

## **Migration Governance and (in)Equality: Bangladesh's Divergent Treatment of Migrant Categories**

**Md. Tanvir Alam<sup>1</sup>, Zannatul Ferdous<sup>2</sup>, Md. Shadikur Rahaman<sup>3</sup>**

### ***Abstract***

*The treatment of migrant workers is subject to significant differences and inequitable treatment of migrants in Bangladesh raises concerns about equality as established in the Constitution of Bangladesh. The research applied the International Organization for Migration (IOM) Migration Governance Framework (MiGOF) and included an analysis of governance practices by Government, Non-Government and Academic Stakeholders with IOM compliance of equality to determine the level of governance provided to migrants in five areas of Migration Governance Policy (Policy), Institutions (Institutions), Services (Services), Resource Allocation (Resources) and Accountability. Qualitative data were collected through documentary analysis and interviews with thirty-four (34) stakeholders from the Government, Civil Society, Academia and Migrant Communities. Findings indicate that systemic differences exist for three different categories of migrant worker. Specifically, overseas labour migrants are represented by a more comprehensive body of laws, welfare programmes and banking institutions, while Rohingya refugees, climate displaced persons, irregular migrants and internal migrants are subject to fragmented and/or punitive governance regimes. Economic expectations are the principal driving force behind the development of the IOM's Governance Policy. Therefore, the requirements for Governance Accountability and Governance Framework are applied inconsistently and are not aligned with the rights-based obligations of the Constitution. The findings of the study indicate the need for an integrated, rights-based framework to address structural inequalities and provide lessons to other climate-vulnerable countries in the Global South.*

**Keywords:** Migration Governance, Constitutional Equality, Bangladesh, Migrant Categories.

---

<sup>1</sup> Lecturer, Department of Public Administration, Stamford University Bangladesh

<sup>2</sup> Lecturer, Department of Public Administration, Stamford University Bangladesh

<sup>3</sup> Lecturer, Department of Public Administration, Stamford University Bangladesh

## INTRODUCTION

A paradoxical situation exists in Bangladesh's migration governance system: Rohingya refugees, despite being forcibly displaced from another country, are formally registered through biometric identity systems (Md. Kamruzzaman, 2019), whereas climate-induced internally displaced persons (IDPs) lack any institutional recognition or national identity documentation.

Migration as a characteristic element of human history, determining the evolution of society, the development of the economy, and the transformation of the political process, ever had its name. The term "migration" derives, for instance, from the Latin word "migrare," which means "to change residence" (Szymanski-Düll, 2024). This immediately evokes our predisposition to move over space, as if drawn to an innate urge organic to the existence and evolution process of humanity. Throughout history, migration generally had a tendency to ensue when a significant level of human development took place, triggered by factors such as trade, a need for more workers, wars, environmental factors, and levels of population pressure, among others (Hugo, 2008). Previously, migration as a process had been viewed as essentially a demographic phenomenon. More recently, however, migration is considered "a complex, multilayered social process embedded within larger systems of power, development, and inequality, operating through states" (Haas et al., 2020).

In academic and policy discourse, migration can be defined as "the movement of people from their usual residence, either within the territory of a country or across international borders, irrespective of the reasons for migration and its varying duration and status" (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs [UN DESA], 1998).

Titling this phenomenon, "A migrant can be considered anybody who moves from one place to another." The categories thus include various migrants such as labor migrants, family migrants, students, or environment-induced migrants. The status of migrants is different from that of the refugee due to certain governance measures put in place. While the status of the refugee is determined by International Protection Regimes, there is no comprehensive regime covering migrants. Therefore, there exist different treatment standards for migrants (International Organization for Migration [IOM], 2019a).

However, there is a growing need for studies focused on the relationship between climate change and migration, especially in the Global South. Riverside erosion, flooding, and rising water levels are identified as major factors in forced displacements in Bangladesh, affecting both domestic and international migration streams (Almulhim et al., 2024; Rahman et al., 2025; Sikder et al., 2025). It is confirmed that climate change impacts, together with socio-economic conditions, are influencing migration processes (İçduygu & Gören, 2023; Morshed et al., 2025).

Indeed, the subject of migration has undergone many changes in the twentieth and twenty-first centuries. Not long ago, it was dominated by economic and demographic approaches (Bloom et al., 2001), but it has been supplemented by sociology, politics, anthropology, geography, and law. Notwithstanding these challenges, the subject of migration continues to widen in scope because its institutions can no longer continue to be analyzed with regard to push-pull factors or labor market perspectives. Rather, it has been subjected to analysis concerning the laws of citizenship (Haas et al., 2022). In this regard, the study of migration focuses on classification by states on the types of migrants.

Migration governance can be defined as the set of laws, policies, institutions, and practices used in managing migration by states, as well as other actors in these processes. It is a term that came to the forefront in the second half of the last century due to international migration (Castles, 2000), the creation of protection regimes for refugees, and the increase in labor migration systems. At first, the concern for migration governance was focused primarily on control by states, while later, rights, development, security, and international cooperation also became part of this ideology (Betts, 2011).

Modern perspectives on this issue recognize that it is a multi-level and multi-actor process, in which a variety of actors participate, including states and international bodies, but also non-governmental actors, non-citizens/migrants themselves. Governance regimes also range from local to international levels. This is because migration is a trans-national phenomenon (Nicola Piper, 2019). This is particularly in line with policies like the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration that advocates for a positively cooperative approach to this issue (United Nations, 2018).

The rise in significance for governance within the migration process is historically related to challenges facing international platforms (Betts &

Kainz, 2017). A rise in labour mobility, consequences of climate change, an ageing population, as well as irregular migration, create mounting challenges for these processes. Inequality among categories, depending on legal, origin, or reason for international mobility, presents challenges that might otherwise result from governance. Migration governance's significance within history to date is crucial for studying constitutional equality or inequality related to Bangladesh's migration processes (Huddleston & Scholten, 2022).

The governance of migration in Bangladesh is still piecemeal and discriminatory, resulting in inequalities between the various types of migrants. The Rohingya refugees are recognized and assisted in terms of humanitarian aid, while the internally displaced migrants due to climatic changes lack documentation and hence recognition. These inequalities affect the recognition and protection of the migrants based on governance issues rather than needs. The lack of a common rights-based regime in the governance of migration further worsens the problem of inequalities among the migrants (Castles et al., 2020; IOM, 2019b). The governance issues directly affect the issue of equality under the constitution in terms of recognition, protection, and social services.

Analysis of migration governance and its association with the principle of equality under the constitution is highly significant in both a national and international context. In a national context, this research has contributed to promoting a more coherent policy framework and facilitating institutional change. Through highlighting some structural flaws and divergent treatment in the existing framework of migration governance in Bangladesh, this research work provides recommendations for framing a more integrated and rights-oriented framework, specifically focusing on climate change-induced internal migrants in Bangladesh, who still remain unnamed in existing frameworks (IOM, 2019b; Rahman et al., 2025). Secondly, by conceptualizing migration governance associated with constitutional imperatives in a country like Bangladesh, this work has contributed to developing legal literature in Bangladesh to examine how a country's policies support equality and social justice in governance (Castles et al., 2020).

In the international context, the research offers an empirical case study from a developing country that is climate change vulnerable, adding to the comparative literature on the governance of migration. The Bangladesh case study sheds light on how challenges of governance are interlinked with

factors of environmental stress, socio-economic constraints, as well as humanitarian drivers, offering key learnings to other developing countries in the Global South that find themselves in similar migration challenges (Almulhim et al., 2024; Sikder et al., 2025). The research also sheds light on the implications of challenges of governance and fragmented recognition in the global policy frameworks such as the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly, & Regular Migration (United Nations, 2018; İçduygu & Gören, 2023).

In general, by focusing the phenomenon of migration governance within the intersection between institutional practice, constitutionalism, and rights of migrants, the above study is addressing an existing problem associated with the lack of knowledge regarding the above theme.

Research Question of this study is;

1. Does the migration governance of Bangladesh exerts unequal treatment towards categories of migrants in Bangladesh?

To answer the research question, the following research objectives were developed;

1. To identify the components of migration governance of Bangladesh
2. To map the categories of migrants of Bangladesh.
3. To identify inequalities in the migration governance framework and treatment towards different migrant groups.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

The central focus of early scholarship on migration was focused on state or national-based approaches and economic theories, where mostly the phenomenon of migration was largely restricted to the labor market, regulated via border control policies, and international agreements between countries and entity. (Lami & Kojku, 2025; Ullah, 2025). Neoclassical approaches to the phenomenon of migration implied migrant behavior in terms of wage differentials (J. R. Harris & Todaro, 1995; J. Harris & Todaro, 1995; Porumbescu, 2018; Todaro & Smith, 2006), while the concern of governance relates to the control of their entry and exit (Geddes, 2022). In these approaches, there are negligible analytical concerns related to the legal status of the migrants or the distinction between the migrant categories (Castles & Miller, 1998; Hollifield, 1992).

Beginning in the late 20th century, critical political economy and institutional studies challenged these constricted concepts. It was argued that migration governance goes further than border management to cover legal frameworks, institutions, welfare arrangements, and accountability systems (Pannia et al., 2018). This signaled the emergence of the multidimensional concept of migration governance that goes well beyond the management of mobility (Zanker, 2019).

Notably, the literature at this formative stage tended toward homogeneity within the migrant group, exploring “migrants” in the aggregate. It is no coincidence that the lack of a disaggregated approach meant the nexus of inequalities between labor migrants, refugees, and internally displaced persons had not yet been thoroughly explored (Kneebone & Rawlings-Sanaei, 2007).

The 1990s experienced a normative turn due to globalization, human rights rhetoric, and migratory movements across the borders of nations (Pécoud & de Guchteneire, 2006). International documents, such as the 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, led to increased academic interest in this area of international migration law (Taran, 2002). The theme of migration governance came to be understood from the perspectives of sovereignty, human rights, and administrative capabilities (Bosniak, 2006).

This era marked the beginning of the idea of differentiated regimes of law, which understood that governments systematically categorize migrants according to several types, such as nationals, foreign laborers, refugees, and migrants with irregular status, with different rights applied to each type (Meyer & Boll, 2018). Soysal (1994) suggested that the post-national norm affects exclusion criteria established on the basis of citizenship, while on the contrary another scholar illustrated how governments target the granting of rights for different purposes such as economic interests (Castles, 2018). Within this scholarship, inequality appears not as a product of governance failure, but as an artifact of governance design (Geddes, 2018). Here, states set up hierarchies of deservingness wherein those migrants who are economically producing are favored and those who are not are left at the margins. It is this crucial theoretical knowledge that will inform an understanding of the differential treatment accorded to overseas labor migrants in comparison to refugee or climate-displaced migrants in Bangladesh.

This was the period when migration governance was more firmly established as a multilevel process involving states, international organizations, NGOs, and private actors (Betts, 2008). Betts (2011) made a particular stress that migration governance functions through fragmented regimes rather than via a coherent global system. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) popularized the "migration governance" framework, which was defined by the latter as "the structures and processes that shape migration outcomes at national and international levels" (Migration (IOM), 2020).

Scholars underlined five key elements of governance: policy frameworks, institutions, service delivery, resource allocation, and accountability mechanisms—a structure directly reflected in your analytical model (Pierre & Peters, 2020). This set of contributions emphasized that governance differs significantly among different categories of migrants, even within the same state. Meanwhile, critics pointed that global migration governance tends to reproduce inequality through the outsourcing of protection duties to humanitarian actors, while simultaneously consolidating state power over economically desirable migrants (Likić-Brborić, 2018). Indeed, refugees and undocumented migrants often receive governance through ad hoc humanitarianism or securitization, without any legal order protecting their rights in a manner enforceable against states and other actors (Natter, 2020). These observations become very important in the context of the Bangladesh government's dependence on the UNHCR and NGOs for Rohingya refugees.

Alongside governance studies, constitutional and socio-legal work explored how principle of equality fails to apply consistently between migrants. Although systems of government may promise equality before the law in their constitution, many times courts and laws restrict this to citizens or certain categories of non-citizens (Dummett & Nicol, 1990). Bosniak (2006) has labeled the phenomenon such that the immediate state is to have jurisdiction over migrants while they do not (yet) form part of its full moral and legal community an "alienage dilemma."

In the South Asian context, it formally comprises expansive equality constrained in practice. It is observed by academics that life and dignity rights are frequently extended to all regardless of status, whereas social- and economic-rights and welfare protections are tied to citizenship (Shachar, 2010). This tension is particularly salient in countries experiencing mass

displacement and labor migration. In Bangladesh Articles 27, 28, 31 and 32 of the Constitution guarantee equality, non-discrimination, protection of law and right to life. But, as the literature shows, constitutional rights are selectively actualized through legal and institutional mechanisms so that in practice citizenship is differentiated (Shaw, 2020).

The governance of overseas labor migration is also the subject of considerable attention in the South, not least on account of remittance-dependent economies (Aslam, 2025). It is also realized from the scholarly studies that good laws and institutions have been established by the countries like Bangladesh, Philippines and Nepal to regulate labor migration as it is a macroeconomic issue (Rahman, 2015). Mentioning of Bangladesh, research emphasizes that OEEA 2013 is the landmark law for institutionalizing protection migrant welfare funds and regulatory oversight. Academics contend that labor migrants are protected paradoxically, despite their vulnerability outside, they take precedence within by virtue of their economic contribution in terms of remittances (Siddiqui et al., 2023). This yields relatively strong alignment with constitutional equality norms, at least for policy. But there are cautionary views that point out this protection is instrumental, not right based. Governance structures sustain the flow of remittances and not substantive equality. Such an observation is crucial to understand the specific treatment of overseas labor migrants by a constitutionally ordered state differently from other migrant categories.

The law and normative implications of non-signatory states to the 1951 Refugee Convention, are a focal point in refugee governance literature (Janmyr, 2021). The situation in which Bangladesh is hosting the refugees has also been extensively analyzed as an example of humanitarian governance with no legal incorporation. Others record the way in which refugees are governed via camps, aid coordination mechanisms and international funds rather than through nation-states (Milton et al., 2017).

This work highlights how there is no constitutional recognition of refugees who have established prolonged residence, treated as “foreigners”. This “public state” is not a legal state, leading to weak accountability and rights shortfalls. Such an arrangement has been continuously described in the literature as one that reproduces structural inequality, in which refugees’ access to services is based on what donors prioritize rather than constitutionally assured rights. Such findings confirms your contention that

refugee governance in Bangladesh is functioning beyond constitutional equality framework entrenching legal/institutional exclusion.

The rising tide of climate-induced migration has become a subject for intensive study over the past few decades. Bangladesh is often referred to as the global epicenter of climate displacement, with flooding, cyclones and river erosion among the main factors. Despite policies to adapt, including the Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan that recognizes displacement (GoB, 2019), scholars note the lack of binding legal recognition for climate-displaced individual (Kälin, 2010). Climate migrants are described as “invisible” to the way governance is organized, those are neither refugees, nor traditional migrants. Governance responses tend to be disaster-centric, short term and relief focused rather than addressing long-term rights, livelihoods and urban integration (Ahmed et al., 2019)

The settlement void has constitutional ramifications. Right to life is theoretically possible but there are enforcement difficulties in the absence of a legal status. Such makes existing scholarship offer solid theoretical support for your argument about constitutional equality being denied in substance for climate-displaced persons. Research on irregular migration underscores the increasing securitization of migration management worldwide (Gabriel Tobiloba, 2025). Undocumented migrants are increasingly constructed by states as security risks, legitimizing detention, deportation and surveillance (Genova, 2004). Under immigration control, rights protection is often suspended or compromised.

In Bangladesh, literature is scarce but burgeoning and indicates that the management of both outgoing and incoming irregular migrants is predominantly underpinned by law enforcement measures rather than social policy. The consequence is, that right violations are frequent and there is also the exclusion from the constitutional protection of anything more than mere sustaining. This is referred to in the literature as governance by exclusion, whereby equality before law is sacrificed for security imperatives. Like your sub theme about accountability inequity, this analytical frame transfers directly.

The internal migration literature in Bangladesh has predominantly addressed the issue of rural-urban migration, informal labor market and urban poverty. Researchers have highlighted that migrant citizens are de facto denied housing, health care, and social security through informality (Afroze, 2020) and weak urban governance. Internal migrants do not have migratory

institutions, or specific policies. They are governed piecemeal by labor, housing and local government policies. This is known in the literature as internal exclusion: there is formal constitutional equality, but not systemic substantive equality (Jelínková et al., 2023). This scholarship reminds us of your critical insight--that equality is not eroded by exclusion alone, but by policy inaction and administrative neglect.

The reviewed literature shows that migration governance is inherently variegated, leading to protection hierarchies among the various migrant categories. Although global and regional literature has investigated labor migration, refugee politics, climate displacement, and irregular migration separately, few analyses juxtapose these categories systematically within a particular constitutional structure. In the case of Bangladesh there is an absence of integrating scholarship on climate migration and remittances with studies specifically linked to internal displacement amongst others. An evident lack of integrative analysis that links governance structures to constitutional equality among migrant groups exists. Your research directly fills this lacuna; it empirically shows how policy, institutional, service and resource disparities become constitutional (in)equality.

## **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

Migration governance is defined as a framework that consists of multiple dimensions of human mobility. This study uses the Migration Governance Framework of the International Organization for Migration (IOM)(Abel et al., 2023; Betts, 2008). The emphasis of IOM's MiGOF is that governments should take an integrated approach using a holistic method by addressing all aspects of migration and ensuring that each migrant has access to his or her rights(Ahouga, 2023). Analyzing governance using the MiGOF has allowed for the evaluation of migration governance in Bangladesh based on five components: Policy, Institutional Framework, Service Delivery, Resources, and Accountability Mechanisms.

As part of the evaluation of fairness, MiGOF includes a constitutional equality approach based on the constitutional provisions of Bangladesh's Constitution and Article 15, which states that all people are equal, and 27, 28, 31, and 32 guarantee all people will not be discriminated against and has the right to live(GoB, 1972).

When applying MiGOF to the migrant categories identified in this study, it became evident that the migrant categories evidenced significant differences in the degree of support provided: Overseas Labor Migrants, due to having strong laws, institutions and welfare programmes, experience more support than Rohingya Refugee Migrants and Climate Displaced Person migrants, who do not have any legal recognition established and are dependent on sporadic support. Irregular Migrants are being criminalized due to their lack of legal status; and Internal Migrants are dependent on the informal housing and labor markets that are not subject to any legal oversight.

This integrated approach to understanding migration governance in Bangladesh, using the MiGOF and applying a constitutional equality lens and the five components of migration governance, provides the foundation for analyzing how migration governance in Bangladesh continues to support structural inequalities that exist between migrant groups.

## **METHODOLOGY**

The current study employs a qualitative approach in order to examine the inequitable systems of governance regarding migration in Bangladesh. Both primary and secondary sources were used in the analysis. The secondary source consisted of a documentary analysis of the laws, policies and institutional frameworks surrounding migration, while the primary source consisted of interviews with key stakeholders to obtain multiple views of governance practices. Reflexive thematic analysis, as outlined by Virginia Braun and Victoria Clarke (Braun & Clarke, 2019), was employed to interpret the data, focusing on recurring themes such as the migration governance framework in Bangladesh, types of migrants, and unequal migration governance.

### **Sample Population**

In order to guarantee representation from both institutional actors and impacted migrant communities, the sample for this study was purposefully chosen. Therefore, 34 respondents were interviewed from four stakeholder groups:

- 6 government officials were selected from Bangladesh's ministries and relevant agencies responsible for overseas employment, post- disaster relief, and refugee protection
- 7 of the respondents were selected who represent civil society, NGOs and humanitarian organizations that support refugees, internally displaced persons, and undocumented migrants;
- 5 respondents were academics and legal experts with knowledge in governance, migration law, and constitutional law.
- 3 respondents were chosen from each of the following categories of migrants: internal migrants, foreign labor migrants, Rohingya refugees, those displaced by climate change, and irregular migrants.

## **Data Collection**

Semi-structured interviews were performed both in-person and online for this study. The modality of the interview was decided based on availability of the participant . The 45 to 60 minutes duration of each interview allowed participants to discuss and clarify their experiences and viewpoints on this subject matter. Confidentiality was maintained during and after the interview, and consent was taken from each participants. Then the verbatim was transcribed for further analysis. Statutory regulations such as the Overseas Employment and Emigration Act of 2013, policy tools such as the Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan, reports from IOM, UNHCR, national agencies, research studies, news articles, and books are examples of secondary sources.

## **Data Analysis**

Thematic analysis was applied to both primary and secondary sources of data. To analyses the data the codes were developed inductively to capture recurring themes. Later these was organized into broader categories reflecting governance components and migrant types and unequal treatment towards migrants.

## **Ethical Considerations**

Throughout the research process the ethical standard were maintained. Informed consent was obtained from all respondents, while the

confidentiality was strictly observed. The data (sensitive) from vulnerable groups was anonymized.

## **FINDINGS**

The findings section aims to answer the research question set in introduction chapter, following the stated scientific method stated in methodology chapter. To do so this section uses both primary and secondary sources of data. Primary sources includes Statutory regulations, policy tools, reports from IOM, UNHCR, national agencies, research studies, news articles, and books. While secondary sources cover interview (both KII and In-depth) of relevant stakeholders. The very first theme highlighted the migration governance framework along with its key components, which was instrumental for further analysis. The second theme developed the types of migrant of Bangladesh based on the theoretical framework. Finally the third theme illustrated how the migration governance exerts is unequal treatment towards migrant groups.

### **Theme 1: Components of Migration Governance**

The governance of migration in Bangladesh is complex, including policies, institutions and services, resources and accountability mechanisms. Such elements, although formally laid out in some fields (as for example in the case of overseas labour migration) are fragmented or missing in others leading to uneven governance outcomes across migrant groups. The next section will discuss individual elements while considering the relative strengths and weaknesses of each that contribute to collective governance.

#### **Policies**

Policy instruments are most robust in the case of overseas labour migrants, who are governed under the Overseas Employment and Emigration Act of 2013. This law clearly set the legal standard for recruitment, care and rehabilitation. Rohingya refugees, on the other hand, still are excluded from national law and treated as a concern of humanitarian aid structures that lack any legal basis(Hosain, 2021, 2021). Climate migrants are referred to in adaptation planning like the Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan(A. Islam et al., 2013), but there are no laws on the books that give them guaranteed rights. Internal migrants are left second-class citizens by labour

and housing policies(Alam & Mamun, 2022), whereas irregular migrants have their status criminalized under immigration law(Das et al., 2019). Such unequal ordering of policy tools has implications for selective attention to some over others as well as the exclusion of sections from legalistic protections.

### **Institutions**

The differences are just as glaring with institutional setups. Importantly, industry specific interventions include a ministry for labor migrations, and specialized financial institutions like Probashi Kallyan Bank(M. Hossain et al., 2021) and welfare boards that provide institutionalized support(Correspondent, 2017). In contrast, refugees are dependent on UNHCR and NGOs as de facto institutions, since no national ministry is entrusted with such a duty(Mohd Arshad et al., 2022). Climate-displaced people are children of a lesser God, that is disaster management agencies do not have specific mandates to manage migration(Saha & Seth, 2023). Border security and police often rule over irregular migrants, and weak municipalities control the internal migrant. A lack of institutions for certain categories emphasizes the fragmentation across the system.

### **Services**

It also finds large heterogeneity in service provision across migrant groups. For those seeking overseas employment there are training, welfare fund and reintegration programmes(M. S. Islam, 2021) that indicate the economic importance attached to remittances. Refugees are often restricted to humanitarian assistance, including food, shelter and health services(Khan et al., 2022); climate refugees receive emergency disaster relief or ad hoc programs without long-term recovery(Kisinger & Matsui, 2021). Irregular migrants are kept in detention and subject to deportation, while services are delivered in punitive rather than protective language(Sohel & Sifullah, 2025). Informal housing and labour markets serve internal migrants with little state protection. Such inequalities highlight the way in which government translates into disparate lived realities.

### **Resources**

Resource allocation mirrors economic imperatives, not rights based obligations. Labour migrants benefit from remittance-induced social protection and preferential financial flows(Ainul et al., 2022; Reza et al., 2025) while refugees rely on international donor assistance(Kamruzzaman,

2022; Roy Chowdhury, 2019). Climate migrants get modest project-based resources(Chowdhury et al., 2020), irregular migrants are the takers of state security spending(Adnan, 2024), and internal migrants use low municipal budgets(Araf et al., 2025). Resource inequity between groups of migrants is exacerbated by the lack of resources available in migrant communities.

### **Accountability**

The accountability mechanisms are most developed for overseas labour migration, including audits, reporting and parliamentary oversight(Bhuiyan, 2024). Refugee governance has loose oversight and little coordination outside that provided by the Refugee Relief and Repatriation Commissioner, with no legal accountability(Ahmed, 2018). There is no proper oversight of climate migration(Amjad, 2020; Uddin, 2024); irregular migrants are accountable, in practice, only to law enforcement; and informal sectors offer little oversight over internal migration behavior(Triandafyllidou, 2017). The lack of powerful accountability mechanisms allows disparities to persist and erodes constitutional guarantees of equal treatment.

As a whole, these five aspects show that migration governance in Bangladesh is not an all-or-nothing application. With relatively little legal/institutional/resource support for this other category, the remainder of overseas labor migration is also on the back-foot, regulated by fragmented or ad hoc or punitive mechanisms. This unevenness forms the bedrock for more extensive inequalities discussed in following themes.

## **Theme 2: Types of Migrants**

The framework for migration governance in Bangladesh consists of various categories of migrants, thus each of them is differently connected to the policies, institutions, and constitutional protections. The empirical data shows the presence of five main migrant groups, encompassing: labor migrants abroad, Rohingya refugees, climate refugees, illegal migrants, and people migrating internally. Their place in governance structures exhibits the selective prioritization of some groups and the marginalization of others.

### **Overseas Labour Migrants**

The population of emigrants working abroad is the first one that has been recognized formally. The Overseas Employment and Emigration Act of 2013 gives them legal protection and allows them to receive the services of a

specific ministry, banks (M. Hossain et al., 2021) that cater to their needs, and welfare boards (Correspondent, 2017). Training, welfare funds, and reintegration programs are among the services offered by the state, which is heavily dependent on remittances. This category has hence been comprehensively regulated, and their constitutional rights have been largely aligned to their protection.

### **Rohingya Refugees**

Stateless migrants from Myanmar is a group not covered by national laws. The rules they enact are constructed within a humanitarian space, backed up by their role of 'de facto institutions' for UNHCR and NGOs (Habib, 2021; M. P. Hossain, 2023; Imran & Mian, 2014). Services are increasingly restricted to relief, food, shelter and health; accountability continues to be low. Refugees are excluded from rights-based governance; they do not benefit from fundamental constitutional protections, which only apply to citizens and not refugees, who are treated as a juridical foreign entity (Bashar & Sletto, 2025; Milton et al., 2017).

### **Climate-Displaced Persons**

Those who are internally displaced from floods, cyclones, coastal erosion, and sea-level rise are in a marginalised state; even though the Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan refers to them in the development of adaptation strategies, they do not yet have legally binding recognition. (A. Islam et al., 2013) As a result, there is no clear structure of governance for these internally displaced persons; disaster management agencies operate in a fragmented way, providing ad Hoc relief rather than targeted services developed with a rights-based approach (Ayers et al., 2014; Yasmin, 2018). Therefore, the lack of an appropriate legal and institutional framework to support the constitutional right to life of I.D.P.s is a limitation for this group.

### **Irregular Migrants**

Individuals migrating without documentation or through unauthorized channels are framed primarily as a security issue. Governed under immigration laws, they face detention, deportation, and criminalization.

Institutions involved are border security and police forces, with accountability limited to law enforcement.(Sohel & Sifullah, 2025; Triandafyllidou, 2017) Services are punitive rather than protective, and constitutional equality is routinely violated in practice.

### **Internal Migrants**

The people migrating from rural to urban for jobs, education, or survival are indirectly regulated through the broad policies that govern all forms of labor, housing, and municipalities (i.e. cities, counties etc.). They do not have a specific institution or set of protections related to their particular migrating status; instead they rely on informal housing and employment markets(Sohel & Sifullah, 2025). Since there is not any or very little oversight, these groups do not have equal rights under the constitution, which is a very basic human right, and there's no way for them to get tailored protections under the law.

When taken as a whole, these groups show a stratified system of migration governance in Bangladesh. Overseas labor migrants have been fully incorporated into all legal and institutional establishments related to migration law; on the other hand, people in the category of refugees or who have been displaced by climate change, undocumented migrants, and internal migrants, are marginalized in this system of governance. This breakdown demonstrates not only the variety of migrant experience and the differences in governance, but lays out the groundwork for an understanding of some of the disparities discussed in Theme 3.

### **Theme 3: Inequality in Migration Governance**

Governance of the migration environment within Bangladesh has noticeable divisions among various migrant groups. These divides can be observed in five different categories - policies, institutions, services, resources, and accountability. The five categories illustrate the selective nature of governance, which places higher importance on certain groups at the expense of others, as illustrated by the different stakeholder perspectives, and the statutory framework of each group.

### Sub-theme 1: Policy Inequality

Legal recognition of migrant populations is not equal among different categories of migrants. While skilled overseas employment migrants benefit from a well-defined legal framework via the Overseas Employment and Emigration Act (2013) that sets clear expectations for employers regarding recruitment, welfare and support, both refugees and climate-related displaced individual lack legally binding standards or frameworks to support them, forcing these groups to rely on ad-hoc humanitarian relief or disaster relief initiatives. In addition, irregular migration is criminalized under immigration statutes, while internal migration is covered through an indirect application of general labor and housing regulations.

A government respondent acknowledged the discrepancy noting, "*Our legislation protects people who send remittances, but refugees and climate-related displaces are not protected by our laws*"<sup>4</sup>. Civilians echoed these sentiments, stating, "*The policy instruments we currently have are primarily focused on economic migrants while failing to acknowledge their duty to refugees and climate-related defames.*"<sup>5</sup>.

"There is no national refugee law, no binding recognition for The lack of this type of legislation creates a situation where entire communities lack access to a rights-based legal framework."<sup>6</sup>

The approach taken when implementing laws highlights the manufacturing of laws only for those producing a profit and removing anyone else deemed as not profitable.

### Sub-theme 2: Institutional Inequality

Institutions reinforce hierarchy. Labour migrants have assistance from their own dedicated ministry, access to a specialized financial institution, and assistance from welfare boards. Refugees receive assistance through the UNHCR and other NGOs and have them operating as their de facto institutions, while climate migrants come under the purview of agencies focused on disaster management with no additional support provided. Irregular migrants are governed primarily by security forces, while internal migrants are left relying on the very fragile nature of local municipal bodies.

---

<sup>4</sup> IDI, Government Respondent 3

<sup>5</sup> KII, NGO Respondent 2

<sup>6</sup> Academic Respondent 4

One NGO representative explained, *“For refugees, there is no ministry, no national institution. Everything is outsourced to UNHCR or NGOs, which means accountability is fragmented and temporary”*<sup>7</sup>. A government respondent admitted, *“We have strong institutions for overseas employment, but none for climate displacement. Disaster agencies are not designed for migration governance”*<sup>8</sup>.

“Institutional absence is the biggest gap. Migrants who do not fit the economic priority are left to fragmented or external actors, which undermines national responsibility.”<sup>9</sup>

The absence of dedicated institutions for several categories highlights systemic neglect and entrenches inequality.

### **Sub-theme 3: Service Inequality**

There are many disparities between service provision for different migrant categories. Labour migrants can access services such as training, welfare funds and reintegration programmes; whereas refugees are only entitled to receive humanitarian assistance. Migrants affected by climate change must rely on temporary disaster assistance. As for irregular migrants, their experiences include imprisonment and removal from Bangladesh; while those who migrate internally live in informal housing and work in informal markets.

A Rohingya respondent explained, *“We only get food and shelter, but no education or legal rights. We are treated as outsiders”*<sup>10</sup>. Civil society actors emphasized the disparity, noting, *“Labour migrants are given reintegration programmes, but refugees and climate migrants are left with temporary relief”*<sup>11</sup>.

“Services are not equal. For some, governance means welfare and training; for others, it means detention or survival in informal housing. This is how inequality is lived every day.”<sup>12</sup>

---

<sup>7</sup> KII, NGO Respondent 2

<sup>8</sup> IDI, Government Respondent 5

<sup>9</sup> Academic Respondent 2

<sup>10</sup> IDI, Refugee Respondent 1

<sup>11</sup> KII, NGO Respondent 4

<sup>12</sup> Internal Migrant Respondent 2

These disparities illustrate how governance translates into differentiated lived experiences, reinforcing inequality across migrant groups.

#### **Sub-theme 4: Resource Inequality**

Allocation of resources is determined by the economy rather than by rights based obligations. Labour migrants have access to welfare funds based on remittances sent back home; refugees depend on international funding; climate migrants get limited resources from donor projects; irregular migrants are included in state security spending; while people migrating internally cannot rely on municipal budgets.

An academic respondent observed, *“Resources follow money. Labour migration is prioritized because of remittances, while climate displacement is left to project funding that ends when donors leave”*<sup>13</sup>. A government official admitted, *“We allocate funds where there is economic return. That is why overseas employment has welfare boards, but internal migration does not”*<sup>14</sup>.

“The imbalance in resource distribution is structural. Migrants who generate revenue are supported, while those who represent humanitarian crises are sidelined.”<sup>15</sup>

This uneven distribution of financial and human resources perpetuates inequality and undermines constitutional equality.

#### **Sub-theme 5: Accountability Inequality**

While there are accountability systems in place for overseas labour migration, with both audit and parliamentary oversight, there are only weak levels of monitoring within the refugee sector; climate migration oversight is fragmented; irregular migrant populations are accountable solely through law enforcement; and internal migrant communities lack adequate oversight from government authorities with regard to informal economic activity.

One civil society respondent stated, *“Accountability is a word we use, but in practice, it only applies to labour migration. For others, there is no monitoring, no oversight”*<sup>16</sup>. An academic respondent added, *“Law*

---

<sup>13</sup> KII, Academic Respondent 4

<sup>14</sup> IDI, Government Respondent 2

<sup>15</sup> Civil Society Respondent 3

<sup>16</sup> IDI, NGO Respondent 5

*enforcement accountability is punitive, not protective. It criminalizes irregular migrants instead of safeguarding rights*”<sup>17</sup>.

“Without accountability, constitutional promises remain hollow. Migrants outside the economic priority are governed without checks, which perpetuates exclusion.”<sup>18</sup>

In Bangladesh, the lack of adequate accountability mechanisms is a hindrance to the fulfilment of constitutional commitments to equality and sustains unequal treatment.

From these sub-themes, we also conclude that Bangladesh's governance system in terms of immigration is tiered, depending upon economic, legal, and institutional components. An overseas labour migrant has access to the broadest range of service delivery systems relating to governance, while refugees, individuals displaced by climate change, irregular migrants and those who migrate internally experience marginalization and lack the same access to available service delivery systems. Therefore, this differential application of governance principles directly results in constitutional inequities in the Kingdom of Bangladesh because Articles 15, 27, 28, 31 and 32 are not applied equally to all classes of people.

## CONCLUSION

This study explores how Bangladesh handles migration. It finds that the Bangladesh deals with migration unequally and does not follow what the constitution says about equality. The study uses the Migration Governance Framework from the IOM. It shows differences in how different types of migrants are treated. Migrants who work in foreign countries have better laws to protect them more help from the government and more support from institutions. On the hand the Rohingya people who have had to leave their homes, and people who have had to move because of climate change and other migrants who are in the country without the right papers within Bangladesh experience different treatment. They face rules that are meant to keep them out or they are punished and they do not get help or recognition.

---

<sup>17</sup> KII, Academic Respondent 1

<sup>18</sup> Government Respondent 6

Migration, in Bangladesh is an issue and it affects many people, including overseas labor migrants, Rohingya refugees, climate-displaced persons, irregular migrants and internal migrants. Migration governance structures are driven more by economic imperatives than rights-based obligations. This implies that even though the constitution promotes equality but specific migrant groups are treated negatively.

## REFERENCES

- Abel, K., Katz, B., Rose, S., & Wrathall, D. (2023). Outcomes of migration as adaptation: A conceptual framework for migration governance. *Journal of Integrative Environmental Sciences*, 20(1), 2246525. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1943815X.2023.2246525>
- Adnan, P. (2024). Climate change, human security, and unstable migration in Bangladesh. [Doctoral, University of Essex]. <https://repository.essex.ac.uk/38507/>
- Afroze, S. (2020). PSCJOURNAL Internal Migration and Economic Growth: Bangladesh Context. 4, 17–28.
- Ahmed, A. U., Appadurai, A. N., & Neelormi, S. (2019). Status of Climate Change Adaptation in South Asia Region. In M. Alam, J. Lee, & P. Sawhney (Eds.), *Status of Climate Change Adaptation in Asia and the Pacific* (pp. 125–152). Springer International Publishing. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-99347-8\\_7](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-99347-8_7)
- Ahmed, K. M. (2018). Humanitarian response coordination architecture in Bangladesh Rohingya refugee crisis operation: Practice, challenges and prospects [PhD Thesis, BRAC University]. <http://dspace.bracu.ac.bd/xmlui/handle/10361/11537>
- Ahouga, Y. (2023). The International Organization for Migration as a Counterweight to States?: The 2030 Agenda, the GCM, and the Strategic Vision of IOM. *Global Governance: A Review of Multilateralism and International Organizations*, 29(4), 511–535. <https://doi.org/10.1163/19426720-02904003>
- Ainul, S., Haque, E., Santhya, K. G., & Rob, U. (2022). Assessment of overseas labor migration systems in Bangladesh. *Poverty, Gender, and Youth*. <https://doi.org/10.31899/sbsr2022.1039>

- Alam, Md. Z., & Mamun, A. A. (2022). Dynamics of internal migration in Bangladesh: Trends, patterns, determinants, and causes. *PLOS ONE*, 17(2), e0263878. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0263878>
- Almulhim, A. I., Alverio, G. N., Sharifi, A., Shaw, R., Huq, S., Mahmud, M. J., Ahmad, S., & Abubakar, I. R. (2024). Climate-induced migration in the Global South: An in-depth analysis. *npj Climate Action*, 3(1), 47. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s44168-024-00133-1>
- Amjad, K. (2020). Climate Migrant Elderly Abuse and Neglect: A Study in Slums of Dhaka, Bangladesh. *Journal of Aging Research and Healthcare*, 3(1), 1–38. <https://doi.org/10.14302/issn.2474-7785.jarh-20-3301>
- Araf, F., Haque, M. R., & Angeles, G. (2025). Effects of internal migration on healthcare services utilization in Bangladesh: An analysis of nationally representative survey. *Frontiers in Public Health*, 13. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2025.1495977>
- Aslam, D. M. (2025). REMITTANCES AND ECONOMIC DEPENDENCY: THE ROLE OF MIGRANT WORKERS FROM SOUTH ASIA IN THE MIDDLE EAST. *Contemporary Journal of Social Science Review*, 3(1), 1786–1796. <https://doi.org/10.12345/tfcjv265>
- Ayers, J. M., Huq, S., Faisal, A. M., & Hussain, S. T. (2014). Mainstreaming climate change adaptation into development: A case study of Bangladesh. *WIREs Climate Change*, 5(1), 37–51. <https://doi.org/10.1002/wcc.226>
- Bashar, S. B., & Sletto, B. (2025). ‘THEY SUPPRESSED OUR RIGHTS WITH CONCRETE’: Politics of Exclusion and (Im)permanence in Rohingya Refugee Camps in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 49(2), 393–411. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2427.13296>
- Betts, A. (2008). Global migration governance (Working Paper 2008/43). GEG Working Paper. <https://www.econstor.eu/handle/10419/196305>
- Betts, A. (2011). Global migration governance. Oxford University Press.
- Betts, A., & Kainz, L. (2017). The history of global migration governance (Vol. 122). Oxford: Refugee Studies Centre, Oxford Department of International Development, University of Oxford.
- Bhuiyan, M. M. R. (2024). Governance perspective in migration through overseas employment from Bangladesh. <https://dspace.bracu.ac.bd:8443/xmlui/handle/10361/25472>

- Bloom, D. E., Canning, D., & Sevilla, J. P. (2001). Economic growth and the demographic transition.
- Bosniak, L. S. (2006). The Citizen and the Alien: Dilemmas of Contemporary Membership (SSRN Scholarly Paper No. 936342). Social Science Research Network. <https://papers.ssrn.com/abstract=936342>
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2019). Reflecting on reflexive thematic analysis. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health*, 11(4), 589–597. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2159676X.2019.1628806>
- Castles, S. (2000). International migration at the beginning of the twenty-first century: Global trends and issues. *International social science journal*, 52(165), 269-281.
- Castles, S. (2018). Why migration policies fail. <https://www.taylorfrancis.com/chapters/edit/10.4324/9781351171489-21/migration-policies-fail-1-stephen-castles>
- Castles, S., & Miller, M. J. (1998). *The Age of Migration*. Macmillan Education UK. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-349-26846-7>
- Castles, S., de Haas, H., & Miller, M. J. (2020). *The age of migration: International population movements in the modern world* (6th ed.). Guilford Press.
- Chowdhury, M. A., Hasan, M. K., Hasan, M. R., & Younos, T. B. (2020). Climate change impacts and adaptations on health of Internally Displaced People (IDP): An exploratory study on coastal areas of Bangladesh. *Heliyon*, 6(9). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2020.e05018>
- Correspondent, S. (2017, January 7). Expatriates' welfare board soon. Prothomalo. <https://en.prothomalo.com/business/Expatriates-welfare-board-soon>
- Das, N., de Janvry, A., Mahmood, S., & Sadoulet, E. (2019). Migration as a Risky Enterprise: A Diagnostic for Bangladesh. *International Migration Review*, 53(3), 900–929. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0197918318775933>
- De Haas, H., Castles, S., & Miller, M. J. (2019). *The age of migration: International population movements in the modern world*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Dummet, A., & Nicol, A. G. L. (1990). *Subjects, Citizens, Aliens and Others: Nationality and Immigration Law*. Weidenfeld and Nicolson.
- Gabriel Tobiloba, A. (2025). *Global Migration and Security in the 21st Century: Examining the Intersections Between Irregular Migration*,

- Transnational Crime, and International Terrorism. *International Journal of Advanced Multidisciplinary Research and Studies*, 5(5), 1453–1459. <https://doi.org/10.62225/2583049X.2025.5.5.5135>
- Geddes, A. (2018). Chapter 8: The governance of migration in Europe: towards fragmentation? <https://www.elgaronline.com/edcollchap/edcoll/9781785367502/9781785367502.00014.xml>
- Geddes, A. (2022). Migration Governance. In P. Scholten (Ed.), *Introduction to Migration Studies: An Interactive Guide to the Literatures on Migration and Diversity* (pp. 311–323). Springer International Publishing. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-92377-8\\_20](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-92377-8_20)
- Genova, N. (2004). The Legal Production of Mexican/Migrant “ Illegality” . *Latino Studies*, 2, 160–185. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.lst.8600085>
- GoB. (1972). The Constitution of the People’s Republic of Bangladesh. Ministry of Law. <http://bdlaws.minlaw.gov.bd/act-367.html>
- Haas H., Castles S., & Miller M. J. (2020). *The age of migration: International population movements in the modern world* (Sixth edition, reprinted by Bloomsbury Academic). Bloomsbury Academic.
- Habib, M. R. (2021). The “stateless” Rohingya in Bangladesh: Crisis management and policy responses. *Asian Politics & Policy*, 13(4), 577–596. <https://doi.org/10.1111/aspp.12611>
- Harris, J. R., & Todaro, M. P. (1995). Chapter 3: Migration, Unemployment and Development: A Two-Sector Analysis. <https://www.elgaronline.com/monochap/book/9781035362813/book-part-9781035362813-10.xml>
- Hollifield, J. F. (1992). *Immigrants, Markets, and States*. Harvard University Press. <https://www.hup.harvard.edu/books/9780674444232>
- Hosain, M. M. (2021). Rohingya refugees. In *Bangladesh and International Law*. Routledge.
- Hossain, M. P. (2023). The Rohingya refugee crisis: Analysing the international law implications of its environmental impacts on Bangladesh. *The International Journal of Human Rights*, 27(2), 238–257. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13642987.2022.2081159>
- Hossain, M., Fatema, R., & Hossain, S. (2021). Specialized Banks’ Performance Analysis and Impact of Bank Size: A study on Bangladesh Krishi Bank (BKB) and Probashi Kallyan Bank.

- Himalayan Journal of Economics and Business Management, 2, 1–7.  
<https://doi.org/10.47310/hjebm.2021.v02i01.002>
- Huddleston, T., & Scholten, P. (2022). The governance of migration-related diversity. *Introduction to Migration Studies*, 325.
- Hugo, G. (2008). *Migration, development and environment* (Vol. 35). Geneva: International Organization for Migration.
- İçduygu, A., & Gören, H. (2023). Exploring temporal and topical dynamics of research on climate/environment–migration nexus: A critical comparative perspective. *Migration Studies*, 11(4), 572–597.  
<https://doi.org/10.1093/migration/mnad021>
- Imran, H. F. A., & Mian, N. (2014). The Rohingya Refugees in Bangladesh: A Vulnerable Group in Law and Policy. *Journal of Studies in Social Sciences*, 8(2).  
<https://infinitypress.info/index.php/jsss/article/view/776>
- International Organization for Migration. (2019a). International migration law: Glossary on migration. IOM. <https://publications.iom.int>
- International Organization for Migration. (2019b). Migration governance framework (MiGOF). IOM. <https://www.iom.int>
- Islam, A., Shaw, R., & Mallick, F. (2013). Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy and Action Plans. In R. Shaw, F. Mallick, & A. Islam (Eds.), *Climate Change Adaptation Actions in Bangladesh* (pp. 107–118). Springer Japan. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-4-431-54249-0\\_7](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-4-431-54249-0_7)
- Islam, M. S. (2021). *An Analysis of Human Resource Development Infrastructure and Prospects of Overseas Employment: Bangladesh Perspective* [Thesis, University of Dhaka]. <http://reposit.library.du.ac.bd:8080/xmlui/xmlui/handle/123456789/1708>
- Janmyr, M. (2021). The 1951 Refugee Convention and Non-Signatory States: Charting a Research Agenda. *International Journal of Refugee Law*, 33(2), 188–213. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ijrl/eeab043>
- Jelínková, M., Viadziorchyk, K., Števílová, Z., Valentová, E., Huybers, C., Bargerová, Z., & Maierhofer, H. (2023). Local Migrant Integration Policies and Their Structural Mechanisms. <https://doi.org/10.14712/9788024641959>
- Kälin, W. (2010). *Conceptualising Climate-Induced Displacement. Climate Change and Displacement: Multidisciplinary Perspectives*.
- Kamruzzaman, P. (2022). A Critical Analysis of the Conference on Sustaining Support for the Rohingya Refugees. *Journal of Developing*

- Societies, 38(2), 198–223.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0169796X221088339>
- Khan, H. T. A., Rahman, M. A., Molla, M. H., Shahjahan, M., & Abdullah, R. B. (2022). Humanitarian Emergencies of Rohingya Older People in Bangladesh: A Qualitative Study on Hopes and Reality. *Ageing International*, 47(1), 20–37. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12126-020-09400-y>
- Kisinger, C., & Matsui, K. (2021). Responding to Climate-Induced Displacement in Bangladesh: A Governance Perspective. *Sustainability*, 13(14), 7788. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13147788>
- Kneebone, S., & Rawlings-Sanaei, F. (2007). *New Regionalism and Asylum Seekers: Challenges Ahead*. Berghahn Books.
- Lami, B., & Kojku, A. (2025). Reframing Migration: Toward a Human-Centered Security Approach. *Social Sciences*, 14(9), 530. <https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci14090530>
- Lavenex, S., & Piper, N. (2019). Regional migration governance: Perspectives from above and from below. In *The dynamics of regional migration governance* (pp. 15-35). Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Likić-Brborić, B. (2018). Global migration governance, civil society and the paradoxes of sustainability. *Globalizations*, 15(6), 762–778. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14747731.2018.1503841>
- Md. Kamruzzaman. (2019, September 8). More than 500,000 Rohingya in Bangladesh get ID cards. *Anadolu Ajansı*. <https://www.aa.com.tr/en/asia-pacific/more-than-500-000-rohingya-in-bangladesh-get-id-cards/1553202>
- Meyer, C. K., & Boll, S. (2018). Categorising Migrants: Standards, complexities, and politics. *Anti-Trafficking Review*, 11. <https://doi.org/10.14197/atr.201218111>
- Migration (IOM), I. O. for. (2020). *IOM Migration Governance Framework (MiGOF): Principles and Objectives*. <https://policycommons.net/artifacts/2014604/migration-governance-framework/2767047/>
- Milton, A. H., Rahman, M., Hussain, S., Jindal, C., Choudhury, S., Akter, S., Ferdousi, S., Mouly, T. A., Hall, J., & Efrid, J. T. (2017). Trapped in Statelessness: Rohingya Refugees in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 14(8), 942. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph14080942>

- Mohd Arshad, M. R., Ajis, M. N., & Abdullah, A. (2022). The roles of NGOs for the livelihood of Rohingya refugees. *Insight Journal (IJ)*, 9(1), 7–16.
- Morshed, G., Tortajada, C., & Hossain, M. S. (2025). The state of climate change adaptation research in Bangladesh: A systematic literature review. *Mitigation and Adaptation Strategies for Global Change*, 30, 31. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11027-025-10219-8>
- Rahman, M. N., Sharifuzzaman, S. A. S. M., Sarker, M. N. I., et al. (2025). Environmental shocks and migration among a climate-vulnerable population in Bangladesh. *Population and Environment*, 47(6). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11111-025-00478-7>
- Reza, M. M., Islam, M. R., & Subramaniam, T. (2025). Unveiling the economic odyssey: Exploring the well-being of Bangladeshi migrant workers in Malaysia. *Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy*, 30(2), 689–711. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13547860.2024.2309753>
- Roy Chowdhury, A. (2019). International-domestic linkages in a developing-country context: The case of the Rohingyas in Bangladesh. *Policy Studies*, 40(3–4), 303–319. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01442872.2018.1557623>
- Saha, A. R., & Seth, S. (2023). From conflict to climate: Refugees to IDPs (Internally Displaced Persons) in the Bay of Bengal. *Journal of the Indian Ocean Region*, 19(3), 204–219. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19480881.2023.2237226>
- Sikder, M. B., Kabir, M. N., Islam, M. A., et al. (2025). Geospatial assessment of climate-driven migration in the southwest coastal region of Bangladesh. *Discover Geoscience*, 3, 117. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s44288-025-00227-1>
- Sohel, Md. S., & Sifullah, Md. K. (2025). Vulnerability of irregular Bangladeshi migrant workers in foreign detention settings. *Discover Social Science and Health*, 5(1), 153. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s44155-025-00281-7>
- Szymanski-Düll, B. (2024). Defining the Theatre Migrant: A Concept Developed Through the Lens of Nineteenth-Century Theatre Practices. In *European Theatre Migrants in the Age of Empire: Personal Experiences, Transnational Trajectories, and Socio-Political Impacts* (pp. 15-34). Cham: Springer Nature Switzerland.
- Triandafyllidou, A. (2017). Beyond Irregular Migration Governance: Zooming in on Migrants' Agency. *European Journal of Migration and Law*, 19(1), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1163/15718166-12342112>

- Uddin, M. J. (2024). Climate Change, Vulnerabilities, and Migration: Insights from Ecological Migrants in Bangladesh. *The Journal of Environment & Development*, 33(1), 50–74. <https://doi.org/10.1177/10704965231211589>
- United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (1998). *Recommendations on statistics of international migration* (Rev. 1). United Nations.
- United Nations. (2018). Global compact for safe, orderly and regular migration. United Nations. <https://www.un.org>
- Yasmin, S. (2018). Implementation of bangladesh climate change strategy and action plan (bccsap, 2009): gaps between policy and practices. *European Journal of Social Sciences Studies*, 0. <https://doi.org/10.46827/ejsss.v0i0.470>