; (vi) 10000 JD if the number of the brought or employed workers is between fifty one and one hundred; and (vii) 20000 JD if the number of the brought or employed workers is between 101 and 200. The governmental departments and universities, Amman Great Municipality, municipalities and regional offices are excluded from these guarantees.

The employer may appoint one or more of good conduct persons to represent him in following up his/her applications before the Ministry. This could be done through an annual card issued by the Ministry. It is stipulated that the representative should not be a representative for more than one employer. In order to issue or renew the representative authorization card, the following documents shall be submitted: (i) An application presented by the employer. (ii) A certificate of non-conviction. (iii) A security approval issued by the competent authorities. The Ministry shall receive an annual fee of ten JD for the issuance or renewal of the card (Article (6). The Ministry has the right to cancel the representative's card at any time if it becomes obvious that he/she has not complied with laws, regulations and these instructions. The approval of the bringing application is valid for two months as of the date of obtaining it and the employer should complete the procedure needed for the worker to enter the country during this period, as well as the procedures needed to obtain the employment permit. The validity of the employment permit starts from the date in which the worker entered the country (Article (7). The employer or the approved representative should refer to the competent directorate in case he/she wants to renew the employment permit of the non-Jordanian worker one month before its expiry. He/she should also inform the directorate if he/she did not wish to renew the permit, so that the worker's name will be eliminated from the establishment records (Article (8). The employment permit of the non-Jordanian worker shall be issued after obtaining the approval of the Minister or whoever he authorizes, according to a special form that includes the following: (i) The name of the worker according to his/her passport, his/her date of birth, nationality and the profession which he/she is allowed to practise and whether he/she is brought from outside the Kingdom or employed from inside. (ii) The name of the employer, establishment or the farm in which the worker works. (iii) The date in which the employment permit becomes valid and the date of its expiry. (iv) The numbers and dates of the receipts. (v) The stamp and the signature of the director of the concerned directorate of labour. The Ministry shall receive ten JD from the employer for each worker for the application of bringing or employment or for the renewal of the employment permit needed for the approved worker (Article (9).

According to the provisions, these instructions are implemented for all sectors, except for the sector of the domestic workers or those working in the QIZs and pursuant to the following bases: (i) Bringing, employing or renewing the employment permits of the non-Jordanian workers is carried out according to the needs of the work market sectors, taking into consideration the list of closed professions, providing that the Ministry will define the percentage of the non-Jordanian labour in any of the economical sectors in order to serve the policy of the gradual replacement of



the non-Jordanian labour with the Jordanian. (ii) The employment permit shall not be given to a non-Jordanian individual who has entered the Kingdom for a purpose other than work or has obtained his/her social security due payments in order to leave the Kingdom completely. (iii) The employment permits for the nationalities that are restricted to the annual residence which is conditioned by one year are renewed after addressing the Ministry of Interior about them in accordance with the specific rules indicated in these instructions. (iv) If the employer has failed to renew the employment permit for any worker of the restricted or non restricted nationalities, the Ministry shall receive a fee for the permit in a retroactive effect from the day on which the previous permit has expired. (v) If the worker of restricted or non-restricted nationalities has changed his/her employer, the Ministry shall receive a fee from the new employer for the period of failing to obtain the employment permit not exceeding one year. (vi) The employment permit shall not be given or renewed to a non-Jordanian worker against whom a decision to expel was made, unless the decision was cancelled. (vii) It is not allowed for a worker of the restricted nationalities, who was employed or brought from outside the Kingdom, to be transferred from one employer to another, unless it was approved by the Employment Committee. (viii) It is not permitted for any worker of the restricted or non-restricted nationalities to be transferred from Aqaba Economic Zone to any sector or guarantor outside that zone. (ix) The non-Jordanian worker is given a no-objection to pay out his/her due amounts of the social security as he/she wishes to leave the country completely, on the condition that he/she shall submit an application of this within a period not exceeding three months of the date in which his/her employment permit has expired. Otherwise, the employment permit fees shall be collected in order to grant him/her a no-objection. (x) The employer shall inform the directorate which issued the employment permit about the abandonment of the non-Jordanian worker of his/her work during the period in which the work permit is valid. (xi) The worker of non-restricted nationalities should inform the Directorate of Labour which issued his/her employment permit once he/she leaves work for any reason during the period in which the permit is valid. Otherwise, he/she shall not be given a permit to work for any other employer. (xii) The regional office will be granted the required number of labour within the professions that are permissible for non-Jordanians, based on a letter issued by the Ministry of Industry and Trade, on the condition that the number of the Jordanian employees is not less than half, without including the office director and his representative. (xiii) It is not permitted for the brought worker of non restricted nationalities to be transferred from one employer to another during the period in which the employment permit is valid. However, the worker of such nationalities can be transferred during the period in which the employment permit is valid, stipulated that he/she shall obtain a quittance from his/her employer and after the employment permit is cancelled by the competent directorate. But, it is allowed to be transferred to another employer after expiry of the employment permit without the approval of the former employer. (xiv) It is not permissible for the agricultural worker who is brought or employed to be transferred to another sector, whether he/she was of a restricted or non-restricted nationalities. It is also not allowed for any worker of other sectors to be transferred to the agricultural sector. Moreover, it is not allowed for the brought worker to be transferred from one employer to another within the agricultural sector except after two years of being brought (Article (10). Regardless of what have been stated in these instructions about the workers of non-restricted nationalities, the rules that apply to workers of the Egyptian nationality are different (Article (11) and are not reported here.

According to Regulation No. 3 of The Regulation of Organizing the Private Offices of Bringing and Employing Non-Jordanian Domestic Workers of the year 2003: In order to license an office, the following requirements shall be fulfilled: (A) Its purposes shall be limited to mediation works to bring and employ houses servants, gardeners, cooks and the like of non-Jordanians. (B) Observing the implementation of the terms and provisions stated in the pledge which is prepared by the Ministry ensuring the good conduct of services. (C) Submitting a bank guarantee to the Ministry in the amount of fifty thousand JD according to the wording which is approved by the Minister, in order to ensure that the office will implement the terms and obligations arising pursuant to the provisions of this regulation and the instructions and decisions issued accordingly. The Minister may confiscate the guarantee and use it to cover the compensations resulting from the violation of the obligations. (D) Abiding by other terms that are determined by the Minister according to the instructions which he issues for this purpose. The Minister will issue his decision to license the office according to the approved form that



is prepared by the Ministry for this purpose (Article (4). Taking into consideration the provisions of any other legislation and in the context of carrying out its duties, the office may do the following:

(i) Fulfil the demands of the house owners who want to bring or employ non-Jordanian workers in their homes, after acquiring the approval of the Ministry, in accordance with the approved procedures. (ii) Following up completion of the procedures needed to bring and employ non-Jordanian domestic workers at the competent authorities through a written authorization from the owners of the houses. It is not permissible for the office to carry out mediation to bring or employ non-Jordanians to work at homes using its name or for individuals other than the owners of the houses (Article (5). The Minister shall approve the registers and contract forms related to organizing the works of the office, in addition to the forms of other contracts or documents which he finds necessary for that purpose. The office shall keep the registers, contracts and documents mentioned in this article. The labour inspector has the right to check and take copies of these documents (Article (6). The fees taken by the office for providing services are specified according to the instructions that are issued by the Minister for that purpose (Article (7). The Minister may temporarily stop the office from being licensed upon violating the terms of the pledge, the provisions of this regulation and the instructions which are issued accordingly, on the condition that the office is warned to remove the violation within a specified period. If the office did remove the violation within the specified period, it will be at the risk of cancelling the licence (Article (8). Pursuant to any other legislation, all offices which work in bringing and employing non-Jordanians domestic workers shall amend their situation by submitting applications to be licensed according to the provisions of this regulation (Article (9). The Minister will issue the instructions required to implement the provisions of this regulation (Article (10).

According to the "Instructions for the Conditions and Procedures of Licensing and Organizing the Private Offices of Bringing and Employing Non-Jordanian Domestic Workers of the year 2006", Issued by virtue of the Regulation No. 3 of the Year 2003 for Organizing the Private Offices of Bringing and Employing Non-Jordanian Domestic Workers, the Minister shall appoint a committee of the concerned officials of the Ministry which is called "Committee of the affairs of the private offices of bringing and employing the non-Jordanian domestic workers". The Committee shall carry out the following: (i) Receiving applications for issuing and renewing licences of the offices, recording these applications in a special register, verifying the validity of the data and documents, making sure that the required conditions are met and submitting the proper recommendations in this regard to the Minister. (ii) Considering all matters related to these offices and taking the proper measures regarding them. (iii) Other tasks commissioned to the Committee by the Minister (Article (3). Licence applicant shall fulfil the following conditions: (a) Be a duly registered Jordanian company. (b) The partners shall be Jordanians; none of them is convicted with a felony, or a delict violating honour or public morals. (c) Present a certified copy of a valid vocational licence. (d) Sign the pledge form prepared by the Ministry to ensure his/her good conduct of services. In case the applicant was a judicial person, the following requirements should be fulfilled: (i) Be a duly registered Jordanian company. (ii) Its sole objective shall be carrying out the mediation role in bringing or employing the non-Jordanian domestic workers. (iii) Present certified copies of the registration certificate, the contract of incorporation and the certificate of persons authorized to sign on behalf of the company. (iv) The authorized person shall sign the pledge form prepared by the Ministry to ensure the good conduct of services. The Committee, upon receiving all required documents, shall consider the licence application and present its recommendations to the Minister. Upon the recommendation of the committee, the Minister shall issue the required licence in accordance with the approved form and other documents required by the Committee (Article (4).

In order to perform its services and meet the needs of house owners, the office shall do the following: On behalf of the house owner and according to his/her written authorization, the office shall submit to the Ministry a written application asking for the approval to bring or employ the non-Jordanian worker. The followings shall be enclosed with the application: (i) Two copies of the work contract signed by the house owner (employer) and certified by embassy of the worker (employee). (ii) The written authorization signed by the house owner, which authorizes the office with procedures of bringing or employment. (iii) Paying the employment permit for the worker to be brought before bringing the worker. (iv) Other documents required by the Ministry or forms required to be filled as



the situation may require. Having the documents verified, the Ministry of the Interior shall be addressed to grant approval and the required entry visa. Upon the arrival of the worker to Jordan, the office undertakes to refer to the concerned authorities in order to complete the procedures of obtaining an employment permit and annual residence permission in accordance with the applicable laws and regulations in addition to making the medical examination for the worker in the approved medical centres. In case the worker was found to have an infectious disease, the office then, at its expense, undertakes to repatriate the worker, and to provide the house owner, within a month, with another worker without any additional expenses on the side of the house owner. Substitution of the worker in such case shall be with the same already paid fees. Same procedures shall be carried out in case a female worker was found pregnant. Upon arrival of the worker to Jordan, the office shall accompany him/her directly to his/her principal warrantor; under no circumstances the office may keep the worker staying. If that was not attainable, the office then, at its own expenses, shall take the necessary measures, in coordination with the concerned security authorities and embassy of the worker's country, to repatriate him/her. The office shall bear responsibilities, expenses and compensations for damages and liabilities that might arise in case the office violates regulations, instructions issued by its virtue, provisions or obligations mentioned in the pledge. In case, for whatever reason, the worker has not arrived to Jordan, the worker may be substituted by another worker from outside Jordan, with the same already paid fees, provided that, the office shall present a proof of non-entry of the first worker, the cancellation of his/her visa and the application for substitution was submitted within two months following the date of approval of bringing the first worker (Article (5)).

The office may not act as an agency for bringing or employing those workers whose age is less than 18. The office may appoint one or more persons to represent it before the concerned authorities, so as to follow up the office's applications, provided that, the representative shall present a written authorization, given by the person authorized to sign on behalf of the office, endorsed by the Ministry as per an accreditation card issued for this purpose and renewed yearly. Except with the Minister's approval, the office may not establish a branch inside Jordan. In case of approval, all mentioned conditions apply to the branch. The office undertakes to provide the Ministry, at the end of each month, with full information in relation to its activities and services, using the special form that the Ministry prepares (Article (6)).

The Ministry collects the following fees from the offices: (a) Fees for issuing an office licence: one hundred JD. (b) Fees for issuing or renewing an accreditation card of an office representative: Fifty JD (Article (7)). The office shall collect fees from the house owner according to the following percentages: (i) 10 percent of the total wages of the worker for the whole term of the contract agreed upon between the house owner and the worker; (ii) 2 percent of the total wages of the worker for the whole term of contract agreed upon between the house owner and the worker, when renewing permit through the office. For the purpose of collecting any of these percentages, term of a contract shall not exceed 12 months. Amounts specified in this Article are inclusive of all fees of the office for all services provided to the house owner. The office may not collect further amounts whether from the house owner or the worker (Article (8)). Applications submitted by an office shall not be considered in case that office had violated provisions of applicable laws, in particular, the Law of Labour and the regulations and instructions issued by its virtue, including these instructions, unless the violations were rectified (Article (9)). The "Instructions for the Conditions and Procedures of Licensing and Organizing the Private Offices of Bringing and Employing Non-Jordanian Domestic Workers" in addition to the obligations arising from them for the year 2003 shall be cancelled (Article (10)).

II.5.2 Projection of Employment for Bangladeshis in Jordan for the Next Five and Ten Years

The future evolution of labour migration in Jordan will be shaped by the demographic trends and economic growth likely to continue in the future, and the demand for labour could continue to increase. In the next five to ten years Jordan is likely to continue to attract migrant workers. It would not be surprising if the scenario of the past few years were to continue to apply in the future, with gross emigration flows moving in parallel with increasing immigration.



The preceding analysis has shown that migration in Jordan is influenced by changing economic circumstances, which make it particularly difficult to predict future developments of Bangladeshi migrants to Jordan. Mixed results are obtained from the migration trends conducted by various international organizations periodically in the country. It is clear from the results of these studies that the number of people wanting to leave Jordan is increasing year on year. It is also evident that the number of labour migrants is also increasing. Under these circumstances, in making projections for Bangladeshi migrants to Jordan in the next five and ten years the following assumptions are made:

- i. GDP in Jordan will grow faster than 2.8 percent in 2012 averaging 6 percent during the first five-year period and 9 percent during the second five-year period in a way to recover earlier growth scenario. Therefore, employment growth rates are likely to average 2 percent in the former and 3 percent in the latter projection period.
- ii. Other things remaining the same, Jordan will continue to encourage Bangladeshi migrants over the next decade.
- iii. Relative share of Bangladeshi migrants in Jordan will gradually increase due to elastic supply of job aspirants in Bangladesh over the next decade.

In making these projections, average number of Bangladeshi migrants to Jordan based on three-year moving averages during the last nine years has been used as the base in 2013. Projections have been made only for those occupations which predominate in the most recent years reflecting current market demand. Considerations have been given to (i) occupations with the most job growth, (ii) fastest growing occupations, and (iii) occupations with the largest projected number of job openings due to growth. Readymade garment (RMG), domestic work and housekeeping especially hold promise of job creation in Jordan. Results of the projections are presented in Table-14.

Table-14: Projection of Employment for Bangladeshis in Jordan by Occupation in the Next Five and Ten Years

Occupation	Average*	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Cleaning Labour	26	25	25	24	24	24	23	22	21	21	20
Cleaning Labour (Female)	86	89	91	94	97	100	104	108	112	117	121
Helper/Erector	139	141	143	145	148	150	153	157	160	164	167
Waiter/waitress	9	9	10	10	11	11	13	14	15	17	19
Housekeeper	985	1005	1025	1045	1066	1088	1120	1154	1188	1224	1261
Industrial Labour	878	896	913	932	950	969	998	1028	1059	1091	1124
Machine Operator	278	286	295	304	313	322	335	349	363	377	392
RMG Machine Operator (F)	2260	2305	2351	2398	2446	2495	2570	2647	2727	2808	2893
RMG Sewing Operator (F)	418	431	443	457	470	485	504	524	550	578	607
Linking Operator (F)	88	90	92	93	95	97	100	103	106	109	113
Sewer/Cutter	59	60	61	63	64	65	67	69	71	73	76
Single Needle Operator (F)	268	273	279	284	290	296	305	314	323	333	343
Iron Man/Arm Operator	34	35	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	44
Checker/Marker	36	37	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	45	46
Mason	15	15	16	16	16	17	17	18	18	19	19
Machine Operator	831	848	865	882	900	917	945	973	1003	1033	1064
Domestic Worker	1410	1438	1467	1496	1526	1557	1603	1652	1701	1752	1805
Tailor	38	39	40	40	41	42	43	45	46	47	49
Welder/Fabricator	9	9	9	10	10	10	10	11	11	11	12
Construction Worker	69	70	72	73	75	76	78	81	83	86	88

Occupation	Average*	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Guard/Sea Guard	6	6	7	7	7	8	8	9	10	11	12
Supervisor	11	11	11	12	12	12	13	14	14	15	15
Private Service	10	10	10	9	9	9	9	9	8	8	8
Quality Controller	29	28	26	25	24	22	21	19	17	16	14
Technician/Mechanic	12	12	13	13	14	14	14	15	16	16	17
Total	4186	8168	8336	8506	8684	8864	9133	9417	9706	10013	10329

Note: * indicates average employment of 3-year moving averages during the last nine years.

Source: Based on BMET data.

Shortages of Labour: In Jordan, shortage of labour figures most prominently in RMG followed in order by housekeeping and domestic works. Shortage in other occupations is for both skilled and unskilled workers in different sectors (Table- 14).

Markets for Bangladeshi women migrants: Available evidence indicates that there is huge market for RMG women workers in Jordan. The RMG occupations which are particularly suitable for the women workers encompass machine operation, sewing, linking and single needle operation. Jordan also has job openings for waitress, cleaners, housekeepers and domestic workers (Table- 14).

II.6 Qatar

Qatar: Country Summary

Qatar is a peninsula and a very wealthy medium-sized economy located in The Middle East. It has a population of 2.32 million people. Qatar's GDP grew at 6.2 percent in 2012. From 2004 until 2013, Qatar GDP growth rate averaged 4 percent reaching an all time high of 14.4 percent in June 2008 and a record low of -23.2 percent in December 2008. Qatar is one of the wealthiest countries in the world in terms of GDP per capita. Qatar's economy is highly dependent on oil and gas extraction. Since proven oil and gas reserves are estimated to sustain current production levels only for the medium run, the government has been making efforts to diversify the economy into a sustainable long-term income model. This includes investments in the petrochemical sector, promotion of a business tourism sector and reforms in its financial sector. GDP per capita, in purchasing power-adjusted dollar terms, is US\$ 100,889. Qatar has prospered in the last several years with continued high real GDP growth. Throughout the financial crisis Qatari authorities sought to protect the local banking sector with direct investments into domestic banks. GDP grew sharply in 2010 largely due to the increase in oil prices, and 2011's growth was supported by Qatar's investment in expanding its gas sector. GDP slowed to 6.6 percent in 2012 as Qatar's gas sector expansion moved toward completion. Economic policy is focused on developing Qatar's non-associated natural gas reserves and increasing private and foreign investment in non-energy sectors, but oil and gas still account for more than 50 percent of GDP, roughly 85 percent of export earnings, and 70 percent of government revenues. Oil and gas have made Qatar the world's highest per-capita income country and the country with the lowest unemployment. Qatar's successful 2022 World Cup bid will likely accelerate large-scale infrastructure projects such as Qatar's metro system, light rail system, and the Qatar-Bahrain causeway. The Hamad International Airport was projected to open by the end of 2013 with an annual passenger capacity of 24 million.

The population of Qatar increased from 591 thousand in 2000 to 2.1 million on 31 December 2013. This population shift is mainly attributed to international migration with a population growth rate of 10.04 percent between 2000 and 2013. Qatar today has a very high Human Development Index (0.831 in 2011) and is identified as a high income economy. Non-citizens in Qatar comprise about 87 percent of the country's population – the highest in the world. Qatar's



total workforce stood at 1.3 million. The large foreign workforce is attributed to increasing labour requirements in the construction sector, which is also the biggest employer among all economic sectors in the country. As works on development projects related to FIFA World Cup 2022 have begun, more foreign workers are needed to fill the jobs. Unemployment rate in Qatar decreased to 0.5 percent in 2012 from 0.6 percent in 2011. From 2001 to 2012, Qatar unemployment rate averaged 0.9 percent reaching an all time high of 3.9 percent in December 2001 and a record low of 0.3 percent in December 2008.

The private sector presently accounts for 74 percent of total employment in Qatar, with expatriates dominating the job market. Qatar's national workforce is heavily skewed towards the public sector, with their ratio being as high as 84 percent. Qataris prefer public jobs due to higher pay packages and perks. The pay rises implemented by the government in late 2011 have made it even more difficult for private companies to attract Qatari nationals. But the government's determination, as specified in its National Development Strategy 2011-16, is to increase the number of citizens in private jobs to 15 percent by 2016. Last year, the ratio was nearly half, at 8.5 percent, having grown at a snail's pace over the past four years, since 2008 when the figure was 6.8 percent.

The upcoming infrastructure development projects are expected to be labour-intensive and will require more foreign workers. So, population growth is expected to rise to 6.7 percent. As for labour force, the growth rate last year was 5.5 percent. The construction sector accounted for more than a third (37%) of the total workforce followed by wholesale and retail trade (13%). The domestic sector had a share of 10 percent in the total, while oil and gas had only six percent.

Despite the fact that about 87 percent of the population in Qatar are foreigners, one should bear in mind that the government of Qatar does not regard the country as a country of immigration. The government of Qatar label non-citizens as "contract labourers," which means that they do not accumulate any legal or citizenship rights by their duration of stay in Qatar, so that all regulations are tailored to deal with influx of workers and regulate their "temporary" engagement in the labour force. The government severely restricted foreign travel for noncitizens. All noncitizens require an exit permit from their employers to leave the country, and access to exit permits is dependent on the employer.

Employees in Qatar are not allowed to work for any other employer besides the one that sponsors them, and a sponsor cannot be transferred until the employee has worked for two years and has been granted a release letter. Workers cannot change jobs without their employers' consent, except in exceptional cases with permission from the Ministry of Interior. If a worker leaves his or her sponsoring employer, even if fleeing abuse, the employer can report the worker as "absconding," leading to detention and deportation.

Qatar is primarily a country of destination. Historically, migration to Qatar has been driven by economic factors, mainly oil production and the revenues of oil industry. Qatar has seen a tremendous increase in international migration over the past two decades. In 1990, there were 370 thousand international migrants who comprised about 79.1 percent of Qatar's entire population. The following decade, in 2000, this figure increased to 471 thousand, making migrants about 76.3 percent of the entire population. In 2010, number of international migrants increased to 1.3 million, making migrants about 87 percent of the total population of the country. As of August 2013, 94 percent of Qatar's labour force is reportedly foreign. Most of Qatari national workforce is absorbed in the public sector, while foreigners represent the vast majority of the private sector workforce. Qatar is a country of immigration rather than emigration. Qataris go abroad for study or business and they usually return. In 2010, there were about ten thousand Qataris abroad, accounting for 0.7% of Qatar's population.

Qatar is the first Middle Eastern nation to win the right to host the FIFA World Cup in 2022. This event puts spotlight on labour rights in Qatar. Hundreds of thousands of mostly South Asian migrant construction workers in Qatar risk serious exploitation and abuse, sometimes amounting to forced labour. The government of Qatar has one of the most restrictive sponsorship laws in the Gulf region, as workers cannot change jobs without their employer's



permission, regardless of the duration of their stay in Qatar, and all workers must get their sponsoring employer to sign an “exit permit” before they can leave the country.

GDP growth in Qatar leads to more jobs. A high EPR well above 80 percent and its stable trend usually indicates high and stable employment demand within the economy in terms of quantity of workers. A high ratio is not necessarily a positive result, as it may signal, for example, limited education options for young people, minimal or non-existent unemployment assistance or other social benefits and/or economic hardship. Ratios above 80 percent often indicate an abundance of low quality jobs. Besides, very low unemployment rate in Qatar signals to some extent the overutilization of the local labour supply reflecting strong ability of Qatari economy to generate employment for those persons who want to work. It is thus an indicator of the efficiency and effectiveness of Qatari economy to absorb its labour force and of the performance of the labour market. However, frictional unemployment is always present as persons laid off from their jobs seek new ones and new entrants and re-entrants to the labour market begin their job search. At the same time, structural unemployment is also commonly present as industry-occupation staffing patterns shift over time.

It is estimated that Qatar will recruit one million more workers to prepare for the World Cup. But working conditions for migrant workers in Qatar “amount to forced labour” with acts of debt bondage, confiscation of passports by employers, overcrowded and unsanitary labour camps, the absence of employment contracts and arbitrary salary deductions. The risk of workers dying in construction sites remains to be present. According to Qatari laws, foreign workers are not allowed to form trade unions to protect their rights. Underground/shadow economy in Qatar also takes other forms. Some Qataris recruit workers for household works like drivers, teachers, nurses, cooks or other similar jobs and send them to work for money. In such a case, workers obey orders to retain their original jobs with very meagre wages. Such “businessmen” make handsome money by activities like beautification and hairdos, baby sitting, driving, cleaning or tutoring and they send their workers anywhere regardless of who the customer is or what working conditions are with any payment for the worker.

The future evolution of labour migration to Qatar will be largely shaped by the infrastructure development projects related to FIFA World Cup 2022. Besides, strong economic growth is likely to continue in the future, and with it high demand for labour could continue to increase. Thus labour migration to Qatar is most likely to increase phenomenally over the next decade. GDP in Qatar is likely to grow faster averaging 9 percent during the next five-year period and 15 percent during the second five-year period. Besides, incidental to heavy investment in infrastructure development projects for hosting FIFA World Cup about 100 thousand more migrant workers will be required. Therefore, employment growth rates are likely to average 5 percent in the former and 10 percent in the latter projection period, albeit employment growth, especially for construction workers, is likely to slow down from 2021 culminating infrastructure completion.

In Qatar, shortage of labour figures most prominently in general labour followed in order by industrial workers, mason, carpenter, waiter/waitress, housekeeper and domestic workers. Shortage in other occupations is for both skilled and unskilled workers in different sectors, especially construction sector. In Qatar there is high demand for women workers in nursing, domestic work and housekeeping while their limited demand in babysitting and jobs of waitress including air hostesses.



Qatar is a peninsula and a very wealthy medium-sized economy located in The Middle East. It has a population of 2.32 million people. In 2012 Qatar's GDP was US\$ 192 billion and grew at 6.2 percent in 2012. From 2004 until 2013, Qatar GDP growth rate averaged 4 percent reaching an all time high of 14.4 percent in June 2008 and a record low of -23.2 percent in December 2008. Qatar is one of the wealthiest countries in the world in terms of GDP per capita. Qatar's economy is highly dependent on oil and gas extraction which accounts for more than 50 percent of GDP, 85 percent of export earnings, and 70 percent of government revenues. Since proven oil and gas reserves are estimated to sustain current production levels only for the medium run, the government has been

making efforts to diversify the economy into a sustainable long-term income model. This includes investments in the petrochemical sector, promotion of a business tourism sector and reforms in its financial sector. GDP per capita, in purchasing power-adjusted dollar terms, is US\$ 100,889. Qatar has prospered in the last several years with continued high real GDP growth. Throughout the financial crisis Qatari authorities sought to protect the local banking sector with direct investments into domestic banks. GDP grew sharply in 2010 largely due to the increase in oil prices, and 2011's growth was supported by Qatar's investment in expanding its gas sector. GDP slowed to 6.6 percent in 2012 as Qatar's gas sector expansion moved toward completion. Economic policy is focused on developing Qatar's non-associated natural gas reserves and increasing private and foreign investment in non-energy sectors, but oil and gas still account for more than 50 percent of GDP, roughly 85 percent of export earnings, and 70 percent of government revenues. Oil and gas have made Qatar the world's highest per-capita income country and the country with the lowest unemployment. Proved oil reserves in excess of 25 billion barrels should enable continued output at current levels for 57 years. Qatar's proved reserves of natural gas exceed 25 trillion cubic meters, more than 13 percent of the world total and the third largest in the world. Qatar's successful 2022 World Cup bid will likely accelerate large-scale infrastructure projects such as Qatar's metro system, light rail system, and the Qatar-Bahrain causeway. The Hamad International Airport was projected to open by the end of 2013 with an annual passenger capacity of 24 million. (WB, 2013).

II.6.1 Labour Market Developments and Employment Opportunities in Qatar

Unemployment rate in Qatar decreased to 0.5 percent in 2012 from 0.6 percent in 2011. From 2001 to 2012, Qatar unemployment rate averaged 0.9 percent reaching an all time high of 3.9 percent in December 2001 and a record low of 0.3 percent in December 2008 (Qatar Statistics Authority, 2013).

The population of Qatar increased from 591 thousand in 2000 to 2.05 million on 31 December 2013. This population shift is mainly attributed to international migration with a population growth rate of 10.04 percent between 2000 and 2013. Qatar today has a very high Human Development Index (0.831 in 2011) and the World Bank identifies it as a high income economy. Non-citizens in Qatar comprise about 87 percent of the country's population – the highest in the world. Qatar's total workforce stood at 1.3 million (out of the country's total population of around 1.8 million by 2012-end), a QNB report titled 'Qatar Economic Insight 2013' says. The report attributed the large foreign workforce to increasing labour requirements in the construction sector, which is also the biggest employer among all economic sectors in the country. The QNB report did not say as much but as work on development projects related to FIFA World Cup 2022 have begun, more foreign workers are needed to fill the jobs.

Private and public sectors: The private sector presently accounts for 74 percent of total employment in Qatar, with expatriates dominating the job market. In common with other GCC (Gulf Cooperation Council) states, Qatar's national workforce is heavily skewed towards the public sector, with their ratio being as high as 84 percent. Qataris prefer government sector jobs due to higher pay packages and perks. The report notes that pay rises implemented by the government in late 2011 have made it even more difficult for private companies to attract Qatari nationals. But the government's determination, as specified in its National Development Strategy 2011-16, is to increase the number of citizens in private jobs to 15 percent by 2016. Last year, the ratio was nearly half, at 8.5 percent, having grown at a snail's pace over the past four years, since 2008 when the figure was 6.8 percent.

Labour-intensive projects: The report said the upcoming infrastructure development projects are expected to be labour-intensive and will require more foreign workers. So, population growth is expected to rise to 6.7 percent in 2013, said the QNB report. As for labour force, the growth rate last year was 5.5 percent. The report did not make any forecast for the year 2013, when it is likely to witness a higher growth due to a slew of mega projects having been announced. The construction sector accounted for more than a third (37%) of the total workforce followed by wholesale and retail trade (13%). The domestic sector had a share of 10 percent in the total, while oil and gas had only six percent.



Migration Policies and Institutions

Despite the fact that about 87 percent of the population in Qatar are foreigners, and before exploring migration policies and institutions in Qatar, one should bear in mind that the government of Qatar does not regard the country as a country of immigration. The government of Qatar label non-citizens as "contract labourers," which means that they don't accumulate any legal or citizenship rights by their duration of stay in Qatar, so that all regulations are tailored to deal with influx of workers and regulate their "temporary" engagement in the labour force.

Migration policies: According to a 2004 UN survey, Qatar considered its immigration flows to be satisfactory. Other GCC countries, however, indicated the flows were too high. Qatar's policy is to maintain the level of immigration, which is somewhat unique among the GCC countries. Some Qataris are even starting to demand that the State should be the sponsor of foreign workers rather than individual citizens or business owners, which is the current policy. This would be a radical change for Qatar's migration policy. The Qatari constitution provides for freedom of movement within the country, foreign travel, emigration, and repatriation. However, the State does not always respect this in practice. The government severely restricted foreign travel for noncitizens. All noncitizens require an exit permit from their employers to leave the country, and access to exit permits is dependent on the employer.

Visa Regulations and the Sponsorship System: Visas are obtained through local sponsors. Holders of work permits are required to obtain exit visas in order to leave Qatar. Certain employees that meet specific criteria are allowed to bring their families with them, and these dependents do not need exit visas. Employees in Qatar are not allowed to work for any other employer besides the one that sponsors them, and a sponsor cannot be transferred until the employee has worked for two years and has been granted a release letter.¹⁵ Workers cannot change jobs without their employers' consent, except in exceptional cases with permission from the Ministry of Interior. If a worker leaves his or her sponsoring employer, even if fleeing abuse, the employer can report the worker as "absconding," leading to detention and deportation.¹⁶

Migration Institutions: The Ministry of Labour is the governmental body in charge of manpower planning and training of national labour force. The ministry is also in charge of regulating the use of foreign labour and implementing the so called "Qatarization plan" which aims at increasing the dependence on national labour force. The General Directorate of Borders Passports and Expatriates Affairs of the Ministry of Interior is in charge of organizing the entry and exit of the passengers from and to the country and of issuing all kinds of entry visas in accordance with concerned rules and regulations.

Main Migration Laws: The 2009 Sponsorship Law outlawed the practice of employers withholding workers' passports but retained the provision requiring workers to obtain exit permits from their employers before leaving the country. In practice, some employers continued to retain workers' passports. Although the law provides an administrative procedure for obtaining an exit permit without an employer's approval, the process was complicated and difficult. Foreign embassies reported that the process was ineffective, and they continued to be requested to mediate disputes concerning exit permits between foreign workers and their sponsors. The sponsorship law gives the Ministry of Interior the power to transfer temporarily a worker's sponsorship to another employer if there is a legal dispute between the worker and the original employer (US State Department). Some employers temporarily withheld this consent to force foreign employees to work for longer periods than they wished.

The labour rights of migrants are stated in Law 14 of 2004. This law governs labour in the private sector, limits working hours, requires paid annual leave, sets requirements on health and safety, and requires on-time wages each month. Neither the law nor supporting legislation set a minimum wage. The law allows Qatari workers to form unions, and permits strikes with prior government



15. Qatar Embassy; <http://www.qatarembassy.net/Work%20Permits.asp>

16. Human Rights Watch, World Report 2012 - Qatar, 22 January 2012, available at: <http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/4f2007c8c.html> [accessed 25 June 2012] 4 2010 Human Rights Report: Qatar; <http://www.state.gov/j/drl/rls/hrrpt/2010/nea/154471.htm>



approval. Migrant workers have no right to unionize or strike, though they make up 99 percent of the private sector workforce. Foreign workers can only be members of joint labour-management committees. Law 14 is not applied to domestic workers, leaving approximately 132 thousand migrants without labour rights. However, the Advisory Council, a 35-member appointed legislative body, approved a separate law covering domestic work in 2010, but as of yet the law is awaiting the approval of Emir.

Immigration

Qatar is primarily a country of destination. Historically, migration to Qatar has been driven by economic factors, mainly oil production and the revenues of oil industry. According to the United Nations World Migration Report (2011), Qatar has seen a tremendous increase in international migration over the past two decades. In 1990, there were 370 thousand international migrants who comprised about 79.1 percent of Qatar's entire population (ibid). The following decade, in 2000, this figure increased to 471 thousand, making migrants about 76.3 percent of the entire population. In 2010, number of international migrants increased to 1.3 million, making migrants about 87 percent of the total population of the country (Table-15). According to Saber (2013), as of August 2013, 94 percent of Qatar's labour force is foreign.

Table-15: Number and Percent of Migrants to Total Population, Qatar 1990-2010

Year	Number of Migrants (000)	% of Total Population
1990	370	79.1
1995	406	77.2
2000	471	76.3
2005	713	80.5
2010	1,305	86.5

Source: United Nations (2011)

Status of immigrants (regular/irregular)

It is difficult to get a sense of what percentage of migrants comprise of irregular status because migrant labourers commonly overstay their visa. In some cases, migrant labourers, particularly in the domestic sector, are forced to overstay their visa, consequently being at a higher risk of exploitation. Irregular immigration may result from visa trading, overstay, running away from the employer, trafficking and smuggling (HRW, 2010). Firm estimates of irregular migration in the Gulf countries in general and Qatar in particular are not available. According to the estimates of the World Bank (2010), Indians, Pakistanis, Nepalese, and Iranians comprise the vast majority of the immigrant population in Qatar (19.2%, 19.2%, 13.4%, and 11.5% respectively), followed by Phillipinoes, Egyptians, and Sri Lankans (9.6%, 6.7% and 6.7% respectively). Most of Qatari national workforce is absorbed in the public sector, while foreigners represent the vast majority of the private sector workforce.

Emigration

The constitution of Qatar prohibits internal and external forced exile of citizens, and the government respect this prohibition in practice. Moreover, there are no restrictions on emigration from the country (HRW, 2010). Qatar is a country of immigration rather than emigration. Qataris go abroad for study or business and they usually return. In 2010, there were about ten thousand Qataris abroad, accounting for 0.7% of Qatar's population. Top destination countries for Qataris are the United States, Jordan, Canada, the United Kingdom, Australia, the Arab Republic of Egypt, France, Bahrain, Ireland, and Germany (WB, 2011).

Special Issues

Qatar is the first Middle Eastern nation to win the right to host the FIFA World Cup in 2022. This event puts spotlight on labour rights in Qatar. Hundreds of thousands of mostly South Asian

migrant construction workers in Qatar risk serious exploitation and abuse, sometimes amounting to forced labour (Human Rights Watch, 2012). Both the government and the FIFA need to make sure that their commitments to respect workers' rights in preparation for the 2022 World Cup are carried out. Construction contractors should also make specific, public commitments to uphold international labour standards. Human Rights Watch found that the government of Qatar has one of the most restrictive sponsorship (Kafala) laws in the Gulf region, as workers cannot change jobs without their employer's permission, regardless of the duration of their stay in Qatar, and all workers must get their sponsoring employer to sign an "exit permit" before they can leave the country. A similar agreement was signed with Tajikistan (Soloman, 2012).

Employment opportunities in Qatar

Table-16 indicates that GDP growth in Qatar leads to more jobs. A high EPR well above 80 percent and its stable trend usually indicates high and stable employment demand within the economy in terms of quantity of workers. A high ratio is not necessarily a positive result, as it may signal, for example, limited education options for young people, minimal or non-existent unemployment assistance or other social benefits and/or economic hardship. Ratios above 80 percent often indicate an abundance of low quality jobs. Besides, very low unemployment rate in Qatar signals to some extent the overutilization of the local labour supply reflecting strong ability of Qatari economy to generate employment for those persons who want to work. It is thus an indicator of the efficiency and effectiveness of Qatari economy to absorb its labour force and of the performance of the labour market. However, frictional unemployment is always present as persons laid off from their jobs seek new ones and new entrants and re-entrants to the labour market begin their job search. At the same time, structural unemployment is also commonly present as industry-occupation staffing patterns shift over time.

Table-16: Employment opportunities in Qatar

Indicators of employment opportunities	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
GDP growth rate	17.66	11.96	16.73	12.96	6.24
Employment growth rate	27.53	5.15	6.79	-1.24	2.31
Employment elasticity	1.56	0.43	0.41	-0.10	0.37
Employment-to-population ratio – Total		86	86	86	86
Employment-to-population ratio – Men		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Employment-to-population ratio – Women		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Unemployment rate – Total	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.5
Unemployment rate – Men		0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Unemployment rate – Women		1.9	2.8	3.3	2.8
Youth not in education and not in employment & training (NEET)% (15-24)		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Informal employment rate		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Labour force participation rate – Total		86	86	87	87
Labour force participation rate – Men		96	96	96	96
Labour force participation rate – Women		50	51	51	51
Youth unemployment rate – Total				1.3	1.6
Youth unemployment rate – Men				n.a.	n.a.
Youth unemployment rate – Women				n.a.	n.a.

Sources: (1) The World Bank, World Development Indicators, 2012. (2) ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM), 2013, www.ilo.org/kilm





According to the International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC), it is estimated that Qatar will recruit one million more workers to prepare for the World Cup. But working conditions for migrant workers in Qatar “amount to forced labour” with acts of debt bondage, confiscation of passports by employers, overcrowded and unsanitary labour camps, the absence of employment contracts and arbitrary salary deductions. The risk of workers dying in construction sites remain to be present. The Nepali embassy in Qatar said 191 Nepali workers died from working conditions in 2010 and another 163 died in 2011. According to Qatari laws, foreign workers are not allowed to form trade unions to protect their rights.

Underground/shadow economy in Qatar also takes other forms. Some Qataris recruit workers for household works like drivers, teachers, nurses, cooks or other similar jobs and send them to work for money. In fact, there are expatriates who do the same without any licence or registration of their underground business. In such a case, workers obey orders to retain their original jobs with very meagre wages. Such “businessmen” make handsome money by activities like beautification and hairdos, baby sitting, driving, cleaning or tutoring and they send their workers anywhere regardless of who the customer is or what working conditions are with any payment for the worker. Moreover, in some establishments where an expat works as an employee, people in charge who are mostly citizens order the employee to do personal jobs related to their specialization after work like tutoring their children or making their accounts or translating documents. Worse than this, citizens whose jobs require research and writing papers normally ask their expat employees to write for them, sometimes in return for money and sometimes for no payment at all. Employees are often scared or contract termination and they accept such work to maintain their jobs. In this way, citizens make names for themselves within the establishment or in media if they are interested in publishing. There are academics, journalists and executives who rely completely on the expats in their establishments for writing papers. These pseudo-writers get job promotions and salary increment for publications they have not written (Saber, 2013).

Lawyers are specially benefiting from this situation. Expat lawyers are not allowed to appear in court for deliberation and only citizens can appear before a judge. However, major and thorny cases are referred to the lawyers or legal consultants working for the Qatari lawyer who study the cases and prepare the case files and explain them to Qatari lawyer who appear in court and deliberate the case. What is astonishing is that there are cases worth millions; a small part of which go to the consultants and the rest goes to the citizen. There is no law that defines a certain percentage to go to the consultant who figured out the maze and found a way out. A lucky lawyer is one who employs smart consultants who win him cases and invariably millions and make him a glittering name in the judiciary sector (ibid.).

Rules and Regulations for Migrant Workers in Qatar

As noted earlier, the government of Qatar labels non-citizens as “contract labourers,” which means that they do not accumulate any legal or citizenship rights by their duration of stay in Qatar. Some Qataris are even starting to demand that the State should be the sponsor of foreign workers rather than individual citizens or business owners, which is the current policy. The Qatari constitution provides for freedom of movement within the country, foreign travel, emigration, and repatriation. Visas are obtained through local sponsors. Holders of work permits are required to obtain exit visas in order to leave Qatar. Employees in Qatar are not allowed to work for any other employer besides the one that sponsors them, and a sponsor cannot be transferred until the employee has worked for two years and has been granted a release letter.¹⁷ The 2009 Sponsorship Law outlawed the practice of employers withholding workers’ passports but retained the provision requiring workers to obtain exit permits from their employers before leaving the country. In practice, some employers continued to retain workers’ passports. The labour rights of migrants are stated in the Law 14 of 2004. This law governs labour in the private sector, limits working hours, requires paid annual leave, sets requirements on health and safety, and requires on-time wages each month. Neither the law nor supporting legislation set a minimum wage.¹⁸ Foreign workers can only be members of joint

17. Qatar Embassy; <http://www.qatarembassy.net/Work%20Permits.asp>

18. Human Rights Watch, World Report 2012 - Qatar, 22 January 2012, available at: <http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/4f2007c8c.html> [accessed 25 April 2013]

labour-management committees.¹⁹ Law 14 (Law No (14) of the Year 2004)²⁰ is not applied to domestic workers, leaving approximately 132 thousand migrants without labour rights. However, the Advisory Council, a 35-member appointed legislative body, approved a separate law covering domestic work in 2010, but as of yet the law is awaiting the approval of Emir.²¹

Entry Requirements for Qatar

The standard immigration procedure for obtaining legal work and stay in Qatar can be divided into the following stages:²²

Entry Permit: The employment visa (entry permit) is valid for six months and allows entry into Qatar to take up employment.

Medical Check: In order to apply for residence permit, health check is needed, including blood test and chest x-ray. Medical test appointment is arranged by the company after arrival.

Fingerprinting: Fingerprints are taken as a requirement for residence permit application.

In Qatar the Law No (4) of 2009 sets out regulations under which expatriates may enter, exit, work and reside in Qatar. Unless an individual is a GCC national (s)he must be sponsored by either a Qatari national or an entity registered to undertake business in Qatar. It is also important to note that there are laws and regulations in place to encourage the employment of nationals, known as Qatarisation. Work permits may only be applied for by an individual or entity registered with the Qatar employment authorities. These applicants are known as the workers' sponsors. Under Qatar law individuals must be sponsored and employed by the same individual or entity. Qatari nationals can also sponsor their workers. A block visa allocation application must state the gender, nationality and job title of the workers a Qatari entity or individual wishes to employ. Once the block visa allocation has been approved by the Labour Department passport copies and appropriate education certificates must be submitted to the Immigration Department in order for each worker to be issued with his/her work permit. The employer must then apply for the worker's residency.²³

II.6.2 Projection of Employment for Bangladeshis in Qatar for the Next Five and Ten Years

The future evolution of labour migration to Qatar will be largely shaped by the infrastructure development projects related to FIFA World Cup 2022. Besides, strong economic growth is likely to continue in the future, and with it high demand for labour could continue to increase. Thus labour migration to Qatar is most likely to increase phenomenally over the next decade. Under these circumstances, in making projections for Bangladeshi migrants to Qatar in the next five and ten years the following assumptions are made:

- i. GDP in Qatar will grow faster than 6.24 percent in 2012 averaging 9 percent during the first five-year period and 15 percent during the second five-year period in a way to recover earlier growth rates. Besides, incidental to heavy investment in infrastructure development projects for hosting FIFA World Cup about 100 thousand more migrant workers will be required. Therefore, employment growth rates are likely to average 5 percent in the former and 10 percent in the latter projection period, albeit employment growth, especially for construction workers, is likely to slow down from 2021 culminating infrastructure completion.
- ii. Other things remaining the same, Qatar will continue to encourage Bangladeshi migrant workers over the next decade.
- iii. Relative share of Bangladeshi migrant workers in Qatar will gradually increase due to elastic supply of job aspirants in Bangladesh over the next decade.

19. 2010 Human Rights Report: Qatar; <http://www.state.gov/j/drl/rls/hrrpt/2010/nea/154471.htm>

20. Law No (14) of the Year 2004, Governing labor in the private sector-limits working hours, requires paid annual leave, sets requirements on health and safety, and requires on-time wages each month

21. Human Rights Watch, World Report 2012 - Qatar, 22 January 2012, available at: <http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/4f2007c8c.html> [accessed 25 April 2013]

22. <http://www.moveoneinc.com/blog/immigration/enimmigration-qatar/>

23. David Salt or Emma Higham., Qatar - A right of entry? A right to work? A right to reside? A right of Exit? Published on 22 August 2012, <http://www.clydeco.com/insight/updates/qatar-a-right-of-entry-a-right-to-work-a-right-to-reside-a-right-of-exit>



In making these projections, average number of Bangladeshi migrants to Qatar based on three-year moving averages during the last nine years has been used as the base in 2013. Projections have been made only for those occupations which predominate in the most recent years reflecting current market demand. Considerations have been given to (i) occupations with the most job growth, (ii) fastest growing occupations in construction, and (iii) occupations with the largest projected number of job openings due to growth. Results of the projections are presented in Table-17.

Table-17: Projection of Employment for Bangladeshis in Qatar by Occupation in the Next Five and Ten Years

Occupation	Average*	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Accountant	27	28	30	31	33	34	38	42	46	50	55
Air Conditioning Technician	13	14	14	15	16	17	18	20	22	24	27
Administrative Officer	5	5	6	6	6	6	7	8	8	9	10
Agriculture Labour	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	5	5	6	6
Baby Sitter	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	5	5	6	6
Baker	6	6	7	7	7	8	8	9	10	11	12
Barber/Beautician	32	34	35	37	39	41	45	49	54	60	66
Blacksmith/Smith	124	130	137	144	151	158	174	191	211	232	255
Car Cleaner/Painter	8	8	9	9	10	10	11	12	14	15	16
Carpenter	496	521	547	574	603	633	696	766	843	800	720
Cashier	11	12	12	13	13	14	15	17	19	21	23
Cleaning Labour (male & female/Supervisor)	51	54	56	59	62	65	72	79	87	95	105
Clerk	5	5	6	6	6	6	7	8	8	9	10
Cook/Chef	233	245	257	270	283	297	327	360	396	435	479
Construction Worker	76	80	84	88	92	97	107	117	129	123	110
Designer/Digger	4	4	4	5	5	5	6	6	7	7	8
Director	4	4	4	5	5	5	6	6	7	7	8
Driver including heavy	861	904	949	997	1047	1099	1209	1330	1463	1389	1251
Electrician/Technician	218	229	240	252	265	278	306	337	370	407	448
Embroidery Tailor	9	9	10	10	11	11	13	14	15	17	18
Engineer/Architect	42	44	46	49	51	54	59	65	71	68	61
Executive Chief/Officer	7	7	8	8	9	9	10	11	12	13	14
Farmer/Fisherman	101	106	111	117	123	129	142	156	172	189	208
Fitter/Field Engineer	180	189	198	208	219	230	253	278	306	290	261
Foreman	124	130	137	144	151	158	174	191	211	200	180
Gardener	15	16	17	17	18	19	21	23	25	28	31
Guard	13	14	14	15	16	17	18	20	239	263	289
Helper (Technical)	70	74	77	81	85	89	98	108	119	113	102
General Labour	7414	7785	8174	8583	9012	9462	10409	11449	12594	11965	10768
Machine Operator	18	19	20	21	22	23	25	28	31	34	37
Machinist/Mechanic	54	57	60	63	66	69	76	83	92	101	111
Maker (Jewellery, etc)	101	106	111	117	123	129	142	156	172	189	208

Occupation	Average*	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Manager	9	9	10	10	11	11	13	14	15	17	18
Mason	620	651	684	718	754	791	870	957	1053	1001	900
Messenger/Receptionist	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	5	5	6	6
Office/Ward/Hotel Boy	12	13	13	14	15	15	17	19	20	22	25
Operator (escalator, crane, plant, roller, bulldozer, shovel etc)	36	38	40	42	44	46	51	56	61	58	52
Painter	249	261	275	288	303	318	350	385	423	465	442
Pipe Fitter	17	18	19	20	21	22	24	26	29	27	25
Plasterer	60	63	66	69	73	77	84	93	102	97	87
Plumber	126	132	139	146	153	161	177	195	214	235	259
Private Service	765	803	843	886	930	976	1074	1181	1300	1429	1572
Nurse	45	47	50	52	55	57	63	69	76	84	92
QA/QC Engineer	263	276	290	304	320	336	369	406	447	424	382
Reinforcing Worker	7	7	8	8	9	9	10	11	12	13	14
Salesman/Manager	62	65	68	72	75	79	87	96	105	116	127
Scaffolding Worker	100	105	110	116	122	128	140	154	170	161	145
Seaman/Sea Guard	31	33	34	36	38	40	44	48	53	58	64
Secretary/Typist	5	5	6	6	6	6	7	8	8	9	10
Domestic Worker/ Housekeeper	410	431	452	475	498	523	576	633	696	766	843
Shepherd/Camel Man	124	130	137	144	151	158	174	191	211	232	255
Shuttering Carpenter	79	83	87	91	96	101	111	122	134	127	115
Steel Fixer	87	91	96	101	106	111	122	134	148	140	126
Steward/Air Host	8	8	9	9	10	10	11	12	14	15	16
Store Keeper	6	6	7	7	7	8	8	9	10	11	12
Supervisor/ Superintendant	35	37	39	41	43	45	49	54	59	65	72
Surveyor	11	12	12	13	13	14	15	17	19	18	16
Tailor	83	87	92	96	101	106	117	128	141	155	171
Technician (plant, photo)	247	259	272	286	300	315	347	381	420	462	508
Tiles Fixer/Turner	52	55	57	60	63	66	73	80	88	84	76
Upholsterer	5	5	6	6	6	6	7	8	8	9	10
Waiter/Waitress	883	927	974	1022	1073	1127	1240	1364	1500	1650	1815
Weaving Technician	13	14	14	15	16	17	18	20	22	24	27
Welder/Fabricator	62	65	68	72	75	79	87	96	105	116	127
Industrial/ Workshop Worker	3543	3720	3906	4101	4307	4522	4974	5471	6019	6620	7283
Total	17395	19304	20272	21286	22355	23464	25813	28392	31450	31892	31595

Note: * indicates average employment of 3-year moving averages during the last nine years.

Source: Based on BMET data.



Shortages of Labour: In Qatar, shortage of labour figures most prominently in general labour followed in order by industrial workers, mason, carpenter, waiter/waitress, housekeeper and domestic workers. Shortage in other occupations is for both skilled and unskilled workers in different sectors, especially construction sector (Table-17).

Markets for Bangladeshi women migrants: As evident from Table-17, in Qatar there is high demand for nurse, domestic workers and housekeepers while limited demand for babysitters and waitress including air hostesses.



III. Sectors and Occupations with Surplus Labour inside Bangladesh – Now, in 5 Year Projections and 10 Year Projections

Labour Force Growth Rate by Occupation

The growth of labour force by different occupations in Bangladesh is presented in Table-18. It is observed that irregular growth took place in different occupations during the last five years. While administrative and managerial occupations grew most rapidly, negative growth is observed in the case of clerical workers primarily due to declining participation of female workers. Negative growth is observed in the case of male service workers and agricultural workers compared to highly positive growth of their female counterparts.

Table-18: Growth of labour force by major occupation from 2005-06 to 2010 (Absolute values in “000”)

Major Occupation	LFS 2005-06			LFS 2010			Growth Rate		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	47357	36080	11277	54084	37882	16202	3.32	1.22	9.06
Professional/technical	2231	1737	494	2406	1892	515	1.88	2.14	1.05
Administrative/managerial	223	201	22	689	593	96	28.20	27.04	36.83
Clerical worker	1015	872	144	1001	906	104	-0.34	0.95	-8.13
Services worker	2757	1892	865	3001	1688	1313	2.12	-2.85	10.43
Sales worker	6710	6476	235	8158	6869	1290	4.89	1.47	42.57
Agriculture/fores/fish	22926	15221	7705	25698	15192	10506	2.85	-0.05	7.75
Production/trans worker	11493	9681	1812	13470	11081	2389	3.97	3.38	6.91



Projection of the labour force in the next five and ten years in Bangladesh is presented in Table-19. The growth of the labour force in different occupations may be matched with the projection of labour demand in the six study countries over the next ten years.

Table-19: Projection of the labour force in the next five and ten years (Absolute values in “000”)

Occupation	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Total	61632	63678	65792	67977	70233	72565	74974	77464	80035	82692
Professional/technical	2592	2641	2690	2741	2793	2845	2899	2953	3009	3065
Clerical worker	190	125	83	55	36	24	16	10	7	5
Services worker	3264	3333	3404	3476	3549	3625	3701	3780	3860	3942
Administrative/ managerial	1861	2386	3059	3921	5027	6445	8262	10592	13579	17409
Sales worker	9875	10357	10864	11395	11952	12537	13150	13793	14467	15175
Agriculture/fores/fish	28755	29575	30418	31285	32176	33093	34036	35006	36004	37030
Production/trans worker	15740	16365	17014	17690	18392	19122	19881	20671	21491	22345

Source: Based on LFS 2005-06 and 2010 (BBS, 2011).

According to Labour Force Survey 2010 (BBS, 2011), Bangladesh has surplus labour of at least 8025 thousand persons aged 15 years and over (2567 thousand unemployed persons + 5458 thousand unpaid family helpers working less than 15 hours/week). Given existing employment opportunities in Bangladesh, this surplus labour is likely to grow at the rate of 4.5 percent annually to 9570 thousand in 2014, 10001 thousand in 2015, 10451 thousand in 2016, 10921 thousand in 2017, 11412 thousand in 2018, 11926 thousand in 2019, 12463 thousand in 2020, 13023 thousand in 2021, 13610 thousand in 2022 and 14222 thousand in 2023. This surplus labour exists in agriculture, manufacturing and construction, and services. In the service sector, dominant occupations are engineering, medical, ICT, hospitality, drivers, administrative and financial services. Besides, agricultural, manufacturing and construction workers are in surplus.



IV. Current and Potential Matches Between the Surplus Labour in Bangladesh with Shortages of Labour in the Same Sectors and Occupations in the Study Countries

Current surplus labour in Bangladesh does not fully match the current labour shortages in the six study countries because only 4.6 percent of them have some kind of training for job. For matching purposes, those who have no training need job-specific training in line with the international occupational demand structure. Those who have some kind of training need refreshers' course for updating their skill. For the emerging demand for the next five to ten years, new training courses need to be put in place and the training modules of old courses need to be updated to match the emerging skill needs in the six study countries.

The knowledge is a continuum. Forecasting the demand for Bangladeshi migrant workers in the six study countries is not enough. The challenges are: (i) labour market shocks led to high youth unemployment in some host countries; (ii) weak overseas labour market information systems; (iii) transition economy of Azerbaijan experiences rapid change of skills demands because of shifts from agriculture and manufacturing to services, privatisation and FDI; (iv) the future is uncertain – there are also external factors; and (v) dominance of micro and small enterprises and a large informal economy create additional challenges. In order to achieve quick fixes of current skills mismatches with education reforms, anticipation of future skills needs is required.

For addressing future skill mismatches what is needed are: (a) a robust database for the overseas labour market and the education and training system in Bangladesh is a key pre-condition for valid anticipation and effective matching; (b) a mix of approaches and continuous methodological improvement (but at the same time continuity and consistency) is needed; (c) credibility: combination of informal knowledge and research findings – publication of research is not enough to convince decision makers; (d) anticipation aims at shaping the future, hence needs to be imbedded in a macroeconomic vision and strategy; (e) strong BMET capacities are important for better matching; (f) active role of overseas employers in anticipation and matching (recruitment, work based learning, adaptation to change etc.); (g) supply analyses to cover methodologies used for the assessment of capacity, efficiency and relevance of BMET training provisions; (h) overseas enterprise surveys as a tool for qualitative and quantitative skills needs assessment; (i) anticipation and matching of skills at host country level to cover the key elements of international demand analysis and specific methodologies and approaches used at international (e.g. individual country) level; and (j) intermediary agencies and tools in matching to look into roles and modus operandi of intermediary bodies such as BMET, BOESL, private recruiters or career guidance services in matching people's skills with jobs.



V. New Opportunities for Potential Skilled Workers in New Countries as well as in New Skill Sectors within Traditional Countries of Destination

V.1 Identified areas for diversified skills for Bangladeshi migrants

There exist enormous new opportunities for potential skilled workers in new countries as well as in new skill sectors within traditional countries of destination. These broadly include housekeeping, domestic work, caregiving, nursing, IT and hospitality services. It is reported that there is current demand for 100,000 domestic workers in Hong Kong alone. Besides, Bangladesh can easily brand IT specialists, RMG, leather and pharmaceutical workers and send them to USA, Canada, Japan, South Korea, Australia, New Zealand and European countries.

V.2 Projection and plan for future skills training by BMET

To this end, BMET needs to bring in a qualitative change in its existing training courses in order to remove skill gaps. There is a need for a systematic approach to demand-driven migration of Bangladeshi workers. For training purposes in the short run, BMET needs to plan for introducing latest technology and training equipment, updating course curriculum and increasing the number of trainers. In the long run, however, BMET can implement a number of measures designed to better align the supply of training with the overseas demand for skills, such as the recognition of informal learning, national qualifications frameworks and competency based approaches.



VI. Major Challenges in Finding New Market for Bangladeshi Migrants

Many Bangladeshi migrant workers continue to face significant challenges in the overseas labour market. For entry-level positions, the challenges are more. The challenges immigrants face in finding jobs have to do with not just the characteristics and skills they bring to the labour market, but also the cultural constraints of the labour receiving countries and the barriers put in their way. More and more tinkering with the selection rules used to admit immigrants will not on its own address these challenges because of lower rates of immigration during business cycle downturns.

One of the challenges that Bangladeshi migrant workers face is that they are not employed to meet long-term labour market needs in the host countries. The problem lies with the characteristics of immigrants. This sounds like a labour supply explanation, and misses the opportunity to examine the structures and characteristics of the system in which immigrants are placed: that is, to also recognize the role of labour demand. By not adjusting the number of immigrants the country lets in with a business cycle downturn immigration policy is forcing those who arrive here to paddle upstream. This needs to be a concern not just in the short-term, but also with respect to long-term labour market outcomes. Jobless spells will be longer than they need be, motivation will be challenged, and immigrants will be forced to take jobs in occupations that will imply lower wages over the long-term than they are qualified for.

But there is more to the problem than just the state of the business cycle – skilled immigrants struggle in the labour market. During a period in which the labour market booms, natives are preferred, work experience obtained abroad, and finally education credentials obtained abroad are given weight. The present study produces two main findings: (i) interview request rates are higher for the natives; and (ii) employers value experience acquired in a foreign country. The results suggest considerable employer discrimination against applicants with ethnic names or with experience from foreign firms.

All of this would suggest that public policy of labour receiving countries toward immigration need not just address supply-side concerns, and certainly the most basic way of doing that is to temporarily reduce the number of immigrants coming into the country during a major recession, but also demand-side considerations that reflect the structures and barriers in the labour market – something that would be of benefit to all labour receiving countries, immigrant or not.

Skill Shortages and Gaps

Skill shortages and gaps are all-pervasive in the Bangladesh labour force telling heavily upon finding new overseas market. Skill shortage is a genuine lack of adequately skilled individuals available in the accessible labour market with the type of skills being sought and which leads to a difficulty in recruitment by the overseas employers in the formal sector. Skills gaps exist since the overseas employers feel that existing Bangladesh workforce have inadequate skill types/levels to meet their business objectives. This is particularly because Bangladeshi workers generally lack internationally accredited skills limiting their access to overseas employment. Indian IT graduates, for example, are much more valued overseas than their Bangladeshi counterparts because of their international accreditation. Same is the case with Bangladeshi electricians, welders, plumbers and what not. All this points to the need for upgrading the skills of Bangladeshis to international standards.

Competition among Labour-Sending Countries

With more labour-sending countries entering the overseas labour market, there is stiff competition among them while receiving countries have wider choices and cheaper sources of labour. Fearing





loss of their market share, labour-exporting countries in Asia have contribution to the further institutionalization of low wages for female jobs by establishing that the minimum standard wage that the overseas employer must pay could be lower for women than for men.

Rapidly globalizing world characterized by competition amongst the labour-sending countries for optimizing benefits from international labour migration points to the need for bringing a strategic dimension to the process of migration of Bangladeshis in search of employment. There is also a need to forge partnerships that will best serve Bangladesh as a supplier of skilled and trained human power and meet the expectations of the overseas Bangladeshi workers as a significant constituency across the world by way of supporting skill up-gradation initiatives. To this end, it is important to regularly monitor, study and analyze the trends in international labour markets as well as strategies of various labour-sending and labour-receiving countries and to develop and sustain a national strategy to be globally competitive as a labour supplier.

Protection and Welfare of Overseas Bangladeshi workers

While migration provides productive labour and an economic lifeline for hundreds of Bangladeshi workers, the plight of unprotected migrant workers, especially female workers, has become an increasing source of public concern as evidence of abuse mounts. Bangladeshi female migrant workers who constitute the growing component of international migrant labour are reportedly particularly vulnerable to various forms of discrimination, exploitation and abuse and require special protection due to the lack of adequate international instruments to safeguard them.

Several studies have highlighted the plight of female migrants in the female-dominated occupations: domestic workers, entertainment industry (often a euphemism for prostitutes), helpers in restaurants and hotels, assembly-line work in labour-intensive manufacturing (RMG). All such jobs are at the bottom of the occupation hierarchy, generally shunned by local women because of low rewards, inferior working conditions and limited job prospects and security. It is reported that the domestic worker often embarks on an overseas stint holding on to a domestic helper contract which is more often than not violated or substituted on arrival with discriminatory and unfair labour conditions. Domestic workers are often paid sub-standard salaries, which are sometimes delayed or withheld; there are no days-off, food is inadequate, accommodation unsafe and uncomfortable, medical benefits are denied. There have been innumerable cases of sexual harassment and abuse, excessive workload and income-related exploitation – a major proportion of their earnings is siphoned off to intermediaries. Female workers in domestic service or entertainment services are particularly vulnerable since they go into individualized work situations involving greater isolation and lower level of social support networks.

Bangladesh, like other labour-sending countries, bilaterally enters into agreements with receiving countries to protect its migrant workers – through operational agreements which are more difficult since it involves commitment from the receiving country; framework agreements or memorandum of understanding whose effectiveness is considerably limited.

As for multilateral approaches, the political sensitivity of the issue has prevented a regional dialogue in Asia. There has also not been solidarity among labour-sending countries for fear of losing their 'market share' to others, especially in the context of the current global downturn. But none of the international instruments specifically cover the plight of female migrant workers. They also have a number of limitations, for example, the supervisory mechanisms function only for those who have ratified a convention. Neither the ILO nor the UN have an enforcement mechanism – beyond collective political pressure.

Shrinking Job Opportunities

Jobs in the labour receiving countries critically depends upon their economic performance and unemployment situation. With global recession labour receiving countries tend to downsize their foreign labour requirements and contain unemployment of the natives. This severely limits the job opportunities of Bangladeshi migrant workers who are less valued by the overseas employers than their counterparts in other competing Asian countries. Existing wage disparity best illustrates this phenomenon.

Variations in Unemployment Duration Across Study Countries

Unemployment has not been evenly distributed among the study countries. Bangladeshi migrants are not eligible for unemployment insurance benefits. Once the MOU comes to an end, the migrant workers must return home. The highest durations of unemployment are concentrated in occupation and industries hardest hit by the recession, which helps to explain the geographic distribution. People who formerly worked in manufacturing industries have some of the toughest times finding jobs. Construction industries have also been hard hit, as have certain services, in particular installation, maintenance, and repair occupations.

Importance of Unemployment Insurance for the Long-Term Unemployed

Unemployment insurance (UI) benefits are intended to provide a safety net against job loss for reasons beyond one's control. Because it is hardest to find a job during tough economic times, extending UI benefits helps workers and their families when they need it the most. There are some economists who argue that the increase in the duration of unemployment could partially be an unintended consequence of extended UI benefits. These economists argue that workers can be more selective with the types of jobs they accept than they would otherwise be in the absence of unemployment benefits.



VII. Policy Recommendations

One of the priorities of the Bangladeshi education system needs to be more innovation and flexibility in combining education and work-related training. Research is also needed to better understand how concepts such as team-work, creative thinking, problem-solving and leadership skills enhance the employability of students and then, to find ways to incorporate these concepts into the curriculum. BMET needs to embody generic skills training into technical skills training in order to improve portable skills of the job seekers.

There is generally a mismatch between skills acquisition in Bangladesh and overseas business needs. Skills development of the Bangladesh labour force requires an enabling environment so that the provision of skills is balanced with the overseas provision of opportunities to use these skills. It is essential to examine the interaction between home country approaches to skills development and host country approaches to skills utilisation. Past country experiences suggest that training alone cannot result in effective overseas employment outcomes. A 'win-win-win' situation may be possible for all stakeholders involved in the migration process if a virtuous circle is created that benefits all the parties through the better management of labour migration and the skills-matching dimension. In fact, skills matching between migrant workers and jobs abroad is crucial to efficient labour mobility. In this context, comprehensive cooperation mechanisms are needed in order to reduce exploitation and skills waste and to ensure better skills matching in destination countries.

The education and training systems in Bangladesh face two specific challenges: (i) ensuring access to education and training opportunities for all young people, which requires reducing the number of early school leavers in rural areas and ensuring the provision of skills for gainful employment (employability); and (ii) increasing the quality of education across the board, while also ensuring its relevance to overseas labour market needs.

By and large, Bangladesh needs to develop high levels of human capital by international standards in line with international demand. Exposure to risk will eventually develop if Bangladesh fails to address the current problems in its education and training systems and ensure the development of relevant skills to function. Although there is no specific monitoring of the overseas demand for skills in Bangladesh, there is some evidence that the lack of skills is starting to become a significant obstacle to the further development of overseas employment. Bangladesh may lose its competitive advantage regarding human capital, given that this has deteriorated as a result of a number of factors: the poor quality of the education system, which has failed to adapt quickly to the social and economic changes brought about by transition and to keep up with developments at the international level.

Bangladesh needs to introduce a broad range of active labour market programmes including: (i) measures to enhance the employability of unemployed individuals and job seekers in general, such as training, retraining and job clubs; (ii) overseas job-search measures, such as keeping track of existing and changing employment composition, and new business start-ups; and (iii) programmes and services for matching Bangladeshi job seekers to overseas jobs, such as job counselling and guidance, job-search assistance and international job fairs. Adequate funds need to be dedicated to these measures. Among the passive policies, the provision of unemployment benefits is the main social protection tool for temporarily compensating the loss of income through unemployment.

Bangladesh should take advantage of the momentum of growing concern over the plight of migrant female workers and promote more concerted actions to protect this vulnerable group. Both governments have to cooperate to reduce illegal migration, and impose harsher penalties on illegal recruitment agencies and unscrupulous employers.

Bangladesh should monitor and analyse the problems faced by migrant Bangladeshi workers and returnees and take corrective measures and administer them in collaboration with the governments



of the labour-receiving countries. Recourse may be taken to other measures, including educating potential migrants and ensuring availability of information, including encouraging returning migrants to talk about their experiences and use of the mass media. Another is fuller and more effective use of NGOs. Bangladesh should also seek more active cooperation and networking with NGOs in labour-receiving countries, maintaining strong ties with them through their embassies and consulates.

There should also be more concerted international action including for inter alia, specific measures to protect migrant workers by UN member states (including measures to regulate recruitment agencies); the provision of legal, social and education outreach to migrant women; the deployment of trained female police officers and protection from abuse by male officers; the training embassy personnel; better enforcement of local laws; and for the involvement of trade unions.

Public-private partnership is urgently necessary to survive competition among labour-sending countries because the private recruiting agents are more familiar with and have greater access to the overseas labour market. To this end, policy efforts are needed for institutional development to involve the private sector in the form of a consortium of private recruiting agents.

Improvement of BMET Database

The database of the BMET is in disarray in terms of standard occupational classification. Basic data on migration and skill levels are compiled essentially from registration and emigration clearance forms filled in by the migrants or untrained staff of the recruiting agents. So is the case with skills classification. BMET needs to play a more pro-active role in defining skills and follow Bangladesh Standard Classification of Occupations-2012 (BSCO-2012) developed in accordance with ILO ISCO-2008 (see Annex-2) and upgrade TTCs (Technical Training Centres) with international trade testing facilities.

The quality of training and the trainers engaged in training need to be improved to match the skills requirement in the overseas employment. A separate institute may be set up for the training of the trainers.

Accreditation of the present training institutions is essential to establish the equivalence to the international standard of vocational qualification. So affiliation with internationally reputed accreditation body may be done to ensure exchange of training standard and mutual recognition of technical training levels. The government may work in collaboration with the private entities including leading recruiting agents to organize a common curricula and certification system as envisaged under the TVET (Technical and Vocational Education and Training) project.

In response to huge demand for construction workers training facilities for construction works needs to be increased. Existing training centres are not regulated and have no standard curriculum. Welding is another area in which parallel training facilities need to be strengthened. Basic skills acquired by these workers also need to be tested.

Given the global labour market demand, specific policy decisions must be formulated in order to effectively equip the workers to cope with emerging competency requirements. Qualification of workers must now include knowledge and appreciation of cultural values of the host countries apart from language proficiency with a view to enhancing the credibility of Bangladeshi workers in recipient countries. To this end, MEWOE may engage private sector training institutes in order to benefit from the efficiencies of both the sectors.

In recent time workplace learning are broadened to readymade garments factories, pharmaceutical industries and textiles etc. The trainees in these industries basically join as helpers to assist the machine operators. There is huge scope for bringing them under ladderization system and certify them in respect of their skills. The process can be repeated in several cycles until after some years the skilled worker is able to move into supervisory positions. With proper implementation of this ladderization system many workplace learning workers can be certified as skilled and semi-skilled. Equipped with internationally recognized certificates, chances are greater for overseas jobs with enhanced remuneration.



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Annex-1: Employment of Bangladeshis in Six Study Countries during 2005-2013

Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Azerbaijan in 2005	
Labour	23
Quality Controller	4
Welder/Fabricator	5
Worker	5
Total	37
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Azerbaijan in 2006	
Cook	1
Labour	11
Private Service	1
Welder/Fabricator	8
Total	21
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Azerbaijan in 2007	
Labour	73
Welder Grade-A	3
Total	76
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Azerbaijan in 2008	
Electrician / Electrical Technician	5
Fitter	1
Labour	98
Painter	1
Rigger	1
Welder Grade-B	1
Welder/Fabricator	16
Total	123
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Azerbaijan in 2009	
Building / Construction Helper	3
Cook	1
Electrician / Electrical Technician	1
Labour	121
Pipe Fitter	2
Welder/Fabricator	1
Worker	8
Total	137





Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Azerbaijan in 2010	
Cook	1
Labour	39
Waiter	1
Welder/Fabricator	1
Worker	2
Total	44
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Azerbaijan in 2011	
Private Service	16
Waiter	7
Welder Grade-A	1
Welder Grade-B	1
Welder/Fabricator	5
Total	30
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Azerbaijan in 2012	
Private Service	5
Waiter	4
Welder Grade-A	2
Worker	1
Total	12
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Azerbaijan in 2013	
Cook	2
Labour	5
Servant	1
Waiter	1
Welder/Fabricator	14
Worker	42
Total	65
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Iraq in 2009	
Cleaning Labour	150
Construction Worker	54
General Labour	258
Total	462
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Iraq in 2010	
Accountant	3
Assistant Manager	4
Carpenter	102
Catering Hand	185
Cleaner	46

Cleaning Labour	455
Cleaning Labour (Female)	19
Concrete Forman	10
Concreter	6
Construction Worker	53
Cook	2
Driver	4
Electrician	21
Equipment Mechanic Grade-A	6
Equipment Mechanic Grade-B	6
Finishing Forman	1
Fixer	10
Foreman	4
General Labour	591
Heavy Driver	12
Helper	19
Hospital Cleaning Labour	108
Hotel Boy	40
Labour	230
Machine Operator	6
Manager	2
Mason	64
Mason(Plaster/Block)	15
Mechanics	2
Painter	21
Plasterer	20
Plumber	27
Private Service	1
Pump Operator	6
Servant	22
Shuttering Carpenter	34
Steel Fixer	67
Supervisor	2
Technician	8
Tiles Worker	25
Welder/Fabricator	10
Worker	19
Total	2288





Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Iraq in 2011	
Cleaner	222
Labour	2
Operator	1
Private Service	3
Servant	6
Total	234
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Iraq in 2012	
Cleaner	240
General Labour	15
Labour	19
Private Service	1
Waiter	12
Worker	2
Total	289
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Iraq in 2013	
Administrator	75
Black Smith	2
Carpenter	36
Ceramic Mason	37
Cleaner	914
Cleaning Labour	31
Conc Worker	5
Cook	6
Crane Operator	1
Driver	107
Electrical Supervisor	45
Electrician	73
Electrician / Electrical Technician	65
Engineer	35
Escalator Operator	2
Female Labour	11
Fitter	28
Foreman	128
Gardener	1
General Labour	8
Helper	25
House Worker	8
Kitchen Worker	1

Labour	1072
Laundry Man	2
Manicurist	1
Mason	222
Mason (Plaster/Block)	9
Mechanical Technician	1
Operator	85
Painter	30
Pipe Fitter	10
Pipes Cleaning Labour	9
Planter	8
Plasterer	29
Plumber	47
Servant	11
Shuttering Carpenter	43
Skilled Worker	1525
Steel Fixer	46
Supervisor	1
Surveyor	1
Technician	42
Tiles Fixer	20
Waiter	36
Welder/Fabricator	8
Wood Designer	1
Worker	2553
Total	7456
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Italy in 2005	
Cashier	1
Cleaning Labour	1
Cook	6
Driver	1
Fitter	1
Industrial	1
Labour	910
Manager	1
Mechanics	1
Operator	4
Private Service	12
Salesman	1





Servant	1
Supervisor	1
Waiter	1
Worker	7
Total	950
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Italy in 2006	
Cleaning Labour	1
Cook	4
Electrician / Electrical Technician	1
House Worker	1
Kitchen Worker	1
Labour	1370
Machine Operator	1
Mechanics	2
Nurse	3
Operator	2
Private Service	10
Waiter	1
Welder/Fabricator	1
Worker	28
Total	1426
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Italy in 2007	
Agriculture Labour	1
Cook	10
Driver	1
Electrician / Electrical Technician	1
Farmer	1
Labour	10845
Mason	1
Nurse	12
Office Assistant	1
Painter	2
Plumber	1
Private Service	19
Sales Representative	1
Salesman	3
Servant	1
Tailor	2
Worker	42

Total	10944
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Italy in 2008	
Agriculture Labour	8
Construction Worker	1
Cook	21
Driver	1
Farmer	1
Hotel boy	1
House Keeper	1
Labour	6793
Painter	3
Photographer	1
Private Service	25
Salesman	4
Servant	2
Tailor	1
Waiter	1
Welder Grade-A	1
Worker	63
Total	6928
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Italy in 2009	
Agriculture Labour	11
Carpenter	1
Cleaning Labour	2
Cook	20
Electrician / Electrical Technician	4
House Worker	3
Labour	5027
Mason	3
Painter	3
Private Service	21
Salesman	8
Servant	3
Technician	1
Waiter	3
Welder/Fabricator	1
Worker	226
Total	5337





Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Italy in 2010	
Agriculture Labour	20
Carpenter	1
Cook	19
Cutter	1
Engineer	2
Farmer	2
Laboratory Assistant	3
Labour	5444
Labour (Junior)	1
Mason	2
Nurse	1
Painter	1
Private Service	344
QA/QC Engineer	1
Salesman	2
Servant	97
Waiter	158
Wiring Electrician	1
Wood Designer	5
Worker	621
Total	6726
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Italy in 2011	
1st Commis (Kitchen)	16
Agriculture Labour	22
Captain	1
Carpenter	3
Cleaner	1
Cleaning Labour	1
Construction Worker	11
Cook	20
Driver	2
Farmer	2
Laboratory Assistant	9
Labour	2740
Labour (Junior)	2
Mason	10
Painter	4
Private Service	934

QA/QC Engineer	14
Servant	110
Tailor	1
Waiter	2102
Weaving Tech	9
Web Designer/Developer	1
Wiring Electrician	1
Wood Designer	12
Wood Painter	1
Wood Worker	6
Worker	1585
Workshop Worker	1
Total	7621
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Italy in 2012	
1st Commis (Kitchen)	24
1st Commis (Pastry)	2
Agriculture Labour	7
Cleaning Labour	1
Cook	85
Cook Helper	1
Driver	1
Farmer	1
Laboratory Assistant	7
Labour	2309
Labour (Junior)	2
Maker	2
Mason	1
Painter	1
Private Service	1054
QA/QC Engineer	421
Salesman	2
Servant	8
Waiter	2588
Waitress	2
Weaving Tech	12
Web Designer/Developer	1
Welder Grade-A	2
Wood Deiggenir	2
Wood Worker	3





Worker	2739
Total	9278
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Italy in 2013	
Agriculture Labour	11
Baker	1
Conc Worker	4
Cook	113
Farmer	2
Food Server	1
House Worker	2
Laboratory Assistant	2
Labour	1630
Mason	1
Painter	1
Plumber	2
Private Service	6
Salesman	4
Servant	16
Waiter	509
Welder/Fabricator	1
Wood Designer	2
Worker	2480
Total	4788
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Japan in 2005	
Cook	34
Engineer	7
Graphics And Animation	1
Labour	25
Manager	1
Officer	1
Private Service	6
Technician	2
Worker	2
Total	79
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Japan in 2006	
Computer Operator	1
Computer Programmer/Software Developer	1
Cook	34
Engineer	33

Information Technology Engineer	16
Labour	75
Manager	1
Marketing Executive/Marketing manager	1
Mechanical Engineer	3
Operator	1
Private Service	5
Specialist Doctor	1
Worker	2
Total	174
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Japan in 2007	
Civil Engineer	5
Communication System Engineer	5
Cook	14
Engineer	17
Labour	121
Worker	2
Total	164
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Japan in 2008	
Cook	10
Electrician / Electrical Technician	1
Engineer	6
Labour	109
Manager	1
Operator	2
Painter	1
Private Service	2
Restaurant Labour	1
Total	133
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Japan in 2009	
Cook	3
Engineer	7
Labour	23
Private Service	1
Worker	4
Total	38
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Japan in 2010	
Labour	13
Private Service	1





Teacher	1
Worker	2
Total	17
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Japan in 2011	
Engineer	3
Labour	5
Private Service	3
Teacher	1
Waiter	4
Total	16
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Japan in 2012	
Agriculture Labour	2
Garments Worker	6
Labour	2
Private Service	1
Reinforcing	3
Scaffolding Labour	6
Technician	4
Waiter	9
Welder/Fabricator	2
Worker	7
Total	42
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Japan in 2013	
Agriculture Labour	3
Cook	2
Engineer	4
Labour	3
Operator	7
Salesman	1
Scaffolding Labour	3
Technician	15
Waiter	1
Worker	2
Total	41
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Jordan in 2005	
Agriculture Labour	4
Cleaning Labour	22
Cook	8
Cutter	3

Cutting Master	15
Driver	16
Electrician / Electrical Technician	2
Female Labour	2
Finishing Man	5
Flatlock Machine Operator	26
Garments Worker	82
Guard	2
Helper	440
House Boy	3
Iron man	12
Labour	1136
Machine Operator	4729
Markers	5
Mechanics	17
Operator	1814
Overlock Machine Operator	130
Presser General	25
Private Service	8
Production Manager	1
Quality Controller	70
Servant	5
Single Needle Operator	100
Supervisor	38
Tailor	101
Technician	7
Welder/Fabricator	1
Worker	234
Total	9063
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Jordan in 2006	
Checker	42
Embroidery Labour	4
Garments Packer (Female)	20
Garments Worker	13
Helper	242
Iron man	1
Labour	559
Machine Operator	1074
Machine Operator (Female)	134





Mason	30
Mechanics	1
Operator	546
Presser General	4
Quality Controller	15
Servant	1
Supervisor	6
Sewing Line Checker (Female)	5
Sewing Line Helper (Female)	27
Tailor	47
Welder/Fabricator	26
Total	2797
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Jordan in 2007	
Agriculture Labour	7
Farmer	1
House Worker	1
Labour	427
Operator	13
Servant	4
Worker	31
Total	484
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Jordan in 2008	
Agriculture Labour	1
Carpenter	11
Cleaning Labour	15
Cleaning Labour (Female)	37
Construction Worker	26
Cook	4
Electrician / Electrical Technician	1
Farmer	1
Gypsum Carving	2
House Worker	35
Labour	372
Machine Operator	20
Mason	29
Mechanics	5
Operator	17
Painter	8
Private Service	6

Servant	36
Tailor	2
Technician	13
Translator	1
Worker	38
Total	680
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Jordan in 2009	
Carpenter	1
Cleaning Labour	96
Cleaning Labour (Female)	176
Clerk	2
Cook	2
Driver	3
Farmer	1
Helper	1
Hotel boy	2
House Worker	3
Labour	1305
Machine Operator	7
Mason	1
Operator	1
Painter	1
Salesman	1
Servant	52
Tailor	1
Welder/Fabricator	1
Worker	34
Total	1691
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Jordan in 2010	
Cleaner	9
Cleaning Labour (Female)	24
Cook	1
Farmer	1
Guard	1
House Boy	1
House Worker	4
Labour	222
Machine Operator(Female)	1797
Mason	1





Servant	136
Sewing Operator(Female)	31
Supervisor	1
Worker	3
Total	2232
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Jordan in 2011	
Agriculture Labour	7
Batch Plant Operator	31
Buttonhole Maker	50
Checker	57
Cleaner	3
Cleaning Labour	2
Cook	1
Driver	1
Feed of the arm Operator	60
Labour	18
Linking Operator (Female)	168
Machine Operator	30
Machine Operator (Female)	2953
Operator	201
Overlock Machine Operator	214
Private Service	18
Quality Controller	20
Recreation Attendant	20
Servant	4
Sewing Operator (Female)	54
Single Needle Operator	435
Supervisor	23
Translator	1
Waiter	7
Waitress	1
Worker	8
Total	4387
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Jordan in 2012	
1st Commissar (Kitchen)	2
Agriculture Labour	1
Checker	4
Cleaner	1
Cleaning Labour	2

Cook	8
Doctor	2
Farmer	3
Female Labour	157
Helper	4
House Worker	4
Labour	2435
Labour (Junior)	1
Machine Operator (Female)	2677
Operator	281
Overlock Machine Operator	6
Private Service	7
QA/QC Engineer	19
QA/QC Inspector	1
Safety Controller	1
Sea Guard	21
Servant	5983
Waiter	17
Waitress	1
Wood Designer	1
Worker	87
Total	11726
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Jordan in 2013	
Agriculture Labour	1
Checker	59
Cleaner	7
Cleaning Labour	2
Consultant	1
Driver	1
Erectora	1
Female Labour	42
Helper	6
House Boy	13
House Keeper	1
House Worker	6842
Labour	1351
Linking Operator (Female)	145
Machine Labour	1
Machine Operator	523





Machine Operator (Female)	1269
Nurse	1
Operator	2552
Private Service	1
Production Assistant	1
Quality Checker	12
Safety Controller	1
Sea Guard	3
Servant	6468
Sewer	100
Sewing Operator (Female)	1889
Supervisor	1
Technician	1
Waiter	3
Worker	82
Total	21380
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Qatar in 2005	
Agriculture Labour	1
Air Conditioning Technician	1
Air Host	5
Bar Bender	36
Black Smith	2
Car Painter	1
Carpenter	203
Civil Engineer	4
Cleaning Labour	9
Cook	71
Crane Operator	3
Denter	1
Driver	232
Electrician / Electrical Technician	49
Farmer	32
Fitter	10
Fixer	1
Foreman	11
Gardener	2
Guard	1
Heavy Driver	12
Helper	72

House Boy	59
House Keeper	1
Labour	723
Loading Unloading Labour	4
Machinist	2
Mason	222
Mechanics	4
Office Boy	1
Officer	1
Operator	42
Painter	27
Pharmacist	1
Plasterer	1
Plumber	42
Private Service	14
Programmer	1
Receptionist	1
Rigger	1
Rod Binder	6
Salesman	4
Servant	10
Shepherd	10
Steel Fixer	103
Store Keeper	3
Supervisor	4
Surveyor	2
Tailor	6
Teacher	3
Technician	35
Tiles Fixer	2
Time Keeper	5
Translator	1
Typist	1
Waiter	6
Welder/Fabricator	1
Worker	4
Total	2112





Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Qatar in 2006	
Accountant	1
Air Conditioning Technician	30
Bar Bender	4
Barber	2
Carpenter	193
Civil Engineer	1
Cleaning Labour	2
Coffee Maker	1
Cook	75
Crane Operator	8
Drafts Man	10
Driver	512
Duct Man	4
Electrician / Electrical Technician	72
Engineer	19
Fabricator	13
Farmer	25
Fisherman	2
Fitter	1
Fixer	1
Food Server	1
Foreman	19
Gardener	1
Guard	3
Heavy Driver	18
Helper	170
House Boy	42
Instructor	5
Insulator	6
Labour	5112
Machine Operator	2
Mason	464
Mechanics	3
Office Assistant	1
Office Boy	2
Officer	2
Operator	33
Painter	38

Pipe Fitter	5
Plasterer	19
Plumber	66
Private Service	9
Rigger	4
Rod Binder	13
Room Boy	38
Salesman	10
Scarf Folder	25
Scaffolder	150
Seaman	2
Servant	8
Shepherd	7
Staff Locker Attendant	10
Steel Fixer	220
Supervisor	1
Surveyor	24
Tailor	13
Teacher	2
Technician	35
Tiles Fixer	28
Welder/Fabricator	5
Worker	70
Total	7662
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Qatar in 2007	
Accountant	4
Agriculture Labour	2
Air Host	1
Architect	1
Barber	6
Blacksmith	13
Bread Maker	1
Camel men	1
Car Painter	1
Carpenter	146
Civil Engineer	1
Cleaning Labour	4
Construction Worker	27
Cook	30





Crane Operator	2
Decoration Labor	1
Director	2
Drafts Man	1
Driver	224
Electrical And Electronics Engineer	1
Electrician / Electrical Technician	131
Engineer	25
Fabricator	16
Farmer	39
Fisherman	1
Fitter	16
Foreman	24
Guard	4
Heavy Driver	51
Helper	115
House Boy	1
Instrument Fitter	20
Insulator	1
Jewelry Maker	1
Labour	12823
Machine Operator	4
Machinist	5
Maker	5
Mason	334
Mechanical Technician (Ammonia)	7
Mechanical Technician (Compressor)	2
Mechanical Technician (Material)	1
Mechanics	15
Office Boy	1
Operator	14
Painter	61
Pipe Fitter	4
Plasterer	43
Plumber	61
Private Service	7
Purchaser	1
Reinforcing	7
Representative	1

Rigger	1
Rod Binder	1
Salesman	8
Scaffolder Grade-A	25
Scarf Folder	265
Seaman	4
Secretary	5
Servant	30
Shepherd	16
Shuttering Carpenter	37
Smith / Black Smith	20
Steel Fixer	88
Store Keeper	2
Supervisor	9
Surveyor	15
Tailor	32
Teacher	1
Technician	84
Tiles Fixer	5
Waiter	1
Welder Grade-A	1
Welder/Fabricator	73
Worker	79
Total	15112
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Qatar in 2008	
Accountant	59
Administrative Officer	6
Administrator	1
Agriculture Labour	1
Air Conditioning Technician	2
Assistant Cook	1
Baker	5
Barber	34
Batch Plant Operator	5
Black Smith	125
Block Man	12
Bobcats/JCb Operator	3
Building / Construction Helper	1
Building Painter	24





Bulldozer Operator	2
Butcher	5
Camel men	6
Camp Boss	3
Car Painter	27
Carpenter	555
Cashier	2
Chef/Cook	3
Chemist	2
Civil Engineer	14
Civil F/M	8
Cleaning Labour	71
Clerk	2
Continental Cook	5
Control Room Engineer	2
Cook	121
Crane Operator	3
Cutter	1
Decoration Labor	1
Designer	1
Director	7
Drafts Man	3
Driver	663
ELV. Electric Technician	1
Electrician / Electrical Technician	271
Embroidery Labour	10
Engineer	46
Escalator Operator	17
Executive Chief	13
Farmer	88
Fitter	167
Fixer	1
Foreman	189
Gardener	1
General Labour	100
Grader Operator	3
Guard	8
Heavy Driver	17
Helper	127

House Boy	1
House Keeper	4
Installer	8
Jewelry Maker	1
Labour	18681
Laundry Man	5
Layer Man	5
Machine Labour	8
Machine Operator	4
Maker	195
Manager	8
Markers	1
Mason	574
Mason (Bricks)	1
Mechanical Engineer	3
Mechanical Supervisor	4
Mechanical Technician (Maintenance)	12
Mechanical Technician (Workshop)	3
Mechanics	143
Messenger	2
Nurse	1
Office Boy	2
Operator	102
Painter	427
Pastry Chief	2
Pipe Fitter	15
Plasterer	125
Plastic Machine Operator	1
Plumber	106
Press Labour	3
Presser General	1
Private Service	384
Professional Body Governing	7
Project Manager	1
Purchase Assistant	5
Purchaser	5
QA/QC Engineer	2
QA/QC Inspector	2
Reinforcing	7





Representative	5
Rigger	30
Rod Binder	6
Roller Operator	4
Room Boy	38
Salad Cook	3
Sales Representative	2
Salesman	50
Scarf Folder	10
Seaman	10
Secretary	1
Servant	79
Shepherd	53
Shift Charge Engineer	1
Shovel Operator	5
Shuttering Carpenter	123
Staff	1
Staff Locker Attendant	10
Steel Fixer	196
Store Keeper	1
Supervisor	30
Supervisor (Instrument)	1
Supervisor (Operation)	12
Surveyor	1
Technician Copper	3
Tailor	91
Teacher	3
Technician	413
Tiles Fixer	46
Tower Crane Operator	5
Upholsterer	4
Waiter	30
Welder Grade-A	4
Welder/Fabricator	48
Wiring Electrician	9
Wood Worker	3
Worker	494
Total	25531

Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Qatar in 2009	
Accountant	31
Administrative Officer	1
Administrator	2
Agriculture Labour	1
Baby Sitter	1
Backer	6
Barber	35
Black Smith	67
Brick Worker	1
Camel men	1
Carpenter	405
Cashier	2
Civil Engineer	9
Cleaning Labour	23
Clerk	2
Common Labour	220
Cook	169
Cutter	1
Denter	1
Designer	1
Director	2
Drafts Man	2
Driver	673
Electrician	4
Electrician / Electrical Technician	186
Electronic Technician	20
Embroidery Labour	2
Engineer	65
Executive Chief	5
Fabricator	1
Farmer	97
Fitter	85
Fixer	4
Foreman	187
Guard	11
Helper	52
Instrument Fitter	20
Jewelry Maker	1





Labour	6744
Layer Man	1
Machine Labour	12
Machine Operator	9
Machinist	10
Maker	25
Manager	5
Marketing Executive/Marketing manager	1
Mason	423
Mechanical Engineer	1
Mechanics	75
Messenger	1
Office Boy	1
Operator	32
Packing Technician	1
Painter	412
Pharmacist	1
Pipe Fitter	3
Planner	1
Plasterer	91
Plumber	52
Presser General	1
Private Service	114
Professional Body Governing	4
Purchaser	1
Reinforcing	3
Representative	2
Rod Binder	5
Salesman	47
Scarf Folder	14
Seaman	31
Secretary	1
Servant	125
Shepherd	107
Shift Charge Engineer	1
Smith / Black Smith	17
Steel Fixer	4
Store Keeper	2
Supervisor	24

Supervisor(Operation)	1
Surveyor	18
Tailor	67
Teacher	1
Technician	319
Tiles Fixer	7
Turner	1
Upholsterer	5
Waiter	15
Welder Grade-A	1
Welder/Fabricator	69
Wiring Electrician	1
Worker	361
Total	11666
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Qatar in 2010	
1st Commissar (Kitchen)	3
Accountant	9
Agriculture Labour	7
Baby Sitter	1
Baker	7
Barber	21
Barber	2
Black Smith	50
Butcher	4
Captain	8
Carpenter	332
Cashier	2
Cleaner	96
Cleaning Labour	8
Clerk	1
Cont. Cook	1
Cook	223
Decoration Labor	2
Designer	1
Director	1
Driver	577
Duct Man	10
Electrician	66
Electrician/Electrical Technician	2





Embroidery Labour	1
Engineer	20
Erectora	1
Executive Chief	3
Farmer	58
Fisherman	1
Fitter	60
Foreman	62
Guard	5
Helper	1
Insulator	4
Jewelry Maker	1
Laboratory Assistant	6
Labour	6401
Labour (Junior)	1
Layer Man	1
Machine Operator	2
Maker	25
Manager	1
Mason	477
Mason (Bricks)	4
Mechanics	11
Messenger	1
Occupational Safety Technician	7
Office Assistant	1
Operator	11
Painter	123
Pipe Fitter	2
Planner	2
Plaster	26
Plasterer	2
Plumber	101
Private Service	935
QA/QC Engineer	2
Salad Cook	1
Salesman	50
Sea Guard	2
Seaman	37
Servant	419

Shepherd	77
Supervisor	15
Technician Copper	1
Tailor	69
Technician	56
Tile Fixer (Wall)	1
Tiles Fixer	2
Upholsterer	1
Waiter	391
Weaving Tech	8
Welder Grade-A	8
Welder/Fabricator	5
Wood Designer	10
Wood Worker	3
Worker	1135
Total	12084
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Qatar in 2011	
1st Commissar (Kitchen)	12
Accountant	16
Agriculture Labour	2
Baby Sitter	2
Barber	15
Barber	2
Black Smith	48
Block Man	2
Butcher	2
Camel men	1
Captain	5
Car Cleaner	3
Carpenter	321
Carpenter (A Grade)	32
Chamber Man	1
Cleaner	16
Cleaning Labour	4
Clerk	1
Coffee Maker	1
Cook	276
Cook Helper	1
Designer	2





Director	5
Draught Man	1
Driver	972
ELV. Electric Technician	1
Electrical and Electronic Engineer	1
Electrical (Ext) Helper	21
Electrician	142
Electrician / Electrical Technician	7
Engineer	21
Fabricator	3
Farmer	108
Fish Cutter	1
Fitter	106
Foreman	40
Frier	1
Guard	4
Hairdresser	1
Hand Pressers	1
Helper	5
Horse Stable Man	1
Laboratory Assistant	22
Labour	3006
Labour (Junior)	1
Machine Operator	1
Machinist	7
Maker	84
Manager	5
Mason	336
Mason (Bricks)	1
Mechanical Fitter	73
Mechanics	5
Operator	12
Packing Technician	1
Painter	114
Pipe Fitter	40
Planner	1
Plaster	7
Plumber	60
Plumbing Drafts Man	1

Press Labour	1
Pressing	1
Private Service	1885
Professional Body Governing	1
QA/QC Engineer	53
RO Plant Technician	1
Reinforcing	1
Safety Controller	1
Salesman	22
Scaffolder Grade-A	11
Scaffolder Grade-B	32
Sea Guard	5
Seaman	34
Secretary	1
Servant	336
Shepherd	128
Shuttering Carpenter	78
Sofa Maker	1
Steel Fixer	41
Superintendent	1
Supervisor	15
Tailor	59
Teacher	1
Technician	52
Tile Fixer (Wall)	5
Tile Fixer (Wall)	12
Tiles Fixer	8
Upholsterer	2
Waiter	1585
Waitress	1
Ward Boy	1
Weaving Tech	21
Welder Grade-A	65
Welder Grade-B	27
Welder/Fabricator	9
Wood Designer	24
Wood Worker	5
Worker	2656
Workshop Labour	1





Workshop Worker	1
Total	13168
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Qatar in 2012	
1st Commissar (Kitchen)	60
1st Commissar (Pastry)	3
3G/4G SMAW	1
A Casual Worker	3
A/C and Refrigerator Electrician	2
AC Engineer	1
Accountant	17
Administrative Officer	1
Agriculture Labour	2
Air Conditioning Technician	4
Assistant Electrician	4
Backer	2
Baker	2
Bar Bender	1
Barber	35
Barber	10
Black Smith	137
Brick Worker	1
Building Labour	4
Business	5
Captain	9
Car Painter	4
Carpenter	732
Carpenter (A Grade)	1
Carpet Fitter	1
Cashier	22
Caster	1
Ceramic Mason	1
Ceramic Technician	1
Civil Engineer	1
Cleaner	42
Cleaning Labour	16
Cleaning Supervisor	1
Clerk	3
Construction Worker	68
Cook	424

Cook Helper	2
D/T	1
Decoration Furniture	1
Decoration Labor	1
Decoration Labour	1
Denter	1
Denting Technician	1
Designer	2
Digger	3
Director	3
Drafts Man	4
Driver	1508
Duct Man	39
Electrical Drafts Man	1
Electrical Engineer	1
Electrical and Electronic Engineer	1
Electrical (Ext) Helper	1
Electrician	247
Electrician / Electrical Technician	24
Embroidery Labour	8
Embroidery/Tailor	3
Engineer	21
Escalator Operator	1
Executive Chief	1
Farmer	196
Field Engineer	1
Fitter	331
Fitter Grade-A	2
Fitter Grade-B	1
Foreman	120
Gardener	50
General Labour	1
Grader Operator	1
Grinder	1
Guard	24
Gypsum Carving	1
Hairdresser	1
Heavy Driver	1
Heavy Vehicle Driver	2





Helper	11
Horse Rider	1
Installer	1
Instructor	1
Instrument Fitter	10
Jewelry Maker	2
LD Driver	1
Laboratory Assistant	35
Labour	4727
Labour (Junior)	2
Lagger	2
Loader	4
Machine Labour	1
Machine Operator	6
Machinist	8
Maintenance Technician	1
Maker	130
Manager	6
Manicurist	4
Marble Technician	12
Mason	1125
Mason (Bricks)	32
Mason (Plaster/Block)	1
Mechanics	33
Mechanist Grade-A	1
Messenger	2
Moulding Maker	1
Operator	12
Packing Technician	1
Painter	291
Piling Hand	1
Pipe Fitter	31
Pipe Welder	4
Planner	4
Plaster	45
Plasterer	40
Plater	1
Plumber	273
Practitioners F	4

Practitioners M	3
Pressing	3
Private Service	2809
Process Technician	1
Procurement Engineer	1
Production Assistant	1
Production Worker	1
Professional Armed Carpenter	11
Professional Body Governing	34
Programmer	1
Purchase Assistant	1
Purchaser	2
QA/QC Engineer	1460
QA/QC Inspector	8
Reinforcing	3
Representative	5
Rigger	6
Salesman	127
Sea Guard	1
Seaman	39
Secretary	4
Servant	234
Sewer	2
Shepherd	179
Site Engineer	1
Steel Fixer	18
Supervisor	70
Technician Copper	1
Tailor	200
Technician	401
Technician Helper	4
Thermal Treatments Technician	2
Tile Fixer (Wall)	10
Tile Fixer (Wall)	15
Tiles Fixer	41
Tiles Marble	1
Tiles Worker	10
Turner	1
Upholsterer	3





Waiter	4117
Waitress	1
Washer	1
Weaving Tech	15
Welder Grade-A	9
Welder Grade-B	3
Welder/Fabricator	34
Wood Deiggenir	50
Wood Worker	5
Worker	7752
Workshop Labour	1
Workshop Worker	1
Total	28801
Occupation-wise Bangladeshi migrant workers in Qatar in 2013	
1st Commissar (Kitchen)	2
A/C and Refrigerator Electrician	1
Accountant	93
Administrative Officer	11
Administrator	12
Agriculture Engineer	1
Agriculture Labour	5
Air Conditioning Engineer	2
Air Conditioning Technician	45
Assistant Carpenter	1
Assistant Cook	8
Assistant Electrician	1
Assistant Store Keeper	1
Baby Sitter	7
Baker	1
Baker	14
Bar Bender	3
Barber	69
Barber	61
Beautician	1
Bee Collector	1
Bell Boy	2
Black Smith	968
Brick Worker	8
Building /Construction Helper	1

Building Labour	7
Building Painter	1
Business	21
Butcher	5
Captain	2
Car Cleaner	3
Car Painter	4
Carpenter	2980
Cashier	44
Caster	3
Ceramic Carver	1
Ceramic Mason	3
Ceramic Technician	1
Chef/Cook	2
Civil Engineer	9
Cleaner	166
Cleaning Labour	69
Cleaning Labour (Female)	45
Clerk	18
Coffee Maker	2
Computer Engineer	2
Conc Worker	20
Construction Worker	132
Cook	1299
Cook Helper	1
Cook/Chef	3
Coordinator	2
Decoration Furniture	4
Decoration Labor	13
Decoration Labour	7
Denter	8
Designer	10
Digger	2
Director	11
Drafts Man	3
Driver	4174
Electrical Engineer	8
Electrical and Electronic Engineer	2
Electrician	1250





Electrician / Electrical Technician	78
Embroidery Labour	24
Embroidery/Tailor	14
Engineer	100
Executing buttonholes and keys with automatic machines	1
Execution of Pockets with automatic Machines	4
Executive Chief	20
Fabricator	1
Farmer	461
Fireman	2
Fish Cutter	1
Fisherman	2
Fitter	1552
Fitter Grade-A	11
Fixer	8
Foreman	799
Gardener	30
Gen. Internal Specialist	1
General Labour	1
Gold Smith	1
Grocer	1
Guard	127
Heavy Driver	19
Heavy Vehicle Driver	17
Heavy Vehicle Driver	2
Helper	65
Horse Rider	1
Horse Stable Man	5
Hotel boy	1
House Keeper	1
House Worker	741
Hunter	1
Infections Disease Specialist	1
Installer	5
Instructor	3
Insulator	1
Jewelry Maker	2
Juice Maker	1
Lab. Technician	1

Labour	8394
Loader	1
Machine Operator	57
Machine Technician	1
Machinist	55
Maintenance Technician	2
Maker	443
Manager	51
Manicurist	52
Marble Mason	13
Marble Technician	53
Markers	8
Marketing Executive/Marketing Manager	2
Mason	2848
Mason (Bricks)	146
Mechanical Engineer	2
Mechanics	108
Messenger	6
NEO Specialist	1
Office Boy	32
Operator	48
Orchard Solding	2
Packing Technician	5
Painter	1124
Photographer	1
Pipe Fitter	43
Pipe Worker	1
Planner	2
Planter	1
Plaster	126
Plasterer	47
Plumber	789
Porter	1
Potter	1
Presser General	3
Pressing	3
Private Service	431
Production Operator (Female)	1
Professional Armed Carpenter	278





Professional Body Governing	122
Purchase Assistant	5
Purchaser	7
RO Plant Technician	1
Reinforcing	39
Receptionist	6
Repairer	1
Representative	66
Sales Manager	3
Sales Representative	1
Salesman	385
Seaman	105
Secretary	14
Servant	1709
Service Assistant	1
Sewer	3
Shepherd	528
Site Engineer	1
Steel Fixer	13
Steward	17
Store Keeper	18
Supervisor	246
Surveyor	8
Tailor	361
Teacher	1
Technician	1355
Technician Helper	7
Tile Fixer (Wall)	55
Tile Fixer (Wall)	42
Tiles Fixer	251
Tiles Marble	1
Tiles Worker	235
Trainer	2
Turner	2
Typist	3
Upholsterer	17
Waiter	1585
Waitress	2
Washer	1

Weaving Tech	9
Welder Grade-A	18
Welder Grade-B	2
Welder/Fabricator	151
Welding Forman	1
Wiring Electrician	1
Wood Designer	124
Wood Painter	2
Wood Worker	9
Worker	19091
Workshop Worker	1
Total	57572

Source: BMET.



Annex-2: Bangladesh Standard Classification of Occupations-2012 (BSCO-2012)

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
1 Managers	11 Chief Executives, Senior Officials and Legislators	111 Legislators and Senior Officials	1111 Legislators: President Government minister Member of parliament
			1112 Senior Government Officials: Ambassador City administrator Civil service commissioner Director General (government department) Director General (intergovernmental organization) Fire commissioner Inspector General (police) Police commissioner Secretary (government administration)
			1113 Traditional Chiefs and Heads of Village: Village chief Village head
			1114 Senior Officials of Special-Interest Organizations: Chairperson, trade union Director General, employers' organization Leader, political party President, political party Secretary General, environment protection organization Secretary General, human rights organization





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			1115* Local Government Representatives: Mayor City councillor Upazila Chairman/Vice Chairman Union Council Chairman Union Council Member Ward Commissioner
		112 Managing Directors and Chief Executives	1120 Managing Directors and Chief Executives: Chief executive Managing director Regional manager
	12 Administrative and Commercial Managers	121 Business Services and Administration Managers	1211 Finance Managers: Company secretary Finance manager
			1212 Human Resource Manager: Industrial relations manager Personnel manager Recruitment manager
			1213 Policy and Planning Managers: Corporate planning manager Policy manager Strategic planning manager
			1219 Business Services and Administration Managers Not Elsewhere Classified: Administrative services manager Cleaning services manager Corporate services manager Facilities manager
		122 Sales, Marketing and Development Managers	1221 Sales and Marketing Managers: Marketing manager Sales manager

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			1222 Advertising and Public Relations Managers: Advertising manager Public relations manager
			1223 Research and Development Managers: Product development manager Research manager
	13 Production and Specialized Services Managers	131 Production Managers in Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries	1311 Agricultural and Forestry Production Managers: Forestry manager Plantation manager Ranch manager
			1312 Agriculture and Fisheries Production Managers: Agriculture production manager Fishing operations manager Shore captain (fishing) Trawler manager
		132 Manufacturing, Mining, Construction and Distribution Managers	1321 Manufacturing Managers: Manufacturer Manufacturing manager Production and operations manager (manufacturing)
			1322 Mining Managers: Mine manager Production manager (mine) Production manager (oil and gas extraction) Production manager (quarry) Quarry manager
			1323 Construction Managers: Civil engineering project manager Construction project manager Project builder





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			1324 Supply, Distribution and Related Managers: Bus station manager Logistics manager Purchasing manager Railway station manager Railway station master Supply and distribution manager Supply chain manager Transport company manager Urban transit system manager Warehouse manager
		133 Information and Communication Technology Service Managers	1330 Information and Communication Technology Service Managers: Application development manager Chief information officer Data operations manager Data processing manager ICT development manager Information systems director Information technology manager (IT manager) Internet service provider Network manager
		134 Professional Services Managers	1341 Child Care Services Managers: Child care centre manager 1342 Health Services Managers: Chief public health officer Clinical director Community health care coordinator Director of nursing Health facility administrator Hospital matron Medical administrator

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			1343 Aged Care Services Managers: Aged care home director Community aged care coordinator Nursing home director
			1344 Social Welfare Managers: Community centre manager Family services manager Housing services manager Welfare centre manager
			1345 Education Managers: College director Dean (university) Head teacher School principal
			1346 Financial, Bank and Insurance Services Branch Managers: Bank manager Credit union manager Financial institution branch manager Institution agency manager
			1347* NGO and Cooperative Society Branch Managers: NGO (Micro Credit) Managers Cooperative Society Branch Managers
			1349 Professional Services Managers Not Elsewhere Classified: Archives manager Art gallery manager Correctional services manager Legal service manager Museum manager Police superintendent Prison governor





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
	14 Hospitality, Retail and Other Services Managers	141 Hotel and Restaurant Managers	1411 Hotel Managers: Hotel manager Motel manager Youth hostel manager
			1412 Restaurant Managers: Café manager Catering manager Restaurant manager
		142 Retail and Wholesale Trade Managers	1420 Retail and Wholesale Trade Managers: Grocery manager Retail manager
		143 Other Services Managers	1431 Sports, Recreation and Cultural Centre Managers: Amusement park manager Billiards or pool hall manager Casino manager Leisure centre manager Riding school manager Sports centre manager Theatre manager Theme park manager
			1432* Cleaning and Related Services Managers: Cleaning manager Laundry manager
			1433* Safety and Security Managers: Safety manager Security manager
			1439 Services Managers Not Elsewhere Classified: Caravan park manager Conference centre manager Contact centre manager Shopping centre manager Travel agency manager

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
2 Professionals	21 Science and Engineering Professionals	211 Physical and Earth Science Professionals	2111 Physicists and Astronomers: Astronomer Medical physicist Nuclear physicist Physicist
			2112 Meteorologists: Climatologist Hydro meteorologist Meteorologist Weather forecaster
			2113 Chemists: Chemist
			2114 Geologists and Geophysicists: Geological oceanographer Geologist Geophysical oceanographer Geophysicist Geoscientist
		212 Mathematicians, Actuaries and Statisticians	2120 Mathematicians, Actuaries and Statisticians: Actuary Demographer Mathematician Operations research analyst Statistician Officer, Statistical
		213 Life Science Professionals	2131 Biologists, Botanists, Zoologists and Related Professionals: Animal behaviourist Bacteriologist Biochemist Biomedical researcher Biotechnologist Botanist Cell geneticist Marine biologist





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			Microbiologist Molecular geneticist Pharmacologist Zoologist
			2132 Farming, Forestry and Fisheries Advisers: Agronomist Fisheries adviser Forestry adviser Forestry scientist Horticultural scientist Silviculturist Soil scientist
			2133 Environmental Protection Professionals: Air pollution analyst Conservation officer Conservation scientist Ecologist Environmental scientist Environmental auditor Environmental consultant Environmental research scientist Environmental scientist Park ranger Water quality analyst
		214 Engineering Professionals (Excluding Electro Technology)	2141 Industrial and Production Engineers: Industrial efficiency engineer Industrial plant engineer Production engineer
			2142 Civil Engineers: Civil engineer Geotechnical engineer Structural engineer

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			<p>2143 Environmental Engineers: Air pollution control engineer Environmental analyst Environmental engineer Environmental remediation specialist Wastewater process engineer</p>
			<p>2144 Mechanical Engineers: Aeronautical engineer Engine designer Marine architect Marine engineer Mechanical engineer</p>
			<p>2145 Chemical Engineers: Chemical engineer Fuel technologist Plastics technologist Refinery process engineer</p>
			<p>2146 Mining Engineers, Metallurgists and Related Professionals: Extractive metallurgist Mining engineer Petroleum and natural gas extraction engineer</p>
			<p>2147* Textile Engineers: Textile engineers Yarn manufacturing technologist Fabric manufacturing technologist Wet processing technologist Garment manufacturing technologist Fashion and design technologist</p>





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			2149 Engineering Professionals Not Elsewhere Classified: Biomedical engineer Explosive ordnance engineer Marine salvage engineer
		215 Electro Technology Engineers	2151 Electrical Engineers: Electrical engineer Electric power generation engineer Electromechanical engineer
			2152 Electronics Engineers: Computer hardware engineer Electronics engineer Instrumental engineer
			2153 Telecommunication Engineers: Broadcast engineer Telecommunications engineer Telecommunications engineering technologist
		216 Architects, Planners, Surveyors and Designers	2161 Building Architects: Building architect Interior architect
			2162 Landscape Architects: Landscape architect
			2163 Product and Garment Designers: Costume designer Fashion designer Industrial designer Jewellery designer
			2164 Town and Traffic Planners: Land planner Traffic planner Urban planner

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			2165 Cartographers and Surveyors: Aerial surveyor Cadastral surveyor Cartographer Hydrographic surveyor Land surveyor Mine surveyor Photogrammetrist
			2166 Graphic and Multimedia Designers: Animator Commercial artist Computer games designer Digital artist Graphic designer Illustrator Multimedia designer Publication designer Website designer
	22 Health Professionals	221 Medical Doctors	2211 Generalist Medical Practitioners: Medical doctor – therapist Family medical practitioner General practitioner Medical doctor (general) Medical officer (general) Physician (general) Primary health care physician Resident medical officer specializing in general practice
			2212 Specialist Medical Practitioners: Anaesthetist Cardiologist Emergency medicine specialist Gynaecologist Obstetrician Ophthalmologist Paediatrician Pathologist Preventive medical specialist Psychiatrist Radiation oncologist





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
		222 Nursing and Midwifery Professionals	<p>2221 Nursing Professionals: Clinical nurse consultant Nurse (General) Nurse anaesthetist Nurse educator Nurse practitioner Operating theatre nurse Professional nurse Public health care nurse Specialist nurse</p> <p>2222 Midwifery Professionals: Professional midwife</p>
		223 Traditional and Complementary Medicine Professionals	<p>2230 Traditional and Complementary Medicine Professionals: Acupuncturist Ayurvedic practitioner Chinese herbal medicine practitioner Homeopath Naturopath Unani practitioner</p>
		224 Paramedical Practitioners	<p>2240 Paramedical Practitioners: Advanced care paramedic Clinical officer (paramedical) Primary care paramedic Surgical technician</p>
		225 Veterinarians	<p>2250 Veterinarians: Animal pathologist Veterinarian Veterinary epidemiologist Veterinary intern Veterinary surgeon</p>
		226 Other Health Professionals	<p>2261 Dentists: Dentist Endodontist Oral and maxillofacial surgeon Oral pathologist</p>

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			Orthodontist Paedodontist Prosthodontist
			2262 Pharmacists: Dispensing chemist Hospital pharmacist Industrial pharmacist Other pharmacist
			2263 Environmental and Occupational Health and Hygiene Professionals: Environmental health officer Occupational health and safety advisor Occupational hygienist Radiation protection expert
			2264 Physiotherapists: Geriatric physical therapist Manipulative therapist Orthopaedic physical therapist Paediatric physical therapist
			2265 Dietitians and Nutritionists: Clinical dietician Food service dietician Nutritionist Public health nutritionist Sports nutritionist
			2266 Audiologists and Speech Therapists: Audiologist Language therapist Speech pathologist Speech therapist
			2267 Optometrists and Ophthalmic Opticians: Ophthalmic optician Optometrist





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
	23 Teaching Professionals		2269 Health Professionals Not Elsewhere Classified: Dance and movement therapist Occupational therapist Osteopath Podiatrist Recreational therapist
		231 University and Higher Education Teachers	2310 University and Higher Education Teachers: Higher education lecturer Professor University lecturer University tutor
			2311* Higher Level Madrasah Education Teachers (Fazel/Kamel): Higher Level Madrasah Teachers
		232 Vocational Education Teachers	2320 Vocational Education Teachers: Automotive technology instructor Vocational educational teacher
		233 Secondary Education Teachers	2330 Secondary Education Teachers: High school teacher Secondary school teacher
			2331* Secondary Level Madrasah Education Teachers (Dakhil): Secondary Level Madrasah Teachers
			2332* Higher Secondary Education Teachers: Higher Secondary Education Teachers

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			2333* Higher Secondary Level Madrasah Education Teachers (Alim): Higher Secondary Level Madrasah Education Teachers (Alim)
		234 Primary School and Early Childhood Teachers	2341 Primary School Teachers: Primary school teacher
			2342 Early Childhood Educators: Early childhood teacher Pre-school teacher
			2343* Primary Level Madrasah Education Teachers (Ebtedayee): Primary Madrasah teacher
		235 Other Teaching Professionals	2351 Education Methods Specialists: Curriculum coordinator Curriculum developer Education methods specialist Schools inspector Teaching aid specialist
			2352 Special Needs Teachers: Learning disabilities special education teacher Learning support teacher Remedial teacher Teacher of gifted children Teacher of the hearing impaired Teacher of the sight impaired
			2353 Other Language Teachers: Intensive language teacher Migrant education teacher Practical language teacher Second language teacher





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			2354 Other Music Teachers: Guitar teacher (private tuition) Piano teacher (private tuition) Singing teacher (private tuition) Violin teacher (private tuition)
			2355 Other Arts Teachers: Dance teacher (private tuition) Drama teacher (private tuition) Painting teacher (private tuition) Sculpture teacher (private tuition)
			2356 Information Technology Trainers: Computer trainer Software trainer
			2357* Religious Education Teachers (Qawmi Madrasah): Qawmi Madrasah Teacher Hafizia Madrasah Teacher
			2359 Teaching Professionals Not Elsewhere Classified: Literacy tutor (private tuition) Mathematics coach (private tuition) School counsellor Student advisor
	24 Business and Administration Professionals	241 Finance Professionals	2411 Accountants: Accountant Auditor Certified accountant Chartered accountant Financial controller Insolvency trustee Management accountant Tax controller
			2412 Financial and Investment Advisers: Estate planner Financial planner Investment advisor

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			2413 Financial Analysts: Bond analyst Investment analyst Securities consultant
		242 Administration Professionals	2421 Management and Organization Analysts: Business consultant Management consultant Organization and methods analyst
			2422 Policy Administration Professionals: Intelligence officer Policy analyst Political adviser
			2423 Personnel and Careers Professionals: Career advisor Job analyst Occupational analyst Outplacement expert Personnel specialist Recruitment officer Vocational guidance counsellor
			2424 Training and Staff Development Professionals: Staff development officer Training officer Workforce development specialist
		243 Sales, Marketing and Public Relations Professionals	2431 Advertising and Marketing Professionals: Advertising specialist Marketing specialist Market research analyst
			2432 Public Relations Professionals: Press liaison officer Publicity agent





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			Public relations copy writer Public relations officer
			2433 Technical and Medical Sales Professionals (Excluding ICT): Sales representative (industrial production) Sales representative (medical and pharmaceutical products) Technical sales representative
			2434 Information and Communications Technology Sales Professionals: Sales representative (communications technology) Sales representative (computers)
	25 Information and Communications Technology Professionals	251 Software and Application Developers and Analysts	2511 System Analysts: Business analyst (IT) Computer scientist Information systems analyst Systems consultant Systems designer (IT)
			2512 Software Developers: Programmer analyst Software designer Software developer Software engineer
			2513 Web and Multimedia Developers: Animation programmer Computer games programmer Internet developer Multimedia programmer Website architect Website developer
			2514 Applications Programmers: Applications programmer

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			2519 Software and Application Developers and Analysts Not Elsewhere Classified: Quality assurance analyst (computers) Software tester Systems tester
		252 Database and Network Professionals	2521 Database Designers and Administrators: Data administrator Database administrator Database Analyst Database architect
			2522 Systems Administrators: Network administrator System administrator (computers)
			2523 Computer Network Professionals: Communications analyst (computers) Network analyst
			2529 Database and Network Professionals Not Elsewhere Classified: Data miner Digital forensic specialist Security specialist (ICT)
	26 Legal, Social and Cultural Professionals	261 Legal Professionals	2611 Lawyers: Attorney Barrister Lawyer Prosecutor Solicitor Legal Advisor
			2612 Judges: Chief Justice Judge Magistrate





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			2619 Legal Professionals Not Elsewhere Classified: Coroner Jurist (except lawyer or judge) Notary
		262 Librarians, Archivists and Curators	2621 Archivists and Curators: Archivist Art gallery curator Museum curator Records manager
			2622 Librarians and Related Information Professionals: Bibliographer Cataloguer Librarian
		263 Social and Religious Professionals	2631 Economists: Economic adviser Economic analyst Economist Labour economist
			2632 Sociologists, Anthropologists and Related Professionals: Anthropologist Archaeologist Criminologist Ethnologist Geographer Sociologist
			2633 Philosophers, Historians and Political Scientists: Genealogist Historian Philosopher Political scientist
			2634 Psychologists: Clinical psychologist Educational psychologist

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			Organizational psychologist Psychotherapist Sports psychologist
			2635 Social Work and Counselling Professionals: Addictions counsellor Bereavement counsellor Child and youth counsellor District social welfare officer Family counsellor Marriage counsellor Parole officer Probation officer Sexual assault counsellor Social worker Women's welfare organizer
			2636 Religious Professionals: Monk Imam Muazzine Religious thinkers Poojari Priest Rabbi
		264 Authors, Journalists and Linguists	2641 Authors and Related Writers: Author Book editor Essayist Indexer Novelist Playwright Poet Script writer Speech writer Technical communicator Technical writer Writer





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			2642 Journalists: Journalist Newspaper editor Newspaper reporter Sports writer Sub writer TV/radio news producer TV/radio news reporter
			2643 Translators, Interpreters and Other Linguists: Interpreter Lexicographer Philologist Sign language interpreter Subtitled Translator Translator-reviser
		265 Creative and Performing Artists	2651 Visual Artists: Cartoonist Ceramic artist Illustrator Picture restorer Portrait painter Sculptor
			2652 Musicians, Singers and Composers: Band leader Composer Instrumentalist Music conductor Night club musician Night club singer Orchestrator Singer Street musician Street singer
			2653 Dancers and Choreographers: Choreographer Dancer Night-club dancer Street dancer

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			<p>2654 Film, Stage and Related Directors and Producers: Documentary director Film editor Motion picture director Photography director Stage director Technical director Technical television or radio director Theatre producer</p>
			<p>2655 Actors: Actor Mime artist Storyteller</p>
			<p>2656 Announcers on Radio, Television and Other Media: News anchor Radio announcer Sports announcer Talk show host/hostess Television announcer Traffic reporter Weather reporter</p>
			<p>2659 Creative and Performing Artists Not Elsewhere Classified: Acrobat Aerialist Clown Hypnotist Magician Puppeteer Stand-up comedian Ventriloquist</p>





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
3 Technicians and Associate Professionals	31 Science and Engineering Associate Professionals	311 Physical and Engineering Science Technicians	3111 Chemical and Physical Science Technicians: Chemistry technician Geology technician Meteorology technician Physics technician
			3112 Civil Engineering Technicians: Building inspector Building surveyor Civil engineering technician Clerk of works Fire inspector Fire prevention specialist Geotechnical technician Surveying technician
			3113 Electrical Engineering Technicians: Electronics engineering technician Electric power transmission engineering technician
			3114 Electronics Engineering Technicians: Electronics engineering technician
			3115 Mechanical Engineering Technicians: Aeronautics engineering technician Marine engineering technician Mechanical engineering estimator Mechanical engineering technician
			3116 Chemical Engineering Technicians: Chemical engineering estimator Chemical engineering technician

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			3117 Mining and Metallurgical Technicians: Metallurgical technician Mining engineering technician
			3118 Draughts Persons: Draughts person Technical illustrator
			3119 Physical and Engineering Science Technicians Not Elsewhere Classified: Engineering technician (production) Fire investigator Forensic science technician Quality surveying technician Robotics technician Time and motion study technician
		312 Mining, Manufacturing and Construction Supervisors	3121 Mining Supervisors: Mine deputy Mine supervisor Mine under-manager Quarry supervisor
			3122 Manufacturing Supervisors: Area coordinator (manufacturing) Assembly supervisor Finishing supervisor Production supervisor (manufacturing)
			3123 Construction Supervisors: Building construction supervisor Site manager (construction)





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
		313 Process Control Technicians	<p>3131 Power Production Plant Operators: Distribution control operator Electric power plant operator Generating station operator Hydroelectric power plant operator Nuclear power plant operator Power system operator Solar power plant operator</p> <p>3132 Incinerator and Water Treatment Plant Operators: Incinerator operator Liquid waste process operator Pumping-station operator Sewage plant operator Wastewater operator Water treatment plant operator</p> <p>3133 Chemical Processing Plant Controllers: Chemical filtering and separating equipment operator Chemical heat treating plant operator Chemical process technician Chemical still and reactor operator</p> <p>3134 Petroleum and Natural Gas Refining Plant Operators: Blender operator (petroleum and natural gas (refining)) Gas plant operator Paraffin plant operator Petroleum process operator Refinery process technician Still operator (petroleum and natural gas refining)</p> <p>3135 Metal Production Process Controllers: Blast furnace operator Central control caster Rolling mill control operator</p>

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			3139 Process Control Technicians Not Elsewhere Classified: Automated assembly line operator Industrial robot controller Panel board operator (pulp and paper) Paper pulp refinery operator Pulping control operator Pulping technician
		314 Life Science Technicians and Related Associate Professionals	3141 Life Science Technicians (Excluding Medical): Bacteriology technician Herbarium technician Pharmacology technician Serology technician Tissue culture technician Zoology technician
			3142 Agricultural Technicians: Dairy technician Field crop technician Herd tester
			3143 Forestry Technicians: Forestry technician Silviculture technician
		315 Ship and Aircraft Controllers and Technicians	3151 Ships' Engineers: Ships' engineer
			3152 Ships' Deck Officers and Pilots: Pilot (ship) Ships' captain Skipper (yacht)
			3153 Aircraft Pilots and Related Associate Professionals: Aerial crop sprayer Flight engineer Flying instructor Navigator (flight) Pilot (aircraft)





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			3154 Air Traffic Controllers: Air traffic controller
			3155 Air Traffic Safety Electronics Technicians: Air traffic safety engineer Air traffic safety technician
	32 Health Associate Professionals	321 Medical and Pharmaceutical Technicians	3211 Medical Imaging and Therapeutic Equipment Technicians: Diagnostic medical radiographer Magnetic resonance imaging technologist Mammographer Medical radiation therapist Nuclear medicine technologist Radiographer
			3212 Medical and Pathology Laboratory Technicians: Blood-bank technician Cytology technician Medical laboratory technician Pathology laboratory technician
			3213 Pharmaceutical Technicians and Assistants: Dispensing technician Pharmaceutical assistant Pharmaceutical technician
			3214 Medical and Dental Prosthetic Technicians: Dental mechanic Dental technician Denturist Orthopaedic appliance maker Orthotic technician Orthotist Prosthetic technician

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
		322 Nursing and Midwifery Associate Professionals	3221 Nursing Associate Professionals: Assistant nurse Associate professional nurse Enrolled nurse Practical nurse
			3222 Midwifery Associate Professionals: Assistant midwife Traditional midwife
		323 Traditional and Complementary Medicine Associate Professionals	3230 Traditional and Complementary Medicine Associate Professionals: Acupuncture technician Ayurvedic technician Bonesetter Herbalist Homeopathy technician Village healer Village doctor/LMF Witch doctor
		324 Veterinary Technicians and Assistants	3240 Veterinary Technicians and Assistants: Artificial inseminator Veterinary assistant Veterinary nurse Veterinary vaccinator
		325 Other Health Associate Professionals	3251 Dental Assistants and Therapists: Dental assistant Dental hygienist Dental therapist
			3252 Medical Records and Health Information Technicians: Clinical coder Disease registry technician Health information clerk Medical records analyst Medical records clerk Medical records technician Medical records unit supervisor





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			3253 Community Health Workers: Community health aide Community health promoter Community health worker Village health worker
			3254 Dispensing Opticians: Contact lens optician Dispensing optician
			3255 Physiotherapy Technicians and Assistants: Acupressure therapist Electrotherapist Hydrotherapist Massage therapist Physical rehabilitation technician Physiotherapy technician
			3256 Medical Assistants: Clinical assistant Medical assistant Ophthalmic assistant
			3257 Environmental and Occupational Health Inspectors and Associates: Food sanitation and safety inspector Health inspector Occupational health and safety inspector Pollution inspector Product safety inspector Sanitary inspector
			3258 Ambulance Workers: Ambulance officer Ambulance paramedic Emergency medical technician Emergency paramedic

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
	33 Business and Administration Associate Professionals	331 Financial and Mathematical Associate Professionals	3259 Health Associate Professionals Not Elsewhere Classified: Anaesthesia technician Family planning counsellor HIV counsellor Respiratory therapy technician
			3311 Securities and Finance Dealers and Brokers: Foreign exchange broker Foreign exchange dealer Securities broker Stocks and shares broker
			3312 Credit and Loans Officers: Loan officer Mortgage officer Credit rating officer
			3313 Accounting Associate Professionals: Accounting assistant Bookkeeper
			3314 Statistical, Mathematical and Related Associate Professionals: Actuarial assistant Mathematical assistant Statistical assistant
			3315 Valuers and Loss Assessors: Appraiser Claims assessor Claims inspector Insurance assessor Real estate appraiser Valuer





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
		332 Sales and Purchasing Agents and Brokers	3321 Insurance Representatives: Insurance agent Insurance broker Insurance underwriter
			3322 Commercial Sales Representatives: After-sale service adviser Canvasser Commercial traveller
			3323 Buyers: Buyer Procurement officer Purchasing agent Purchasing merchandiser Supply officer
			3324 Trade Brokers: Commodities broker Commodity futures dealer Shipping broker Asset broker
		333 Business Services Agents	3331 Clearing and Forwarding Agents: Clearing agent Forwarding agent Shipping agent
			3332 Conference and Event Planners: Conference and event organizer Conference planner Wedding planner
			3333 Employment Agents and Contractors: Employment agent Job placement officer Labour contractor

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			3334 Real Estate Agents and Property Managers: Estate agent Property manager Realtor Salesperson (real estate)
			3339 Business Services Agents Not Elsewhere Classified: Advertising salesperson Auctioneer Literacy agent Musical performance agent Sports agent Theatrical agent Tour operator
		334 Administrative and Specialized Secretaries	3341 Office Supervisors: Clerical supervisor Data entry supervisor Filing clerks supervisor Personnel clerks supervisor
			3342 Legal Secretaries: Legal practice manager Legal secretary
			3343 Administrative and Executive Secretaries: Administrative secretary Correspondence assistant Court reporter Executive assistant Personal assistant
			3344 Medical Secretaries: Dental secretary Hospital ward secretary Medical insurance billing secretary Medical laboratory secretary Medical office administrative assistant





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			Medical practice manager Medical secretary Medical stenographer Medical transcriptionist Pathology secretary Patient care secretary
		335 Government Regulatory Associate Professionals	3351 Customs and Border Inspectors: Border inspector Customs inspector Customs officer Immigration officer Passport checking officer
			3352 Government Tax and Excise Officials: Excise officer Taxation inspector Tax officer
			3353 Government Social Benefits Officials: Pension officer Social benefits officer Social security claims officer
			3354 Government Licensing Officials: Building permit (licensing) officer Business permit (licensing) officer Licensing officer
			3355 Police Inspectors and Detectives: Police detective Police inquiry agent Police inspector
			3359 Government Regulatory Associate Professionals Not Elsewhere Classified: Agricultural inspector

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			Fisheries inspector Forestry inspector Prices inspector Wage inspector Weights and measures inspector
	34 Legal, Social, Cultural and Related Associate Professionals	341 Legal, Social and Religious Associate Professionals	3411 Legal and Related Associate Professionals: Bailiff Conveyancing clerk Judge's clerk Justice of the peace Law clerk Legal clerk Legal assistant Paralegal Private detective Title searcher Muhuri Lawyer's assistant
			3412 Social Work Associate Professionals: Community development worker Community services worker Crisis intervention worker Disability services worker Family services worker Life skills instructor Mental health support worker Welfare support worker Women's shelter supervisor Youth services worker
			3413 Religious Associate Professionals: Faith healer Lay preacher Monk Nun





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
		342 Sports and Fitness Workers	<p>3421 Athletes and Sports Players: Athlete Bicycle racer Boxer Chess player Footballer Golfer Hockey player Jockey Poker player Racing player Skier Tennis player Wrestler</p>
			<p>3422 Sports Coaches, Instructors and Officials: Referee Ski instructor Sports coach Sports official Swimming instructor</p>
			<p>3423 Fitness and Recreation Instructors and Programme Leaders: Aerobics instructor Fitness instructor Horse riding instructor Outdoor adventure guide Personal trainer Sailing instructor Underwater diving instructor</p>
		343 Artistic, Cultural and Culinary Associate Professionals	<p>3431 Photographers: Aerial photographer Commercial photographer Industrial photographer Photographer Photo journalist Portrait photographer Scientific photographer</p>

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			3432 Interior Designers and Decorators: Display decorator Interior decorator Set designer Visual merchandiser Window dresser
			3433 Gallery, Museum and Library Technicians: Gallery technician Library technician Museum technician Taxidermist
			3434 Chefs: Chef Executive chef Head chef Pastry chef Saucier Sous-chef
			3435 Other Artistic and Cultural Associate Professionals: Body artist Floor manager (broadcasting) Lighting technician Programme coordinator (broadcasting) Prompter Property master (broadcasting) Script-girl/boy Special effects technician Stage manager Stage technician Stunt artist Stunt coordinator Tattooist Theatre technician Theatrical dresser Walker-on





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
	35 Information and Communications Technicians	351 Information and Communications Technology Operations and User Support Technicians	3511 Information and Communications Technology Operations Technicians: Computer operator Computer peripheral equipment operator High-speed computer printer operator
			3512 Information and Communications Technology User Support Technicians: Communications assistant (ICT) Computer database assistant Computer help desk operator Computer programming assistant Computer systems analysis assistant
			3513 Computer Network and Systems Technicians: Computer network technician Network support technician
			3514 Web Technicians: Webmaster Website administrator Website technician
		352 Telecommunications and Broadcasting Technicians	3521 Broadcasting and Audiovisual Technicians: Audiovisual operator Broadcasting equipment operator Broadcasting technician Camera operator (motion picture) Camera operator (video) Production assistant (media)
			3522 Telecommunications Engineering Technicians: Engineering technician (telecommunications)

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
4 Clerical Support Workers	41 General and Keyboard Clerks	411 General Office Clerks	4110 General Office Clerks: General office clerk Office clerk
		412 Secretaries (general)	4120 Secretaries (general): Secretary Typing secretary Word processing secretary
		413 Keyboard Operators	4131 Typists and Word Processing Operators: Shorthand typist Stenographer Typist Word processor
			4132 Data Entry Clerks: Data entry operator Data input clerk Payment entry clerk
	42 Customer Services Clerks	421 Tellers, Money Collectors and Related Clerks	4211 Bank Tellers and Related Clerks: Bank teller Money changer Post office counter clerk
			4212 Bookmakers, Croupiers and Related Gaming Workers: Bookmaker Croupier
			4213 Pawnbrokers and Money-Lenders: Money-lender Pawnbroker
			4214 Debt-Collectors and Related Workers: Bill and account collector Charity collector Debt collector





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
		422 Client Information Workers	<p>4221 Travel Consultants and Clerks: Airline ticket agent Check-in attendant Ticket issuing clerk (travel) Tourism information clerk Travel agency clerk Travel consultant Travel desk clerk</p>
			<p>4222 Contact Centre Information Clerks: Customer contact centre information clerk</p>
			<p>4223 Telephone Switchboard Operators: Answering service operator Telephone switchboard operator</p>
			<p>4224 Hotel Receptionists: Hotel front desk clerk Hotel receptionist</p>
			<p>4225 Enquiry Clerks: Counter inquiries clerk Information clerk</p>
			<p>4226 Receptionists (general): Medical office receptionist Receptionist</p>
			<p>4227 Survey and Market Research Interviewers: Market research interviewer Public opinion interviewer</p>
			<p>4229 Client Information Workers Not Elsewhere Classified: Eligibility interviewer Eligibility specialist Hospital admission clerk</p>

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
	43 Numerical and Material Recording Clerks	431 Numerical Clerks	4311 Accounting and Bookkeeping Clerks: Accounts clerk Bookkeeping clerk Cost computing clerk
			4312 Statistical, Finance and Insurance Clerks: Actuarial clerk Brokerage clerk Finance clerk Insurance clerk Mortgage clerk Securities clerk
			4313 Payroll Clerks: Wages clerk
		432 Material Recording and Transport Clerks	4321 Stock Clerks: Dispatch clerk (stock) Freight clerk Stock clerk Storeroom clerk Weighing clerk
			4322 Production Clerks: Production clerk Schedule clerk (materials)
			4323 Transport Clerks: Clerical controller (transport service) Clerical dispatcher (transport service)
	44 Other Clerical Support Workers	441 Other Clerical Support Workers	4411 Library Clerks: Library clerk Library filer
			4412 Mail Carriers and Sorting Clerks: Mail clerk Post carrier Postman/woman





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			4413 Coding, Proofreading and Related Clerks: Coding clerk Proofreading clerk
			4414 Scribes and Related Workers: Scribe Deed writer
			4415 Filing and Copying Clerks: Copying clerk Photocopying clerk Filing clerk
			4416 Personnel Clerks: Human resource assistant Human resource clerk
			4419 Clerical Support Workers Not Elsewhere Classified: Advertising clerk Correspondence clerk Directory compiler Press clipper Publication clerk
5 Services and Sales Workers	51 Personal Services Workers	511 Travel Attendants, Conductors and Guides	5111 Travel Attendants and Travel Stewards: Cabin attendant Flight attendant Ship's steward
			5112 Transport Conductors: Bus conductor Cable car conductor Ticket inspector (public transport) Train conductor Tram conductor Transport ticket seller

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			5113 Travel Guides: Art gallery guide Tour escort Tourist guide
		512 Cooks	5120 Cooks: Cook
		513 Waiters and Bartenders	5131 Waiters: Waiter
			5132 Bartenders: Café manager Restaurant manager Waiter
		514 Hairdressers, Beauticians and Related Workers	5141 Hairdressers: Barber Hair care specialist Hairdresser Hairstylist
			5142 Beauticians and Related Workers: Bath attendant Beautician Make-up artist Manicurist Pedicurist Slimming consult
		515 Building and Housekeeping Supervisors	5151 Cleaning and Housekeeping Supervisors in Offices, Hotels and Other Establishments: Housekeeper (hotel) Matron (housekeeping)
			5152 Domestic Housekeepers: Bed and breakfast operator Butler Domestic housekeeper





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			5153 Building Caretakers: Caretaker Concierge (building) Janitor
		516 Other Personal Services Workers	5161 Astrologers, Fortune-tellers and Related Workers: Astrologer Fortune-teller Numerologist Palmist
			5162 Companions and Valets: Companion Personal maid Valet
			5163 Undertakers and Embalmers: Embalmer Undertaker
			5164 Pet Groomers and Animal Care Workers: Animal attendant Dog trainer Horse breaker Veterinary aide Zoo keeper
			5165 Driving Instructors: Driving instructor
			5169 Personal Services Workers Not Elsewhere Classified: Club host Club hostess Dancing partner Social escort
	52 Sales Workers	521 Street and Market Salespersons	5211 Stall and Market Salespersons: Kiosk salesperson Market stallholder Market vendor Street stall sales assistant

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			5212 Street Food Salespersons: Hawker (food) Street food vendor
		522 Shop Salespersons	5221 Shopkeepers: Grocer Newsagent Shopkeeper
			5222 Shop Supervisors: Checkout supervisor Supermarket supervisor
			5223 Shop Sales Assistants: Salesperson (retail establishment) Salesperson (wholesale establishment) Shop assistant
		523 Cashiers and Ticket Clerks	5230 Cashiers and Ticket Clerks: Checkout operator Service station cashier Service station console operator Store cashier Ticket issuing clerk (entertainment and sporting events)
		524 Other Sales Workers	5241 Fashion and Other Models: Advertising model Artist's model Fashion model
			5242 Sales Demonstrators: Demonstrator Sales merchandiser
			5243 Door-to-door Salespersons: Door-to-door salesperson





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			Door-to-door sales representative Party plan salesperson
			5244 Contact Centre Salespersons: Call centre salesperson Customer contact centre salesperson Internet salesperson Telemarketer Telemarketing salesperson
			5245 Service Station Attendants: Marino attendant Service station attendant
			5246 Food Service Counter Attendants: Cafeteria counter attendant
			5249 Sales Workers Not Elsewhere Classified: Rental salesperson
	53 Personal Care Workers	531 Child Care Workers and Teachers' Aides	5311 Child Care Workers: Babysitter Child care worker Creche ayah Family day care worker Nanny Out of school hours care worker
			5312 Teachers' Aides: Pre-school assistant Teacher's assistant
		532 Personal Care Workers in Health Services	5321 Health Care Assistants: Birth assistant (clinic or hospital) Nursing aide (clinic or hospital) Patient care assistant Psychiatric aide

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			5322 Home-based Personal Care Workers: Home care aide Nursing aide (home) Personal care provider
			5329 Personal Care Workers in Health Services Not Elsewhere Classified: Dental aide First aid attendant Hospital orderly Medical imaging assistant Pharmacy aide Sterilization aide
	54 Protective Services Workers	541 Protective Services Workers	5411 Firefighters: Firefighter Forest firefighter
			5412 Police Officers: Constable Police officer Police patrol officer
			5413 Prison Guards: Prison guard
			5414 Security Guards: Night guard Chowkider Bodyguard Doorkeeper Museum guard Security guard Security patrolman/woman Watchman/woman
			5415* Ansars: Battalion Ansar VDP – Village Defence Police Ansars officer





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			5416* Border Guard Bangladesh: BGB Officers (Deputy/Assistant Director) Subeder Havildar Lance Naik Niak, etc.
			5417* Bangladesh Coast Guard: Coast Guard
			5419 Protective Services Workers Not Elsewhere Classified: Animal control officer Beach patrolman/woman Crossing guard Game warden Lifeguard Traffic warden
6 Skilled Agricultural, Forestry and Fishery Workers	61 Market-oriented Skilled Agricultural Workers	611 Market Gardeners and Crop Growers	6111 Field Crop and Vegetable Growers: Cereal farmer Cotton farmer Potato farmer Rice farmer Skilled farm worker (field crops) Sugar-cane grower
			6112 Tree and Shrub Crop Growers: Fruit farmer Rubber farmer Rubber tapper Tea grower
			6113 Gardeners; Horticultural and Nursery Growers: Horticulturist Landscape gardener Market gardener Mushroom cultivator

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			6114 Mixed Crop Growers: Mixed crop farmer Skilled farm worker (mixed crop)
		612 Animal Producers	6121 Livestock and Dairy Producers: Cattle farmer Dairy farmer Dog farmer Drover Goat farmer Horse breeder Shearer Sheep farmer Shepherd
			6122 Poultry Producers: Poultry breeder Poultry farmer Poultry tender
			6123 Apiarists and Sericulturists: Apiarist Sericulturist
			6129 Animal Producers Not Elsewhere Classified: Crocodile farmer Fur farmer (non-domesticated animals) Game bird breeder Ostrich farmer Snail breeder
		613 Mixed Crop and Animal Producers	6130 Mixed Crop and Animal Producers: Farmer (mixed farming) Skilled farm worker (mixed farming)





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
	62 Market-oriented Skilled Forestry, Fishery and Hunting Workers	621 Forestry and Related Workers	6210 Forestry and Related Workers: Charcoal burner Logger Logging climber Skilled forestry worker Timber cruiser Tree feller
		622 Fishery Workers, Hunters and Trappers	6221 Aquaculture Workers: Algae cultivator Fish farmer Oyster farmer Pearl cultivator Seafood farmer Skilled fish farm worker Skilled seafood farm worker
			6222 Inland and Coastal Waters Fishery Workers: Coastal fishery skipper Fisher (coastal waters) Fisher (inland waters)
			6223 Deep-sea Fishery Workers: Deep-sea fisher Trawler skipper
			6224 Hunters and Trappers: Fur trapper Seal hunter
	63 Subsistence Farmers, Fishers, Hunters and Gatherers	631 Subsistence Crop Farmers	6310 Subsistence Crop Farmers: Subsistence crop farmer Subsistence gardener Subsistence vegetable grower
		632 Subsistence Livestock Farmers	6320 Subsistence Livestock Farmers: Subsistence cattle farmer

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
		633 Subsistence Mixed Crop and Livestock Farmers	6330 Subsistence Mixed Crop and Livestock Farmers: Mixed subsistence farmer
		634 Subsistence Fishers, Hunters, Trappers and Gatherers	6340 Subsistence Fishers, Hunters, Trappers and Gatherers: Hunter-gatherer Subsistence collector Subsistence diver Subsistence fisher Subsistence trapper
7 Craft and Related Trades Workers	71 Building and Related Trades Workers (excluding Electricians)	711 Building Frame and Related Trades Workers	7111 House Builders: House builder
			7112 Bricklayers and Related Workers: Block layer Bricklayer Chimney builder Refractory bricklayer
			7113 Stonemasons, Stonecutters, Splitters and Carvers: Granite cutter Stone cutter Stone polisher (hand or hand-powered tools)
			7114 Concrete Placers, Concrete Finishers and Related Workers: Cement finisher Concrete placer Terrazzo worker
			7115 Carpenters and Joiners: Carpenter Door installer Finish carpenter Framer Joiner Shipwright (wood)





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			7119 Building Frame and Related Trades Workers Not Elsewhere Classified: Building wrecker Prefabricated building assembler Scaffolder Skilled demolition worker Steeplejack
		712 Building Finishers and Related Trades Workers	7121 Roofers: Asphalt roofer Metal roofer Roof tiler Thatcher
			7122 Floor Layers and Tile Setters: Marble setter Tile setter
			7123 Plasterers: Dry wall plasterer Fibrous plasterer Ornamental plasterer Plasterer Solid plasterer
			7124 Insulation Workers: Acoustic insulation worker Boiler and pipe insulation worker Insulation installer Insulation worker Refrigeration and air conditioning equipment insulation worker
			7125 Glaziers: Glazier Roofing glazier Vehicle glazier

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			7126 Plumbers and Pipe Fitters: Drain technician Gas fitter Pipe fitter Pipe layer Plumber Ventilation pipe fitter Sanitary fitter
			7127 Air Conditioning and Refrigeration Mechanics: Air conditioning equipment mechanic Refrigeration mechanic
		713 Painters, Building Structure Cleaners and Related Trades Workers	7131 Painters and Related Workers: Building painter Paperhanger
			7132 Spray Painters and Varnishers: Manufactured articles painter Vehicle painter
			7133 Building Structure Cleaners: Building exteriors cleaner
	72 Metal, Machinery and Related Trades Workers	721 Sheet and Structural Metal Workers, Moulders and Welders, and Related Workers	7211 Metal Moulders and Coremakers: Coremaker Metal casting moulder
			7212 Welders and Flame Cutters: Brazier Flame cutter Welder
			7213 Sheet Metal Workers: Boilersmith Coppersmith Tinsmith





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			7214 Structural Metal Preparers and Erectors: Erector, structural metal Preparer, structural metal
			7215 Riggers and Cable Splicers: Cable and rope splicer Rigger Ship rigger Tower rigger
		722 Blacksmiths, Toolmakers and Related Trades Workers	7221 Blacksmiths, Hammersmiths and Forging Press Workers: Blacksmith Foreign press worker Hammersmith
			7222 Toolmakers and Related Workers: Die maker Gunsmith Jig maker Locksmith Patternmaker Toolmaker
			7223 Metal Working Machine Tool Setters and Operators: Boring machine operator Casting machine operator Machine tool operator Machine tool setter Machine tool setter-operator Metal turner Rivet production machine operator Tool production machine operator
			7224 Metal Polishers, Wheel Grinders and Tool Sharpeners: Knife sharpener

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			Metal finisher Metal polisher Tool grinder Rod binder Rod cutter
		723 Machinery Mechanics and Repairers	7231 Motor Vehicle Mechanics and Repairers: Automotive brakes systems service technician Diesel fitter (road transport) Engine fitter (motor vehicle) Garage mechanic Moped repairer Motorcycle mechanic Motorized rickshaw mechanic Motor vehicle engine and fuel systems service technician Motor vehicle mechanic Motor vehicle repairer Motor vehicle service technician Small engine mechanic
			7232 Aircraft Engine Mechanics and Repairers: Aeromechanic Aircraft engine fitter Aircraft maintenance engineer (airframes) Aircraft maintenance engineer (engines) Aircraft maintenance supervisor Aircraft mechanic Aircraft restorer Aircraft service technician Airframe and power plant mechanic Airframe mechanic Aviation maintenance technician Helicopter mechanic Jet engine mechanic Power plant mechanic (aircraft) Rocket engine component mechanic





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			7233 Agricultural and Industrial Machinery Mechanics and Repairers: Construction machinery mechanic Construction machinery repairer Mining machinery fitter Mining machinery repairer Stationary engine fitter Stationary engine repairer Train engine fitter Train engine repairer
			7234 Bicycle and Related Repairers: Bicycle mechanic Bicycle repairer Perambulator repairer Wheelchair repairer
	73 Handicraft and Printing Workers	731 Handicraft Workers	7311 Precision-instrument Makers and Repairers: Instrument/meteorological maker Photographic equipment repairer Surgical instrument maker Watchmaker
			7312 Musical Instrument Makers and Tuners: Brass instrument repairer Piano tuner Stringed instrument maker Woodwind instrument maker
			7313 Jewellery and Precious Metal Workers: Enameller (jewellery) Gem setter Goldsmith Jeweller Silversmith

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			7314 Potters and Related Workers: Brick and tile moulder Potter Pottery and porcelain caster Pottery and porcelain modeller
			7315 Glass Makers, Cutters, Grinders and Finishers: Glass blower Glass cutter Glass finisher Glass grinder
			7316 Signwriters, Decorative Painters, Engravers and Etchers: Decorative painter Glass enameller Glass engraver Glass etcher Signwriter
			7317 Handicraft Workers in Wood, Basketry and Related Materials: Basket maker Brush maker Reed weaving handicraft worker Wicker furniture maker Wooden articles handicraft worker
			7318 Handicraft Workers in Textile, Leather and Related Materials: Carpets handicraft worker Carpet weaver Cloth weaver Knitter Leather handicraft worker Loom threader Textile fibre comber Textile fibre drawer





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			Textile fibre rover Textiles handicraft worker Thread and yarn spinner
			7319 Handicraft Workers Not Elsewhere Classified: Candle-maker (handicraft) Metal toymaker Stone articles handicraft worker
		732 Printing Trades Workers	7321 Pre-press Technicians: Compositor Desktop publishing operator Electronic pre-press technician Photogravurist Photolithographer Plate maker (printing) Plate mouter (screen printing) Screen maker Typesetter
			7322 Printers: Block printer Digital press operator Feeder operator (printing) Flexographic press operator Gravure press operator Large sheet-fed press operator Screen printer Screen printing press operator Small press operator Textile printer Web press operator
			7323 Print Finishing and Binding Workers: Book binder Photo binder Collator operator Cutter operator Foil stamp operator Folder operator Gatherer operator

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
	74 Electrical and Electronics Trades Workers	741 Electrical Equipment Installers and Repairers	Perfect binder operator Saddle stitch operator Small machine bindery worker
			7411 Building and Related Electricians: Building repairs electrician Electrician
			7412 Electrical Mechanics and Fitters: Armature builder Automotive electrician Electrical generator fitter Electrical mechanic Lift mechanic Water pumps mechanic and fitter
		742 Electronics and Telecommunications Installers and Repairers	7413 Electrical Line Installers and Repairers: Electric cable jointer Electric power line worker
			7421 Electronics Mechanics and Servicers: Aircraft maintenance engineer (avionics) Automated teller machines mechanic Avionics technician Electronic equipment servicer Electronics mechanic Photocopy machine technician Mobile phone servicer
			7422 Information and Communications Technology Installers and Servicers: Communications technology servicer Computer equipment fitter Computer hardware installer Data and telecommunications cabler





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			Telecommunications equipment repairer Telecommunication line worker Telephone installer
	75 Food Processing, Woodworking, Garment and Other Craft and Related Trades Workers	751 Food Processing and Related Trades Workers	7511 Butchers, Fishmongers and Related Food Preparers: Butcher Fish filleter Fishmonger Slaughterer
			7512 Bakers, Pastry-cooks and Confectionery Makers: Baker Chocolate maker Confectioner Pastry-cook
			7513 Dairy Products Makers: Butter maker Cheese maker
			7514 Fruit, Vegetable and Related Preservers: Chutney maker Fruit preserver Jam maker Oil expeller Vegetable and fruit pickler Vegetable preserver
			7515 Food and Beverage Tasters and Graders: Food grader Food taster Liquor taster Tea taster Wine taster
			7516 Tobacco Preparers and Tobacco Products Makers: Cigarette maker Cigar maker Tobacco grader

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			7517* Sweetmeat Makers: Sweet maker Curd maker
		752 Wood Treathers, Cabinet-makers and Related Trades Workers	7521 Wood Treathers: Dry kiln operator Lumber kiln operator Timber treating tank operator Veneer dryer tender Wood seasoner Wood treater
			7522 Cabinet-makers and Related Workers: Cabinet-maker Cartwright Furniture cabinet-maker Wheelwright Wood patternmaker
			7523 Woodworking Machine Tool Setters and Operators: Woodworking machine operator Furniture production machine operator Precision woodworking sawyer Wood products machine operator Wood turner Woodworking lathe operator Woodworking machine setter Woodworking machine setter-operator Woodworking machine set-up operator
		753 Garment and Related Trades Workers	7531 Tailors, Dressmakers, Furriers and Hatters: Dressmaker Fur grader Furrier Hatter Milliner Tailor





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			7532 Garment and Related Patternmakers and Cutters: Fur patternmaker Garment cutter Garment patternmaker Glove cutter
			7533 Sewing, Embroidery and Related Workers: Embroiderer Sewer Umbrella maker
			7534 Upholsterers and Related Workers: Furniture upholsterer Mattress maker Orthopaedic upholsterer Vehicle upholsterer
			7535 Pelt Dressers, Tanners and Fellmongers: Fellmonger Pelt grader Tanner
			7536 Shoemakers and Related Workers: Cobbler Orthopaedic shoemaker Saddler Shoemaker
		754 Other Craft and Related Workers	7541 Underwater Divers: Oyster diver Salvage frogman Sponge diver Underwater worker
			7542 Shotfirers and Blasters: Blaster Powderman Powder monkey Shotfirer

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			7543 Product Graders and Testers (excluding Foods and Beverages): Product grader Quality inspector Wool classer
			7544 Fumigators and Other Pest and Weed Controllers: Fumigator Pest controller Weed controller
			7549 Craft and Related Workers Not Elsewhere Classified: Flower arranger Optical lens finisher Optical lens moulder
		755* Readymade Garments Workers	7551* Readymade Garments Pattern-Makers and Cutting Workers: Patternmaker Cutting Worker
			7552* Sewing and Embroidery Machine Operators: Sewing Machine Operator Embroidery Machine Operator
			7553* Printing and Washing Workers: Printing Worker Washing Worker
			7554* Quality Checkers and Finishing Workers: Quality Checker Maintenance Worker Finishing Iron Worker Finishing Worker





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			7555* Packaging and Labelling Workers: Packaging Worker Labelling Worker
			7556* Garment Helpers: Sewing Helper Accessories Worker Loading and Unloading Worker Other Garments Helper
			7557* Other Readymade Garments and Related Workers: Floor in-charge
8 Plant and Machine Operators and Assemblers	81 Stationary Plant and Machine Operators	811 Mining and Mineral Processing Plant Operators	8111 Miners and Quarriers: Bagger operator Continuous miner operator Dragline operator (mining) Driller (mining) Jumbo operator Miner Mining plant operator Quarrier Roof bolter (mining)
			8112 Mineral and Stone Processing Plant Operators: Coal washer Crusher operator (mineral or stone processing) Flotation worker (mineral processing) Gold precipitator Machine operator (stone cutting or processing) Milling machine operator (minerals)
			8113 Well Drillers and Borers and Related Workers: Bore sinker Boring equipment operator Derrick man

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			Derrick operator Developmental driller Directional driller Driller (oil or gas well) Drilling plant operator Drilling rig operator Power-tong operator Tool pusher Tour pusher
			8114 Cement, Stone and Other Mineral Products Machine Operators: Cast-concrete products machine operator Cast-stone products machine operator Concrete finishing machine operator Concrete production machine operator Industrial diamond polishing machine operator Stone polishing machine operator
		812 Metal Processing and Finishing Plant Operators	8121 Metal Processing Plant Operators: Ladle pourer Metal extrusion plant operator Metal heat treating operator Steel roller
			8122 Metal Finishing, Plating and Coating Machine Operators: Metal coating machine operator Metal finishing machine operator Metal plating machine operator Metal polishing machine operator





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
		813 Chemical and Photographic Products Plant and Machine Operators	<p>8131 Chemical Products Plant and Machine Operators: Candle production machine operator Explosive products machine operator Pharmaceutical and toiletry products machine operator</p> <p>8132 Photographic Products Machine Operators: Colour developer (film) Darkroom technician Developing machine operator (photography) Enlarging machine operator Photograph enlarger Photographic film machine operator Photographic film printer Photographic processor Photograph printer</p>
		814 Rubber, Plastic and Paper Products Machine Operators	<p>8141 Rubber Products Machine Operators: Latex worker Rubber extruding machine operator Rubber milling machine operator Rubber moulder Rubber products machine operator Tyre maker Tyre repairer Vulcanizer</p> <p>8142 Plastic Products Machine Operators: Laminated press operator (plastics) Optic fibre drawer Plastic boat builder Plastic bottle blowing machine operator Plastic cable making machine</p>

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			operator Plastic extrusion machine operator Plastic moulder Plastic products machine operator
			8143 Paper Products Machine Operators: Machine operator (cardboard products) Machine operator (envelope and paper bag production) Machine operator (paper box production) Paper products machine operator
		815 Textile, Fur and Leather Products Machine Operators	8151 Fibre Preparing, Spinning and Winding Machine Operators: Fibre combing machine operator Fibre preparing machine operator Thread and yarn spinning machine operator Thread and yarn twisting machine operator Thread and yarn winding machine operator
			8152 Weaving and Knitting Machine Operators: Carpet weaving machine operator Knitting machine operator Net production machine operator Weaving machine operator
			8153 Sewing Machine Operators: Embroidery machine operator Sewing machine operator





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			8154 Bleaching, Dyeing and Fabric Cleaning Machine Operators: Fabric bleaching machine operator Textile dyeing machine operator
			8155 Fur and Leather Preparing Machine Operators: Hide dehairing machine operator Leather staining machine operator Tanning machine operator
			8156 Shoemaking and Related Machine Operators: Machine operator (footwear production)
			8157 Laundry Machine Operators: Dry-cleaning machine operator Laundry machine operator Pressing machine operator (laundry)
			8159 Textile, Fur and Leather Products Machine Operators Not Elsewhere Classified: Braid making machine operator Hat making machine operator Tent making machine operator Textile patternmaking machine operator
		816 Food and Related Products Machine Operators	8160 Food and Related Products Machine Operators: Bakery products machine operator Bread production machine operator Chocolate production machine operator Cigarette production machine

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			operator Cigar production machine operator Dairy products machine operator Fish processing machine operator Meat processing machine operator Milk processing machine operator
		817 Wood Processing and Papermaking Plant Operators	8171 Pulp and Papermaking Plant Operators: Calender operator (pulp and paper) Pulp and paper grinder operator Repulper operator Sheeter operator (pulp and paper)
			8172 Wood Processing Plant Operators: Circular saw operator Log cut-off operator Plywood press-operator Sawmill operator Sawmill planer operator Sawmill trimmer operator Veneer lathe operator Wood processing plant sawyer
		818 Other Stationary Plant and Machine Operators	8181 Glass and Ceramics Plant Operators: Brick kiln operator Ceramics painting machine operator Clay mixing machine operator Extruding clay press operator Furnace operator (glass production) Glass blowing machine operator Glass mixing machine operator Glass production furnace





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			operator Pottery kiln operator Tile kiln operator
			8182 Steam Engine and Boiler Operators: Boiler tender Ships' boiler operator Stationary engineer Steam engine operator Stoker
			8183 Packing, Bottling and Labelling Machine Operators: Bottle filler Canning machine operator Labelling machine operator Packing machine operator Wrapping machine operator
			8189 Stationary Plant and Machine Operators Not Elsewhere Classified: Cable and rope splicing machine operator Silicon chip production machine operator
	82 Assemblers	821 Assemblers	8211 Mechanical Machinery Assemblers: Aircraft assemblers Bench fitter (trucks) Engine assembler Engine installer Gearbox assembler Turbine assembler Vehicle assembler 8212 Electrical and Electronic Equipment Assemblers: Armature assembler Electrical equipment assembler Eltromechanical equipment assembler Electronic equipment

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			assembler Etcher (printed circuit board) Telephone assembler Television assembler Watch assembler
			8219 Assemblers Not Elsewhere Classified: Ammunition assembler Bicycle assembler Box builder Door assembler Eyeglass frame assembler Furniture finisher (wood) Jewellery assembler Knife assembler Leather products assembler Luggage finisher Metal products assembler (except mechanical) Paperboard products assembler Pen and pencil assembler Plastic products assembler Plastic toy assembler Rubber products assembler Sun-blinds assembler Textile products assembler Thermos bottle assembler Wood products assembler
	83 Drivers and Mobile Plant Operators	831 Locomotive Engine Drivers and Related Workers	8311 Locomotive Engine Drivers: Locomotive driver Metropolitan railway driver Train driver
			8312 Railway Brake, Signal and Switch Operators: Braker (railway) Shunter (railway) Signaller (railway)





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
		832 Car, Van and Motorcycle Drivers	8321 Motorcycle Drivers: Dispatch rider Driver (motorized rickshaw) Driver (motorized tricycle) Motorcyclist
			8322 Car, Taxi and Van Drivers: Ambulance driver Car driver Parking valet Taxi driver Van driver
		833 Heavy Truck and Bus Drivers	8331 Bus and Tram Drivers: Bus driver Motor coach driver Tram driver
			8332 Heavy Truck and Lorry Drivers: Concrete mixer driver Garbage truck driver Heavy truck driver Road train driver
		834 Mobile Plant Operators	8341 Mobile Farm and Forestry Plant Operators: Harvester operator Logging plant operator Timber carrier driver Tractor driver Tree faller operator
			8342 Earthmoving and Related Plant Operators: Bulldozer operator Excavator operator Front-end loader operator Pile-driver operator Road-roller operator Road surface laying machine operator
			8343 Crane, Hoist and Related Plant Operators: Cable car operator Chair-lift operator

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			Crane operator Funicular driver Hoist operator Mine cage operator Ski-lift operator
			8344 Lifting Truck Operators: Forklift operator
		835 Ships' Deck Crews and Related Workers	8350 Ships' Deck Crews and Related Workers: Boatswain Ferry hand Sailor Tug hand
9 Elementary Occupations	91 Cleaners and Helpers	911 Domestic, Hotel and Office Cleaners and Helpers	9111 Domestic Cleaners and Helpers: Charworker (domestic) Domestic cleaner Domestic helper
			9112 Cleaners and Helpers in Offices, Hotels and Other Establishments: Aircraft cleaner Hotel cleaner Lavatory attendant Office cleaner
		912 Vehicle, Window, Laundry and Other Hand Cleaning Workers	9121 Hand Launderers and Pressers: Dry-cleaner (hand) Hand launderer Hand presser Ironer
			9122 Vehicle Cleaners: Car detailer Vehicle washer (hand)
			9123 Window Cleaners: Window cleaner
			9129 Other Cleaning Workers: Carpet cleaner Cooling tower cleaner Graffiti cleaner





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
	92 Agricultural, Forestry and Fishery Labourers	921 Agricultural, Forestry and Fishery Labourers	Swimming pool cleaner Water blaster
			9211 Crop Farm Labourers: Cane planter Fruit picker Rice farm labourer Vegetable picker
			9212 Livestock Farm Labourers: Livestock farm labourer
			9213 Mixed Crop and Livestock Farm Labourers: Farm labourer
			9214 Garden and Horticultural Labourers: Garden labourer Horticultural labourer Lawn mower Nursery labourer
			9215 Forestry Labourers: Axeman/woman Forestry labourer Tree planter
			9216 Fishery and Aquaculture Labourers: Aquaculture labourer Fishery labourer
	93 Labourers in Mining, Construction, Manufacturing and Transport	931 Mining and Construction Labourers	9311 Mining and Quarrying Labourers: Mining labourer Quarry labourer
			9312 Civil Engineering Labourers: Construction labourer (civil engineering) Earthmoving labourer Maintenance labourer (dams)

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			9313 Building Construction Labourers: Bricklayer's assistant Construction labourer (building work) Demolition labourer Hod carrier
		932 Manufacturing Labourers	9321 Hand Packers: Labeller (hand) Packer (hand) Wrapper (hand)
			9329 Manufacturing Labourers Not Elsewhere Classified: Bottle sorter Factory hand Material handler Stacker
		933 Transport and Storage Labourers	9331 Hand and Pedal Vehicle Drivers: Bicycle courier Cycle rickshaw driver Pedal vehicle driver Rickshaw puller
			9332 Drivers of Animal-drawn Vehicles and Machinery: Animal-drawn vehicle driver Animal train driver Mahout
			9333 Freight Handlers: Baggage handler Freight handler Warehouse porter
			9334 Shelf Fillers: Night filler Stock filler Stock handler
	94 Food Preparation Assistants	941 Food Preparation Assistants	9411 Fast Food Preparers: Fast food cook Hamburger maker Pizza maker Short order cook





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			9412 Kitchen Helpers: Hand dishwasher Kitchen assistant Kitchen hand Kitchen porter Kitchen steward Pantry attendant
	95 Street and Related Sales and Services Workers	951 Street and Related Services Workers	9510 Street and Related Services Workers: Car guard Car window washer Errand boy Free newspaper distributor Leaflet distributor Shoe-polisher
		952 Street Vendors (excluding Food)	9520 Street Vendors (excluding Food): Hawker Newspaper vendor Pedlar
	96 Refuse Workers and Other Elementary Workers	961 Refuse Workers	9611 Garbage and Recycling Collectors: Dustman/woman Recycling collector Refuse collector
			9612 Refuse Sorters: Recycling worker Scrap merchant Waste picker
			9613 Sweepers and Related Labourers: Park sweeper Street sweeper
		962 Other Elementary Workers	9621 Messengers, Package Deliverers and Luggage Porters: Hotel porter Leaflet deliverer Luggage porter Messenger Newspaper deliverer

Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
			<p>9622 Odd-job Persons: Handyperson Hotel useful Odd-job person</p> <p>9623 Meter Readers and Vending-machine Collectors: Meter reader Vending-machine collector</p> <p>9624 Water and Firewood Collectors: Firewood collector Water collector</p> <p>9629 Elementary Workers Not Elsewhere Classified: Fairground attendant Parking attendant Ticket collector Usher</p>
0 Armed Forces Occupations	01 Commissioned Armed Forces Officers	011 Commissioned Armed Forces Officers (Army)	<p>0110 Commissioned Armed Forces Officers (Army): Brigadier Captain Colonel Field Marshall Flying Officer (Army) General Lieutenant Major Naval officer (army) Officer cadet Second lieutenant</p>
		012* Commissioned Armed Forces Officers (Navy)	<p>0120 * Commissioned Armed Forces Officers (Navy): Admiral Captain (navy) Navy commander Officer cadet Sub Lieutenant Lieutenant Commodore</p>





Major Groups	Sub-Major Groups	Minor Groups	Unit Groups
		013* Commissioned Armed Forces Officers (Air Force)	0130* Commissioned Armed Forces Officers (Air Force): Air Commodore Air Marshall Air Chief Marshall Flight Lieutenant Group Captain Pilot Officer Flying Officer Squadron Leader Wing Commander
	02 Non-commissioned Armed Forces Officers	021 Non-commissioned Armed Forces Officers (Army)	0210 Non-commissioned Armed Forces Officers (Army): Sergeant Corporal Lance Corporal
		022* Non-commissioned Armed Forces Officers (Navy)	0220* Non-commissioned Armed Forces Officers (Navy): Seaman Petty Officer
		023* Non-commissioned Armed Forces Officers (Air Force)	0230* Non-commissioned Armed Forces Officers (Air Force): Flight sergeant Warrant Officer Corporal Air Craftman
	03 Armed Forces Occupations, Other Ranks	031 Armed Forces Occupations, Other Ranks (Army)	0310 Armed Forces Occupations, Other Ranks (Army): Bombardier Shoinik Infantryman/woman Paratrooper Rifleman/woman
		032* Armed Forces Occupations, Other Ranks (Navy)	0320* Armed Forces Occupations, Other Ranks (Navy): Coxswain (navy)
		033* Armed Forces Occupations, Other Ranks (Air Force)	0330* Armed Forces Occupations, Other Ranks (Air Force): Airman

Notes: * indicates new group adapted for Bangladesh.



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