

# **THE IMPACTS OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION ON SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN CAMBODIA**

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## ABSTRACT

Cambodia is one of the countries in the Mekong sub-Region in Southeast Asia that has been using international labor migration as a short-term coping strategy when households are heavily burdened with shocks as a consequence of insufficient income from on-farm employment. However, many Cambodians migrate to other countries for longer period of time with different purposes of not just only coping with shocks but likewise of ameliorating the socio-economic status of their families, future savings, and better living standard.

This study examines migration initially at the family level, focusing on the variable effects of cross-border and cross-country to migrant workers and their respective families, who were left behind. The quantitative data emanate from a survey of 370 respondents, aged 20 to over 30 years old, who provided vital information about themselves, their families, the process of migration, sources of livelihood, and significant improvements in family status. The study sites were the two border provinces of Battambang and Banteay Meanchey, where most migrant workers from Thailand originate, and the central city of Phnom Penh, where workers for Malaysia and South Korea reside. Other essential inputs for this study were gathered using multi-approaches from survey, focus group discussions, free-listing and key informant interviews.

The findings from the survey are richly supplemented by qualitative data from open-ended follow-up free-listing interviews and focus group discussions conducted with a sub-sample of the elderly respondents and participants. To garner information on existing migration policies and how they are enforced, 13 representatives from the non-government and government sectors were consulted for key informant interviews. The research outcomes include analysis about exchanges of material support, contact between migrants and their families, and associations of internal and cross-border migration with the material and psychological well-beings of families left behind and their children. The impact of

international labor migration to the Cambodian socio-economic development was also explored vis-a-vis the various regulations and policies being imposed by the Government to migrant workers.

The three policy priority agenda areas – governance of labor migration, protection and empowerment, and labor migration for development -- should continue to be the key thrusts, as born out by the results of the current assessment and evaluation, conducted for this study. In addition, reintegration system should be set up for the Cambodian migrant returnees since those learned skills acquired by them can benefit the country.

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## ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	Asian Development Bank
ADHOC	Cambodian Human Rights and Development Association
AEC	ASEAN Economic Community
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CARAM	Coordinated Action Research on AIDS and Migration
CAS	Cambodia Accounting Standards
CBLM	Cross-Border Labor Migration
CCC	Cooperation Committee for Cambodia
CCPR	Cambodian Center for the Protection of Children's Rights
CDRI	Cambodian Development Resource Institute
CEDAW	Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women
CFRS	Cambodia Financial Reporting Standards
CGE	Computable General Equilibrium
CLC	Cambodian Labor Confederation
CSES	Cambodian Socio-Economic Survey
CWCC	Cambodian Women's Crisis Center
EASAC	European Academies Science Advisory Council
ECDC	European Center for Disease Prevention and Control
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FLI	Free Listing Interview
GAATW	Global Alliance Against Traffic in Women
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GMS	Greater Mekong Sub-Region
Ha	Alternative Hypothesis
HIV	Human Immuno Virus
Ho	Null Hypothesis
ICL	Informed Consent Letter
ICMPD	International Centre for Migrant Policy Development
ILM	International Labor Migration
ILO	International Labor Organization
IMC	International Manpower Cambodia
IOM	International Office of Migration
JITCO	Japan International Training Cooperation Organization
KII	Key Informant Interview
KLC	Korean Language Center

LSCW	Legal Support for Children and Women
MHHs	Migrant Households
MOH	Ministry of Health
MOLVT	Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
MOP	Ministry of Planning
MRC	Mekong River Commission
MRC	Migrant Worker Resource Center
MS	Microsoft
NCPD	National Committee for Population and Development
NELM	New Economics for Labor Migration
NGO	Non-Government Organization
NIS	National Institute of Statistics
Non-MHHs	Non-Migrant Households
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PDOs	Pre-Departure Orientations
PDOLVT	Provincial Department of Labor and Vocational Training
PTCs	Provincial Training Centers
RGC	Royal Government of Cambodia
TLC	Tender Loving Care
UN-ACT	United Nations for Cooperation Against Trafficking in Persons
USA	United States of America
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
WB	World Bank
WBG	World Bank Group

# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background of the Study

The Royal Government of Cambodia (RGC) has been developing social protection policies on Cambodian migrant workers overseas as part of the enabling mechanism to increase domestic economic growth and to combat unemployment. The number of Cambodian workers seeking regular employment in the primary destination countries, such as: Thailand, Malaysia, and South Korea, is increasing and so does irregular migration. As Cambodia is currently facing an influx of an estimated 250,000 migrant workers annually to work in Thailand in the agribusiness industries, Malaysia for domestic work, and South Korea for manufacturing, construction and agriculture, the need for policies that facilitate safe migration and more effective protection of the rights of migrant workers has surged

For several years, Cambodia has experienced positive and negative effects of the international labor migration in the countryside as well as the urban centers. The migrant workers contribute to their respective households' livelihood, as well as to the overall growth and development of the country. However, several years of being detached from their respective families have brought agonies to the workers and their dependents left behind. There were also concerns on the gaps in the policy framework governing labor migration in Cambodia that have meant that their situation at places of origin is still inadequately understood and not attended to.

What are clearly happening for several migrant workers from Cambodia remain extremely vulnerable to exploitation, specifically for those greater portions that migrated irregularly. Because of the exorbitant fees on application process, complicated and lengthy procedures for

formal recruitment through licensed agencies, most international migrant workers from the country opt to seek out the assistance of brokers or go abroad independently. The social networks that facilitate these movements were established long before any management systems had been developed to regulate labor migration and frequently provide a much more efficient means to an end. However, the involvement of unscrupulous actors and the lack of accurate and impartial information can also place migrants at high risk of becoming victims of abuse and oppression. Even for the minority of migrant workers who make use of a licensed agency to find work abroad through legal channels, the regulatory procedures applied have been so far proven ineffective and inefficient at ensuring fair recruitment practices.

As foreign workers at destination, labor migrants from Cambodia are mostly not informed properly about their labor rights and not able to assert them when they face infractions. Consequently, this often contributes to a situation where migrants often endure exploitative working conditions and terms of employment, ranging from non-compliance with social security registration to forced labor. The migrant workers' access to assistance has been generally very limited, leaving most without sufficient means to seek redress for their grievances.

In spite of the prevalence of abuse against migrant workers from Cambodia known to be occurring, little field research has been conducted on the subject within the country itself to improve the understanding of etiologic factors at source. A thorough assessment of the knowledge and experiences of migrant workers in Cambodia prior to departure has yet to be compared, nor an analysis of the recruitment process that involves all of the key stakeholders, including recruitment agents and brokers. Given the sizeable contribution that these migrant workers deliver to national development in both countries of origin and destination, a stronger evidence-based study is needed in order to provide them with more effective protection.

To obtain further information in developing workable labor protection policies among migrant workers, this study has been conducted among international migrant workers who have sought employment in Thailand, Malaysia, and South Korea, including their families left behind. These workers and their families were consulted in the borders of Battambang and Banteay Meanchey for workers in Thailand; Russey Kheo District in Phnom Penh and Kampong Cham, for workers in Malaysia; Phnom Penh, Kandal, Takeo, Kampot and the Best Korean Language Center (KLC) in Phnom Penh, and the Ministry of Labor, and Vocational Training, for workers in South Korea. Surveys were performed to obtain demographic information among migrants, including safe migration knowledge, attitudes, and practices. On the other hand focus group discussions were conducted among selected family members left behind in three (3) locations: Battambang (for Thailand workers), Kampong Cham (for Malaysian workers), and Phnom Penh (for South Korean workers). Key informant interviews were likewise processed among selected participants from the government and non-government organization sectors to enrich information that will be used to shape the formulation of policy measures, capacity building programs, and other support services to protect the rights of workers throughout the migration process.

This dissertation focuses on the migration of Cambodian workers in the three primary destination countries, analyzes the rules that govern regular migration and identifies legislation that can be employed to safeguard those who become victims during irregular migration and be used against those who perpetuate and profit from it. In doing so, the study aims to highlight the laws that govern regular migration for labor as well as the civil and criminal laws being breached by those who stray into the irregular channels. However, the study does not deal with internal migration for labor or non-cross-border trafficking activities.

## 1.2 Statement of the Problem

In the last 10 years, there were migration governance crises within Cambodia, as a sending country, as well as for the destination countries. Migrant workers in Thailand, Malaysia, and South Korea have been documented to have been often subjected to neglect, harassment and violation of rights in the receiving country since Cambodia, as a sending country, has been complacent to take up the issue seriously for fear of loss of labor market. Inadequate investment by Cambodia and the receiving countries to develop institutional structures to look after the welfare of migrant workers and establish effective regulatory framework to check governance issues and oftentimes exploitations often make it appear that the respective states are acting like freeloaders at the cost of the migrant workers, who invest their own resources to bring in enormous financial benefits and their newly learned skills.

The mindset of governments in both the sending and receiving countries needs to be fine-tuned. A sending government, like Cambodia, appreciates migration as “manpower export,” thus, treating the issue as any other commodity to be exported. Another misused concept is “illegal migrants,” which is used by receiving countries to refer to irregular or undocumented laborers. Human beings cannot be “exported” as commodities or called “illegal.” It is important to diagnose why they have become undocumented laborers in order to properly treat a malady by developing appropriate policy interventions.

It is critical to direct attention to the need to adopt and adapt coherent and comprehensive national as well as international policies to conscientiously manage labor migration, to safeguard migrant workers’ rights, and human rights of all members of their families. It needs attention to the removal of multiple disadvantages and discrimination, rights’ violation often faced by migrant workers on the basis of gender, race or religion and migrant status.

Furthermore, issues related to the movement of workers across national borders cannot be thoroughly addressed when countries act in isolation in resolving required international labor migration.

In this study, there have been gaps uncovered between the rights the migrant workers enjoy and the difficulties they experience in the countries where they live, work and across which they travel. They even become subjects to various harassments at home country by burdensome elements such as middlemen, recruitment agents, sub-agents, high migration costs, and human rights abuses, discriminations in destination countries such as Thailand, Malaysia, and South Korea. They encounter lack of cooperation of officials of embassies, institutional and infrastructural inadequacy, and rigidity of administrative procedures.

Aside from these insights, this study also explores on the impact of labor migration to the development of the Cambodian nuclear family, to include family members who were left behind.

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

The overall aim of this study is to investigate ways to ensure quality governance of migration. It also explores into the challenges of migration governance system in Cambodia and provides the ways and means to address the challenges thru workable labor policies.

The main theoretical construct in undertaking this study is to carry out analyses of labor migration processes and remittances' inflow in Cambodia and find out to what extent migration could help social and economic improvements in the country, what negative impacts it has on local development (including all levels of local development), what are the social



and economic losses of the communities from migration of able bodied population out of the country alongside its benefits.

Besides these, to analyze how far the remittances - the financial resources gained by losing local communities' human resource potential – are being used efficiently, i.e. are these resources serving as a base for creating sustainable income generation sources for the future, besides just being consumed for daily needs?

At the same time, based on above mentioned studies and analyses, recommendations on different possible ways of decreasing the negative consequences of labor migration on local development, and more efficient use of human resources will be elaborated. Likewise, alternative scenarios of prudent use of remittances by households, proposals for the creation of sustainable income generating sources will be offered, vis-a-vis some policy recommendations that can be adopted by the Royal Government of Cambodia.

#### **1.4 Research Questions**

In order to fulfill the aim of this dissertation project, the following questions will be addressed during the research:

- What are the main benefits of international labor migration for Cambodia and its localities and what “price” are migrants paying for these benefits?
- What are the positive outcomes of international labor migration for sending families, and what is their value if we compare them with losses of families from migration?
- How is local social and economic development being affected by regional labor migration of able bodied people in the regions?
- What must be done in order to prevent negative consequences of migration on local

development in medium and long term perspectives?

- How efficiently are the remittances being used?
- What are the ways of enhancing families to invest the part of remittances in creation of the sources of sustainable income generation for families?

### **1.5 Scope and Limitations of the Study**

This study covered only migrant workers, including their respective families, who were contracted to work in Thailand, Malaysia and South Korea due to the following reasons:

First, Thailand ranks high in terms of the number of Cambodian migrant workers. It has been estimated that the stock of Cambodian migrants in Thailand was 248,000 in 2008, of which the majority were irregular cross-border migrants, and that by 2018 the number will increase to 316,000 (Maltoni, 2010). In addition to social and cultural similarity, people along the borders of the two countries have long had official economic exchange since the early 1990s.

Second, Malaysia has been the country of choice to work by Cambodian Muslims, specifically in the garments manufacturing sector, agricultural and domestic household helper sector. In June 2016, the Malaysian government led by Prime Minister Najib Razak has agreed to allow more Cambodian citizens as domestic helpers to work in the country. Cambodia, in turn, has also accepted the expression of interest. The Southeast Asian leaders, Malaysia and Cambodia had earlier signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) on Information and Broadcasting Cooperation, and a Letter of Intent between the two governments on agricultural cooperation. Prime Minister Hun Sen placed on sending maids to Malaysia in 2011. After four years, the Malaysian gates have opened once again. Considering the increasing demand for

domestic helpers in the country and lack of skilled workforce, the country has finally opened doors to allow Cambodian citizens to work in Malaysia. (HR Inc., 2016)

Thirdly, the South Korean government has doubled the number of Cambodian migrant workers who are granted permits to take up employment in the manufacturing, construction and agriculture sectors each year. There are currently more than 35,000 Cambodians working in South Korea who send home remittances of about \$200 million annually. Last year, Seoul set a quota of 4,600 permits for Cambodian laborers entering the country. (Cambodia Daily, Feb 17, 2015)<sup>1</sup>

Finally, while the topic of labor migration is being hotly debated and there is a considerable number of studies on labor migration in Cambodia (Acharya, 2003; Asian Migration Centre, 2005; Chea & Tsuji, 2005; Dahlberg, 2005; Maltoni, 2007; Cambodia Development Resource Institute: CDRI, 2007; Chan, 2009; Tong, Hem & Santos, 2011), there are only a few studies (for example, Chea & Tsuji, 2005; Tong et al., 2011) using rigorous quantitative research methods to examine determinants and effects of regional and international labor migration. Most of the studies are based on anecdotal evidence and focus on internal rather than international labor migration. Due to their weak methodology and limited scope, the existing studies could not provide concrete evidence on the causes and effects of cross-border labor migration in Cambodia.

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<sup>1</sup> <https://www.cambodiadaily.com/archives/south-korea-to-double-cambodian-migrant-worker-permits-78099/>

## 1.6 Significance of the Study

This study can be used as a point of reference for an intricate analysis of costs and benefits of cross-border labor migration for local and social development in the region. Importantly, practical recommendation on possible ways of preventing the negative consequences of cross-border labor migration on the regions and other countries in Southeast Asia and South Korea in medium and long term basis has been offered as integral part of the recommendation. Possible scenarios for enhancing families to invest the part of remittances in creation of the sources for sustainable income generation were also proposed aside from other non-farm sources of livelihood.

The results of the work, specifically for policy recommendations, will be useful for the national and local governments in Cambodia to remedy the alarming issues apropos international labor migration of human resources and as well as it might be encouraging for international organization such as IOM, ILO, World Bank, ADB, IMF, in their further study on migration and local development in the ASEAN Economic Community specifically in the proper implementation of the ASEAN Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers, adopted by the 13 Heads of States on January 13, 2017 in Cebu, Philippines and other popular labor destinations.

## 1.7 Hypotheses

For this research study, a primary research has been diligently conducted in the form of surveys, focus group discussions, key informant interviews, free listing interviews and observations in testing the hypothesis provided below, although the tests will be probed in qualitative manner rather than in quantitative terms since this is a Policy Research. The findings from primary research will be supplemented by secondary data research as well as

practical experience on the local labor conditions in analyzing the following Alternative Hypothesis:

**Alternative Hypothesis 1 (Ha1):** Creating different opportunities for potential migrants to establish their entrepreneurial activities or small businesses in localities, *could contribute* more to local social and economic development than does the incoming flow of remittances per se sent by labor migrants.

**Alternative Hypothesis 2 (Ha2):** Special local initiatives (community development projects, programs, livelihood skills enhancement, and others) on guiding the recipients of remittances, *could be used* more for rational and operational means in order to generate sustainable income for their families in the future, is highly crucial.

Likewise, the following Null Hypothesis will also be assessed in qualitative terms:

**Null Hypothesis 1 (Ho1):** Creating different opportunities for potential migrants to establish their entrepreneurial activities or small businesses in localities, *could not contribute* more to local social and economic development than does the incoming flow of remittances per se sent by labor migrants.

**Null Hypothesis 2 (Ho2):** Special local initiatives (community development projects, programs, livelihood skills enhancement, and others) on guiding the recipients of remittances, *could not be used* more for rational and operational means in order to generate sustainable income for their families in the future, is highly crucial.

## 1.8 Conceptual Framework

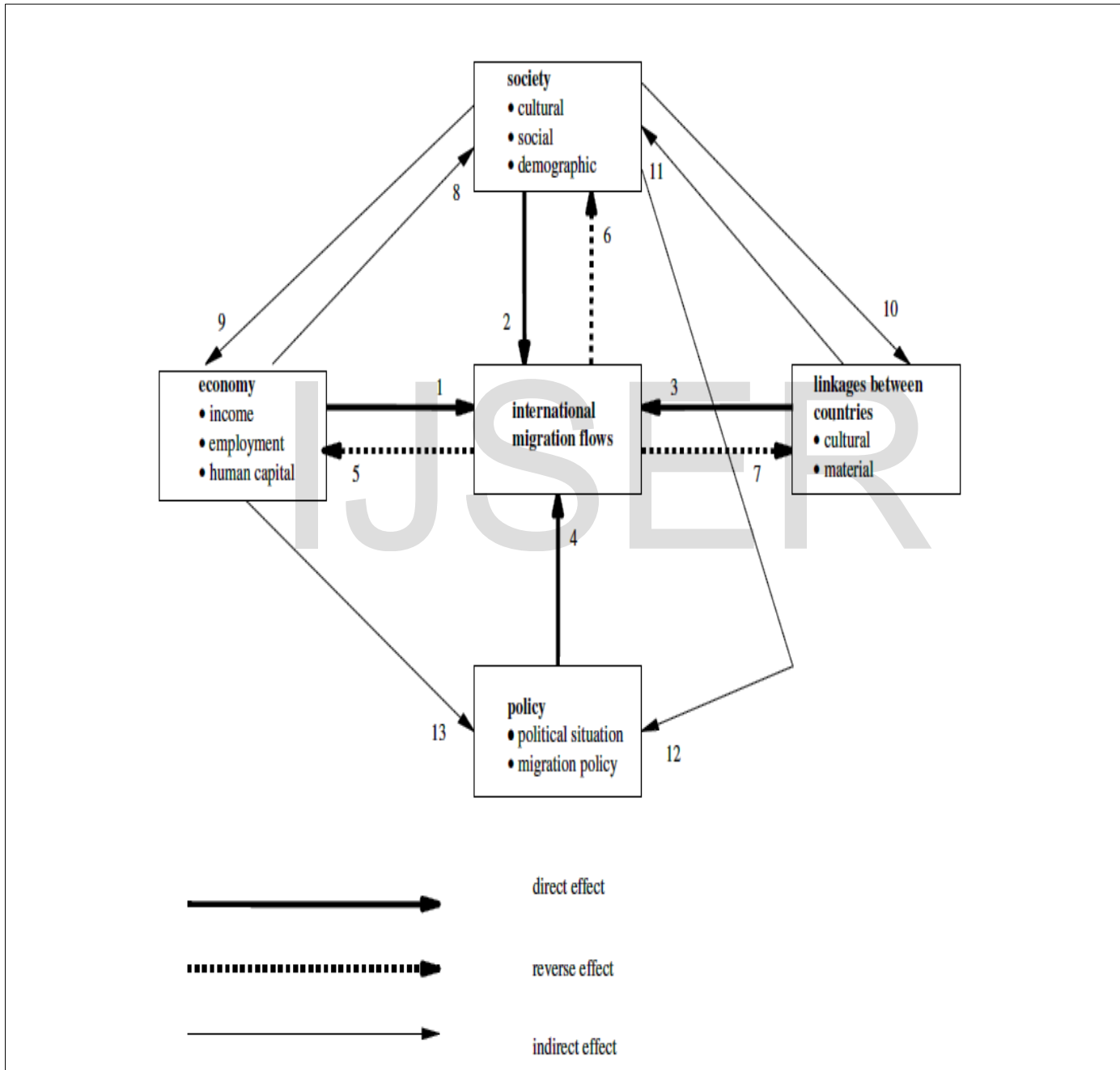
In the conceptual framework, depicted in *Figure 1.1*, causalities are located between international migration and its determinants. These determinants have been divided into four

categories: economy, society, policy and linkages between countries, which are derived from the systems approach to international migration presented by Kritz and Zlotnik (1992, p. 3). The categories may be further divided into components that act on international migration. In general, the economic, social and political factors have impacts in both sending and receiving countries. The causalities in the framework can be direct, reverse and indirect. The direct effects are straightforward effects of the determinants of international migration. The reverse effects are subsequent effects of international migration on the various determinants. The indirect effects are those between the different categories that subsequently have an impact on international migration. The direct effects are described in detail in the next section. The reverse and indirect effects are considered, where the theories introduced earlier will be interfaced within the theoretical framework.

Three components of the economy category can be identified, to wit: income, employment and the amount of human capital. Following Fielding (1993) society is comprised of cultural, social and demographic components. The cultural component is related to lifestyles and ethnicity. The social component concerns both inequality and cohesion in societies. The demographic component relates to the age and sex distribution of the population. Within the policy category two components may be distinguished: the political situation and migration policy. The 'linkages between countries' category consists of cultural and material linkages. Cultural linkages include, for instance, the colonial past or sharing the same language. Material linkages determine the distance between countries (also in time) or the costs of moving between countries. The different ingredients of a particular category may have an opposite (positive or negative) effect on international migration or on (components of) the other categories. International migration may also exert opposite

effects on the different components of the categories. Hence, the final direction of influence is determined by the relative strength of each of the components. Therefore, no positive or negative signs are displayed in **figure 1.1**.

**Fig. 1.1: Conceptual Framework of International/Regional Labor Migration**



### **1.8.1 Direct Effects**

In this section is depicted a detailed description of the direct effects on international migration. The arrows (1 through 4) in figure 1.1 represent these direct effects. Often, the direct effects do not cover the full impact of a component within a category as certain components affect international migration indirectly by way of other components as well. Therefore, to account for the full impact of a component on international migration, one should take into account not only the direct effects but also the indirect effects.

### **1.8.2 Economy → international migration**

From an economic point of view, the amount of (human) capital determines the labor market position of individual workers, which in turn determines their employment status and income level. If, for instance, the supply of low-skilled labor is higher than the demand for low-skilled labor, the wages and opportunities for employment for low-skilled workers are relatively low.

### **1.8.3 Society → international migration**

The society category consists of three components: culture, social structure and demography. The impact of these three components is distinctly different.

The cultural component entails ethnic and lifestyle influences in both sending and receiving countries. The effect of the ethnic composition of host countries on the level of return migration as well as family migration is obvious. In more general terms, the ethnic composition of a potential receiving country may affect international migration because of the existence of migrant networks. Ethnic groups in a certain country can form migrant networks, which can be seen as a form of social capital. As these networks may lower the costs of



migration and the risks of unemployment and expulsion, the expected net returns of migration to a country in which a relative large migrant network is present, are relatively higher (Boyd, 1989; Massey *et al.*, 1993, 1998; Bauer and Zimmermann, 1995). Lifestyles in potential receiving countries too, may have an effect on the volume of immigration. In some societies the native population may be less open towards foreigners than in other societies.

Therefore, apart from the positive effect of a large stock of migrants in the form of social capital, a large inflow of migrants from a certain ethnic origin can have a negative effect on the expected net returns of migration as well. After all, a large influx of strangers can increase xenophobic reactions against foreigners (Jandl, 1994). Another negative consequence of a large stock of immigrants of a particular ethnic origin is that these immigrants have more difficulties learning the language in the receiving country because they usually live in linguistic enclaves, and as such they are less exposed to the language in the receiving country (Chiswick and Miller, 1996).

The social component concerns the degree of inequality and cohesion in sending and receiving countries. The relative deprivation of an individual or household has a positive repercussion on the incentive to migrate. Hence, we may expect that a society with huge income differences experiences larger emigration than a society with meager income differences. Cohesion in the sending country is also an important determinant of migration. Social unrest is a characteristic of little cohesion in a society, which may lead to emigration (i.e. asylum migration). In addition, the amount of cohesion in both the sending and receiving country may affect return migration. Often, return migration is the reverse move undertaken by a former labor migrant. Waldorf (1994, 1996) states that the extent of assimilation of a migrant in the host society (the original receiving country) has a negative

effect on his or her intentions to return. This assimilation (which is positively influenced by duration and negatively by age) can be seen as a form of cohesion. According to Waldorf, 'ties to home', a form of social capital, is an important determinant of return migration as well. These 'ties to home' can be seen as cohesion in the country of origin (the original sending country).

The demographic component pertains to the age and sex distribution of the population in sending and receiving countries. Evidently, the age distribution in sending countries has an impact on retirement migration. Moreover, the age distribution of the migrant population is important too: it may determine the level of return migration. Finally, the sex distribution of the (migrant) population in both sending and receiving countries may have an impact on the incidence of family formation and reunification migration.

#### **1.8.4 Linkages between countries → international migration**

With regard to linkages between countries, a distinction may be drawn between cultural and material linkages. Regional amenities (the mildness of the climate and the scenic value of the landscape) will be discussed here as well, although literally these factors do not relate to linkages between countries.

Cultural linkages between countries can exist by virtue of a common colonial past through which the same culture is spread in these countries. These linkages facilitate migration decisions. For instance, (psychological) costs due to the assimilation in the receiving society will be lower than when a common culture is missing.

Apparently, cultural linkages often ensure that human capital is not lost in the event of international migration. Comparable educational systems, for example, enable mutual recognition of certificates. In general, the less human capital is lost, the higher the net

expected returns of migration. A special form of a cultural linkage between countries that preserves human capital is common language. The labor participation of Moroccans and Turks in the Netherlands in 1982, for instance, was about half of the labor participation of the French speaking Maghreb immigrants in France (Lakeman, 1999). English, French, Spanish, Russian, Chinese, Arabic, Hindi and Malay respectively are spoken by more than one hundred million people. In addition, all these languages are used by speakers of many other languages, i.e. they are used as a medium of international communication. Portuguese, German and Japanese respectively are also spoken by more than one hundred million people but they are less employed as medium of international communication. Swahili, on the contrary, is less spoken but it does serve a connecting function. Finally, the English language has increasingly become the global *lingua franca* (De Swaan, 1995). In general, countries in which widespread languages are spoken are more attractive to international migrants. Especially international students are strongly influenced by linguistic factors (Baumgratz-Gangl, 1990).

The most obvious material link between countries is geographical proximity. The idea that the volume of migration is determined by distance comes from the 'spatial gravitation' tradition (Öberg, 1997). In a spatial gravitation model, the volume of migration between two regions (countries) is determined by the population in both regions and by the squared distance between these two regions. In the spatial gravitation tradition, a special type of migration is border migration. In border regions intra-regional migration, e.g. from large cities to surrounding rural towns, can cross international borders. Geographical distances are fixed, but costs of moving and travel time may vary between countries and over the years. In general, the costs and time of travelling between two countries have decreased over time.

Especially after the Second World War, material links have increased dramatically due to increased transport technology (Nierop, 1995). One can think here, for instance, of frequent or cheap flight connections between countries. A third material link between countries is realized through international telecommunication. In particular, psychological costs of international migration are being reduced by advanced facilities for international telecommunication. Other factors having an impact on international migration with a strong regional element are climate and the landscape. Generally, countries with a pleasant climate and a scenic landscape are attractive destination areas in the case of retirement migration.

### **1.8.5 Policy international migration**

Two components are important in the policy category. We may distinguish the general political situation in a country and migration policies.

The political situation in sending countries has an impact on the amount of emigration. First of all, political tension can result in outbursts of violence and civil war. Through violence between groups of citizens (e.g. ethnic conflicts), violence between the state and its citizens (e.g. oppression of a certain population group or uprisings against the ruling authorities), or violence between states (wars), the safety of individuals may feel endangered and they may have to seek refuge. This physical danger can come about by persecution, arbitrary violence, but also by starvation. Often, migration is the only possible escape from this situation. In addition, the government of a sending country can influence the extent of emigration explicitly by policy measures. Within international political relations, sending countries can use the migration issue to achieve other goals. In exchange for attempts to limit emigration, for instance, they may be able to extort increasing or continuing aid or better trade conditions from receiving countries (Hamilton, 1997).

Another important determinant of international migration is the immigration policy of potential receiving countries (ICMPD, 1994; Martin, 1994). Due to the introduction of more restrictive immigration policies, like the tightening of border checks, immigration flows often drop, at least temporarily. Immigration levels, however, are not only influenced by policy measures of the receiving country itself, but also by policy measures of other potential receiving countries. Stricter entry requirements of one particular country can lead to increasing immigration levels in other potential receiving countries. In addition, the search and eviction policy of illegal foreigners can determine the amount of (illegal) migration. Finally, receiving countries may try to influence international migration by resorting to policies like international aid or the promotion of international trade and investments in sending countries (Muus and Van Dam, 1998).

The immigration policy of potential receiving countries and the political situation in sending countries are for a considerable part determined by society (arrow 12 in figure 1.1). Although this is actually not part of the direct effect of policy on international migration, it is briefly discussed here. As far as the indirect effect of society on political factors is concerned, lifestyles and the ethnic composition may influence both the political situation (e.g. the extent of violence to which inhabitants are exposed) in sending countries as well as the entry requirements in potential receiving countries. The social component of society is of importance for the political situation in sending countries. As mentioned before, the degree of cohesion in a society is indicated by the extent of violence in a society. A society with relatively high cohesion has relatively little violence. According to Wallerstein (1983), the degree of inequality also has a bearing on the level of violence. He states that a high level of income inequality in a country correlates to a high level of violence within that country. Furthermore, the extent of violence in sending countries has an impact on the entry requirements in receiving countries with regard to asylum migration. If the political situation in a particular sending country deteriorates, potential receiving countries will relax the entry restrictions for immigrants from that particular country.

## 1.9 Organization of the Study

The dissertation consists of five chapters.

The Chapter 1 provides the introduction and background of the study, including the research problem, research objectives, research questions, scope and limitations, significance of the study, hypotheses, and conceptual framework.

Following the introductory chapter, Chapter 2 reviews the literature on relationship between poverty and labor migration. It aims to improve the understanding of how poverty affects labor migration and vice versa and pinpoints gaps in the existing literature regarding the poverty-migration relationship. Finally, an analytical framework for the study is drawn based on this review.

Chapter 3 gives the details of research and approaches that were used in the study.

Chapter 4 provides the discussion of results and findings of the study.

Chapter 5 presents the Conclusions and Recommendations, including the summary of findings and implications that were drawn from the study, specifically for the current theoretical debates and policy interventions that the Royal Government of Cambodia should make in order to promote positive impacts of migration so that it can serve as a mechanism for development. This final chapter also outlines the directions for future research on the topic of international and regional labor migration.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### 2.1 Introduction

International migration has been shown to impact on the individual experiences of people and families within their immediate social environment (Foster, 2001; Furman et al., 2009), and, to the need for adapted methods of intervention (Lacroix, 2006). Understanding the development of this body of literature is useful as it helps to highlight how this literature has emerged. Likewise, it identifies possible future directions for social work research, education, and practice when investigating the situation of international migration and working with individuals, families, and communities of people that have migrated.

Given the complexities and confusion with terminology within and across the discourses of migration, we define these terms based on criteria outlined by the International Organization for Migration (2009). Under these criteria, a migrant is a term used to describe a person moving geographically, from one place to another, regardless of the direction of the movement. An immigrant is a person arriving (immigrating) in a new country with the intention to reside there, and a refugee is defined under the 1951 Refugee Convention as a person who, due to a well-founded fear of being persecuted, is forced to flee his or her country, and thus is outside the country of his or her nationality.

Today, globalization, together with advances in technology, has greatly increased the number of people who are willing and capable of moving to places outside the country of their birth. For instance, there are approximately 190 million people (or 3% of the human population) who are international migrants (those who are outside their country of origin); a number

that increases by 2–3 million people per annum (Stalker, 2008). According to the International Organization for Migration (2009), the current annual growth rate of migration is about 2.9%.

The human aspect of international movement refers to the migrant—the person who leaves their own country to another country—and their movement across borders for multiple and diverse reasons; including better employment opportunities or living conditions, political fear or persecution, or abuse and exploitation, among others. Migration has now become a defining aspect for many populations, creating new challenges and opportunities for migrants, for the societies receiving these populations (Blunt, 2007), and for the countries that people are choosing or are forced to leave (Castles & Miller, 2009; Cohen, 2006).

This diversity of international migrants is highlighted also by the varying types of international migrants. These types include those who are “legally” immigrating to another country (that is, those with the requisite paperwork in place), those who seek protection under refugee status due to persecution faced, and others who hold less permanent status whether with or without the required documents (e.g., migrant workers).

Main idea of this chapter is to study thoroughly most important works produced by wide range of scholars, researchers, academics, development institutions, etc., which can shed light on particular questions of the broad theme of labor migration and its role in development. It is clear that one cannot explore all issues tightly connected with the phenomenon under study and, here, we single out part of these topics which we consider as crucial for reaching the overall aim and objectives of the dissertation.

Among them are different migration theories, migration and development interrelations, remittances, etc., which will be analyzed in separate subchapters.



## 2.2 Migration Theories

Up to date migration research witnessed development of several theories explaining the nature and reasons of the phenomenon, but at the same time it is probably difficult to name the single theory which could provide comprehensive ground for detailed analysis. Scrabbling inside of abundant research works and papers on *neoclassical approach* to the migration theory shows that Adam Smith himself referred to the issue (Smith 1776) in his “An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations,” and was describing differences for labor prices in different destinations. Here, he refers to the labor supply and demand in Scotland and England, and according to him, frequent emigration from Scotland and rarer cases of the phenomenon in England are consequences of different demand levels in two countries. In general, all authors explaining the neoclassical approach to migration theory concentrate their opinions around the global labor supply and demand; labor is pulled from countries that have a surplus of labor to those nations that are experiencing a scarcity of working hands. Obviously, the theory does not lose the scent of the wages issue, and it states that movement of labor resources from one country to another brings changes in wage levels of both countries, i.e. decrease in destination place and increase in the origin. Lewis (1954), in order to shed light on this side of the issue, uses an example of the migration of Puerto Ricans to the United States, and, he argues that, in case of yearly migration of 100 thousand people from Puerto Rico to the US, the wage level in latter one does not react, or change is insignificant, but it pulls up the price of labor in Puerto Rico to the level in the States. Meanwhile, it should be emphasized that mass immigration would have totally different consequences for wages. Lewis (1954) is sure that, “if there were free immigration from India to the USA, the wage level of the USA would certainly be pulled down

towards the Indian and Chinese levels”. Bustamante et al. (1998) tries to project the importance of the neoclassical theory in prediction of the increase in migrants’ flow from Mexico to the US and, based on the theory, he brings to our senses three situations in which more laborers from the southern neighbor of the United States become more eager to migrate:

- a) an increase in wages or employment for Mexican migrants in the United States;
- b) a decrease in employment or wages in rural or urban Mexico;
- c) a decline in migration costs or risks, as when relatives or friends assist villagers with entering and finding work in the U.S.

According to Maresova (1999), this current theory has considerable limitations due to its failure in considering political and economic factors in international scene, and political decisions which directly or indirectly influence migration decision making on individual level. Besides this, she criticizes the theory for its assumptions regarding homogeneity of skills among destination and origin countries of migrants and establishment of full employment in both places as a result of labor force move.

As presented above, the neoclassical theory of migration is rooted in labor demand and supply disequilibrium, and presents labor migration mostly as individual decision. But, after the second half of 20th century, the changes occurring in the world markets, or, in other words, the market failures occurring in different parts of the world created new theoretical approach to labor migration called the *new economics of migration*, which considers labor migration as a decision taken at household level in order to minimize the risks they may have by sending some members of the household abroad (Massey et al 1993). Here, Kubursi (2006) argues that, “When prospects of future markets are non-existing, or if markets are incomplete, imperfect or inaccessible as is typically the setting in many developing economies,

households who cannot access viable incomes and capital markets in the home country tend to send a member or more abroad as insurance against risks and/or to assure access to capital. If wages and opportunities abroad are higher and plentiful, international migration offers a particularly attractive and effective strategy for minimizing risks and overcoming capital constraints". Stark and Taylor's (1989) findings indicate that, relative deprivation has a significant role in a households' will to send a migrant for earning abroad as they analyze Mexico-US migration decision, and this lets us understand that, the new economics of migration takes the emphasis from the level of individuals to households' level in the analysis of international migration (Kubursi 2006). "In developed countries, risks to household income are generally minimized through private insurance markets or governmental programs, but in developing countries these institutional mechanisms for managing risk are imperfect, absent, or inaccessible to poor families, giving them incentives to diversify risks through migration" (Massey et al 1993). If we derive a conclusion from these, we can understand that, based on the theory, every household tries to control the risks to the family's wellbeing through different allocations of available resources; where labor resources of the household may also be re-allocated based on the risky situation. For example, during droughts or natural disasters, households engaged especially in agricultural production may decide to send part of the family members to earn money abroad in order to minimize financial risks and compensate part of the lost income due to disasters.

*Dual Labor Market theory*, explaining the essence of international migration stands on different path in comparison with the two theories we discussed before. As we already featured. both of these theories are basically micro level theories dealing with individuals or households, and are mostly connected with rational choice theories. The Dual Labor Market

theory does not consider individuals and households as the main forces in the origination of migration processes and turns its attention to aggregate demand established in developed nations. Michael J. Piore was the biggest supporter of this theory which accentuates that international labor migration is not caused by push factors like unemployment or low wages in sending nations, but by the pull factor as in the permanent demand for a foreign working force in destination countries (Massey et al 1993). Piore (1979) posits that industries in developed countries recruit foreign labor force for those types of work for which there is no demand from native laborers and incoming migrants who come only for short and limited time period in order to save money and then return home. The cases when migrants do not return home but settle in the countries to which they came for temporary working is called failure of the primary intentions of the migrants. He also states that, migrants taking unwanted jobs help temper the impact of economic cycles, and are demanded by different economic actors, for which they serve as a complement.

The following theory sees the migration process as a natural consequence of the globalization and, accordingly, called *World Systems theory* (Wallerstein 1981). As Massey et al (1993) indicates, different researchers based on Wallerstein's work were linking the causes of international migration of the labor force with the world market structure, which has been expanding across countries since 1700, and within the context of applying capitalist economic relations to non-capitalist societies creates the population segment which is eager to go abroad to sell their labor force have been incorporated into the world market economy. As land, raw materials, and labor within peripheral regions come under the influence and control of markets, migration flows are inevitably generated, some of which have always moved abroad" (Massey et al 1993).

*The Cumulative Causation theory* of international migration takes its origins from Swedish economist Gunnar Myrdal and was further developed by Douglas Massey. The theory purports that the number of outgoing migrants increase over time as the networks of first migrants provide social capital to family members, relatives, friends and others in origin country, which enables them to find a job easier and have less risk in destination countries. This means that the stronger the migrants' networks the higher the number of new outgoing migrants from the country, and this process can continue for a long time (Heer 2002).

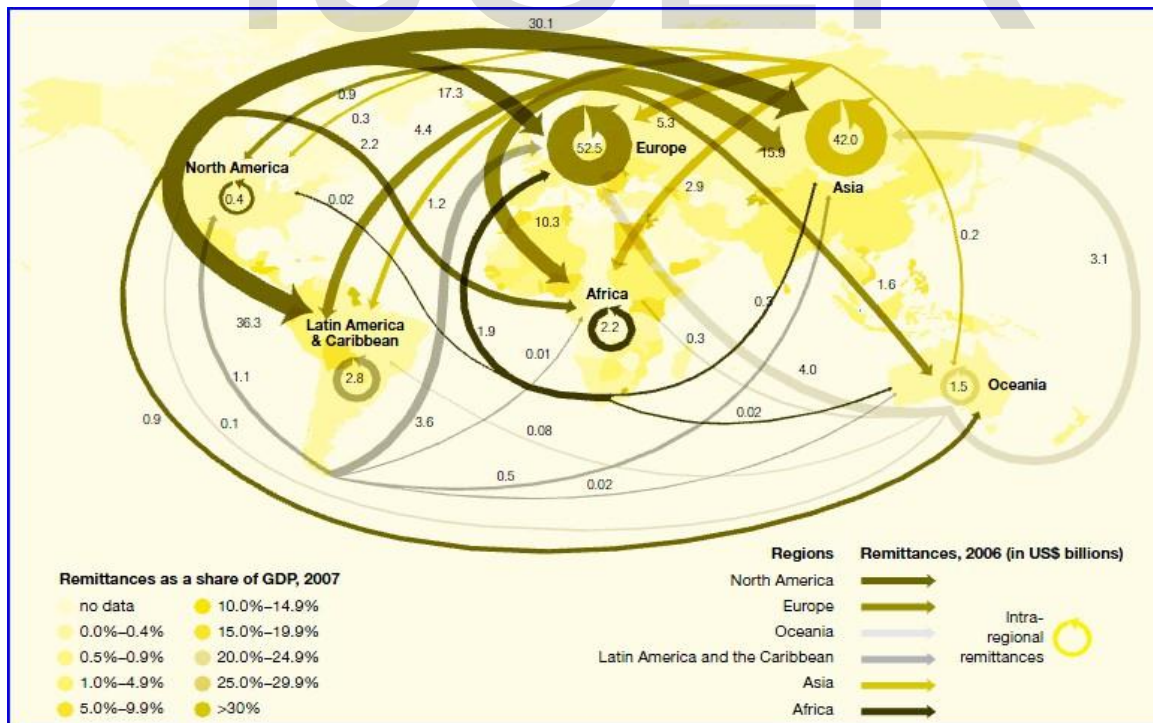
*The Network Theory of Migration* describes migrants' networks as a set of interpersonal ties connecting migrants, former and potential migrants in both sending and destination countries through different ties (e.g. kinship, friendship, etc.). Such networks provide strong motivation for migration of non-migrant members of the networks as the networks lower the costs and risks connected with migration and provide increased return to migrants within the network (Massey et al 1993). "Network theory tries to explain why international migration is an ongoing phenomenon. International migrants change the ethnic composition in receiving countries. As a result of large inflows of international migrants, migrant networks may be formed. These networks enhance the probability of employment and a decent income" (Jennissen 2004). These networks also provide migrants access to needed information on migration techniques on the way and upon arrival in host countries. Such information by lowering costs and risks of migration attracts wider range of individuals to migration process (Zanowiak 2006).

### 2.3 Migration and development nexus for sending countries and receiving countries

Review of the large amount of research materials and empirical evidences shows how international migration has both direct and indirect positive influences on the development of sending countries through remittances, employment generation (by investment of remittances), human capital generation, etc. Especially flows of remittances do benefit migrant sending households and the households without migrants abroad through the multiplier effect of spending. Social help of migration through remittances in sending countries can be easily seen by improved schooling of children and overall increase to health services (Katseli L at al. 2006).

It must be highlighted that, in the contemporary world, financial remittances reaching the poor in transition and developing countries are considered to be the most influential elements in the survival of the people and improvement of day-to-day life of households.

**Figure 2.1 - Flows of international remittances, 2006-2007.**



Source: Human Development Report 2009. UNDP, 2009.

Besides being accepted and confirmed by a great amount of empirical works, regarding their invaluable positive contribution to welfare, nutrition, access to food, health conditions, etc. in migrant sending localities, remittances are presented as solid sources of investment in business, human development and social stability. It has been also proven that remittances helped entire war-affected territories like Bosnia and Herzegovina, Guinea-Bissau, Nicaragua, Tajikistan and Uganda to survive. Today, this contribution is well acknowledged by national statistical agencies, and comparative tables of its trends from all over the world are regularly published by the World Bank and other international development institutions (UNDP 2009). The Figure 2.1, which was adopted from Human Development Report 2009, illustrates remittances flow in 2006- 2007 and their movement trajectory within regions.

According to the World Bank (2010), in 2009 developing nations received 316 billion USD in remittances against 336 billion USD in 2008. It means that, during the past year of world financial and economic crisis, this vital flow of money resources to households of most countries declined only by 6 percent, while forecasts were indicating a larger decline. The 2009 Human Development Report (UNDP 2009) gives the evidence that the remittances, which were generated by Alban migrants in Greece in the beginning of 1990s, helped to expand internal migration in Albania (i.e. the receivers of remittances in rural areas had the opportunity to move to urban settlements to look for their future), thanks to that money sent from Greece. Besides this, the report provides the case of international migrants who moved from Kerala in India to abroad with these migrants, firstly, vacated numbers of job places to their fellow countrymen, and, secondly, the construction boom, which took place on the basis of their remittances, created hundreds of jobs for low skilled internal migrants from neighboring states.

ADB report (2007) articulates that, in general, incoming remittances have considerable economic influence on countries in the form of expansion of savings, rise of investments both in human and physical capital and real exchange rate appreciation. Interestingly, increased consumption by households and their investments boost aggregate demand and GDP increases due to multiplier effects of these expenditures and investments. To add, financial sectors in both sending and receiving countries experience development of some special services like money transfer systems. Through establishing a good competitive environment for these institutions, they will try to gain bigger market share, by introducing new, cheaper, faster, reliable, easier and more innovative money transfer services. Unfortunately, there is the other side of this coin, which shows that, with appreciation of the real exchange rate, remittances indirectly lower competitiveness of local export oriented producers, which may bring a negative trade balance in the country.

Orozco (2007) rationalizes that, “although remittances play an important role as a social protection mechanism in many instances and practices, it is important to bear in mind that the overall effect of these flows will depend in large part on the capacity of the local economy and services to absorb these savings.”

***Micro-level impacts of external migration (origin country).***

Now, let us look through prism on the different outcomes of out migration of labor force and incoming remittances on different levels in sending countries. It is understandable that migration first of all influences migrants and their families as they are direct participants and also beneficiaries of the process. Experience shows that movement of migrants from origin to destination countries is frequently accompanied with heavy burden, such as: financial, moral and psychological, cultural, health related problems and others. However, they can be



also victims of violence from different people as well as police force. The risks for migrants are even higher if they are in irregular status. For example, an ILO (2006) report documents that, “irregular immigrants face double jeopardy: they risk or even lose their lives when crossing the Sahara Desert and then again when crossing the sea from West Africa to Europe...” (ILO 2006).

During migration, individuals also have to cope with the complex process of separation from their families on the one hand, and adaptation to different living, working and cultural environment in the new country, on the other hand. Language barriers, sense of isolation and marginality, social role changes and identity crises, cultural conflicts and social discrimination are potential sources of stress for migrants (Mari Klose and Mari-Klose, 2008). A research reveals that separation of children from parent(s) in migrants’ families negatively impacts their school success and they are more likely to stay behind their peers and even drop out the school (Gindling Tand Poggio, 2008). In addition, difficult conditions during travel and in host countries also have negative health effects on migrants, where transmission of infectious diseases is very actual (Spallek at al. 2010). On the contrary, in some cases, a new environment can also enhance personal growth and self-affirmation of the migrant and provide new social skills, which in the future can serve a migrant a good base to become more successful in personal and professional life.

Apart from psychological and moral traumas, migrants also frequently suffer from fraud and non-payment of salaries. Employers can confiscate passports of the migrant workers, refuse to pay salaries in part or in full and even detain them at the workplace (FIDH 2011). Especially women migrants are more vulnerable to different types of violence during travel and after arrival to destination countries. “This violence may occur in their

workplaces; or within larger social structures. Perpetrators of violence may include close relations, employers or in other cases individuals who are previously unknown to these women. Women's vulnerability to violence may be aggravated by institutional and administrative structures. The types of jobs into which they are recruited are often largely unskilled, low-paid and insecure in terms of having little social or legal protection. The fact that many of these women are working irregularly because they do not have the requisite work permits makes their conditions of work even more insecure and exposes them to the risk of violence from employers." (Freedman and Jamal, 2008).

Governments of many migrant sending countries have some kind of policies and mechanisms to prevent abuse and exploitation of their citizens in host countries and to render a support in case of sickness, death, accidents and other situations. However, all these measures and mechanisms cannot be called effective always and, moreover, they are not provided to irregular migrants who mostly find themselves in trouble. (Castles 2000)

Remarkably, migrants' remittances have a great role in enhancing consumption, health and education spending, improvement of housing and living conditions of the families left behind. At the household level, migrants' remittances increase incomes of the families which in turn increase consumption of both durable and non-durable goods, and they reduce poverty (Anyanwu 2001). Durand et al. (1996) state that according to Reichert's (1982) findings, migrant households in Mexico "...were 2.6 times more likely than non-migrant households to own homes made of brick and cement (as opposed to adobe); 3.3 times more likely to have indoor plumbing; 2 to 7 times more likely to own amenities such as gas stoves, refrigerators, and washing machines (usually produced in Mexico and sold locally); 2 to 3 times

more likely to own televisions and stereos (often imported but also of local manufacture); and 1.4 times more likely to own land”. (Durand et al 1996)

Migrants’ remittances enable households to make more health spending and thus improve overall health conditions of the members. Moreover, as Amuedo-Dorantes and Pozo (2009) indicate in their paper, “yet, the potential role of remittance income on health should not be dismissed as even non-health care related expenditures financed via remittances –such as investments in improved housing, water delivery systems, food refrigeration, and other durable goods, can also lead to improved health outcomes” (Amuedo-Dorantes and Pozo 2009).

Improved schooling and further education of the children and family members of the migrants has been confirmed by a great deal of research. Apparently, outcomes of migration on education of households’ members of migrants vary based on different factors; however, in general, remittances sent by migrants improve educational opportunities of their family members significantly. As Levitt and Lamba-Nieves (2011) bring in their work, “remittances generate more money for education so that poor families can keep their children in school longer. At the same time, children in areas of high out-migration are more likely to migrate themselves and to leave before completing school” (Levitt and Lamba-Nieves 2011).

It is also widely accepted that part of remittances is invested by households to buy land, livestock or establish their own business. Moreover, the magnitude of such investments depends on different factors including overall financial situation of remittance receiving households, existence of business skills and experience in particular fields of economic activity, local opportunities and risk, etc. While the use of these remittances could create more sustainable income sources for households, the share of investment in total remittance income of the households is still very low. According to Sharma, “... investment in a business ranges

from 1 percent (Mexico) to 10 percent (Guatemala, Brazil) of remittance income” (Sharma 2009).

Incoming remittances also influence the labor participation of the migrant sending households. There is enough evidence to show that part of the remittances receiving households decrease their labor supply and increase their leisure time and spending (Ruiz and Vargas-Silva 2009). Besides this, remittances and acquired social and professional skills of the migrants help them to raise their social status in their communities. Sabur and Mahmud (2008) hypothesize that, “with the changes in the possessions of civic amenities, patterns of consumptions and newly acquired habits of the migrants and their families, the perception of their relatives and neighbors towards the migrants and their families changes, and thus, elevate the status of the migrants' families” (Sabur and Mahmud, 2008).

#### ***Meso-level impacts of external migration (origin country).***

Durand et al (1996) state that the remittances sent by Mexican migrants in the United States also push up local demand for different goods like shirts, pants, shoes, coats, hats, belts, and boots, which are locally produced. In addition, increased consumption in domestically-produced corn, beans, beef, pork, milk, and other foodstuff products gives extra stimulus to local agricultural production. Spending on housing construction creates an extra market for bricks, adobe, lumber, hardware, concrete, paint, and tools - a large portion of which are also produced in Mexico. Higher investment on health and education by remittance receiving households boosts the demand for services of doctors, pharmacists and teachers, thus supports local employment (Durand et al 1996). However, some scholars also believe that remittances can promote consumerist and non-productive attitudes in migrants' origin communities. Especially, improved financial conditions of the households along with new ideas

brought by returning migrants change local tastes lower demand for locally produced goods and raise demand for imported goods (De Haas 2010). At the same time Mooney (2004) disputes that, “some studies have found that migrants use remittances for consumption, buying items, such as: televisions, cars, and parabolic television antennas...This type of consumption has led some researches to speak of a migrant syndrome, whereby returned migrants raise consumption norms in their places of origin, leading other community members to emulate those consumption patterns by migrating themselves” (Mooney 2004)

Of course, together with contributing to the wellbeing of local communities, labor migration can strengthen both equality and inequality in localities. This was well shown by Khatri (2007) who explained the case of labor movement from Talukpur village of Sylhet district to the UK in his work, where we can perceive that, international movement of part of villagers who could afford this movement and as a consequence were sending remittances to their families, which generated an inequality between families with remittances and those without. He also raises the fact that, “although inequality has increased between the well-to-do households and the very poor, it has decreased inequality between the traditionally rich people in the village and the many poorer households who have now had opportunities to earn money abroad. In Talukpur, migration has not only just brought money to the community but also brought considerable changes in landownership and altered the political, social and economic power base of the area” (Khatri 2007).

“A gendered perspective is essential to understanding both the causes and consequences of international migration. Gender inequality can be a powerful factor in precipitating migration, particularly when women have economic, political, and social expectations that

actual opportunities at home do not meet” – this is a statement from the research done by Martin (2007) where he analyzed women migration and development interrelation.

***Macro level impacts of external migration (origin country).***

Analyses of the macro impacts of external migration on sending countries show that a big part of them take place through inflow of remittances which provide a significant amount of foreign currency to country and boost national income, cover trade deficit and improve balance of payments, among other positive outcomes. Meyers (1998) also expounds that, “remittances also have trans-nationalized economic, social, and political life and contributed to the expansion of wire transfer and courier companies as well as money exchangers” (Meyers 1998). In developing countries large amounts of incoming remittances carry a great role in offsetting the chronic balance of payments deficits as “they have a more positive impact on the balance of payments than other monetary inflows (such as financial aid, direct investment or loans), because their use is not tied to particular investment projects with high import content, bear no interest and do not have to be repaid” (OECD 2006). Remittances are also widely known for their important role in covering trade deficit in the countries. For example in Jordan, remittances cover almost the entire trade deficit of the country and their absolute value is more than 40 percent of exports and imports of the country (Bouhga-Hagbe 2006).

It is obvious that even the biggest part of remittances is spent for daily consumption by households, some part of them without any doubt, is invested in productive business. When these investments are aggregated at national level, they have significant positive macro effects. For example, “according to Adelman and Taylor (1992), each arriving migrant increases output by \$3.30, yielding \$6.5 billion in additional production at the national level” (Durand et al. 1996). On the contrary, a sharp decline in remittances may also have negative

impacts on economic growth of remittance receiving country. The CGE simulation analysis done during ADB research (2010) in Pakistan shows that a 50 percent decline in incoming remittances decreases real GDP growth by 0.74 percent while real investment goes down by 7.7 percent, and the reduction of household consumption by 2.8 percent. This up lifts the poverty by 6.35 percent (ADB 2010). At the same time De Haas (2007) debates that “although declines may occur some decades after migration ceases, remittances seem to be a more stable and sustainable source of income than more volatile sources of foreign exchange for states, while they protect people from the destabilizing effects of absent or ill-functioning markets, failing state policies and a lack of state-provided social security” (De Haas 2007).

However there are also a lot of pessimistic viewpoints on the contribution of remittances on economic growth on a national level, like:

“...remittances have produced no success story. There is no country where remittances-led growth had contributed significantly to its development. In countries where such transfers exceeded 10 per cent of the GDP for long periods, it is amazing that even there one doesn't find one example of this phenomenon during the past four decades. The reason why remittances have not spurred economic growth is that they are generally not intended to serve as investments. They are mere social insurance to help family members meet their vital needs, buy land, spend on children's marriage, meet medical expenses or raise their status by purchasing more consumer goods” (Bokhari 2011)

Some authors like Fergany (2001) opine that most of the migrants were successful in accumulating financial means during their work abroad which helped to improve their economic condition at home, but this hardly contributed to economic growth in macro level. Besides this, he interposes that, Governments became dependent on migrants financial transfers as they are an easy and very convenient source of foreign exchange (Fergany 2001).

Remittances have positive influence on domestic demand for local currency, i.e. demand for local currency rises with the increase incoming remittances (Vargas-Silva 2009). Increased demand for local currency appreciates its value against other currencies and makes imports to the country cheaper and exports of the country more expensive, which hurts export potential of the country. Some authors also underline that rise in the flow of remittances results in high consumption demand. “The higher non-tradable prices serve as incentive for an expansion of that sector, culminating in reallocation of labor away from the tradable sector - a phenomenon known as the Dutch disease” (Acosta et al. 2009). In such cases, “policy responses depend on whether the remittance flows are taken as short-term or long-term phenomena. If they are seen as a short-term phenomenon, fiscal and monetary policy intervention may become advisable. However, if, as is most likely, the flows are of a longer-term nature, the receiving country would need to accept that the remittances are there to stay and will have to make more fundamental and lasting macroeconomic adjustments” (Loser et al 2009). Brain drain is seen as one of the negative consequences of international migration for sending countries. For example, according to Khadria (2002) out migration of IT professionals and graduates in this field is expected to have negative impact on technological development in India, as it will lead to an unavoidable shortage of high qualified specialists in that field.



“While the government perceives little problem with this trends and is, in fact, euphoric about India becoming a superpower through globalization of Indian IT professionals, the media voices grave concern about critical shortages and/or loss of public subsidies in higher education for the benefit of the multinational companies in India and abroad” (Khadria 2002). But at the same time, based on the “new strand of the skilled migration literature, the higher probability of migration increases the incentives to acquire education and through that the share of skilled population in the migrants’ home country. This hypothetical increased human capital would have positive effects on productivity and, subsequently, growth. This outcome is possible under the assumption that not all skilled individuals will actually migrate and that access to education and training is feasible” (Katseli L at al. 2006).

#### ***Impacts of labor migration on receiving countries***

The widespread beliefs that - migrant workers take the jobs of natives, and that they are mostly the cause for increase of crime and social unrest in destination countries and labor migrant usually takes place between developing and developed countries, i.e. migrant workers from developing countries always target developed countries for finding a job abroad - are still in the heads of millions of people in developed world. Hence, in this section, we will try to look at the issue based on real research and experiences, in order to prove that labor migrants are bringing more positives than negatives to host countries, and south-south migration already has much larger amounts and trends than being thought of.

According to Lucas (2008), the effect on the flow of migrants for the receiving country is rather complicated while in most cases the whole impact is not big. Noticeably, for some countries with an aging population, it is a chance to fill the gap in the labor market, and temporary labor migrants are net contributors to the budget, as they pay the taxes and do

not receive anything for their retirement from the government of the host country because of their leaving back to their countries of origin after certain period of time. Furthermore, he makes a point on the role of migrants in accelerating technical progress in destination countries as “from the 2000 Census, the U.S. National Science Foundation estimates that more than 35 percent of Ph.D. scientists and engineers in the United States were foreign born. There are no clear estimates of the contribution of these migrants to technical progress in the United States. Though, more generally, there is evidence to indicate that additions to human capital may have their biggest impact on growth through technical progress rather than through raising worker productivity” (Lucas, 2008).

When we look into the question of labor market and economic impacts of immigrant workers for the natives in the host country, it is worth citing the work done by Chang (2007) where he dissects that, “if we examine the impact of immigrants in the labor market, we find that the natives of a host country, taken together, will gain from the immigration of labor. Wages may fall for those native workers who compete with immigrant labor, but this loss for those workers is a pure transfer among natives: it is offset by an equal gain for those who employ labor, and ultimately for consumers, who obtain goods and services at lower cost. Furthermore, natives gain from employing immigrant workers: they gain surplus in excess of what they pay immigrants for their labor. Thus, natives as a group enjoy a net gain from employing immigrants”. Besides this, he brings the fact that according to estimates carried out by the economists from the World Bank, countries which are in the high-income group and which receive migrant workers under so called liberalization scenario would enjoy an increase of their real income by 0.4.

Based on Yeager (2008) for businesses in receiving countries, migrant laborers are valuable for their several characteristics including working for lower wages, filling the gap in labor supply, limited social security payments, almost no cases absenteeism and always readiness to for overtime work, and etc.

### ***Migration and spread of infectious diseases***

As it is stated above, external migration and the remittances received in this process contribute to the improvement of the health of migrant sending households. However, recent research indicates that migration also causes the spread of some serious infectious diseases like tuberculosis (TB), hepatitis and HIV, both in sending and receiving countries. For example, EASAC (2007) reports that TB spread which is emerging in many of big cities in Europe is strongly connected to increasing migration trends from countries Africa, Asia and Latin America. At the same time, many migrants develop the infection as a result of their poor socio-economic conditions in the receiving countries. “Limited access to healthcare prevents migrant populations from accessing information that would enable them to avoid TB and to obtain early diagnosis and treatment of new or re-activated TB infection. This is compounded by limited efforts to raise awareness about TB in migrant populations who may be at the most risk.” (ECDC 2009)

Recently, a lot of researches have been conducted also on the linkages between migration and the spread of HIV, whereby most of the work concluded that the movement of people across borders has been a strong catalyst for the increase of infections in both countries of origin and destination. A position paper by IOM (2002), pinpoints that the relationship between people’s movement across borders and HIV/AIDS is complex. The belief that migrants are the source of the HIV virus in destination countries has been

proved wrong by research. Evidence suggests that migrants are rather the victims of HIV. It is important to note that, ‘the links between mobility and HIV/AIDS are related to the conditions and structure of the migration process. Some migrants are vulnerable to HIV infection at their destination, as is often the case with men who work far from home and live in men-only camps. For others, the greatest risk occurs in transit, as with women who must trade sex in order to survive. As for countries of origin, partners of migrant workers have been shown to be at increased risk of infection when the latter return from working in countries with high HIV prevalence” (IOM 2002).

To complement more the UNDP study (2004) in the Asia Pacific region evidently shows the interrelationship between migration and HIV, as 67 percent of respondents who are living with HIV have identified migration as a main factor for their HIV status. At the same time the report states that,

“HIV and migration do not have linear cause and effect relationship, but are latterly linked. HIV is a manifestation of inequalities and deprivation faced by migrants. Hostile and lonely environments, separation from families, lack of access to information and services and social support systems can lead to social and sexual practices that make them more susceptible to HIV. However, it may be noted that migration itself is not a vulnerability factor for HIV, but is the unsafe process of migration that creates conditions of vulnerability.” (UNDP 2004)

Decosas (1995) interjects that, like all other infections which spread from person to person, HIV also follows the movement of people. Here the main concern of the authors are that migrants coming from poor and developing parts of the world to developed countries or simply to their slightly wealthier neighbors are more vulnerable to the surrounding environment, which make their chances of contracting HIV much higher than the residents of the host countries.

According to Lurie (2004), migration is one among the social factors that contributes to the increase in the number of people living with HIV across the world. He notes that studies have already provided enough evidence showing that the people who move from place to place or migrate have a higher risk of contracting HIV compared with people who do not change their location often. Here, he cites the example that, “in Uganda, people who had changed their residence were three times more likely to be infected with HIV than those who had not. It is not so much movement per se, but the social and economic conditions that characterize migration processes that puts people at risk for HIV” (Lurie 2004).

Most scholars have attempted to identify the main factors influencing HIV vulnerability among migrants by dividing them into groups like social factors, individual factors, structural factors and other. While classifying separation from families and partners, alienation, loneliness, lost sense of freedom, and a different perception of risks as individual risks, some researchers call the tendency to seek new, concurrent, casual or same-sex partners to ease the isolation of living abroad, and contact with new and more liberal sexual norms in destination countries as social factors contributing to HIV vulnerability among migrants (Goldenberg 2010).

## **2.4 External Labor Migration Remittances and Local Development: Policy Approach**

In the previous sections, we scrutinized how international migration impacts development in sending and receiving countries and what are its positive outcomes and negative consequences. However, it is also very important to appreciate the role of external labor migration in the local development processes in different parts of the countries and how appropriate national and local policies can strengthen positive impacts of out labor migration.

Favorable investment climate and viable business opportunities may serve as powerful instruments to maximize positive outcomes of remittances to local economies by stimulating migrants and their households to invest. Apropos to this, remittances can introduce poor people to bank services and if appropriate policies and instruments are elaborated (in regard to banking sector) to attract more remittances receiving households to use banking sector services, and keep their remittances in bank accounts, the development effect would be stronger. While in realization of these measures governments' role is important, the interventions must be made very carefully. Policies should support migrants who want to invest in different local projects, establish business or keep money in the bank deposits, but should not force them to do this as the results can be adverse (O'Neil 2003).

While one part of the literature underlines the importance of targeted policies to increase the impact of incoming remittances on local development, the other part underscores the crucial role of overall economic policies and existence of different infrastructure for more efficient absorption of remittances by local economies and thus have higher development impact. De Haas (2010) argues that, "the best policies to optimize remittance impact seem to be more general development policies, which make countries of origin also more attractive for migrants to invest in. It is therefore important to set realistic

expectations about the development potential of migration and remittances, and not create any illusions about the impacts of targeted policies in this domain. Migration and remittances are no panacea for development as they alone cannot overcome more structural development obstacles”. Fajnzylber P. and López J. H. (2007) pinpoint that macroeconomic policies, institutional quality and educational achievements play important role in increasing growth impact of remittances. Therefore, if countries have low ranks on these fronts, the impact of remittances might be more modest. In another vein, an UNCTAD report states that, “proactive policy measures could induce the productive use of remittances and capitalize on diaspora networks for developmental purposes. There is a need for a comprehensive and coherent policy – a regulatory and institutional framework at the national level with the involvement of all stakeholders.....The development policy lies in formalizing assets in ways that they function as development leveraging instruments. The formalization of assets resulting from increases in disposable income as a byproduct of growing inflow of remittance in a household brings up questions and options for policy design and implementation in key strategic development fields”.

## **2.5 Migration Related Problems and Their Possible Solutions**

International labor migration has litany of specific problems and difficulties affecting all stakeholders engaged in this process, beginning with migrants themselves and ending with sending and receiving countries governments. In this subchapter, we will not go deep into the problems on the micro level (i.e. social, health, legal, etc.) that are faced by individual migrants and their families in the host countries and travelling to these host countries. We will mostly focus on the origin of these problems which is rooted in the irregularity of a significant part of international labor migration.

Irregular migration is a major source of legal, social and financial difficulties in destination countries for migrants, while alike problems are experienced by host country governments in form of rising rates of criminal activities, expansion of an informal economy, etc. where these migrants are employed (Horakova M 2000, Friebel and Guriev, 2002).

When fighting with irregular migration and managing the inflow and outflow of migrant workers, bilateral agreements have always played a considerable role, notwithstanding the fact that in practice, signing such intergovernmental bilateral agreements on the sending and receiving labor force is rather complicated and in some cases, causes really difficult issues. First of all, the reasons lying under these difficulties originate in receiving countries as sometimes they are reluctant or less willing to establish such an agreement due to different factors. Go (2007) state that the most often accented argument for being reluctant or issuing a refusal for signing formal documents for intergovernmental agreements on migrant workers by receiving states is, “that foreign workers are subject to the same laws and regulations as nationals; consequently, they do not need any special attention. Moreover, since the terms of employment are negotiated by the workers and private employers or agencies, government intervention is not necessary since it is a private sector business. In addition, a formal agreement with one country (e.g. Philippines) would likewise open the floodgate of proposals for similar agreements from other sending countries, which they are reluctant to deal with.”

The guest workers programs can still be a better way to get rid of at least part of irregular migration. The guest worker term emphasizes the principle of rotation as central for this type of programs, i.e. migrant workers should complete their period abroad within



one or few years and return to their motherlands, and in case of still existing demand for such a labor force, other migrants can have the same opportunity to earn more money and new skills abroad. In fact, most migrants are the people who change their goals and aspirations by time through which they acquire more skills and experience and this fact makes management of labor migration much more complicated than goods or capital migration. Therefore, the biggest share of guest worker programs in the last century have had unexpected consequences than the result actually anticipated by initiators (Martin, 2006).

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## CHAPTER III

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Research Approaches and Strategies

Since this is an exploratory study, it employed mixed research approaches: quantitative and qualitative.

For the quantitative approach, a survey was conducted using a combination of close-ended and open-ended questionnaires to capture the following information: (a) socio-demographic background of respondents; (b) migration purpose; (c) process of migration; (d) experiences, issues, and challenges while working abroad; and (e) reasons for returning to Cambodia. A cross sectional survey method has been employed in three (3) areas of the country to assess the contribution of remittances and returnees in economic and social aspects of a household in the study area. Therefore, the cross sectional method has been used because of its effectiveness in terms of both time and money and in answering research questions involving process of changes over time.

On the other hand, the study also utilized the qualitative approach in conducting focus group discussions and two qualitative interviewing methods: free-listing and key informant interviewing. The three (3) qualitative methods allow for open-ended investigation and assessment of experiences, policy issues, and problems from the national and local perspective, which were important because of the exploratory nature of this study.

The specific methods selected for this study enabled a rapid and structured way of ascertaining the main issues, challenges, and problems impacting the government, individuals, and communities that were associated with regional and international labor migration.

### 3.2 Data Type and Sources

This study used both primary and secondary sources to generate relevant data about labor migration and determine its impact on the country's economy, household's livelihood, children's education, and community development.

Before conducting the actual survey, secondary data were gathered by the main researcher (the PhD candidate) in order to determine the research gaps, and thereby formulate the relevant questionnaires and guides for the FGD, free listing, and key informant interviews.

There were more than 100 relevant documents and studies on labor migration that were reviewed by the PhD candidate published by the Asian Development Bank, the World Bank, United Nations Development Program, the International Office of Migration (IOM), the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training, the National Institute of Statistics of the Ministry of Planning, the Cambodia, Development and Research Institute (CDRI), Japan International Training Cooperation Organization (JITCO), and other organizations. Additional secondary data collected include quantitative information from several organizations to know the magnitude of remittance inflow, the amount a household remittance received in a year, end use of the remittance (i.e. for daily consumption, education, health care, housing or business, etc.) as well as saving and investing level of the remittances by the recipients. Information on Cambodian GDP was also obtained from the World Bank. Most of the secondary data were surfed from the internet and synthesized by the researcher.

Primary data were collected from migrants who have just returned to Cambodia from Thailand, Malaysia, and South Korea through survey questionnaires. Qualitative data were obtained through focus group discussions, free-listing and key informant interviews in order to know the people's point of view regarding the net effect of international migration, impact of

international remittance received on family's livelihood, children's education and community development. In other words, it was intended to know the short and long term socio-economic consequences that overseas migration can have on Cambodian individual migrant-sending households, their counterparts, and the district as an economic unit.

### 3.3 Target Population and Number of Sample Respondents

This study scrutinized socio-economic implications of remittances to the migrants' family and households, as well as examined the effects of migration to the community. Returnee migrants' contribution was asked to see as what resources (new skills and knowledge or remittances) they bring with themselves and what they do with that. The households that were the subject of the study were those directly affected receiving households, and those non-recipient residents that might be indirectly influenced or affected by migration. The Survey Forms for this study can be found in **Appendix A-2**.

For the migrants' survey, there were 370 respondents who were selected arbitrarily in their respective home locations or training center in Battambang, Kampong Cham, Kandal, Takeo, Kampot, and Phnom Penh. Using the formula, the 370 respondents sample was obtained:

$$n = \frac{X^2 * N * P * (1 - P)}{(ME^2 * (N - 1)) + (X^2 * P * (1 - P))}$$

Where :

n = sample size

$X^2$  = Chi - square for the specified confidence level at 1 degree of freedom

N = Population Size

P = population proportion (.50 in this table)

ME = desired Margin of Error (expressed as a proportion)

Since the exact number of migrant population is hard to obtain, it was assumed in this study that the population of migrant household is about 10,000. From the table below, the sample size of **370** respondents was obtained:

**Table: 3.1: Sample Size Calculation**

Population size	Confidence level = 95%			Confidence level = 99%		
	Margin of error			Margin of error		
	5%	2,5%	1%	5%	2,5%	1%
100	80	94	99	87	96	99
500	217	377	475	285	421	485
1.000	278	606	906	399	727	943
10.000	370	1.332	4.899	622	2.098	6.239
100.000	383	1.513	8.762	659	2.585	14.227
500.000	384	1.532	9.423	663	2.640	16.055
1.000.000	384	1.534	9.512	663	2.647	16.317

Source: <https://www.checkmarket.com/blog/how-to-estimate-your-population-and-survey-sample-size/><sup>2</sup>

For the key informant interviews (KIIs), there were 13 respondents selected who represent NGOs dealing on migration issues, as well as government agencies handling migration cases. KIIs were used to explore in greater detail selected issues that emerged from the free-list interviews. After the free-list interviews, the 13 key informants were identified for in-depth interviews. Interviews focused on several issues, challenges, problems, and other dynamics that emerged from free-list interviews. The key informants were asked questions that are provided in Appendix B-2.

<sup>2</sup> This formula is the one used by Krejcie & Morgan in their 1970 article “Determining Sample Size for Research Activities” (*Educational and Psychological Measurement*, #30, pp. 607-610).

The interviewers also probed behaviors, feelings, relationship issues, causes, and coping mechanisms as well as other challenges mentioned in the course of the interview. Purposive sampling was used to select the key informants.

As to the focus group discussion, there were three (3) groups that were consulted, with 10 participants each. The FGD sessions were conducted in the following locations: FGD 1 – migrants to Thailand, conducted in Battambang; FGD 2 – migrants to Malaysia, conducted in the Muslim community in Russey Kheo District, Phnom Penh; and FGD 3 – migrants to South Korea, conducted in the Korean Language Training Center in Phnom Penh. The Focus Group Discussion Guide that was used in this study can be found in Appendix C-2.

For the free-listing interview, a quota sample size was only 50 respondents, who were selected randomly and at the researchers' convenience in the five villages of Ou Chrov district. Given that Ou Chrov district borders Thailand, these villages were selected because of the expected high prevalence of labor migration present. However, specific villages were selected in consultation with the District Governor to best represent a range of migration experience. A village very close to the border was selected because migrant workers from that village likely cross the border daily and work in Thailand close the border, whereas a village further away was also selected because migrant workers from that village likely go to Thailand for longer time because they have to pay more to travel to and cross the border. Within these villages, free-list interview respondents were selected through convenience sampling technique. In each village, the interviewers selected a total of 10 eligible respondents who were available to

be interviewed and subsequently walked around the homes in the immediate area asking adults who were available and interested if they would agree to be interviewed.

Although inclusion criteria did not require that the respondents themselves were labor migrants, given the high prevalence of labor migration as a livelihood strategy in these villages, it was expected that the convenience sample would include individuals who had personally migrated and/or who had family members who had done so. The decision to ask the respondents about impact on livelihood, as well as issues and problems of migrant workers in general, rather than their own problems was based on the experience of other researchers that asking about others can reduce the potential bias of not reporting stigmatizing and/or socially undesirable problems. In addition, asking about impact on livelihood, education, and issues/problems of this population more generally allows for a wider range of experiences and challenges to be mentioned, both those that the individual themselves might have experienced if they were a migrant worker as well as the experiences of others that they know. The Free Listing Interview Guide can be found in Appendix D-2.

### **3.4 Data Collection Instruments**

For this study, four (4) types of data collection instruments were used. For the free-listing interview, key informant interview, and focus group discussions, guide questions were used to collect vital information on labor migration issues and impact of labor migration to household livelihood, children's education, community development, and socio-economic development of the country. Informed Consent Letter requests were sent to each respondent and participants for the study (please see **Appendix A-1, B-1, C-1, and D-1**).

Aside from the above, the labor migrants' survey questionnaire was also developed to gather relevant information and other data on impact of migration to households, children's education, and other issues. To make data collection respondent-friendly and thereby increase data reliability, the questionnaire was translated to Khmer. Furthermore, enumerators that assisted the PhD candidate were PUC student volunteers and other volunteers from CARAM (an NGO engaged in migrants' issues), who are Cambodian-native speakers so as to make sure those respondents can explain their ideas without any problem. The household questionnaires were pre-tested to at least ten (10) randomly selected migrant respondents who are in MOLVT processing their travel documents for migration, in order to check the appropriateness of the questions and the questionnaire as well as data accuracy and validity.

#### **3.4.1 Household Questionnaire**

The household survey questionnaires used both open-ended and close-ended questions, which were deployed to 370 migrant workers from Battambang, Takeo, Kampot, Kampong Cham, and Phnom Penh (i.e. Russey Kheo district, and Korean Language Training Center). The questions included socio-demographic background variables such as age, sex, and educational as well as marital statuses. These variables were incorporated to provide fertile grounds for analysis of remittance spending and effects across households. Other variables against which socio-economic status of the households were examined that include income sources, annual income, occupation and wealth along with access to education, health care and housing (before and after migrating of their family member); effects of returnee migrants, and the use of remittances received. The questionnaire also collected information and other data on type, size, channel, frequency and purpose of remitting.



### **3.4.2 Free List Interviews**

Free list interview (FLI) guide was also used in conducting the interviews among members of the household who were left behind. As discussed previously, the free list interviews were used in order to gather information on the family left behind by the migrant workers, in terms of the impact of labor migration to livelihood, children's education, community development, and other issues/challenges of the household.

### **3.4.3 Key Informant Interviews**

The key informant interview guide was also developed with an intention of getting richer information than what were obtained from survey and to crosscheck its reliability. Subjects of the interview were asked for their informed consent and time suitable for them in advance. Here, unstructured questions were used to get additional information on the topic and other issues. That is, current migration's trend along with overall effects of migration, remittances and returnees at household level were collected, including policies and regulations that are being enforced by the Royal Government of Cambodia. It also strived to examine government thrusts as well as possible measures and policies forward.

### **3.4.4 Focus Group Discussion Guide**

For this study, a focus group discussion guide was also developed and used by the facilitator in conducting the FGDs in three locations.

## **3.5 Data Presentation and Analysis**

### **3.5.1 Household Survey**

The analysis part is a very important stage where the raw data were encoded, tabulated, and summarized to give organized information based on which valid conclusions and recommendations of the study were made. To this end, after collecting the data from the survey

of migrant workers, the results were tabulated using MS-Excel software. The questions in the household survey were pre-coded but some were not, specifically the open-ended questions.

Quantitative data were examined and presented in descriptive statistics like tables, frequencies, percentages and averages. It is crucial to point out differences between the socio-economic statuses of the migrant workers before and after migration statistically. Here, migration costs, differences in incomes and income sources, educational levels, share of remittance spending, and others were calculated to scrutinize the differences that may have been caused by migration. Qualitative data were organized, summarized and interpreted by the researcher manually, which then employed descriptions and narrations.

### **3.5.2 Free Listing Interviews, Key Informant Interviews and FGDs**

The information and other data gathered from free listing interviews, key informant interviews and FGDs were arranged in themes and issues. The key information and data were further analyzed in terms of their impact to the household, children's education, as well as to the socio-economic conditions of the localities. The policy and regulations were also discussed during key informant interviews to gather evidences of what the Government has done so far to address problems of migrants and to recommend improvements in terms of policies towards them.

## CHAPTER IV

### SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

#### 4.1 Introduction

This part of the study highlights the summary of findings and discussions on the research topic. It dissects the results of surveys conducted purposively among 370 respondents among labor migrants from Thailand, Malaysia, and South Korea, who were selected arbitrarily in their respective home locations or training center. It also provides the gist of Focus Group Discussion sessions conducted in three (3) sites, viz: Battambang, Russey Kheo District in Phnom Penh, and Korean Language Center in Phnom Penh. Key Informant Interviews were also done among two (2) sets of key informants: (a) officials from international organizations and government; and (b) representatives of non-government organizations working on migrant worker issues. Secondary data were also analyzed in the last part of this Chapter.

A plethora of the key findings and discussions are recapitulated below:

- There is a substantial gap between the understanding among migrants and households from which migrants emanate in terms of why and how people migrate, how remittances are transferred and used, and what services each group expectedly wants.
- Households from which migrants go are involved only during the preliminary stages of the migration process - that is, before the migrants leave for the first time. Because of weak communication process, households are not in close touch with migrants and have infinitesimal idea about other aspects of the migration process, such as how migrants manage to cross the border legally or illegally and how they send money back home.

- On the other hand, again due to weak communication dynamics and lack of regular updates on the situation of the households they left behind, there exists a gap between what migrants know versus what households know about how remittances are spent. Migrants tend to underestimate the impact of healthcare services' costs and debt interest on the how the remittances are used by household members.
- Consequently, due to this gap in understanding, the two groups have different priorities regarding the services they believe they need. Households value “investment information” and “microfinance training” a lot more than migrants do.
- The findings also reconfirm that remittances are transferred mainly through friends or informal channels, rather than banks or money transfer institutions, and are used to meet households' basic physiological needs.

## 4.2 Survey Findings and Results

In this section, the results of the survey among migrant workers deployed to Thailand, Malaysia, and South Korea are unearthed. The data were inputted to the Excel program and analyzed using frequency distribution only, rather than thru “statistical software” inasmuch as this is a Policy Research rather than quantitative or empirical-focused research.

The surveys conducted have encountered several limitations and constraints, as follows:

- The main difficulty of this kind of research is the lack of records or information, which makes it necessary to do lengthy and thorough preliminary endeavor to identify issues, locations and respondents and to establish to what degree they are representative.
- Cultural factors became likewise a constraint. The questionnaires were supposed to be administered face to face, but in Cambodia each interview became very quickly a communal event, involving all the villagers in the answering process. According to the

interviewers, it was impossible to keep the interviews private, but the great majority of respondents were uncomfortable in discussing private financial issues in the presence of the other villagers. Therefore, questions related to financial information have to be taken with a grain of salt.

- Moreover, due to the mobility of migrants and weak communication between migrants and migrant households, it is extremely difficult to track migrants and match them with their families. Many of the migrants use nicknames or change names once they are in another country so that the households have only precarious knowledge of their whereabouts.

In light of these limitations, it is not claimed that the findings of this study are representative in nature. It would be worthwhile doing a long-term survey with expanded samples in Cambodia, Thailand, Malaysia, and South Korea, specifically in comparatively linking migrants and their households with the data presented in this research.

#### **4.2.1 Socio-Demographic Background of Respondents**

This part of the Chapter scrutinizes the socio-demographic profile of migrant workers who were consulted for this study in order to better understand who they are and how they can be reached with information and support services.

##### **4.2.1.1 Gender**

The overall results show that 58% (214) of migrant workers are males and 42% (156) females. There seems to be disparity in terms of gender composition for each country of destination: Thailand with 52% male and 48% female; Malaysia with 47% male and 53% female; and Korea with 78% male and 22% female. As previously stated, locating migrant workers in Cambodia proved especially challenging during field research and should not be

interpreted as representative of the country as a whole. The actual gender breakdown of migrant workers in Cambodia is unknown due to the paucity of reliable disaggregated data on labor migration. Moreover, the data gathered in this survey suggests that gender balance is not so uneven, specifically in terms of the country of destination, as more men are attracted to work in Thailand and South Korea, and more women are bound for Malaysia. However, it was revealed during the survey that there were difficulties faced in identifying an equal number of men and women for interviews that serve to further highlight their marginalization under current policy framework, as male migrants have been provided with more opportunities for regular migration.

**Table 4.1: Gender Aggregation of Migrant Workers Surveyed**

No table of figures entries found.	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Gender								
Male	94	52%	42	47%	78	78%	214	58%
Female	86	48%	48	53%	22	22%	156	42%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

**4.2.1.2 Age Bracket**

As provided in Table 4.2, most migrants interviewed were between the ages of 26 to 30 or 48%; followed by 20-25 age group (24%); and below 20 age group (6%). This purports to suggest that demographic pressures created by a large youth population are part of the calculus determining migration. This was further substantiated in a number of key informant interviews, wherein many young people decided to migrate due to the lack of adequate employment opportunities and low wages available to them in Cambodia, feeling that they must go abroad to better provide for their families.

Young migrants (those under the age of 20) constituted 6% (n=24) of the total sample but may be under presented due to laws restricting their employment in many destination countries and the sampling criteria, which excluded those under 15 years of age from the study.

**Table 4.2: Age Brackets of Migrants (n=370)**

Age Bracket	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
below 20	18	10%	6	7%	0	0	24	6%
20-25	45	25%	42	47%	0	0	87	24%
26-30	59	33%	30	33%	89	89%	178	48%
over 30	58	32%	12	13%	11	11%	81	22%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

**4.2.1.3 Level of Education**

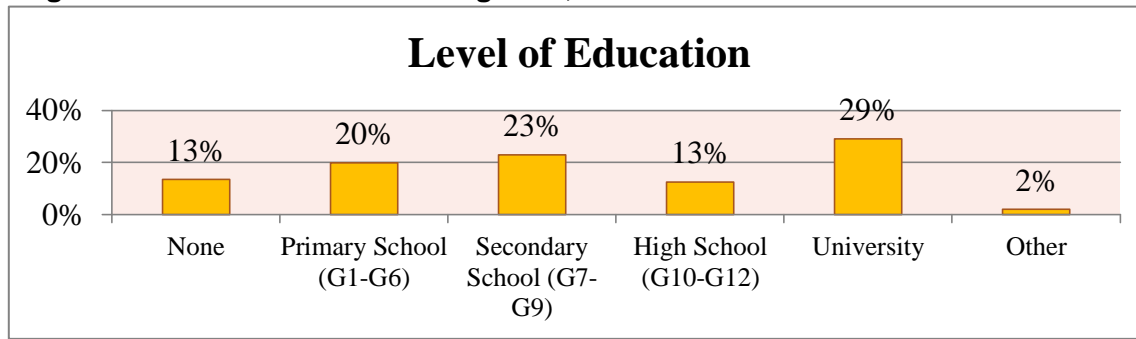
As revealed in Table 4.3, approximately 75% (n=276) of migrant workers did not have university education. According to the focus group discussions, this is fairly representative of the educational level in their villages as a whole. On the other hand, 25% (n=94) of the migrants interviewed had finished university and were still considering to go back again as migrant workers, mostly for low or semi-skilled jobs. Discussants in the FGD, where there were university graduate participants, stated that young people who have finished a higher education are also migrating in order to obtain higher incomes.

**Table 4.3: Level of Education**

Level of Education	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
None	23	13%	0	0	0	0	23	6%
Primary School	36	20%	24	27%	12	12%	72	19%
Secondary School	41	23%	12	13%	33	33%	86	23%
High School	23	13%	30	33%	22	22%	75	20%
University	52	29%	9	10%	33	33%	94	25%
Technical School	4	2%	0	0	0	0	4	1%
Drop Out	0	0	15	17%	0	0	15	4%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

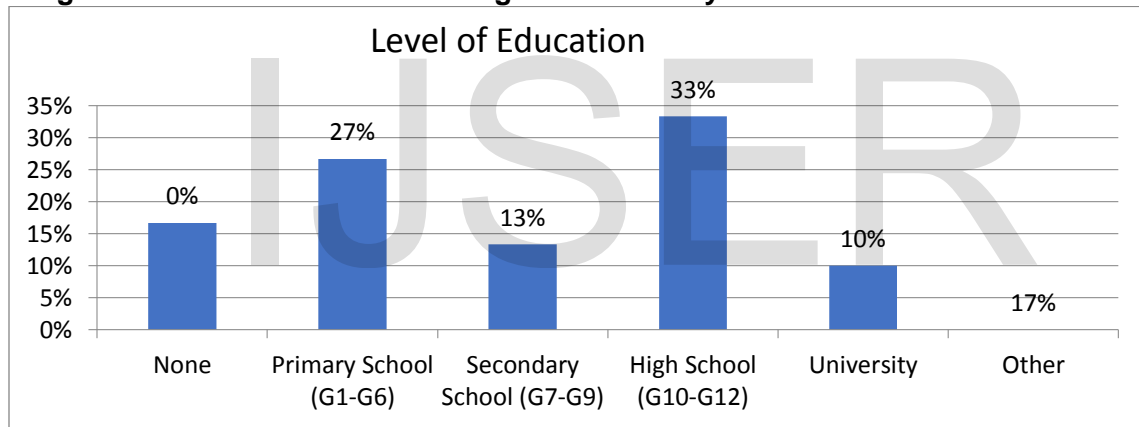
In terms of level of education in Thailand, **Fig. 4.1** below shows that 29% of the migrants completed college or university degree; while 23% finished secondary school, 13% high school, 20% primary school, 13% with no education; and 2% attended technical education.

**Fig. 4.1: Level of Education of Migrants, Thailand**



Migrant workers bound for Malaysia completed high school, 33%; secondary school, 13%; primary school, 27%; and university level, 10%; and drop outs, 17%. **Fig. 4.2** below illustrates the results.

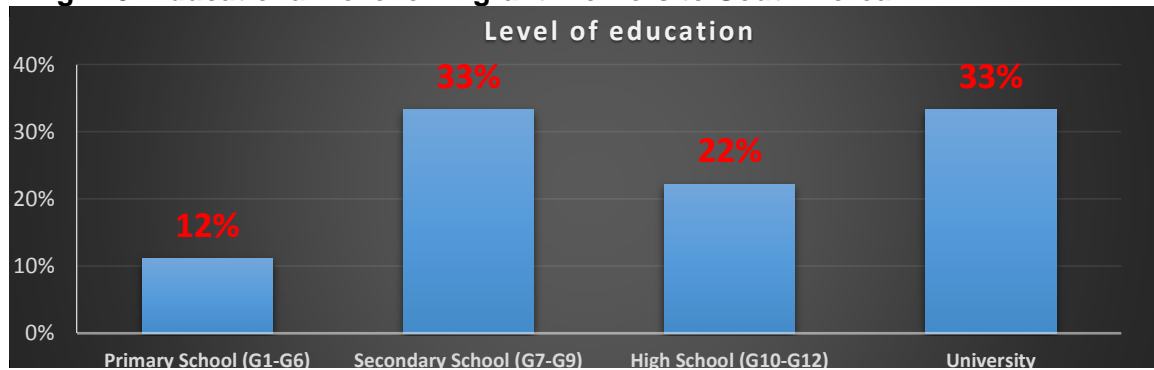
**Fig. 4.2: Level of Education of Migrants for Malaysia**



For South Korea bound migrant workers, 33% of the respondents completed university education; 33%, secondary, 22% high school, and the rest (11%) completed only primary education.



**Fig. 4.3 Educational Level of Migrant Workers to South Korea**



**4.2.1.4 Marital Status**

Among the migrants interviewed during the survey, 61% were single and 37% were married. There were only 2% who were divorced. Being young and single likely contributes to the temerity of migrants to pursue the opportunities and undertake the risks involved with working abroad.

**Table 4.4: Marital Status of Migrant Workers**

Marital Status	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Single	101	56%	54	60%	72	72%	227	61%
Married	72	40%	36	40%	28	28%	136	37%
Divorced	7	4%	0	0	0	0	7	2%
Widow/Widower	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

**4.2.1.5 Number of Children**

Of those married migrant workers, 33% (n=45) have no children; while 64% (n=87) have one or two children; and 3% (n=4) have three to four children.

**Table 4.5: Number of Children of Married Migrants**

Number of Children	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
None	34	47%	0	0	11	40%	45	33%
One-Two	38	53%	32	90%	17	60%	87	64%
Three-Four	0	0	4	10%	0	0	4	3%
Five and Over	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>100%</b>

### 4.2.1.6 Number of Household Members

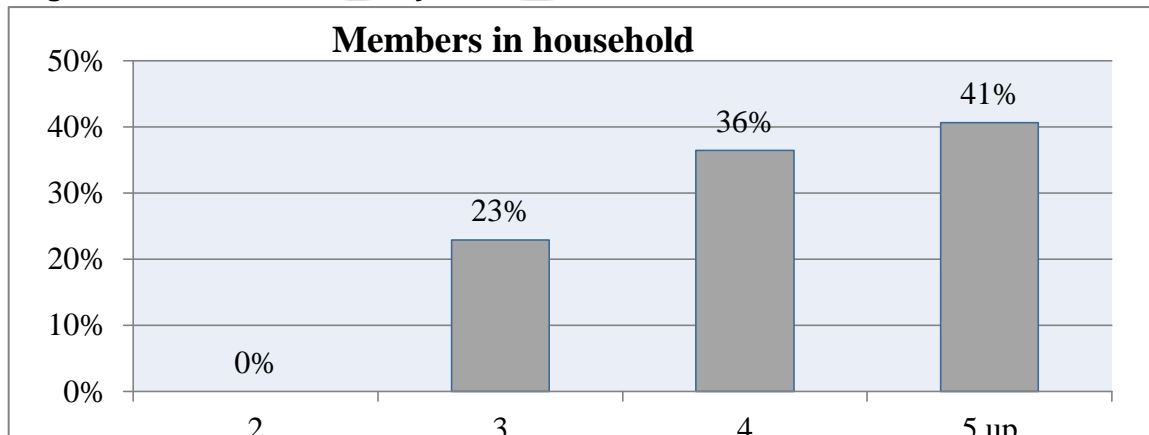
Majority of migrant workers surveyed, 51% (n=188) have five or more members in their households, followed by those with four members, 32% (n=118); three members, 16% (58); and two members, 2% (n=6).

**Table 4.6: Number of Household Members**

# of HH Members	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Two	0	0%	0	0	6	6%	6	2%
Three	41	23%	0	0	17	17%	58	16%
Four	65	36%	42	47%	11	11%	118	32%
Five and Above	74	41%	48	53%	66	66%	188	51%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

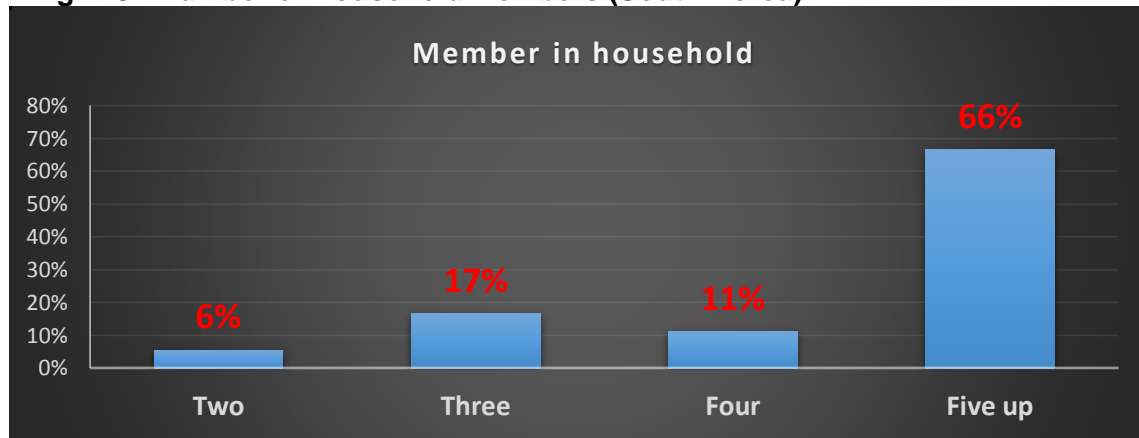
In Thailand, most migrants (41%) have more than five (5) members in their household, while there only 36% of migrants who reported to have only 4 family members. (Please see **Fig. 4.4** below)

**Figure 4.4: Number of Family Members in the Household, Thailand**



As to the number of household members, **Fig. 4.5** shows that 66% have more than 5 members, 17% have 3; 11% have 4; and 6% have 2 for migrant workers to South Korea.

**Fig. 4.5: Number of Household Members (South Korea)**



**4.2.1.7 Income Source Before Migration**

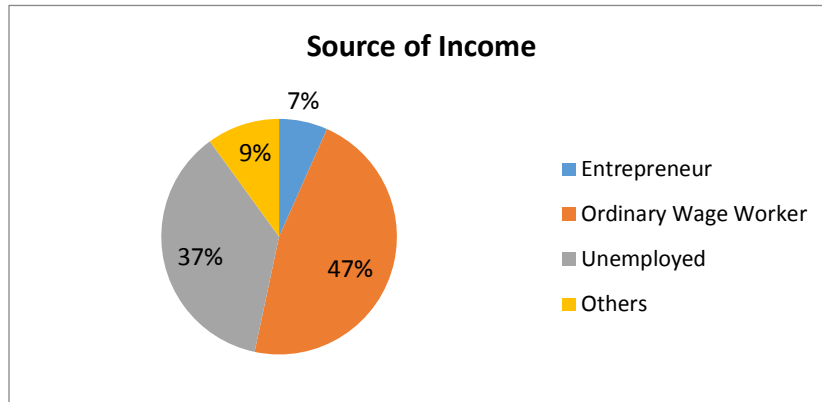
Among the migrants surveyed, 62% (n=230) were employed in some type of remunerative activity or as wage workers, while there were small-scale entrepreneurs, 26% (n=98). Some were unemployed, 9% (n=33), and with temporary jobs, 2% (n=8) before migrating, which are considered as forms of vulnerable employment by ILO. They are less likely to have formal work arrangements or access to social protection, and are more susceptible to economic shocks during periods of downturn.

**Table 4.7: Income Source Before Migrating**

Income Source	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	N	%	Total	%
Entrepreneur	81	45%	6	7%	11	11%	98	26%
Wage Worker	99	55%	42	47%	89	89%	230	62%
Office Worker	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Unemployed	0	0	33	37%	0	0	33	9%
Temporary Jobs	0	0	8	9%	0	0	8	2%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

As to their previous jobs before migration in Malaysia, 47% were ordinary wage workers; 37% were unemployed; 7% were entrepreneurs; and 9% were working in temporary jobs. (Please see **Fig. 4.6** below).

**Fig. 4.6: Source of Income Before Migration (Malaysia)**



**4.2.2 Migration Purpose**

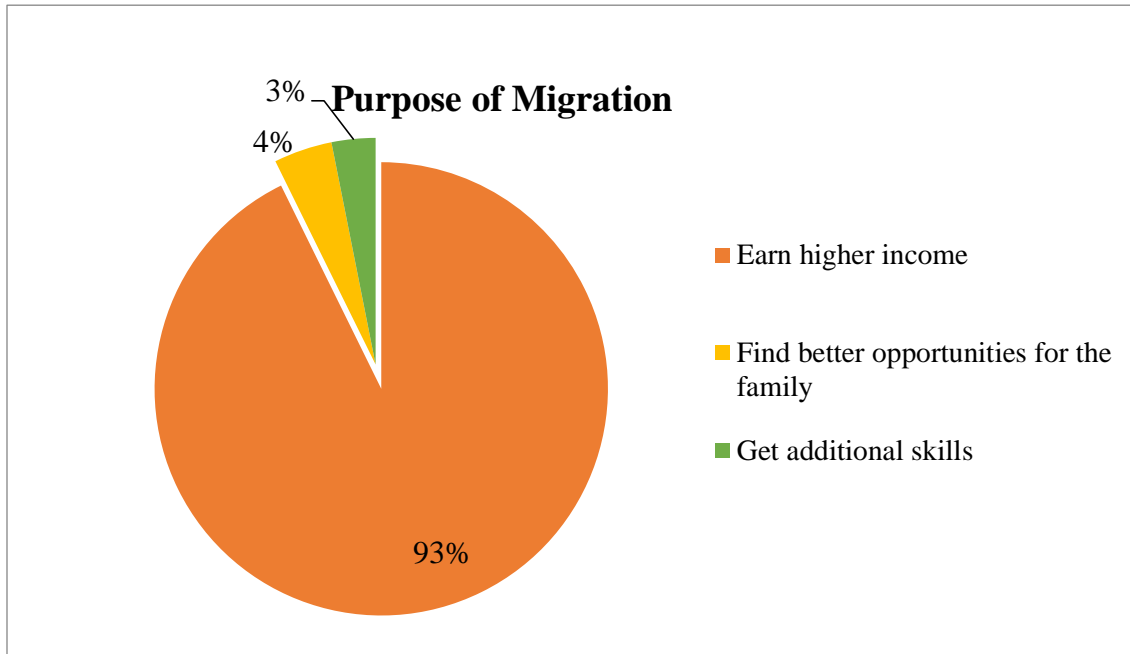
As shown in Table 4.8, the most frequent motivation for the migrants in the three countries was the promise of higher income, 93% (n=343). The implication is that migrants from Cambodia have less opportunity finding work in rural communities as well as in the cities of the country and have been drawn for overseas work assignments by wage differentials. The reasons for other migrants are to find better opportunities, 5% (n=19); and learn additional skills, 2% (n=8).

**Table 4.8: Reasons for Migrating**

Reasons for Migrating	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Earn Higher Income	168	93%	81	90%	94	94%	343	93%
Better Opportunities	7	4%	6	7%	6	6%	19	5%
Additional Skills	5	3%	3	3%	0	0	8	2%
Others	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

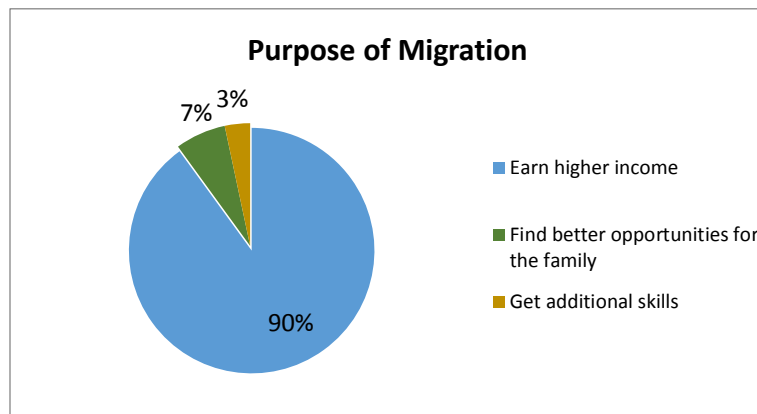
Majority of migrant workers bound for Thailand wanted to earn higher income (93%); 4% wanted to find better opportunities for their family; and 3% wanted to get additional skills.

**Fig. 4.7: Purpose of Migration to Thailand**



Same as in other countries, the reasons why Cambodian migrant workers go to Malaysia bound, it was to earn higher income, 90%; find better opportunities for the family, 7%; and get additional skills, 3%. **Fig. 4.8** illustrates the main reasons migrant workers bound for Malaysia.

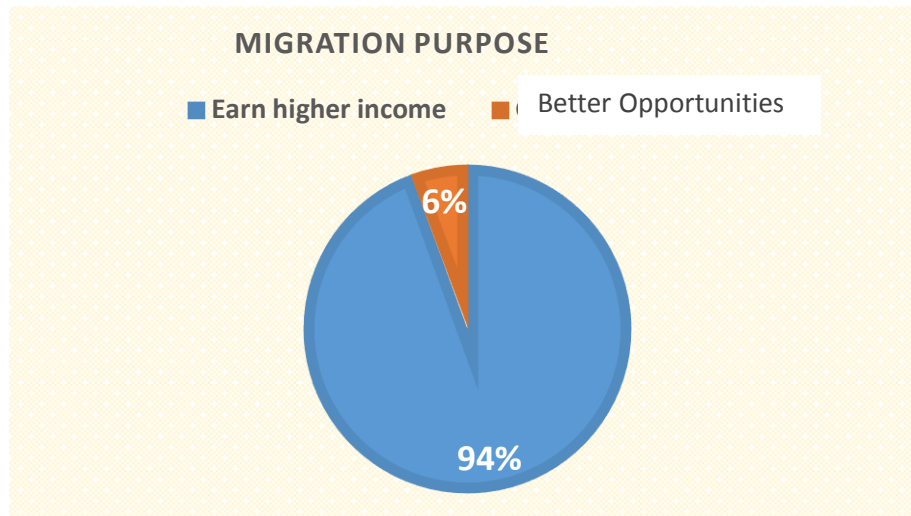
**Fig. 4.8: Purpose of Migrants in Malaysia**



Majority of migrants or 94% of Cambodian migrants to South Korea decided to work there in order to earn higher income, and 6% worked there to get better opportunities. **Fig. 4.9** provides

the summary results on the reasons why Cambodian migrants have travelled to work in South Korea.

**Fig. 4.9: Purpose of Migrating to South Korea**



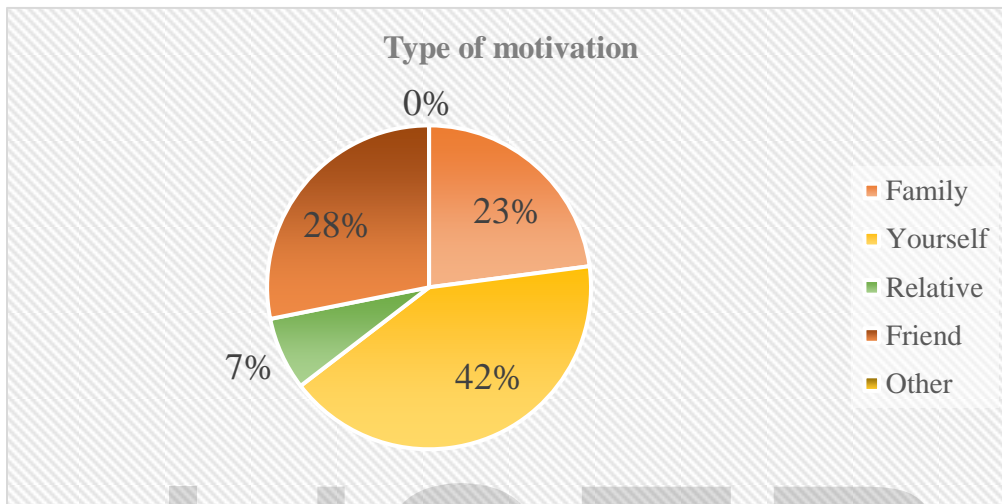
Most of the migrant workers surveyed informed that they motivated themselves to work in another country, 43% (n=158) because of their desire for more income to attain a higher standard of living, wages that were sufficient to meet basic family needs, and the need to pay back debts. Other motivators to work abroad included family members, 25% (n=91); friends, 24% (n=87); and relatives, 9% (n=34).

**Table 4.9: Motivators to Work Abroad**

Motivator to Work	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Family	41	23%	22	24%	28	28%	91	25%
Friend	50	28%	26	30%	11	11%	87	24%
Relative	13	7%	21	23%	0	0	34	9%
Yourself	76	42%	21	23%	61	61%	158	43%
Others	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

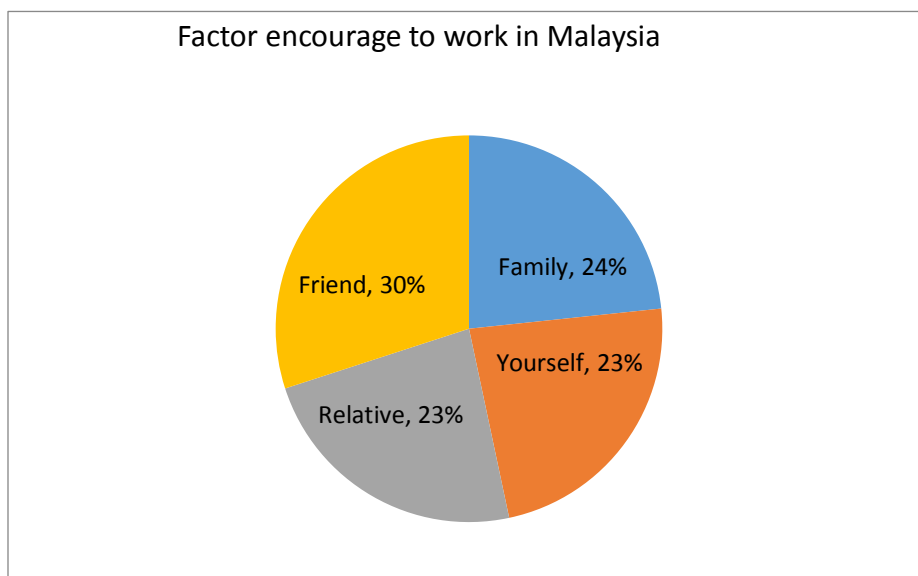
As to people and institutions that motivated them to work in Thailand, 42% decided on their own; 28% by their friends; 23% by their family; and 7% by other relatives. **Fig. 4.10** segments the respondents in terms of their motivation to work in Thailand.

**Fig. 4.10: Migration Motivation to Thailand**



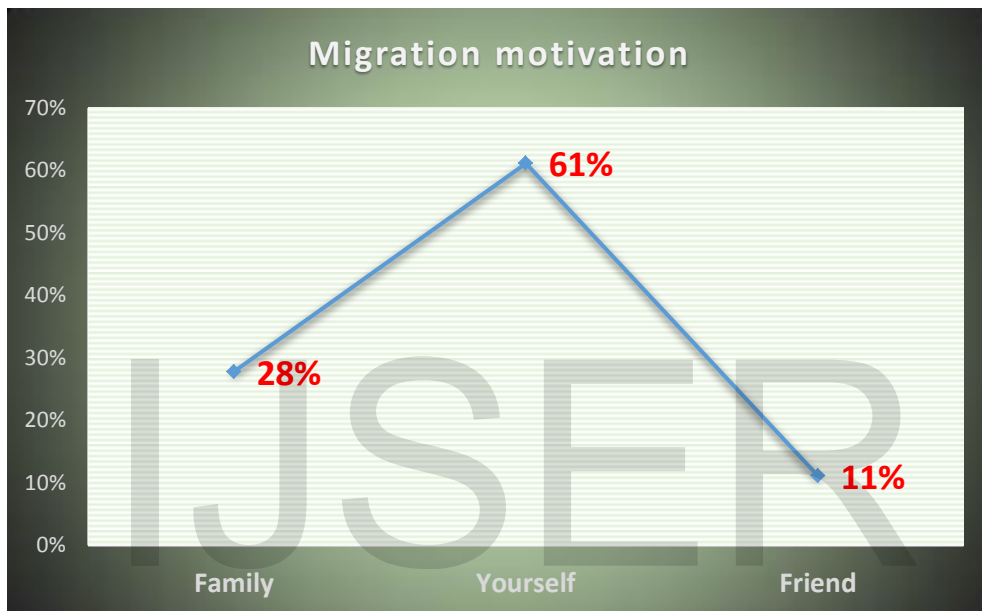
Among the total respondents who decided to work in Malaysia, the data revealed that 23% of them decided to work in Malaysia by themselves, the same way with family and relatives, while 30% said that their friends were the motivators for them to work in another country.

**Fig. 4.11 Migration Motivation to Malaysia**



For South Korean bound migrants, 61% of Cambodian migrants informed that they themselves made their decision to work in another country, while 28% were convinced by their family, and 11% by their friends.

**Fig. 4.12: Motivation of Working in South Korea**



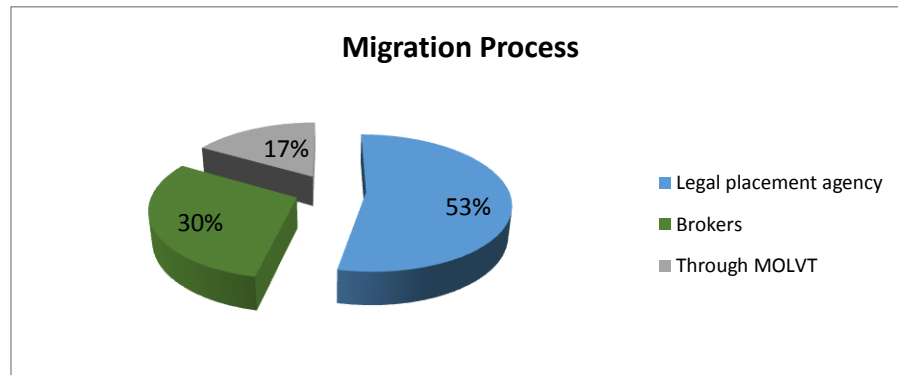
### 4.2.3 Process of Migration

**Information on Opportunities:** Survey results for Cambodian migrants to Thailand informed that they got information to work in Thailand through the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training (MOLVT), 57% (n=103). Others said they got information from relatives, 19% (n=34); placement agency, 15% (n=26); friends, 7% (n=13); and brokers, 2% (n=4). In the FGD, this was not reconfirmed, except that most migrants to Thailand went there informally through the borders. For those that applied through MOLVT, they needed to buy the application forms with supporting documents, identity cards, and family books. During interval period prior the examination date, they took time in studying Thai Language Proficiency Test.



Survey among former migrants who used to work in Malaysia reported that they applied to work mostly through Legal Placement Agency (53%), Brokers (30%) and Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training (MOLVT) (17%).

**Fig. 4.13: Migration Process to Malaysia**



Survey results among potential migrants who used to work in South Korea also revealed that they applied through Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training (MOLVT). Also, while waiting for the examination date, they took time to study the Korean Language Proficiency Test. When selected, they had to undergo medical check-ups.

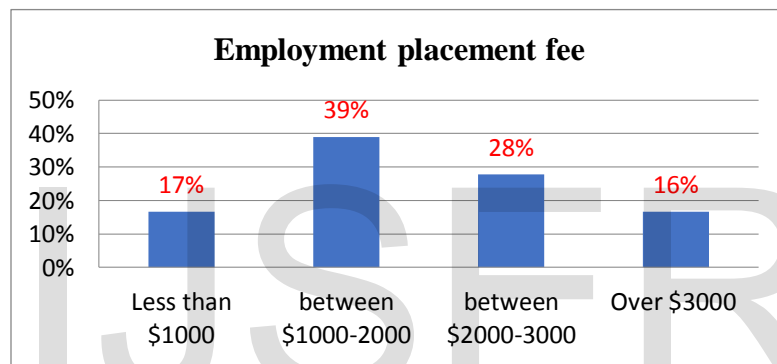
**Table 4.10: Source of Migration Information**

Where Applied	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
MOLVT	103	57%	15	17%	100	100%	218	59%
Placement Agency	26	15%	48	53%	0	0	74	20%
Brokers	4	2%	27	30%	0	0	31	8%
Friends	13	7%	0	0	0	0	13	4%
Relatives	34	19%	0	0	0	0	34	9%
Others	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

**Placement Fees:** Another hurdle for most migrant workers who were bound for Thailand, Malaysia, and South Korea, was the payment of placement fees.

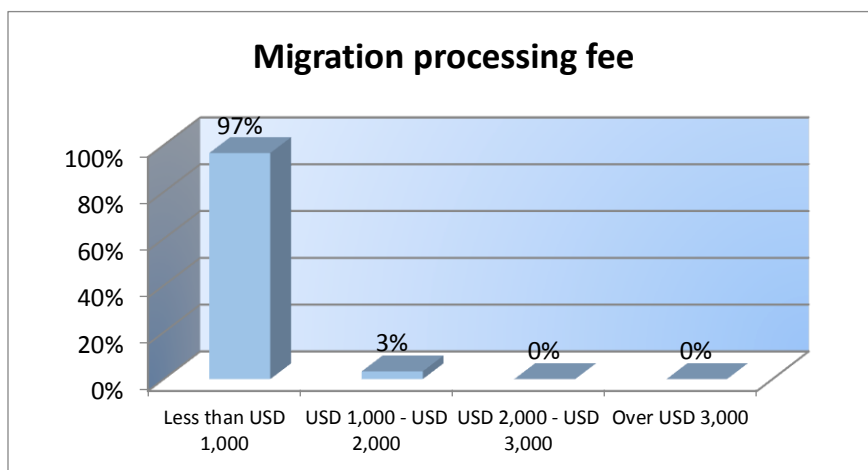
The survey found that the workers who migrated to South Korea spent mostly between \$1000-2000 for the whole process and accounted for 39%. While others shelled out less than \$1000 and over \$3000 tantamount to 17% and 28% between \$2,000-3,000. South Korea is the other major destination for Cambodian migrant workers after Thailand and Malaysia. Workers who wish to work in South Korea under the employment permit system (EPS) have a different profile requirement by undergoing to learn the Korean language and higher cost involved comparing for those destined for Thailand and Malaysia.

**Fig. 4.14: Employment Placement Fee to South Korea**



For Malaysian bound migrant workers, they needed to pay less than \$1,000, 97% (n=87); and the rest were paying in the range of \$1,000 to \$2,000, 3% (n=3).

**Fig. 4.15: Migration Processing Fee to Malaysia**



**Table 4.11: Range of Fees Paid During Last Migration**

	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Placement Fee								
Less than \$1,000	149	83%	87	97%	17	17%	253	68%
\$1,000 to \$2,000	29	16%	3	3%	39	39%	71	19%
\$2,001 to \$3,000	2	1%	0	0	28	28%	30	8%
\$3,001 to \$4,000	0	0	0	0	16	16%	16	4%
\$4,001 to \$5,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Over \$5,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

**Major Application Steps in Migration:** In landing for a formal job in another country, majority of them had to undergo interviews, 63% (n=233); skills/writing tests, 21% (n=76); work orientation, 15% (n=54); and salary negotiation, 5% (n=17). **Table 4.12** below provides the major steps underwent by migrant workers before going abroad.

**Table 4.12: Major Steps Underwent Before Migration**

Application Steps	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Skills/Writing Tests	41	23%	21	23%	14	14%	76	21%
Interview	139	77%	79	87%	15	15%	233	63%
Salary Negotiation	0	0	0	0	17	17%	17	5%
Work Orientation	0	0	0	0	54	54	54	15%
Others	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

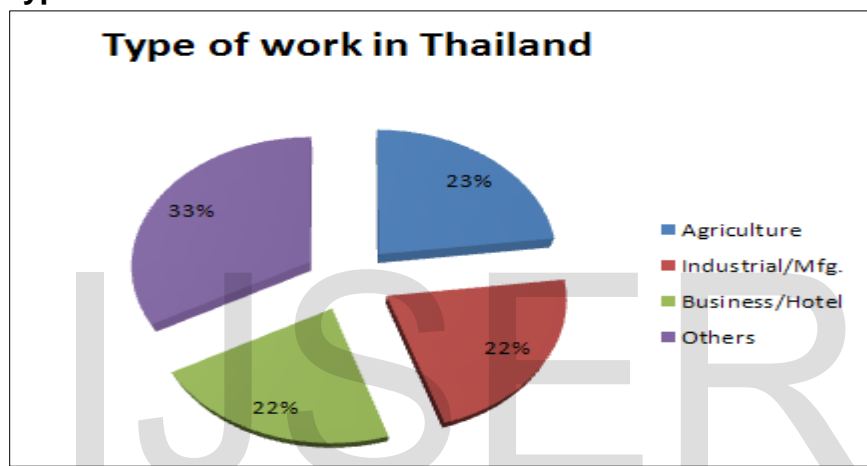
#### 4.2.4 Experiences, Issues and Challenges While Working Abroad

Most of the migrant workers were consulted on the various experiences, issues and challenges while working abroad. This part discusses job assignments of the migrants, payment of salaries, hours of worked per day, health and accident insurance benefits, average remittance, frequency of sending, family’s use of money sent, living conditions, and coping mechanisms while in other country.

#### 4.2.4.1 Intended Sector of Assignment

Despite the fact that industrial and manufacturing sector might be considered dirty, dangerous and demeaning (3D) jobs, it still ranked the highest sector of choice in almost all countries of destination, 43% (n=160). Other sectors of work are in agriculture, 19% (n=72); business/hotel, 16% (n=58); maids, 6% (n=21); and other sectors such as construction, restaurants, bars/entertainment, 16% (n=59).

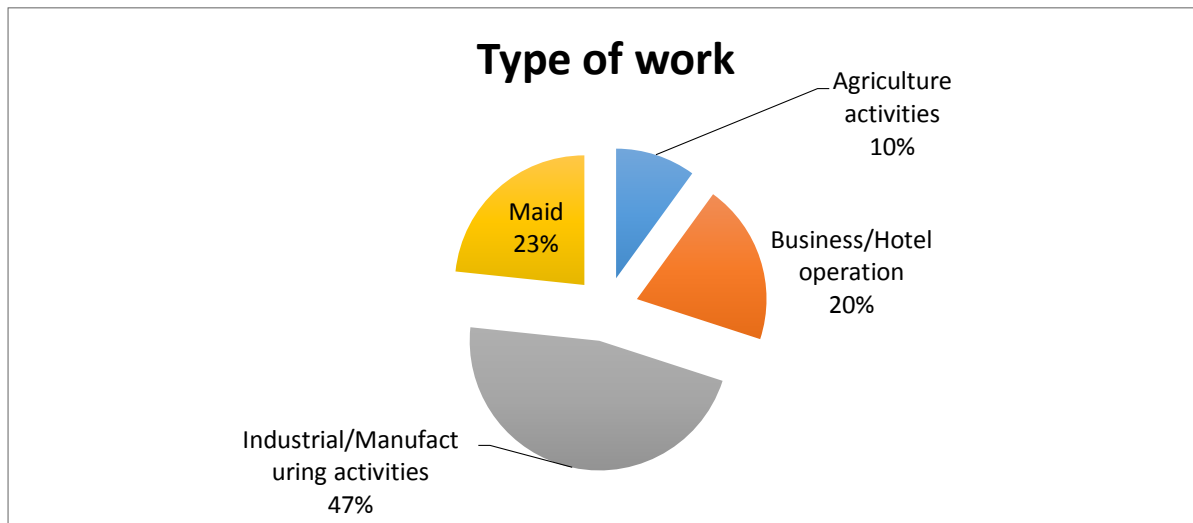
**Fig 4.16: Type of Work in Thailand**



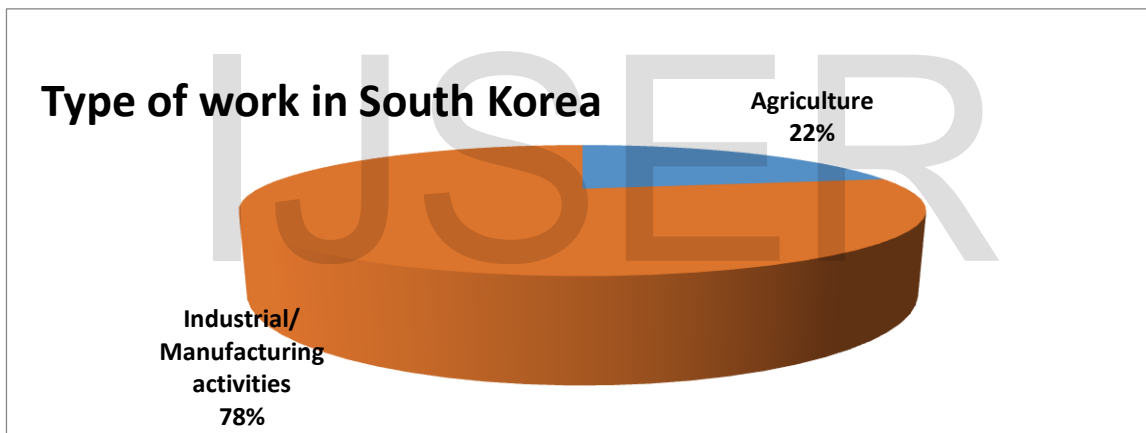
**Table 4.13: Sector of Assignment**

Job Assignments	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Agriculture	41	23%	9	10%	22	22%	72	19%
Industrial/Mfg.	40	22%	42	47%	78	78%	160	43%
Business/Hotel	40	22%	18	20%	0	0	58	16%
Banking	0	0%	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Maid	0	0%	21	23%	0	0	21	6%
Others	59	33%	0	0	0	0	59	16%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

**Fig 4.17: Type of Work in Malaysia**



**Fig. 4.18: Type of Work Assignment in South Korea**



**4.2.4.2 Timeliness in the Payment of Salaries**

Since participants in the survey were working in the formal sector, majority were able to receive their salaries on time, 84% (n=310), and the rest encountered delays in receiving work salaries, 16% (n=60).

**Table 4:14: Timeliness in the Payment of Salaries**

Salary Paid On Time?	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Yes	180	100%	30	33%	100	100%	310	84%
No	0	0	60	67%	0	0	60	16%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

For those that encountered delay in salary, the reasons cited were: weak business situation, 42% (n=25); not enough money to run the business, 33% (n=20); and employers were on travel and unable to sign paycheck, 25% (n=15).

**Table 4.15: Reasons for Delay in Payment of Salary**

Reasons for Delay	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Not Enough Money	0	0	20	33%	0	0	20	33%
Employer on Travel	0	0	15	25%	0	0	15	25%
Weak Business	0	0	25	42%	0	0	25	42%
Bankruptcy	0	0	0	0%	0	0	0	0%
Others	0	0	0	0%	0	0	0	0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100%</b>

**4.2.4.3 Average Number of Hours Worked Per Day**

Majority of the migrants were working on the average 8 hours per day, 56% (n=206); more than 8 hours per day, 43% (n=162); and less than 8 hours per day, 1% (n=2).

**Table 4.16: Average Number of Hours Worked Per Day**

Hours Worked/Day	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Less than 8 Hours	2	1%	0	0	0	0	2	1%
8 Hours	106	59%	30	33%	70	70%	206	56%
More than 8 Hours	72	40%	60	67%	30	30%	162	43%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

For those who have worked more than 8 hours per day, only 84% (n=136) were paid overtime work, while the others not. 16% (n=26).

**Table 4.17: Overtime Payment in Excess of 8 Hours of Regular Work**

Overtime Payment	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	N	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Yes	72	100%	34	57%	30	100%	136	84%
No	0	0	26	43%	0	0	26	16%
<b>Total</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>162</b>	<b>100%</b>

#### 4.2.4.4 Health Insurance, Medical Expenses, and Accident Payment

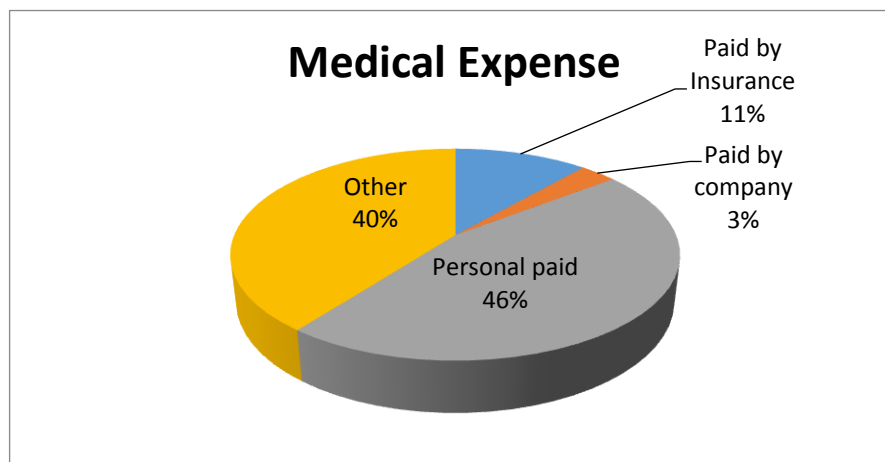
In terms of health insurance benefits, majority of the migrant workers informed that they had their own health insurance policies, 55% (n=202); while the rest did not have, 45% (n=168). This implies that there were several migrants that were vulnerable when they got sick, if in case they did not have enough money to shoulder expenses for medical check-up, hospitalization, or curative treatment or purchase of medicines.

**Table 4.18: Health Insurance**

Health Insurance	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	N	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Yes	74	41%	39	43%	89	89%	202	55%
No	106	59%	51	57%	11	11%	168	45%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

In cases of medical care or health problems, medical expenditures were usually paid by the insurance company, 35% (n=131); others paid personally by the migrant workers, 34% (n=125); paid by the company, 10% (n=36); and others (paid by friends or charity institutions and NGOs), 21% (n=78).

**Fig. 4.19: Medical Expenses for Thai Migrants**



**Table 4.19: Medical Expense**

Medical Expense	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	N	%	n	%	Total	%
Paid by Insurance	20	11%	21	23%	90	90%	131	35%
Paid by Company	5	3%	21	23%	10	10%	36	10%
Personal Paid	83	46%	42	47%	0	0	125	34%
Borrow from Relatives	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Others	72	40%	6	7%	0	0	78	21%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

In case of accident benefit, 53% (n=195) of migrant workers informed that they had accident insurance coverage plans; while 47% (n=175) did not have. Thus, some migrants were vulnerable when they met accidents because no institution or people were able to help them in times of emergencies.

**Table 4.20: Accident Insurance**

Accident Insurance	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Yes	81	45%	36	40%	78	78%	195	53%
No	99	55%	54	60%	22	22%	175	47%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

Expenses brought about by accidents among migrant workers, according to them, were paid by the insurance company, 38% (140) or themselves, 33% (n=123). Other expenditures were paid by the company, 9% (n=35) or other organizations or people, 19% (n=72).

**Table 4.21: Accident Payment**

Accident Payment	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Paid by Insurance	20	11%	20	22%	100	100%	140	38%
Paid by Company	5	3%	30	33%	0	0	35	9%
Provide Sick Leave	0	0	0	0%	0	0	0	0%
Financial Assistance	0	0	0	0%	0	0	0	0%
Paid Personally	83	46%	40	44%	0	0	123	33%
Others	72	40%	0	0%	0	0	72	19%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>



#### 4.2.4.5 Remittance

Repatriation of income earned from another country was another issue that most migrant workers had to consider. In the survey results, it was found out that 92% (n=342) were regularly sending money to their family in Cambodia; while others were not sending money at all, 8% (n=28). Some of the migrants were unable to send money in order to have enough money when they intended to go back home.

**Table 4.22: Sending Money to Family in Cambodia**

Send Money	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	Total	%
Yes	158	88%	84	93%	100	100%	342	92%
No	22	12%	6	7%	0	0	28	8%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

Majority of the migrant workers who sent their money to their families were able to provide monthly, 67% (n=230); quarterly, 20% (n=70); and annually, 8% (n=28); and the remaining were sending intermittently, 4% (n=14).

**Table 4.23: Frequency of Sending Money to Cambodia**

Frequency	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	N	%	Total	%
Monthly	111	70%	19	23%	100	100%	230	67%
Quarterly	36	23%	34	40%	0	0	70	21%
Annually	3	2%	25	30%	0	0	28	8%
Depending on Need	0	0%	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Others	8	5%	6	7%	0	0	14	4%
<b>Total</b>	<b>158</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>342</b>	<b>100%</b>

Although, majority of the workers surveyed were working formally in another country, several were sending through informal means, like through friends, 61% (n=210); and other people in the community, 5% (n=16). However, there were also migrants who were sending

through formal channels, such as: banks, 26% (n=90); and money transfers (i.e. Western Union, MoneyGram, etc.), 8% (n=26).

**Table 4.24: Means of Sending Money**

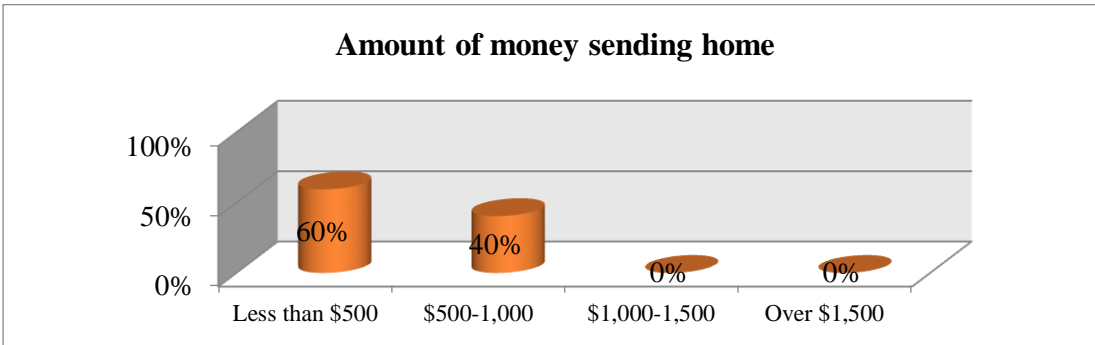
Means of Sending	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Banks	0	0	0	0	90	90%	90	26%
Money Transfer	16	10%	0	0	10	10%	26	8%
Friends	126	80%	84	100%	0	0	210	61%
Others	16	10%	0	0	0	0	16	5%
<b>Total</b>	<b>158</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>342</b>	<b>100%</b>

Despite the fact that the migrant workers were able to find better opportunities in another country, the average amount of money sent home was still considered small as compared to the income they generated in another country. Majority were still sending less than \$500, 49% (n=168); \$500 to \$1,000, 39% (n=135); \$1,001 to \$1,500, 8% (n=28); and over \$1,500, 3% (n=11).

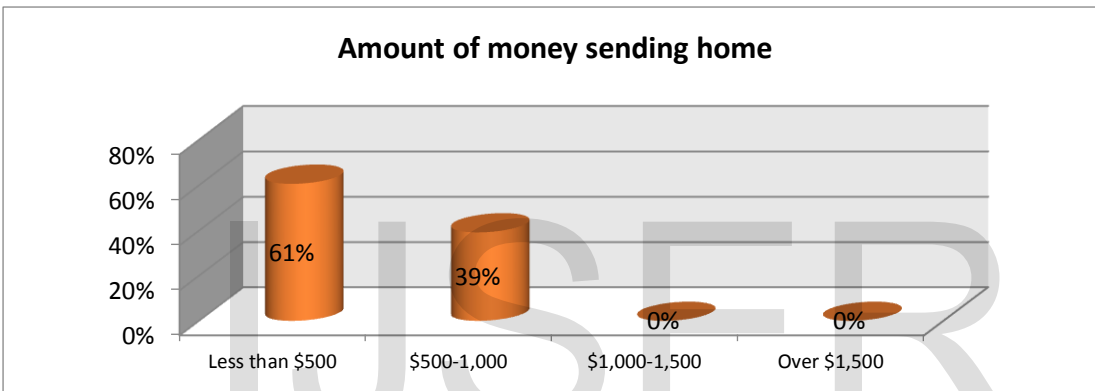
**Table 4.25: Average Amount of Money Sent**

Amount Sent	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Less than \$500	95	60%	51	61%	22	22%	168	49%
\$500 to \$1,000	63	40%	33	39%	39	39%	135	40%
\$1,001 to \$1,500	0	0	0	0	28	28%	28	8%
Over \$1,500	0	0	0	0	11	11%	11	3%
<b>Total</b>	<b>158</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>342</b>	<b>100%</b>

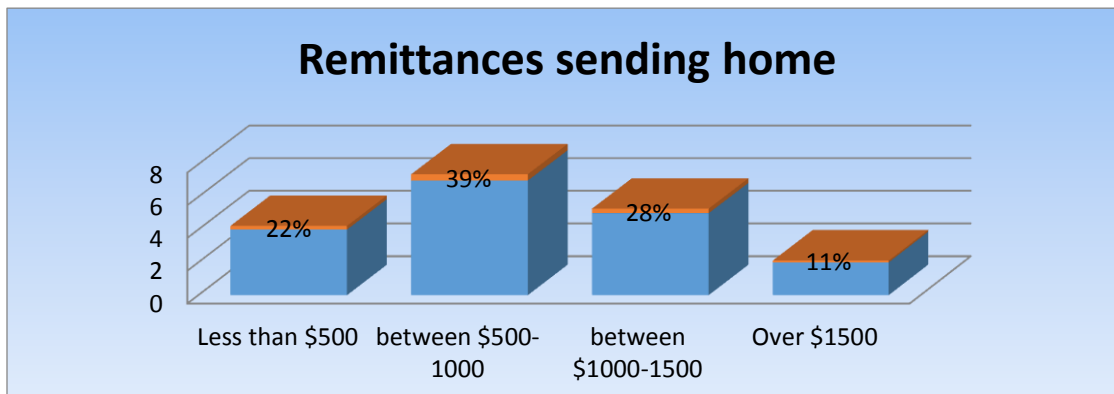
**Fig. 4.20: Remittance by Workers from Thailand**



**Fig. 4.21: Remittance from Malaysia**



**Fig. 4.22: Remittance from South Korea**

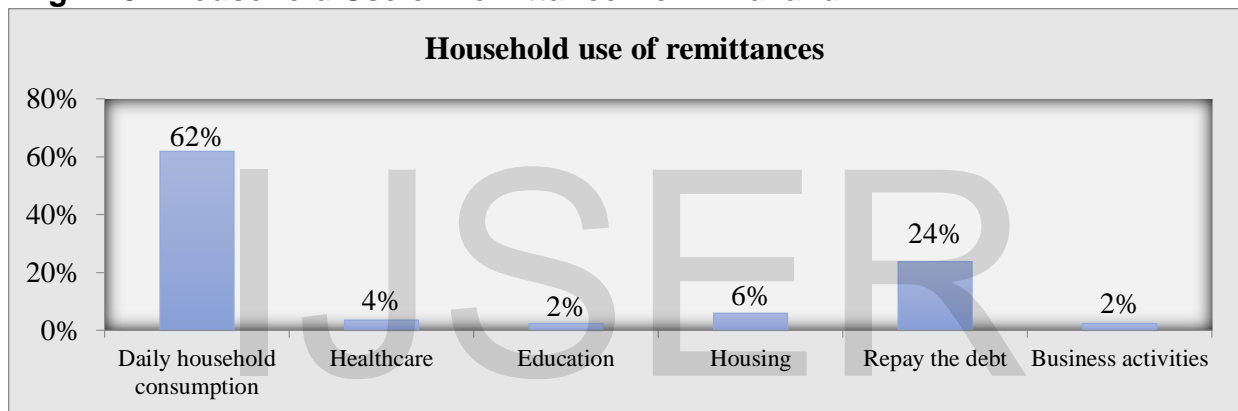


consumption, 56% (n=209); repay debt, 20% (n=73); education, 10% (n=37); housing, 6% (n=22); healthcare, 5% (n=19); and business, 3% (n=10).

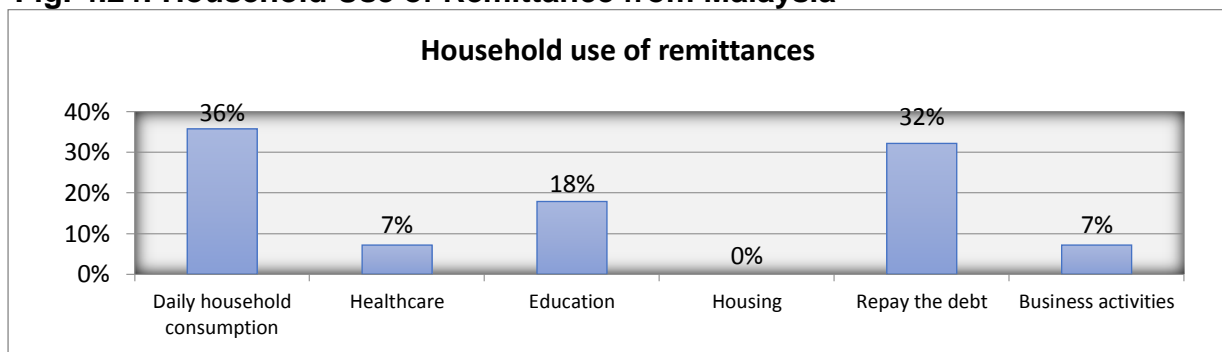
**Table 4.26: Family's Use of Money in Cambodia**

Family's Use of Money	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Daily Household Cons.	111	62%	32	36%	66	66%	209	56%
Healthcare	7	4%	6	7%	6	6%	19	5%
Education	4	2%	16	18%	17	17%	37	10%
Housing	11	6%	0	0	11	11%	22	6%
Repay Debt	43	24%	30	32%	0	0	73	20%
Business	4	2%	6	7%	0	0	10	3%
Special Ceremonies	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Others	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

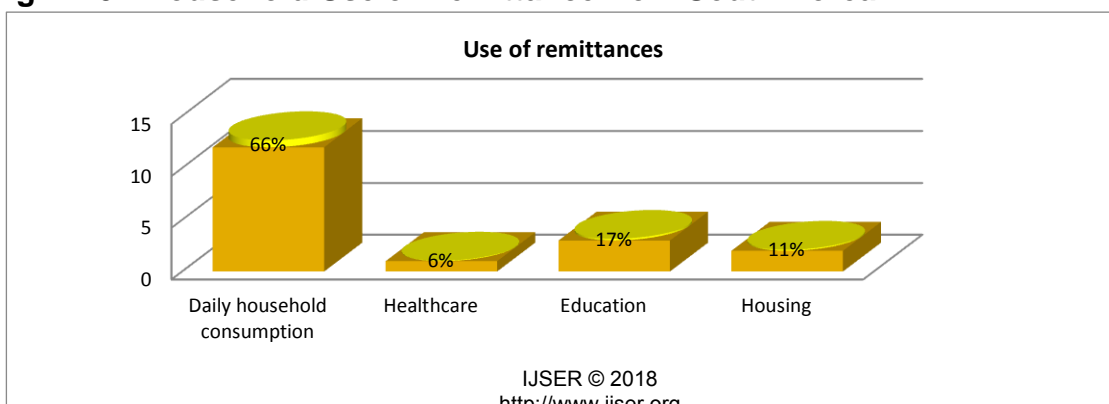
**Fig 4.23: Household Use of Remittance from Thailand**



**Fig. 4.24: Household Use of Remittance from Malaysia**



**Fig. 4.25: Household Use of Remittance from South Korea**



#### 4.2.4.6 Living Conditions, Homesickness, and Coping Mechanisms

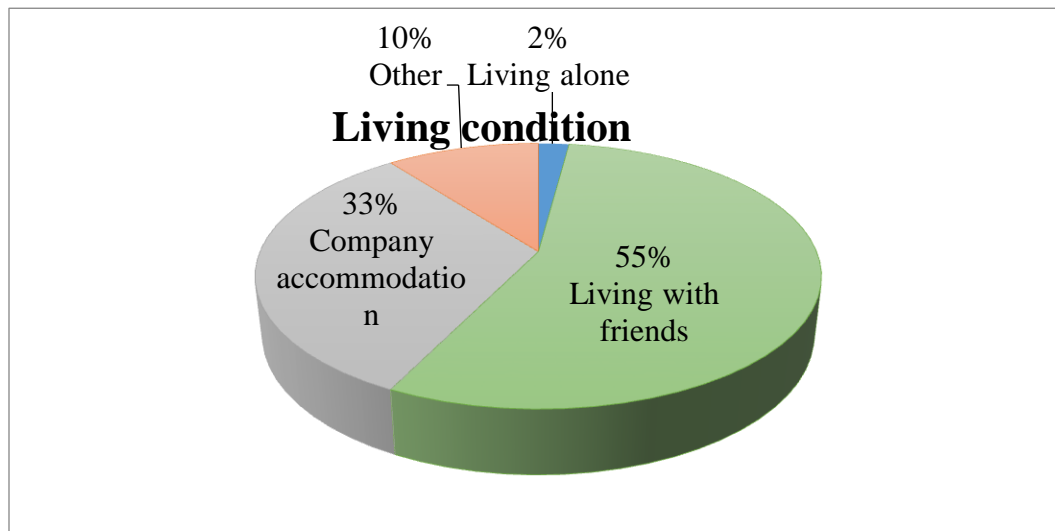
Feeling alone (solitude) in another country is one of the reasons why migrant workers go back to their home country. In this part of the report, the issues of living alone, homesickness and coping mechanisms are discussed.

For the survey participants, majority of them enjoy the comfort of the company accommodation provided to them, 53% (n=195); while the rest are living with friends, 38% (n=139); living with other people, 5% (19); and living alone, 4% (n=17).

**Table 4.27: Living Condition**

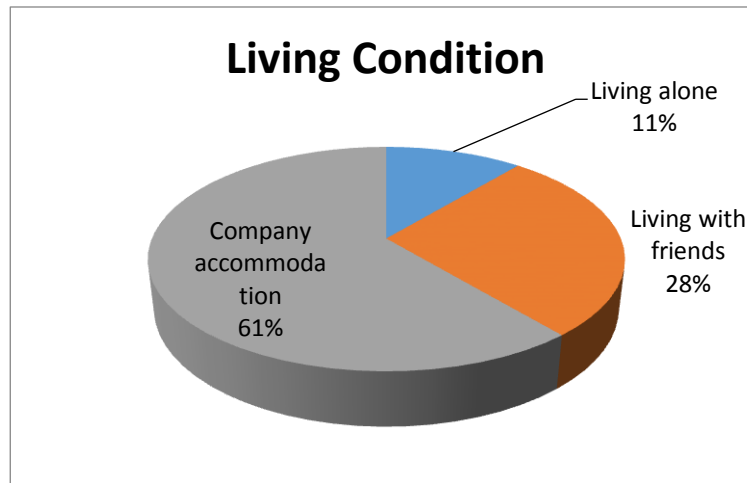
Living Condition	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Living alone	4	2%	2	3%	11	11%	17	4%
Living with friends	99	55%	12	13%	28	28%	139	38%
Company accommodation	59	33%	75	83%	61	61%	195	53%
Others	18	10%	1	1%	0	0	19	5%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

**Fig. 4.26: Living Conditions in Thailand by Migrant Workers**



Being away from home, has brought many of our migrant workers feel homesick, 54% (n=198); and the rest are not feeling the same, 46% (n=172).

**Fig. 4.27: Living Conditions in South Korea**



**Table 4.28: Feeling of Homesickness**

Felt Homesick	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Yes	63	35%	70	78%	65	65%	198	54%
No	117	65%	20	22%	35	35%	172	46%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

To cope with the feeling of homesickness, several activities were being undertaken by the migrant workers, such as: playing games and sports with friends, 29% (n=109); chat in social sites, 19% (n=69); talk with friends, 18% (n=66); eat dinner with friends, 14% (n=52); drink with friends, 14% (n=51); watch movies, 4% (n=14); and read books/magazines, 2% (n=9).

**Table 4.29: Coping with Homesickness**

Coping with Homesick	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Play Games/Sports	54	30%	30	33%	25	25%	109	29%
Talk with Friends	36	20%	20	22%	10	10%	66	18%
Dinner/Eat with Friends	27	15%	10	11%	15	15%	52	14%
Chat in Social Sites	36	20%	15	17%	18	18%	69	19%
Read Books/Magazines	4	2%	0	0%	5	5%	9	2%
Watch Movies	5	3%	2	2%	7	7%	14	4%
Drink with Friends	18	10%	13	14%	20	20%	51	14%
Others	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

#### 4.2.4.7 Emotional/Physical Abuse

While majority of Cambodian migrants were not suffering from emotional or physical abuse in the countries of destination, 64% (n=238); there were still some who have been abused emotionally and physically, 36% (n=132).

**Table 4.30: Emotional/Physical Abuse**

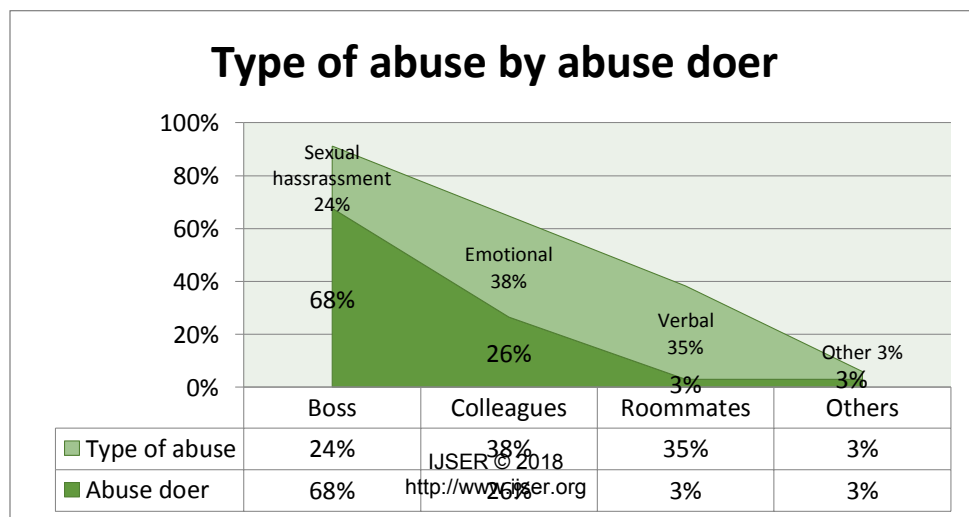
Emotional/Physical Abuse	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Yes	63	35%	36	40%	33	33%	132	36%
No	117	65%	54	60%	67	67%	238	64%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

Of those 132 migrant workers being abused, 48% (n=64) were verbally abused and 36% (n=48) emotionally abused. Only very few instances that workers were sexually harassed, 11% (n=15) or physically assaulted, 2% (n=3).

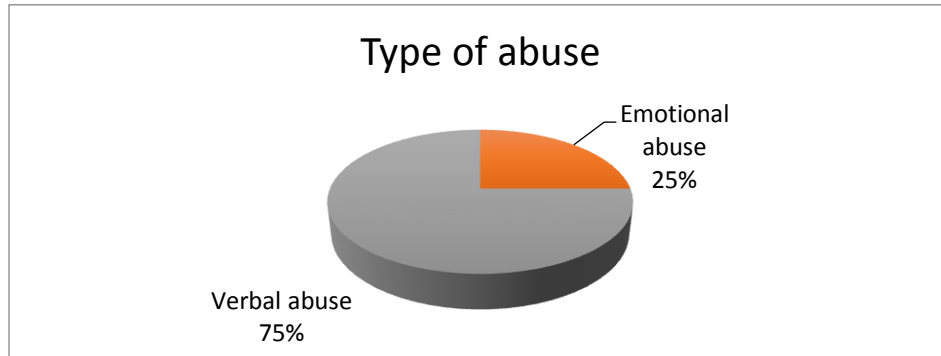
**Table 4.31: Abuse Experienced**

Abuse Experienced	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	N	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Sexual Harassment	15	24%	0	0	0	0%	15	11%
Physical Assault	0	0%	0	0	3	9%	3	2%
Emotional Abuse	24	38%	9	25%	15	45%	48	36%
Verbal Abuse	22	35%	27	75%	15	45%	64	48%
Others	2	3%	0	0	0	0%	2	2%
<b>Total</b>	<b>63</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>132</b>	<b>100%</b>

**Fig. 4.28: Type of Abuse and Doer (Thailand)**



**Fig.4.29 : Type of Abuse (Malaysia)**



Among the 132 victims of abuse, 48% (n=63) were abused by their boss; 37% (n=49) were victims of their colleagues; and the rest by their roommates, 14% (n=18).

**Table 4.32: Abuse Doer**

Abuse Doer	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	Total	%
Boss	43	68%	18	50%	2	6%	63	48%
Colleagues	16	26%	18	50%	15	45%	49	37%
Roommates	2	3%	0	0	16	48%	18	14%
Others	2	3%	0	0	0	0%	2	2%
<b>Total</b>	<b>63</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>132</b>	<b>100%</b>

To cope with abuse, the victims have resorted to several means, such as follows: reported to Cambodian embassy, 59% (n=78); reported to authorities in the country where they are working, 27% (n=35); and reported to supervisor, 14% (n=19).

**Table 4.33: Coping With Abuse**

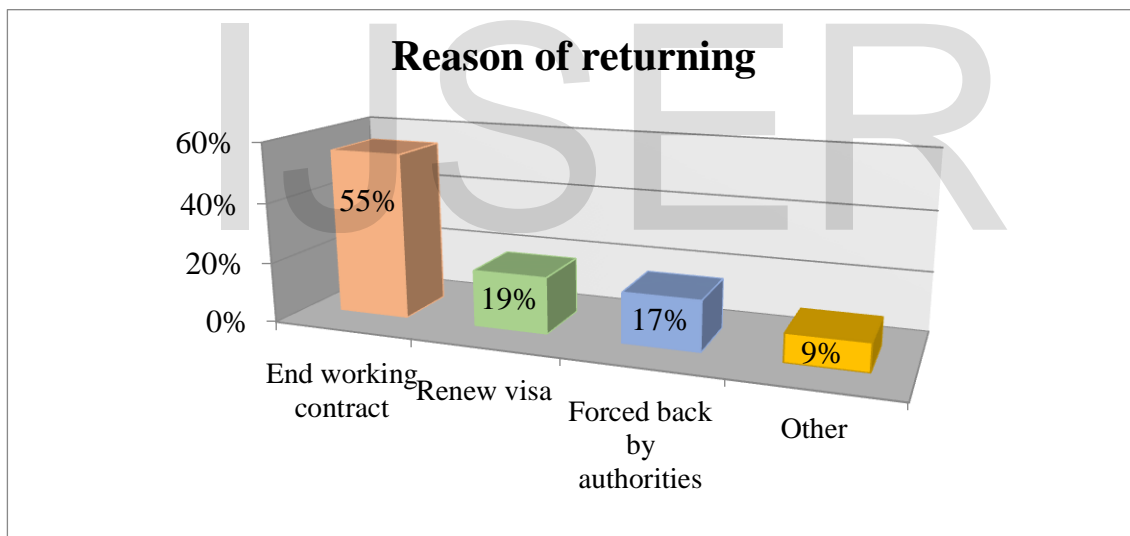
Coping with Abuse	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	Total	%
Reported to Supervisor	16	26%	2	6%	1	3%	19	14%
Reported to Embassy	43	68%	20	56%	15	45%	78	59%
Reported to Authorities	4	6%	14	39%	17	52%	35	27%
File Court Case	0	0	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
Others	0	0	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>63</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>132</b>	<b>100%</b>



#### 4.2.5 Reasons for Returning to Cambodia

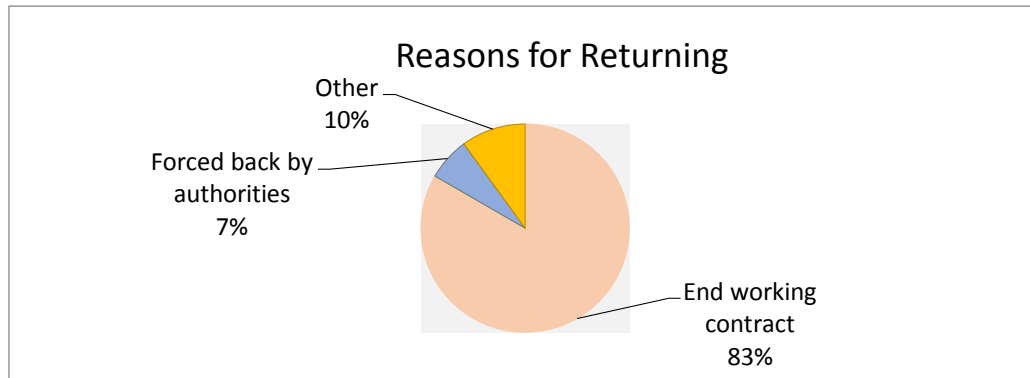
There is the crying question why the migrant workers returned back to their home countries while they still could earn money to support their families. There is a rationale behind the answer to this question. The report explained that 55% of migrant workers ended working contract, 19% returned back to renew visa and 26% had their own personal reasons and others. To further understand, a query was asked whether they will return back to work in Thailand. Most of respondents answered positively to earn more income to support the ardent needs of their families.

**Fig. 4.30: Reasons for Returning to Cambodia (Thailand)**



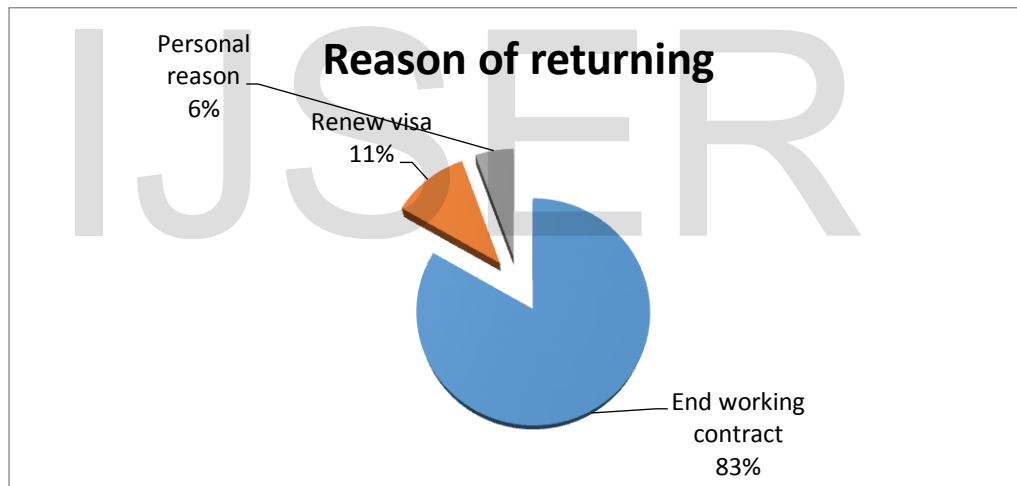
For migrant workers from Malaysia, the survey results showed that 83% of migrant workers ended working contract, 7% forced by authority and 10% had their own personal reasons

**Fig. 4.31: Reasons for Returning to Cambodia (Malaysia)**



The survey report also revealed that 83% of migrant workers ended working contract, 11% returned back to renew visa and 6% had their own personal reasons from South Korea.

**Fig. 4.32: Reasons of Returning (South Korea)**



**Table 4.34: Reasons for Returning to Cambodia**

Reasons for Returning	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	Total	%
End Working Contract	99	55%	75	83%	83	83%	257	70%
Renew Visa	34	19%	0	0	11	11%	45	12%
Forced Back by Authorities	31	17%	6	7%	0	0	37	10%
Deported back to Cambodia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Others	16	9%	9	10%	6	6%	31	8%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

Of the 370 respondents, only 70% (n=258) planned to go back to their host country where they were working, while the rest, 30% (n=112) did not have plans yet to return back to the country where they previously were employed.

**Table 4.35: Plan to Go Back Abroad**

Plan to Go Back Abroad	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	N	%	n	%	Total	%
Yes	113	63%	45	50%	100	100%	258	70%
No	67	37%	45	50%	0	0	112	30%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

Indeed, majority of the migrant workers interviewed felt that working abroad has improved the livelihood of their families, 79% (n=293); while the rest, 21% (n=77) opined that migration to other country was not able to provide enough assistance.

**Table 4.36: Migration Affected Livelihood**

Affected Livelihood?	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Yes	130	72%	63	70%	100	100%	293	79%
No	50	28%	27	30%	0	0	77	21%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

Based on survey results, majority of the respondents informed that migration has ameliorated them from poverty, 68% (n=253); improved savings, 5% (n=20); generated business, 3% (n=10); bought land and other assets, 3% (n=10); and other livelihood improvements, 21% (n=77).

**Table 4.37: Impact on Livelihood**

Impact on Livelihood	Thailand		Malaysia		South Korea		Overall Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Total	%
Improved Savings	0	0	0	0	20	20%	20	5%
Amelioration from Poverty	130	72%	63	70%	60	60%	253	68%
Generate Business	0	0	0	0	10	10%	10	3%
Sent Children to School	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Provided Health Benefits	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Better Food/Nutrition	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Better Future for Family	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Built a House	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Bought Land/Assets	0	0	0	0	10	10%	10	3%
Others	50	28%	27	30%	0	0	77	21%
<b>Total</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>100%</b>

### 4.3 Summary Results of Focus Group Discussions

This part provides the results of focus group discussions in three (3) locations: (a) Battambang (for migrant workers bound for Thailand); (b) Russey Keo District in Phnom Penh (migrant workers bound for Malaysia); and (c) Korean Language Center in Phnom Penh (migrant workers bound for South Korea). The FGD discussions were conducted with the assistance of Program Volunteers from CARAM Cambodia, an NGO supporting migrant workers in Cambodia, using the facilitators guide provided in **Appendix C2**.

The results of the FGD were summarized, with no segregation made on where the FGDs were conducted but in terms of sections and themes. There were a total of 30 participants, composed of ten (10) migrant workers per group in each of the three locations.

- **Age Brackets, Gender, Years of Working Experience:** For the participants in Battambang, there were 6 females and four males, with mean age of 32 years old, 60% of whom were married. All of them have worked in Cambodia for four years and less. On the other hand, the FGD participants in Russey Keo composed of seven males and three

females, with mean age of 35 years old; 40% were married and have worked in Phnom Penh for six years and less. In terms of the FGD group bound for South Korea, eight were males and two were females, with mean age of 28 years old, only 20% were married; and some of them have worked at least five years in factories in Phnom Penh, while others have worked their professions as agricultural engineer and architect.

- **Reasons for Working Abroad and Type of Work in Other Countries:** The FGD results in the three groups corroborated the findings from the review of related documents and literature that lack of job security and the low wages experienced by the participants compelled them to find jobs in other countries. Participants have mixed types of work in other countries: domestic workers, caregivers, caretakers, factory workers, technicians, carpenters, construction workers, and restaurant/hotel workers.
- **Recruitment and Work Experience Abroad:** All participants bound for Korea were hired by recruitment agency called International Manpower (Cambodia), while the others were engaged directly through their relatives, who used to work in Malaysia and Thailand, and the others just tried their fortune for some jobs near the border of Battambang and Thailand. All FGD participants in the three groups have worked before in their countries of destination, a pattern that conforms with the high rate of re-migration observed for some Cambodians. However, majority of the participants shared that their previous attempts were not successful in the sense that they were unable to actually leave for abroad.
- **Orientation for Deployment and Visa:** In May 2015, the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training (Phnom Penh Post, 4 May 2015) has tried to improve labor migration governance for the millions of documented and undocumented Cambodian

migrant workers in Thailand, South Korea, and Malaysia by preparing Cambodian workers in pre-departure orientation that includes “knowledge of their fundamental rights as defined in the UN Migrant Workers Convention; to protect them with a legitimate recruitment mechanism; to monitor their placement with regular visits; to put in place a representative from the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training (MOLVT) in each Cambodian embassy in the destination countries, and Cambodian embassies in these destination countries should provide consular, legal and para-legal services, social protection and cover the cost of transport for cases of repatriation.” According to FGD participants, “migrant workers should be supported to make informed choices when seeking employment, but the entire process of migration for employment must be secured with transparent mechanisms to provide information, preparation, full protection and empowerment to each migrant worker, in particular to women who are more at risk of exploitation. Their return home should be declared complete when they are socially and successfully reintegrated with skills that allow them to seek employment or decent earnings.”

Migrant workers, who are supposed to be at the point of deployment, wherein employer has been identified, they had gone through a medical examination, and the orientation sessions conducted by MOLVT and the International Office of Migration (IOM) are usually scheduled at around the time that they are waiting for their visa. According to the FGD participants, even if these sessions appear to be needed by the migrant workers, inputs from these pre-departure orientations (PDOs) at this point compete with other last minute concerns that pre-occupy the workers. Thus, the orientation provided by MOLVT and IOM may fall on deaf ears as migrants are more

concerned with other matters. Also, participants claimed to have been victimized early by some “fake recruitment agencies” in their application process and the PDOs as an intervention comes too late in the process. During the FGD sessions, discussions about potential problems seemed to be shunned by some participants. However, these doubts eventually were processed by “letting go of fears” and that “trusting that things will be fine” because they have already invested enormously and made strides and reaching this far.

- **Decision to Migrate:** This study has confirmed that migrants are the ones who decide to migrate. The FGDs, in particular, highlighted that migrants, including women migrants, would even defy their spouses’ or parents’ wishes because they are convinced that working abroad was the only way to improve their family situation. “Economic reason” was basically the primordial reason why the FGD participants sought overseas employment. For some of the migrants in the FGD who met with family opposition to their migration plans argued against their family members’ dissenting opinions that it was all right to be poor as long as the family were together. As expressed by many participants in the FGD, they had to leave because it was not enough just to eat three square meals per day. We have known in the FGD that many migrants who participated in the discussions did not have permanent jobs that would provide regular or fixed income. Qualitative answers taken from the participants indicated that prior to immigration; the jobs that most of them occupied were contractual or not permanent. The second issue is the low wages that simply fell short of meeting their family’s survival.

*“My husband really objected, but I told him that if we are now having difficulties while the children are young, how much more when they reach high school? Since we are financially hard up, I thought of going abroad.”* – female domestic worker in Thailand

*“For me, it is because my salary is not enough to meet the needs of my family, I have three children, a wife. If I cannot afford to send them to high school, I do not think I can send them to college; my salary is just not enough.”* – male factory worker in Malaysia

*“... I am a kind of person who has plans, I have determination. For example, I want to have my own house. If you just work here, your salary will just take care of food, it will be enough for three meals a day. The rest, if you want to buy something, for example, you cannot afford because your salary cannot cover other expenses.”* - male agricultural worker in South Korea.

Economic motivations were also of the reasons why other professionals (i.e. technical and non-technical) decided to find work in countries like South Korea. The two professionals were well-aware of the huge differentials between their earnings in Cambodia, and what they could earn in South Korea. The agricultural engineer and architect who participated in the FGD mentioned that the “Korean Won” or basically the huge equivalent to the US dollars attracted them to work in another country. According to them, the thought that they will work abroad someday helped them cope with their small salary in Cambodia. At the back of their minds, they have banked on their work experience and professional knowledge that helped them land good paying jobs in South



Korea. These two professionals working in South Korea informed that they were motivated by other things other than income, and reflected the following comments:

*“Before I left, I was comparing my earnings with those of my classmates in South Korea who were not able to complete the agricultural engineering degree. They were earning about 2,300,000 Won (US\$2,040) to as much as 4,000,000 Won (US\$3,546), as compared to my measly monthly income of \$700. I have higher qualification than them since I have completed the degree. So I thought of applying there so that I could have comparable income. Thus, when I was accepted, I got 8,000,000 Won monthly (US\$7,093).”* – male, agricultural engineer in South Korea

*“Definitely, the salary abroad is bigger, plus you will have many opportunities other than getting a better salary. You will be exposed to many different types of people – and it is different if you have been out – you will appreciate more what you do not have here and you will be a better member of society because you do not litter the place. When you are abroad, you behave differently, so, when you return, something you bring with you the culture of the society where you came from and it makes you a better person.”* – male, architect in South Korea

The issue of low wages in the local employment market in Cambodia has been a “push factor” of migration. The FGD sessions explored the level of monthly salary that would encourage Cambodians to stay. Results from FGD sessions uncovered a broad range of income levels, ranging from low \$500 (five participants) to \$6,000 (two participants). The monthly salary sought by most migrants, thus hews closely to what is needed by the family to meet its basic needs. Further analysis from FGD session results

indicated that many of the participants cited monthly figure that is lower than what they earned abroad, indicating preparedness in downscaling their salaries, in order to be with their families. As expressed by many participants in the FGDs, they would rather not be away from their families if they could have a reliable and decent salary in Cambodia.

- **The Importance of Personal Networks:** The FGD participants informed that they have relatives and friends present in the countries where they have worked and intended to go back again. Relatives and friends abroad mean social capital to the FGD participants, i.e., they are very important and accessible sources of information, funds, and assistance when migrants arrive in the destination. Meanwhile, the improved economic situation of migrants' families in Cambodia demonstrates what can be achieved by working abroad, thereby convincing non-immigrants to follow the same path. To some migrant workers, personal and social networks are, indeed, important sources of migration information. They mentioned recruitment agencies, MOLVT, NGOs, IOM, and others play insignificant roles as sources of migration information.
- **The Application Process:** The steps and the requirements (other than fees, which will be taken up separately), in the application process are straight forward and are generally known to participants in the FGD. For the agency hires, they informed that an “interview with the prospective employers (or principals) is part of the preliminary screening procedures. For the direct hires, the steps and the documents required are similar for agency hires, except that applicants do not go through the recruitment agencies; instead they deal directly with MOLVT. In some instances, those FGD participants that found jobs through their contacts abroad may go through an agency for the processing of their documents. During the discussions with the migrant workers, they have informed that

although the requirements and the process are similar, those who were direct hires encountered fewer problems. They were not only unburdened by the placements fees, but also had a shorter waiting period compared with the other categories. The issue of fees proved to be very unwieldy aspect of the pre-migration stage. Migrants reported much variation in the fees they paid for placement, medical examinations, documentation, and training. In hindsight, this variation is understandable given the variety of occupational categories and destination of Cambodian migrants.

- **Placement Fees:** The standard placement fee for agency hires is the equivalent of one month's salary. Direct hires or those hired under MOLVT usually do not have a placement fee. In general, migrants who participated in the FGDs did not know much about the standard placement fees for the job and the destination they were applying for. More than one third of the participants in the FGDs did not know the standard placement fee for their intended job. Those who provided answers mentioned amounts ranging from \$300 to \$1,000. This spectrum reflects the range of occupational categories and destinations and the fact that some were direct and others were agency hires. Migrants' lack of knowledge, lack of interest or lack of choice about the standard or legal placement fees predispose them to abuses by recruitment agencies.
- **Medical Exam Fees:** The FGDs also uncovered non standardized fees in the medical examinations, reported by the migrants as ranging from \$25 to \$300. During the FGDs, migrants got to find out about the different fees for the same test or procedures during the sharing of information. For example, women migrants were surprised to know that they paid different amounts for the pregnancy test and stool examination that they had to retake prior to departure. Some said that they paid \$15 for these procedures, while others

paid \$70. In addition to the basic pre-employment medical check-up, the examining doctor may require migrant workers to undergo other clinical curative procedures.

Migrants, however, suspected that these additional requirements were unnecessary but hungry-money generating tricks. Moreover, they were simply coerced as migrants had no serendipity but to comply, otherwise the clinics will not issue the medical certification indicating their fitness for employment abroad.

- **Problems Encountered in the Pre-Migration Stage:** Asked to assess their encounters and dealings with placement agencies, medical clinics, training centers, government agencies, and NGOs, the migrant workers expressed that while some of them were pleased with the services by some of these organization, there were also some problems encountered, specifically referring to certain irregularities committed by ill-intentioned personnel in the application of passports and authentication of documents or at the airport. An alarming predicament was raising the money for the placement fees and other expenses. Interestingly, migrants did not complain about the practices of recruitment agencies and instead they primarily focused their attention on how they could raise the placement fee. For example, when FGD participants were asked about how they were preparing for departure, most identified the need to raise the amount needed to cover the rest of the placement fee. The time between the filing of application and the actual departure could be as short as a month, or it could span a prolonged period of time. The delay could be frustrating to migrants as it would mean more expenses and foregone earnings. Although they tended to joke about it, migrants frequently referred to the accumulating interests with every delay that they experience.

- **Information About the Contract, Working and Living Conditions:** According to the FGD participants, the contract signed in Cambodia does not provide assurance that the conditions will be honored. The real litmus test, according to them, is the actual condition of the worker when he or she is already in the destination. When real conditions turn out to be unfavorable, one option is to terminate the contract – but with migrants shouldering the costs.
- **Other Information:** Majority of migrants were aware of the problems migrants encounter in Cambodia. However, despite some reservations, for most migrant workers, there was no turning back. In the FGDs, they expressed that they had already spent a lot; for some, the interest on their loans was already ticking and they had no choice but to persevere. For most migrants, their only major preparation is strengthening their firm resolve.
- **Access to Support Abroad:** As mentioned in the earlier part of the FGD session results, most Cambodian migrant workers have a relative or friend in the country where they will work. On the other hand, others happen to know someone or an organization/agency who can feasibly help them should they encounter problems. If only government agencies have proactive role in the pre-migration stage, they are supposed to be the key pillars of assistance to the migrants in case they encounter pressing problems in the destination countries. Family networks come next as a potential source of support. In general, migrants tended to mention Cambodian institutions as sources of assistance than those of the countries of destination.
- **Return to Cambodia/Other Plans:** Majority of the participants in the FGDs did not know how long they would work abroad. For those who had time frame, more than half

planned on working abroad for one more contract and to return to the country after five years. The dream of the great majority was to set up a business upon their return, whereas others desired to find local employment, and the rest had in mind to retire and to engage in other productive and profitable activities. Migrants' plans upon their return to Cambodia have to be taken into the equation in drafting of a reintegration program and in quantifying in-depth their crucial contributions to socio-economic development inputs.

#### **4.4 Results from Free-Listing Interviews and Observations**

This part of the study aims to investigate the impacts of parents' migration in relation to the education of children who were left behind, as well as the living conditions of their families. It also looks at the coping strategies with regards to migration at individual, family, and community levels.

Five villages in Ou Chrov District in Banteay Meanchey Province were chosen as a case study for investigation. A total of 50 adult respondents were selected for free-listing interview, which is a qualitative method that allows for open-ended investigation and assessment of problems and improvements from a local perspective. This was important because of the exploratory nature of the study. The specific method selected for this study enabled a rapid and structured way of ascertaining the main problems impacting individuals and communities that were associated with labor migration. Free-listing interview is a structured, quick, and effective method to obtain data about a broad range of issues. It allows for the identification of key issues and their relative importance, which were then explored in greater depth during the interview process.

Fieldwork was conducted for a total of three (3) weeks in July 2017 by independent researchers who were hired for this study by the Ph.D. candidate. The researchers have

previously worked with CARAM, an NGO working on migration issues in Cambodia. The lead author of this study was physically present and supervised all the data collection. The conduct of the interviews were done in pairs with one interviewer asking questions while the other taking detailed notes. After the completion of the interviews, the transcripts in Khmer were then professionally translated in English.

Five villages in Ou Chrov District, bordering Thailand, were selected because of their expected high prevalence rate of labor migration. Within these villages, free-list interview respondents were diligently performed through convenience sampling. In each village, the interviewers selected an eligible respondent who was available to be queried and, subsequently, walked around the homes in the immediate vicinity, asking adults who were available and alerted if they would agree to be interviewed.

Although inclusion criteria did not require that the respondent themselves were labor migrants, given the high prevalence of labor migration as a livelihood strategy, it was expected that the convenience sample would include individuals who are members of the family or household left behind by migrants.

#### **4.4.1 Socio-economic Situation of the Families and the Community**

The findings from free-list interviews purported to reveal that the economic situation and living standards of the families in the villages visited were in a better condition after migration has taken place. There were about twenty five percent household representatives of the 50 households' sampling found belonging to well-to-do families, and about 60 percent of the majority were average families who had regular income from remittances. On the other hand, 15 percent of the sampling case was found to be coming from poor families, wherein some members of their household migrated to Thailand on seasonal basis.

It can be argued from the results of the free-list interviews that the overall living standard of the families has improved as a result of remittances from migrants. Furthermore, it was indicated that migration is relatively a better means to uplift a family's living condition. Since migration has already been happening for more than a decade, it pinpointed that local people consider migration as a strategy to better family's current livelihood as well as an economic tool for improved quality of life.

#### **4.4.2 Impacts of Remittances at three different Levels**

More than half of the families in the villages selected were found to rely mainly on the migrants' remittances even though they owned farm lands. Local people no longer value farming as the appropriate way to improve the family's impoverished status. They mentioned that the outputs from farm work could provide only rice for the family but no other expenditure such as fees for children's education, family healthcare, and other basic necessities. Hence, they have no better option but to migrate for the well-being of the family.

The interviews conducted in the selected communities revealed that remittance received by the families is an indispensable factor that affects the well-being of those left behind and their access to essential social services. Remittances provide a financial boost to the families, enabling them to reach a standard of living adequate for the total development and equipping of their children. Remittances from the parents obviously have positive effects, which show that they contribute to help children's access to education. Periodic remittances from parents provide educational assistance for the dependent children, such as school fees, books, supplies and allowances. Likewise, money from remittances also support extra expenditures for schooling, such as: uniforms, miscellaneous fees, donation at school and transportation needs.



At the family level, remittances enable the families to remedy their living costs. In addition, they can also utilize the money to renovate or refurbish their houses and repay debts and financial obligations. Moreover, remittance money helps the family to do meritorious deeds, like donating to the monks, assisting the pagodas and contributing the religious and social affairs in the community.

At the community tier, the amelioration in individual households has contributed much to the development of the community's living standard. The community could do the social activities and host the traditional Buddhist festivities that provide good reputation of the community.

As for negative impacts, remittances of parents can put children into risk if money is not being prudently used. Children might use and abuse the money provided by their parents in unwanted and improper ways and spend their money and time on other agenda rather than obtaining education, most especially those who are in adolescence. This is very crucial for the children as they are in a transition period from children to young adults. Children, particularly boys, can use money at their whim and caprices, and can also be at high risk of addiction to alcohol and substance abuse which can easily be obtained within the community. It is very important for the caregivers, particularly the grandparents, to guide the children to use appropriately remittance money. Grandparents or guardians of the children have to be careful to share right advice and guidance as way of demonstrating their affection to the children so as to avoid deviant behavior and not spoil them with money

At the family level, remittances apparently improve the family's socio-economic status and children's access to education. However, a family's investment for the future was rarely appreciated. Remittances sent are mostly not being used in a productive endeavor and only add

to the family's consumerism. In this vein, the returns from migration will not be sustained. As a result, members' migration cannot be reduced and will increase in numbers with old migrants re-migrating, followed by the exodus of newer migrants.

#### **4.4.3 Children's Coping with the Situation of Parents' Migration**

The attitude of guardians or caregivers (i.e. those people that were entrusted to take care of children, while parents are away) towards the children is highly critical. Children are easily hurt either physically or emotionally or psychologically. A positive attitude allows children to grow up and be able to adapt to their challenging environment. Negative attitudes, on the other hand, create behavioral problem to children, who become dissonant, aggressive, and belligerent, making them unable to grow in existing environment. They acquire bad manners, conduct and idiosyncrasies, which in the future will become a social problem.

Majority of the left behind children in the villages were staying with their grandparents. The study pointed out that, the caregivers and guardians, particularly the grandparents, provided care for the children as if they were their own. The caregivers are unburdened of having to look after the children under their custody. This makes the children feel accepted and encourages them as though they were living with their own parents under one roof. Among the interviewed children, two dwelled with monks at the pagoda. Incidentally, monks are not used to render parental care like the laity, but they tolerate the children to stay freely at the pagoda as their home. Children stay together with young monks and get holistically educated in Buddhism. Under the compassionate care of the caregivers, these children do not feel rejected or dejected and enjoy their childhood like any other kids do.

Overall, the interviewed children knew that their parents are working either in Thailand or Malaysia. Half of the interviewed children could answer in what sector their parents are

working and the duration of their parents' stint abroad. On the particular issue of whether they were informed and consulted before the departure of their parents, only four adolescents replied that they were informed and explained about the reasons for departure. Most of the interviewed children were left by their parents when they were about three or four years old or even less. Since they did not fully understand things at the time of their parents' departure, they were not able to express their thinking about their parent's migration. The average duration of working abroad of an adolescent's parent was more than three years.

The dynamics between the caregivers and the children were found to be healthy. Caregivers act like surrogate parents by providing proper care, guidance and adequate support for the children in order to make them feel that they are not abandoned or neglected by their parents. Children can cope with the situation of absent parents under the good custodial care of caregivers. Caregivers' attention makes them well adjusted with the situation and the children feel safe and secure. A firm sense of positive interaction between the caregivers and the children results in efficacious emotional and moral support to the children left behind in villages.

#### **4.4.4 Inspirations for the Left Behind Children in Relation to Parents' Migration**

According to the field free-list interviews, left behind children could not express much about their ambitions or aspirations when they were asked about on what they want to be in the future. Most of them particularly the boys, mentioned about their desire to follow their parents' "footprints" when they grow up. The motive to study and become educated person in the community is rarely palpitated. Due to migration of their parents and other members, the children perceived that adults earn money by migrating and working in Thailand while those who work in the village are unable to do so. There are some migrants who are graduates but they

have gone to Thailand to work as domestic and factory workers in similar fashion as others who are semi-literate or illiterate. As a consequence, most children, especially boys, think that it is not worth studying as they will finally follow their parents in migrating to Thailand.

It is important for the children to have an environment that they can emulate. Children's desire to learn is related to the parents' migration. In the research area, children internalized that parents can earn money without having higher education. In this manner, many children lost their enthusiasm to study because they have an inkling that education will not profit them. They could migrate like their parents and earn abroad without receiving education. Children would want to replicate their parents' migration as a role model and have the desire to do the same which can lead them to their future sense of financial security.

The research found too that guidance from adults is essential for the children's future. What the children want to be, their goals, dreams and their aspirations, are factored in on what they are familiar with, depending heavily on the external environment that they live in. The children have preposterous aims if they have a boisterous, less supporting and enriching environment in the family as well as the community. Since there is a lack of role models in the community, children can obtain a wrong perception for their future.

#### **4.4.5 Social Relations**

According to the researchers' field observation, children build a good friendship among friends. They play together, go fishing together, talk together and share their experience together. Children sometimes have arguments or minor ruckus among friends while playing and do not talk to each other for at most two days. However, this is only for a short period, leading to normalcy of their camaraderie.

Children take part in school activities, such as the Family Day program which is held annually. In the community, children participate in community activities, like Khmer New Year, Pchum Ben, the Water Festival and other traditional Buddhist festivities. Majority of the “left behind children” who were interviewed participated in every festival organized by their communities. Girls are involved in the traditional dance and boys in playing traditional boxing.

Generally, the social relationship of the majority of those left behind children was viewed as normal. They have confidence to a certain level because of the encouragement from their caregivers. Children are not left out due to the absence of their parents, instead the caregivers and community leaders enjoin them to fully participate in the village activities. All children appear to be equally treated in the community regardless of whether they are the children of migrants or non-migrants.

#### **4.4.6 Perspectives of Left Behind Children on Parents' Migration**

Generally, children are happy and they do not feel the difference of having to live only with their grandparents and not with their parents. The predicate behind is because their parents left them at a very young age and do not even remember when they “disengage.” However, when they were asked about their parents, most of the children stopped momentarily and pondered for a while before giving an answer. It appeared that the questions made them think about their parents. In fact, they miss their parents but being a child, they adapt to the present situation and forget things easily. Although they mentioned that they are happy with the present situation, most of the children still want their parents to come back and stay with them as per their expression in the interview.

According to the interview, the majority of left behind children, particularly the older children, knew and understood about their parents departure as they were informed by their

parents. Their caregivers also made them understood about the cause of migration of their parents. Thus, they are gratified and satisfied knowing that their parents have left them only to work for them.

Nevertheless, these children also saw and felt that their parents' priority was "Money," that is attracting them to migrate. During the interview process, children expressed that parent's value money more than their children. Some adolescent children stated that they miss their parents especially when they go on pilgrimages with other families and they see that those other non-migrant families do things together collegially, such as paying homage to the monks and worshipping at temples. Majority of the interviewed children, especially adolescents, did not prefer parents' migration. They mentioned that parents' migration was not good for the children and further stated that parents' migration create difficulties for children.

Throughout the field research interviews, it can be argued that children, as seen physically, grew up under responsible and dedicated caregivers and did not seem to suffer with the absence of parents. However, according to the researchers' observation, they feel distant from their parents and lose intimacy and connectedness with their parents. Parents become strangers to them which should have not happened in filial relationship. Due to the long separation from the parents, although children were seen enjoying their present lives with the caregivers, they have a desire to have the so-called tender loving care (TLC) of the parents.

#### **4.4.7 Community's Supports for the Left Behinds**

The community has a custom of lending a helping hand to one another. The members have the kin spirit to assist others when they are in need. The neighbors provide support for the left behind families financially by lending money with low interest rate. Physically, the

neighbors help the families by assisting in child care and helping in renovating or building the houses.

Since there exist social service centers organized by some NGOs in the community, children were sent to these facilities to have safe and sound learning environment, improve their social skills and have good hygiene practices. The caregivers also get extra time to do other tasks, such as household chores or participate in social works in the community.

For the children who were born in Thailand and then sent back to the village, the midwife prepared birth certificates for them although they are not originally born in Banteay Meanchey. By having a birth certificate, the children are entitled to access education and health facilities and citizenship. Normally, only children who are born in Banteay Meanchey are issued official birth certificates. In the absence of the document, they will find difficulty in acquiring Cambodian or family cards when they grow up and are warranted. Those who do not have family cards are not entitled to Cambodian citizenship and they become stateless. The community role in this part is vital for the children to have the necessary documents which affect their future.

Throughout the field observation, the study found the existence of Community Based Organizations (CBOs) in villages, focusing programs on youth development and empowerment, social welfare services, and religious community projects. Some international NGOs are also operating in the community. These service organizations are always available to provide assistance to the left behind families and children. The availability of the support organizations in the community has provided opportunities for the left behind families to seek needed assistance. Therefore, it can be safely stated that having a warm, cordial and stimulating environment and supportive mechanisms in the community, the left behinds may be able to adapt to the situation without much difficulties.

#### **4.4.8 Impacts of Migration at Three Different Levels**

##### **4.4.8.1 Children**

Among the 50 migrant households, 39 families have at least one parent who migrated. The research found that migration of parents has contributed to both positive and negative impacts on children by means of remittance, as mentioned above. Another positive impact on the individual is that since children have to manage things by themselves without parents' guidance, they may become more adept than other children and, thus, will be able to face any problem as they grow in age. To add, since they have to try to stand on their own and have to make decisions by themselves in some instances, they may sharpen their potential problem solving skill which could be definitely regarded as a positive impact of being left behind.

Children are found to be adaptable to the situation of living without parents. However, they still yearn for the complete family life, according to the interview. It can be assured that children are trying to adjust and adapt to the situation which is not homeostatic or consonant although they understand about the positive return in terms of pecuniary and material resources. They did not grow up naturally in "gestalt" family, as compared to the other children who are with their parents. Children are obliged to accept the situation even though they do not really want that. Such a condition predisposes to the possibility of developing a chronic psychological trauma.

Many children who were left at home with the caregivers become unattached from their parents. They may feel disconnected from their parents. The distance could worsen the child-parents relationship. Later on, staying together as a family may not be considered to be important for them as long as they are provided with material needs. They will not value the deep emotional relationship between parents and children.



Since the left behind children had come across the experience of lack of parental care in their childhood, two extreme sentiments can occur to them when they become adult and get married. As a positive outcome from their experience, they might provide their children with full parental care which they had not been received when they were young. Contrarily, they might treat their children with the same crescendo which they have encountered in their childhood. They will posit that their children will be able to struggle and survive without their parental care, as they themselves grew up in same weave.

Being an extended family, all of the members traditionally work together in harmony either in the farm or in other undertakings. No one is left out and children are also counted. Now, due to migration, a custom of family members working together on farming is relegated to the background as it is replaced with the essence of the remittance. As for the children, they rarely involve or participate in the traditional farming and become more individualistic and sometimes phlegmatic.

Since the majority of children do not have other goals than migration, they do not have intention to stay in the village or in the country and work for the development of the community. Like their parents, they will regard money as a priority concern in which only migration can fulfill this.

#### **4.4.8.2 Family**

Family members migrate in order to overcome the poverty problem within the family. The families back home gain material resources and ameliorate their socio-economic condition as mentioned earlier. However, since parents and children have to stay separately, the family loses the unity and cohesiveness to live and act as one. The family members could not feel the

enjoyment of being together. As parents' migration has become a trend nowadays, family union could gradually diminish from this generation onwards.

Traditionally, a family has all the members living together. Now due to members' migration, the family's structure has changed. Only two generations, the children and the elderly grandparents were seen in a family. Moreover, since their ages are very different, there could be generation gap between the old people and the children particularly when they become adolescents. Different views and opinions of the two generations will create burdensome and turbulent interaction between grandparents and children.

In some families, only one parent migrates and leaves their spouse at home. Some of the couples are both migrants but stay in different places. Away from the community norm and the prolonged separation can generate misunderstanding, apprehension and dishonesty between the couple, paving way to separation or divorce.

In the early days, a family in the community prefers to have more members at home. The more members they have, the more workforce to engage in farming activities so that the family could produce more rice. Currently, the family started to think the opposite as the more member migrate, the more income from outside sources will be garnered. Thus, the effect of migration could be seen in the structural alteration of the family as the basic unit of society.

#### **4.4.8.3 Community**

Migration, in the first place, benefits the community. Village fees and monetary contributions for the activities in the community can be collected without constraints. Members pay for the contributed funds without any animosity. In addition, migration that causes less people to work in the farmland turned the families who owned the paddy fields to allow landless family to work on their land without expecting any return. The scenario can be regarded as

positive effect of migration since migrant families are doing the charity work by sharing what they have, to other less fortunate community members.

As for the negative impact, migration also affects the community in the sense that children have become less interested in education and thought of migrating like their parents and other community members. The result could affect the community. It appeared that labor migration cascades from one member migration to parental migration. It can continue to the migration of one generation to the next. Although family migration has not occurred yet in the community where the research took place, migration of some family members such as siblings and relatives was markedly noted. Children will not aspire and be inspired to study anymore as they will eventually migrate. As a consequence, the community will have lesser educated persons.

The community has bondage of unity and tries to maintain the members within the community. Nowadays, the community, instead of preventing the members to exit, it encourages them to go abroad and earn money even if the work is demeaning, difficult and hazardous because the expected outcomes from migration also benefit the community. With the remittances, there is no more forced labor inasmuch as it has been laden by the “money” culled from migration. In addition, since members’ migration is on the rise, the structure of the village has changed from an agro labor-supply driven community.

Members’ migration is still occurring although the village, at present, has political stability and a sense of security with no more conflict between armed groups and the military establishment. Likewise, there is also no “porter” issue in the village; however, migration is still progressing due to the limited job opportunities and lackadaisical interest in farming by new generations. Due to regional migration of the members, there exists labor shortage for farming

work activities in the community. There are still elderly persons and children who opted not to work in the farm land but depended solely on the remittances. Since the majority of the productive workforce leaves the village, stagnation of the rural economy appears to be a negative impact on the community due to migration. Rice production will eventually decline in the near future.

#### **4.4.9 Structural Analysis of Migration's Impacts**

The research found that migration occurred due to the “push” and “pull” factors from the sending and receiving villages in Banteay Meanchey. In the Ou Chrov District, although there is farming work in the community, many people move to other countries, particularly Thailand, to earn for themselves as well as for their families. Local people no longer rely on farm employment as it does not provide sufficient income for the family. Hence there is no motivation to continue farming. In addition to its low investment to the agriculture sector, the provision of modern technology by the government is nil. Moreover, the farmers have limited accessibility to the market. The government sets quota and prices for the farmers to sell the rice produce at a rate far below the prevailing market price. The farmers can only sell the rice that has remained after the allotted quota. Thus, no matter how hard the farmers cultivate the farm during the whole year, there is no benefit for them. In addition to this, the obligations to pay local tax and cash contribution to the government have instigated the local people to leave the village. Evidently, the young and adults abandon farming and migrate to neighboring countries in strong belief that they will earn better wages by working overseas.

Migration takes place in the family mainly because of the regular income. Due to migration of parents, the family could obtain their basic needs coupled with an improvement in the family's living standard through the remittances. Parents consider that they fulfill their

responsibilities by sending regular remittance to their children. As remittance recipients, it is assumed that by taking good care of other's dependent children the caregivers also gain from the parents' remittances. This provides mutual benefits to both the parents and the caregivers. However, unnoticeably, money becomes the binding factor that influences the social relations among the three groups: children, parents and the caregivers.

Children have to stay mostly with the caregivers other than their parents and they understand that their parents provide them financially. Since the children are not theirs, the caregivers do not treat them harshly. One of the grandmothers mentioned that since they are her grandchildren, she should treat them like her children coming from her own bosom. Because parents are physically away from their children, they could not directly guide and counsel their children. Moreover, the caregivers also have less ability to mentor the children. This could be of two reasons: not directly their own children or low literacy level. Undeniably, there is no one who can influence the mindset of children. Such can have deleterious repercussion, especially when the children reach critical period in their lives, during adolescent/puberty stage. This serious issue should be considerably addressed. Usually, this is a factor that is intrinsically overlooked. Absence of parents and lack of proper guidance can affect the children's future growth and development in molding their attitudes, thinking, self-awareness, character building, as well as their perception of life in general.

The finding on the children's lower level of interest on education could be due to varied reasons. Foremost, it is related to parents' migration. Children contextualize that their parents could earn money working abroad without obtaining higher education. Another reason is unstable education system in Cambodia. The education system fails to provide the children with career opportunities. Even after acquisition of high school certificates, children may think that

the education they have completed will not be a guarantee to land a decent job. Moreover, there is insignificant encouragement from the community on education. Members invest more in religion and are very willing to donate for the religious affairs and do meritorious deeds. The satellite dish at the pagoda and religious feasts all year round are the evidences. However, the proposal to extend the primary school to post primary school which could enlarge learning opportunity for the children was postponed.

The study found that migration has contributed to some changes in the community. The improvement in the infrastructure of the community is obvious for everyone to see. The improved housing condition contributes to the physical development of the community. The installation of telephone lines and power generation lines contributes towards rural electrification, and smooth communication system instituting opportunities for the migrant families to keep in touch periodically with their loved ones. A change of life style in the community was also noticed. In the early days, people in the community used only the bullock carts and bicycles for transportation. Now, motorbikes are popular and its use is widespread.

It is obvious that the parasitic dependency on the remittances is thriving instead of reliance on the traditional farming. The earning style of the community mutated from self-reliance to dependency, farmers to migrants. Moreover, the remittances have been used only for solving short term problem, such as: day to day living, paying local taxes, and others. Investment for the future is not in the equation. As people only think of migrating abroad and earn, there is no bondage within the community for its development. This situation will augur economic and social transformation of the community, from traditional farming which is self-reliance economy to migration which is dependent on the market economy.

#### **4.4.10 Education and Human Security for the Children**

Parents left the family and the children mainly because of the economic insecurity in their places of origin. For the left behind children, they need to enjoy their rights to have basic needs for survival and for protection and development. Since they are away from their parents, it is important for the caregivers to protect the children to enjoy physical safety, essential healthcare and basic education. Due to migration of parents, children lose their enthusiasm to learn and think about to follow their parent's path to migrate. The capability to read and write improves the quality of life and directly affects people's security. Education enables people to express their needs. Without having higher education, the children will not have a chance to understand and learn to assert their rights to development. The caregivers (both parents and surrogate parents) need to build a favorable and non-threatening environment for the children in order to foment ardent interest in education. In this way, the children will be able to comprehend their anatomy of consciousness and to exercise their rights, roles and responsibilities so that they will have secured lives in the future.

#### **4.5 Study Findings and Discussions from Key Informant Interviews**

For this study, there were 23 individuals who were selected as key informants for the interviews, which were personally conducted by some PUC student volunteers and other researchers: (a) five (5) migrant workers; (b) one representative from each of the following Non-Government Organizations (NGOs): UN-ACT (United Nations for Cooperation against Trafficking in Persons), the Global Alliance against Traffic in Women (GAATW), CARAM (Coordination on Action Research on AIDS and Mobility), LSCW (Legal Support for Children and Women), CCPR (Cambodian Center for the Protection of Children's Rights), CWCC (Cambodian Women's Crisis Center), ADHOC (Cambodian Human Rights and Development

Association); (c) one representative from each of the following government organizations: MOI (Ministry of Interior), MOLVT (Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training), MOP (Ministry of Planning) and MOH (Ministry of Health); and selected Immigration Officers and Lawyers; and (d) five (5) representatives from randomly selected household members left behind. To protect the identity of the workers, organization's representatives, and members of household left behind, and ensure that they remain anonymous, they will not be referred to directly in this study report, nor in the list of references.

The following are the basic questions that were asked informally to key informants during the interview process, some of which may not be relevant to all key respondents:

- How do you observe the current trend of labor migrants in the Cambodian context?
- What are the problems and challenges faced by migrant workers in home country and the country of destination?
- What are the experiences of women migrants in the country of destination?
- How do you analyze the current government policies regarding foreign employment?
- What are the institutional mechanisms of government to the regulation and promotion of foreign labor migration?
- What about the applicability of international conventions and the recommendations of international conferences and declarations to protect the rights of the migrant workers in our context?
- What about the rules on manpower or labor placement agencies?
- What is the role of trade unions to protect the rights of migrant workers?
- What should be done to assure the safe migration of labor migrants?



#### 4.5.1 Current Trend of Labor Migrants in the Cambodian Context

Employment at higher wages in foreign countries was seen by Cambodian migrant workers, the members of their households, and representatives of government agencies as a means of moving out of poverty.

According to almost all who were interviewed, “increased demand for low-skilled workers in international labor markets, such as those in Thailand and Malaysia, have presented a strong pull factor for the unemployed and underemployed. A growing number recruited through both official channels and informal social networks are attracted by the higher income that may typically be realized in working abroad — this, despite concomitant dangers of exploitation and human trafficking.”

The MOLVT representative shared that “in May 2003, the Royal Governments of Cambodia and Thailand signed a Memorandum of Understanding on Cooperation in the Employment of Workers, which called for the legal and organized deployment of Cambodian workers to Thailand. Specifically, it aimed to establish (i) a bilateral administrative process that provides for a well-structured employment procedure; (ii) a mechanism for return or repatriation of migrant workers; (iii) guidelines for labor protection; and (iv) a mechanism for prevention of and intervention against irregular migration.” He shared the following table of statistics that was compiled in 2009, and added that no new statistical report has been generated to date:

**Table 4.38: Cambodian migrant workers by destination by gender, 2009**

	Malaysia			Korea			Thailand			Japan		
	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F
1998	120	0	120	..	..	..	..	..	..			
1999	86	0	86	..	..	..	..	..	..			
2000	502	307	195	..	..	..	..	..	..			
2001	846	342	504	..	..	..	..	..	..			
2002	1,049	246	803	..	..	..	..	..	..			
2003	573	73	500	756	638	118	..	..	..			
2004	809	105	704	674	519	155	..	..	..			
2005	1,776	467	1,309	468	432	36	..	..	..			
2006	1,690	231	1,459	1 501	1 341	160	445	226	219			
2007	3,219	174	3,045	584	499	85	5,670	3,935	1,735	3	3	0
2008	2,654	53	2,601		n/a	n/a	2,116	1,425	691	39	13	26
<b>Total</b>	<b>13,324</b>	<b>1,998</b>	<b>11,326</b>	<b>3 983</b>	<b>3,429</b>	<b>554</b>	<b>8,231</b>	<b>5,586</b>	<b>2,645</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>26</b>

Source: Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training, Cambodia, 2009.

Another interviewee from the NGO sector shared that “aside from bringing back their skills and experience, migrant workers also send home remittances. Remittances increase the purchasing power of households, enabling them to spend on daily consumption, health, education, and debt servicing while also saving more. Remittances raise standards of living among recipient households and contribute to poverty reduction.” A representative from the National Institute of Statistics of the Ministry of Planning provided the following estimates which were prepared by the World Bank in 2009, including vital information on the remittances and compensation of Cambodian employees from working abroad (see Table 4.40). She informed that “remittance from migrant workers have tremendously swollen from US\$177 million in 2004 to \$325 million, or about 3.4 per cent of GDP (\$9.57 billion), in 2008.” Likewise, she quoted an ILO study of migrant workers’ remittances in late 2007 that indicated “Cambodian migrant workers in Thailand sent cash remittances of about 833 baht per month. Cambodian migrant workers in Thailand sent home estimated cash remittances in 2008 of about 1.5 billion baht (\$45 million). Most remittances were spent on daily expenses, health care,

and household appliances.” She further added that “40 per cent of Cambodian migrant workers in Thailand reported that remittances were the main sources of income for their families. At the same time, remittances may encourage family members in Cambodia to stop working and, thus leaving households more dependent on migration.”

**Table 4.39: Workers’ Remittance, compensation of employees and migrant transfers**

(Million US\$)

<b>Cambodia</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>2002</b>	<b>2003</b>	<b>2004</b>	<b>2005</b>	<b>2006</b>	<b>2007</b>	<b>2008</b>
<b>Remittances</b>	133	140	138	177	200	297	353	325

Source: World Bank, 2009

#### **4.5.2 Problems and Challenges Faced by Migrant Workers**

The Ministry of Interior representative recognized that there are two forms of international labor migration in Cambodia: legal and illegal migrations. He articulated that the general challenges reported by the General Department of Immigration include: “forced overwork, little or no rest time, untreated illnesses, torture, severe physical assault, underpayment, threats, being jailed, being forced to continue work illegally and the cut-off of relationship with family members.” He added that there are about 141 cases reported, some were from Malaysia, Thailand, South Africa, China, Singapore, Japan, Fiji, and other destinations.

According to him, “while hardship and violations have happened on female migrant workers, the Royal Government of Cambodia decided to impose a freeze on sending of female migrant workers to Malaysia. This suspension has been regarded a sanction on some companies and agencies which failed to be responsible for migrant workers who were deployed by them and who apparently suffered rights’ violations. However, the mere announcement without establishing strict mechanisms in resolving the predicament of migrant workers still working in Malaysia has caused grave concerns to their families in Cambodia, because they have not

received any information about their children, spouse, or relatives working in those countries. This concern is the first reason for the increased number of complaints.”

Another representative from MOLVT, informed that “among the 141 cases reported to the Government, 94 (70.14%) filed complaints on the ground of the loss of contact with migrant workers to Malaysia. This was because after the government’s suspension, some private companies’ licenses to send workers to Malaysia have been revoked; other companies ended their businesses while several became bankrupt. This phenomenon has led to the loss of contact between migrant workers and their relatives.” Some of the members of the households left behind opined that the “government’s mechanisms responsible for building links in the absence of the companies have not functioned effectively.”

Another reason for the upsurge of complaints was shared by representative from CARAM, as he narrated that “rights’ violation on male and female migrant workers in Malaysia has gotten even more deteriorating. As monitoring mechanisms and interventions by companies about migrant workers’ welfare before the suspension had already been weak; once the directive was officially announced, nothing has been of help to arrest the rights’ violations which were constantly getting worse.”

According to ADHOC’s observation, “Cambodian male/female migrant workers currently working in Malaysia are facing three major challenges: a) loss of contact with the family because of company’s closure; b) severe rights violation; c) being forced to continue to work. In order to resolve these impediments, the government shall immediately establish monitoring and protection measures to fill the gaps left by the companies after the freeze and their licenses revoked, to protect migrant workers’ rights.” He added that, “for illegal migrant workers (through brokers), though few complaints were received and little information was

known, they are even more vulnerable to violations, as no institution is in charge of monitoring their safety; they sometimes had to run away from police, they were under threats, they received low wages, they were forced to overwork. These incidents happened because they crossed border illegally and, thus, oftentimes were arrested and jailed, enslaved, and unable to get back home.”

*To resolve these alarming challenges, the ADHOC representative provided the following recommendations:*

- **Creation of MOU between the Royal Government of Cambodia and the Receiving Countries:** The government, especially Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training (MOLVT), shall push for the creation of MOU between the Royal Government of Cambodia and receiving countries to set forth working conditions between sending and receiving countries anchored on human right principles on labor and social rights, more particularly, the respect and application of international convention on the protection of migrant workers’ rights; and shall review MOU between Cambodia and Thailand by adding more human right-based responsibilities in receiving and crossing their countries for the sake of migrant workers’ benefit for the two countries to prevent human right violations. Anent this, Thai government should establish ‘during transit’ policy and urge the employers to be responsible for providing legal and para-legal aids for illegal cross-border migrant workers.
- **Establishment of Monitoring Mechanism:** A monitoring mechanism should be institutionalized to monitor migrant workers’ welfare in the country of origin and in receiving countries, especially Malaysia, in order to establish responsive communication between the workers and their family members when companies/agents in charge close

down their offices; and the government should strengthen conflict resolution mechanisms and effectively protect migrant workers' rights.

- **Vocational and Skills Training:** The government, especially the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training, should enhance vocational and skills capacity building programs being conducted in the 36 Provincial Training Centers, as well as create more job opportunities, working conditions (decent wages in accordance with market price of goods) for our citizens in general and for people in rural areas in particular. The Ministry of Interior, on the other hand, should facilitate reasonable service fees and application process for passports, so that Cambodian citizens will find less hassle to obtain legal and proper employment documents.
- **Setting up of Hotline System:** The government through the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training (MOLVT, in cooperation with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Cooperation (MOFAIC) and the Ministry of Interior (MOI) should set up hotline system nationwide and in receiving countries, in order to rescue victims in a timely manner in cases of rights' violations against both legal and illegal migrant workers.
- **Closer Cooperation with ASEAN Economic Community and GMS:** Increase productive cooperation with ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) members and the countries within Great Mekong Sub-region (GMS) in combating human trafficking, labor rights' violation and modern slavery.
- **Effective Enforcement of Law on Social Security Scheme:** The government should effectively enforce the Law on Social Security Scheme and enhance responsibilities of related institutions and stakeholders. Also, the government should penalize companies, agencies or individuals who violate law enforcement.

### **4.5.3 Response Regarding Women Involvement in the Foreign Labor Migration**

Majority of the individuals interviewed for this study, have observed that “participation of women in international migration is preceded by the migration of young and single women from rural to urban areas.” Given gender-based discrimination and women’s typically low skills and education, the representative from CWCC opined that “women are typically more vulnerable than men to abuse and exploitation. At the same time, globalization, labor market imbalances between countries, and improved and affordable transportation and communications has all together opened up opportunities for women to better their own and their families’ livelihood by moving beyond their national boundary.” Another representative from LSCW shared that “cross-border migration is fraught with many dangers; however, not only for the women migrants but also for the families they leave behind. Care of children and elderly parents is sometimes sacrificed. Married migrant women are sometimes obliged to send money home to establish a family business to be run by her husband or other family members.”

In another interview, CARAM representative believed that “many single women have to deal with parents’ objections to their decision to migrate, leading to family tensions. On the other hand, labor migration does provide ample opportunities to earn income and gain more respect from the family, especially as breadwinners.” The participant from CCPR informed that “in the Mekong Sub-region, women migrant workers account for almost half of total migration. Changing labor needs and accelerated industrialization in East and Southeast Asia create heightened demands for women migrant workers, especially as domestic workers. The share of women migrant workers in the region working in the manufacturing sector is also increasing.”

According to MOLVT official, “Cambodian women workers have been deployed abroad legally and irregularly as domestic helpers, factory workers, laborers, entertainers, and food-processing workers. Women accounted for 85 per cent of total deployment to Malaysia between 1998 and 2008, while in Thailand they comprised 47 per cent of the total number between 2006 and 2008. In Malaysia, Cambodian women migrant workers are employed mostly as domestic helpers, but they also work in factories, grocery shops, plantations, and construction. In Thailand, they are largely employed in aquatic product processing, seasonal farming, and domestic work. A growing number is being employed in the manufacturing sector. Among problems commonly faced by Cambodian migrant workers are withholding of travel documents, delayed payment or underpayment of wages, harsh working conditions (long work hours, unhygienic working environment, extreme temperatures, both too hot and too cold), lack of freedom of movement and communication, confinement in factories or employers’ premises, limited access to health services, threats by the security authorities, and sexual harassment.”

One Immigration Officer relayed that “currently, concerns are growing about unreported work-related injuries, fatalities and disabilities incurred by both men and women migrant workers. Few migrant workers are covered by national social security scheme or workmen compensation funds in the host countries, and they tend to receive very limited compensation from employers for workplace fatalities and injuries. Worse still, the use of chemicals in the agricultural sector and in plantations causes long-term damage to the health of women migrant workers, with latent symptoms being manifested after they return home, thereby, denying them the opportunity to claim compensation.” According to MOLVT officer, “the official minimum age for Cambodians to work abroad is 18 years (Sub-decree No. 57, Article 3), but some under-aged girls and boys have been illegally recruited for work abroad. Most women migrants have



little formal education and knowledge of foreign languages. Their low abilities to make themselves understood by their employers are because a major source of frustration and isolation for some of the women, especially those working as domestic workers.”

Representative from GAATW attested that “domestic workers tend to work in private homes and are dependent on their employers for shelter, food, and other modes of subsistence. With inadequate knowledge of the local language and limited protection under the labor law, they have minimal or no recourse in making claims regarding their legitimate rights at work. Women’s migration for employment has generated grievous attention about their well-being, including the stability of their families left behind. What was originally intended to be temporary migration often becomes permanent one after multiple contract extensions and delays in returning home. The tendency to re-migrate among women migrant workers and overdependence on migration are common phenomena in many countries.”

#### **4.5.4 Current Government Policies Regarding Foreign Employment**

##### **4.5.4.1 Key Issues and Challenges in Labor Migration**

Given demographic pressures and insufficient quality domestic employment, labor migration policy in Cambodia should focus on promoting foreign employment for its nationals based on well-informed choice. While the Government does not perceive foreign employment as the only means of economic development and poverty reduction, it will facilitate migration for employment, while equipping women and men migrant workers with basic technical, occupational and language skills to reduce the hazards of labor exploitation and trafficking.

The MOLVT official believes that “labor migration is a cross-cutting issue, inter-connected with a range of other policies that often lie outside the control of the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training.” According to him, there were series of stakeholder consultations

conducted by MOLVT that have identified the key policy challenges for the government regarding international labor migration, such as: “a) formulating a comprehensive legal and institutional framework governing labor emigration from Cambodia, i.e. replacing the ambiguous sub-decrees or regulations pertaining to labor migration; b) mainstreaming the labor migration agenda within the national development agenda, especially in the Rectangular Strategy; c) reviewing the effectiveness and costs of the legal labor-migration process; d) examining the high incidence of Cambodian migrant workers who run away from employers and return prematurely to Cambodia; e) disseminating details regarding the labor migration process, including the positive and negative effects of migration for the prospective migrant workers and their families, thereby assisting them making informed migration decisions; f) entering into bilateral agreements/cooperation with other major labor-receiving countries to create a wider and more diversified foreign labor market for Cambodian migrant workers; g) negotiating a standard employment contract with labor-receiving countries; h) providing certified skills training for migrant workers prior to deployment abroad; i) institutionalizing pre-employment awareness-raising and pre-departure training, including occupational safety and health and financial literacy; j) extending protection to migrant workers by posting labor attachés in major destination countries; k) establishing a welfare fund or special insurance scheme for migrant workers to cope with contingencies; l) promoting access to financial services by migrant workers and their families and supporting the productive investment/use of remittances; and m) setting up systems for registration, reintegration, and skills accreditation for returning migrant workers. These policy challenges can be categorized according to three components: governance of labor migration; protection and empowerment of migrant workers; and harnessing migration for development.”

#### **4.5.4.2 Governance of Labor Migration**

The UN-ACT representative recognized that “governance of labor migration includes issues relating to national labor migration policies and programs, laws and norms, inter-state agreements, and multilateral processes. It also includes international and national institutional frameworks regarding labor migration. Migration governance acknowledges the involvement of a diverse range of stakeholders, and takes into account complexities, policy paradoxes, and the longer-term consequences of movements of people. The direct effect of governance on migration reflects the reaction of potential migrants and the public to the quality of government administration and political leadership commitment of the government in the country of origin.”

On the other hand, GAATW refers “good governance of labor migration to coherent labor-migration management practices within legal, policy, and institutional frameworks. The institutional framework includes the government agencies and institutions involved directly or indirectly in labor migration management. These institutions are responsible for crafting the legal, regulatory, and policy frameworks for governing the labor migration process. One important means of improving governance is social dialogue between different government agencies, the social partners’ organizations, and civil society. Hence, labor migration governance is not the sole responsibility of government institutions. Private-sector organizations, trade unions, civil society, and local communities can also be powerful social forces in shaping the different aspects of the labor migration process, and thus its governance.”

The MOLVT representative informed that Cambodia has already ratified all international instruments that were promulgated as the eight core ILO Convention: “the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention, 1948 (No. 87); Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98); Forced Labor Convention, 1930

(No. 29); Abolition of Forced Labor Convention, 1957 (No. 105); Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100); Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111); Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138); and Worst Forms of Child Labor Convention, 1999 (No. 182).” He further added that Cambodia is also a signatory to the UN Convention on the Protection of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, one of the most significant Conventions relating to labor migration. However, he said that “it is unclear, however, what the obligations of the Government are upon signing the UN Convention.”

Another key informant, LSCW representative adhered that “the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) reaffirmed that migrant women, like all women, should not be discriminated against in any sphere of their life. The Committee issued General Recommendation No. 26 (December 2008) on women migrant workers, which describes the obligations of States parties to respect, protect, and fulfill the human rights of women migrant workers, alongside the legal obligations contained in other treaties, the commitments made under the plans of action of world conferences, and the important work of migration-focused treaty bodies, especially the Committee on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families.”

#### **4.5.4.3 Key Policy Areas and Recommendations**

The weaknesses in the legal, regulatory and institutional frameworks of labor migration have contributed to incoherent policies and inconsistent practices in the labor migration process that have undermined, directly or through unintended consequences, the policies and programs in other areas. The lack of effective migration governance has led to a large number of migrants venturing into irregular status. As these workers have no legal status in the host countries, their

rights are subject to frequent abuse, putting them at the mercy of unscrupulous agents, employers, and officials.

The key policy recommendations that were recommended by the key informants are the following:

- **Strengthen the existing governmental agency** to promote foreign employment and to protect the rights of migrant workers while at home and abroad. The Department of Employment and Manpower, which currently oversees migration management issues, is under-staffed and under-resourced, making it difficult to ensure the desirable outcomes of labor migration.
- **Consider the ratification of international instruments on labor migration**, especially ILO Convention No. 97 on the Migration for Employment Convention (revised 1949) and Convention No. 143 on the Migrations in Abusive Conditions and the Promotion of Equality of Opportunity and Treatment of Migrant Workers Convention (1975).
- **Draft comprehensive legislation governing the labor migration process and the protection of migrant workers.** Current administration of the labor migration process and regulations pertaining to recruitment and the protection of migrant workers are unable to cope with the complexities of prevailing cross-border migration situations.
- **Recognize the contributions of public and private recruitment agencies** to the efficient functioning of the labor migration process. Vigorous oversight of recruitment and placement of workers for jobs abroad should be assigned to the specific government agency.
- **Strengthen private and public recruitment and placement services** and the

development of the foreign market for Cambodian workers. The Government should support the Association of Cambodian Recruitment Agencies in diversifying the foreign labor market, and in the recruitment of migrant workers.

- **Provide adequate protection for migrant workers** by posting Labor Attachés in Cambodian Embassies, allocating them enough resources that they can perform their duties. The mandates of the diplomatic missions should be clearly defined to include protection during in-service and post-service periods, preparation for return and reintegration, and collection of labor market information.
- **Adopt the social dialogue approach and the involvement of multi-stakeholders**, including the Government, employers' and workers' organizations, recruitment agencies, and civil society in the formulation of labor migration policy, programs, and legislation.  
h) Participate in multilateral debates and bilateral agreements or MOUs regarding employment with labor-receiving countries, aiming to formalize legal protection of migrant workers.
- **Promote the cross-border movement of skilled labor** among ASEAN member States in the spirit of a single ASEAN community, set for the year 2015.
- **Review policy regarding mandatory cash deposits** of US\$100,000 (non-interest earning) by recruitment agencies. The labor migration policy and institutions in Cambodia indicated that the deposit could be too high, raising the cost of doing business. It may also constitute an entry barrier for new recruiters.
- **Develop a comprehensive database** on labor migration to monitor outflows and return migration.

#### **4.5.5 Institutional Mechanisms of Government to the Regulation and Promotion of Foreign Labor Migration**

In recent years, the Royal Government of Cambodia has strengthened the framework for labor migration governance.

According to the MOLVT representative, “the Government adopted Sub-Decree No. 190 on the Management of Sending of Cambodian Workers Abroad through Private Recruitment Agencies. The Sub-Decree strengthened the regulatory framework for governing labor migration and protecting migrant workers, and acknowledges the potential impact of migration on poverty reduction and human resource development.” He further added that the adoption of eight prakas to support Sub-Decree 190 in 2013 provided greater clarity to authorities on their roles and responsibilities. These prakas were drafted and reviewed through consultation with social partners and civil society organizations, drawing on extensive inputs from the ILO. Efforts have been made to ensure that the prakas are gender-sensitive through reviews of draft legislation by UN Women and MOWA.” He presented the list of eight prakas adopted in February and September 2013:

- **Prakas No 045/13** concerning the use of terms outlines the meaning of key terms used in Sub-Decree 190.
- **Prakas No 047/13** concerning private recruitment agency outlines the requirements of a private recruitment agency to be recognized as a legal entity from the MOLVT.
- **Prakas No 046/13** concerning the recruitment process and pre-departure orientation sets minimum standards for private recruitment agencies in their legal responsibilities to migrant workers prior to being sent abroad.

- **Prakas No 249** concerning complaint receiving mechanism for migrant workers outlines the MOLVT complaints process for migrant workers.
- **Prakas No 250** concerning inspection on private recruitment agency outlines the MOLVTs standards for inspections.
- **Prakas No 251** concerning penalty and reward to the private recruitment agency stipulates that private recruitment agencies will be inspected every two years, and that they must meet a certain minimum standard in order to continue to operate.
- **Prakas No 252** concerning on-site service of the private recruitment agency and repatriation outlines the private recruitment agencies responsibilities to migrant workers in destination countries and during repatriation processes.
- **Prakas No 253** concerning promulgation of minimum standards of job placement services abroad contract stipulates all articles that need to be included in the contract between the private recruitment agency and Cambodian migrant worker.

**On the recruitment agencies**, the MOLVT representative further informed that “to be licensed, a recruitment agency must receive authorization from the MOLVT as per Sub-decree No. 190 and prakas No. 47. Together these instruments stipulate that recruitment agencies must not sub-contract any part of their license, that they are responsible for migrant workers pre-departure, during placement abroad, and repatriation, that they must provide pre-departure training, and have a permanent representative in the destination country for migrant workers’ welfare. Recruitment agencies must sign an agreement with MOLVT, pay a guarantee deposit of US\$100,000, and report on a monthly, quarterly, every six months, and yearly basis. If recruitment agencies do not



satisfy these requirements, MOLVT has the power to refuse to issue a license, issue a warning to the recruitment agency, or discontinue their license.”

According to him, “the number of licensed recruitment agencies increased from 18 in 2008 to 55 in 2014, with all 55 recruitment agencies reportedly being members of the Association of Cambodian Recruitment Agencies (ACRA). ACRA was established in 2008 and promotes the orderly and safe migration of Cambodian migrant workers, and brings together licensed recruitment agencies into a voluntary industry body.”

The representative from MOI was also asked on other sub-decrees, prakas and other laws that provide protection to migrant workers, he provided a hard copy of the following list:

- “**Sub-decree No. 205** on provision of ordinary passport was passed after the mass exodus of Cambodian migrant workers from Thailand in June 2014. In Cambodia, the provision of passports is managed by the MOI and can currently only be obtained from MOI Passport Departments in Phnom Penh and Battambang. Historically, many Cambodian migrant workers travel without passports due to the complex process to issue passports and the ease of border crossing.”
- “**Sub-decree No. 205** on provision of ordinary passport to Khmer worker and student stipulates that passports for migrant workers must be paid for by the government and migrant workers must only pay US\$4 for the passport photo.”
- “**Inter-ministerial Prakas No 2574** on format and procedure for issuance of normal passport for Khmer workers to work legally abroad stipulates that migrant workers themselves will get their passports at the Passport Department in the office of the MOI in Phnom Penh and MOI Provincial Passport Offices – as of July 2014 there was one provincial passport office in Battambang.”

On the other hand, the LSCW informed that “the Cambodian Law on Suppression of Human Trafficking and Sexual Exploitation and the Penal Code include provisions that govern the acts of trafficking, exploitative recruitment, illegal confinement and fraud and forgery (in relation to false identification) by an offender or attempted offender, committed in Cambodia or on a flight or vessel that flies the Cambodian flag, in any territory where the perpetrator or victim is a Cambodian citizen. The Cambodian Civil Code and Sub-decree No. 38 Referring to Contract and Other Liabilities, include provisions for breach of contract, misrepresentation, void ability of contracts and tortuous liability (including negligence). As such, these two legal instruments could be referred to when a worker has been exploited or deceived into a contractual situation but does not have the evidence or inclination to pursue a criminal claim. To date, however, these legal instruments have not been referred to or utilized to assist with civil claims, and few criminal cases relating to labor migration have been thoroughly addressed with only a handful being pursued successfully. The Cambodian Labor Law applies only to work to be completed in Cambodia and does not apply to work to be completed abroad.”

#### **4.5.6 Applicability of International Conventions to Protect the Rights of Migrants**

In terms of international instruments, the MOLVT official informed that “Cambodia has ratified all eight core ILO Conventions, is a signatory to the UN International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (1990), and has ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (1979), and the Optional Protocol to CEDAW (1999). The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women issued General Recommendation No. 26

(December 2008) on women migrant workers, that describes the obligations of State parties to respect, protect, and fulfill the human rights of women migrant workers.” He added that “Cambodia has not ratified ILO Convention No. 97 on the Migration for Employment Convention (revised 1949), ILO Convention No. 143 on the Migrations in Abusive Conditions and the Promotion of Equality of Opportunity and Treatment of Migrant Workers Convention (1975). The Government has not ratified other important migration governance conventions including ILO Convention No. 189 Domestic Workers Convention (2011), ILO Convention No. 188 on Work in Fishing, ILO Convention No. 181 on Private Employment Agencies (1997), ILO Protocol on Forced Labor (2014), and the UN International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (1990).”

As to the regional instruments, he shared that “Cambodia is a signatory to the ASEAN Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers, adopted by the Heads of Government in 2007 in Cebu. MOLVT has been actively involved in the regional discussions on the drafting of a new ASEAN Agreement on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers. Cambodia has adopted the ASEAN Declaration on Strengthening Social Protection adopted by the Heads of Government in 2013 in Brunei. With the advent of AEC in 2015, MOLVT will strategize with associations representing workers and employers on how Cambodia can benefit from this development. In addition, MOLVT will participate in bilateral and regional discussions on, among other things, skills recognition, data sharing, and social security transfer and portability.”

#### **4.5.7 Related Rules on Manpower or Labor Placement Agencies**

On the related rules on manpower or labor placement agencies, the MOLVT representative relayed that “the most important legislative tool in the management of labor

migration is Sub-Decree 57, dated 20<sup>th</sup> July 1995 on “The Sending of Khmer Worker to Work Abroad.” The sub-decree is composed of 22 articles most of them defining the legal framework of cooperation between the former Ministry of Social Affairs, Labor and Veterans Affairs (now the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training, MOLVT) and the private recruitment agencies.”

He said that “each year, the MOLVT runs an information campaign encouraging job seekers to register in the placement office of either the municipal or provincial Department of Labor and Vocational Training. All registered candidates are passed on to the appropriate recruitment agencies for selection and placement of qualified candidates. However, all recruitment is done through the private licensed recruitment agencies who conduct their own recruitment campaigns throughout the country based on needs in either the Republic of Korea or Malaysia, through advertisements in local newspapers, brokers operating in rural areas and word of mouth.”

The MOLVT official shared that the number of private manpower recruitment agencies for migrant workers in Cambodia has increased from only 38 private recruitment agencies in 2006 to 67 companies in 2017. Table 4.40, provides the list of accredited 67 sending organizations (recruitment and placement agencies).

**Table 4.40: List of Accredited Sending Organizations with MOLVT<sup>3</sup>**

	<b>Abbreviation</b>	<b>Name of Accredited Sending Organizations</b>	<b>City Name</b>
1	168 MPS	168 Manpower Supply Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
2	57GOAL	57 Goal Manpower Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
3	AA-HR	Axel Asia Human Resources Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
4	AGRI-FARMERS	Agri-Farmers (Cambodia) Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh

<sup>3</sup> List of contact points of governments that have signed JITCO R/D agreements & their respective Accredited Sending Organizations: (1) "Accredited Sending Organization" means sending organizations authorized by the Government contact point of each country which has signed "The Record of Discussions(R/D) "and "Supplementary Record of Discussions (Supplementary R/D)" with JITCO. (2) JITCO has assigned numbers to each organization and abbreviated names of some organizations for convenience sake.

	<b>Abbreviation</b>	<b>Name of Accredited Sending Organizations</b>	<b>City Name</b>
5	AHS	Asian Human Support (Cambodia) Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
6	AJC	AJC Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
7	ALC	NGO Asia Language & Culture Exchange Association	Phnom Penh
8	ANNY	Anny Rita Best Manpower CO., LTD	Phnom Penh
9	APTS	AP TSE & C Cambodia Resources Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
10	BIG BIIMEX	Big Bi Imex Group Co., LTD	Phnom Penh
11	BJC	Bridge JC Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
12	BSRO	B.S.R.O Best Manpower CO., LTD	Phnom Penh
13	C-PRO	C-PRO Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
14	CATM	CATM Asia Manpower Cooperation Co., Ltd	Phnom Penh
15	CDM	CDM Trading Manpower Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
16	CHC	Cam Human Capital Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
17	CHHUN HONG	Chhun Hong Manpower Pte. Ltd.	Phnom Penh
18	CJTT	C.J.T.T Trading Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
19	CL SUPPLY	C.L. Supply (Cambodia) Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
20	CLS & MDN	Cambodian Labor Supply Group Pty., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
21	CT ASIA	C.T. Asia Labor Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
22	DREAM MANPOWER	Dream Manpower (Cambodia) Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
23	ELITE	Elite Manpower Agency Co.,Ltd.	Phnom Penh
24	FASTUP	Fastup (Cambodia) Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
25	GES	Global Employment Service (Cambodia) Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
26	GROWING POWER	Growing Power Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
27	GTM	Gala Tokyo Manpower Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
28	HIRAYAMA	Hirayama Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
29	HN WORLD	HN World Corporation Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
30	HUANING	Huaning International Development Co.,Ltd.	Phnom Penh
31	HUMAN POWER	Human Power Co., Ltd	Phnom Penh

	<b>Abbreviation</b>	<b>Name of Accredited Sending Organizations</b>	<b>City Name</b>
32	I-CEP	I-CEP Phnom Penh Co., LTD	Phnom Penh
33	IG	I.G. Consultant Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
34	IIS	IIS Company Ltd.	Phnom Penh
35	JNN INTERNATIONAL	JNN International Economic and Technical Cooperation Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
36	JOB ASIA	Job Asia (Cambodia) Limited	Phnom Penh
37	KAMPUSAN	Kampusan Manpower Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
38	KEI KEI	Kei Kei (Cambodia) Human Resource Co.,Ltd.	Phnom Penh
39	KHS	Kobe Human Service (Cambodia) Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
40	KIB	Kakehashi International & Business Co., Ltd	Phnom Penh
41	KIZUNA	Kizuna HR-Asia Co., LTD	Phnom Penh
42	LABOR SUPPLY	Phnom Penh Labor Supply Company Limited	Phnom Penh
43	LIMINA	Limina Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
44	MEIHO	Meiho Aphivat Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
45	MEY YORN	Mey Yorn Services Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
46	MSM	Meas Sovann Mealeake Manpower Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
47	NAS	N.A.S Manpower Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
48	NICAM	NiCam Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
49	PHC	Prasith Hathakpolkor (Cambodia) Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
50	PHILIMORE	Philimore Cambodia Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
51	PITT	PITT Cambodia Co., Ltd	Phnom Penh
52	PROCAST	Procast (Cambodia) Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
53	RND	Rice Natural Development PLC	Phnom Penh
54	SKMM	SKMM Investment Group Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
55	SLM	Sok Leap Metrey Co., LTD	Phnom Penh
56	SOK CHAMNOL	SOK CHAMNOL CO., LTD	Phnom Penh
57	SP INTERNATIONAL	SP International Manpower (Cambodia) Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh

	<b>Abbreviation</b>	<b>Name of Accredited Sending Organizations</b>	<b>City Name</b>
58	STAND POWER	Stand Power Corporation Limited	Phnom Penh
59	SUCCESS MANPOWER	Success Manpower Services Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
60	TAK TAK	Tak Tak Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
61	TAKAYAMA	Takayama Labor Supply Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
62	TOP MANPOWER	TOP Manpower Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
63	TOUCH MANAK	Touch Manak Manpower Supply Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
64	UNG RITHY	Ung Rithy Group Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
65	WIN WIN	Win-Win Manpower Service Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
66	YAKUSHINKAI	Yakushinkai (Cambodia) Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh
67	YOTA	Yota Manpower Supply Co., Ltd.	Phnom Penh

**Source: Japan International Training Cooperation Organization (JITCO)**  
[http://www.jitco.or.jp/english/engagement\\_sending\\_out/govern\\_cam.html](http://www.jitco.or.jp/english/engagement_sending_out/govern_cam.html)

He said that the following Articles from the Sub-Decree 57 provide some of the rules governing placement agencies in Cambodia:

“Art. 7 establish that a deposit of US\$100,000 will be made by each recruitment agency in order to be officially registered by the Ministry. This deposit should be used by the Ministry to pay the workers in the event that the recruitment agency does not comply with any conditions stated in the employment contract.”

He reported that in August 2006, there were only 5 agencies, out of 38 registered at that time, have paid the deposit of US\$100,000 with MOLVT. At that time, the deadline has been fixed by MOLVT for October 2006, after which the licenses of the non-compliant companies were revoked.

On the other hand, he further informed that “interested labor migrant candidates were asked to submit application and information forms to the recruitment agencies. The labor

migrants are also required to be registered at the Department of Employment and Manpower which issues them with migrant worker cards allowing them to obtain passports from the Ministry of Interior.”

Related to this, “Art. 9 lists the basic information and requisites that should be included in the employment contract. Among them, the section of this article which states that “*a part of salary and other allowances which shall be send to the workers family*” is particularly relevant.”

He further informed that “the receiving countries usually provide the Cambodian MOLVT with a quota of migrant workers that will be allowed to work there and a list of the economic sectors requiring a foreign workforce. The Republic of Korea requires a number of potential migrants two or three times larger than the requested quota to allow the employers a wider selection of candidates.” According to him, “Cambodian migrants in Malaysia and the Republic of Korea are remitting money through a bank transfer to the recruitment agencies which in turn distribute the money to their families. All the migrant workers based in the Republic of Korea own bank accounts, making the transfer of remittances safer and cheaper than through the informal system usually used by Cambodian migrant workers in Thailand.”

He said that “in total, the Cambodian migrant worker has to sign two contracts: one standard contract with recruitment agency, including requirements such as pre-departure training and medical checks, and another contract with their employer abroad, which includes such items as the rights of the worker and insurance. This contract changes according to the receiving country.”

*“Art. 10 states that the workers shall have the rights of annual leave paid by the recruitment agencies. The minimum leave is at least one day and a half for one consecutive work month.”*



According to ADHOC, “this article violates the 1990 UN Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families which clearly stipulates minimum leave as at least one day per week and it has to be revised. This convention was signed by Cambodia on 27 September 2004 but has not yet been ratified.”

*“Art. 14: Before departure, the MOLVT and the recruitment agencies are responsible for preparing and conducting a training course on the work system, lifestyle, customs, traditions and common laws of the receiving country.”*

The pre-departure training has always been a grey area for the management of labor migration in Cambodia. Until recently, the pre-departure training was largely left in the hands of the recruitment agencies.

In Sub-Decree 57, processes and practices to evaluate and monitor private recruitment agencies are not mentioned. Either fines or sanctions for the agencies responsible of malpractice such as trafficking or exploitation of migrant workers are not stipulated.

The MOLVT official mentioned that “the Department of Employment and Manpower has started a monitoring unit, trained internally, to evaluate private recruitment agencies. This monitoring unit is composed of five persons. The recruitment agencies will be evaluated through a check-list including:

- Training centers and pre-departure training;
- Payment of the US\$100,000 deposit;
- Staff capacity;
- Work practices; and
- Efficiency of logistics and transportation.”

He further added that “also in the Sub-Decree 57, there is no indication about the criteria for ownership and management private recruitment agency, such as nationality, income or legal position.”

ADHOC informed that “in a public speech by Prime Minister Hun Sen in March 2006, he stated that recruitment agencies should not collect money in advance from migrant workers. However, at the time, the costs which migrant workers can and cannot be charged remain undefined. The absence of legislation that clearly defines the recruitment process and related costs means that the amount migrant workers are charged to secure employment overseas varies greatly.” According to UN-ACT and LSCW, “the amount migrant workers can charge can range from 1 to 4 months’ salary.”

Almost all NGOs proposed that the Sub-Decree should include:

- “A thorough description of the costs faced by the migrants’ workers and the sanctions imposed on recruitment agencies found guilty of malpractice;”
- “A clear description of the criteria for ownership and/or management of a private recruitment agency.”
- “A description of fines and sanctions for agencies found guilty of malpractice as identified by the monitoring unit of the MOLVT.”

#### **4.5.8 Role of Trade Unions to Protect the Rights of Migrant Workers**

On the role of trade unions to protect the rights of migrant workers, the representative from CCPR indicated that there are several trade unions that are protecting the rights of migrant workers. Foremost among these trade unions, according to him, is the Cambodian Labor Confederation (CLC) which was established on 9 April 2006 and has 61,754 members from seven federations and associations. He added that “as an implementing partner of the ILO GMS

Triangle project, CLC has run the Migrant Worker Resource Centre (MRC) at Prey Veng province since 2011. The MRC's services include dissemination of information on safe migration; **counseling** migrants, potential migrant workers, returned migrant workers, and their family members; and providing legal assistance with complaints in collaboration with the Provincial Department of Labor and Vocational Training (PDOLVT), local authorities and NGOs. Counselling and training are provided through MRC office consultations, through outreach activities and trainings on safe migration in villages and communes, and through a phone line.”

He further added that “the MRC managed by CLC was officially recognized by the Governor's Office in March 2012, which led to a notable improvement in their working relationship with local labor authorities. The increased cooperation between CLC, PDOLVT and NGOs has meant that the trade union is able to provide better follow-up on complaints received and fully document the outcomes – increasing the knowledge base on delivery of effective legal assistance to migrant workers. In addition, capacity building and information dissemination among village heads and other key persons in order to create a communications network in seven communes has had an important trickle-down effect, contributing to both increased level of awareness of safe migration practices and requests for direct support services among villagers. Vital to maintaining the leadership's engagement with the issue has been through provision of follow-up training and on-going technical support in the target sites.”

#### **4.5.9 Programs to Assure Safe Migration of Cambodian Labor Migrants**

On the programs to assure safe migration of Cambodian labor migrants, the NGO representatives have listed the following recommendations:

- **Adopt a comprehensive labor migration law:** The Royal Government of Cambodia

should adopt a comprehensive labor migration law to ensure that the rights of domestic workers are protected by a legally binding instrument.

- **Include domestic workers in labor law:** The Royal Government of Cambodia should include domestic workers in its labor law to ensure that domestic workers engaged in Cambodia enjoy minimum labor standards like other workers.
- **Adopt enabling legislation for Sub-decree 190:** The Royal Government of Cambodia is urged to adopt enabling legislation that would change the status of the Sub-decree from a regulation to binding law.
- **Enforcement:** The law is only as effective as its enforcement by the judiciary, police and other authorities. The Royal Government of Cambodia is urged to adopt measures to ensure that Sub-decree 190 and other regulations relating to labor migration are effectively enforced by the MoLVT. The penalties for perpetrators and remedies for victims outlined in Sub-decree 190 should be used consistently as a means to deter recruitment agencies from violating the rights of domestic workers.

## 4.6 Summary of Findings and Analysis of Hypothesis

### 4.6.1 Summary of Findings

After completing the review of various related studies and literature, as well as in the generation of primary data based on survey among migrants, focus group discussions, free-listing and key informant interviews, we can sum up the findings that Cambodia's excessive dependence on receiving financial flows from grants, donations, proceeds from development loans impairs its ability to develop its economy. The findings from the study also argues that remittances can damage social and economic development by creating a "brain drain" effect or

by the “Dutch disease” that leads to a rise of prices for non-tradable goods, appreciates the exchange rates, which drives producers of tradable goods out of business, and also causes social complications in the form of growing economic disparities.

Based on the mentioned above conclusions from the research findings, we can categorically state that despite all the benefits of workers’ remittances, we can hypothesized that they have negative influence on socio-economic development in both the short and the long run. We can argue that large size of inward remittances might have a positive immediate impact on economies of recipient countries by contributing to the growth of GDP. However, its long run economic effect will be negative due to “Dutch disease” phenomenon that affects production. This phenomenon has been well examined by the researcher (PhD) candidate and it demonstrates that excessive flows of remittances in Cambodia can contribute to increase in household incomes and respectively in consumption of products that are produced for domestic markets or non-tradable goods such as real estate, services, water, and electricity and others, in expense of tradable sector. It creates a pressure on non-tradable sectors forcing prices to go up that has a potential to diminish positive role of remittances as a tool of diminishing economic inequality within the country.

We can also argue that remittances negatively impact such social indicators as life expectancy or even the Human Development Index (HDI). One of the explanations for that is that excessive reliance on remittances can lead to decreases in labor and intellectual forces which is called “brain drain” that might affect such social indicators as life expectancy or human development.

To measure impact of remittances on development, the researcher (PhD candidate) has chosen the volume of remittances as an independent variable and measures of socio-economic development as a dependent variable.

Remittances are defined in this research study as “formal and informal payments that are sent by immigrant workers to their home countries”, and that the social-economic development is measured by the Human Development Index that was developed in 1990 within the United Nations Development Program. It measures socio-economic development by “combining indicators of life expectancy, educational attainment and income into a composite human development index” (Human Development Report, 2016).

#### **4.6.2 Alternative Hypothesis on Migrant Entrepreneurship**

This study, despite no empirical evidence, the researcher (PhD candidate) accepts the first alternative hypothesis, i.e., “Creating different opportunities for potential migrants to establish their entrepreneurial activities or small businesses in localities, could contribute to local social and economic development than does the incoming flow of remittance per se sent by labor migrants.”

In this study, several explanatory hypotheses have been put forward to identify the determinants of immigrant entrepreneurship. Rather than exclude each other, these approaches can explain different entrepreneurial strategies that can be put in place by different migrant groups over time and space. One such hypothesis is often referred to as the *disadvantage* or *blockage* hypothesis. It is based on the personal characteristics of migrants and assumes that they enter self-employment out of necessity. It invokes as reasons for exclusion from salaried employment: low skills, lack of education, language difficulties and discrimination. Migrant entrepreneurs end up servicing their own social group communities, for the most part in enclave economies and with

limited opportunities for advancement. The findings from this study indicated that this hypothesis is no longer of general significance, even though it may apply to some specific groups and cases.

The *first alternative* hypothesis links together migrant groups and economic sectors. It proposes that individual migrant national or ethnic groups gravitate into specific occupations or sectors. To quote Etienne Piguet, “belonging to a minority group is seen as a source of social capital that facilitates the access of immigrants to independent activities”. The hypothesis also focuses on the interaction between the personal resources of migrants, the resources of migrant communities, such as access to financial support, consumers, suppliers and advice, and the opportunities presented by the host country with respect to labor market structures and regulation, government incentives and public opinion.

#### **4.6.3 Alternative Hypothesis on Special Local Initiatives**

From the findings and results generated from the study, the second alternative hypothesis on the creation of special local initiatives in guiding the recipients of remittance has been accepted. Since remittance are private funds, and the primary purpose is not to support national economic development. Accordingly, it is crucial to understand how remitters and their relatives use them and in what kind of development activities they would be most likely to invest. This implies working directly with migrants and diasporas, while addressing together the specific obstacles that may prevent the use of remittances to facilitate development. Policy makers in Cambodia should bear in mind the diversity of migrants’ expectations and strategies. While they are usually perceived as having a collective identity, migrants should not be considered as homogenous entity. The diversity and heterogeneity of migrants as a group will certainly challenge policies that aim to leverage remittances for development in countries of origin. Critically, migrants and diasporas can also be negatively perceived by both home and host

countries. While suspicion and reluctance may prevail in relationships between migrants and their countries of origin, stigmatization or discrimination may negatively influence their integration and consideration in the destination country. It is clear that the identification of migrants as development actors is linked to the improvement of their living conditions (e.g. housing, education, employment, social networks) in host countries.

As private flows, remittances can only be leveraged via incentives that preserve migrants' rights while enabling them to make use of their earnings in pro-development ways. Projects should be based on the local population needs and priorities. For instance, financial inclusion may be appropriate and successful in some cases, but may be totally irrelevant in others. Bearing in mind those socio-cultural disparities, Cambodian policymakers should design programs that could attract a wide range of migrants and empower local people, based on realistic objectives, tools and timeframes.

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## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Conclusions

Despite the fact that Cambodia has been sending migrant workers in other countries for more than 20 years, international or even regional labor migration management is still considered in their embryonic stages.

From the results of this study, it has been concluded that Cambodian migrants view migration itself as a short-term coping strategy to overcome unexpected problems and not as a long-term process aimed at increasing the socio-economic status of the family, and thereby increasing the opportunities of family members to complete formal education.

Those who decide to migrate from Cambodia are often driven by themselves, their respective families, and their home communities by an overwhelming predominance of push over pull factors. These push factors include chronic poverty, landlessness, lack of employment, lack of access to markets, materialism, debt and natural disasters, such as drought and floods. These migrants often find employment in 3D jobs (Dirty, Dangerous, and Disliked) which only allow some communities to maintain only the status quo rather than improving their standard of living.

As presented in previous Chapter on the major findings, it highlights the differences and similarities experienced by both male and female migrants before, during and after migration, as well as the determinants for safe and regular migration.

**Migration and Gender Equality:** The gender-disaggregated results indicated inequalities among male and female migrants before, during and after migration, especially in terms of unequal access to education, employment opportunities, health care and how they are

reached by NGOs with information about migration. On the average, female migrants had lower levels of education (if any at all) and earned less in both origin and host countries than male migrants. Inequalities in the origin country put women at a disadvantage, which is then carried over to their migration journey and return. This indicates a lack of awareness and control over their migration situation and potentially a higher vulnerability. Female migrants were less likely than males to receive safe migration information from NGOs. Although female migrants faced many inequalities, male migrants were more vulnerable to abuse by their employers and to difficult working conditions in the country of destination, such as having to sleep in overcrowded, poorly ventilated rooms with insufficient space to sleep. They were also more likely to be arrested than female migrants. More in-depth research is needed to understand the reasons for the higher prevalence of abuse among male migrants.

**Determinants of Safe Migration:** *(i) Legal Documents* - The possession of legal documents played a dominant role in determining safe migration. Migrants were more likely to migrate with a licensed broker if they had a passport, which also resulted in a higher income in the country of destination. Those with regular migration documents were also less likely to be arrested by the authorities in the country of destination, more likely to receive their wages and more likely to see a doctor in case of a health concern. These findings highlight the importance of access to these documents to ensure safe and successful migration. However, the main reason given for not applying for a passport was the lack of money to pay the direct and indirect fees. Therefore, the main barrier to accessing documents is likely the relatively high costs of a Cambodian passport. A major step towards facilitating safe and legal migration would be lowering these costs and simplifying the procedures. *(ii) Work Sector* - The construction and the fishing sectors appeared to be associated with difficult conditions and a lower chance of

receiving wages, whereas respondents who had worked in animal farming reported an overall positive experience, including a higher income, higher likelihood of receiving wages and a lower prevalence of reported mental health concerns. However, the fishing and animal farming samples were relatively small and thus not necessarily representative of the sector. The overall low representation in many work sectors limited the interpretation of their safety. However, trends indicate differences and suggest that each sector should be investigated in depth.

**Policy Framework:** To date, Cambodia has yet to establish a policy framework fit to the task of managing its immense labor migration flows. As a result, migration remains largely a laissez-faire and inequitable phenomenon, divided between regular migrants who typically head to more developed economies via formal recruitment and irregular migrants who travel clandestinely to work in neighboring low and middle income countries. While this division is based to some degree upon the knowledge and skills of migrant workers, it is more clearly driven by personal connections and the ability to pay large sums of money for safer and more lucrative employment opportunities abroad – a recruitment system that tends to marginalize rural people, women and ethnic minorities in particular. Although irregular migrants continue to far outnumber those who migrate through formal channels, the recruitment and labor protection afforded to them are very limited, contributing to a high-risk of abuse throughout the migration cycle. Even for regular migrants, who generally have somewhat better working conditions and receive more freedoms, rights and protections, the substantial debts typically required to finance migration can make them unable to leave exploitative employment situations while overseas.

**Aspirations on Migration:** On a personal level, labor migration is an undertaking filled with hopes and dreams of obtaining a better life for migrant workers and their family members. Unfortunately, these aspirations are frequently not matched with a clear understanding of the

potential risks involved or adequate knowledge about how to minimize them. Awareness of critical information on how to migrate safely, on the rights to which they are entitled and on the working conditions they can expect is dangerously low level among potential migrants in Cambodia, with most heavily reliant on information provided by friends and family. Women potential migrants and those from ethnic minority groups (two demographics that frequently meet in relegation among Cambodia migrants) are particularly disadvantaged in terms of access to information. This scarcity of unbiased and authoritative knowledge means that many migrants receive intentionally misleading or erroneous information from unprincipled or incompetent recruitment agents and brokers. Potential migrants who are ill-informed or deceived become easier and convenient targets for abuse, including forced labor and other unethical endeavors.

**Rights-Based Approach to Migrant Workers:** Recent political reforms within Cambodia have provided the opportunity to begin development of a more deliberate, transparent and rights-based approach to labor migration management, in-line with international standards and good practices. In taking up this challenge, an improved understanding of the situation of migrant workers through collection and analysis of empirical data will be critical to ensuring that the policies and practices developed are evidence-based and inclusive. Greater protection for these workers, whose enduring social and financial remittances continue to fuel the country's development during this critical transition period, is both an economic and human rights imperative.

**Documented Migrant Workers:** Migrants who are documented as more skilled and/or fluent in the local language of destination countries are likely to receive better working conditions. Research should be carried out on the recognition of credentials obtained in

Cambodia for low and semi-skilled migrants, and subsidized or free language and vocational training courses made available for potential migrants from poorer households.

### **5.1.1 Capacity Building of Stakeholders**

As many potential migrants in Cambodia are employed in agricultural works and reside in remote rural areas, broad dissemination of safe migration messaging will require communication strategies that engage with local leaders and organizations, reinforce existing migrant support networks with accurate and up-to-date information and make creative use of popular and social media (where appropriate).

Outreach activities will need to be gender-sensitive if they are to be effective in providing equal access to information for both women and men migrants. As female potential migrants were most commonly found to be working within the informal sector, safe migration messaging will need to be responsive to their distinct needs and availability. To achieve this, training of informal change agents, and engaging gender-specialized partners, should complement outreach through official leadership. Where women's groups already exist, they should be supported to take up the issue of safe migration within their communities, and in areas where they do not exist, support should be provided for their formation.

To assist migrants with choosing a licensed and reputable recruitment agency, capacity building should be provided for MOLVT to catalyze the development of an impartial and authoritative source of information on their services, and the results widely and regularly disseminated.

Many potential migrants expected to have to wait 1-2 years before departure, particularly for those migrating regularly to the Republic of Korea, Thailand and Malaysia. While a certain amount of preparation and protocol is certainly prudent and necessary, long delays required for

migration through regular channels may serve to encourage irregular movement. Further bilateral cooperation with destination countries and training of the relevant authorities to streamline procedures should be undertaken to speed up the emigration process.

### **5.1.2 Safe Migration Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices in Cambodia**

The pre-departure orientation seminar provided to migrant workers needs to be upgraded as many return migrants questioned the value of the information conveyed. A standard curriculum that includes more relevant, practical, accurate and country-specific information should be developed, including information about support services available from the Government.

### **5.1.3 NGOs, Trade Unions and other CSOs**

Return migrants frequently stated that the support services available at Cambodia diplomatic missions were unsatisfactory. Capacity building trainings should be provided to consular officers and labor attachés to ensure that all migrants regardless of legal status have access to effective assistance for labor rights violations in major destination countries. The number of staff assigned to each duty station should be determined by the scale of labor migration to the country, with sufficient budget allocated.

Gender analysis of labor migration policies must be based upon systematic collection of disaggregated data on migrant workers in Cambodia. Inadequate official data to make such assessments was identified as an important capacity gap that requires additional training of the competent authorities.

### **5.1.4 Support Services for Migrant Workers**

As most potential migrants currently do not have enough information to make well-informed decisions about migrating, additional sites for obtaining accurate and balanced

information should be established to supplement and strengthen the existing sources. Potential migrants should be provided with individualized and responsive psycho-social counseling program services from IOM, MOLVT, or MOI that provide them with a clear understanding of the realities of working abroad.

To facilitate safer migration practices, awareness raising activities should be carried out on the benefits and requirements for regular migration, particularly focusing on documentation needed to work legally, as opposed to just admission and stay. These efforts should seek to clearly communicate the message that the advantages of regular migration are not simply pecuniary, and should be especially targeted for women migrants and those in border areas who have presently less knowledge of the requirements.

There is low awareness among potential migrants of the possibility of being deceived or exploited during the migration process, as the most commonly stated worry was affording the cost. Counseling and outreach need to be expanded on the potential risks involved, including information that broadens awareness about exploitation among men migrants, targets ethnic minority communities who were found to be less cognizant of the hazards and to provide practical advice about how to seek assistance within Cambodia.

As a proxy for general awareness of their rights during recruitment, very few migrants knew of the maximum amount that could be charged for recruitment fees. Potential migrants should be informed of the ceiling that has been established, but also the other rights to which they are entitled, before engaging the services of a recruitment agency.

Many migrants believe that only regular workers can expect to receive a written employment contract and awareness of why they are important and the essential articles that

should be included is exceedingly scarce. Migrant workers should be informed of the value, requirements and standard contents for such agreements.

Legal assistance and referral services should be provided for potential migrants to enable greater access to justice for abuses they encounter during the recruitment process. At the moment, the majority of migrants seek assistance from friends and family members for their grievances, suggesting that tangible remedies are a rarity. Cooperation of trade unions and NGOs with the relevant authorities should be expanded in order to facilitate the identification and resolution of a higher number of migrant complaints.

#### **5.1.5 Key Areas of Work**

Safe migration information should be available to those under 18 years of age as potential migrants under this threshold were found to be completely reliant upon friends and family for advice. Obviously and evidently, a substantial number of young people are migrating, they should be provided with information about how to do so as safely and securely as much as possible.

The majority of potential migrants in all areas expected to send remittances through informal channels, such as the hundi system or friends and family. Financial literacy trainings should be provided to migrants to build confidence in the use of banking services, ensure that they are informed about how to send remittances safely and affordably and are able to set and achieve financial goals.

A considerable number of potential migrants are only proficient in not their mother tongue language, informational materials disseminated in ethnic minority areas should also be translated into local languages where necessary.



### 5.1.6 The Global Economic Downturn

The impact of the economic downturn has translated into job insecurity and deteriorating working conditions, leading to lower incomes or in other cases, legally unprotected employment. Dealing with family livelihood difficulties and in the face of limited job opportunities, women and young girls formerly in the production sectors, with the greatest sense of responsibility, were forced to engage in the entertainment industry, putting them at risk of becoming active in disguised sex businesses where HIV and other sexually transmissible diseases are prevalent. Moreover, social and cultural pressures and stigmatization are likely to undermine the women's virtue.

The implication of the economic downturn is apparent through worsening welfare, especially of poor families. It has led to the deterioration of the nutritional status of poor women and children, which comes on top of the impact of high inflation in the preceding year. The deterioration of nutrition results from the reduced purchasing power of households, characterized by falling incomes from wages, self-employed businesses, and other income sources that resulted from the slowdown of various economic activities. To cope with livelihood difficulty, the large majority of the households chose to eat less preferred/ less expensive food, to reduce the amount of food consumption, and for mothers and older daughters, in particular, to sacrifice food by eating less to leave food for other household members. This makes women more vulnerable to illnesses.

Even though migration is not a new strategy that households have taken up to sustain their livelihoods, the change in the pattern of migration can be attributed to the impacts of the economic downturn that has impacted the incomes of those in the affected sectors. Other coping strategies undertaken by households include migration and taking out loans. Women and female-

headed households suffered most from the impact of the economic downturn. In terms of migration, both more women and more female-headed households engaged in migration work. The economic burden has had an impact on the businesses of women in terms of their access to credit, but women also had to take out loans to address their food consumption, health expenses, and so on.

Despite such negative impacts on women, the evidence of intervention through external assistance to the households at the grassroots level had fallen from the previous year and female-headed households were not taken into account sufficiently in the distribution of aid.

However, the government reacted promptly. The response has dealt mainly with monetary and fiscal policy. Efforts in monetary policy attempted to control the functioning of the financial sector. The Cambodian government did not have any specific stimulus package to boost consumption, except its measure in fiscal policy to run a high budget deficit. Even though particularly poor and vulnerable groups were not insulated from the impacts, a training program was designed to provide alternative skills to laid-off workers to improve their employment options. In addition, a micro-credit program for small businesses that was employed to assist these trainees is expected to help the recipients to run the business of their choice. The effectiveness and prospects of this policy in response to the crisis, however, have yet to be confirmed. Other specific attention was also intended to benefit rice farmers through injecting soft loans to rice millers to increase their capacity to purchase paddy from farmers.

### **5.1.7 Remittance Issues**

Remittance issue in Cambodia is still an area that has not been sufficiently explored. Contrary to some other countries, migration does not present potential for development yet and is not adequately introduced to the national strategy for poverty reduction.

There might be a latency for community development in Cambodia due to remittances. This latent is based in particular on official inward remittance flows and is projected to increase in the future. These data are only parts of what can be measured but do not show a “gestalt” picture as there are many illegal migrant workers or legal workers who do not use formal channels to transmit money back home and, therefore, do not enter the official statistics. To encourage people to use legal channels and to enable them safe legal migration are both the latent impact increases of remittances to the poverty reduction and a challenge the Cambodian migrant policy should squarely address.

This study provides information on remittances in Cambodia but also proposes a cluster of recommendations that should be thoroughly scrutinized and translated into strategic action plans and programs. This should be a guiding pillar that predicates for future national work related to remittances and for enhanced coordination among various stakeholders in Cambodia. Despite the fact that in the course of this research, quantitative evidence of the correlation of incoming remittances with economic growth, enhancement of wellbeing of the population and local development in Cambodia, based on the findings of several other researches on the same issue could not be deciphered, but it can safely be stated that remittances should have had significant contribution to the development in Cambodia as well

Besides this, if we compare the amount of incoming remittances with different indicators of budget spending (mainly on social sphere) in Cambodia which directly affects wellbeing of vulnerable households, we can well appreciate that remittances – significant part of which is spent on consumption, housing, health care and education by households --- have been a solid supplement to the financial resources provided by government for support of needy groups of the population.

The main determinants of increasing dynamics of remittances to Cambodia besides the increasing number of external migrants are also linked to different factors like high altruism, rational perspective, and high average propensity to save among migrant workers. (**Appendix-Figure 5.1**)

At the same time, such an increase in remittances has not been possible without the sufferings of labor migrants due to different problems occurring during the migration process, and there are a lot of cases when labor migrants' became disabled or lost their lives, which cannot be covered by any financial reimbursement.

Difficulties, problems and challenges of labor migrants in recipient countries are mainly connected with the factors, such as: difficulty (also impossibility) of acquisition of legal worker status, hard living and working conditions, not knowing the local language and own rights, a hostile environment in the face of skinheads, nationalists, and racists, which is fueled by negative information from mass media and anti-migrant statements by officials of different levels and of course, violence and extortion by police, and etc.

If we look at this issue through the prism of problems of migrant workers in the Thailand, Malaysia, and South Korea, as the main destination countries for labor migrants from Cambodia, in the root of all problems lies the irregular status of migrant workers, which is associated with complexity and difficulty of the procedure for issuance of work permits due to a limited number of yearly quotas for work permits.

#### **5.1.8 Impact of external labor migration on individual and family level**

Our findings during surveys, interviews and discussions with different migrant workers, key informants, and family members left behind showed that in the international labor migration from Cambodia was driven by push factors like lower wages, less

opportunities to find adequate employment and pull factors such as comparatively high salaries and demand for labor force in Thailand, Malaysia, and South Korea. The increasing dynamics in the number of outgoing migrants have been determined largely by cumulative causation and desire of households for income diversification, which can be well justified by “the new economics of migration”. Our research study and survey confirmed that rural households which have stable monthly income from on-farm and off-farm employment also send a member abroad to have an additional source of income to finance their different needs. However, there is still a considerable impact of push factors in the face of lower wages and the difficulty in finding adequate jobs as the biggest part of the migrants are low-skilled people.

Based on the above statement and deriving from our research findings in previous chapter, in the following sections we will try to assess the current and possible future (medium and long term) positive and negative impacts of external labor migration and incoming remittances on individuals (migrants), their families, the communities and localities they originated from and on Cambodia as a whole, and elaborate separate graphic models for each level.

According to the World Bank “primary economic benefit of migration to recipient households is the receipt of remittances.... and remittances can help reduce poverty, raise household investment, and increase access to health and education services” (WB 2011). Our survey in several provinces in Cambodia confirmed that most of the labor migrants from the country remit money back home.

Most studies on the use of remittances argue that they are heavily spent for consumption (food, clothes, and others) by households. However our research proved that labor migration was initiated for the purposes of income diversification (the case for

significant share of labor migrants from Cambodia), i.e. if a migrant's family has other sources of income besides remittances, their consumption spending doesn't change much, while investment in real estate (also durable goods like cars) and other sustainable income generation sources increase considerably. Also, according to Arif (1999) - "workers from better-off households are likely to have access to some assets and resources before migration, and these resources may form a base for further improvements and investment from new overseas earnings" and, "...the other important variable when it comes to relative success in handling remittances could be the level of household non-remittance income, particularly during the migration process. This is important both as a supplementary source of income and as disciplining factor regulating the economic behavior of the family. Absence of any stable income implies that wages earned from overseas employment are likely to be used for the maintenance of the household" (Arif 1999).

In **Figure 5.2 in Appendix E** we built a graphic model of the main positive impacts of external labor migration for migrants and their families in Cambodia, which clearly shows that remittances create a diversified income source for families and increase their disposable income. Households, besides spending these remittances for consumption, also invest in health care, education, real estate, durable goods, cars and business activity. It is also argued that investment of remittances by households in further education of the children consequently creates a push factor (education) for those children to migrate.

Apart from financial and economic benefits, remittances bring positive psychological and social outcomes such as higher self-esteem and self-confidence of the members of remittance receiving families, and improved social status of the members of those families

within community. Financial and economic opportunities of the families are still one of the main determinants of the social status within communities in Cambodia.

However, flow and application of new skills and knowledge by returning migrants in Cambodia **are** rather limited, as the biggest part of the migrants work in unskilled manual jobs.

At the same time, besides huge positive impacts on migrants' and their families' wellbeing, health, education, etc., out-labor migration from Cambodia is associated with several negative outcomes for migrants and their families. Psychological and emotional difficulties of separation hit all migrants and their families, which in some cases have its adverse effects in the form of destructed families or worsened behavior of children left without one or both parents for long time (see **Figure 5.3 in Appendix E**).

Hard work, poor living conditions without access to health care worsen the health of migrants, who in some cases become disabled or die due to worsened health or accidents at work, as in many cases there are no safety measure taken by employers. A worrying trend is that migrants are highly vulnerable to variety of infectious diseases, including tuberculosis and HIV, due to their poor living and sanitary conditions and absence of basic knowledge on how these infections can be transmitted to people.

Different diseases and accidents at work are not the only factors causing disability or death of migrant workers: There is another big factor – hostile environment to migrants in the face of nationalists, skinhead, and racists – which is responsible for a significant share of deaths and disabilities among labor migrants from Cambodia in the other destination countries. Besides this, in recent years the increased the frequency of cases when labor migrants from Cambodia are accused in committing different crimes and are imprisoned.

Consequently, in case of death of a labor migrant, the sending family loses the income source and faces great psychological and moral hardships. In the case of disability or serious sickness (including infection with tuberculosis, HIV, etc) of a migrant, in addition to lost income source and moral hardships, the family faces long term additional expenditure for medical treatment of the sick or disabled migrant, which deteriorates the family budget and worsens its financial and economic conditions. However, it must be underlined that in the case of death of the migrant in the host country, the migrant's family faces a one-time huge expenditure to bring the body and organize the funereal. In some cases, this results in a big debt for migrants' families.

#### **5.1.9 The Impact of External Labor Migration on Community and Locality Level.**

Direct positive impacts of the out-labor migration on the local level in Cambodia can be seen through decreased pressure on the labor market and declining real unemployment in different regions and districts of the country. Investments by migrants' families on the creation of new local business and **service** entities directly contribute both to the growth of local gross output and wellbeing of the local population by new jobs and locally produced goods and services.

Even it is difficult to quantify the indirect effect of remittances spent by migrants' families for consumption through the increased demand for local goods and services, and construction spending, its huge positive impact on local growth through the multiplier effect is obvious. However, as our research showed the bulk of migrants' remittances are spent for housing construction which directly creates short term jobs for local people (see **Fig. 5.4 in Appendix E**).



The key informant interviews with different specialists confirmed that out-labor migration of the men contributed to the further improvement of the gender equality in Cambodia through increasing the women's role in decision making in the family and on a community level.

Current investments on education and health of the family members in remittance receiving families will have a positive impact on local economies in the form of improved human capital in the medium and long-term perspectives. However, there is still a huge unused potential of remittances in the form of family savings which could give a boost to local economic growth if they were attracted to local bank deposits and provided to local private sector as additional loans.

Increased investments by households in the purchase of automobiles made a huge contribution to the improvement and development of the public transport system in the regions of Cambodia, where currently even in most remote districts there are a lot of people engaged in private taxi-driving activity. Most of the families who bought cars, thanks to their remittances, either are engaged in private taxi-driving themselves or rent the car to someone for subsequent use for private taxi-driving, which is contribution of remittances in creation of additional jobs in localities.

During the conduct of the study, it was also confirmed that remittance receiving families are more active and more generous in their contribution to local socially important initiatives like repair of schools, construction of mosques, and others.

Current immediate negative impacts of out-labor migration from Cambodia on a local level can be argued based on economic and social costs of the dead, lost, disabled and sick migrants impose on their families, and, consequently, on local communities in the form of

divorced and vulnerable families and orphan children. However, current realities indicate that in the medium and long terms such negative consequences might extend to the spread of different infectious diseases (including HIV) and degradation of moral and cultural values in local communities. It is obvious that growth in number of vulnerable families will require an adequate increase in financial support provided by government at a local level, which can be interpreted as negative financial consequences of out labor migration on the local level in Cambodia. (see **Figure5.5 in AppendixE**)

Incoming remittances in the amount hundreds of millions of USD every year besides enhancing high growth in the construction sector, the real estate market and in sales of locally produced automobiles, also rising inequality in opportunities to buy real estate and automobiles among low and middle-income population. This is mostly because of skyrocketed prices for apartments and houses in Phnom Penh and other key cities of the country.

It is obvious that the households living on fixed incomes in the form of wages, pensions, and stipends are in a less favorable condition to save money to buy real estate or automobiles in comparison to the household receiving remittances in addition to the income they got in Cambodia. This, of course, contributes to the growth of the shadow economy in the country and further fuel out migration of the people from those so called “disadvantaged groups in real estate and automobile markets”.

In general, most study results argue that remittances have negative impact on labor force participation of the members of migrants’ families, thus, decrease economic activity at the local level. However, evidence from our case study and interviews in Cambodia showed that incoming remittances do not have significant negative impacts on labor force participation

of the family members of the migrants. However, a small share of migrants' family members can still stay at home thanks to the remittances

At the same time, increasing dynamics in the number of people leaving to work abroad have already created a deficit of specialists for particular social and economic sectors in the regions of the country, and if continue in this spirit, might also result in underdevelopment of high potential sectors of local economies in the regions of the country in the medium and long terms.

#### **5.1.10 The impact of External Labor Migration on Country Level.**

Notwithstanding the fact that absence of appropriate data gives us a “blind spot” for quantitative analysis of the role of incoming remittances on the economic growth in Cambodia, based on economic theory and deductive reasoning, we can state that incoming remittances are boosting GDP growth through increased consumption and investments. Thanks to rising aggregate disposable income, the overall impact of which is much higher due to multiplier effect (see **Fig. 5.6 in Appendix E**).

At the same time, notwithstanding the fact that the amount of remittances are higher than FDI, in practice their direct impact level on economic growth is lower than FDIs, which is due to the fact that FDIs directly create new businesses, expand, modernize and increase efficiency of existing businesses, whereas remittances are mostly spent for consumption and their saved part goes towards the purchases of houses, land and cars, and their impact on economic growth in bigger part takes place indirectly. Only a very small amount of remittances are invested in business activity in Cambodia.

Besides this, the less volatility of remittance inflows in comparison to other international financial inflows to countries seems not applicable in the case of Cambodia. The

study argues that remittances could be a more stable source of foreign exchange in Cambodia and that “remittances appear to be a much more reliable source of foreign exchange than exports. As **Figure 5.6 (Appendix E)** shows, incoming remittances increase aggregate disposable income in Cambodia which raises consumption and investments, the multiplier effect of which boosts the growth in manufacturing, services, construction and other sectors and also leads to higher GDP growth. Decline in poverty rates and rise in the wellbeing of different layers of the population create greater equality scenario at county level. Increasing the amount of incoming remittances strengthens the current account of the country and contributes much to the balance of payments surplus. In the medium and long terms, remittances could be used as good collateral to attract cheaper credits from international capital markets.

At the macro level, remittances also serve as an additional support mechanism to the social protection system of Cambodia, as a portion of them directly reaches vulnerable people (pensioners, disabled) and vulnerable households through their family members or relatives working abroad.

Decline in real unemployment rates is another positive impact of external migration at macro level. Besides this, the increasing number of external migrants especially going to Thailand, Malaysia, and South Korea gives a big boost to the various sectors.

Brain drain (even it is not significant in the current stage) might cause underdevelopment of particular social and economic sectors where skilled labor is needed in the medium and long terms. However, big number of people who leave to work abroad each year, and a significant share of which are turning to temporary labor migration as their permanent life style. This will have serious financial problems and will create an extra burden

to the government budget in the long-term perspective when these migrants reach old age and will be paid social protection assistance according to the age. This situation in turn may bring us to a significant budget deficit.

Experience shows that host countries where the biggest share of the migrants is concentrated might use migration as a weak point to dictate their political and economic terms to sending countries. (see **Figure 5.7 in Appendix E**)

## **5.2 Priority Cluster Recommendations (PRC)**

### **A. Governance of Labor Migration**

#### **5.2.1 Priority Cluster #1 - Strengthening International Migration**

##### **Governance (SIMG)**

Cambodia is becoming a country of destination for immigrants, mainly for employment purposes. However, while the country is accepting a lot of migrant workers, Cambodia has also opted to send some of its skilled and professional workers to other destinations. This new reality has brought us to develop Cambodian migration safe, orderly and effective governance policies. Because of the cross-cutting nature of migration, these migration policies and related responsibilities are shared among various national governmental institutions. In this regard, the following recommendations are hereby provided for: Priority Cluster #1 – Strengthening International Migration Governance (SIMG):

##### **5.2.1.1 Cluster #1 – A: Broad Recommendations**

As part of the institutional development efforts related to migration, presented below are critical broad recommendations:

- **Cluster 1.1 - Setting-up of a Separate Department on Labor Migration:**

The institution in Cambodia responsible for the management of international

labor migration is relatively new. It is necessary that a separate entity be established within the MOLVT to specifically oversee, monitor, coordinate and implement labor migration policies, plans and programs. However, this institution needs to be equipped with adequate human capacity, competence and resources. Thus, this could be established by a sub-decree signed by the Prime Minister. Inasmuch as labor migration will generate huge revenues for workers and bring foreign currencies to nation's coffers, the Cambodian government should focus special attention in promoting orderly labor migration, the protection of the rights and the heightening of the responsibilities of migrant workers at home and abroad.

- **Cluster 1.2 - Resolve High Cost of Migration:** The Cambodian government should seriously resolve the unwarranted high cost of migration to Thailand and Malaysia, as it has done in the case of sending workers to South Korea. This should not compel the government institution to assume responsibility of sending workers to Thailand or Malaysia, as has been the case for South Korea. Given a large demand for Cambodian workers in Thailand and Malaysia, it becomes imperative to promote more private companies in the recruitment, training and placement of workers. The government may lower the amount of guarantee funds required for the agencies to deposit with the authority, or fine-tune the conditions of the deposit, e.g. with interest earned, such that it will not serve as barrier to entry. The roles and responsibilities of the government agency will be to regulate, monitor, evaluate performance and sanction the recruitment agencies and the unauthorized local brokers who violate the law

and regulations pertaining to the recruitment and protection of migrant workers.

- **Cluster 1.3 - Reduction of Guarantee Deposit among Employment**

**Agencies:** Emphasis should be placed on the reduction of the guarantee deposit, which is currently \$100,000 per company, or offer reasonable options in the deposit conditions. The rationale for this deposit is for government to use it to compensate the workers who have been the victims of fraud or deceptive machination by agencies or employers. It has to be singled out that the tripartite forum comprising government, representative of trade union and the recruitment agency (representing employers) should critically assess the extent of the maelstrom associated with sending workers to Thailand, Malaysia, South Korea and other countries as well as the obligations of the agency in providing protection of wages and income of the migrant workers while living abroad.

- **Cluster 1.4 - Compulsory Insurance Policy:** The compulsory insurance for the unforeseen calamity, loss of life and limb, infirmity or injury sustained to migrant workers must have to be highlighted. As introduced, while the claim process for insurance may be tedious and complicated, a welfare fund must be established without fail as additional tool for relief on the hardships struggled by the migrant workers and/or their families.

- **Cluster 1.5 - Charge for Passport:** The RGC should charge only \$40 for a passport and issue it within a prescribed period of 10 working days so that this will indirectly encourage and enjoy more people to use legal channel for migration and, thus, will increase the revenue to the Royal Government. This

policy will especially benefit the poor and contribute significantly to the reduction of the migration cost from US\$700 to US\$300 per worker. In addition, the RGC should set up satellite offices to process the passport applications in major provinces such as Banteay Meanchey, Prey Veng and Battambang.

- **Cluster 1.6 - Reduction in the Visa Fee in Thailand:** The RGC should negotiate with the Thai government to reduce the visa fee from 1,500 baht (US\$45) to 500 baht (US\$15) and the work permit fee from 1,800 baht (US\$54.01) to 1,000 baht (US\$30)<sup>4</sup> in order to minimize the cost of migration and promote orderly labor migration. In addition, the Thai Embassy should extend the number of days for receiving visa application and expedite the issuance of visa to the workers.
- **Cluster 1.7 - Standard Work Contract:** A standard generic work contract between Cambodian workers and employers in receiving countries must be diligently established and strictly enforced. The RGC should negotiate with the Thai, Malaysian, and South Korean counterparts at the Senior Official Consultation of the MOU. This will help protect the workers from exploitation by the employers and prevent any controversial stipulations in the contract that are disadvantageous to the migrant workers. The standard work contract must be applied to all types of workers, including those in the informal sector and domestic workers. The standard employment contract will not only legitimize

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<sup>4</sup> Exchange Rate of 1 Thai Baht = US\$0.30

([https://www.google.com.kh/search?q=foreign+exchange+rate+of+Thai+baht+to+US+dollars&rlz=1C5CHFA\\_enKH727KH727&oq=foreign+exchange+rate+of+Thai+baht+to+US+dollars&aqs=chrome..69i57j0l2.13311j0j8&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8;](https://www.google.com.kh/search?q=foreign+exchange+rate+of+Thai+baht+to+US+dollars&rlz=1C5CHFA_enKH727KH727&oq=foreign+exchange+rate+of+Thai+baht+to+US+dollars&aqs=chrome..69i57j0l2.13311j0j8&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8;) accessed 29 September 2017)



the protection of migrant workers but also will make more attractive legal migration vis-à-vis the irregular migration.

- **Cluster 1.8 - Standard Package for Pre-Departure Training:** A standard package for pre-departure training and basic skill training should be designed and applied to all migrant workers before departure. The training curriculum should be interesting, friendly, gender sensitive and able to draw the attention of the workers throughout the training course. A personal booklet containing important information about the destination country should be designed, developed, reproduced and disseminated to all migrant workers after completion of the training.
- **Cluster 1.9 - Coping with Runaway Problems:** A measure to cope with the runaway problem is to provide accurate information to the potential migrant workers about the working conditions, work culture, life in foreign countries, including the pains and gains from migration. It must be the responsibility of recruitment agencies to properly screen the application, interview and test the hard and transversal skills of the workers, and if necessary, interview the relatives of the workers so as to determine the intention and possibly assess the probable risks or hazards. In hindsight, the runaway is a consequence of any disputes on wages, overtime, working hours, and the promised welfare facilities. Payment of debt arising from recruitment is also another factor that triggers runaways. A package of credit facility with reasonable interest rate from the bank and other financial institutions should be provided to the potential migrant workers to finance their own migration.

- **Cluster 1.10 - Success of Labor Migration:** In order to ensure the success of the legal channel of labor migration, the conditions conducive for irregular migration should be discontinued. Both labor sending and receiving countries should streamline their migration procedures with low cost, less bureaucracy, and better coordination at all levels, internally and externally. In the labor receiving country, protection of the rights of migrant workers, strict enforcement of laws against illegal employment, provision of legal and welfare services, facilitation of the integration of migrant workers in the host society, access to financial services, and support the formation of trade union/association/club are the main ingredients for promoting orderly legal labor migration.

#### 5.2.1.2 Cluster #1-B - Donors and International Agencies' Involvement

Donors need to work together to develop coherent approaches to increase the positive benefits of migration and, therefore, to focus on opportunities for poor migrants to address their abject poverty situation. They can play an important role through facilitating the exchange of best practices in this complex area and connect national partners to global knowledge.

In this part of the study report, the PhD candidate is presenting shortly some of key donors and their policy positions with regard to migration and development. Some of those donors are present in Cambodia and could have a remarkable impact on influencing the debate and actions which would lead to the positive effects of international migration:

- **IOM (International Organization for Migration)** approaches the linkages between migration and development from the perspective that international migration, if properly

managed, can contribute to the growth and prosperity of Cambodia as an origin country and the countries of destination, as well as benefit migrants themselves.

- **DFID (Department for International Development)** of the British Embassy in Cambodia's priorities for remittances are to improve access, transparency and choice for remittance senders and recipients, with low costs and greater security. In their new policy paper on migration and development, "Moving Out of Poverty: Making Migration Work Better for Poor People," DFID sets its position on how they will deal with the effects of migration in their poverty reduction programs and working with partners on national and international levels.
- **USAID (United States Agency International Development)** will engage in programmatic activities designed to amplify the development impacts of remittances. Among different activities, USAID will concentrate its thrust on studying the possibilities on how Diasporas communities can contribute to the development in their homelands. The Agency has identified six strategic Diaspora engagement mechanisms which could be eventually used for relation between Cambodian government and its Diasporas.
- **AFD (Agence Française de Développement)** focus its activities on migrations and migrant remittances.

## **B. Protection and Empowerment**

### **5.2.1.3 Cluster #1 – C: Specific Recommendations**

The following recommendations are concocted, based on the findings of the study:

- **Introduce a program to monitor pre-departure preparation and the proper use of remittances to avoid the barriers that hinder the development of migrant families:** To implement an effective and efficient monitoring program, it is highly necessary to appoint responsible and

responsive government officers from MOLVT depending on the scale of migrants in each area. They need to communicate with community leaders to identify the prospective migrants. Identification of such migrants will help to lead them to banks to get loans if they have any financial difficulties, since borrowing money from moneylenders and repaying debt with high interest are major obstacles that hinder the economic benefits of migration. Therefore, it is necessary to probe the reasons, if these migrants prefer to get loans from private money lenders, and take suitable actions to encourage them to use banking services, and minimize the difficulties that they encounter in communicating with banks, if any. In addition, there is a need to encourage spouses to use banking services while they are abroad and upon their return. The inadequate savings, inability to invest in productive ways, and the lack of money management of these migrants and their spouses are perceived as important barriers that need special attention. This program will help to reduce pre-departure costs and the use of the money earned abroad in productive ways to development of their families.

- **Introduce holistic psycho-social counseling programs to migrants and to their family members, especially for their husbands and children to alleviate the problems arising due to the separation:** As a result of migration, many of the migrants take the decision making power, especially in handling financial matters, of the family. This has resulted in diminishing the absolute decision making power of the husbands. In addition, the worsening economic situation of the families, marriage breakdowns, changes

in the behavior of children, use of alcohol and drugs by husbands and children, early marriages of children, children's ill health, school dropouts, and child abuse are some of the negative repercussions palpably identified. Hence, these negative effects of migration need to be taken into the equation in developing programs.

- **Strengthen the programs that are introduced to search the grievances of migrants while working abroad and take immediate action to solve their problems or bring them back to Cambodia if the problems are difficult to solve:** The Cambodian government should take appropriate measures to resolve the problems faced by the migrants at the destination through the established country missions. However, there is a need of unquestionable commitment of the responsible government officials in these difficult situations. It is also important to consider the possibility of return visits midway of the contract.
- **Develop quick communication facilities to facilitate women to have intimate contacts with family members especially with children:** The majority of migrant domestic worker families still do not use modern communication methods. Communication through the post is not a quick way to have contacts with families. They do not own computers, and their computer literacy is very low. It is necessary for all of these to have at least a land phone. Quick communication with family members will help to reduce the emotional strains of the migrant women as well as their husbands, children, and elderly persons.

- **Technical support to provincial passport offices** to decentralize migration and national identification document services for prospective and returned migrants.
- **Explore approaches for disseminating information** about safe and legal migration processes and adjust target population access strategy to equally engage men and women.
- **Empower and support Commune Council leaders** in source communities to disseminate safe migration information and set up migrant information centers for aspirant migrants and families left behind.

### **5.2.2 Priority Cluster #2: Self-Income Generation Technical Assistance (SIGTA)**

This part of Cluster Recommendations deals with Self-Income Generation Technical Assistance, aimed to improve the economic potential and the social well-being of Cambodian citizens. Central to these recommendations is the competence to improve living standards and to enhance the capacity of people to produce goods and services — that is, to generate income. Income-Generating Programs and activities, therefore, must be promoted and implemented in the context of overall national and community developments in juxtaposition to individual needs in order to reduce dependency on international labor migration.

- **Cluster 2.1: Initiate programs to integrate migrant women to productive economic activities upon their return with the help of MOLVT:** Migrant families have low income, and therefore, they depend on migrants' earnings abroad. A large portion of the money earned by them is spent on daily consumption although there is a marked improvement in the household income as a result of migration. This stride

in household income indicates the possibility of allocating a portion of the income on productive investment. This program will help the migrant to avoid repeat migration and not to be detached from the family by staying at home.

- **Cluster 2.2: Revise the existing training programs to meet the requirements of the migrants, and introduce a new program for returned migrants:** Current programs being carried out by IOM and MOLVT necessitate to be revised and strengthened using the responses of the returned migrants on the effectiveness of the program as many of the returned migrants floated the need for further training. A special training has to be organized for the husbands or the partner left behind of migrants and the family members who are responsible for childrearing and other household activities about proper childcare practices and money or resource management. Follow-through training is required upon their return for a successful reintegration into the household economy. Saving money, productive investments, money management, and enabling or enriching family relationships are some of the themes to be incorporated in the capacity enhancement program.
- **Cluster 2.3: Provide child care arrangements at an institutional level for those who do not have proper childcare at the family level:** Provision of proper childcare development is an alarming crying issue of the migration of women as a loud wake-up call for child protection service at the community level. Such has emerged from this study, and one specific concern of which could be the sexually abused children. Children arrangements at the institutional level have to be sine qua non for the migrant families, and many prefer to have this support with educational facilities. It is an ardent need to monitor childcare arrangements provided by the

migrants in their absence and to observe how the arrangements operate transparently, although the majority of the migrant families reported that their children lived happily with their caregivers.

- **Cluster 2.4: Introduce programs to provide vocational training to females enabling them to engage in self-employment activities since the majority of the migrant women are of lower educational levels:** Aside from being involved in economic activities, such as agricultural work for pay, unpaid family work, or domestic work in Cambodia for less pay compared to the salary of foreign countries, potential migrants do not have any other alternative to earn but going overseas for “greener pasture.” The majority of returned migrants did not work before migration and they want to stay-foot at home if they can find money for the family’s survival. Since these migrants are of lower level education, vocational training for those women who need to be involved in economic activities should be a must, if only to empower, educate and emancipate them for productivity.

### **5.2.3 Priority Cluster #3: Education for Sustainable Development (ESD)**

**Sustainability Education (SE), Education for Sustainability (EfS), and Education for Sustainable Development (ESD)** are interchangeable terms describing the practice of teaching for sustainability. Integrating key sustainable development issues into teaching and learning is important in order to increase the capacity of migrant workers for sustainable development. It requires participatory teaching and adult learning methods that motivate, equip and empower learners to change their behaviors and take action for sustainable development. ESD, consequently, intensifies experiential competencies, like critical thinking, imagining future scenarios, problem solving and making educated decisions in a collaborative way.



The aspiration of sustainable development requires us to resolve common problems and tensions and to recognize new horizons. Economic growth and the creation of wealth have reduced global poverty rates, but vulnerability, inequality, exclusion and violence have increased within and across societies throughout the world

Education must find ways of responding to such challenges, taking into account multiple worldviews and alternative knowledge systems as well as new frontiers in science and technology, such as: the advances in neurosciences and the developments in digital technology. Rethinking the purpose of education and the organization of learning has never been more urgent and transformative. The following are recommended under this Priority Cluster:

- **Cluster 3.1: Empower the leadership to the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports to initiate programs to observe and monitor the standards of educational performance and behavioral issues of children left behind by the migrant women:** Providing their children with a better and brighter future is one of the primordial reasons why most women migrate for work abroad. Yet, education, social and economic mobility of children are heavily burdened in the absence of an adequate caring and educationally supportive home environment for children. The findings of this study clearly show the need for additional support in the education of children. Thus, it becomes contingent to introduce awareness programs on the specific emotional consequences of parental absence in schools, as they can be very helpful to children to address their emotional strains due to maternal absence. In addition, children of migrants can benefit from teachers and counselors who are aware of the issues related to parental absence because of migration. To initiate such

programs, it is possible to obtain support from faith-based service affiliations to develop spiritual formation.

- **Cluster 3.2: Identify the skills of those children who do not continue their education due to financial or other problems and develop their skills enabling them to be absorbed by the national labor budget:** If the government is planning to ban or restrict female migration, it must not be an immediate action since it is likely to lead to the above mentioned problems. Therefore, the skills of a younger generation can be developed, enabling them to enter the labor force as employed persons. As the study found, the children of migrant families also support their families financially, and, therefore, the possibility of children in engaging in economic activities will help to reduce the financial mishap of families.

### **C. Labor Migration for Development**

#### **5.2.4 Priority Cluster #4: Job Creation Programs at Home (JCPH)**

The role of productive employment in reducing poverty is by now widely recognized. But, the experience of many developing countries seems to indicate that in recent years, the rate of employment growth has been inadequate vis-à-vis the growth of labor force and that the amount of employment generated as a result of given output growth has been declining. This phenomenon naturally calls for special efforts and programs to create employment. Apart from the general inadequacy of employment growth, Cambodia faces emergencies of various kinds (e.g. severe droughts, floods and other natural disasters, sharp seasonal decline in labor demand, severe economic downturns, etc.) that warrant interventions in the labor market in the form of employment creation programs. While some programs of job creation are aimed purely at providing safety nets to the poor, there are others which are more integrated into the

development programs of Cambodia, and are designed not only as safety nets, but can also be job creation programs at home. The following recommendations are made:

- **Cluster 4.1: Support relevant government ministries and departments** to implement simple, affordable and efficient procedures for obtaining necessary travel and work documents for regular migration, such as passports, visas and work permits that protect migrants and reduce the vulnerabilities that lead to exploitation and trafficking.
- **Cluster 4.2: Promote economic development and investment** in skills development and job opportunities in provincial areas experiencing high outward migration.
- **Cluster 4.3: Support the National Employment Agency (NEA)** and provincial job centers to provide outreach information linking returning migrants with employers and potential employment.
- **Cluster 4.4: Develop private partnerships and apprenticeship programs** for returned migrants and families to work within garment, manufacturing, agriculture and tourism industries in Cambodia.
- **Cluster 4.5: Regulate, monitor and promote equal pay** among male and female low-skilled workers, greater employment opportunities for females, and equal access to health care services in Cambodia.
- **Cluster 4.6: Scale up projects for training workers:** For various reasons including the opportunity cost, many laid-off workers cannot participate in the training program, although the money they would receive would be enough to support them. This suggests that many are also supporting their families. Building the capacity of

workers is a worthwhile investment, while the scholarships offer trainees the basic opportunity needed to survive during recessionary times. It seems, however, that the scaling of project for migrant workers needs to increase its incentives to attract more laid-off workers, who are still hoping to get another job soon to support their families. However, most importantly, this kind of project should be scaled up and expanded to many provinces to offer the opportunities for all people in need of skills training. This would raise the competitiveness of Cambodia and make it a more attractive investment destination for FDI.

### **5.2.5 Priority Cluster #5: Sustainable Economic Development (SED)**

Sustainable economic growth is economic development that attempts to satisfy the needs of humans but in a manner that sustains natural resources and the environment for future generations. An economy, like Cambodia, functions in the ecosystem. The ecosystem provides the factors of production that fuels economic growth: land, natural resources, labor, and capital (which is created by labor and natural resources). Sustainable economic growth is managing these resources cost effectively and in best possible way that they will not be depleted and will remain available for future generations. The following recommendations are hereby distilled and offered to sustain economic development of the country:

- **Cluster 5.1: Improve equal access to education** for girls to improve their employment opportunities later on.
- **Cluster 5.2: Improve the livelihoods and wellbeing of the people**, particularly of women and children of affected groups who are victims of the economic downturn, so that the government should consider implementing the following measures:
  - i. A three-pronged approach is recommended in response to the crisis:

- a) Scaling-up existing sectoral interventions that have demonstrated success in addressing food insecurity, malnutrition, school dropout, child labor etc. and other human consequences of a crisis situation, e.g. feeding programs for infants and young children, micronutrient supplementation programs, etc. (including in-home fortification for young children), school feeding etc.;
  - b) Developing innovative programs to prevent and address the effects of the crisis on nutrition, physical health, growth monitoring and development, cognitive and affective health, school attendance etc., particularly on vulnerable and poor groups, through social protection-related interventions; and
  - c) Reinforcing provision of basic social services (increasing coverage, utilization, quality, and equity), including care services.
- ii. A critical role is played by social protection and child-sensitive policy instruments, including cash transfers to address child survival, food transfers to families, fee waivers for basic services and birthing grants to mothers, etc. Addressing the employment and incomes of families through workfare programs and vocational training is also indispensable in preventing the negative effects on children. Vulnerable and poor groups among these deserve special attention and extra support to help bridge gaps and risks of inequities. In developing a social protection system in Cambodia, the IDPoor (identification of poor households) methodology would need to be expanded and tested for urban areas and for 'vulnerable' rather than only 'currently poor' groups, as a way of embracing a transformative and preventative approach.

- iii. The Government's Emergency Food Assistance Project (US\$40 million), which has been alleviating the negative impact of the high food prices, as well as the effects of the economic downturn on poor households. The component to provide smallholders with quality rice seed and fertilizers will not only help them to increase yield in the immediate future but also will acquaint them with quality inputs that can have lasting effects on local productivity and livelihood improvement if they continue to demand them from the market. It is important that the assistance is not just one-off. There is already a government institution that is running smoothly.
- iv. Food-for-work program (led by the World Food Program for decades): the RGC provides 2,000 tons of rice annually to the WFP to be redistributed to vulnerable groups through its food-for-work program. Expansion of the food and/or cash for work programs will not only provide essential basic goods to the poor but will also help to build basic infrastructure that provides further benefits. Gender consideration should be taken into account in project formulation and implementation.
- v. School feeding and scholarships for poor communities and households also call for expansion to improve their coverage. The school-feeding program currently reaches about 500,000 students, while the targeted scholarship program reached almost 29,000 students on the average, each year. The food rations program for these households provides supplementary food and nutrition for mothers and children. Scaling up these programs will provide far-reaching benefits for poor households and their children, who are likely to be the female

children who tend to drop out first when their families face hardship or simply lack the income to make a living. Gender should be taken into account in project formulations.

- **Cluster 5.3: Increase funding for the Department of Agriculture Extension of MAFF** to hire more extension workers who were formerly migrant workers. This costs only a couple of million dollars per annum, but would benefit former migrant workers to become smallholders in terms of improved techniques in farming and, therefore, productivity. The current agricultural extension service can cover only a small number of villages due to lack of staff and means. It is a fiscal space which the RGC could consider expanding so that those smallholder farmers that migrated to some other countries will stay and pursue on-farm employment. The benefits are for both the short and the long term.
- **Cluster 5.4: Build more roads, bridges, health centers, community markets and schools** using as much former migrant workers as possible. More effective spending on infrastructure should be a high priority as it will not only expand economic activities now but also improve the foundations of economic competitiveness and growth, as well as attract migrant workers to stay in the countryside. Whenever feasible and viable, techniques that employ more migrant labor should be considered in infrastructure projects.

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IJSER

## Appendices

### Appendix A1: Cover Letter for the Survey on Migrant Workers

#### THE IMPACT OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION ON SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN CAMBODIA

Dear Migrant Worker,

I am a **Prof. Mak Vann**, a Doctor of Philosophy student preparing a dissertation study on “*The Impact of International Migration on Social and Economic Development in Cambodia*” under the direction of Dr. Renato M. Lee, DBA, PhD, adviser and major professor of the Graduate School of Management and Economics (GSME) of the Paññāsāstra University of Cambodia (PUC).

I am requesting your participation, which will involve answering the questions in the attached survey questionnaire, which will take about 45 to 60 minutes of your time. You are being requested to be involved and participate in this survey to provide some information about yourself, as well as your experiences and perceptions on your migration to another country like Thailand, Malaysia, or South Korea. If at any time you discontinue the survey, your results will be discarded. The attached questionnaire is anonymous. The results of the study may be published but your name will not be known. Although there may be no direct benefit to you and your family, the possible benefit of the study is to provide recommendations to the Royal Government on some policy improvements in the area of international labor migration.

If you have any questions concerning this research study, please call my dissertation adviser, **Dr. Renato M. Lee** at 099629460 or email him at [renatoleekh@gmail.com](mailto:renatoleekh@gmail.com). You may also contact me at my phone number 012710899 or email me at [makvann@puc.edu.kh](mailto:makvann@puc.edu.kh).

You must be 18 years old or older to participate. Return of the questionnaire will be considered your consent to participate.

Thank you.

Sincerely,  
Mak Vann  
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Paññāsāstra University of Cambodia (PUC)  
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## Appendix A2: Survey Questionnaire for Migrant Workers



### Questionnaire (សំណួរស្រង់មតិ)

This survey is conducted to gather information in order to pinpoint and recognize the purpose of migration, challenges and issues of emigrants while being employed in Malaysia. This project is also aimed to find the reasons of their returning as well as finding solutions and comments for better well-being of all international migrant workers in Malaysia. All information received will be kept confidential for all respondents, and will be used only for the purpose which stated above. Thank you for your value time with us.

(ការស្រង់មតិនេះគឺធ្វើឡើងដើម្បីប្រមូលព័ត៌មានក្នុងគោលបំណងដើម្បីចង្អុលបង្ហាញ និងទទួលស្គាល់ពីគោលបំណងនៃការ ធ្វើចំណាកស្រុក បញ្ហាប្រឈម និងឧបសគ្គរបស់ជនអន្តោប្រវេសន៍ អំឡុងពេលធ្វើការនៅប្រទេសម៉ាឡេស៊ី។ ការសិក្សានេះក៏ មានគោលបំណងស្វែងរកមូលហេតុនៃការ វិលត្រលប់មកវិញក៏ដូចជាការស្វែងរកដំណោះស្រាយ ពីមតិយោបល់ និង សំណូមពរ របស់ជនអន្តោប្រវេសន៍ធ្វើការនៅប្រទេសម៉ាឡេស៊ី។ ព័ត៌មានដែលទទួលបានទាំងអស់នឹងរក្សាជាសំងាត់ចំពោះ អ្នកដែល ត្រូវបានធ្វើការសម្ភាសន៍ និងប្រើសំរាប់តែគោលបំណងដែលបានបញ្ជាក់ពីខាងលើប៉ុណ្ណោះ។ សូមអរគុណចំពោះ ការចំណាយ ពេលវេលាដ៏មានតម្លៃរបស់អ្នក។)

#### I. Socio-demographic background (ជីវប្រវត្តិ)

Please check “✓” your answer in the boxes provided below: (សូមគូស“✓” ក្នុងប្រអប់ចម្លើយដែលផ្តល់ឲ្យខាងក្រោម៖)

- Are you male or female? (តើអ្នកជាបុរសឬស្ត្រី?)  
 Male (បុរស)       Female (ស្ត្រី)
- How old are you? (តើអ្នកមានអាយុប៉ុន្មាន?)  
 Under 20 years old (ក្រោម២០ឆ្នាំ)     20-25 years old (២០-២៥ឆ្នាំ)  
 26-30 years old (២៦-៣០ឆ្នាំ)       31 years old up (លើស៣១ឆ្នាំ)
- What is the highest level of education you attained? (តើអ្នកទទួលបានការសិក្សាខ្ពស់បំផុតត្រឹមណា?)

- None (គ្មាន)                      Primary School (G1-G6) (បឋមសិក្សា)
- Secondary School (G7-G9) (អនុវិទ្យាល័យ)                      High School (G10-G12) (វិទ្យាល័យ)
- University (សកលវិទ្យាល័យ)                      Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត)

4. What is your marital status? (តើអ្នកមានឋានៈជាអ្វី?)
  - Single (នៅលីវ)                      Married (រៀបការ)                      Widowed (ពោះម៉ាយ)
  - Divorced/ Live separately (លែងលះ)

“If Single, please skip Q5” (ប្រសិនបើនៅលីវ សូមលែងសំណួរទី៥)
5. How many children do you have? (តើអ្នកមានកូនប៉ុន្មាន?)
  - Zero (គ្មាន)                      One –Two (១ ឬ ២)                      Three –Four (៣ ឬ ៤)                      Five up (ច្រើនជាង៥នាក់)
6. In your household, how many members do you have?(តើក្នុងគ្រួសាររបស់អ្នកមានសមាជិកប៉ុន្មាននាក់?)
  - Two (២នាក់)                      Three (៣នាក់)                      Four (៤នាក់)                      Five up (ច្រើនជាង៥នាក់)
7. What is your source of income before going to Malaysia? (តើអ្នកមានមុខរបរអ្វីមុនទៅធ្វើការនៅម៉ាឡេស៊ី?)
  - Entrepreneur (អ្នកជំនួញ)                      Ordinary Wage Worker (អ្នកធ្វើការស៊ីឈ្នួល)
  - Unemployed (គ្មានការងារ)                      Others (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត)

**II. Migration Purpose** (គោលបំណងនៃការធ្វើចំណាកស្រុក)

8. Who motivated you to work in Malaysia? (តើនរណាលើកទឹកចិត្តអ្នកឲ្យទៅធ្វើការនៅម៉ាឡេស៊ី?)
  - Family (គ្រួសារ)                      Yourself (ខ្លួនឯង)                      Relative (សាច់ញាតិ)
  - Friend (មិត្តភក្តិ)                      Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)
9. What is the reason for your migration to work in Malaysia? (តើមានមូលហេតុអ្វីធ្វើឲ្យអ្នកទៅធ្វើការនៅម៉ាឡេស៊ី?)
  - Earn higher income (រកប្រាក់ចំណូលបានខ្ពស់)                      Find better opportunities for the family (រកឱកាសល្អសំរាប់គ្រួសារ)                      Get additional Skills (ទទួលបានជំនាញថ្មី)
  - Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

**III. Process of Migration** (ដំណើរការនៃការធ្វើចំណាកស្រុក)

10. How did you apply for migration to another country? (តើអ្នកដាក់ពាក្យក្នុងការធ្វើចំណាកស្រុកដោយរបៀបណា?)
  - Legal placement agency (ភ្នាក់ងារស្របច្បាប់)                      Brokers (ឈ្មួញកណ្តាល)
  - Through MOLVT (ក្រសួងការងារនិងបណ្តុះបណ្តាលវិជ្ជាជីវៈ)                      Other.....(ផ្សេងទៀត)

11. How much did you spend for employment placement fee? (តើអ្នកចំណាយប្រាក់ប៉ុន្មានក្នុងការមានការងារធ្វើ?)

- Less than \$1000 (តិចជាង \$1000)       between \$1000-2000(ចន្លោះពី \$1000-2000)
- between \$2000-3000(ចន្លោះពី\$2000-3000)       Over \$3000 (ច្រើនជាង\$3000)

12. What are steps did you follow in applying for a job in Malaysia? (តើមានជំណាក់កាលអ្វីខ្លះដែលអ្នកត្រូវធ្វើក្នុងការដាក់ពាក្យទៅធ្វើការនៅម៉ាឡេស៊ី?)

- Took Skills/Writing Exams (រៀនជំនាញ/ ប្រលងសរសេរ)       Underwent Knowledge Interview(សម្ភាសន៍)       Salary Negotiation (ការចរចាប្រាក់ខែ)
- Work Orientation(ការណែនាំក្នុងការធ្វើការ)       Others, please specify.....(ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

**IV. Challenges while working in Malaysia(បញ្ហាប្រឈមពេលធ្វើការនៅម៉ាឡេស៊ី)**

13. What is your specific job assignment in Malaysia? (តើអ្នកធ្វើការផ្នែកអ្វីនៅម៉ាឡេស៊ី?)

- Agriculture activities (ផ្នែកកសិកម្ម)       Business/Hotel operation (ផ្នែកពាណិជ្ជកម្ម/សណ្ឋាគារ)
- Industrial/Manufacturing activities (ផ្នែកឧស្សាហកម្ម)
- Other(please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

Is your salary paid on time? (តើប្រាក់ខែអ្នកបើកទៀងពេលឬទេ?)

- Yes (បាទ/ចាស)       No (ទេ)

14. If No, what are the reasons why you are paid late? (ប្រសិនបើទេ តើមានមូលហេតុអ្វីបានជាបើកប្រាក់ខែយឺត?)

15. How many hours do you work per day? (តើអ្នកធ្វើការប៉ុន្មានម៉ោងក្នុងមួយថ្ងៃ?)

- Less than 8 hours (តិចជាង ៨ម៉ោង)       8 hours (៨ម៉ោង)
- Over 8 hours (ច្រើនជាង ៨ម៉ោង)

16. If you work over 8 hours per day, are you paid for overtime? (ប្រសិនបើធ្វើការលើស៨ម៉ោងតើអ្នកបានទទួលប្រាក់ បន្ថែមឬទេ?)

- Yes (បាទ/ចាស)       No (ទេ)

17. Do you have health insurance? (តើអ្នកមានធានារ៉ាប់រងសុខភាពឬទេ?)

- Yes (បាទ/ចាស)       No (ទេ)

18. If No, how do you pay for your medical expenses when getting sick? (ប្រសិនបើគ្មាន តើអ្នកចំណាយលើការព្យាបាល ដូចម្តេចពេលអ្នកឈឺ?)

19. Do you have accident insurance, while on the job? (តើអ្នកមានធានារ៉ាប់រងគ្រោះថ្នាក់ ពេលធ្វើការឬទេ?)

- Yes (បាទ/ចាស)       No (ទេ)

20. If No, what are the responsibilities of your employer when you have an accident?  
(ប្រសិនបើគ្មាន តើអ្នកទទួលបានជំនួយអ្វីខ្លះពីថៅកែរបស់អ្នក ? )

21. Have you ever sent money to your family? (តើអ្នកធ្លាប់ផ្ញើលុយទៅក្រុមគ្រួសារអ្នកឬទេ ? )

Yes (បាទ/ចាស)  No “If No please skip to Q27” (ទេ បើទេសូមរំលងទៅសំណួរទី ២៧)

22. How often do you send money to your family? (តើអ្នកផ្ញើលុយទៅក្រុមគ្រួសារញឹកញាប់ឬទេ ? )

Monthly (រៀងរាល់ខែ)  Quarterly (៣ខែម្តង)  Annually (រៀងរាល់ឆ្នាំ)  
 Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

23. How do you send money to your family? (តើអ្នកផ្ញើលុយទៅក្រុមគ្រួសារអ្នកដោយរបៀបណា ? )

Bank (ធនាគារ)  Money Transfer Operator (ភ្នាក់ងារផ្ញើលុយ)  
 Friends (មិត្តភក្តិ)  Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

24. How much do you send to your family on the average? (តើអ្នកផ្ញើលុយទៅផ្ទះជាមធ្យមប៉ុន្មាន ? )

Less than \$500 (តិចជាង\$500)  between \$500-1000 (ចន្លោះ\$500-1000)  
 between \$1000-1500 (ចន្លោះ\$1000-1500)  Over \$1500 (ច្រើនជាង\$1500)

25. What does your family use the money for? (Please put the rank to each most purpose;  
1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> ..... ) (តើគ្រួសារអ្នកយកលុយទៅប្រើប្រាស់ធ្វើអ្វីខ្លះ ? ) (សូមដាក់លេខរៀងដែលជាគោលបំណង  
សំខាន់)

- Daily household consumption: .....(ការប្រើប្រាស់ជាប្រចាំថ្ងៃ.....)
- Healthcare: ..... (សុខភាព.....)
- Education: ..... (ការសិក្សា.....)
- Housing: ..... (ផ្ទះសំបែង.....)
- Repay the debt: ..... (សងបំណុល.....)
- Business Activities: ..... (ធ្វើការរកស៊ី.....)
- Ceremony (Wedding, holiday, funeral...etc..) (ពិធីបុណ្យផ្សេងៗ.....)
- Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

26. Who do you live with? (តើអ្នករស់នៅជាមួយអ្នកណា ? )

Living alone (នៅម្នាក់ឯង)  Living with friends (នៅជាមួយមិត្តភក្តិ)  Company  
accommodation (នៅកន្លែងធ្វើការ)  Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូម  
បញ្ជាក់.....)

27. Did you feel homesick during your initial days in Malaysia? (តើអ្នកមានអារម្មណ៍នឹកផ្ទះពេល  
ទៅម៉ាឡេស៊ីជាលើក ដំបូងឬទេ ? )

Yes (បាទ/ចាស)  No(ទេ)

28. If you felt homesick during your initial days, how did you cope with homesickness?  
(តើអ្នកធ្វើដូចម្តេច បើសិនជាអ្នកនឹកផ្ទះ ? )

29. What do you usually do during spare time after office hours?



( តើអ្នកចូលចិត្តធ្វើអ្វី បន្ទាប់ពីម៉ោងធ្វើការ ? )

30. Have you ever got abused emotionally and physically at work? ( តើអ្នកធ្លាប់ត្រូវគេបំពានផ្លូវចិត្ត ឬ ផ្លូវកាយពេល ធ្វើការឬទេ ? )

Yes ( បាទ/ចាស )  No “If No please skip to Q32” ( ទេ បើទេសូមរំលងទៅសំណួរទី ៣២ )

31. If yes, who abused you? (ប្រសិនបើមាន តើជានរណា ? )

Boss ( ចៅហ្វាយ )  Colleagues ( អ្នករួមការងារ )  Roommates ( អ្នករួមបន្ទប់ )

Others ( please, specify..... ) ( ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់..... )

32. What kind of abuse did you encounter while working in Malaysia? (តើអ្នកជួបប្រទះការបំពាន ដូចម្តេច ពេលធ្វើការនៅម៉ាឡេស៊ី ? )

Sexual harassment/assault ( បំពានផ្លូវភេទ )  Emotional Abuse ( បំពានផ្លូវអារម្មណ៍ )

Verbal Abuse ( បំពានតាមពាក្យសម្តី )  Others ( please, specify..... ) ( ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់..... )

33. What did you do after you were abused? (តើអ្នកធ្វើអ្វី បន្ទាប់ពីត្រូវគេបំពាន ? )

Reported to your supervisor ( រាយការណ៍ទៅថ្នាក់លើ )  Reported to Cambodia embassy in Malaysia ( រាយការណ៍ទៅទូតកម្ពុជាប្រចាំប្រទេសម៉ាឡេស៊ី )  Reported to local authorities ( រាយការណ៍ទៅអាជ្ញាធរប្រចាំតំបន់ )  Other ( please, specify..... ) ( ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់..... )

**V. Reasons for returning(មូលហេតុនៃការវិលត្រឡប់មកវិញ)**

34. Why did you return to Cambodia? (ហេតុអ្វីអ្នកត្រឡប់មកកម្ពុជាវិញ ? )

End working contract ( បញ្ចប់កុងត្រាការងារ )  Renew visa ( បន្តធ្វើ ទិដ្ឋាការថ្មី )  Forced back by authorities ( ចាប់បញ្ជូនមកវិញដោយអាជ្ញាធរ )  Others ( please, specify.... )

( ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់..... )

35. Do you plan to go back to work in Malaysia again?(តើអ្នកមានគំរោងត្រឡប់ទៅធ្វើការនៅម៉ាឡេស៊ី ម្តងទៀតឬទេ ? )

Yes ( បាទ/ចាស )  No ( ទេ )

36. Did your migration affect to your family’s livelihood conditions? (តើការធ្វើចំណាកស្រុករបស់ អ្នកជះឥទ្ធិពលដល់ ការរស់នៅរបស់ក្រុមគ្រួសារអ្នកឬទេ ? )

Yes ( បាទ/ចាស )  No ( ទេ )

37. What are the improvements in livelihood conditions of your family because of your migration in Malaysia? (តើមានការកើនឡើងអ្វីខ្លះក្នុងជីវភាពគ្រួសាររបស់អ្នក ពេលអ្នកទៅធ្វើការនៅ ម៉ាឡេស៊ី ? )

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.....  
**VI. Comments and Suggestions in Improving the Lives of Migrant Workers in Malaysia: (មតិ និង សំណូមពរ ក្នុងការធ្វើឲ្យមានភាពងាយស្រួលក្នុងការរស់នៅរបស់ពលករធ្វើការនៅប្រទេសម៉ាឡេស៊ី)**

Comments: (មតិយោបល់)

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Suggestions: (សំណូមពរ)

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IJSER



## Questionnaire (សំណួរស្រង់មតិ)

This survey is conducted to gather information in order to pinpoint and recognize the purpose of migration, challenges and issues of emigrants while being employed in South Korea. This project is also aimed to find the reasons of their returning as well as finding solutions and comments for better well-being of all international migrant workers in South Korea. All information received will be kept confidential for all respondents, and will be used only for the purpose which stated above. Thank you for your value time with us.

(ការស្រង់មតិនេះគឺធ្វើឡើងដើម្បីប្រមូលព័ត៌មានក្នុងគោលបំណងដើម្បីចង្អុលបង្ហាញ និងទទួលស្គាល់ពីគោលបំណងនៃការ ធ្វើចំណាកស្រុក បញ្ហាប្រឈម និងឧបសគ្គរបស់ជនអន្តោប្រវេសន៍ អំឡុងពេលធ្វើការនៅប្រទេសកូរ៉េ។ ការសិក្សានេះក៏ មានគោលបំណងស្វែងរកមូលហេតុនៃការ វិលត្រលប់មកវិញ ក៏ដូចជាការស្វែងរកដំណោះស្រាយ ពីមតិយោបល់ និង សំណូមពរ របស់ជនអន្តោប្រវេសន៍ធ្វើការនៅប្រទេសកូរ៉េ។ ព័ត៌មានដែលទទួលបានទាំងអស់នឹងរក្សាជាសំងាត់ចំពោះអ្នក ដែលត្រូវបានធ្វើការសម្ភាសន៍ និងប្រើសំរាប់តែគោលបំណងដែលបានបញ្ជាក់ពីខាងលើប៉ុណ្ណោះ។ សូមអរគុណចំពោះការ ចំណាយ ពេលវេលាដ៏មានតម្លៃរបស់អ្នក។)

### VII. Socio-demographic background (ជីវប្រវត្តិ)

Please check "✓" your answer in the boxes provided below: (សូមគូស"✓" ក្នុងប្រអប់ចម្លើយដែលផ្តល់ឲ្យខាងក្រោម៖)

38. Are you male or female? (តើអ្នកជាបុរសឬស្ត្រី?)

- Male (បុរស)       Female (ស្ត្រី)

39. How old are you? (តើអ្នកមានអាយុប៉ុន្មាន?)

- Under 20 years old (ក្រោម២០ឆ្នាំ)       20-25 years old (២០-២៥ឆ្នាំ)  
 26-30 years old (២៦-៣០ឆ្នាំ)       31 years old up (លើស៣១ឆ្នាំ)

40. What is the highest level of education you attained? (តើអ្នកទទួលបានការសិក្សាខ្ពស់បំផុតត្រឹមណា?)

- None (គ្មាន)                      Primary School (G1-G6) (បឋមសិក្សា)
- Secondary School (G7-G9) (អនុវិទ្យាល័យ)                      High School (G10-G12) (វិទ្យាល័យ)
- University (សកលវិទ្យាល័យ)                      Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

41. What is your marital status? (តើអ្នកមានឋានៈជាអ្វី?)

- Single (នៅលីវ)                      Married (រៀបការ)                      Widowed (ពោះម៉ាយ)
- Divorced/ Live separately (លែងលះ)

"If Single, please skip Q5" (ប្រសិនបើនៅលីវ សូមរំលងសំណួរទី៥)

42. How many children do you have? (តើអ្នកមានកូនប៉ុន្មាន?)

- Zero (គ្មាន)                      One –Two (១ ឬ ២)                      Three –Four (៣ ឬ ៤)
- Five up (ច្រើនជាង៥នាក់)

43. In your household, how many members do you have?(តើក្នុងគ្រួសាររបស់អ្នកមានសមាជិកប៉ុន្មាននាក់?)

- Two (២នាក់)                      Three (៣នាក់)                      Four (៤នាក់)                      Five up (ច្រើនជាង៥នាក់)

44. What is your source of income before going to South Korea? (តើអ្នកមានមុខរបរអ្វីមុនទៅធ្វើការនៅកូរ៉េ?)

- Entrepreneur (អ្នកជំនួញ)                      Ordinary Wage Worker (អ្នកធ្វើការស៊ីឈ្នួល)
- Unemployed (គ្មានការងារ)                      Others (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

**VIII. Migration Purpose** (គោលបំណងនៃការធ្វើចំណាកស្រុក)

45. Who motivated you to work in South Korea? (តើនរណាលើកទឹកចិត្តអ្នកឲ្យទៅធ្វើការនៅកូរ៉េ?)

- Family (គ្រួសារ)                      Yourself (ខ្លួនឯង)                      Relative (សាច់ញាតិ)
- Friend (មិត្តភក្តិ)                      Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

46. What is the reason for your migration to work in South Korea? (តើមានមូលហេតុអ្វីធ្វើឲ្យអ្នកទៅធ្វើការនៅកូរ៉េ?)

- Earn higher income (រកប្រាក់ចំណូលបានខ្ពស់)                      Find better opportunities for the family (រកឱកាសល្អសំរាប់គ្រួសារ)
- Get additional Skills (ទទួលបានជំនាញថ្មី)
- Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

**IX. Process of Migration** (ដំណើរការនៃការធ្វើចំណាកស្រុក)

47. How did you apply for migration to another country? (តើអ្នកដាក់ពាក្យក្នុងការធ្វើចំណាកស្រុកដោយរបៀបណា?)

- Legal placement agency (ភ្នាក់ងារស្របច្បាប់)     Brokers (ឈ្មួញកណ្តាល)
- Through MOLVT (ក្រសួងការងារនិងបណ្តុះបណ្តាលវិជ្ជាជីវៈ)     Other..... (ផ្សេងទៀត)

48. How much did you spend for employment placement fee? (តើអ្នកចំណាយប្រាក់ប៉ុន្មានក្នុងការមានការងារធ្វើ?)

- Less than \$1000 (តិចជាង \$1000)     between \$1000-2000(ចន្លោះពី \$1000-2000)
- between \$2000-3000(ចន្លោះពី\$2000-3000)     Over \$3000 (ច្រើនជាង\$3000)

49. What are steps did you follow in applying for a job in South Korea? (តើមានដំណាក់កាលអ្វីខ្លះដែលអ្នកត្រូវធ្វើក្នុងការដាក់ពាក្យទៅធ្វើការនៅកូរ៉េ?)

- Took Skills/Writing Exams (រៀនជំនាញ/ ប្រលងសរសេរ)     Underwent Knowledge Interview(សម្ភាសន៍)     Salary Negotiation (ការចរចាប្រាក់ខែ)
- Work Orientation(ការណែនាំក្នុងការធ្វើការ)     Others, please specify.....(ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

**X. Challenges while working in South Korea**(បញ្ហាប្រឈមពេលធ្វើការនៅកូរ៉េ)

50. What is your specific job assignment in South Korea? (តើអ្នកធ្វើការផ្នែកអ្វីនៅកូរ៉េ?)

- Agriculture activities (ផ្នែកកសិកម្ម)     Business/Hotel operation (ផ្នែកពាណិជ្ជកម្ម/សណ្ឋាគារ)
- Industrial/Manufacturing activities (ផ្នែកឧស្សាហកម្ម)
- Other(please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

Is your salary paid on time? (តើប្រាក់ខែអ្នកបើកទៀងពេលឬទេ?)

- Yes (បាទ/ចាស)     No (ទេ)

51. If No, what are the reasons why you are paid late? (ប្រសិនបើទេ តើមានមូលហេតុអ្វីបានជាបើកប្រាក់ខែយឺត?)

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52. How many hours do you work per day? (តើអ្នកធ្វើការប៉ុន្មានម៉ោងក្នុងមួយថ្ងៃ?)

- Less than 8 hours (តិចជាង ៨ម៉ោង)                       8 hours (៨ម៉ោង)
- Over 8 hours (ច្រើនជាង ៨ម៉ោង)

53. If you work over 8 hours per day, are you paid for overtime? (ប្រសិនបើធ្វើការលើស ៨ម៉ោងតើអ្នកបានទទួលប្រាក់ បន្ថែមឬទេ?)

Yes (បាទ/ចាស)                       No (ទេ)

.....

54. Do you have health insurance? (តើអ្នកមានធានារ៉ាប់រងសុខភាពឬទេ?)

Yes (បាទ/ចាស)                       No (ទេ)

55. If No, how do you pay for your medical expenses when getting sick? (ប្រសិនបើ គ្មាន តើអ្នកចំណាយលើការព្យាបាល ដូចម្តេចពេលអ្នកឈឺ?)

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56. Do you have accident insurance, while on the job? (តើអ្នកមានធានារ៉ាប់រងគ្រោះថ្នាក់ ពេលធ្វើការឬទេ?)

Yes (បាទ/ចាស)                       No (ទេ)

57. If No, what are the responsibilities of your employer when you have an accident? (ប្រសិនបើគ្មាន តើអ្នកទទួលបានជំនួយអ្វីខ្លះពីថៅកែរបស់អ្នក?)

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58. Have you ever sent money to your family? (តើអ្នកធ្លាប់ផ្ញើលុយទៅក្រុមគ្រួសារអ្នកឬទេ?)

Yes (បាទ/ចាស)                       No "If No please skip to Q27" (ទេ បើទេសូមរំលងទៅសំណួរទី ២៧)

59. How often do you send money to your family? (តើអ្នកផ្ញើលុយទៅក្រុមគ្រួសារញឹកញាប់ ឬទេ?)

Monthly (រៀងរាល់ខែ)                       Quarterly (៣ខែម្តង)                       Annually (រៀងរាល់ឆ្នាំ)

Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

60. How do you send money to your family? (តើអ្នកផ្ញើលុយទៅក្រុមគ្រួសារអ្នកដោយរបៀប ណា?)

Bank (ធនាគារ)                       Money Transfer Operator (ភ្នាក់ងារផ្ញើលុយ)

Friends (មិត្តភក្តិ)                       Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូម បញ្ជាក់.....)

61. How much do you send to your family on the average? (តើអ្នកផ្ញើលុយទៅផ្ទះជាមធ្យម ប៉ុន្មាន?)

- Less than \$500 (តិចជាង\$500)  between \$500-1000
- (ចន្លោះ:\$500-1000)  between \$1000-1500 (ចន្លោះ:\$1000-1500)
- Over \$1500 (ច្រើនជាង\$1500)

62. What does your family use the money for? (Please put the rank to each most purpose; 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> .....) (តើគ្រួសារអ្នកយកលុយទៅប្រើប្រាស់ធ្វើអ្វីខ្លះ?)(សូមដាក់លេខរៀងដែលជាគោលបំណង សំខាន់)

- Daily household consumption: .....(ការប្រើប្រាស់ជាប្រចាំថ្ងៃ.....)
- Healthcare: ..... (សុខភាព.....)
- Education: ..... (ការសិក្សា.....)
- Housing: ..... (ផ្ទះសំបែង.....)
- Repay the debt: ..... (សងបំណុល.....)
- Business Activities: ..... (ធ្វើការរកស៊ី.....)
- Ceremony (Wedding, holiday, funeral...etc..) (ពិធីបុណ្យផ្សេងៗ.....)
- Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

63. Who do you live with? (តើអ្នករស់នៅជាមួយអ្នកណា?)

- Living alone (នៅម្នាក់ឯង)  Living with friends (នៅជាមួយមិត្តភក្តិ)
- Company accommodation (នៅកន្លែងធ្វើការ)  Other (please, specify.....)
- (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

64. Did you feel homesick during your initial days in South Korea? (តើអ្នកមានអារម្មណ៍នឹកផ្ទះពេលទៅកូរ៉េជាលើក ដំបូងឬទេ?)

- Yes (បាទ/ចាស)  No (ទេ)

65. If you felt homesick during your initial days, how did you cope with homesickness?

(តើអ្នកធ្វើដូចម្តេច បើសិនជាអ្នកនឹកផ្ទះ?)

.....

.....

66. What do you usually do during spare time after office hours?

( តើអ្នកចូលចិត្តធ្វើអ្វី បន្ទាប់ពីម៉ោងធ្វើការ?)

.....

67. Have you ever got abused emotionally and physically at work? ( តើអ្នកធ្លាប់ត្រូវគេ  
បំពានផ្លូវចិត្ត ឬ ផ្លូវកាយពេល ធ្វើការឬទេ?)  
 Yes ( បាទ/ចាស)  No "If No please skip to Q32" ( ទេ បើទេសូមរំលងទៅ  
សំណួរទី ៣២)

68. If yes, who abused you? (ប្រសិនបើមាន តើជានរណា?)  
Boss ( ចៅហ្វាយ) Colleagues ( អ្នករួមការងារ) Roommates ( អ្នករួម  
បន្ទប់) Others (please, specify.....) ( ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

69. What kind of abuse did you encounter while working in South Korea? (តើអ្នកជួប  
ប្រទះការបំពានដូចម្តេច ពេលធ្វើការនៅកូរ៉េ?)  
Sexual harassment/assault ( បំពានផ្លូវភេទ) Emotional Abuse ( បំពានផ្លូវ  
អារម្មណ៍) Verbal Abuse ( បំពានតាមពាក្យសម្តី) Others (please,  
specify.....) ( ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

70. What did you do after you were abused? (តើអ្នកធ្វើអ្វី បន្ទាប់ពីត្រូវគេបំពាន?)  
Reported to your supervisor ( រាយការណ៍ទៅថ្នាក់លើ) Reported to Cambodia  
embassy in South Korea ( រាយការណ៍ទៅទូតកម្ពុជាប្រចាំប្រទេសកូរ៉េ) Reported to  
local authorities ( រាយការណ៍ទៅអាជ្ញាធរប្រចាំតំបន់) Other (please,  
specify.....) ( ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

**XI. Reasons for returning(មូលហេតុនៃការវិលត្រឡប់មកវិញ)**

71. Why did you return to Cambodia? (ហេតុអ្វីអ្នកត្រឡប់មកកម្ពុជាវិញ?)  
End working contract ( បញ្ចប់កុងត្រាការងារ) Renew visa ( បន្តធ្វើ ទិដ្ឋាការថ្មី)   
Forced back by authorities ( ចាប់បញ្ជូនមកវិញដោយអាជ្ញាធរ) Others (please,  
specify....)  
( ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

72. Do you plan to go back to work in South Korea again?(តើអ្នកមានគំរោងត្រឡប់ទៅធ្វើ  
ការនៅកូរ៉េម្តងទៀតឬទេ?)  
Yes (បាទ/ចាស) No (ទេ)

73. Did your migration affect to your family’s livelihood conditions? (តើការធ្វើចំណាក  
ស្រុករបស់អ្នកជះឥទ្ធិពលដល់ ការរស់នៅរបស់ក្រុមគ្រួសារអ្នកឬទេ?)  
Yes (បាទ/ចាស) No (ទេ)



74. What are the improvements in livelihood conditions of your family because of your migration in South Korea? (តើមានការកើនឡើងអ្វីខ្លះក្នុងជីវភាពគ្រួសាររបស់អ្នក ពេលអ្នកទៅធ្វើការនៅ កូរ៉េ?)

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XII. Comments and Suggestions in Improving the Lives of Migrant Workers in South Korea: (មតិ និង សំណូមពរ ក្នុងការធ្វើឲ្យមានភាពងាយស្រួលក្នុងការរស់នៅរបស់ពលករធ្វើការនៅប្រទេសកូរ៉េ)

Comments: (មតិយោបល់)

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Suggestions: (សំណូមពរ)

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## Questionnaire (សំណួរស្រង់មតិ)

This survey is conducted to gather information in order to pinpoint and recognize the purpose of migration, challenges and issues of emigrants while being employed in Thailand. This project is also aimed to find the reasons of their returning as well as finding solutions and comments for better well-being of all international migrant workers in Thailand. All information received will be kept confidential for all respondents, and will be used only for the purpose which stated above. Thank you for your value time with us.

(ការស្រង់មតិនេះគឺធ្វើឡើងដើម្បីប្រមូលព័ត៌មានក្នុងគោលបំណងដើម្បីចង្អុលបង្ហាញ និងទទួលស្គាល់ពីគោលបំណងនៃការ ធ្វើចំណាកស្រុក បញ្ហាប្រឈម និងឧបសគ្គរបស់ជនអន្តោប្រវេសន៍ អំឡុងពេលធ្វើការនៅប្រទេសថៃ។ ការសិក្សានេះក៏ មានគោលបំណងស្វែងរកមូលហេតុនៃការ វិលត្រលប់មកវិញ ក៏ដូចជាការស្វែងរកដំណោះស្រាយ ពីមតិយោបល់ និងសំណូមពរ របស់ជនអន្តោប្រវេសន៍ធ្វើការនៅប្រទេសថៃ។ ព័ត៌មានដែលទទួលបានទាំងអស់នឹងរក្សាជាសំងាត់ចំពោះអ្នកដែល ត្រូវបានធ្វើការសម្ភាសន៍ និងប្រើសំរាប់តែគោលបំណងដែលបានបញ្ជាក់ពីខាងលើប៉ុណ្ណោះ។ សូមអរគុណចំពោះការចំណាយ ពេលវេលាដ៏មានតម្លៃរបស់អ្នក។)

### XIII. Socio-demographic background (ជីវប្រវត្តិ)

Please check "✓" your answer in the boxes provided below: (សូមគូស"✓" ក្នុងប្រអប់ ចម្លើយដែលផ្តល់ឲ្យខាងក្រោម៖)

75. Are you male or female? (តើអ្នកជាបុរសឬស្ត្រី?)

- Male (បុរស)       Female (ស្ត្រី)

76. How old are you? (តើអ្នកមានអាយុប៉ុន្មាន?)

- Under 20 years old (ក្រោម២០ឆ្នាំ)     20-25 years old (២០-២៥ឆ្នាំ)
- 26-30 years old (២៦-៣០ឆ្នាំ)     31 years old up (លើស៣១ឆ្នាំ)

77. What is the highest level of education you attained? (តើអ្នកទទួលបានការសិក្សាខ្ពស់បំផុតត្រឹមណា?)

- None (គ្មាន)                       Primary School (G1-G6) (បឋមសិក្សា)
- Secondary School (G7-G9) (អនុវិទ្យាល័យ)                       High School (G10-G12) (វិទ្យាល័យ)
- University (សកលវិទ្យាល័យ)                       Other  
(please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

78. What is your marital status? (តើអ្នកមានឋានៈជាអ្វី?)

- Single (នៅលីវ)                       Married (រៀបការ)                       Widowed (ពោះម៉ាយ)
- Divorced/ Live separately (លែងលះ)

"If Single, please skip Q5" (ប្រសិនបើនៅលីវ សូមរំលងសំណួរទី៥)

79. How many children do you have? (តើអ្នកមានកូនប៉ុន្មាន?)

- Zero (គ្មាន)                       One –Two (១ ឬ ២)                       Three –Four (៣ ឬ ៤)
- Five up (ច្រើនជាង៥នាក់)

80. In your household, how many members do you have?(តើក្នុងគ្រួសាររបស់អ្នកមានសមាជិកប៉ុន្មាននាក់?)

- Two (២នាក់)     Three (៣នាក់)     Four (៤នាក់)     Five up (ច្រើនជាង៥នាក់)

81. What is your source of income before going to Thailand? (តើអ្នកមានមុខរបរអ្វីមុនទៅធ្វើការនៅថៃ?)

- Entrepreneur (អ្នកជំនួញ)                       Ordinary Wage Worker (អ្នកធ្វើការស៊ីលឿយ)
- Unemployed (គ្មានការងារ)                       Others (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

**XIV. Migration Purpose** (គោលបំណងនៃការធ្វើចំណាកស្រុក)

82. Who motivated you to work in Thailand? (តើនរណាលើកទឹកចិត្តអ្នកឲ្យទៅធ្វើការនៅថៃ?)

- Family (គ្រួសារ)                       Yourself (ខ្លួនឯង)                       Relative (សាច់ញាតិ)
- Friend (មិត្តភក្តិ)                       Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

83. What is the reason for your migration to work in Thailand? (តើមានមូលហេតុអ្វីធ្វើឲ្យអ្នកទៅធ្វើការនៅថៃ?)
- Earn higher income (រកប្រាក់ចំណូលបានខ្ពស់)       Find better opportunities for the family (រកឱកាសល្អសំរាប់គ្រួសារ)
  - Get additional Skills (ទទួលបានជំនាញថ្មី)
  - Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

**XV. Process of Migration** (ដំណើរការនៃការធ្វើចំណាកស្រុក)

84. How did you apply for migration to another country? (តើអ្នកដាក់ពាក្យក្នុងការធ្វើចំណាកស្រុកដោយរបៀបណា?)
- Legal placement agency (ភ្នាក់ងារស្របច្បាប់)       Brokers (ឈ្មួញកណ្តាល)
  - Through MOLVT (ក្រសួងការងារនិងបណ្តុះបណ្តាលវិជ្ជាជីវៈ)       Other.....(ផ្សេងទៀត)

85. How much did you spend for employment placement fee? (តើអ្នកចំណាយប្រាក់ប៉ុន្មានក្នុងការមានការងារធ្វើ?)
- Less than \$1000 (តិចជាង \$1000)       between \$1000-2000(ចន្លោះពី \$1000-2000)
  - between \$2000-3000(ចន្លោះពី\$2000-3000)       Over \$3000 (ច្រើនជាង\$3000)

86. What are steps did you follow in applying for a job in Thailand? (តើមានដំណាក់កាលអ្វីខ្លះដែលអ្នកត្រូវធ្វើក្នុងការដាក់ពាក្យទៅធ្វើការនៅថៃ?)
- Took Skills/Writing Exams (រៀនជំនាញ/ ប្រលងសរសេរ)       Underwent Knowledge Interview(សម្ភាសន៍)       Salary Negotiation (ការចរចាប្រាក់ខែ)
  - Work Orientation(ការណែនាំក្នុងការធ្វើការ)       Others, please specify.....(ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

**XVI. Challenges while working in Thailand**(បញ្ហាប្រឈមពេលធ្វើការនៅថៃ)

87. What is your specific job assignment in Thailand? (តើអ្នកធ្វើការផ្នែកអ្វីនៅថៃ?)
- Agriculture activities (ផ្នែកកសិកម្ម)       Business/Hotel operation (ផ្នែកពាណិជ្ជកម្ម/សណ្ឋាគារ)
  - Industrial/Manufacturing activities (ផ្នែកឧស្សាហកម្ម)
  - Other(please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)
- Is your salary paid on time? (តើប្រាក់ខែអ្នកបើកទៀងពេលឬទេ?)
- Yes (បាទ/ចាស)       No (ទេ)

88. If No, what are the reasons why you are paid late? (ប្រសិនបើទេ តើមានមូលហេតុអ្វី  
បានជាបើកប្រាក់ខែយឺត?)

.....

89. How many hours do you work per day? (តើអ្នកធ្វើការប៉ុន្មានម៉ោងក្នុងមួយថ្ងៃ?)

- Less than 8 hours (តិចជាង ៨ម៉ោង)                       8 hours (៨ម៉ោង)
- Over 8 hours (ច្រើនជាង ៨ម៉ោង)

90. If you work over 8 hours per day, are you paid for overtime? (ប្រសិនបើធ្វើការលើស  
៨ម៉ោងតើអ្នកបានទទួលប្រាក់ បន្ថែមឬទេ?)

- Yes (បាទ/ចាស)                       No (ទេ)

.....

91. Do you have health insurance? (តើអ្នកមានធានារ៉ាប់រងសុខភាពឬទេ?)

- Yes (បាទ/ចាស)                       No (ទេ)

92. If No, how do you pay for your medical expenses when getting sick? (ប្រសិនបើ  
គ្មាន តើអ្នកចំណាយលើការព្យាបាល ដូចម្តេចពេលអ្នកឈឺ?)

.....  
.....

93. Do you have accident insurance, while on the job? (តើអ្នកមានធានារ៉ាប់រងគ្រោះថ្នាក់  
ពេលធ្វើការឬទេ?)

- Yes (បាទ/ចាស)                       No (ទេ)

94. If No, what are the responsibilities of your employer when you have an  
accident? (ប្រសិនបើគ្មាន តើអ្នកទទួលបានជំនួយអ្វីខ្លះពីថៅកែរបស់អ្នក?)

.....

95. Have you ever sent money to your family? (តើអ្នកធ្លាប់ផ្ញើលុយទៅក្រុមគ្រួសារអ្នកឬទេ?)

- Yes (បាទ/ចាស)                       No "If No please skip to Q27" (ទេ បើទេសូមរំលងទៅសំណួរទី ២៧)

96. How often do you send money to your family? (តើអ្នកផ្ញើលុយទៅក្រុមគ្រួសារញឹកញាប់  
ឬទេ?)

- Monthly (រៀងរាល់ខែ)                       Quarterly (៣ខែម្តង)                       Annually (រៀងរាល់ឆ្នាំ)
- Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

97. How do you send money to your family? (តើអ្នកផ្ញើលុយទៅក្រុមគ្រួសារអ្នកដោយរបៀប  
ណា?)

- Bank (ធនាគារ)       Money Transfer Operator (ភ្នាក់ងារផ្ញើរលុយ)
- Friends (មិត្តភក្តិ)       Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

98. How much do you send to your family on the average? (តើអ្នកផ្ញើរលុយទៅផ្ទះជាមធ្យមប៉ុន្មាន?)

- Less than \$500 (តិចជាង\$500)       between \$500-1000
- (ចន្លោះ:\$500-1000)       between \$1000-1500 (ចន្លោះ:\$1000-1500)
- Over \$1500 (ច្រើនជាង\$1500)

99. What does your family use the money for? (Please put the rank to each most purpose; 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> ....) (តើគ្រួសារអ្នកយកលុយទៅប្រើប្រាស់ធ្វើអ្វីខ្លះ?)(សូមដាក់លេខរៀងដែលជាគោលបំណង សំខាន់)

- Daily household consumption: .....(ការប្រើប្រាស់ជាប្រចាំថ្ងៃ.....)
- Healthcare: ..... (សុខភាព.....)
- Education: ..... (ការសិក្សា.....)
- Housing: ..... (ផ្ទះសំបែង.....)
- Repay the debt: ..... (សងបំណុល.....)
- Business Activities: ..... (ធ្វើការរកស៊ី.....)
- Ceremony (Wedding, holiday, funeral...etc..) (ពិធីបុណ្យផ្សេងៗ.....)
- Other (please, specify.....) (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

100. Who do you live with? (តើអ្នករស់នៅជាមួយអ្នកណា?)

- Living alone (នៅម្នាក់ឯង)       Living with friends (នៅជាមួយមិត្តភក្តិ)
- Company accommodation (នៅកន្លែងធ្វើការ)       Other (please, specify.....)
- (ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

101. Did you feel homesick during your initial days in Thailand? (តើអ្នកមានអារម្មណ៍នឹកផ្ទះពេលទៅថៃជាលើក ដំបូងឬទេ?)

- Yes (បាទ/ចាស)       No(ទេ)

102. If you felt homesick during your initial days, how did you cope with homesickness?

(តើអ្នកធ្វើដូចម្តេច បើសិនជាអ្នកនឹកផ្ទះ?)

.....  
.....

103. What do you usually do during spare time after office hours?  
( តើអ្នកចូលចិត្តធ្វើអ្វី បន្ទាប់ពីម៉ោងធ្វើការ?)

.....

104. Have you ever got abused emotionally and physically at work? ( តើអ្នកធ្លាប់  
ត្រូវគេបំពានផ្លូវចិត្ត ឬ ផ្លូវកាយពេល ធ្វើការឬទេ?)

Yes ( បាទ/ចាស)  No "If No please skip to Q32" ( ទេ បើទេសូមរំលងទៅ  
សំណួរទី ៣២)

105. If yes, who abused you? (ប្រសិនបើមាន តើជានរណា?)

Boss ( ចៅហ្វាយ) Colleagues ( អ្នករួមការងារ) Roommates ( អ្នករួម  
បន្ទប់) Others (please, specify.....) ( ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

106. What kind of abuse did you encounter while working in Thailand? (តើអ្នកជួប  
ប្រទះការបំពានដូចម្តេច ពេលធ្វើការនៅថៃ?)

Sexual harassment/assault ( បំពានផ្លូវភេទ) Emotional Abuse ( បំពានផ្លូវ  
អារម្មណ៍) Verbal Abuse ( បំពានតាមពាក្យសម្តី) Others (please,  
specify.....) ( ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

107. What did you do after you were abused? (តើអ្នកធ្វើអ្វី បន្ទាប់ពីត្រូវគេបំពាន?)

Reported to your supervisor ( រាយការណ៍ទៅថ្នាក់លើ) Reported to Cambodia  
embassy in Thailand ( រាយការណ៍ទៅទូតកម្ពុជាប្រចាំប្រទេសថៃ) Reported to local  
authorities ( រាយការណ៍ទៅអាជ្ញាធរប្រចាំតំបន់) Other (please,  
specify.....) ( ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

**XVII. Reasons for returning(មូលហេតុនៃការវិលត្រឡប់មកវិញ)**

108. Why did you return to Cambodia? (ហេតុអ្វីអ្នកត្រឡប់មកកម្ពុជាវិញ?)

End working contract ( បញ្ចប់កុងត្រាភារងារ) Renew visa ( បន្តធ្វើ ទិដ្ឋាការថ្មី)   
Forced back by authorities ( ចាប់បញ្ជូនមកវិញដោយអាជ្ញាធរ) Others (please,  
specify....)  
( ផ្សេងទៀត សូមបញ្ជាក់.....)

109. Do you plan to go back to work in Thailand again?(តើអ្នកមានគំរោងត្រឡប់ទៅធ្វើការនៅថៃម្តងទៀតឬទេ?)

Yes (បាទ/ចាស) No (ទេ)

110. Did your migration affect to your family's livelihood conditions? (តើការធ្វើចំណាកស្រុករបស់អ្នកជះឥទ្ធិពលដល់ ការរស់នៅរបស់ក្រុមគ្រួសារអ្នកឬទេ?)

Yes (បាទ/ចាស) No (ទេ)

111. What are the improvements in livelihood conditions of your family because of your migration in Thailand? (តើមានការកើនឡើងអ្វីខ្លះក្នុងជីវភាពគ្រួសាររបស់អ្នក ពេលអ្នកទៅធ្វើការនៅ ថៃ?)

.....  
.....  
.....

**XVIII. Comments and Suggestions in Improving the Lives of Migrant Workers in Thailand:**  
(មតិ និង សំណូមពរ ក្នុងការធ្វើឲ្យមានភាពងាយស្រួលក្នុងការរស់នៅរបស់ពលករធ្វើការនៅប្រទេសថៃ)

Comments: (មតិយោបល់)

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

Suggestions: (សំណូមពរ)

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....



## **Appendix B1: Informed Consent Letter for Participants In Key Informant Interview (KII)**

Dear \_\_\_\_\_:

I am a Prof. Mak Vann, a Doctor of Philosophy student preparing a dissertation study on *“The Impact of International Migration on Social and Economic Development in Cambodia”* under the direction of Dr. Renato M. Lee, DBA, PhD, adviser and major professor of the Graduate School of Management and Economics (GSME) of the Paññāsāstra University of Cambodia (PUC).

The overall purpose of this study is to determine the ways to ensure quality governance of migration. It also explores into the challenges of migration governance system in Cambodia and provides the ways and means to address the challenges thru workable labor policies.

Your participation will require you to provide some vital information on how you and your organization provide assistance in the field of international migration to Cambodian workers, as well as address the current challenges facing them. Although there may be no direct benefits to you or your organization, the possible benefits of your participation in this research study is to provide practical recommendations on possible ways of preventing the negative consequences of cross-border labor migration in the regions and other countries in Southeast Asia and South Korea in the medium and long-term.

The results of this research work, specifically for policy recommendations, will be useful for national and local governance in Cambodia to remedy the alarming issues apropos international labor migration of human resources, as well as it might be encouraging for your organization as well as other organizations, such as IOM, ILO, World Bank, ADB, IMF, in their further study on migration and local government. The study may be published but your name or identity will not be revealed. The researcher will do his utmost care to maintain confidentiality of your records. If you have any questions concerning this research study, please call my dissertation

adviser, Dr. Renato M. Lee at 099629460 or email him at [renatoleekh@gmail.com](mailto:renatoleekh@gmail.com). You may also contact me at my phone number 012710899 or email me at [makvann@puc.edu.kh](mailto:makvann@puc.edu.kh).

Sincerely,

Mak Vann

PhD Economics Candidate

Paññāsāstra University of Cambodia (PUC)

No. 144-184, Preah Norodom Blvd.,

Sangkat Tonle Bassac, Khan Chamkarmon

Phnom Penh, Cambodia

---

I have given my consent to participate in the above study.

Respondent's Name (print): \_\_\_\_\_

Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Name of Organization: \_\_\_\_\_

If you have any questions about your rights in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact Dr. Sin Meng Srun, Chairperson of the Panel of Examiners and Senior Vice President for Academic Affairs of PUC. Additional contact information is available at [www.puc.edu.kh](http://www.puc.edu.kh)

## Appendix B2: Key Informant Interview Guide

The following are the questions to be asked to the key informant who represents the Government Organization or Non-Government Organization, working on international labor migration. The questions will be asked on the basis of your occupational background and working expertise. Some of the questions are not relevant to you or your organization. You may skip those questions that are not relevant to you, your work or the organization that you represent.

1. How do you observe the current trend of labor migrants in the Cambodian context?
2. What are the problems and challenges faced by migrant workers in home country and the country of destination?
3. What about your response regarding the women involvement in the foreign labor migration?
4. How do you analyze the current government policies regarding foreign employment?
5. What about the implementing aspects of Foreign Employment Act and National Labor Policy?
6. What are the problems within the government and policy level for not paying proper attention to the welfare of labor migrants?
7. What are the institutional mechanisms of government to the regulation and promotion of foreign labor migration?
8. What about the applicability of international conventions and the recommendations of international conferences and declarations to protect the rights of the migrant workers in our context?
9. What about the function of manpower or labor placement agencies?
10. What is the role of trade unions to protect the rights of migrant workers?
11. What should be done to assure the safe migration of labor migrants?

## Appendix C1: Informed Consent Letter for Participants In Focus Group Discussion

Dear \_\_\_\_\_:

I am a Prof. Mak Vann, a Doctor of Philosophy student preparing a dissertation study on *“The Impact of International Migration on Social and Economic Development in Cambodia”* under the direction of Dr. Renato M. Lee, DBA, PhD, adviser and major professor of the Graduate School of Management and Economics (GSME) of the Paññāsāstra University of Cambodia (PUC).

The overall purpose of this study is to determine the ways to ensure quality governance of migration. It also explores into the challenges of migration governance system in Cambodia and provides the ways and means to address the challenges thru workable labor policies. Your participation in the Focus Group Discussion (FGD) will require you to provide vital information on your experiences, perceptions, issues and challenges on your migration to another country. I understand that for the FGD sessions, I, together with my assistants, will videotape or tape record the discussions. Kindly provide your consent below:

### FGD Activities to be Carried Out

Please select one of the following options for your consent:

Yes No

**Video recording of study activities:** Interviews may be recorded using video devices to assist with the accuracy of your response. You have the right to refuse the video recording.

**Audio Recording of study activities:** Interviews may be recorded using audio recording to assist the accuracy of your responses. You have the right to refuse the audio recording.

**Photography of study activities/participants:** Photographs of participants may be taken to preserve an image related to the research. You have the right to refuse to allow photographs to be taken.

These tapes and pictures will be kept by me and my assistants in a locked filing cabinet. I also understand that only me and my assistant will have access to these tapes and they will be destroyed by 31 October 2017 after completion of the defense of my dissertation study.

The results of this research work, specifically for policy recommendations, will be useful for national and local governance in Cambodia to remedy the alarming issues apropos international labor migration of human resources, as well as it might be encouraging for your organization as well as other organizations such as IOM, ILO, World Bank, ADB, IMF, in their further study on migration and local government. The study may be published but your name or identity will not

be revealed. The researcher will do his outmost care to maintain confidentiality of your records. If you have any questions concerning this research study, please call my dissertation adviser, **Dr. Renato M. Lee** at 099629460 or email him at [renatoleekh@gmail.com](mailto:renatoleekh@gmail.com). You may also contact me at my phone number 012710899 or email me at [makvann@puc.edu.kh](mailto:makvann@puc.edu.kh).

Sincerely,

Mak Vann  
PhD Economics Candidate  
Paññāsāstra University of Cambodia (PUC)  
No. 144-184, Preah Norodom Blvd.,  
Sangkat Tonle Bassac, Khan Chamkarmon  
Phnom Penh, Cambodia

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## APPENDIX C2: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Discussion leader: \_\_\_\_\_

Note taker: \_\_\_\_\_

Village: \_\_\_\_\_

District: \_\_\_\_\_ Province: \_\_\_\_\_

### Participants in the focus group discussion

Name	Sex	Age	Migrant workers recipient?	Migrant of What Country
1.	F / M		Ye / No	
2.	F / M		Ye / No	
3.	F / M		Ye / No	
4.	F / M		Ye / No	
5.	F / M		Ye / No	
6.	F / M		Ye / No	
7.	F / M		Ye / No	
8.	F / M		Ye / No	
9.	F / M		Ye / No	
10.	F / M		Ye / No	

### Observations on the village

1. The village is: relatively rich (lot of motorcycles, some cars) / average / relatively poor (very few brick houses)
2. The village can be reached by paved road / unpaved road

### Questions for the village

1. The number of households in the village is .....
2. The village is about ..... km from the district capital
3. The village is about ..... hours and ..... minutes travel from Thailand by walking / bus / car / motorcycles
4. Children in the village can walk within 30 minutes to school grade .....
5. Are there any microfinance institutions operating in the village (MFI, Cooperative.)  
Yes / No 5a. If yes, which ones?

### Focus group discussion

1. How many households in the village have family members working in Thailand, Malaysia or South Korea or other countries?
2. Are those who go working in Thailand or other countries mostly from poor families in the village, from average families in the village or from rich families in the village?
3. How old are the usual age of migrants? Are there more males or females? What are the usual reasons why you go to other countries to work? What are your economic motivations to work in another country?
4. Do some of those who go to Thailand, Malaysia, or South Korea or other countries go through legal recruitment agencies? If yes, do you know how many migrants use this channel?
5. Do those who go through legal recruitment agencies earn more or less than those who go by different ways? (illegal agencies, individually legal or illegal etc.)
6. What about the medical fees and other fees? Do you have problems on these? What are the other problems you have encountered prior to migration?
7. What can you say about the application process for labor migration in Cambodia? Do you have some challenges and issues about fees, procedures, or people running the recruitment?
8. How did you know the recruitment for the country that you are working? Did you get them from relatives, friends, or other groups? How important are they in your migration process?
9. Do you have issues about orientation sessions before migration? Who is conducting the orientation? Are the information clear or not?
10. What about the visa and the fees? Who is facilitating the visa and payment of fees? What is your opinion on these?

11. Do you know of all households having a migrant worker, how many households in the village receive money from family members working in Thailand, Malaysia, South Korea or other countries?
12. Why do some of the families not receive any money from family members working in Thailand, Malaysia, or South Korea or other countries?
13. What do you think the money received from workers in Thailand, Malaysia, South Korea or other countries is mostly used for?
14. Would you as a group have any advice for these families to use the money in a different way?
15. Has the livelihood of families with family members in Thailand, Malaysia, South Korea or other countries improved as compared to the families of which all family members stay in Cambodia?
16. In your observation, have returned migrants improved their livelihood as compared to before they left to Thailand, Malaysia, South Korea or other countries?
17. Would you as a group have any advice for returned migrants how they can use the money they earned better? (while working in Thailand, Malaysia, South Korea or other countries, money spent in Thailand, Malaysia, South Korea or other countries and money sent home and spent in Cambodia)
18. In what ways has the village as a whole benefited from the money that is sent home by those working in Thailand or other countries? (more business, more employment, improvements to school, road, temple)
19. What can the village do to ensure that the village as a whole benefits more from the money sent home by those working in Thailand or other countries?
20. Is there anything the government should do to ensure that the money sent home by those working in Thailand or other countries leads to the development of the community?
21. When there is a microfinance institution present in the village, do households having a migrant worker use it as much as households without a migrant worker?
22. Did you encounter any problems while in other countries? What are they? How did you solve the problems?



## **Appendix D1: Informed Consent Letter to Parent Participating in the Free Listing Interview (FLI)**

Dear Parent:

I am a Prof. Mak Vann, a Doctor of Philosophy student preparing a dissertation study on “*The Impact of International Migration on Social and Economic Development in Cambodia*” under the direction of Dr. Renato M. Lee, DBA, PhD, adviser and major professor of the Graduate School of Management and Economics (GSME) of the Paññāsāstra University of Cambodia (PUC).

You and your child's participation are being requested to be involved and participate in an interview about your experiences and perceptions on your family member's migration to another country like Thailand, Malaysia, or South Korea, which will last for about one hour and a half. Your participation, as well as that of your child, in this study is voluntary. If you or your child choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, we will not force you to participate. Should you elect to discontinue participation, any information already collected will be discarded. The results of the research study may be published, but your child's name, as well as your name, will not be used. This research has been approved the Dissertation Proposal Evaluation Committee of the GSME of PUC.

Although there may be no direct benefit to you and your child, the possible benefit of the study is to provide recommendation to the Royal Government on some policy improvements in the area of international labor migration.

If you have any questions concerning this research study or your child's participation in the study, please call my dissertation adviser, Dr. Renato M. Lee at 099629460 or email him at [renatoleekh@gmail.com](mailto:renatoleekh@gmail.com). You may also contact me at my phone number 012710899 or email me at [makvann@puc.edu.kh](mailto:makvann@puc.edu.kh).

Sincerely,

Mak Vann  
PhD Economics Candidate  
Pannasastra University of Cambodia (PUC)  
No. 144-184, Preah Norodom Blvd.,  
Sangkat Tonle Bassac, Khan Chamkarmon  
Phnom Penh, Cambodia

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I give consent for my child \_\_\_\_\_ to participate in the above study.

Parent's Name (print): \_\_\_\_\_

Parent's Signature \_\_\_\_\_

If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you or your child have been placed at risk, you can contact Dr. Sin Meng Srun, Chairperson of the Panel of Examiners and Senior Vice President for Academic Affairs of PUC. Additional contact information is available at [www.puc.edu.kh](http://www.puc.edu.kh)

IJSER

## **Appendix D2: Question Guide for Free Listing Interview**

### **Household Classification:**

1. What specifically is the economic status of your household/family?
2. Is your family earning more than \$1,000 a month, less than \$1,000 to about \$300 a month or less than \$300 a month?
3. What is the make-up of your house? (or the researcher can observe).

### **The Left-Behind Children's Daily Life in School, Family, Community:**

1. Based on your observation, how do you think the children in this community are doing compared with your children who are living with their parents or guardians?
2. Is there something noticeable or special about these children compared to others? Is there anything in particular that distinguishes them?
3. Can you notice anything special with your children as well as the well-being of other children in the community whose parents have migrated to another country? Do they tend to be more happy or less happy?
4. Can you notice if they are more likely to be shy, brave, acting out or careful?
5. Do these children or your children socially interact with other students as well as staff at school or your community? What do you think of their social relations in school and in the community?
6. Do you notice if these children or your children are more or less active in social activities in the community or within the school? Do they contribute to the improvement of the family's livelihood, community, or others? If so, how?
7. What do most children want to become in the future? What are your observations on these children?
8. In the other families within your village, how do most children perceive about their guardians, grandparents, single parent that were left behind to take care of them? Do you think these perceptions are positive or not? Why?
9. What do you think is their opinion about the migrant workers in their family (whether it be parents, brothers, sisters or other relatives)? Do they miss them? Do they contribute in terms of their improvements?

10. What is your opinion about the support provided by the community for family members that were left behind? Do the community based organizations help them when they are in need? In what ways do they help.

### **The relationship to the absent parent/s:**

Do, and if so, to what extent and in what ways, the guardian or single parent find that the relationship between children and absent parent/s is affected in terms of secure, and insecure attachment?

1. Do you have any form of communications with these children's parents?
2. If you have, can you describe your means of communication with them?
3. Can you notice something special in the relationship between these children and their parents?
4. Do you think their relationship is affected by their situation and if yes, how?
5. Do they want that their parents or relatives to go back and work in Cambodia instead of working in another country? If yes, why? If no, why?

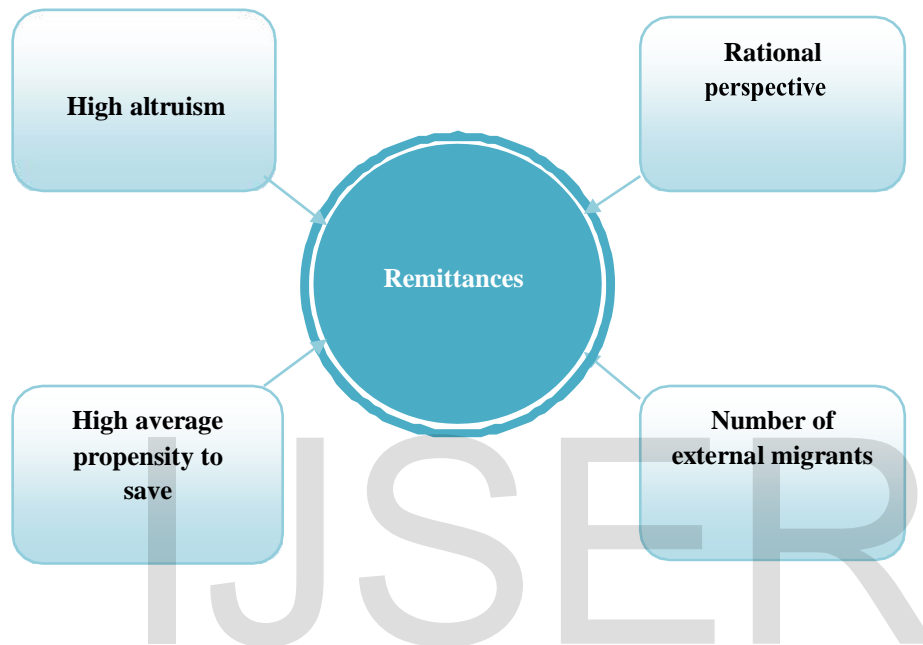
### **Positive and Negative Impacts:**

With respect to children's daily life, which positive and negative impacts of being left-behind do guardians or solo parent notice?

1. Can you see any differences in these children's life before and after the parent/s went abroad?
2. What are the positive things that have happened to these children ever since they were left-behind?
3. And on the other hand, what are the negative things that have happened to them?
4. What are the usual coping strategies of children, as well as their families because of the absence of parent/s who migrated to another country?
5. Do the children and their family rely on remittance of their migrant worker in the family, despite the fact that they own land?
6. How do most families use the remittance they receive from their migrant workers in the family?
7. Is it easy for the families or children that were left behind to contribute to community events or any other fees being collected in their village? If yes, why? If no, why?
8. What do you think is the impact of migration to education, human security, community, livelihood, etc.?
9. Can you tell me of other issues that we forgot to ask? What do you think about that? What were your experiences on those?

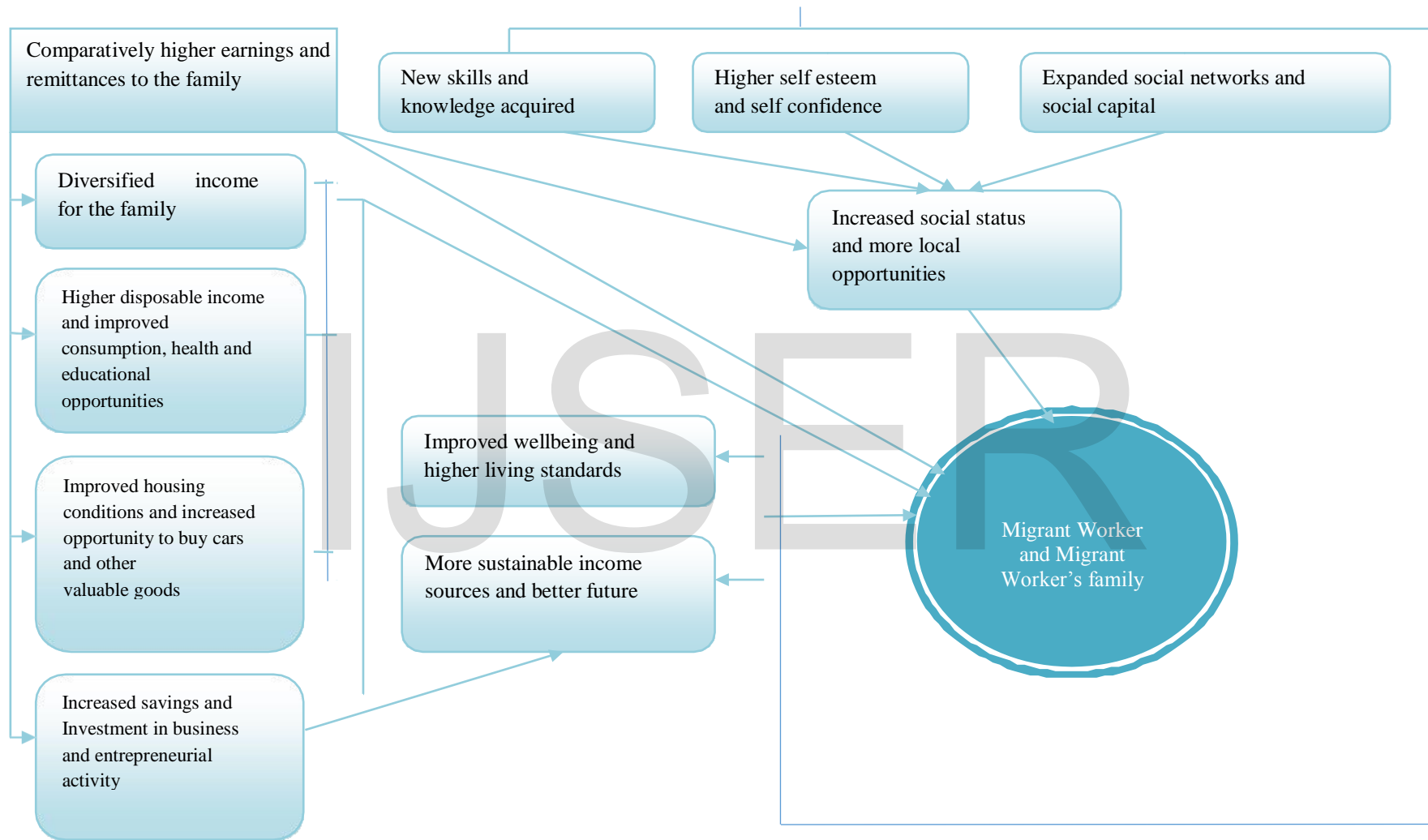
## APPENDIX E: GRAPHICAL MODEL OF STUDY RESULTS

**Figure 5.1 - Main determinants of the amounts and increased dynamics of incoming remittances to Cambodia.**



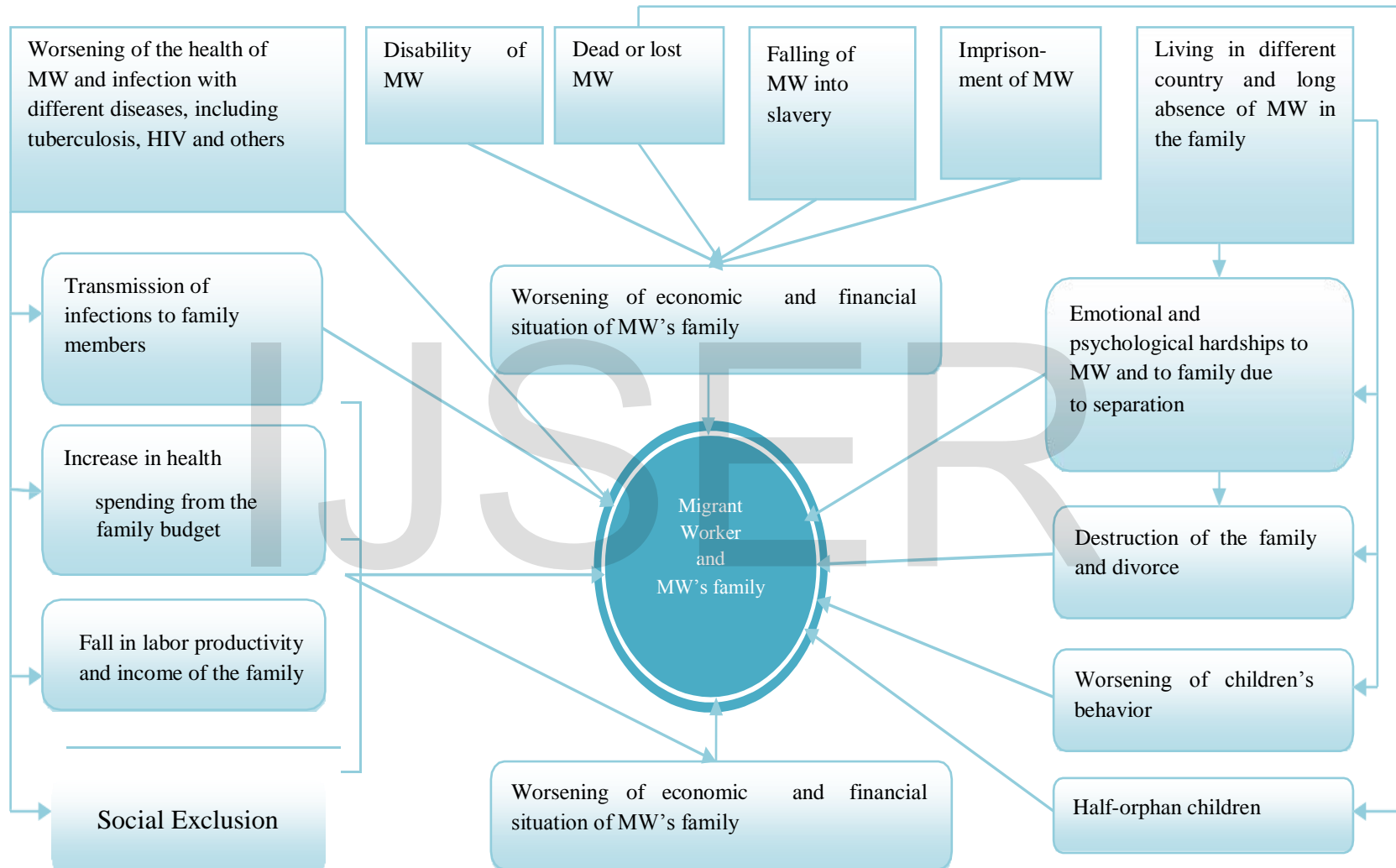
*Source: PhD candidate's own representation*

**Figure 5.2 – Graphic model of the positive impacts of external labor migration for migrants and their families in Cambodia.**



Source: PhD candidate's representation

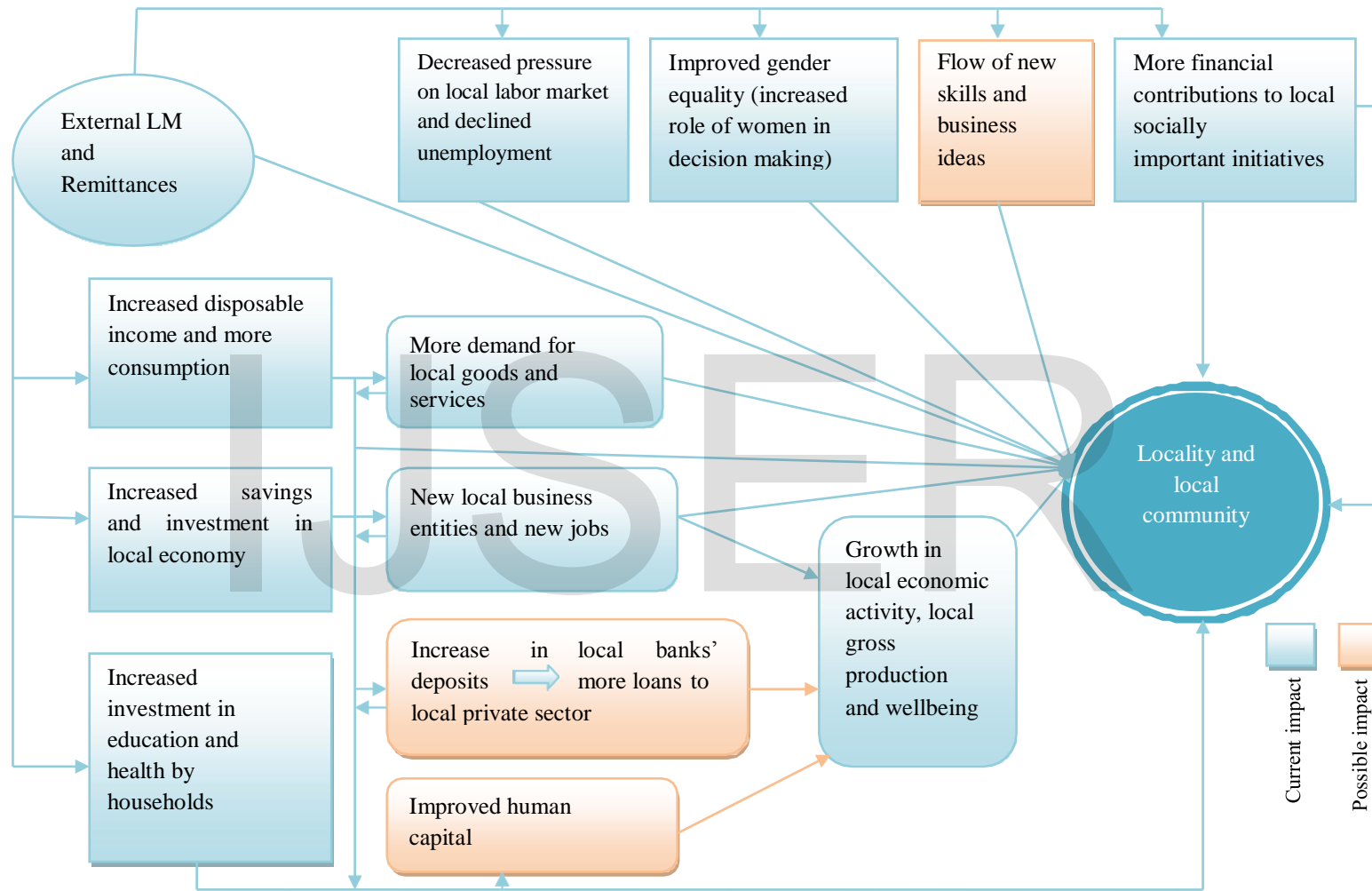
**Figure 5.3 – Graphic model of the negative impacts of external labor migration for migrants and their families in Cambodia.**



**MW- Migrant worker**

*Source: Author's representations*

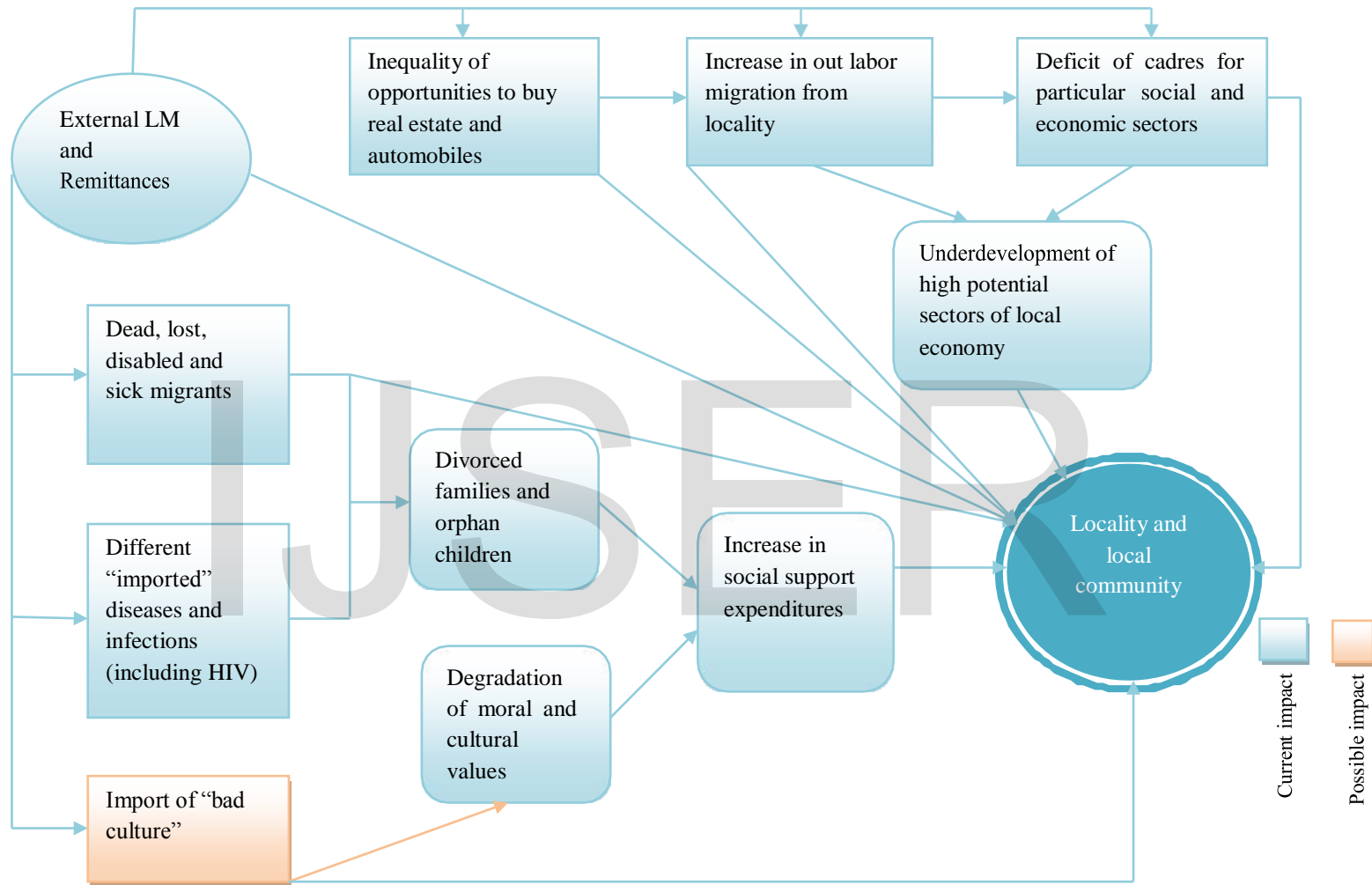
**Fig. 5.4 – Graphic model of the current and possible major positive impacts of external labor migration on localities and local communities in Cambodia.**



Source: PhD candidate's own representation

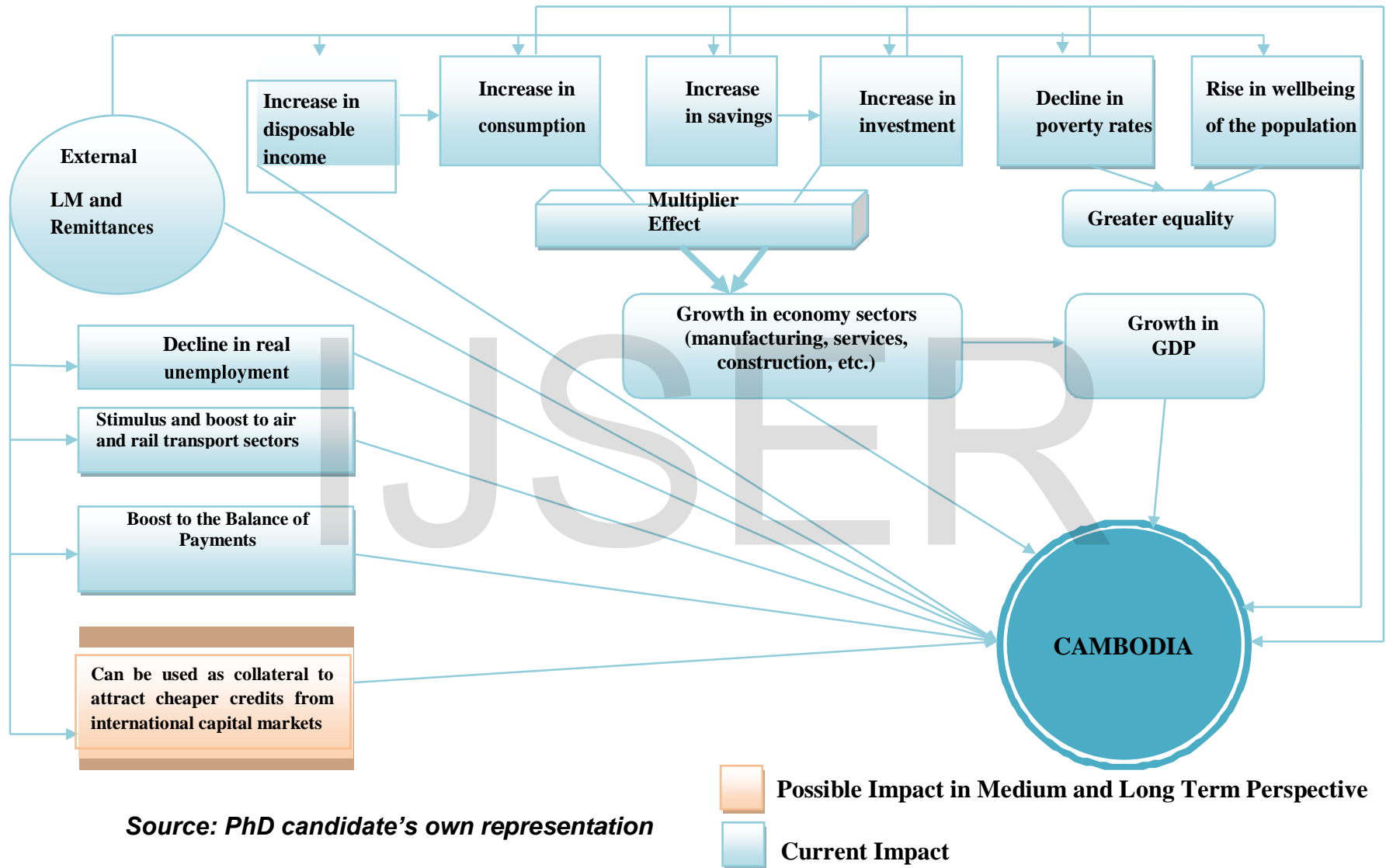


**Fig. 5.5 – Graphic model of the current and possible major negative impacts of external labor migration on localities and local communities in Cambodia.**



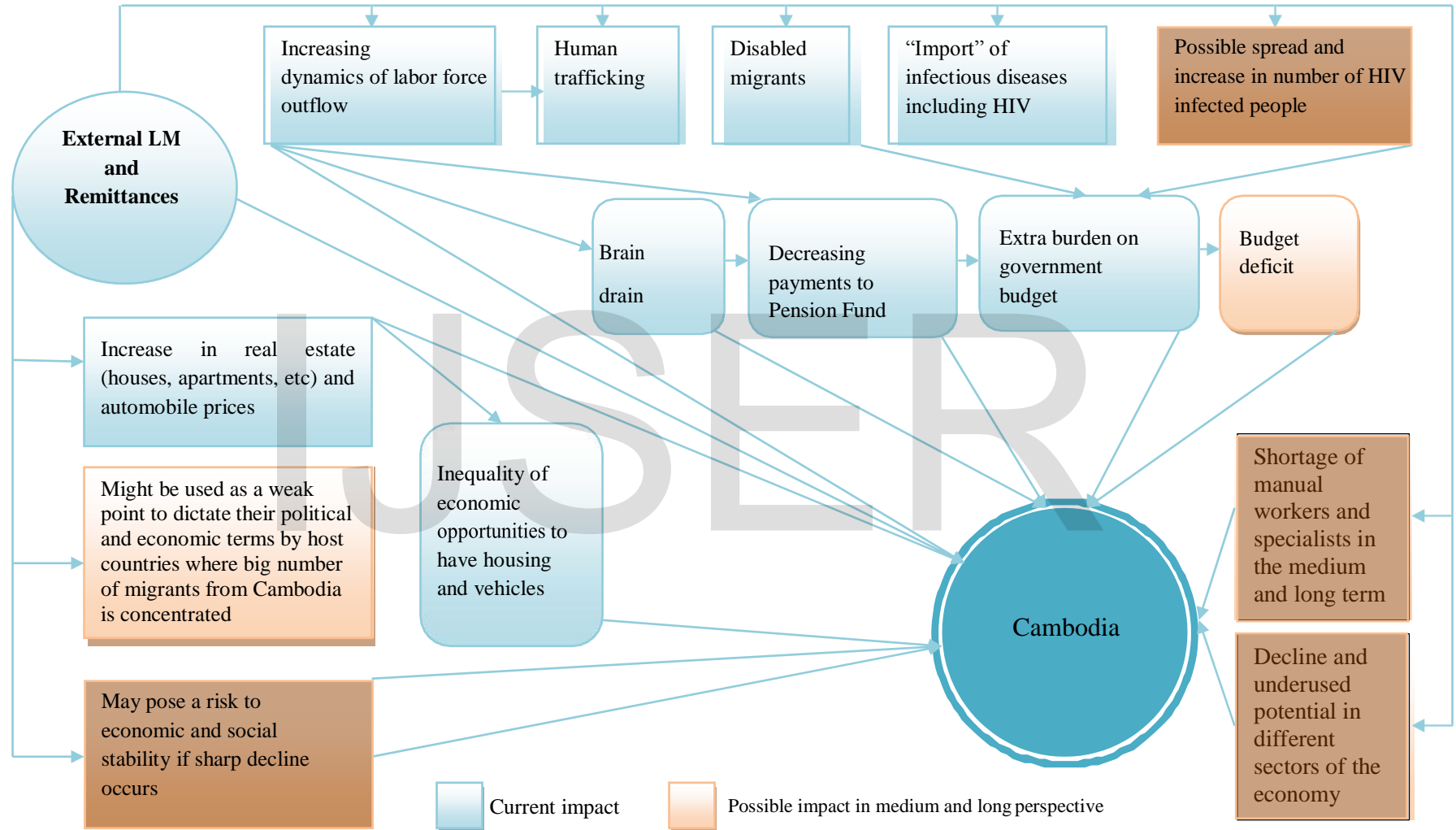
*Source: PhD candidate's own representation*

**Fig. 5.6 – Graphic model of the current and possible future major positive impacts of external migration on Cambodia (national level).**



Source: PhD candidate's own representation

**Fig. 5.7 – Graphic model of the current and possible major negative impacts of external labor migration on Cambodia (national level).**



*Source: Author’s own presentation*

## **APPENDIX F: THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACT OF MIGRATION AND OTHER ISSUES**

### **1. Introduction**

This Appendix F of the study was culled mostly from secondary data obtained from various sources.

In the review of these secondary data sources, it was revealed that the institutional framework for a market economy has been set up since the early 1990s in the country, private investments – both domestic and foreign – have expanded, and the country has become more integrated within Southeast Asia. Successful transformation of Cambodia's economic system has fostered strong economic growth, averaging 7% between 1994 and 2015. It has also transformed itself from a primarily agrarian economy to one based on a more balanced mix of agriculture, industry and services, and lifted per capita income from US\$254.18 in 1993 to US\$1,269.91 in 2016 (World Bank, 2017).

Despite such impressive achievements, a number of challenges remain – especially in the context of the country's new growth strategy. The economic structure remains narrowly-based and the industrial sector is dominated by the labor-intensive, low value-added production of garments and footwear. The quality of Cambodia's human capital, measured by the Human Development Index, is one of the lowest in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) region (HDI, 2015). The labor market is still dominated by poorly educated and low skilled workers; there is a serious lack of semi-skilled and skilled workers to meet changing labor market needs (CDRI, 2013). Poverty and rising inequality remain serious concerns in Cambodia, despite recent declines in the poverty headcount. Another challenge facing Cambodia is the uneven quality of its public institutions (CDRI, 2013).

This rapid development has been accompanied by the increasing outflow of a productive workforce to neighboring countries. Many rural households have made a living out of migration (CDRI, 2009; FitzGerald and Sovannarith, 2007; IOM, 2010; Hing and Sry, forthcoming). Migration has helped households improve their housing conditions, increase the amount and quality of food they consume, access education, reduce poverty and has acted as a safety net when facing income shocks (Maltoni, 2006; CDRI, 2009; Tong, 2012; Roth et al., 2014). Migration has, therefore, been a major agent in Cambodia's demographic and labor market change.

A key challenge for Cambodia is how to better manage and leverage migration for development. This part of the Chapter describes Cambodia's migration landscape, setting the scene for the other sections and analysis which follows. It outlines current trends in

migration, and reviews what the existing research tells us about the key issues linked to migration in the country. It also reviews the role of migration in national development policies, the status of migration- related policies and the institutional framework for managing migration.

## 2. A brief overview of migration and remittance trends in Cambodia

Migration is not a new phenomenon, but it is becoming more dynamic, diverse and complex. As well as witnessing a marked increase in the number of emigrants – especially through the official emigration channels – Cambodia is benefitting from increasing remittances from migration. The following section looks at the trends and patterns of migration and remittance inflow.

- **Migration is a growing phenomenon:** In 2015, Cambodia's working age population (15-64) was estimated at 10 million or 64% of the total population; 40% of the total population was in the age range of 15 to 34 (UN DESA, 2015). This demographic trend suggests that the country has a large number of young people entering the labor market. While the majority of them work in the country, more and more Cambodians are emigrating to find jobs abroad, driven by considerable wage differences and limited employment opportunities in the domestic labor market. There were an estimated 1.19 million Cambodian emigrants in 2015, around 7.6% of Cambodia's total population (**Table 1**). This marks an increase of 160% from 2000. Thailand is the most common destination country, receiving 68% of Cambodia's emigrants.

**Table 1: Migration is a growing phenomenon in Cambodia**

	<b>2000</b>	<b>2015</b>
Total population (in Thousands)	12,198	15,578
Stock of emigrants	454,941	1,187,142
% of emigrants to total population	3.7%	7.6%
<b>Destination Countries (%):</b>		
Thailand	34%	68%
USA	30%	14%
France	16%	5%
Australia	5%	3%
South Korea	0%	3%
Canada	4%	2%
Bangladesh	3%	2%
Malaysia	1%	1%

Source: UN DESA (2015), Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2015 Revision, database, [www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/data/estimates2/estimates15.shtml](http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/data/estimates2/estimates15.shtml).

- **Migration Channels:** Most Cambodians emigrate through irregular channels (illegal or without authorization to work). It is estimated that fewer than 10% of Cambodians emigrate through recognized and legal channels (Tunon and khleang, 2013). The number of regular Cambodian migrants has increased significantly over the last decade, though they still represent a small share of the total migrant population. Between 1998 and 2015, a total of 209 804 Cambodian workers participated in state-sponsored labor migration programs. Of these, 55% went to Thailand, 25% to Malaysia, 22% to South Korea and 1% to Japan. (MOLVT, 2015)
- **Malaysia as Host Country to Migrant Workers:** Malaysia was the first country to sign a memorandum of understanding (MOU) with Cambodia, paving the way for Cambodians to work legally in that country. Cambodians began arriving in Malaysia under this program in 1998. The recruitment process was managed by employment recruitment agencies licensed by the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training (MOLVT). Between 1998 and 2015, Cambodia sent a total of 52,265 workers to Malaysia, 76% of whom were women (employed as domestic workers) and 24% were men (working in construction and manufacturing; (see Table 4.43) Following a series of reports of abuse and exploitation, however, the

Cambodian Government banned sending domestic workers to Malaysia in October 2011. A new MOU between the two countries is currently being considered in order to increase the protection of migrant workers. (MOLVT, 2015)

- **Thailand as Host Country to Cambodian Migrants:** Thailand has accepted legal Cambodian migrant workers following an MOU signed in May 2003. Legitimate Cambodian workers started only to arrive in 2006. However, when Cambodian Inter-Ministerial Working Group conducted a nationality check of irregular Cambodian migrant workers in Thailand and issued them with identity certificates between 2006 and 2015, Cambodia officially sent a total of 115,420 migrant workers to Thailand, the majority of whom were men employed in manufacturing and services. (MOLVT, 2015)
- **South Korea as Host Country to Cambodian Migrants:** South Korea has allowed Cambodian nationals to work in the country since 2003 through an industrial trainee scheme. More recently, it has also created an employment permit system via the Act on Foreign Worker Employment. The placement of migrant workers in South Korea is done by the Cambodia’s Manpower Training and Overseas Sending Board, a public agency for recruiting, training, sending and managing Cambodian workers overseas, and created by Sub-decree 702 in 2006. As of 2015, there were 43,920 Cambodian migrant workers employed in South Korea, mostly men working in manufacturing (65%), agriculture (34%) and fisheries (1%). (MOLVT, 2015)

**Table 2: Thailand, Malaysia and South Korea host most of Cambodia’s official migrant workers**

	Thailand (2006-2015)	Malaysia (1993-2015)	South Korea (2003-2015)
Total Number Migrants	115,420	52,265	45,351
Female Migrants	43,714	37,369	8,208
Male Migrants	71,706	14,896	37,143

Source: MOLVT (2015)

- **Migration Routes and Cost:** Most Cambodian migrants choose irregular routes because they are less costly and complicated. The Cambodia Development Resource Institute (CDRI) has compared the costs and time involved in legal and irregular migration. It found out that the former costs migrants around US\$700 (to Thailand) and takes three to six months to complete whole migration process, compared to US\$100 and a few days for irregular migration (CDRI, 2009). For seasonal migrants in particular, such channels are more flexible as they often have no formal employment contract and are free to change employers or return home as they wish. Their migration is usually helped by pioneer migrants or a broker

(known locally as me kchal). The main destination for irregular migrants is Thailand. In 2009, there were an estimated 120,000 irregular Cambodian migrants in Thailand (Paitoonpong and Chalamwong, 2012), mostly engaged in agriculture and construction (Table 4.43). This is probably a large underestimation, however, given that in June 2014 more than 250,000 irregular Cambodian emigrants returned home prompted by fear of arrest by Thai authorities as a result of a crackdown.

- **Growth in the Volume of Remittance from Migrant Workers:** About 70% of Cambodian migrants send money back home. The amount varies according to the destination country and type of work. Migrant workers in South Korea, for example, send on average US\$623 a year, compared to US\$306 for those working in Malaysia. Housemaids in Thailand send home an average of US\$334 a year, compared to US\$322 for those working in manufacturing and US\$265 for those working in the construction sector (Chan, 2009). The amount of remittances sent back home also differs according to the length of stay in the destination country. The longer migrants stay, the more remittances they send or bring home. Workers near the border brought back between US\$30 and US\$84 each time they returned home, while those who stayed longer remitted US\$150 to US\$180 each time (CDRI, 2009). In the latest survey by the Cambodia Development Resource Institute (of 500 migrant households), seasonal migrants accounted for 5% of Cambodia's total migrant population (CDRI, 2009). On average, seasonal migrants go to work in Thailand twice a year, earning about US\$ 140 a month.
- **Contribution of Migrant's Remittance to Cambodian Economy:** From a macroeconomic perspective, remittances are a good source of foreign exchange for Cambodia's economy. Remittances from Cambodian migrants increased in volume, steadily between 1993 and 2016, from US\$9.502 million to US\$322.674 million, or from 0.375% to 1.612% of GDP (World Bank, 2017).



**Table 3: Cambodian Migrants' Remittance as Against Cambodia's GDP**

Year	% of Remittance to GDP	Amount of Remittance in US\$	Growth of Remittance in %	GDP in US\$	% Growth in GDP	GDP per capita in US\$
1993	0.375%	9,502,500		2,534,000,000		254.18
1994	0.405%	11,303,550	18.95%	2,791,000,000	10.14%	270.61
1995	0.337%	11,596,170	2.59%	3,441,000,000	23.29%	323.01
1996	0.331%	11,608,170	0.10%	3,507,000,000	1.92%	319.39
1997	0.340%	11,706,200	0.84%	3,443,000,000	-1.82%	304.84
1998	3.835%	119,652,000	922.13%	3,120,000,000	-9.38%	269.06
1999	3.026%	106,424,420	-11.06%	3,517,000,000	12.72%	295.97
2000	2.808%	102,604,320	-3.59%	3,654,000,000	3.90%	300.69
2001	2.831%	112,787,040	9.92%	3,984,000,000	9.03%	321.23
2002	2.871%	122,993,640	9.05%	4,284,000,000	7.53%	339.07
2003	2.752%	128,188,160	4.22%	4,658,000,000	8.73%	362.42
2004	2.761%	147,382,180	14.97%	5,338,000,000	14.60%	408.61
2005	2.601%	163,680,930	11.06%	6,293,000,000	17.89%	474.22
2006	2.525%	183,693,750	12.23%	7,275,000,000	15.60%	539.88
2007	2.151%	185,824,890	1.16%	8,639,000,000	18.75%	631.68
2008	1.815%	187,888,800	1.11%	10,352,000,000	19.83%	745.79
2009	1.367%	142,195,340	-24.32%	10,402,000,000	0.48%	738.23
2010	1.357%	152,553,940	7.28%	11,242,000,000	8.08%	785.69
2011	1.251%	160,503,300	5.21%	12,830,000,000	14.13%	882.49
2012	1.226%	172,105,880	7.23%	14,038,000,000	9.42%	950.02
2013	1.139%	175,975,500	2.25%	15,450,000,000	10.06%	1,028.42
2014	2.246%	376,833,880	114.14%	16,778,000,000	8.60%	1,098.69
2015	2.202%	397,461,000	5.47%	18,050,000,000	7.58%	1,163.19
2016	1.612%	322,674,040	-18.82%	20,017,000,000	10.90%	1,269.91

Source: <http://www.data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.CD?locations=KH>

### 3. The impacts of migration on households

The research on Cambodian emigration mostly uses small-scale surveys and perception questions to measure the impact of migration on household livelihoods. Only a few studies such as Tong (2012), Roth et al. (2014) and Hing, lun and Phann (2014) have

analyzed national survey data using econometric techniques. Most of the studies conclude that migration helps improve livelihoods in Cambodia. The most significant impact of remittances is found to be an increase in the amount and types (quality) of food consumed in the household (ADB, 2005). This includes greater food security throughout the year. Remittances are also used to satisfy basic needs or to repay debt (Maltoni, 2006). The overall economic benefits for migrants and their families outweighed the costs (CDRI, 2009). The majority of migrants manage to earn money and send remittances home, although those who failed are in serious debt as a consequence. In several migration households and communities, migration was perceived as a critical channel for improving well-being (FitzGerald and Sovannarith, 2007).

Empirical research provides specific indications of the impacts, using the Cambodian Socio-Economic Survey (CSES) 2007, Tong (2012) found that international remittances account for 20% of households' total income and help reduce poverty by 7.35%. The study conducted by Tong (2012) however, shows that remittances have little impact on income inequality as measured by the Gini coefficient. In other words, while remittances increase household income, they do not do much to reduce the income gap. The findings of Roth et al. (2014), who used propensity score matching in impact estimation using CSES 2009, were more or less consistent with those of Tong (2012). Their findings suggest that international remittances reduced the headcount poverty rate by 7% points. Emigration also helped the depth and severity of poverty. However, they found that emigration generated a "dependency effect" by reducing the weekly hours worked by employed adults by 5-9%. Hing and Sry (forthcoming) found that migration reduced poverty by increasing ownership of durable goods and quality accommodation. The gender of the migrant and duration of migration are significant factors in explaining migrant households' varying ability to reduce poverty.

A recent empirical study of the impact of migration on the well-being of children left behind focuses on three different sets of outcomes: education, child labour and health (Hing, lun and Phann, 2014). Based on CSES 2009, the study employs instrumental variable regression to estimate the coefficients, taking village-level migration networks as an instrument. Regression results found that:

- Migration has a significant negative effect on school attendance. Children in migrant families are more likely to drop out of school. The main reasons include: children have no aspiration to study, they must contribute to household chores, and they must contribute to household income. The magnitude of the estimated effect is worse for girls: 73.8% of household heads would take female children out of school if needed. This reflects customary thinking, as nearly half of household heads still believe girls are better suited to household chores than attending school and 20.3% said it is risky for girls to go far from home. Only 20.4% see girls as more in demand by the labor market (CSES, 2009).
- **Migration has a positive relationship with educational attainment**, though its causal effect is not statistically significant (CSES, 2009).
- Children in migrant households have a 27% higher probability of participating in economic activities than those in non-migrant households (CSES, 2009).

- **Migration has no significant impact on the vaccination of children**, but it does affect children's health, evidenced by an increasing number of injuries and illnesses as well as malnutrition among migration households (CSES, 2009).
- **Migration is an important, but not the only, factor affecting children's well-being.** Families' socio-economic status, such as household size, household labor structure and composition, education level of household head and other household members, residential area and wealth status, also influence children's well-being (CSES, 2009).

#### **4. Role of Migration in National Development Strategies**

Despite its increasing social and economic importance, international migration has yet to be integrated into national development plans. Past national development plans barely mention migration. With the increasing economic opportunities and risks associated with migration, however, there has recently been a notable shift in development policy focus. In July 2013, the Royal Government of Cambodia (RGC) issued a guideline on the management of migration requiring the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training (MOLVT) to simplify the procedures required to emigrate, reduce recruitment fees, and improve monitoring of recruitment agencies (RGC 2013). It also requires that relevant ministries such as the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Cooperation (MOFAIC), the Ministry of Interior (MOI) and the Ministry of Women's Affairs (MOWA) enhance coordination and facilitation of all migration-related matters.

The National Strategic Development Plan 2014-2018 incorporates international migration to some extent. The following migration-related challenges and measures are outlined in the employment and labor market section:

- Improving institutional capacity and co-ordination for migration-related policy implementation; improving procedures for the management of Cambodian workers overseas, both legally and illegally.
- Enhancing the protection of rights, health and safety of Cambodian overseas workers; establishing a labor attaché in Cambodian embassies.
- Developing a National Employment Policy with three strategic goals: (1) to increase decent and productive employment opportunities; (2) to enhance skills and human resources development; and (3) to strengthen labor market governance. One of the strategies to achieve the third goal is to oversee and protect migrant workers in obtaining decent employment and skill recognition.

#### **5. Implications to Socio-Economic Development**

The recent progress in mainstreaming migration within certain policy areas is encouraging as it signifies recognition of the social and economic contribution of migration and that migration is linked to a number of policy areas. Despite these positive developments, bringing migration into national and sectoral development plans and setting up a more integrated mechanism to systematically deal with the issue are the real challenges, especially for institutions which lack human and financial resources. Systematic studies to understand

thoroughly the relationship between migration and public policies have been scarce and sketchy. This study aims to fill this key research gap.

### Appendix Khmer Abstract

#### កម្រងសង្ខេប

កម្ពុជា ជាប្រទេសមួយស្ថិតនៅក្នុងអនុតំបន់មេគង្គនៃភូមិភាគអាស៊ីអាគ្នេយ៍ ដែលកំពុងបានប្រើពលកម្មចំណាកស្រុកអន្តរជាតិជាយុទ្ធសាស្ត្រដោះស្រាយបញ្ហាគ្រួសារ ដែលមានបន្ទុកធ្ងន់ធ្ងរដោយជួបប្រទះនឹង វិបត្តិប្រាក់ចំណូលក្នុងគ្រួសារមិនបានគ្រប់គ្រាន់មកពីកិច្ចការស្រែចំការ។ ដូច្នោះហើយបានជាប្រជាពលរដ្ឋខ្មែរច្រើននាក់ធ្វើចំណាកស្រុកទៅប្រទេសក្រៅក្នុងរយៈពេលវែងក្នុងគោលបំណងផ្សេងៗមិនគ្រាន់តែដោះស្រាយបញ្ហាខ្វះខាតប៉ុណ្ណោះទេ ប៉ុន្តែក៏ជាការខិតខំធ្វើឲ្យប្រសើរឡើងនូវស្ថានភាពសេដ្ឋកិច្ចគ្រួសារ ប្រាក់សន្សំ និងកម្រិតស្តង់ដារជីវភាព។

ការសិក្សានេះពិនិត្យមើលជាដំបូងអំពីកម្រិតគ្រួសារ ដោយផ្ដោតទៅលើផលវិបាកផ្សេងៗនៃការឆ្លងដែននិងឆ្លងប្រទេសរបស់ពលករចំណាកស្រុក ព្រមទាំងគ្រួសាររបស់ពួកគាត់ដែលស្ថិតនៅក្នុងស្រុកកំណើត ហើយបរិមាណទិន្នន័យបានមកពីការស្ទង់មតិលើចម្លើយជនពលករចំណាកស្រុក៣៧០នាក់ អាយុចាប់ពី២០ ដល់ជាង៣០ឆ្នាំ ដែលបានផ្តល់ព័ត៌មានអំពីសាមីខ្លួន គ្រួសារគាត់បែបបទធ្វើចំណាកស្រុក ប្រភពជីវភាព នៃជីវិតរស់នៅ និងវឌ្ឍនភាពសំខាន់ៗក្នុងស្ថានភាពគ្រួសារ។ កន្លែងសម្រាប់ធ្វើការសិក្សានេះ គឺនៅក្នុងខេត្ត ព្រំប្រទល់ពីរ៖ បាត់ដំបងនិងបន្ទាយមានជ័យ ដែលជាកន្លែងពលករចំណាកស្រុកខ្មែរពីប្រទេសថៃ និង នៅទីក្រុងភ្នំពេញជាកន្លែងពលករ ចំណាកស្រុកខ្មែរពីប្រទេសម៉ាឡេស៊ី និងប្រទេសកូរ៉េខាងត្បូងដែលធ្លាប់រស់នៅ។ ភាគបញ្ចូល សំខាន់ៗដទៃទៀតទៅក្នុងការសិក្សានេះ គឺបានមកពីការប្រមូលផ្តុំដោយប្រើមធ្យោបាយច្រើនមុខ តាមការស្រង់មតិពីក្រុមពួកជុំនុំជំនាញ ក្រុមពួកនៅចាំផ្ទះ និងក្រុមពួកផ្តល់ព័ត៌មានគន្លឹះ។

ការរកឃើញពីការស្ទង់មតិនេះ បានបន្ថែមបរិមាណទិន្នន័យយ៉ាងច្រើនអំពីសំនួរនិងចម្លើយបានមកពីសមាជិកគ្រួសារចាំផ្ទះក្នុងស្រុករបស់ពួកពលករចំណាកស្រុក និងពីក្រុមពួកជុំនុំជំនាញធ្វើឡើងជាមួយអ្នកចូលរួមចាស់ៗចាំផ្ទះក្នុងស្រុកភូមិ ។ ដើម្បីប្រមូលផ្តុំព័ត៌មានលើគោលការណ៍ច្បាប់ស្តីអំពីចំណាកស្រុកដែលមានស្រាប់កំពុងអនុវត្តដោយមានតំណាង១៣រូបពីវិស័យរដ្ឋាភិបាល និងមិនមែនរដ្ឋាភិបាល ត្រូវបានពិគ្រោះ យោបល់ក្នុងឋានៈជាក្រុមពួកផ្តល់ព័ត៌មានគន្លឹះ ។ លទ្ធផលនៃការស្រាវជ្រាវនេះ ត្រូវបានរាប់បញ្ចូលតាំងពីការវិភាគអំពីការដោះដូរនូវកិច្ចគាំទ្រជាសម្ភារៈ ទំនាក់ទំនងរវាងជនចំណាកស្រុកជាមួយនឹងគ្រួសារព្រមទាំងសមាគមនៃជនចំណាកក្នុងស្រុក និងឆ្លងដែនជាមួយនឹងសុខុមាលភាពផ្លូវចិត្តនិងសម្ភារៈដល់គ្រួសារទុកចាំផ្ទះនិងកូនៗ។ ផលប៉ះពាល់នៃពលកម្មចំណាកស្រុកអន្តរជាតិទៅលើវឌ្ឍនភាពសេដ្ឋកិច្ចសង្គមកម្ពុជា ក៏ត្រូវបានពិនិត្យពិចារណាជាមួយ

នឹងគោលការណ៍ច្បាប់និងបែបបទទាំងឡាយដែលកំពុងត្រូវអនុវត្តដោយរដ្ឋាភិបាលនិងពលករចំណាកស្រុក ។

របៀបវារៈលើគោលនយោបាយវិស័យអាទិភាពថ្មីគឺ អភិបាលកិច្ចនៃពលកម្មចំណាកស្រុក ការការពារនិងការផ្តល់អំណាច ព្រមទាំងពលកម្មចំណាកស្រុកដើម្បីអភិវឌ្ឍ—ត្រូវតែបន្តជាភិក្ខុជម្រុញគន្លឹះ ហាក់ដូចជាកើតចេញពីលទ្ធផលនៃការប៉ាន់ប្រមាណនិងការវាយតម្លៃធ្វើសម្រាប់ការសិក្សានេះ។ លើសពីនេះទៀត ប្រព័ន្ធរួមបញ្ចូលឡើងវិញត្រូវតែបង្កើតឲ្យមានសម្រាប់ពលករ ចំណាកស្រុកខ្មែរដែលត្រូវរៀបចំមកស្រុកវិញជាមួយនឹងបំណិនជំនាញក្នុងខ្លួនអាចប្រើប្រាស់ជា ប្រយោជន៍ដល់ប្រទេសកំណើត ។

