Understanding the Demand and Supply Chain of Domestic Service Work in Line with the Urban and Rural Linkages

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1. Introduction

The domestic work itself is one of the oldest and one of the important sources of employment for millions of people particularly for women (83 percent) around the world. The developing country is home to the largest number of domestic workers. According to a latest estimate by the ILO, at least 52.6 million women and men above the age of 15 were domestic workers in their main job. This figure represents some 3.6 per cent of global wage employment. Women comprise the overwhelming majority of domestic workers: 43.6 million workers or some 83 per cent of the total. Domestic work is an important source of wage employment for women, accounting for 7.5 percent of female employees worldwide (ILO, 2011).[1]These figures are estimates based on available official statistical data, which means that the actual number of domestic workers is likely to be much higher. Indeed, domestic work is a growing economic sector.

Working as domestic labour is also an old practice and ubiquitous in Bangladesh. Families from middle class to upper class depend on domestic workers in managing the household activities which include cooking, serving food, doing laundry and ironing, food shopping, washing dishes, mopping floor and other household task performed in and for a household. It also entails the tasks of providing care for children and elderly dependents of the family. According to Bangladesh Labour Force Survey 2010, the total domestic workers aged 15 and above are 1.4 million, of whom 90 percent are female. Domestic workers represent around 0.8 percent of total labour force in Bangladesh (LFS, 2011).

The official statistics however does not cover the child domestic workers under the age of 15, though there is widespread use of child labour in this sector. According to one NGO (Shaishab-Bangladesh) estimate, there are 0.3 million children working as domestic workers only in Dhaka city, of whom 80 percent are girls. According to ILO-UNICEF Baseline Survey 2007, the number of total child domestic worker in Bangladesh is 420,000, of whom 147,000 are working in Dhaka City Corporation area. The Informal Sector Survey 2010, around 1.1 million people are working as paid domestic workers in Bangladesh (ADB, 2012), of them 85 percent are women or girl (Ibid: 16).

The domestic work remains a highly gender-specific niche of Bangladesh labour market. Women accounted for about 90 percent of counted domestic workers. The employers are also mainly women in this sector. Though the official employer or the head of household is male, the female members are mostly delegated with the responsibilities of dealing with the domestic workers as part of their gendered role within the household. The work performed by domestic workers is particularly feminine activity (Gallotti, 2009) as cleaning, cooking, and caring for children and the elderly is universally considered as women's work. Such feminine nature of work mostly encourages women to engage in this profession.

Domestic work services are informal in nature due to the fact that their work is not de jure covered[2]– or at least partly covered – under labour laws and social protection policies/schemes. Even in countries where domestic workers are covered de jure by minimum wage legislation or social protection schemes, they are often not covered de facto – or in practice – due to problems of implementation and enforcement. The domestic workers in Bangladesh are also excluded from under the coverage of existing legal instruments. They are very poorly paid, and hardly receive any day off or rest. The domestic

[1]ILO: Global and regional estimates on domestic workers, Domestic Work Policy Brief No. 4 (Geneva, 2011).

[2] According to ILO (2010), around 40 percent countries have no form of regulation of any kind for domestic workers

workers—especially who live with employers in their house are often prohibited to go outside of home. Their conditions of work are also hazardous. They not only work from early morning to late night but often face sexual, physical and verbal or mental abuse and negligence. They are often deprived of adequate foods, clothes, rest and proper sleeping places. BILS survey of newspaper reports shows that at least 277domestic workers have died due to violence on the part of the employers from 2008to 2013.Another study of BILS (2005) reveals that 53 percent are deprived of recreational facilities, and 83 percent are scolded regularly. Around, 47 percent domestic workers undergo physical torture and face the threat of expelling from work. 63 percent house-workers are forced to do works/jobs beyond their physical ability; 17 percent are victim of various sexual harassments; 40 percent perceive their work-place insecurity; and 68 percent of the domestic workers are mentally frustrated.

The domestic workers are generally forced to choose this occupation due to acute poverty. However there are some other specific reasons (e.g. food requirement, repaying family debt/loan, divorce, and broken-family) that not only engage them in this occupation, but also force them to migrate from rural to urban areas.

The on-going importance of, and increased demand for domestic workers in Bangladesh continues. The reasons are wide ranging including the increased participation of women in the workforce, the intensification of work, and the absence of strong social policies permitting the balancing of work and family life. Yet domestic work tends to be undervalued and poorly regulated, manifesting the lack of decent working conditions that is particularly characteristic of the informal economy. The domestic workers have enabled many other workers, particularly women with families, to participate and advance in the productive, formal economy, thereby achieving greater affluence; however, they themselves often do not have the rights and protections necessary to ensure that they enjoy conditions of decent work. Thus, unless we understand the demand and supply chain of domestic works, we will hardly be able to determine the linkages the sector itself and its workers have in terms of rural and urban linkages in order for us to promote and protect workers' livelihoods and rights for the domestic service workers.

The overall objective of the study is to understand the demand and supply chain of domestic work services by potential allies with NGO and Private Sector. The specific objectives are to (a) investigate the situation of informal employment in urban areas especially of the workers who are engaged in domestic works; (b) know the current demand and supply mechanism of domestic service work in line with rural urban linkage; (c) find out the coverage of domestic workers in the existing legal instruments; (d) identify the potential stakeholders to systemize the work of domestic work service providers; and (e) develop a guideline for advocacy and capacity building initiatives to scale up the results in future.

This study has been carried out in three major stages—conceptualization and issue identification, research and analysis, and validation and finalization. The detailed description of the process of each of the research steps is elaborated in the study design annexed as Annex 1.1 (study methodology). A rapid assessment tool was used to collect the primary data to analyze the (a) current state of affairs in the state of demand and supply chain of domestic workers; (b) challenges in urban and rural linkages of the demand and supply chain of domestic service work, and (c) factors necessary for an enabling environment allowing informal domestic workers to exercise rights.

By using purposing random sampling method, a representative sample total 251 is selected from Dhaka (70 percent) and Chittagong (30 percent) purposively. The eligible respondents of the study are female domestic workers, and the respondents are selected from the workers working as permanent and temporary basis as well as working in high and middle class families across two major cities of the country—Dhaka and Chittagong. A geographical distribution of the sample is presented in Annex 1.2 (socio economic profile of

the respondents) .Key informant Interviews, focus group discussions, and consultation were conducted with domestic workers, trade union leaders, employers, government representatives and other stakeholders. A total of 11 KIIs has been conducted. 6 KIIs are conducted with the local government and 2each conducted with the trade union leaders and DWRN members respectively and 3 with government officials (see Annex 1.3 for the list of participants).A total of 3 FGDs were conducted in Dhaka and Mymensingh with the workers, employers and workers' family members (see Annex 1.4 for the list of FGD participants).

The study is presented in five core sections. Following the introduction, the next section explores the state of coverage and salient features of domestic service work in existing national and international legal framework. Section three analyzes the current state of rights of the domestic service work in Bangladesh. Identifying the rural urban linkages, the section four sketches demand and supply mechanisms of domestic service work in Bangladesh. The final section draws conclusion along with policy recommendation and pointers of advocacy to systemize the domestic work service sector in Bangladesh.

2. Legal Framework and Domestic Service Work: The State of Coverage and Salient Features

The domestic workers represent a significant share of global wage employment. However as their work is confined behind the closed doors of private households, they are less visible than other workers and shielded from public view and attention. They are often hard to reach by conventional policy tools. They remain to a large extend excluded from the scope of legal protection. This section analyzes the extent of legal coverage (international and national) enjoyed by the domestic workers as well as the real state of domestic work service in Bangladesh.

International Instruments

Over six decades back, in 1948, ILO adopted a resolution concerning the condition of domestic work. For decades, however, no international instrument – convention or recommendation – was introduced. In 1965, the International Labour Conference (ILC) recognized the need for a special international instrument for domestic workers. It adopted a regulation on the employment conditions of domestic workers recognizing the "urgent need" to set up minimum living standards "compatible with the self-respect and human dignity which are essential to social justice" for domestic workers in both developed and developing countries (ILO, 2010). Meanwhile, the ILO took the position that domestic workers are supposed to be covered in the scope of the Declaration of Fundamental Principles and Rights and the scope of all existing international ILO instruments unless a specific convention or recommendation expressly excludes domestic workers (ILO 2010). The latest ILO Convention No. 189 and Recommendation No. 201 on 'Decent Work for Domestic workers' clearly articulates the terms of reference for promoting and protecting rights of the domestic workers —a mostly vulnerable and still often neglected group.

The Domestic Workers Convention recognizes domestic work a "work" and persons engaged in this sort of work as "worker". It addresses the special conditions in which domestic work is carried out and strengthen protection for domestic workers rights which include—protection against all forms of abuse, harassment and violence; a minimum wage and minimum age consistent with that of other sectors in each member country; right to receive information; hours of work, overtime compensation, leave and rest; wage payment; working environment; the clear terms of employment and freedom of association and collective bargaining.

As stated by the International Labour Conference, "the challenge of reducing decent work deficits is greatest where work is performed outside the scope or application of the legal and institutional frameworks." [3]Legislation and regulatory policy are hence essential tools for eliminating the negative aspects of informality in the domestic work sector while at the same time ensuring that opportunities for decent work and employment offered by domestic work are not compromised. Extending the reach of labour law to domestic workers is an important means of bringing them within the formal economy.[4]

The eight fundamental ILO Conventions, which are close to universal ratification, address the following fundamental principles and rights at work: freedom of association and

[3]ILO: Resolution concerning decent work and the informal economy, adopted at the 90th session of theInternational Labour Conference, Geneva, 2002, Para. 2.
[4]ILO: Extending the scope of application of labour laws to the informal economy: Digest of comments of theILO's supervisory bodies related to the informal economy (Geneva, 2010), pp. 68–69.

the effective recognition of the right to bargain collectively, the eradication of forced labour, the effective abolition of child labour, and the elimination of discrimination in employment. Recognition and protection of these rights for domestic workers is an essential step in breaking domestic work away from the informal economy with its perpetuation of exploitation and inadequate working conditions.

Other ILO Conventions also include standards relevant to the regulation of domestic work. 15 These include: (a) the Wage-Fixing Machinery Convention, 1928 (No. 26), and the Minimum Wage Fixing Convention, 1970 (No. 131); (b) the Protection of Wages Convention, 1949 (No. 95); (c) the Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183); (d) the Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156); (e) the Termination of Employment Convention, 1982 (No. 158); (f) the Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 (No. 181); and (g) the Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97) and the Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143).

Other fields oflaw such as civil law, criminal law or human rights law also offer protection to domestic workers, but cannot replace legislation more specifically addressing their working conditions and social protection.

From the adoption of Domestic Workers Convention (No. 189) and Recommendation (No. 201), a total 17 countries have ratified it and many countries have embarked on the ratification process and have pursued new legislative and policy reforms guided by these instruments. But Bangladesh is yet to ratify the convention or get involved in ratification process.

Nevertheless, Bangladesh has been a signatory to a number of international conventions and covenant which cover domestic workers to a some extent e.g., United Nation Declaration of Human Rights, UN Convention on Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDWA), ILO Minimum Age Convention (No. 15 and No 59), Night Work (Women) Convention (NO. 4), Night Work of Young Persons (Industry) Convention (No.6), Forced Labour Convention (No. 29), Convention on the Worst form of Child Labour (No. 182) and Abolition of Forced Labour Convention (No. 105).

National Legal Framework

The national legal instruments provide limited legal protection to domestic workers. The 'Bangladesh Labour Law 2006' is a landmark to protect workers' rights in Bangladesh, but domestic workers are excluded from the coverage of this labour legislation. Even the 'Domestic Violence (Prevention and Protection) Act 2010 does not cover domestic workers under its purview. In fact except the 'Domestic Servants' Registration Ordinance 1961', there is no special law for ensuring the rights of domestic workers in Bangladesh. The ordinance however only provides definition of domestic workers and deals with the registration of the domestic workers, though registration is limited in terms of geographical area—in five specified areas of Dhaka district. According to this ordinance, a domestic servant is required to get registration from the local policestation of those specified areas. Others issues like rights, duties, safety, welfare and security were not addressed in the ordinance. Moreover, currently there is no application of the ordinance.

Nevertheless, the constitutional provision has guaranteed some rights of domestic workers as fundamental rights and enforceable by the court for every citizen of the country.

There are also some laws like Nari O ShishuNirjatan Daman Ain, 2000, Penal Code, Law against Oppression of Women and Children, and Code of Criminal Procedure which can be used against torture and serious abuses to domestic workers as an ordinary citizen, however, due to the specialty of domestic work those available statute cannot provide effective legal protection to domestic workers.

Salient Features of the Occupation in National Law and Practice

Domestic Work

Domestic work in Bangladesh implies a wide range of tasks including cooking and serving food, doing laundry and ironing, food- shopping, washing dishes, mopping floors and other household tasks performed in and for a household. It also entails tasks of providing care for children and elderly dependents of the family. Although, the occupation is widely prevalent, there is no official or widely used definition of 'domestic work'. Neither any law nor any policy in Bangladesh defines the term.

Domestic Servants' Registration Ordinance, 1961 only defined the term 'domestic servant' and bypassed the issue of defining 'domestic work'. According to the ordinance domestic servant includes every person who renders domestic services (pertaining to household affairs) to his employer in lieu of wages or any other consideration. The Bangladesh Labour Law 2006 did not attempt to define 'domestic work' as the law does not bring the domestic workers under its coverage.

Registration

The Domestic Servants' Registration Ordinance, 1961 made the provision of mandatory registration for the domestic servants working in five specified areas in Dhaka district. According to the ordinance, a domestic servant is required to get registration from the local police-station of those specified areas. But the reality is, not a single domestic worker has registration in the country.

Besides this only formal measure, there is no other formal or informal initiative to register the domestic workers working in the country. Only registration option available to female domestic workers is for the migrants aspirants seeking job as domestic workers and house keepers in the countries of Middle East. the Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training (BMET) is providing registration to the female job seekers.

Inspection

Inspection is one of the important tools to ensure the rights of the workers at their workplaces. But the tool is also absent for this occupation. Existing labour law does not allow labour inspectors to investigate the situation of the domestic workers and there is no inspection authority in country endorsed to monitor and inspect the situation of domestic workers at their employers' houses.

Traditionally domestic workers were mainly recruited through the direct contact between the employer and worker. In the past, in most of the cases, poor neighbours or relatives were used to be employed as domestic worker in economically solvent families. But a recent trend in the recruitment process of the domestic workers, especially in urban areas, is the increased influence of middlemen, all are informal in nature. These middlemen collect domestic workers primarily from poverty stricken districts of the country and supply them to the households in exchange of certain amount of money.

Minimum Age

Although, Bangladesh is yet to ratify the Minimum Age Convention (No. 138) 1973, child labour is prohibited legally. However, there are millions of children working in both formal and informal sectors under private employers. According to National Child Labour Survey conducted by Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS), the incidence of child labour in Bangladesh during 2002-2003 was estimated at about 3.2 million out of 7.4 million working children aged between 5-17 years. Although Bangladesh Labour Law 2006 prohibits employment of children, below 14 years of age, in any occupation or institution and all children and juveniles below 18 years of age in

hazardous works, the law also allows employment of children, of 12 years of age, in those light-works that would not be harmful for their health and development or disrupt their education.

There is no established minimum age required to enter into domestic work in the country. Accordingly, people from all age-groups are seen working as domestic workers. But it is important to note that child domestic workers' share in this particular worker-group is highest. A research conducted by Bangladesh Institute of Labour Studies (BILS) has revealed that about 50 percent of the domestic workers are children of 5-15 years, and 27 percent domestic workers ranges between 15 and 18 years.. Even there are many instances in the country of employing 5-6 years old children as domestic workers. However, there is no national level programmme exclusively for the child domestic workers in the country. Some programmes implemented by the Government and NGOs to eliminate child labor have had made access to child domestic workers.

Remuneration

Domestic workers in the country are unfortunate in respect of wage and other facilities. There is no fixed minimum wage structure for the domestic workers. As a consequence, they face severe deprivation in wages. There is lack of National level data on minimum wage of the domestic workers. Even the Wage Survey 2007 conducted by BBS does not provide any data on minimum wage for the domestic workers. BILS study on domestic workers reveals that in urban areas the average wage of the domestic workers is very meager, TK 509.60 per month. Majority of the domestic workers get Tk. 300 to Tk. 600 per month. 13 percent domestic workers' monthly wage ranges less than Tk. 300 per month. It is worth mentioning that domestic workers in rural areas usually do not get any wage in cash. Benefits are in kind in nature. Mostly they sell their labour in rural households in exchange of food and sometimes they get dresses, especially during festivals from their employers.

In many cases, especially in the case of child domestic workers, the wage is not given in the hands of the domestic workers. Family members of the child domestic workers or the middlemen, by whom the child was recruited, receive the wage in favour of him/her. It is also important to note that a large number of the domestic workers (about 40 percent) do not receive their monthly wage on regular basis.

In urban areas, besides monetary wages many domestic workers are provided with shelter, though poorly managed, and all get three meals a day. But majority of the domestic workers are not provided with adequate number of dresses and even some of them do not get new dress during festivals. Most of the domestic workers do not get any medical fees for their treatment and school fees for children.

Although very few domestic workers are getting occasional support for the treatment and education of their children, the amount is not sufficient to meet the total expenditure. Recently, few NGOs have come forward with health programmes for the domestic workers.

Occupational Safety and Health

At the work places, domestic workers are exposed to various types of occupational hazards, risks and injuries. In most households, domestic workers do various risky and hazardous jobs including working near cooking oven, carrying hot-water-pots ,lift water from reserve tanks, and ironing. These works become more hazardous and risky when carried out by the child domestic workers. Sometimes accidents occur while carrying out these jobs and domestic workers become injured severely. Even there are examples of death incidents because of the accidents. Moreover, the physical environment of their work place is not hygienic in some cases. Domestic workers are sometimes found working in high temperature and in low-light conditions.

Long working-hour, rest less in most cases, and lack of variation in tasks bring monotony for the domestic workers. Sometimes they carry too much weight that is also harmful to their health, especially for child domestic workers. They often face physical torture and abuse including sexual harassment. Domestic workers are rarely allowed to go outside and talk to and meet with others. Even in many cases they are kept under lock and key when employers do not stay at home. Thus, domestic workers become alienated from the surroundings that again creates severe psychological trauma.

It is a harsh reality that domestic workers are not provided with any sort of training on the risks and hazards of domestic work. Not much effort in providing training targeting the domestic workers for ensuring their occupational safety by the Government, NGOs or employers are visible in the country.

Hours of Work, Rest Period and Leave

Labour related national laws of the country do not include domestic workers' issues and thus do not provide any guidelines or standards on daily working-hour, rest period and leave. The standard of '8-hours work a day' is not followed in the case of domestic work. Domestic workers work tirelessly all day long and hardly get any chance to rest. Their work hours is an average, 10.73 hours every day. Child domestic workers too work for exceedingly long hours. Child domestic workers of Dhaka city work for an average of fifteen and a half-hours and the longest work period is 20 hours in a day and these children have leisure for 2.09 hours daily, on an average. Weekly holiday, which is a right of any worker, is also an unusual event for the domestic workers. Even there is no provision of enjoying leave on regular basis. Domestic workers enjoy leave occasionally.

Social Security and Maternity Protection

The access of domestic workers to the social security programmes of the country is negligible. Government is now implementing 64 programs under Social Safety Net scheme and most of the programs have specific target groups. None of these programmes targets the domestic workers of the country.

BILS study reveals that about one-third of the domestic workers (33 percent) are provided with medicine, during illness, on the basis of discretion of their employers. Only 7 percent domestic workers are taken to the MBBS doctor or local Family Health Clinic. It is worth mentioning that in 60 percent cases, the employers deduct the wage of the domestic workers to meet the treatment cost. Even in many cases employers send back their domestic workers home when they become ill. The female domestic workers become more vulnerable when they are pregnant. At that time they are forced to leave the job and usually there is no certainty of getting the job back.

As the domestic workers do not have any formal contract with their employers, they always remain at risk of losing the job. A domestic worker usually returns from his/her employer's house with an empty hand or a very little amount of money, even after serving for a long period, and it becomes difficult for him/her to survive in new conditions. A domestic worker finds no applicability of learning and experiences that he/she got over the past years. It aggravates the socio-economic vulnerability of domestic workers and they become dependent on others. At that time most of them borrow money from relatives, neighbours or local money-lenders and fall into the vicious circle of poverty again.

Representation, Rights to Organize, and Bargain Collectively

The constitution of Bangladesh has ensured the Freedom of Association and Freedom of Assembly as fundamental rights of its citizens. The existing labour law also has recognized trade union rights of the workers. However, the domestic workers are deprived of enjoying these rights.

There is no formal organization and association of the domestic workers in Bangladesh. Although some informal initiatives are seen to bring domestic workers into association, those are sporadic in nature. There are some challenges for the domestic workers to bring themselves into organizations and participate in activities. The nature of workplace is the main hurdle for domestic workers to form association of their own for looking after their issues and establishing rights.

Domestic workers remain confined within the four-walls of their employers' house and they hardly get any chance to come out and talk to others. Thus they do not get the opportunity to express and exchange their feelings, emotions and demands with other domestic workers. There is also fear, among the domestic workers, that they would lose the job if their employers find them involved in outside activities.

Moreover, as mostly, domestic workers either are illiterate or have very little education, they are unaware of their rights and they even do not realize the importance of forming association. This also bars the domestic workers to become united and establish own organization. There is no representative body of the domestic workers in the country. Consequently, the collective bargaining capacity of the domestic workers of the country is competently absent.

Although the role of trade unions in establishing the rights of domestic workers in the country was not so noticeable and trade unions were quite less attentive to bring the issue at various levels of labour-related policy formulation process even in few years back, active position has now been remarkably visible in this particular field. In recent years, trade unions have raised their voice against the exclusion of the domestic workers from the Labour Law 2006 and are performing pro-active role to bring domestic workers under coverage of the law. Trade unions are also trying to ensure minimum wage for the domestic workers. To this end, trade unions are now persistently engaged in advocacy and lobbying with the government. Moreover, trade unions have also brought themselves closer to and established network with civil society and human rights organizations to add momentum to the domestic workers rights issues in the country.

The Role of the civil society organizations in promoting domestic workers issue is yet to get momentum in the country. A handful of civil society organizations, including but not limited to Shaishab-Bangladesh, Ain O Shalish Kendra, BNWLA,

Shurovi have incorporated the issues of domestic workers in their programmes. It is important to note here that most of these organizations consider the issue primarily from human rights point of view and do not perceive the issue exclusively from labour-rights perspectives. Therefore, although these organizations are raising voice against torture of domestic workers, they are less vocal with regard to issues like non-payment or irregular payment, long working hour, restless work, and weekly holiday of the domestic workers at their work places.

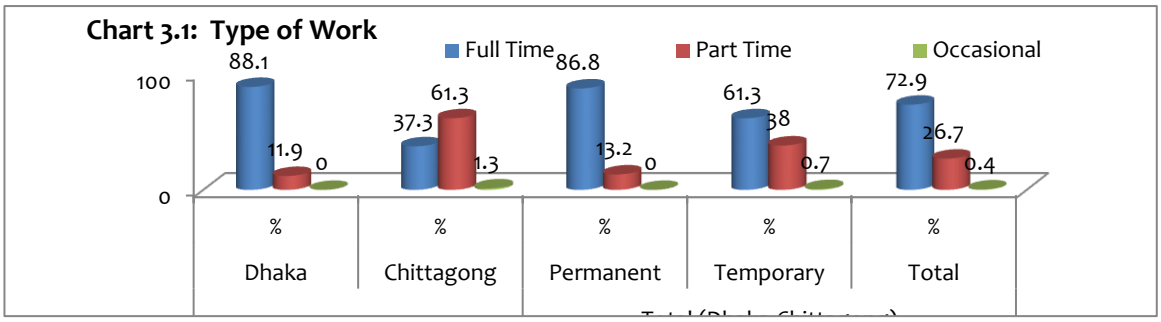
The most significant development in civil society initiatives for promoting the issues of domestic workers is the establishment of Domestic Workers Rights Network (DWRN) in December 2006. DWRN has also been working as a bridge between and among different Trade Unions, NGOs, Human Rights Organization, Civil Society, and the Government. Most remarkable success DWRN has so far achieved is the preparation of a Draft Code of Conduct for the Domestic Workers (DCCDW).Network has submitted the DCCDW to the Government and the Government has agreed in principle to adopt the DCCDW. It has become possible to bring the Government into such agreement because of vigorous efforts made by DWRN. A draft policy titled 'Domestic Workers Protection and Welfare Policy, 2010' had been drafted about couple of years ago by the Ministry for Labour and Employment. The policy is still under scrutiny and yet to be implemented by the authority.

3. Domestic Service Work in Bangladesh: The State of Rights

This section focuses on the current state of the domestic work service in Bangladesh. To describe the situation, the present section is divided into five sub sections in terms of employment contract; working experience and hours of work; wage and benefits; work and workplace environment; and associations.

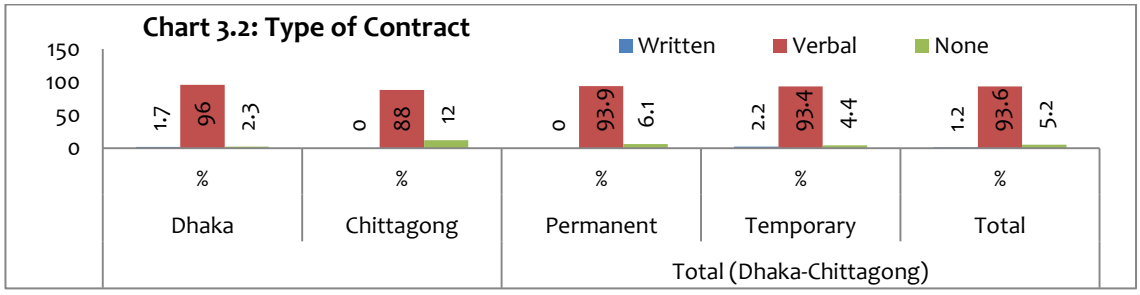
Employment Contract

The majority of domestic workers work on a full time basis. Nearly three-fourths of the study respondents (73 percent) work as full time domestic workers, while over one-fourth (27 percent) work on part time basis. A small percentage (4 percent) of domestic workers claimed to have been involved in the sector occasionally (Chart 3.1 and Annex Table 3.1). The preference for domestic service work is mainly due to the work-family balance. The women workers in general and the temporary workers in particular were of the view that they get enough time to look after the family even if they work full time as domestic workers in contrast to other work opportunities available to them e.g., garment work.



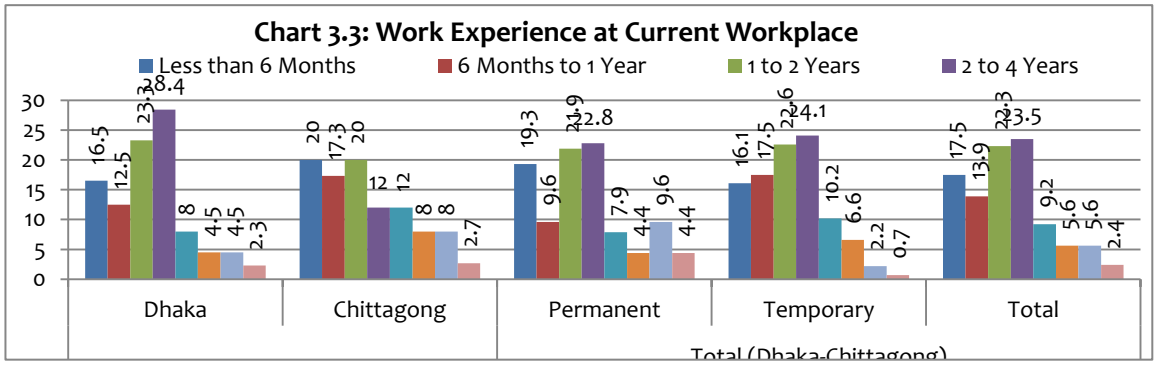
The employment contract is informal in nature. An significant proportion of the respondents (1.2 percent) claimed to have written contact with the employers, while for the most common contract is verbal, applicable to about 93 percent of the respondents (Chart 3.2 and Annex Table 3.2). In majority cases, the owners just inform the salary and type of work to settle the recruitment process. As majority of the domestic workers are employed through informal channel, written contacts rarely exists in this sector. It is however evidence through discussion with workers and the key interviewees that the workers who have written contract, mainly have close contact with the organization working for domestic workers rights like "Naree Maitry" and they received written contract due to intervention of those organization in recent time.

From focus group discussion with employers, it is found that the owners generally prefer to recruit their known persons like people living in the same village, or known to relatives. They also think that written contact is rather unnecessary for such an informal work. "In case of written contact, some mandatory responsibilities and compliances rest on the owners which make them uninterested in written contacts," notes a key interviewee. Another key interviewee said that mainly the owners do not trust the domestic workers. They fear that the workers can misuse written contact against the owners and would demand unnecessary benefits. The FGDs and KIIs, discussion led to unveil that both the owners and the workers would be better off with the systemization of the recruitment system where a legitimate recruitment agency or the local governmental institution would play the role of mediator and they both can take lawful actions against in case of any problem.

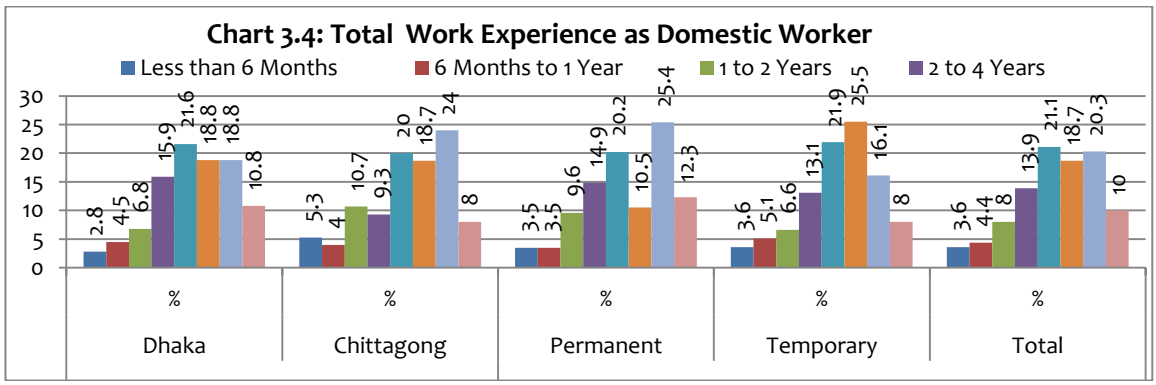


Work Experience

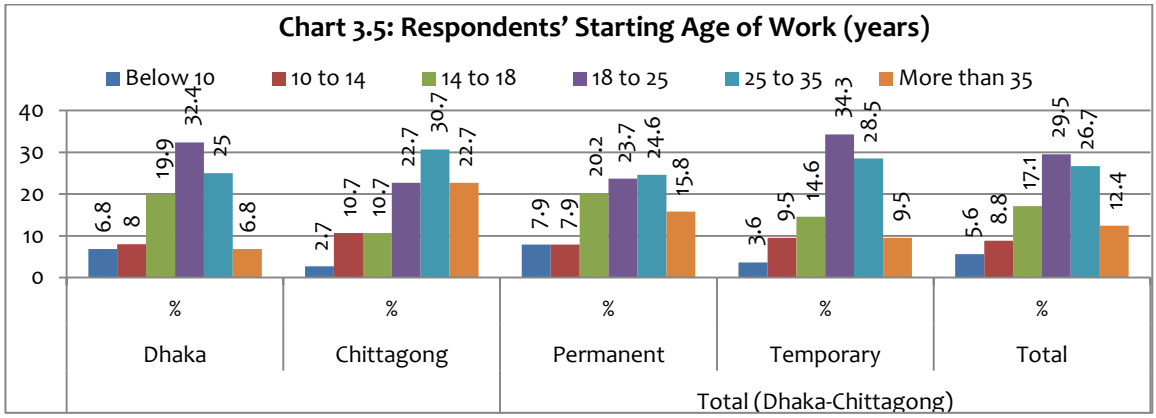
Most domestic workers have long experience of work in a household. About 6 percent respondents have more than 10 years and 2 percent have over 20 years work experience at current workplace. The highest 23 percent of respondents are working in their current work place for 2 to 4 years, followed by 22 percent are working for 1 to 2 years(Chart 3.3 and Annex Table 3.3).



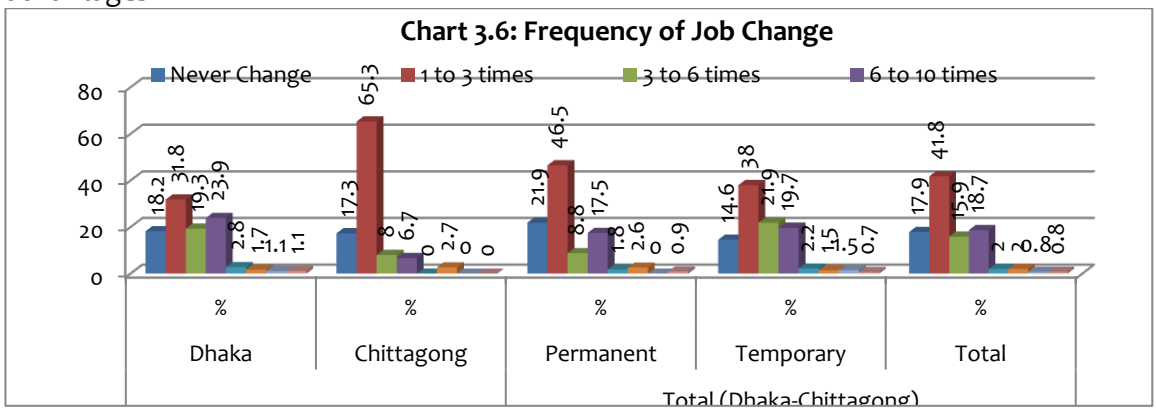
About half of the survey respondents (49 percent) have working experience for more than seven years as domestic worker and among them 10 percent have more than 20 years working experience in this sector. Only four percent have less than six month working experience (Chart 3.4 and Annex Table 3.4).



The findings highlights that most of the domestic workers (around 47 percent) involved in this work at their young age (age range between 14 to 25 years) (Chart 3.5 and Annex Table 3.5). Without doubt, many of these workers started their work as child labour. About six percent of the respondents started work when they were below 10 years and about nine percent started working when their age was between 10 to 14 years. As most of the respondents have come from needy family, it is quite natural to get involved into work at a teen age, said a key informant.



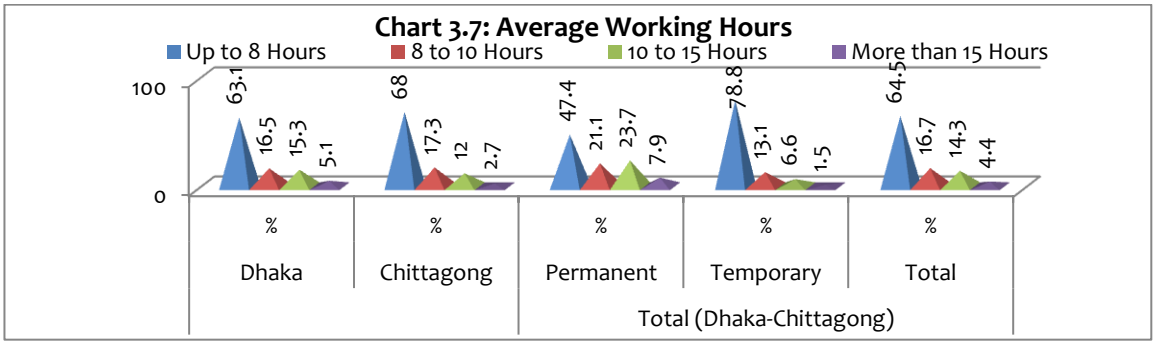
Data regarding frequency of job change highlights that the domestic workers are not interested to change their job frequently if they receive adequate wage and good behavior at their workplace. The Chart 3.6 (also Annex Table 3.6) shows that only 24 percent respondents change their job more than five times. About 18 percent respondents however informed they never change their job and 42 percent said they have changed their job only one to three times. In FGDs the participant said that they usually change their jobs if they get the opportunity of higher salary. But some of the domestic workers mentioned that sometimes they change their jobs not for salary but for better behavior of the employers, safety, short distance from their residence, familiarity with the employer and other advantages.



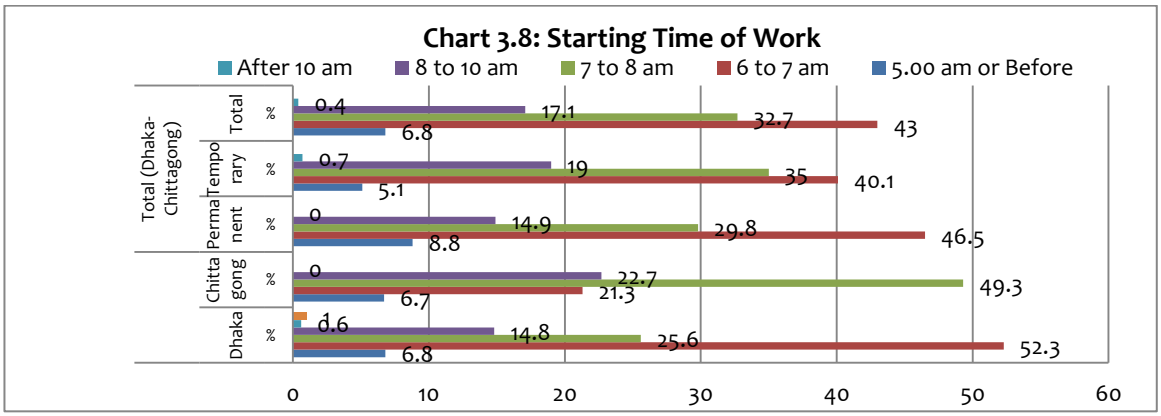
Working Hours

The national and international instruments allow working for eight hours generally and 10 hours including overtime work daily. Though the study reveals mean working hours is 8.02, many domestic workers generally work up to ten hours (19 percent) and most alarming fact is that about five percent of them work for more than 15 hours daily (Chart 3.7 and Annex Table 3.7). Their weekly average working hours is counted over 50 hours as they hardly enjoy weekly holiday or others leave.

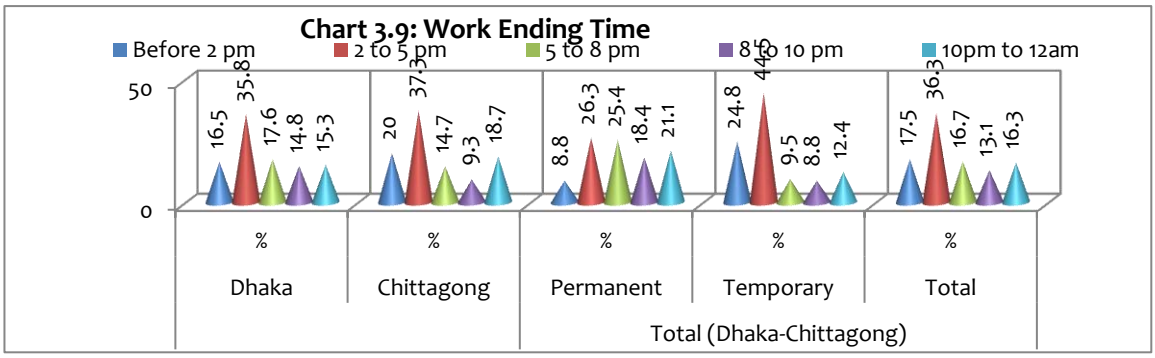
The study also reveals that the permanent workers' working hours tend to be higher than those of temporary workers. It is revealed in FGDs that the working hour is usually long for the permanent workers specially those who live in the employers houses. They said that the workers who live in employer house often are not allowed to go for sleep up to all the family members go for sleep. For this type of extra work burden, many workers do not want to stay at employers' house.



The data shows the usual time of starting work is 6 am to 7 am followed by start their work from 7 am to 8 am (Chart 3.8 and Annex Table 3.8). The study also reveals that the permanent workers particularly live in employers house generally start their work earlier than to temporary workers.



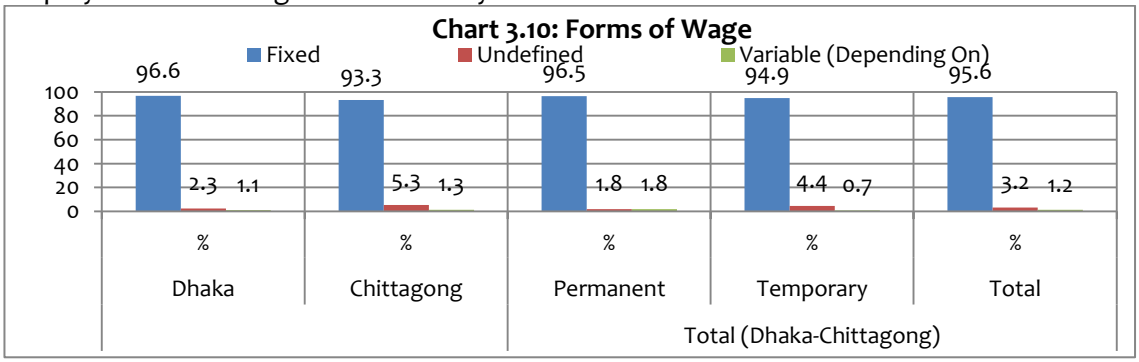
The survey result highlights that 2 pm to 5 pm is the most common ending time of work for the majority of workers (36 percent) particularly for temporary workers. About 18 percent workers mostly temporary finish their work before 2 pm., where about 18 percent and 21 percent permanent worker claimed that they finish their work within 8 pm to 10 pm and 10 pm to 12 pm respectively (Chart 3.9 and Annex Table 3.9). The employers claimed in FGD that they rarely keep their permanent workers involved in work after 10 pm. They mainly are awake after that time mainly to watch TV.



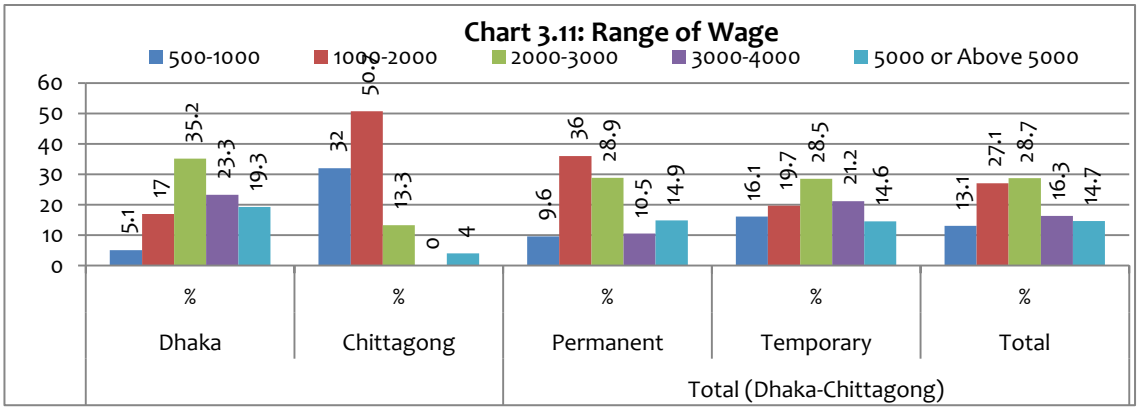
Wage and Benefits

The domestic workers generally work on fixed salary basis. Almost all the workers of present study said that they work on fixed salary basis. Only three percent replied that their salary is not fixed or undefined (Chart 3.10 and Annex Table 3.10). The FGD findings also support the

survey findings, where except one all the participants (both workers and parents) informed that they or their children work on fixed salary basis. A domestic worker's mother said that her child did not receive any fixed salary. She mainly works for food and clothes. Occasionally such as during Eid and when she visit employers house to meet her child, the employer of her child give some money her.

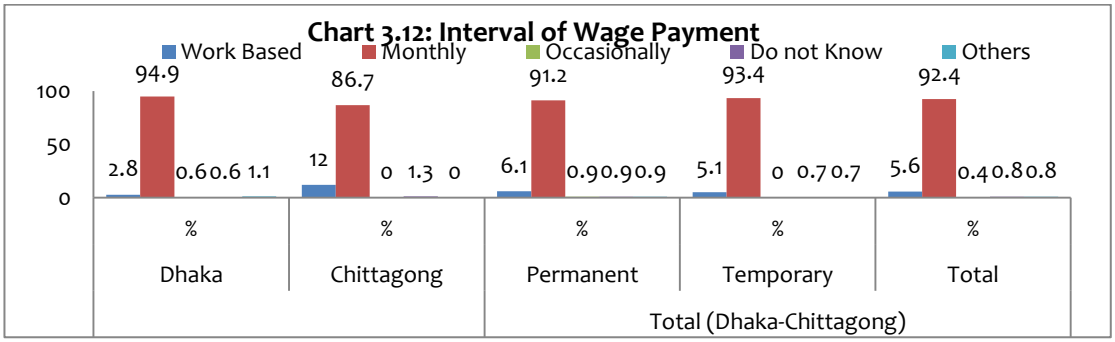


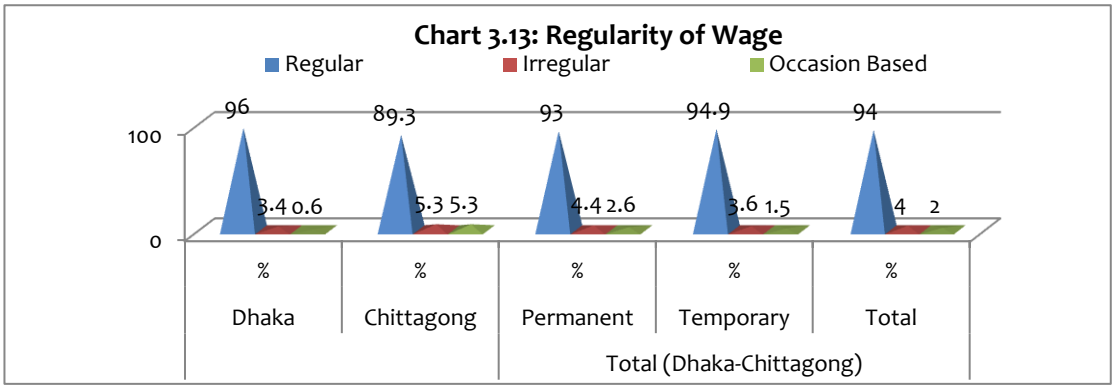
Earning or income is important to secure a livelihood of workers and their family. The present study evidences that most of the workers' monthly income is under poverty line. Only 15 percent workers earn over Tk. 5000 monthly. From the FGDs, it is confirmed that the monthly remuneration is of permanent workers is quite low compare to permanent workers as the temporary workers rarely get other facilities (e.g. accommodation. food and clothes) like permanent workers. The data further reveals that the remuneration of workers working in Dhaka city is higher than those of working in Chittagong city (Chart 3.11 and Annex table 3.11).



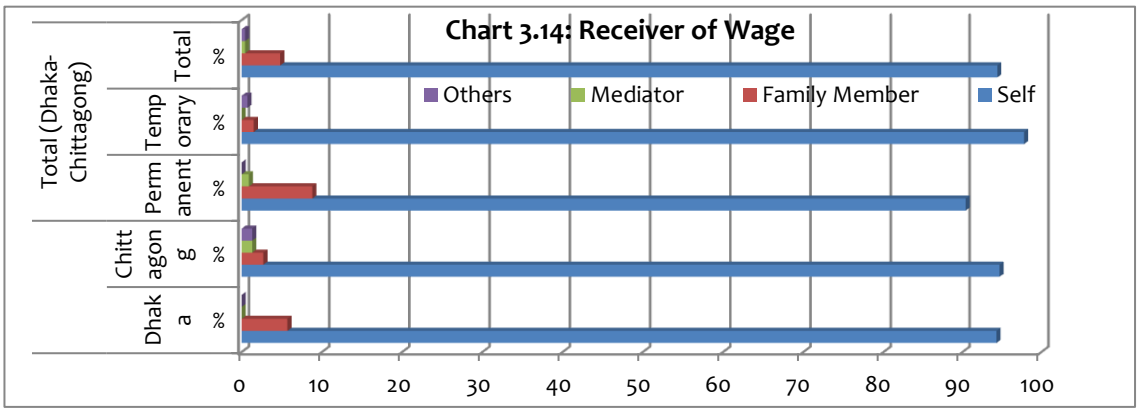
The collected data indicates that most of the respondents (92 percent) receive their wage as monthly basis while only about six percent take as work based (Chart 3.12 and Annex table 3.12. From the FGDs, it was seen that the majority of the participant prefer to take salary monthly. However, few respondents said that they do not know anything about their wage.

The study reveals that majority of respondents get their wage regularly, while 4 percent claims about irregularity of wage payment. Only 2 percent respondents said they receive their wage on occasion based like during going to village, if father or mother needs money, during Eid and sometimes in emergency time (Chart 3.13 and Annex Table 3.13). A significant number of FGD precipitant also said that they generally get their wage regularly. But some of them alleged that though the employers pay regularly, often their wage is deliberately delayed for six to ten days. One of them said, "Actually the owner do it because she wants to become sure that she (workers) is not living the job." On the other hand employers in FGD said they generally pay within five date of each month.

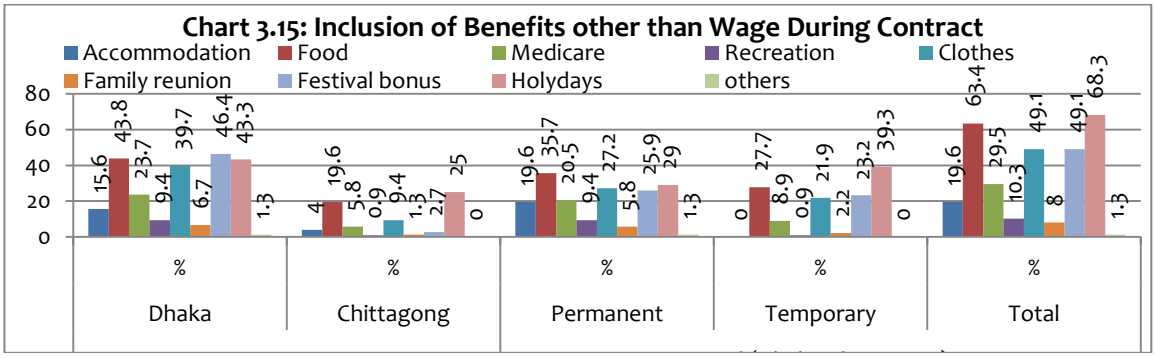




About 94 percent respondents take their wage by themselves. Few of them (5 percent) affirm that their wages are collected by the family members. Only one respondent was found for whom wage is taken by a mediator (Chart 3.14 and Annex table 3.14). From the FGDs, it is seen the workers who do not live with employers take their wage by her selves. But some permanent workers who live in employers' house and need to send money to village, wage is usually received by the family members. Moreover in some cases, the employers' directly sent the money to the domestic workers' family member and the workers even do not know anything about it.

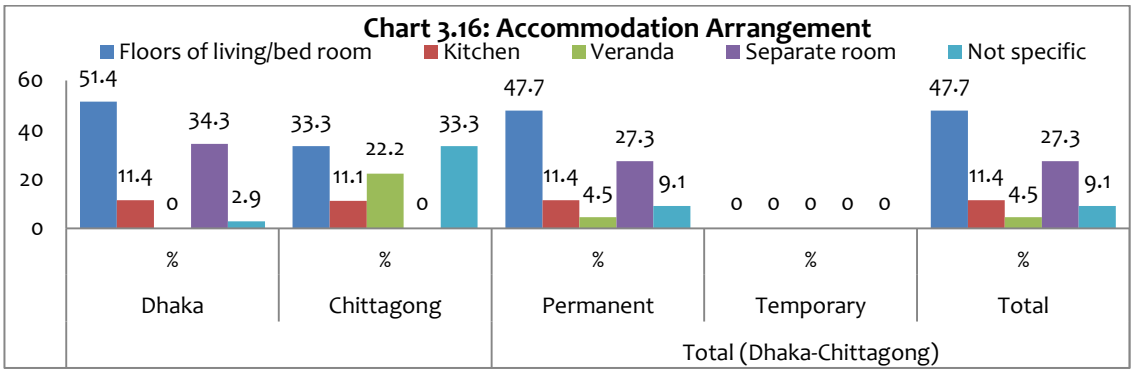


Inclusion of benefits other than Wage is hardly decided during employment contract. The following chart (Chart 3.15 and also Annex table 3.15) focuses on the inclusion of benefits other than wage decided during contract. It reveals the highest 68 percent respondents reported that their employers confirmed that they would provide festival holidays to them followed by 63 percent reported their employers would be provided food to them. Providing accommodation facilities were confirmed by 20 percent employers. About each 49 percent respondents said that their employers assured to provide clothes and festival bonus respectively. Beside these, 30 percent, 10 percent and 8 percent respondents in formed that their employers committed to them to give the facilities of medicare, recreation and family reunion.

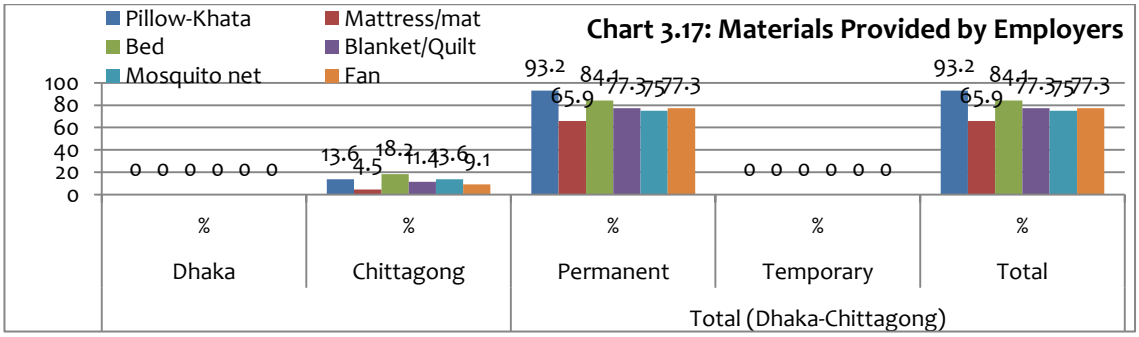


Work and Workplace Environment

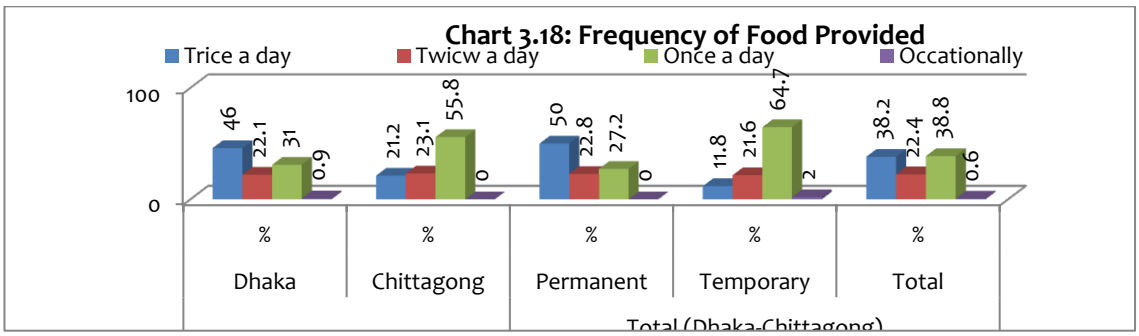
Out of Total 114 permanent workers only 44 workers live in the owners' house. The rest of the workers go to their own residence after finishing work. Though the domestic workers live in the employers' house, they are rarely treated as family member. The study reveals that near about half of respondents' (48 percent) sleeping arrangement is floor of living or bedroom. Only 27 percent have a separate room. About 11 percent and 4 percent respondents claim that they sleep in the kitchen and veranda respectively. Nonetheless, about 9 percent alleged that they do not have any fixed sleeping place (Chart 3.16 and Annex table 3.16). They have to shift their sleeping arrangement from one place to another place as required.



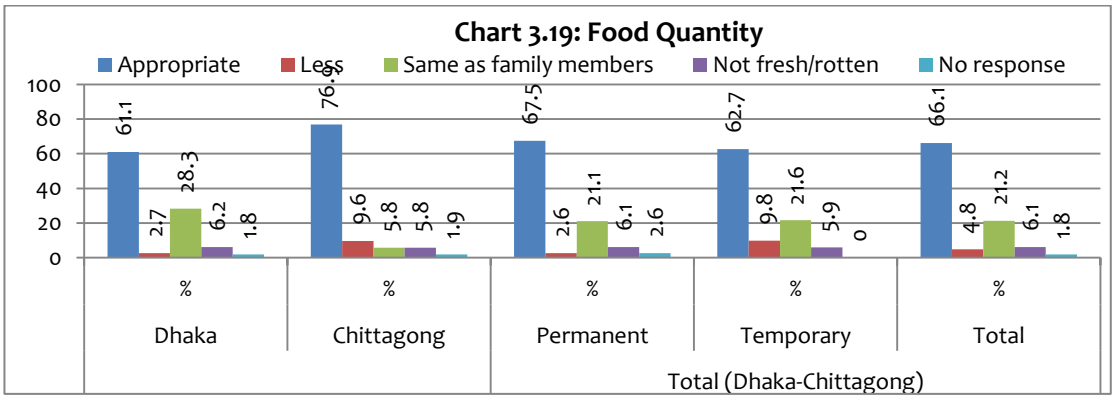
When the respondents were asked about sleeping materials provided by employers, multiple responses received from them. It is evidence that pillow-*khata* (93 percent) followed by bed (84 percent) is the most common sleeping items provided by the employers to the permanent domestic workers who live in the employers house. Each 77 percent get blanket-quilt and fan respectively. Mosquito nets are provided to 75 percent workers and mattress/mat is available to 66 percent (Chart 3.17 and Annex Table 3.17).

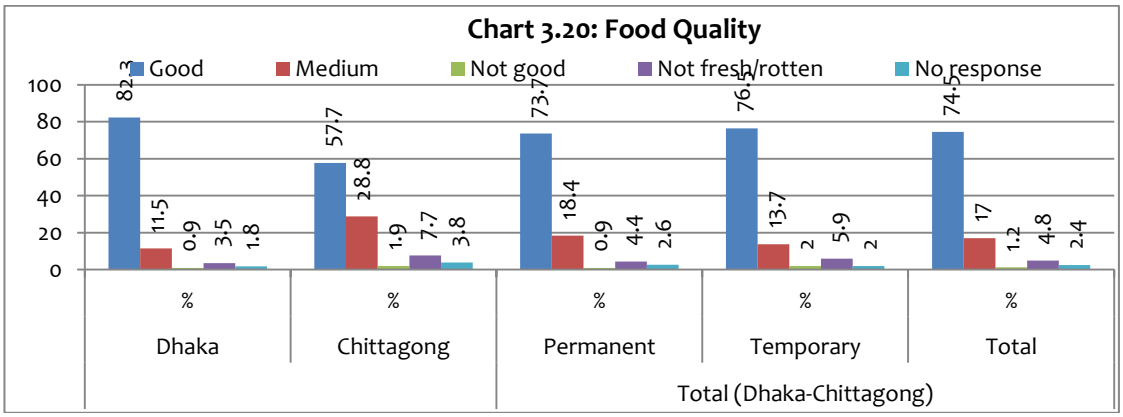


Form the collected data of 251 respondents, 165 get the food facilities from the owners. In case of frequency of receiving food it is seen that about 39 percent workers get food once a day, 38 percent get trice a day and 22 percent twice a day. The survey result however shows that the permanent workers mainly receive three times or two times food. The temporary workers mainly receive food once a day or occasionally (Chart 3.18 and Annex table 3.18).

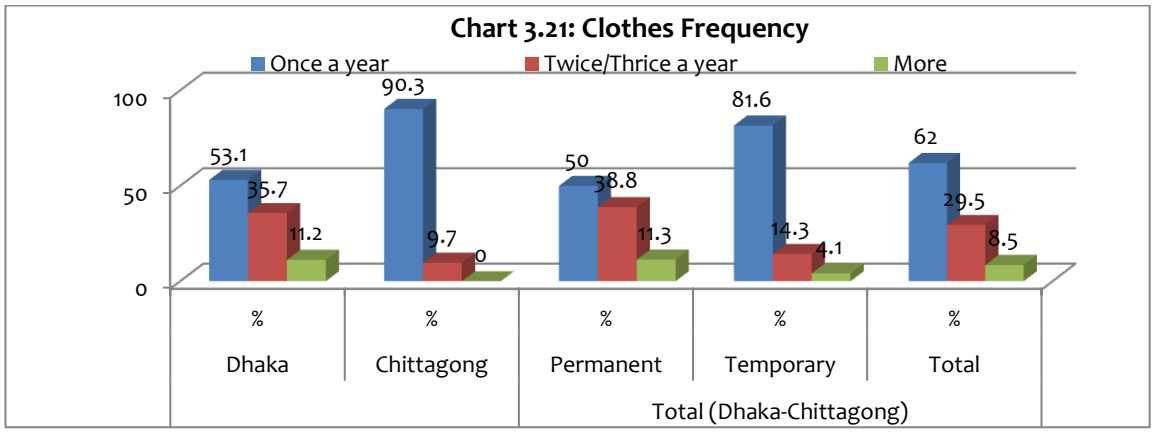


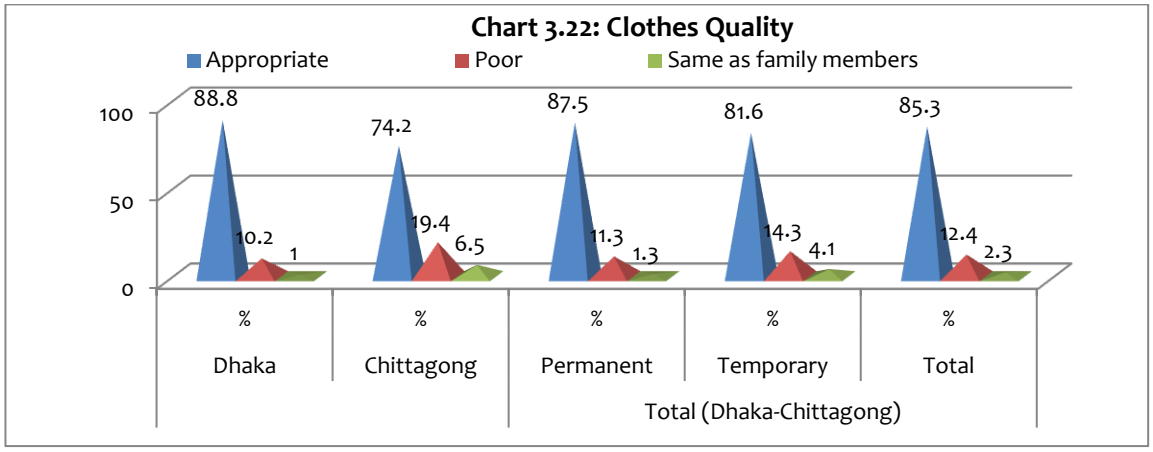
Furthermore when the respondents were asked about the quantity of food, 66 percent reply simply it as "appropriate", and 21 percent said as "same as family members". However, about 6 percent alleged that the quantity is "rotten" or "not fresh" and 5 percent responded as "less" (Chart 3.19 and Annex Table 3.19). About Quality of food about three-fourth of respondents replied that the quality is good and 17 percent said it is medium. Only about 6 percent alleged it as "no fresh/rotten or not good. A few respondents however refused to response about quality of food (Chart 3.20 and Annex Table 3.20). In FGD, some workers claimed that generally they have to take their foods only after all the family members completed their taking meal and sometimes they have to eat the foods of previous days or the leftover of the family members.

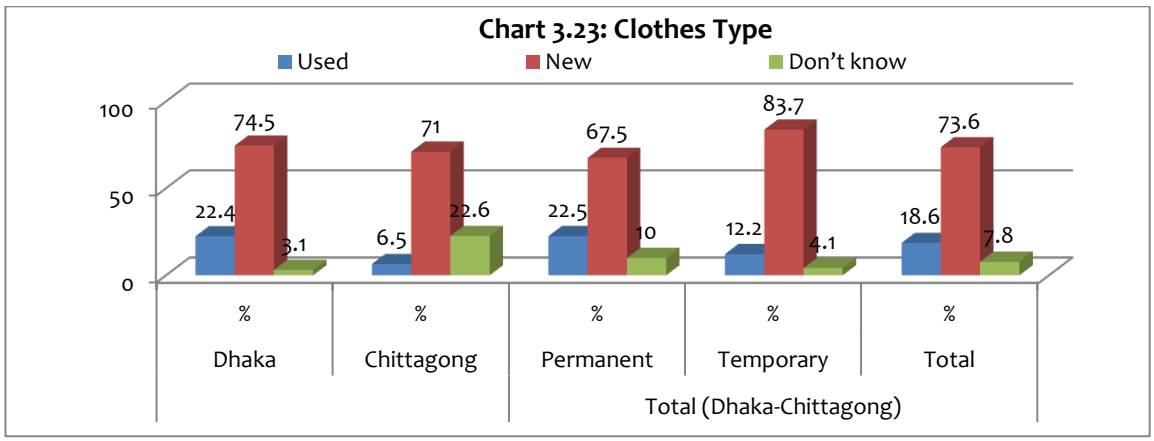




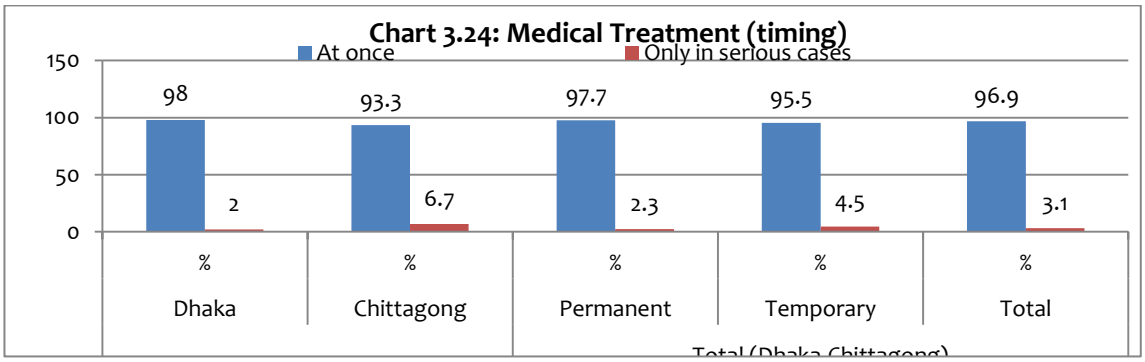
Out of Total respondents only 129 workers reported that they get cloths from the owners of whom the highest(62 percent) get only once in a year. About 29 percent receive two or three times and only nine percent get more than three times in a year (Chart 3.21 and Annex Table 3.21). About the quality of those cloths, greater part (85 percent) thinks that the quality is "appropriate" while 12 percent opined as "poor". Only two percent worker percent workers informed that their employers provide them the clothes like "same as family members" (Chart 3.22 and Annex Table 3.22). Concerning the types of the cloths, near about three- fourth of respondents acknowledged that the cloths are new. About 18 percent said that they are provided the used cloths and 9 percent said they do not know whether the cloths are new or used (Chart 3.23 and Annex Table 3.23).

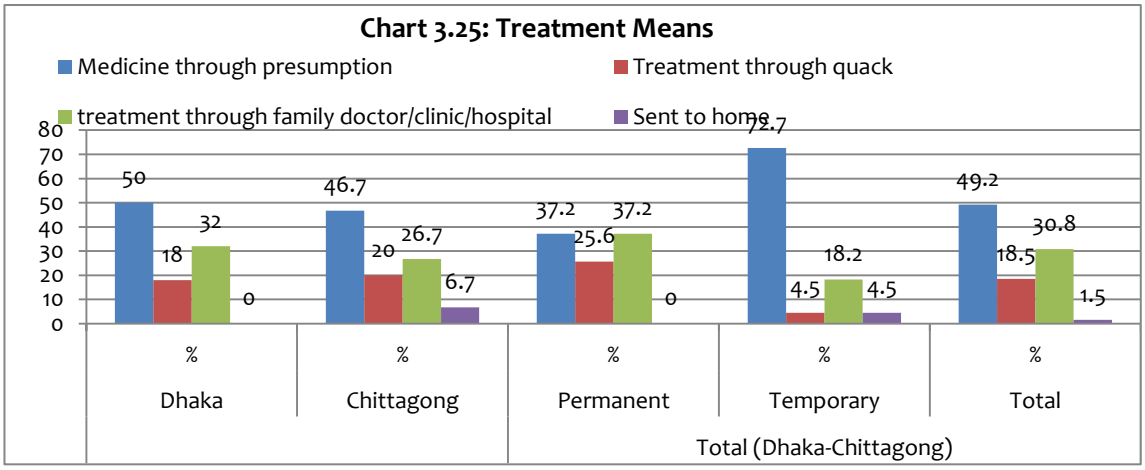




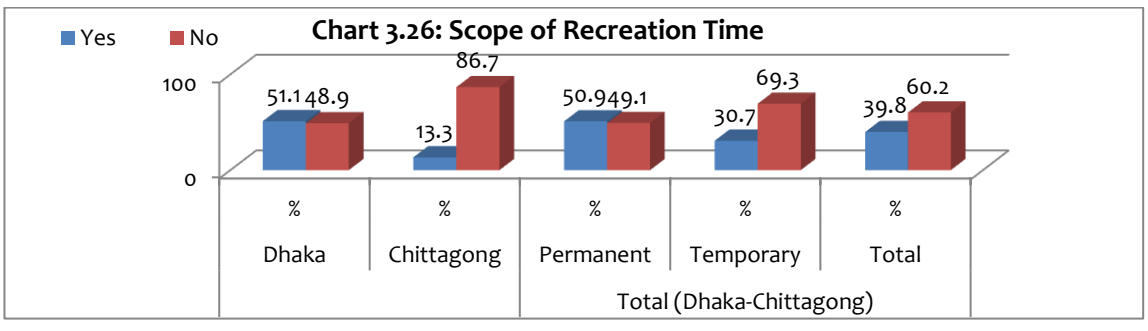


All most all the respondents reported that they receive medical facilities from their employers at once. Workers in FGD said that when they fell sick, they talk to the employers for medication sometimes they care and sometimes not. Basically temporary workers receive less treatment facilities from their employers. Three percent respondents however said that medical facilities are given only in serious cases (Chart 3.24 and Annex Table 3.24). But the main alarming issue that is found in the study is that about half (49 percent) of cases of sickness, the domestic workers were given medical treatment by medicine through presumption. About 18 percent sent to quack for treatment. A little of them (2 percent) claim that in some cases, they were sent to village home. Only 31 percent agreed that they got medical treatment through family doctor, or were sent to clinic or hospitals (Chart 3.25 and Annex Table 3.25).

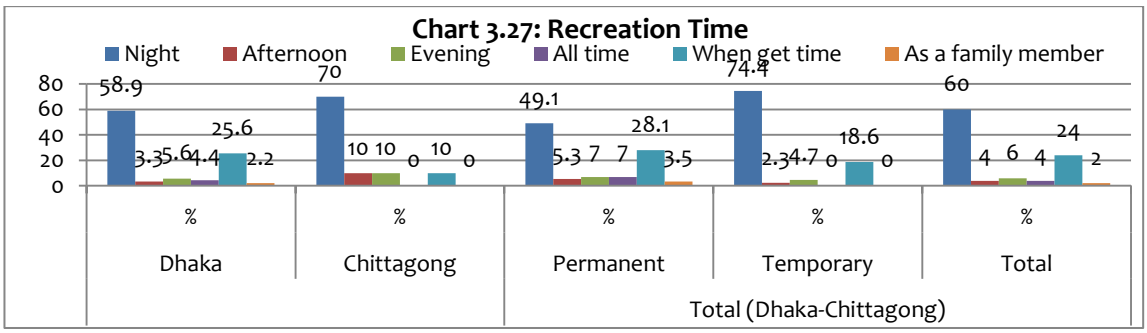




Majority of the domestic workers (60 percent) do not get the opportunity of recreation. Only about 40 percent respondents said that they get recreation opportunity and all the respondents mentioned only to watching TV as recreation facilities(Chart 3.26 and Annex Table 3.26).



The study also discloses that night is the most common (60 percent) recreation time for the domestic workers. Only 24 percent respondents said that they enjoy TV when get time. In the FGD, the participants informed that after finishing all household chores, they come back to their homes and watch TV. On the other hand, the permanent workers said that if there is not pressure of work, they use the time for recreation. A few respondents (2 percent) said that they get recreation time like family members(Chart 3.29 and Annex Table 3.27).



Leave and Rest

The study indicates that the domestic workers rarely enjoy leave or rest. Workers participated in FGD said that they could not enjoy weekly holiday. The temporary workers and the permanent workers who live in own house informed that sometimes they do not go for work if they become sick, but the permanent workers live in owner house do not get such opportunity. Maximum time they have to work during their sickness. In case of rest the data shows only a quarter of respondents get rest regularly and 35 percent get rest occasionally(Table 3.1). When they are asked for specify the time of rest, the highest number (46 percent) responded that they get rest at night. The FGD findings also documented that if employer (mainly female) found that they have no work she said to massage head or leg. Nevertheless the workers who reported about occasional rest most of them also specify that they receive rest at night (41 percent) and if do not have work. A number of respondents also mentioned that received rest occasionally (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1 Leave and Rest Received by Respondents

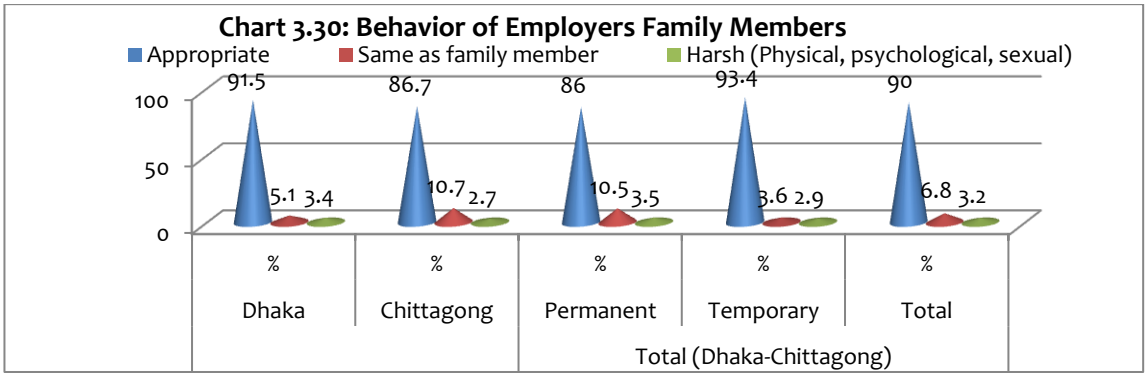
	Dhaka		Chittagong		Total					
					Permanent		Temporary		Total	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Leave and Rest Received by Respondents										
Regularly	56	31.8	9	12.0	34	29.8	31	22.6	65	25.9
Occasionally	64	36.4	24	32.0	35	30.7	53	38.7	88	35.1
Never	56	31.8	42	56.0	45	39.5	53	38.7	98	39.0
Total	176	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0
Specific Time of Receiving Regular Leave and Rest										
If do not have work	7	12.5	0	0.0	3	8.8	4	12.9	7	10.8
Afternoon	11	19.6	0	0.0	8	23.5	3	9.7	11	16.9
Noon	11	19.6	0	0.0	7	20.6	4	12.9	11	16.9
Night	21	37.5	9	100.0	12	35.3	18	58.1	30	46.2
3 hours	5	8.9	0	0.0	3	8.8	2	6.5	5	7.7
2 hours	1	1.8	0	0.0	1	2.9	0	0.0	1	1.5
Total	56	100.0	9	100.0	34	100.0	31	100.0	65	100.0

Specific Time of Receiving Occasional Leave and Rest										
If do not have work	12	18.8	2	8.3	7	20.0	7	13.2	14	15.9
Afternoon	16	25.0	8	33.3	11	31.4	13	24.5	24	27.3
Noon	13	20.3	1	4.2	4	11.4	10	18.9	14	15.9
Night	23	35.9	13	54.2	13	37.1	23	43.4	36	40.9
Total	64	100.0	24	100.0	35	100.0	53	100.0	88	100.0

The study also reveals that when the workers are actively occupied with their task most of them are always standby particularly permanent workers. The survey result shows the average stand by working hours for permanent workers is 1.88 and for temporary workers is 0.82 (Table 3.1).

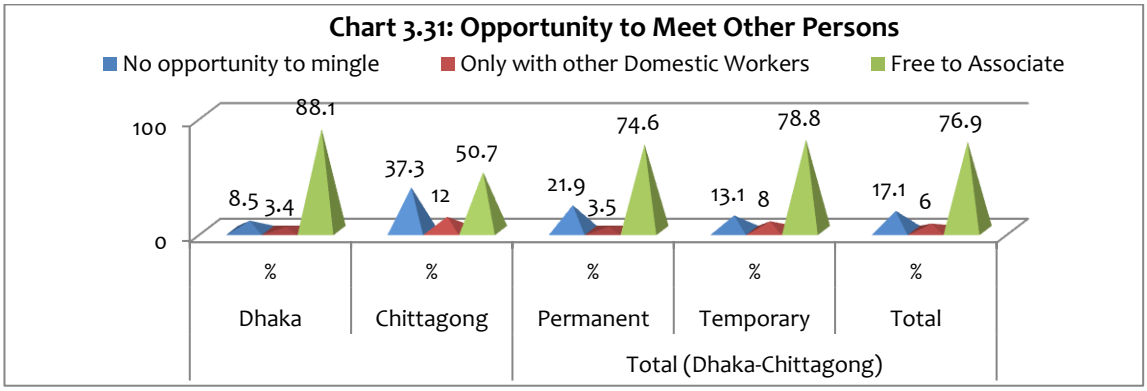
Behaviour of Employers Family Members to Respondents

The respondents consider that the behavior of employers' family members is almost appropriate to workers while 7 percent workers thought that they are treated as a family member by the employers. Only 3 percent claimed about employers' harsh behavior(Chart 3.30 and Annex Table 3.30). In FGDs, majority of the participants also confirmed about receiving employers' appropriate behavior. The workers who work as temporary basis said in FGD that if the employers try to misbehave, they protest it and immediately leave the job. It is documented from the finding that the bargaining power of domestic workers has increased and the attitude of employers has changed to domestic workers in recent years.



Association

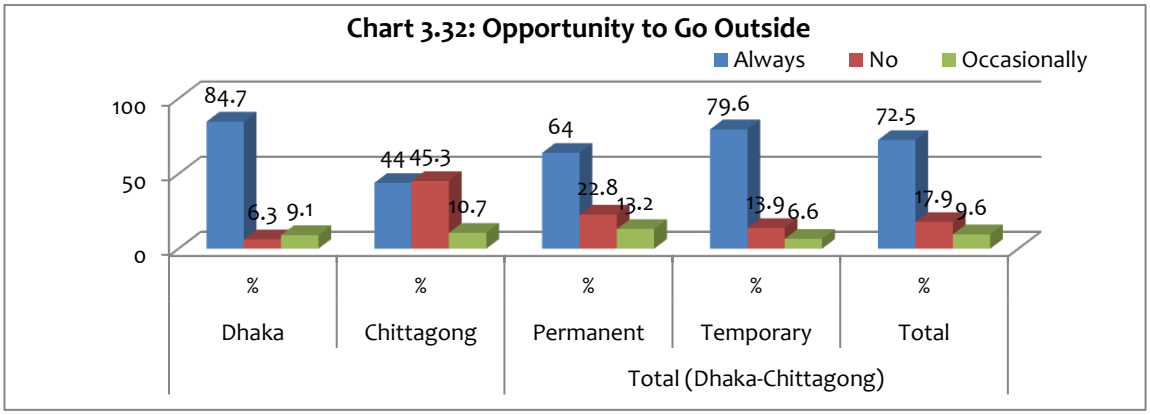
The evidence shows that above three-quarters of workers are free to associate with surrounding peoples or anybody. On the other hand, about 17 percent said they have no opportunity to mingle and another 6 percent said they can meet with only other domestic workers stayed in same building (Chart 3.31 and Annex Table 3.31).



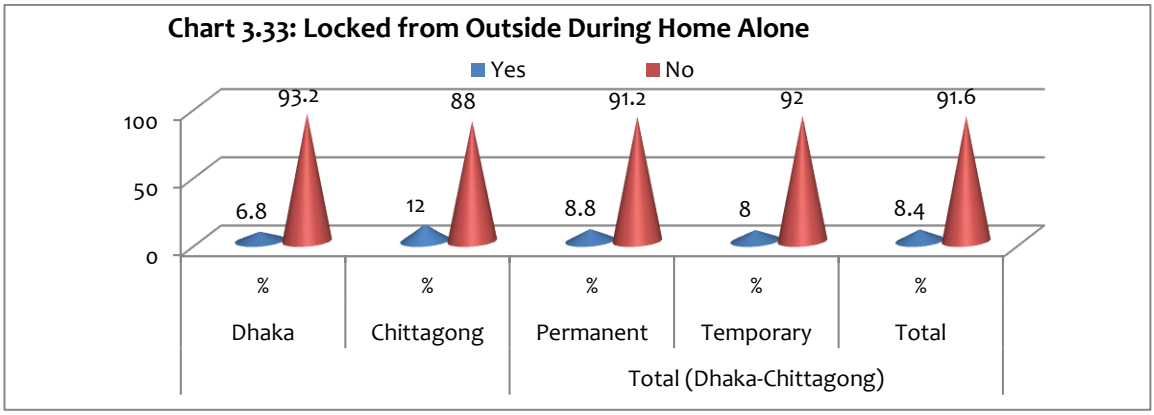
But it is documented in FGDs that both temporary and permanent workers who live outside are almost free to associate, the permanent workers who live in employers' house rarely get such opportunity. A parent claimed in FGD in this way, "My daughter never can go outside nor can meet with any person, even the employer rarely allow us to meet her. But they are well behaved to her." Some participant however tried to justify the owners' behaviour. They said that owners do not allow them to interaction with anybody. Because they fear that the workers would discuss the secret family matters with the outsiders. The participants also said that the owners forbid them to join any organization as the owners fearing that joining any organization they would become aware and demand various benefits. Conversely the employers said in FGD that they sometimes do not allow their workers to associate outsider due to security purpose.

Opportunity to Go Outside

The study reveals that nearly two-third (73 percent) respondents always enjoy the opportunity to go outside of the house during their work, while 18 percent replied that they do not have such opportunity. More than 9 percent said that they are allowed to go outside only if it is required by employer such as to bring something from shop or to send something to others' house or in few cases if they have no household task (Chart 3.32 and Annex Table 3.32).



Majority number of respondents said that their owners do not lock them from outside when they stays alone in the house. However, 8 percent respondents said that they were locked from the outside if none of the employers' family member stays in the home (Chart 3.33 and Annex Table 3.33).During the FGDs with the employers, some of the employers acknowledged it and supported it as a precautionary measure arguing that they have past experience of being theft by the domestic workers or they do not trust the domestic workers and do not want to take any risks.



4. The Demand and Supply Mechanism of Domestics Service: The Rural-Urban Linkages

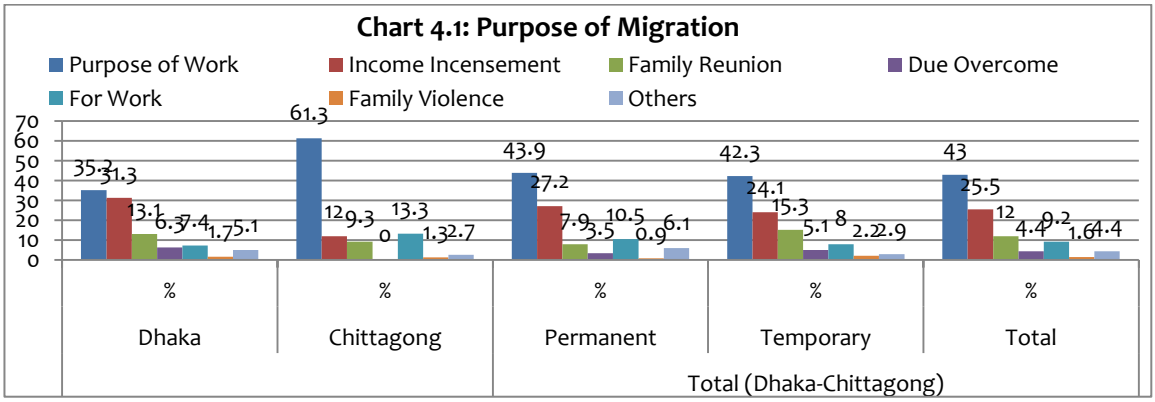
The demand for domestic service is growing due to demographic social and employment trends which include women working outside home, increase of nuclear family units in urban areas or disappearance of extended family support, and to increase income and purchasing power amongst urban population.

On the supply side, many factors lead to women entering in domestic work and encourage them to migrate from rural areas to more urbanized areas, within their countries or abroad. Literatures relating to domestic work service reveal the push factors that cause girl or female migration from rural to urbanized areas as well as to involve in domestic work are—rural poverty, family financial crisis, earning person's sickness, repay debt/loan, domestic violence, lack of security, natural disaster and lack of employment opportunity. The following section highlights the demand and supply mechanism of domestic service work explored in the survey findings. This section attempts to identify the current demand and supply mechanism of domestic service work in line with rural urban linkage in Bangladesh.

Migration Factors

Purpose of Migration

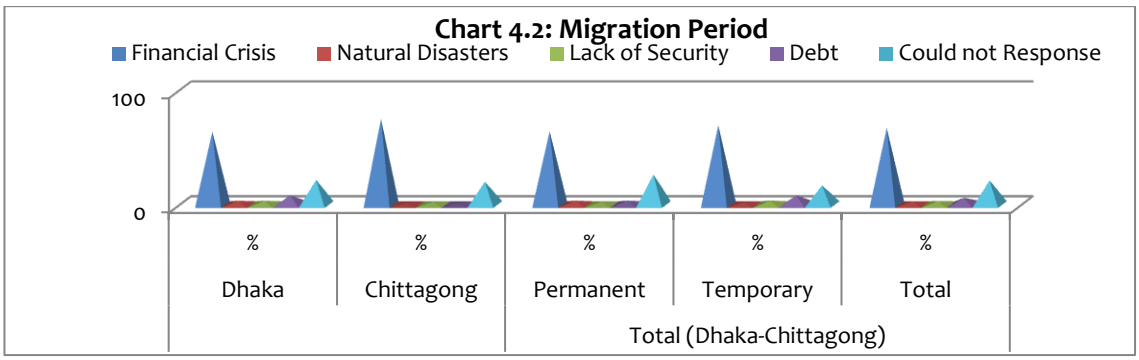
As most of the people of Bangladesh live below the poverty line, they naturally come to the cities to find a job. The survey result shows that 43 percent of the respondents decided to come to Dhaka or Chittagong to find a job, while about 26 percent were motivated to migrate for increasing their income. 12 percent further said that they have migrated to live with their family members. Debt and other reasons like voluntary migration, for the treatment of family members, and come to see the city also motivated some (9 percent) respondents to take the migration decision. Alarmingly, two percent said that they had migrated due to family violence (Chart 4.1 and Annex Table 4.1).



Migration Period

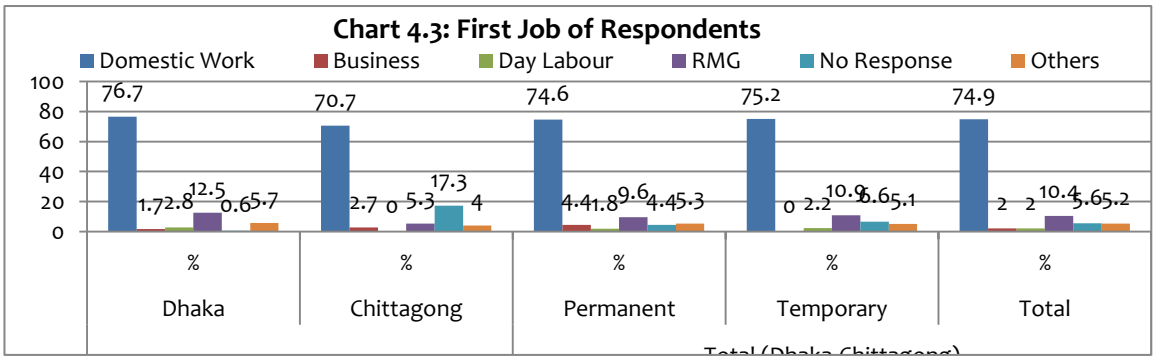
The study reveals that about 67 percent of the respondents migrated when they or their family faced financial crisis. From KIIs and FGDs, it is seen that when the guardians/earning members of the family did not earn enough in the village, they or their guardians decided to migrate them to the cities. Six percent of respondents reported that they join in this sector to overcome the burden of debt of their family. Lack of security (such as; family torture,

husband's torture, dead of husband, divorced by husband and lack of guardians) has also cause of migration for about three percent of the respondents. Another three percent respondents acknowledged that they took the migration decision by being a victim of natural disasters like river erosion, flood and others. On the other hand, more than about 21 percent respondents could not response this question as they have migrated to the cities in a very little age or their parents have migrated before their birth or they are settled in the cities from long time ago (Chart 4.2 and Annex Table 4.2).



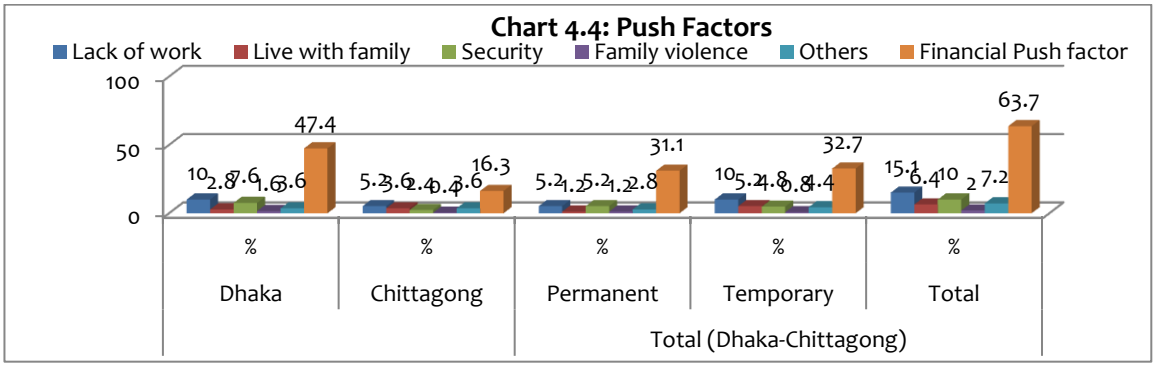
First Job of Respondents

Majority of the respondents' (75 percent) first job is domestic work, while ten percent respondents started their job as RMG worker. A little number of respondents (each 2 percent) informed that initially they worked as day labourer and would run small business respectively. However 6 percent of respondents could not specifically remember their first job. Only five percent reported started work in other sectors like cooking in hotels, and security guard (Chart 4.3 and Annex Table 4.3). In FGDs, almost all the participants said that they or their children work in this sector from the beginning of the working life. They further said, "it is very easy to manage a job of domestic work for poor people like us who do have lack of education and experience of other job".



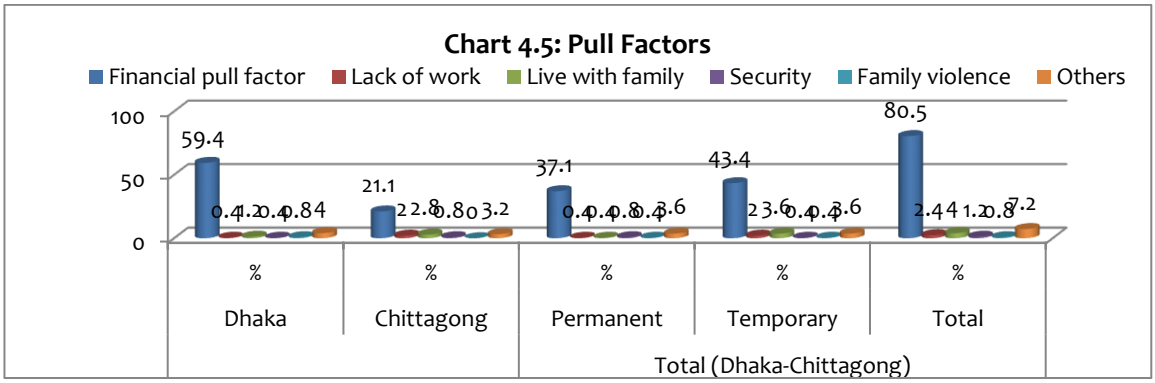
Push Factors

The study depicts that a number of push factors contribute to women entering in domestic work in Bangladesh. These include mainly financial factors like lack of income, extreme poverty, dead of husband, inability of husband to run the family or husband would not provide the family costs (64 percent), lack of work (15 percent), living with family a (6 percent), lack of security (10 percent), family violence (2 percent), and others factors e.g. natural calamities (like flood, river erosion), and lack of accommodations (Chart 4.4 and Annex Table 4.4). In KIIs and FGDs, the participants also mentioned that they migrated or send their members to the cities due to financial crisis mainly as they were struggling to maintain the family properly and hoping that it would bring extra money to the family.



Pull Factors

In the current study highest number of respondents informed that they came to cities due to financial advantages like better income, higher salary, more income opportunities, and preserve money for the future. They also mentioned some factors which encourage them to move for cities include job opportunity, living with family members (4 percent), and secured. Interestingly, more than seven percent stated that they motivated to migrate for other reasons like-fascination with the cities, treatment opportunity for sick family members, to live together with known persons, and to educate children (Chart 4.5 and Annex Table 4.5).



Nature of Employment Process in Domestic Work Service

Involvement Process

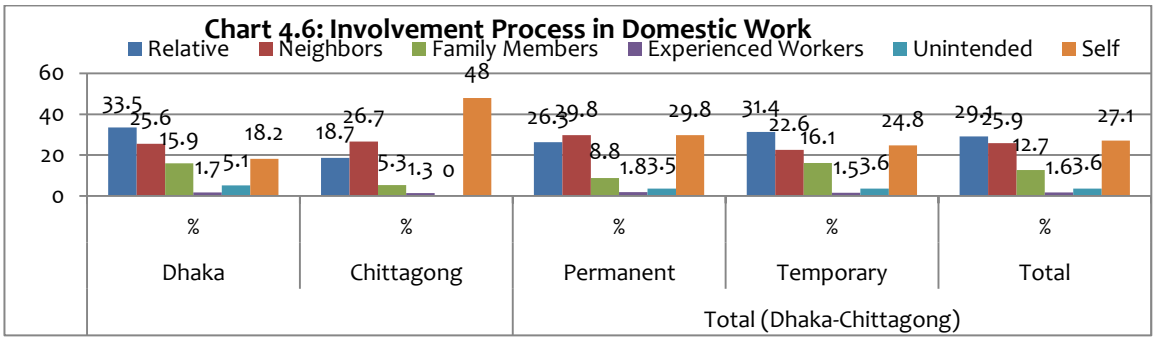
It is observed from the survey findings that the domestic workers mainly engaged in work through their relatives (29 percent) and followed by through neighbors (26 percent). It is however find that most of the permanent workers engaged in work through neighbors or by themselves (each 30 percent) (Chart 4.6 and Annex Table 4.6).

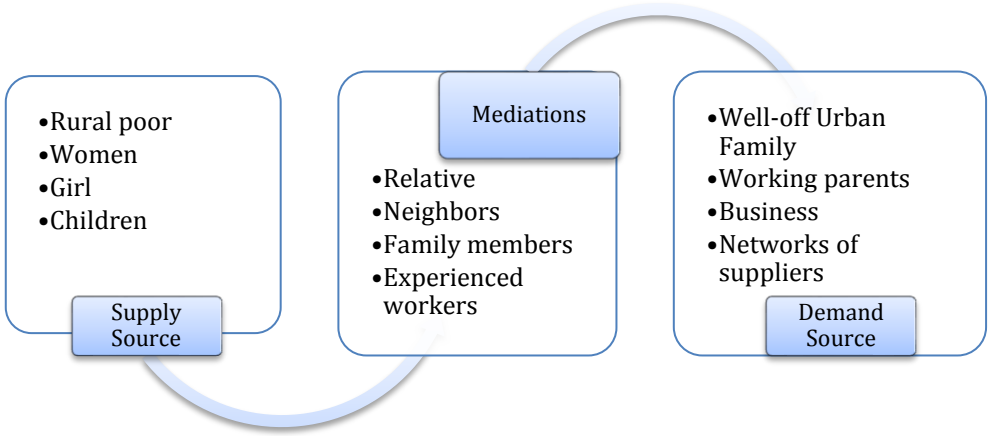
The FGD findings also support the survey findings. Most of the FGD participants (both parents and workers) reported that they or their

Box-4.1:
Lal Mia does not know where his daughter is!

Lal Mia a father of a domestic worker lives in Char Ishwardi union under MymensingSadarthana. Due to poverty he sent his daughter to work as domestic worker through a professional mediator in last summer. During taking her daughter the mediator said "your daughter will get Tk. 4000 monthly to do domestic work and you can run you family well by this amount." It has passed about a year but he does not know where his daughter is working. He asked several times to mediator about the address of employer but he did not give the address and not even any contact number. Then he informed the issue to union chairman and members. Chairman called and asked to him about his daughter; however he could not give any satisfactory answer. Now according to chairman suggestion he filed a case against him to find out his daughter.

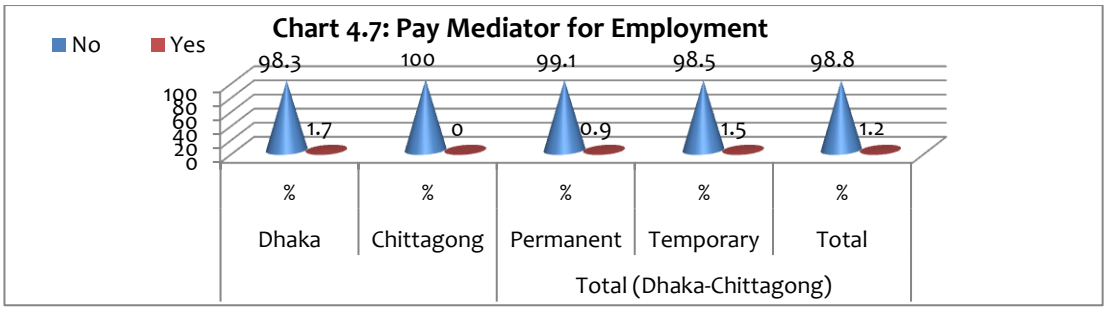
children was involved in domestic work service through their neighbors or known persons. It is however evidence from the FGDs that the rural girl or women who find job or recruited through mediator, sometime cheated by mediator (See box- 4.1). A key interviewee said, "Find out the domestic work through mediator is not secured all time." He also suggests that to ensure the security of those poor rural women and girl, a registration system should be establish and in this case the local government can play a significant role. Where another key interviewee who is also a high government official said that registration is not so important to reduce the vulnerability of domestic workers caused by mediator, in this case awareness raising is important so that the parents do not send their child without knowing detail information about employers and workplace and do not send their children alone with mediator basically who are professional mediator.





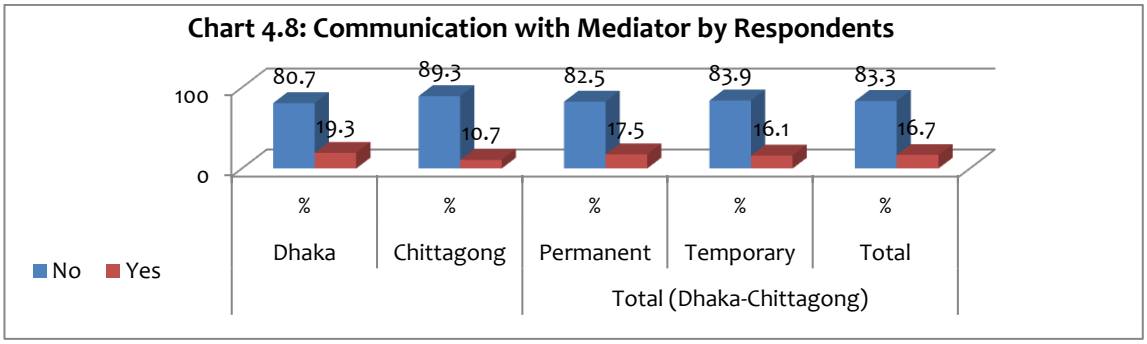
Pay to Mediator by Respondents for Employment

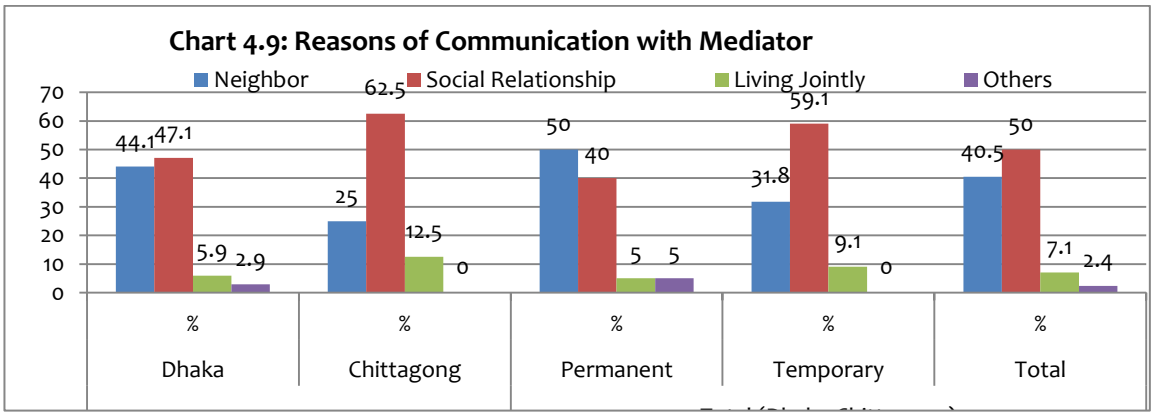
Almost all the respondents said that they did not have to pay to the mediator for arranging their job (Chart 4.7 and Annex Table 4.7). The similar statement was also received from most of the participant in FGDs. They acknowledged that they did not need to mandatorily pay to the mediator. They sometimes voluntarily paid to the mediator being happy upon him/her for managing the jobs. But the mediator never demanded it as compulsory. But some employers claimed in FGD that they had to pay to mediator for arranging domestic workers for them.



Communication by Respondents with Mediator

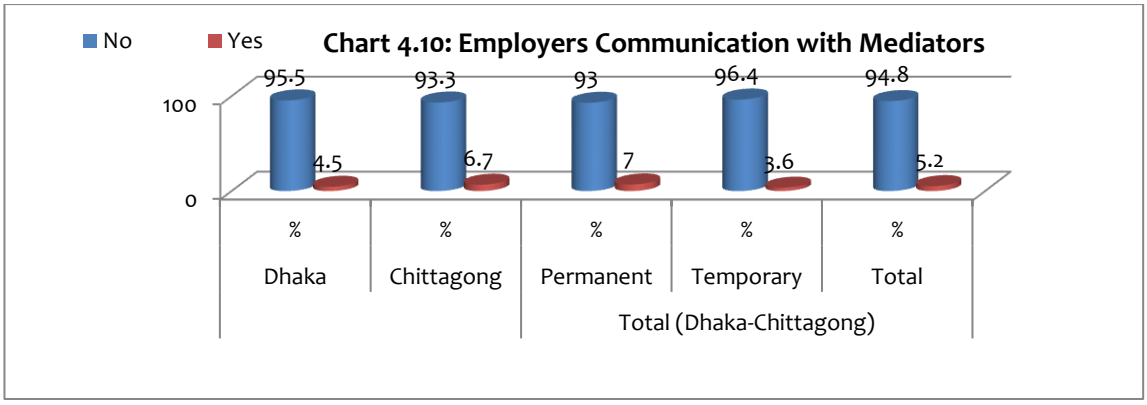
The study finding reveals that a small number of respondents (18 percent) maintained communication with the mediators (Chart 4.8 and Annex Table 4.8). The reasons of communications include- as they are neighbor (41 percent), maintaining social relations (50 percent), live together with the mediator (7 percent) and other reasons (2.4 percent) such as; the mediator come to see her or they both work on the same household and as the mediator loves her (Chart 4.9 and Annex Table 4.9).





Whether Employers Communicate with Mediators for any Problem

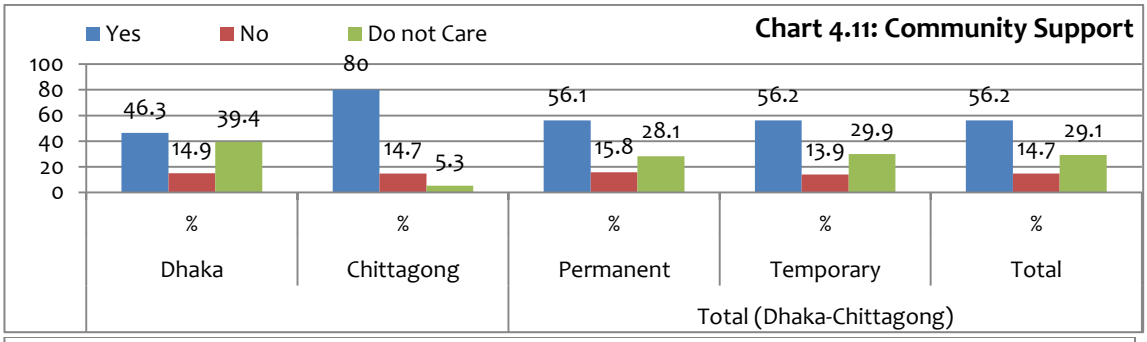
The following table reveals that like the domestic workers, the employers rarely communicate with the mediator (5 percent) (Chart 4.10 and Annex Table 4.10). In the FGDs (with domestic workers), the participants also said that when the job is settled, the role of a mediator is no more necessary. If any problem arises, the owner and the worker bilaterally solve it. Moreover, the respondents who claimed that employers sometimes communicate with mediators if any confusion arise between employers and them, mediator shows well behave to them.

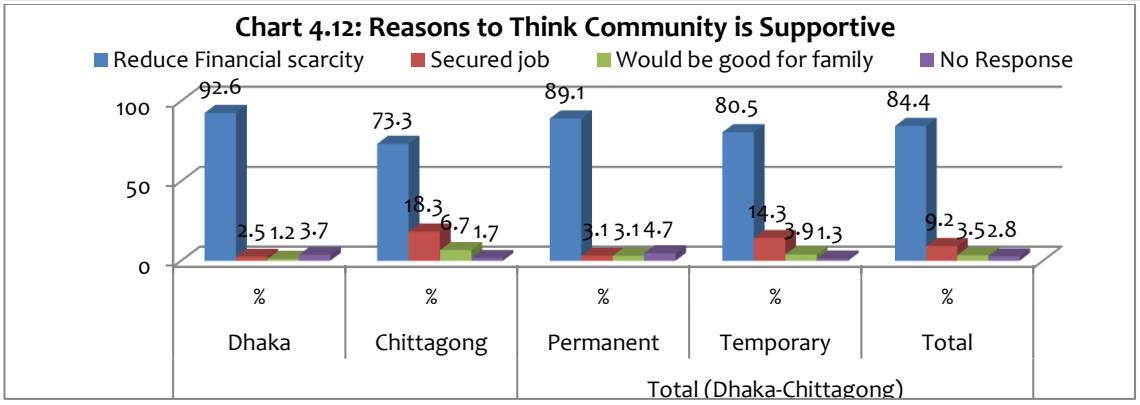


Whether Community Members are Supportive to Respondents

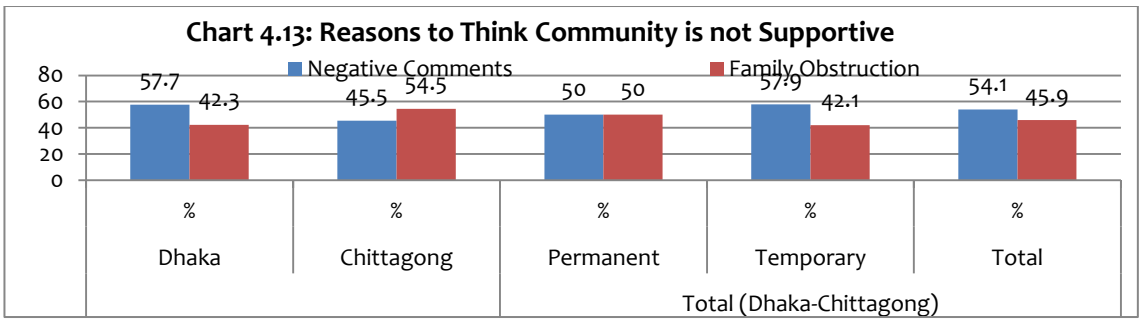
The respondents were asked that whether their community members were supportive to their work. More than half of the respondents (56 percent) said that they received support from the community member, while 29 percent replied that the community does not bother about their profession (Chart 4.11 and Annex Table 4.11). In the FGDs, the participants said that their surrounding people at first negatively looked at their profession. But now the attitude of them has changed. On the other hand, only 15 percent respondents replied that they do not get community support for their profession.

When the respondent again asked what kind of support they received from their community people or why they think that they were supportive to their work. As reasons to think such most of the respondents (84 percent) replied that when their community people heard about their work they said that their financial scarcity would be reduce to do this job (Chart 4.12 and Annex Table 4.12). However about nine percent and four percent responded that their community people said to hear about their job that the job is secured and it would be good for their family respectively.





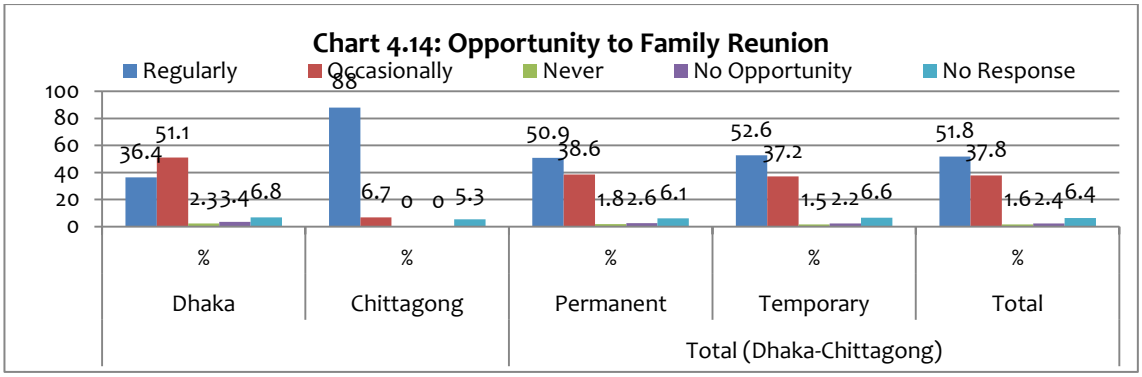
In answer of the question why the respondents think that community people were not supportive to their work, more than half of them (54 percent) replied that they think so because to hear about their job they provided some negative comments. The rest of the respondents (46 percent) said that the community people said it would create family obstruction (Chart 4.13 and Annex Table 4.13).



Rural-Urban Linkage

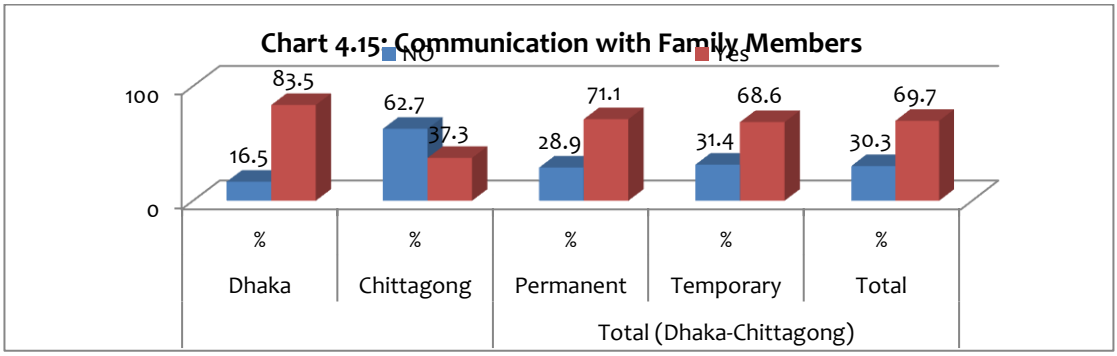
Opportunity to Family Reunion

The collected data reveals that over half of the respondent (52 percent) percent gets the opportunity to reunion with their family members regularly while about 38 percent gets occasionally. Only three respondents said that they never get the opportunity to reunion with the family members and about 2 percent said that they no need to reunion with family members (Chart 4.14 and Annex Table 4.14). From the FGDs with the domestic workers, it is seen that some of the permanent workers do not have any family member. After the dead of their parents they have come to the city and are working as domestic worker. Nevertheless, in some cases, the domestic workers do not have good relations with the family members in the village. Therefore, they do not go to the village and their family members also do not come to see her in the cities.



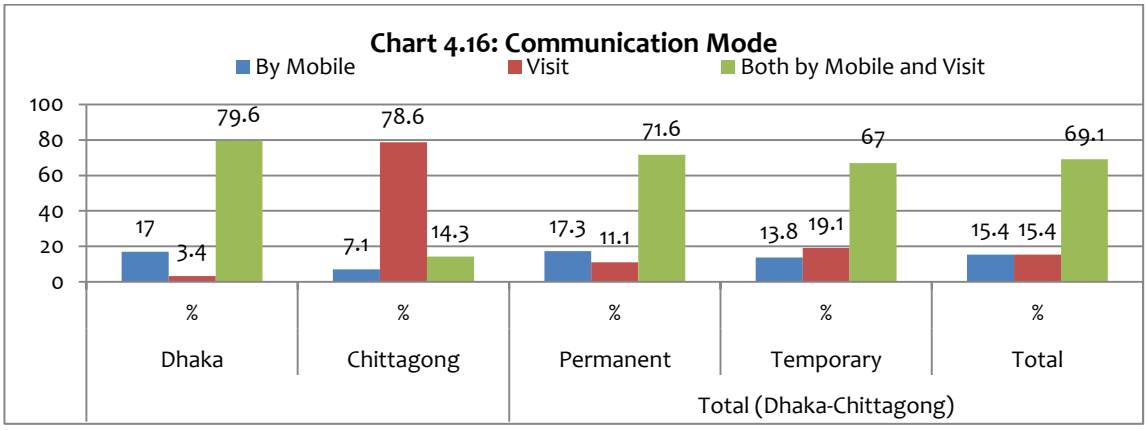
Scope of Communication with Family Members

The following chart shows that the highest number of respondents can communicate their family members who live in the village, while 30 percent said that do not communicate (Chart 4.15 and Annex Table 4.15). During the FGD with domestic workers, it is seen that many of the participants have migrated to Dhaka or Chittagong with their whole family members. Moreover, some of the respondents are born and brought up in the cities. Therefore, they do not need to communicate with village.



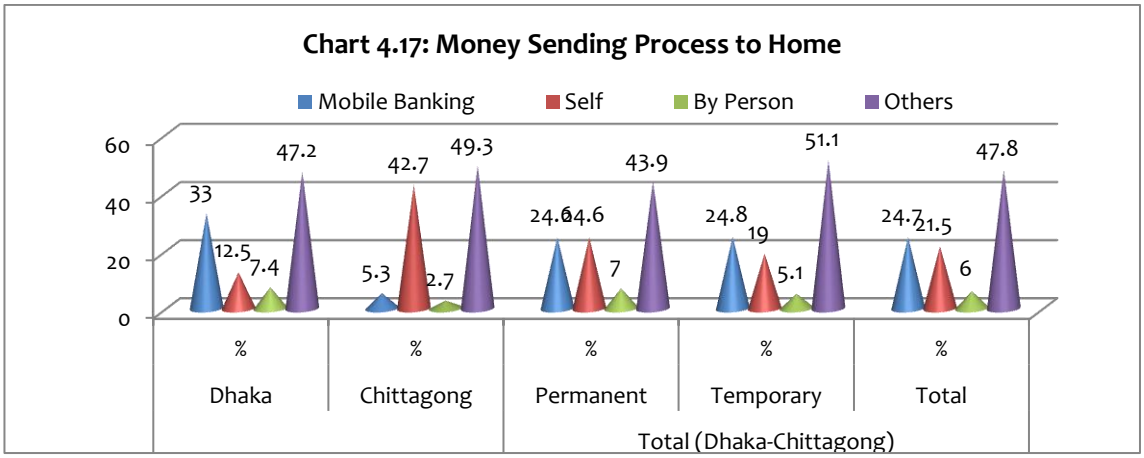
Communication Mode

The study reveals that mobile and visits are the most common mode of communications for the respondents. About 70 percent said that they communicate with the village both by mobile and visit. On the other hand, 15 percent answered that they communicate with the family members with only mobile and the rest 15 percent with only visit (Chart 4.16 and Annex Table 4.16). During FGD, almost all the participants acknowledge that they have their own mobile set or have the opportunity to use a mobile phone for communication.



Money Sending Process to Home

It is documented from the survey that mobile banking (about 25 percent) is the most common mode of sending money while about 22 percent send the money by them. Only 6 percent send money through persons like known person of the village or relative who also lives in the cities. On the other hand, the rest 48 percent said about in other ways like- they do not need to send the money; they have no one in the village, or their parents live in a nearby place, or the parents directly take the money from them (Chart 4.17 and Annex Table 4.17).



5. Systemizing Domestic Work Service: Challenges and Options

The previous section depicts that the domestic workers are mostly engage in work through the mediator/ middleman like relatives, neighbors and known persons or professional mediators. They find the work through mediator, as they are stranger in the urban area or city and do not know where they have to go in search of work. Due to such involvement process workers sometimes get into trouble and are often deprived of their due rights by mediators and employers. Such deprivation also gets aggravated by the fact that domestic workers are hardly skilled and often face difficulties to do household work specially in case of using modern equipment like, use of oven, blender, and washing machine. Therefore, to reduce the vulnerability of domestic workers and for their skill development it is important to systemize the domestic work service. This section's aim is to identify the challenges and options to systemize the domestic work services along with the identification of the potential stakeholders and their possible roles and responsibilities.

Challenges and Options to Systemize Domestic Work Service

Registration System

The 'Domestic Servants Registration Ordinance 1961' obliged to workers to get registration in the police station of five specific areas of Dhaka. The reality is however such registration system of domestic workers is absent. Currently, a registration system is open at union level only for the migrant aspirants seeking job as domestic workers/housekeepers. A registration system for all the domestic work aspirants needs to develop for ensuring the security of domestic workers. In this regard challenges are who can act as the registration authority.

It is revealed in FGDs and KIIs that the registration system may develop/open at the local police station or Union *Parishad*. However, some of the FGD participants oppose the proposal of registration at police station. They said that rural people especially women would not be interested to go to police station for registration. A key interviewee said, "Registration at police station is not right way as the aspirants of domestic work would not be interested to go police station." Most of the parents of domestic workers and key interviewees said that Union *Parishad* would be the right place in this regard. Some employers and a key interviewee also said that local NGO who work for domestic workers may facilitate the process. In the registration system, a complete database can be formed where the persons who want to be a domestic worker must register their name and other details. The employers will follow the database and communicate with concern authority to collect domestic workers. In this way the e local authority can track the details of workers and workplaces.

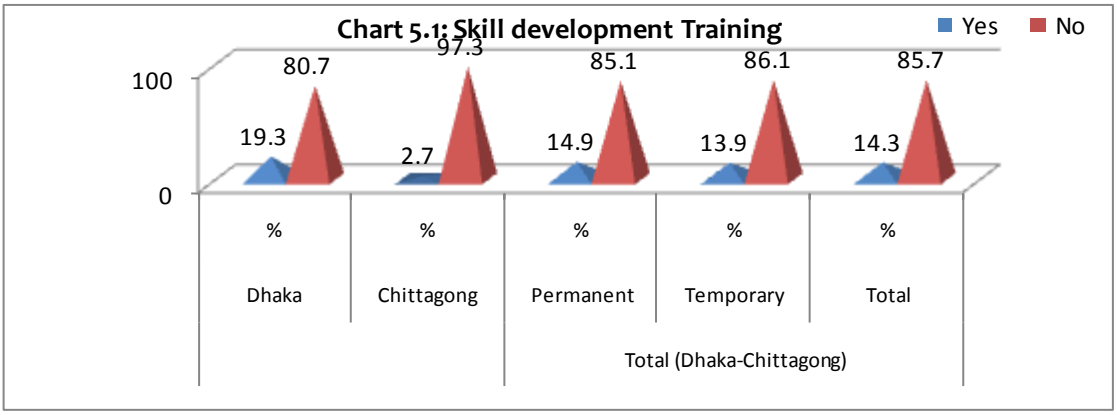
Recruitment Process

There is no systematic recruitment process for domestic workers exist in Bangladesh. It is found in the survey that the domestic workers are mainly engaged in this profession through mediator like relatives, neighbors or known person, family members and sometimes through

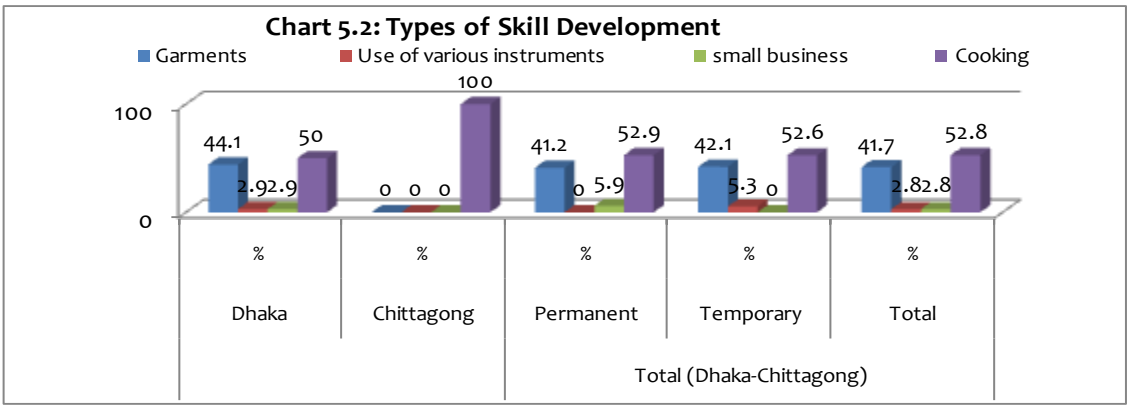
professional mediators, but know workers were found has recruited through recruitment agency (See previous section, Chart- 4.6). The workers and the employers of FGDs and all the key interviewees confirm that they do not know whether any recruitment agency is working for supplying the domestic workers inside the country. It is evidence of the non-availability of local level domestic workers recruitment agency. Therefore, the risk of being cheated and exploited is high in this sector. Sometimes the workers and often the employers have to pay mediator for arrangement of work or worker. A systematic recruitment process may reduce such risk of workers and also employers.

Skill Development Training

It is evidence that domestic workers seldom receive skill development training. Only 14 percent workers acknowledged that they have learned something or developed some skills by this profession (Chart 5.1 and Annex Table 5.1).



When the respondents were asked about their skills, they mentioned different types of cooking (52percent), garment skills like sewing or tailoring, and handling of various types of instruments like-cooking machines, blenders, washing machines, ovens and so on. It is interesting that about three percent respondents said they gain skill to run small business (Chart 5.2 and Annex Table 5.2). But most of them did not gain such skills by taking formal training from any institution/organization they developed their skill like cooking, use of various instruments through the working process at workplace. A few respondents were found receiving skill development training from organization (Table 5.1)



It is found that there are some organizations like; Nari Maitree and Shapla Neer provide skill development training to domestic workers. In 2013 Nari Maitree provided skill development training to 72 female domestic workers for improvement of the marketable skills (Nari Maitree 2013). Currently it is providing skill development training to total about 200 female domestic workers on food processing and house governance (it include use of various electronic cooking instruments, cleaning, and caring of elderly and children) under Systemize Non formal Workers (SNW) project with the help of Oxfam GB. Nari Maitree is however providing skill development training on the same issue to another 150 domestic workers under the project of Establish Rights of FDW funded by Manusher Jonno Foundation (KII). Another organization Shapla Neer provides skill development training such as sewing and ironing through it support centre in Dhaka and Chittagong.

Table- 5.1 Sources of Skill Development

Sources	Dhaka		Chittagong		Total					
					Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
workplace	18	52.9	2	100.0	9	53	11	57.9	20	55.6
Organization	4	11.8	0	0.0	1	5.9	3	15.8	4	11.1
Neighbors	3	8.82	0	0.0	1	5.9	2	10.5	3	8.33
Not mentioned	5	14.7	0	0.0	4	24	1	5.26	5	13.9
Self	4	11.8	0	0.0	2	12	2	10.5	4	11.1
Total	34	100	2	100.0	17	100	19	100	36	100

Whether Organization is required to Systemize the Domestic Work Service

Opinion was sought from the workers and employers participated in FGDs and from the KIIs that whether organization is required to systemize the domestic work service. All the FGD participants and key interviewees acknowledge the importance of organization in systemizing the domestic work service. They stated that through systemizing the domestic work service both the workers and employers would be benefited. A key interviewee said, "If the domestic workers are employed through organization or recruitment agency that organization would have the responsibility to provide them appointment letter, identity card and also bargain with employer about their facilities." On the other hand, in case of any offence done by worker, employers also can claim to the organization or agency.

Potential Stakeholders to Systemize Domestic Work Service

When the FGD participants and Key interviewee were asked about who would be the potential stakeholders to systemize domestic work service, they indicate to various options like; Local government institution (Union *Parishad*), local NGO or organization, and private recruitment agency. Some of them also said that Local NGO and Union *Parishad* can work together to systemize the domestic work service.

It is revealed in literature review that there are many countries where private employment agencies play a role in the recruitment and placement of domestic workers. Some agencies offer services to assist households in identifying candidates for employment, and to facilitate domestic workers find a job. On the other hand, agencies may employ

domestic workers themselves, with a view to making them available to households (ILO, 2012).

A study reveals that there are three types of agencies engaged in appointment and placement of domestic workers in Thailand such as training center, company/corporation, and employment agency. The training centers arrange training or provide information relating to household and caretaking functions to women who come to look for domestic work as well as recruit and arrange placement for them. The companies recruit workers for cleaning services. The recruitment agency usually does not provide training for domestic workers. They arrange job for workers and sometimes provide accommodation and board for workers to stay during the training and or while waiting for job (ILO, 2010a:11).

The study however highlights that the different training centers and corporations have different arrangement for getting their service charge. In one case, the center deducts 10% of the monthly salary of the employee for three months. Then it will deduct 500 Baht from the employee's monthly salary until the employee quits the job. In another case, the center deducts half of the first month's salary, and continues to deduct 10% of the employee's monthly salary until she quits the job. The employer has to make salary payment through the center. But fewer rules and regulations follow the recruitment agencies compared to the training centers and corporations. The employment agencies charge 300-500 Baht to the employer for their service fee and also charge the employee for the service fee, as about 25% of the first month of his/her salary. Some agencies deduct 10% from the employee's salary for 2 months as their service fee. In this case the employee collects her salary directly from the employer (Ibid: 12).

It is found that a number of agencies have developed in India to t supply domestic workers especially in the metropolitan cities. These agencies play the significant role of an intermediary between the domestic worker and the employer and most of the agencies are supervised by private entrepreneurs and voluntary organizations. They are either registered under and/or backed by a trade union (for example, the Self Employed Women's Association or SEWA in many states), a co-operative society (for example, Nirmala Niketan in Delhi), voluntary organisations (for example, the Tribal Development Society in Delhi) or a Church (for example, the Yuvati Seva Sadan in Delhi). These agencies treat their role as service providers of domestic work well within the objectives and agenda of their organization. The agencies take commission/ fees from the workers and also charged to the employers as registration fees which ranges from Rs. 4500 to 10,000 for a contract of 11 months. It is also evidenced that a few agencies even take a repayable security deposit from the employer. The security amount is the equivalent of 2-3 months of wages and is taken by the agency to ensure that the workers are not removed by the employers on their own (Neetha, 2009).

From the above discussion it indicates that recruitment agency may be the potential stakeholders to systemize the domestic work service in Bangladesh. But the regulation of the activities of employment agencies should be clear for ensuring the protection of domestic workers and the prevention of fraudulent and abusive practices, including labour exploitation and forced labour. Along with to run the agencies systematically role of others stake holders like NGO, workers organization and government is important. To systemize the recruitment process of domestic work service through recruitment agency Bangladesh

can follow guideline mentioned in the ILO Convention No. 181 and Recommendation No. 188, and Convention No. 189 which include;

- provide for the establishing for a system of agency licensing or certification; require agencies to accurately inform workers of their labour rights;
- provide for the supervision of contracts by a public authority;
- prohibit agencies from charging fees to the worker, or, where permitted, strictly limit such fees;
- prohibit deductions of fees charged by agencies from the worker's remuneration;
- specify respective obligations of the agency and the household vis-à-vis the worker;
- provide for appropriate sanctions or penalties for agencies infringing the law, including the prohibition of agencies engaging in fraudulent practices and abuses; and
- require agencies to report on their activities to the labour inspectorate or other competent authority.

6. Conclusion and Advocacy Pointers

This section draws conclusion along with policy recommendation and pointers of advocacy to systemize the domestic work service sector in Bangladesh. It is evidenced from the analysis that the situation of domestic workers has improved in recent years compared to earlier years, however, still they are one of the most unprotected and vulnerable working class in Bangladesh. The existing laws do not cover the issues of the domestic workers in the country and thus are unable to provide proper protection and security to them.

Most of them do not have written contract, only the workers who have interaction with the organization working for domestic workers' rights, have written contract. Although many workers started their work at young age and have long working experience,In terms of job performance their remuneration is low. Most of the workers remuneration observed under poverty line and often their wage is deliberately delayed for six to ten days. They are working excessively with little to no rest. They generally work from early morning to night and it is mostly common for permanent workers particularly live in employers' house. When the workers are actively occupied with their task most of them are always standby particularly permanent workers. They rarely enjoy weekly holiday and annual live. Though temporary workers occasionally enjoy festival leave, permanent workers rarely enjoy such leave.

The study also depicts that the workers live in owner's house hardlyare treated as a member of the family most of the time. Serious discrimination is found in worker's living place and bedding condition. Though a number of workers get separate living room, in maximum cases it is like store room or some common places. Some workers also receive some benefits other than wage like food, clothes, medical treatment, recreation and association facilities. But the quality and quantity often differ from family members. Permanent workers receive food almost regularly trice a day, while temporary workers gate occasionally once or twice a day. However, the quality and quantity of food is not like as family members. The workers get new clothes only during Eid or Puja festival. They are generally provided old or used clothes. About medical treatment it is found that in case of sickness only medicine is provided through presumption or sent to quack doctor.They rarely get opportunity of recreation and their recreation facility refers to only watching TV at night. Permanent workers occasionally get opportunity to meet family members and other persons and to go outside. Sometimes they are locked from outside when stayed alone at home. They are strongly prohibited to join any organization.

The domestic workers generally come from poor rural areas to urban areas. A combination of push and pull factors influence to rural girl and women entering in domestic work and to migrate from rural to more urbanized areas. The push factors includes; lack of work opportunity, live with family members, lack of security , family violence, natural calamities, and financial factors like lack of income, extreme poverty, dead of husband, inability of husband to run the family or husband would not provide the family costs. On the other hand pull factor refers to financial advantages like better income, higher salary, more income opportunities, preserve money for the future, job opportunity, living with family members, secured, treatment opportunity for sick family members, to live together with known persons and fascination with the cities. It is documented that the domestic workers engaged in work mainly through their relatives, neighbors or known person, family members, professional mediators and sometimes by themselves. Evidence however shows that to engage in domestic work through mediator is not secured all time.

About rural- urban linkage it is evidence that majority of workers have scope of reunion and communication with family members. The communication moods refer to mobile and visit, while the most common mood of sending money is found mobile banking.

Finally the discussion reveals that domestic workers have very limited access, in many cases no access, to services for a decent living. Therefore, some actions have become necessary to ensure the rights of domestic workers and systemize the issue of the domestic service work in Bangladesh.

Required Legal Changes for Domestic Workers

Bangladesh Labour Act, 2006 applies to the whole of Bangladesh and to the "Establishment(s)" as defined in the Act. Under the Act, '*establishment'* means any shop, commercial establishment, industrial establishment or premises in which workers are employed for the purpose of carrying on any industry. Generally, the services of the workers employed in any establishments are regulated by this Act. Bangladesh Labour Act, 2006 (Section 1 (4) (o) of the Act) has however, excluded, domestic workers from the purview of this Act. As a result all domestic workers, even employed in an establishment, are unable to avail the protection of this Act. Now it is being suggested that "domestic workers" should be brought within the ambit of the Labour Law.

As Bangladesh Labour Act, 2006 deals in relation to the workers employed in establishments, deletion of section 1 (4) (o) of the Act would bring the domestic workers employed in establishments within the purview of this Act. In such event domestic workers in establishments shall be considered as workers and shall be able to enjoy protection of the Bangladesh Labour Act, 2006. But only that amendment /deletion will not bring millions of domestic workers of the county employed by individuals privately under jurisdiction of the Act. To bring those domestic workers under the protection of law, a separate Act may be enacted to provide privileges in the area of wages, working conditions, working hours, overtime work, rest, social security etc. Alternatively a separate chapter in the Bangladesh Labour Act, 2006 may be added which will exclusively deal with the matters of domestic workers employed both by the establishment and private individuals.

Required Changes in the Demand and Supply Side Dynamics

Systemization of recruitment process: There is no systematic recruitment process for domestic workers exist in Bangladesh. The domestic workers are mainly engage in this profession through mediator like relatives, neighbors or known person, family members and sometimes through professional mediators. Therefore, the risk of being cheated and exploited is high in this sector. Sometimes the workers and often the employers have to pay mediator for arrangement of work or worker' A systematic recruitment process may reduce this risk and of workers and also employers.

Registration: A Registration system need to develop to ensure of the security of domestic workers. It may develop at the local thana or union level. In this system, a complete database can be formed where the persons who want to be a domestic worker must register their name and other details. In this regard, the "digital centres" of the Union Parishad can be used. The employers will follow the database and communicate with concern authority to collect domestic workers. I this way the e local authority can track down where he/she is going.

Awareness Raising and capacity enhancement: Awareness rising of both workers and employers are required.

- It is important to organize and mobilize workers so that they can raise their voice against any violence. As most of the domestic workers are illiterate and do not have any idea regarding their rights, they cannot protest against any misbehave or violence. On the other hand, though some workers are aware about their rights, they do not know what to do or where to go when they become victim of any

violence. Therefore, it is necessary to increase the awareness of the domestic workers.

- Awareness among the owners is also important. The owners should change their traditional mentality regarding the domestic workers. They should accept a domestic worker as a family member and behave humanly.
- "Help Desk" should be established where the workers can directly complain regarding any sort of harassment. It will help to make the workplace friendlier for workers.

Potential Stakeholders to Systemize the Domestic Service Work

The private recruitment agency may be the potential stakeholders to systemize the domestic work service in Bangladesh. However how it will work and with whom it would be responsible and accountable should be set by government for ensuring the protection of domestic workers and the prevention of deceptive and abusive practices, including labour exploitation and forced labour. In this regard the ILO Convention No. 181 and Recommendation No. 188, and the ILO's Guide to private employment agencies: Regulation, monitoring and enforcement as well as the Convention No. 189 also contains relevant guidance.

Role of Other Stakeholders to Systemize the Domestic Service Work

Employer:

All employers will ensure following issues for the domestic workers:

- Contract: formal contract with the domestic workers and guardian, in the case of child domestic workers.
- Identity Card: including name, photograph and other particulars.
- Registration: from local government bodies or local police stations or local NGOs
- Wage: regular and monthly wage, not less than the Minimum Wage, fixed by the government.
- Working hour, leave and rest: at least 8 hours at night and 4 hours during day-time for rest and sleeping, and including weekly and annual leave.
- Maternity Leave: with full pay for 16 weeks.
- **Education and training:** focusing on primary and religious education and developmental needs
- **Treatment:** domestic workers should be sent back during illness without giving proper treatment.
- **Compensation for accidents:** adequate compensation on the basis of the nature of accident and damage created by it.

Domestic Worker

- Termination of job: notice should be given to the employer prior to one month, at least, and the domestic worker would abide by all the rules mentioned in the contract.

Family

- Before joining to work, the parents must take proper information regarding the employers.

- During joining time the parent or a family member should go with the worker to ensure that she is in right place.
- They must keep regular communication with workers and try to know if she/he is being violated. Sometimes they should to visit employers house

Government:

Government will ensure the following matters:

- Registration: government will entitle local government will the responsibility through a circular.
- Wage determination: a minimum wage on monthly basis.
- Action against oppression: any oppression against domestic workers would be considered under the Penal Code, Bangladesh Criminal Procedure Code (CrPC), and Women and Children Repression Prevention Act 2000 (amended in 2003).
- Inspection: central and local monitoring system comprising of representatives of employers, workers, civil society and local government.
- Receiving complain: establishing a helpline
- *Prohibition:* ensure prohibition of (a) employing children below 14 years of age in domestic work; (b)Keeping domestic workers under lock and key; (c) Engaging domestic workers in heavy and dangerous works inconsistent with their age and ability; and (d) Engaging domestic workers against their will and involving them in immoral activities.
- The government must enact a law for the protection and promotion of the rights of the domestic workers. At the same time, the government should ensure that the law is being properly implemented. Because, without the proper implementation of the law, no changes can be brought out.
- A registration authority must be established to provide registration to the domestic workers. This authority to register the domestic workers could be vested to the local government body or local NGO.
- Local government body and registration authority would fix a particular committee and place where disputes should be reported. Effective collaboration must be established between these two bodies in this regard.
- The government must determine a minimum wage for the domestic workers.
- The government can provide various types of opportunities to the domestic workers. The government can ensure elder pension, rationing of foods and other daily necessities, opportunity of small saving accounts in banks, free medical treatment, legal support, trainings and others.
- any oppression against domestic workers would be considered under the Penal Code, Bangladesh Criminal Procedure Code (CrPC), and Women and Children Repression Prevention Act 2000 (amended in 2003).
- The nature of work as well as work-place of the domestic workers is different from that of industrial and other formal settings. Thus the conventional inspection system could bring little or no fruit in the field of domestic work. Keeping this reality into account a central monitoring and inspection cell should be established under the ministry of labour and this cell will monitor and inspect, where necessary, the domestic work situation in the country.
- At village level, a specialized post can be formed which would communicate with the people who are out of the village and employed as domestic worker.
- Finally a "hot line" number may establish where the workers can complain regarding any problem or oppression.

Public representatives/Community members/ NGOs/Media

The public representatives/Community members/ NGOs/Media play an important role to promote the rights of the domestic workers.

- The public representatives and also the community members can raise awareness among the people about the risk and vulnerability of domestic service work. They have to take various awareness raising activities.
- The public representatives must keep information of the people who are going outside the village as domestic workers. They can talk to the parents of the children so that the children do not fall victim of any sort of injustice.
- The NGOs can form various area based groups to raise awareness among the domestic workers and the employers.
- The media can publish various documentaries on the rights of domestic workers. However, as private entities, media may not be interested in this regard. Therefore, the state should involve into this process.
- In the city areas, area based groups can be formed which would communicate with all the domestic workers of that area and help them in any problems. If the workers become victim of violence, the groups would support them. On the other hand, an apartment based groups can also be formed. The group would look after the wellbeing of the domestic workers of that apartment.
- Union and federations need to continue advocating and act as pressure group with major political parties for including domestic work under labour law.

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ANNEXES

Annex 1.1: Study Methodology

This section contains study methods, secondary literature review, study process and steps, data collection tools and techniques which includes questionnaire survey, focus group discussions and key informant interview,and socio-economic background of survey respondents

Study Methods
The research team applied a mixed method approach—both qualitative and quantitative to analyze and explain the issues introduced in the study. The necessary data and information however collected from both secondary and primary sources using different tools and techniques.

Secondary Literature Review
The secondary data and information is collected and gathered through the reading and review of secondary sources like relevant reports, documents, and research articles published. The SLR is carried out to glean through the existing knowledge base on the subject. It focuses on (a) current state of affairs in the state of the demand and supply chain of domestic service works; (b) challenges in urban and rural linkages of the demand and supply chain of domestic service work; and (c) factors necessary for an enabling environment allowing informal domestic workers to exercise rights.

Different tools and multiple techniques are applied to collect primary data from the study related fields. This includes:

Questionnaire Survey
A set of sample survey questionnaire is prepared and administered to collect data from the domestic workers. The survey used both structured and semi structured questionnaires, and will have both closed ended and open-ended questions. The survey has in particular focused on aspects ranging from basic profiles of domestic workers', rights status and challenges of rights promotion. The survey not only explored the percentage of the excluded domestic workers deprived from their entitlement but also identified the migration reasons (push and full factors) and patterns as well as rural - urban linkages of the demand and supply chain of domestic workers.

Representative Sample
For a representative sample of the population, about 1.4 million people who are involved in domestic work are considered to be the study universe. Domestic workers include the household maids who are involved in cooking, serving food, doing laundry and ironing, food shopping, washing dishes, mopping floor and other household task performed in and for a household. It also entails the tasks of providing care for children and elderly dependents of the family.

By using purposing random sampling method, a representative sample total 251 is selected from Dhaka (70 percent) and Chittagong (30 percent) purposively. The eligible respondents of the study are female domestic workers since the majority of the domestic work is carried out by women. The respondents however are selected from the workers working as permanent and temporary basis as well as working in higher and middle class families. Though initially it was decided that the study sample would be each 50 percent from both permanent and temporary workers respectively, due to in availability of permanent workers or as many employers did not allow to interview their domestic workers the study is finally carried out on 45 percent permanent workers and 55 percent temporary workers (See Table below).

Distribution of Respondents according to Geographical Coverage and Nature of Work

City	Area	Permanent		Temporary		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Dhaka	Uttara-Khilkhet	9	3.6	16	6.4	25	10.0
	Pallabi-Mirpur	11	4.4	14	5.6	25	10.0
	Gulsan-Banani	13	5.2	7	2.8	20	8.0
	Tejgaon-Ramna	8	3.2	15	6.0	23	9.2
	Mohammadpur-Dhanmondi	11	4.4	9	3.6	20	8.0
	Demra-Sutrapur	10	4.0	13	5.2	23	9.2
	Lalbag-Kotoali	10	4.0	12	4.8	22	8.8
	Khilgaon-Malibag	9	3.6	9	3.6	18	7.2
					Total	176	70.1
Chittagong	Halishahar	6	2.4	18	7.2	24	9.6
	Pahartoli	2	0.8	10	4.0	12	4.8
	BihariColoni	8	3.2	10	4.0	18	7.2
	Bayezid	17	6.8	4	1.6	21	8.4
					Total	75	29.9
Total (Dhaka Chittagong)		**114**	**45.4**	**137**	**54.6**	**251**	**100.0**

Data Collection

Four teams (2 team for Dhaka and 2 for Chittagong) of 12 field enumerators (3 enumerators for each team) with guidelines from two data collection supervisors carried out field survey in respective locations during the second month of the project period. The field enumerator's team was comprised of at 8 female members and 4 male members. The field enumerators personally contacted the respondents and obtained the desired information fairly and accurately by explaining the objectives of the study to the respondents and following the methodology of research set at training sessions. For the survey, enumerators interviewed respondents following the systematic sampling approach.

The two field supervisors visited each locations facilitating field survey. They also cross checked the survey done by the field investigators. The principal researcher, associate researchers, field enumerators and field supervisors were in constant touch so that investigator could obtain clarifications and instructions on the difficulties if encountered in carrying out the field work under the actual operation conditions. The filled in questionnaires, validated by the field supervisors were submitted to the research team for quality control checks and subsequent computerization of data. The research team carried out extensive discussions on the issues that could not be captured in the set questionnaires. The issues raised in the discussion were incorporated in the final narrative report

Quality Control Checks

A sound quality control system was developed to adequately monitor the quality of data collection. The field supervisor and members of research team constantly moved around the sample spots; and ensured quality data through: (i) field checking, and (ii) data monitoring.

Field checking will be undertaken in both `presence' and `absence' of the interviewing teams. `Checking in presence' means verification of the work of an interviewing team in a sample area during the time of the interview. `Checking in absence' means verification of the work of an interviewing team in a sample area after the team had left the site, having completed its assigned work in the area. During field checking, the field supervisors will perform re-interview, and will check the data accuracy. Field checking in presence' will be conducted for all field investigators, while `field checking in absence' will be done over randomly selected sites. The reported non- response items will be checked to ensure that they are all due to valid reasons. Data monitoring will be done by comparing results of some key variables in completed

format/questionnaire, tabulating the variables by interviewing teams, sample sites and investigators.

Data Management

Data management comprises: (a) registration of questionnaires received from the field; (b) data processing; and (c) computerization of data. After receiving filled in questionnaires from the field, it was entered into registration books to ensure that all schedules received from the field have been received by the core research team.

The data processing activities involves editing and coding of the questionnaire, and computerization of data. The filled in questionnaire was edited by a team consisting of the principal researcher, the Computer Programmer, editors and edit verifier. The members of the core team randomly checked the edited schedules after verification, and the programmer checked another 5 percent. Responses to open-ended questions were recorded `Verbatim'. In order to meaningfully present and analyze such questions, categorization of those responses will be done. After the categorization is complete, and the coding scheme is finally accepted, responses to the open-ended questions in every schedule will be categorized and coded, using the coding scheme.

Focus Group Discussion

FGDs are supposed to explore collective understanding, current status, and challenges. In this study the research team has conducted a total of 3 FGDs. A FGD is conducted with the workers, 1 is with the employers and another is with the workers family/parents. Three separate checklists are prepared for three different stakeholders to conduct the FGDs focusing on the three core issues of the study—(a) current status; (b) challenges; and (c) strategic direction. Though initial decision was six FGDs (2 with workers, 2 with employers and another 2 with parents or family members) would be conducted, due to political constraint finally three FGDs have conducted for the study.

Key Informant Interviews

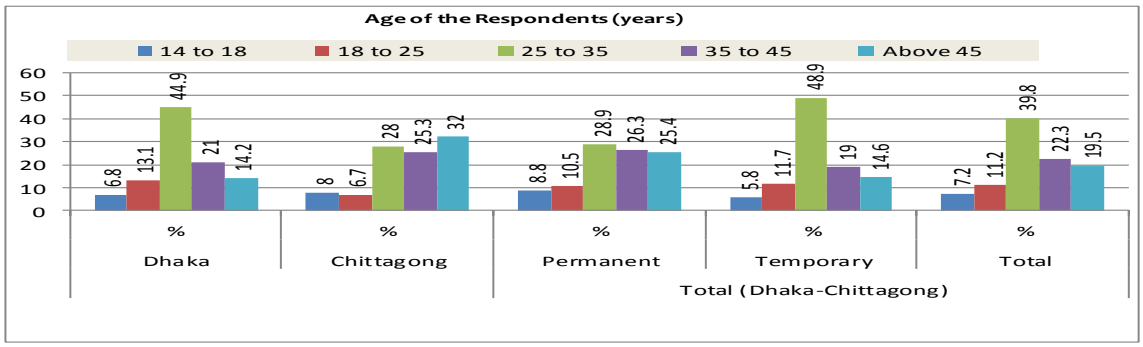
The study has undertaken and conducted KIIs composed of responsible local government representatives, trade union leaders, DWRN members and government officials. The points of these interviews are revolved around the central issues of the study. A checklist is prepared to interview the key informants. A total of 11 KIIs has been conducted. 6 KIIs are conducted with the local government representatives (2 Chairman and 4 female representatives) and each 2 are conducted with the trade union leaders and DWRN members respectively and 3 with government officials.

Annex 1.2: Socio-economic Background of Respondents

This section highlights the composition of respondents by socio-economic characteristics that include respondents' age, educational qualifications, marital status, religion and information relation to their family and family members.

Age Distribution of Respondents

For the current study the data was collected from the domestic workers who are 14 years and above of age. The survey results shows that majority of respondents (62 percent) belong to middle age group—between 25 to 45 years. Only six percent were found at the age group of 14 to 18 years. The findings reveal that currently middle age women mainly represent the domestic work service in Bangladesh.

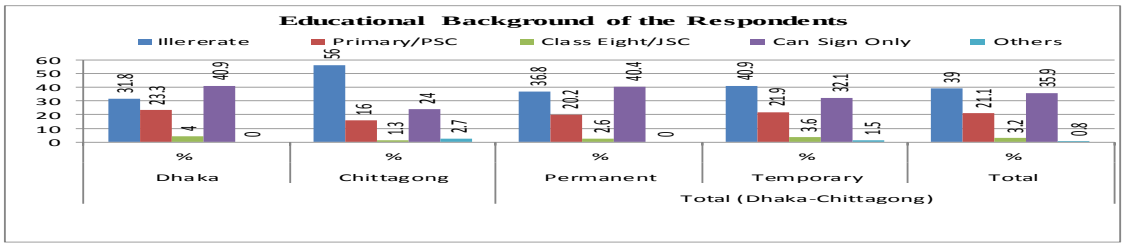


Mean= 36.06, (Minimum 14, Maximum 75)

Educational Qualification of Respondents

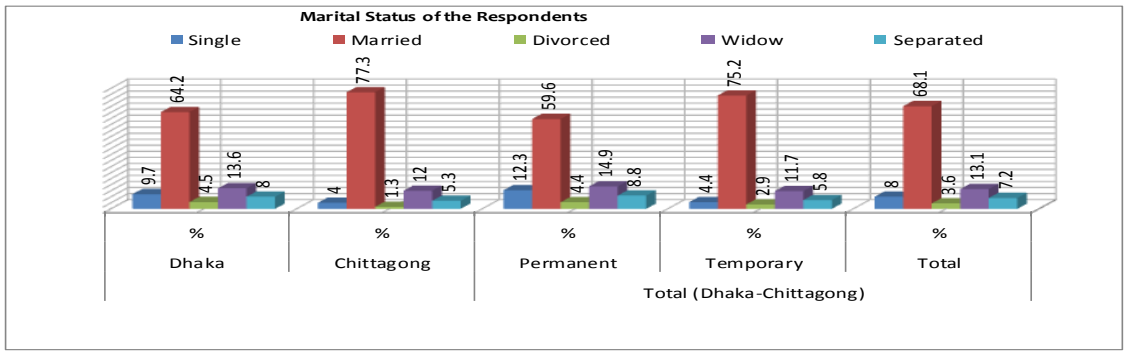
The Constitution of Bangladesh confirmed mandatory primary situation for all citizens. The study shows that a significant number of domestic workers are illiterate (39 percent) and while can only sign their names (36 percent). From KII and FGD it was found that minimum educational qualifications are required even to get a low class job. As most of the domestic workers do not get the opportunity of education, they naturally involve in domestic service as knowing 'how to cook or household task' is the only requirement of this sector. The World Bank report (2007) indicates that the lowest education levels, the highest probability of being employed as a domestic worker. The collected data however indicates that three percent respondents have JSC level of educational background.

The parents of the domestic workers said in FGD that they wanted to continue the study of their child too and did not want to involve their child in domestic work at a premature age. But due to financial needs, they were forced to send their children to this work.



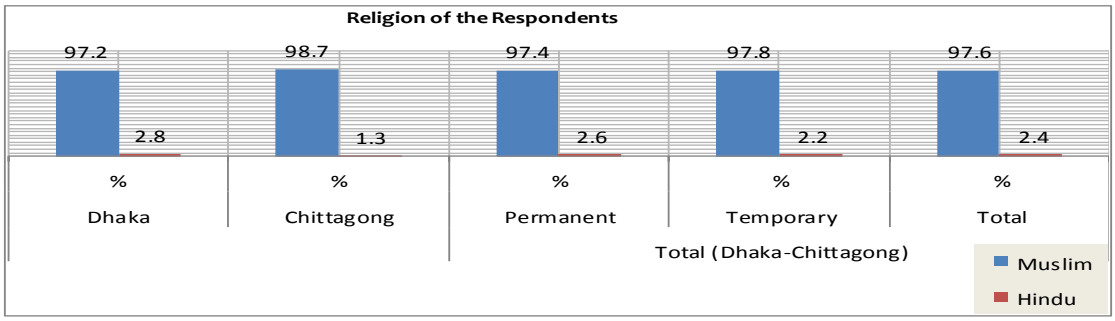
Marital Status of the Respondents

The respondents of the study are mostly married, while only four percent are found divorcee and seven percent are separated. In FGDs, it is seen that they have decided to be divorced or separated either by being victim of family torture or being furious for the second marriage of their husbands. Total eight percent of respondents are found single.



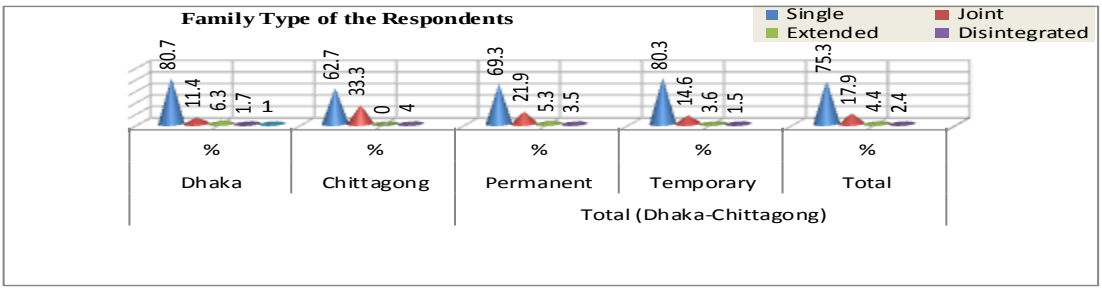
Religion of the Respondents

Collected data indicate that 98 percent of the total respondents are Muslims. Only more than 2 percent of the respondents belong to Hindu religion. Being a Muslim dominated country, it is quite natural that the number of non-Muslim respondents would be low. But the interesting fact is that the study has not got any respondents besides these two religions.



Type of Respondents Family

The respondents predominantly are from single families (75 percent). Only 18 percent of the respondents still belong to joint family. Few respondents moreover reported that they are from extended[5] and disintegrated family.



Information relating to Family Members of Respondents

The following table provides the information of family members of respondents. It is found that the respondents' family is mainly male headed (56 percent). Simultaneously, 39 percent family is reported female headed. Though a significant number female headed family indicates to women empowerment, it is not exact for the current study. The workers and their mother or sister are the head of the family as they are single, divorcee or widow. Data regarding occupation of the family head shows mostly is household maid (28 percent), followed by rickshaw puller (22 percent), and then construction laborer (10 percent). In case of number of family members highest 49 percent have three to four family members and 27 percent have two to three members. About 20 percent also reported that they have five or more family members. The mean of respondents' family members is 4.09. Regarding earning and dependent family

[5] Extended family is a family where grants parents, aunts, uncles and cousins living together in a single household.

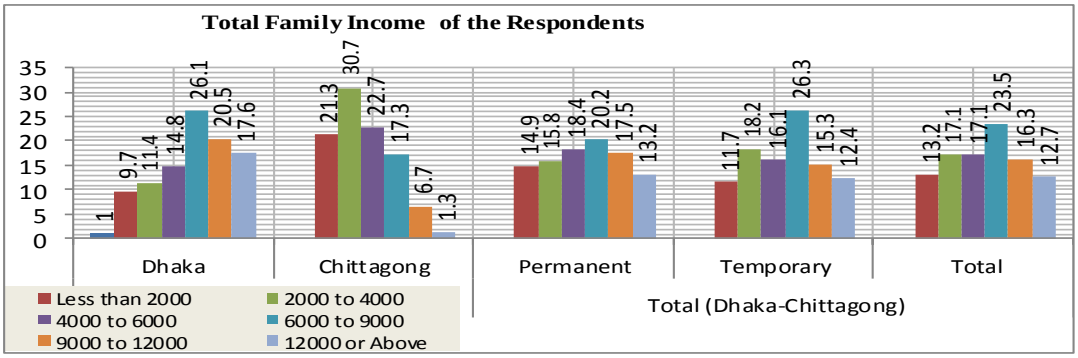
members it is revealed that highest 61 percent have two earning members in their family, while about 46 percent have three or more dependent family members. The mean of earning and dependent family members reveal 2.2 and 2.3 respectively.

Information relating to Family Members of Respondents

Variable	Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Family Head of the Respondents						
Father	9	7.9	9	6.6	18	7.2
Mother	9	7.9	12	8.8	21	8.4
Husband	48	42.1	71	51.8	119	47.4
Self	38	33.3	39	28.5	77	30.7
Brother	5	4.4	1	0.7	6	2.4
Sister	1	0.9	0	0	1	0.4
Others	4	3.5	5	3.6	9	3.6
Occupation of the Family Head						
Farmer	7	6.1	3	2.2	10	4
Rickshaw Puller	26	22.8	29	21.2	55	21.9
Small Business	5	4.4	16	11.7	21	8.4
Day Labour	7	6.1	10	7.3	17	6.8
Construction Labour	13	11.4	12	8.8	25	10
Service Holder	7	6.1	14	10.2	21	8.4
House Maid	33	28.9	37	27	70	27.9
House Work	10	8.8	9	6.6	19	7.6
Unemployed	5	4.4	2	1.5	7	2.8
Disabled	0	0	4	2.9	4	1.6
Chef	1	0.9	0	0	1	0.4
Others	0	0	1	0.7	1	0.4
Number of Family Member of Respondents (mean- 5)						
Single member	7	6.1	3	2.2	10	4
Two to three members	29	25.4	39	28.5	68	27.1
Three to four members	53	46.5	69	50.4	122	48.6
Five and above 5 members	25	21.9	26	19	51	20.3
Earning Members of Respondents Family (mean-2.2)						
single	22	19.3	22	16.1	44	17.5
Two	63	55.3	89	65	152	60.6
Three	22	19.3	16	11.7	38	15.1
Four	4	3.5	5	3.6	9	3.6
Five	3	2.6	5	3.6	8	3.2
Dependent Members in Respondents' Family (mean-2.3)						
single	24	21.1	28	20.4	52	20.7
Two	35	30.7	50	36.5	85	33.9
Three	22	19.3	30	21.9	52	20.7
Four	8	7	9	6.6	17	6.8
Five or above	10	8.8	9	6.6	19	7.6
No dependent	15	13.2	11	8	26	10.4
Total (for each variable)	114	100	137	100	251	100

Respondents' Family Income (Monthly)

Family income is a significant factor affecting to quality of life of family members. The study indicates that a considerable number of respondents' family income is below nine thousand (69 percent). Only 13 percent reported their family income is more than 12 thousand



Annex 1.3: KII Participant List

Name	Designation	Organization	Date	Place
KhondokarMostanHossain	Joint Secretary	Ministry of Labour and Employment, Bangladesh	02-04-15	Labour Ministry
Md. Aminul Islam	Deputy Secretary	Ministry of Labour and Employment, Bangladesh	02-04-15	Labour Ministry
KaziSaifuddin Ahmed	Labour Advisor	Bangladesh Employers' Federation	18-02-15	Bangladesh Employers' Federation Office, Motijheel
Wayazedul Islam Khan	General Secretary	Bangladesh Trade Union Centre	25-03-15	BILS
A. N. M. FayzulHaq	UNO	MymensighSadarUpazila	18-03-15	UNO Office, Mymensingh
Md. Abdul Mallek	Chairman	Bayra Union Parishad, Mymensingh	18-03-15	Bayra Union Parishad Office
MorshedulAlam Jahangir	Chairman	Char Iswardhi Union Parishad, Mymensing	18-03-15	Char Iswardi Union Parishad Office
RohimaKhatun	Female Union Parishad Member	Char Iswardi Union Parishad	18-03-15	Char Iswardi Union Parishad Office
RekhaRahman	Femal Union Parishad Member	Char Iswardi Union Parishad	18-03-15	Char Iswardi Union Parishad Office
HafizaKhatun	Femal Union Parishad Member	Bayra Union Parishad, Mymensingh	19-03-15	BTUC, Mymensingh Office
Nazma Begum	Femal Union Parishad Member	Bayra Union Parishad, Mymensingh	19-03-15	BTUC, Mymensingh Office
Md. AbulHossain	Labour Advisor	Domestic Workers' Rights Network (DWRN)	11-02-15	BILS Office
Rafika Khan	Project Co-ordinator (ERFDW Project)	NariMoitri	05-04-15	NariMoitri Office, Mohammadpur

Annex 1.4: FGD Participant List

FGD with the Parents

Date: 19-03-15
Place: BTUC Office, Mymensingh

SL.	Name
01	Rahim
02	Ajijul
03	Saleha
04	Nazma
05	Khaleda
06	Rabeya
07	Rina
08	Halima Khatun
09	Suma
10	Mahbub Bin Saif
11	Md. HasnaiAlam Hassan
12	Lal Mia
13	Md. Momtaz Ali

FGD with Domestic Workers

Date: 02-002-15
Place: Zigatola, Dhanmondi, Dhaka

SL.	Name
01	Minira Begum
02	Joji Begum
03	Rabeya
04	Nasima
05	Sewli Begum
06	Sima
07	Rohima (1)
08	Rohima (2)

ANNEX TABLES

Annex Table 3.1: Type of Work of the Respondents

Type of Work of the Respondents	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Full Time	78	96.3	77	81.1	155	88.1	21	63.6	7	16.7	28	37.3	99	86.8	84	61.3	183	72.9
Part Time	3	3.7	18	18.9	21	11.9	12	36.4	34	81.0	46	61.3	15	13.2	52	38.0	67	26.7
Occasional	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.4	1	1.3	0	0.0	1	0.7	1	0.4
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.2: Type of Contract of the Respondents

Type of Contract of the Respondents	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Written	0	0.0	3	3.2	3	1.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	2.2	3	1.2
Verbal	78	96.3	91	95.8	169	96.6	29	87.9	37	88.1	66	88.0	107	93.9	128	93.4	235	93.6
None	3	3.7	1	1.1	4	2.3	4	12.1	5	11.9	9	12.0	7	6.1	6	4.4	13	5.2
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.6	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

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Annex Table 3.3: Work Experience at Current Workplace

Present Years of Employment of the Respondents	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Less than 6 Months	16	19.8	13	13.7	29	16.5	6	18.2	9	21.4	15	20.0	22	19.3	22	16.1	44	17.5
6 Months to 1 Year	7	8.6	15	15.8	22	12.5	4	12.1	9	21.4	13	17.3	11	9.6	24	17.5	35	13.9
1 to 2 Years	18	22.2	23	24.2	41	23.3	7	21.2	8	19.0	15	20.0	25	21.9	31	22.6	56	22.3
2 to 4 Years	20	24.7	30	31.6	50	28.4	6	18.2	3	7.1	9	12.0	26	22.8	33	24.1	59	23.5
4 to 7 Years	6	7.4	8	8.4	14	8.0	3	9.1	6	14.3	9	12.0	9	7.9	14	10.2	23	9.2
7 to 10 Years	2	2.5	6	6.3	8	4.5	3	9.1	3	7.1	6	8.0	5	4.4	9	6.6	14	5.6
10 to 20 Years	8	9.9	0	0.0	8	4.5	3	9.1	3	7.1	6	8.0	11	9.6	3	2.2	14	5.6
More than 20 Years	4	4.9	0	0.0	4	2.3	1	3.0	1	2.4	2	2.7	5	4.4	1	0.7	6	2.4
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.4: Total Work Experience as Domestic Worker

Total Years of Employment of the Respondents	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Less than 6 Months	3	3.7	2	2.1	5	2.8	1	3.0	3	7.1	4	5.3	4	3.5	5	3.6	9	3.6
6 Months to 1 Year	4	4.9	4	4.2	8	4.5	0	0.0	3	7.1	3	4.0	4	3.5	7	5.1	11	4.4
1 to 2 Years	7	8.6	5	5.3	12	6.8	4	12.1	4	9.5	8	10.7	11	9.6	9	6.6	20	8.0
2 to 4 Years	13	16.0	15	15.8	28	15.9	4	12.1	3	7.1	7	9.3	17	14.9	18	13.1	35	13.9
4 to 7 Years	15	18.5	23	24.2	38	21.6	8	24.2	7	16.7	15	20.0	23	20.2	30	21.9	53	21.1
7 to 10 Years	7	8.6	26	27.4	33	18.8	5	15.2	9	21.4	14	18.7	12	10.5	35	25.5	47	18.7
10 to 20 Years	21	25.9	12	12.6	33	18.8	8	24.2	10	23.8	18	24.0	29	25.4	22	16.1	51	20.3
More than 20 Years	11	13.6	8	8.4	19	10.8	3	9.1	3	7.1	6	8.0	14	12.3	11	8.0	25	10.0
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.5: Respondents' Starting Age of Work (years)

Starting Age of Work of the Respondents	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Below 10 Years	8	9.9	4	4.2	12	6.8	1	3.0	1	2.4	2	2.7	9	7.9	5	3.6	14	5.6
10 to 14 years	8	9.9	6	6.3	14	8.0	1	3.0	7	16.7	8	10.7	9	7.9	13	9.5	22	8.8
14 to 18 Years	20	24.7	15	15.8	35	19.9	3	9.1	5	11.9	8	10.7	23	20.2	20	14.6	43	17.1
18 to 25 Years	18	22.2	39	41.1	57	32.4	9	27.3	8	19.0	17	22.7	27	23.7	47	34.3	74	29.5
25 to 35 Years	21	25.9	23	24.2	44	25.0	7	21.2	16	38.1	23	30.7	28	24.6	39	28.5	67	26.7
More than 35 Years	6	7.4	8	8.4	12	6.8	12	36.4	5	11.9	17	22.7	18	15.8	13	9.5	31	12.4
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.6: Frequency of Job Change by Respondents

Frequency of Job Change of the Respondents	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Never Change	20	24.7	12	12.6	32	18.2	5	15.2	8	19.0	13	17.3	25	21.7	20	14.6	45	17.9
1 to 3 Times	32	39.5	24	25.3	56	31.8	21	63.6	28	66.7	49	65.3	53	46.1	52	38.0	105	41.8
3 to 6 Times	7	8.6	27	28.4	34	19.3	3	9.1	3	7.1	6	8.0	10	8.7	30	21.9	40	15.9
6 to 10 Times	18	22.2	24	25.3	42	23.9	2	6.1	3	7.1	5	6.7	20	17.4	27	19.7	47	18.7
10 to 15 Times	2	2.5	3	3.2	5	2.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	1.7	3	2.2	5	2.0
15 to 20 Times	1	1.2	2	2.1	3	1.7	2	6.1	0	0.0	2	2.7	3	2.6	2	1.5	5	2.0
20 to 30 Times	0	0.0	2	2.1	2	1.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	1.5	2	0.8
More than 30 times	1	1.2	1	1.1	2	1.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.9	1	0.7	2	0.8
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	99.1	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.7: Average Working Hours

Average Working Hours of the Respondents	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Up to 8 Hours	34	42.0	77	81.1	111	63.1	20	60.6	31	73.8	51	68.0	54	47.4	108	78.8	162	64.5
8 to 10 Hours	17	21.0	12	12.6	29	16.5	7	21.2	6	14.3	13	17.3	24	21.1	18	13.1	42	16.7
10 to 15 Hours	22	27.2	5	5.3	27	15.3	5	15.2	4	9.5	9	12.0	27	23.7	9	6.6	36	14.3
More than 15 Hours	8	9.9	1	1.1	9	5.1	1	3.0	1	2.4	2	2.7	9	7.9	2	1.5	11	4.4
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.8: Starting Time of Work

Starting Time of Work	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
5.00 am or Before	6	7.4	6	6.3	12	6.8	4	12.1	1	2.4	5	6.7	10	8.8	7	5.1	17	6.8
6 to 7 am	48	59.3	44	46.3	92	52.3	5	15.2	11	26.2	16	21.3	53	46.5	55	40.1	108	43.0
7 to 8 am	19	23.5	26	27.4	45	25.6	15	45.5	22	52.4	37	49.3	34	29.8	48	35.0	82	32.7
8 to 10 am	8	9.9	18	18.9	26	14.8	9	27.3	8	19.0	17	22.7	17	14.9	26	19.0	43	17.1
After 10 am	0	0.0	1	1.1	1	0.6	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.7	1	0.4
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.9: Work Ending Time

Ending time of the Respondents	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Before 2 pm	5	6.2	24	25.3	29	16.5	5	15.2	10	23.8	15	20.0	10	8.8	34	24.8	44	17.5
2 to 5 pm	15	18.5	48	50.5	63	35.8	15	45.5	13	31.0	28	37.3	30	26.3	61	44.5	91	36.3
5 to 8 pm	22	27.2	9	9.5	31	17.6	7	21.2	4	9.5	11	14.7	29	25.4	13	9.5	42	16.7
8 to 10 pm	18	22.2	8	8.4	26	14.8	3	9.1	4	9.5	7	9.3	21	18.4	12	8.8	33	13.1
10pm to 12am	21	25.9	6	6.3	27	15.3	3	9.1	11	26.2	14	18.7	24	21.1	17	12.4	41	16.3
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.10: Forms of Wage

Form of Wage	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Fixed	78	96.3	92	96.8	170	96.6	32	97.0	38	90.5	70	93.3	110	96.5	130	94.9	240	95.6
Undefined	1	1.2	3	3.2	4	2.3	1	3.0	3	7.1	4	5.3	2	1.8	6	4.4	8	3.2
Variable	2	2.5	0	0.0	2	1.1	0	0.0	1	2.4	1	1.3	2	1.8	1	0.7	3	1.2
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.11: Range of Wage

Range of Wage	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
500-1000	4	4.9	5	5.3	9	5.1	7	21.2	17	40.5	24	32.0	11	9.6	22	16.1	33	13.1
1000-2000	22	27.2	8	8.4	30	17.0	19	57.6	19	45.2	38	50.7	41	36.0	27	19.7	68	27.1
2000-3000	28	34.6	34	35.8	62	35.2	5	15.2	5	11.9	10	13.3	33	28.9	39	28.5	72	28.7
3000-4000	12	14.8	29	30.5	41	23.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	12	10.5	29	21.2	41	16.3
5000 or Above 5000	15	18.5	19	20.0	34	19.3	2	6.1	1	2.4	3	4.0	17	14.9	20	14.6	37	14.7
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.12: Interval of Wage Payment

Interval of Payment of the Respondents	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Work Based	3	3.7	2	2.1	5	2.8	4	12.1	5	11.9	9	12.0	7	6.1	7	5.1	14	5.6
Monthly	75	92.6	92	96.8	167	94.9	29	87.9	36	85.7	65	86.7	104	91.2	128	93.4	232	92.4
Occasionally	1	1.2	0	0.0	1	0.6	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.9	0	0.0	1	0.4
Do not Know	1	1.2	0	0.0	1	0.6	0	0.0	1	2.4	1	1.3	1	0.9	1	0.7	2	0.8
Others	1	1.2	1	1.1	2	1.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.9	1	0.7	2	0.8
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.13: Regularity of Wage

Regularity of Wage	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Regular	77	95.1	92	96.8	169	96.0	29	87.9	38	90.5	67	89.3	106	93.0	130	94.9	236	94.0
Irregular	4	4.9	2	2.1	6	3.4	1	3.0	3	7.1	4	5.3	5	4.4	5	3.6	10	4.0
Occasion Based	0	0.0	1	1.1	1	0.6	3	9.1	1	2.4	4	5.3	3	2.6	2	1.5	5	2.0
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.14: Receiver of Wage

Payment Receiver	Dhaka						Chittagong					Total						
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	Permanent		Temporary		Total		
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Self	71	87.7	95	100.0	166	94.3	32	97.0	39	92.9	71	94.7	103	90.4	134	97.8	237	94.4
Family Member	10	12.3	0	0.0	10	5.7	0	0.0	2	4.8	2	2.7	10	8.8	2	1.5	12	4.8
Mediator	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	3.0	0	0.0	1	1.3	1	0.9	0	0.0	1	0.4
Others	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.4	1	1.3	0	0.0	1	0.7	1	0.4
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.15: Inclusion of Benefits other than Wage decided During Contract

Other benefits	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Accommodation	35	15.6	0	0.0	35	15.6	9	4.0	0	0.0	9	4.0	44	19.6	0	0.0	44	19.6
Food	57	25.4	41	18.3	98	43.8	23	10.3	21	9.4	44	19.6	80	35.7	62	27.7	142	63.4
Medicare	39	17.4	14	6.3	53	23.7	7	3.1	6	2.7	13	5.8	46	20.5	20	8.9	66	29.5
Recreation	20	8.9	1	0.4	21	9.4	1	0.4	1	0.4	2	0.9	21	9.4	2	0.9	23	10.3
Clothes	48	21.4	41	18.3	89	39.7	13	5.8	8	3.6	21	9.4	61	27.2	49	21.9	110	49.1
Family reunion	12	5.4	3	1.3	15	6.7	1	0.4	2	0.9	3	1.3	13	5.8	5	2.2	18	8.0
Festival bonus	56	25.0	48	21.4	104	46.4	2	0.9	4	1.8	6	2.7	58	25.9	52	23.2	110	49.1
Festival Holydays	41	18.3	56	25.0	97	43.3	24	10.7	32	14.3	56	25.0	65	29.0	88	39.3	153	68.3
Others	3	1.3	0	0.0	3	1.3	0	0.0		0.0	0	0.0	3	1.3	0	0.0	3	1.3

Number of cases 224

Annex Table 3.16: Accommodation Arrangement

Sleeping arrangement	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Floors of living/bed room	18	51.4	0	0.0	18	51.4	3	33.3	0	0.0	3	33.3	21	47.7	0	0.0	21	47.7
Kitchen	4	11.4	0	0.0	4	11.4	1	11.1	0	0.0	1	11.1	5	11.4	0	0.0	5	11.4
Veranda	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	22.2	0	0.0	2	22.2	2	4.5	0	0.0	2	4.5
Separate room	12	34.3	0	0.0	12	34.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	12	27.3	0	0.0	12	27.3
Not specific	1	2.9	0	0.0	1	2.9	3	33.3	0	0.0	3	33.3	4	9.1	0	0.0	4	9.1
Total	35	100.0	0	0.0	35	100.0	9	100.0	0	0.0	9	100.0	44	100.0	0	0.0	44	100.0

Annex Table 3.17: Materials Provided by Employers

Materials	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Pillow-*Khata*	35	79.5	0	0.0	35	0.0	6	13.6	0	0.0	6	13.6	41	93.2	0	0.0	41	93.2
Mattress/mat	27	61.4	0	0.0	27	0.0	2	4.5	0	0.0	2	4.5	29	65.9	0	0.0	29	65.9
Bed	29	65.9	0	0.0	29	0.0	8	18.2	0	0.0	8	18.2	37	84.1	0	0.0	37	84.1
Blanket/Quilt	29	65.9	0	0.0	29	0.0	5	11.4	0	0.0	5	11.4	34	77.3	0	0.0	34	77.3
Mosquito net	27	61.4	0	0.0	27	0.0	6	13.6	0	0.0	6	13.6	33	75.0	0	0.0	33	75.0
Fan	30	68.2	0	0.0	30	0.0	4	9.1	0	0.0	4	9.1	34	77.3	0	0.0	34	77.3

Annex Table 3.18: Frequency of Food Provided

Food (Frequency)	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Trice a day	49	60.5	3	9.4	52	46.0	8	24.2	3	15.8	11	21.2	57	50.0	6	11.8	63	38.2
Twice a day	19	23.5	6	18.8	25	22.1	7	21.2	5	26.3	12	23.1	26	22.8	11	21.6	37	22.4
Once a day	13	16.0	22	68.8	35	31.0	18	54.5	11	57.9	29	55.8	31	27.2	33	64.7	64	38.8
Occasionally	0	0.0	1	3.1	1	0.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	1	0.6
Total	81	100.0	32	100.0	113	100.0	33	100.0	19	100.0	52	100.0	114	100.0	51	100.0	165	100.0

Annex Table 3.19: Food Quantity

Quantity	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Appropriate	50	61.7	19	59.4	69	61.1	27	81.8	13	68.4	40	76.9	77	67.5	32	62.7	109	66.1
Less	2	2.5	1	3.1	3	2.7	1	3.0	4	21.1	5	9.6	3	2.6	5	9.8	8	4.8
Same as family members	22	27.2	10	31.3	32	28.3	2	6.1	1	5.3	3	5.8	24	21.1	11	21.6	35	21.2
Not fresh/rotten	5	6.2	2	6.3	7	6.2	2	6.1	1	5.3	3	5.8	7	6.1	3	5.9	10	6.1
No response	2	2.5	0	0.0	2	1.8	1	3.0	0	0.0	1	1.9	3	2.6	0	0.0	3	1.8
Total	81	100.0	32	100.0	113	100.0	33	100.0	19	100.0	52	100.0	114	100.0	51	100.0	165	100.0

Annex Table 3.20: Food Quality

Quality	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Good	66	81.5	27	84.4	93	82.3	18	54.5	12	63.2	30	57.7	84	73.7	39	76.5	123	74.5
Medium	10	12.3	3	9.4	13	11.5	11	33.3	4	21.1	15	28.8	21	18.4	7	13.7	28	17.0
Not good	1	1.2	0	0.0	1	0.9	0	0.0	1	5.3	1	1.9	1	0.9	1	2.0	2	1.2
Not fresh/rotten	2	2.5	2	6.3	4	3.5	3	9.1	1	5.3	4	7.7	5	4.4	3	5.9	8	4.8
No response	2	2.5	0	0.0	2	1.8	1	3.0	1	5.3	2	3.8	3	2.6	1	2.0	4	2.4
Total	81	100.0	32	100.0	113	100.0	33	100.0	19	100.0	52	100.0	114	100.0	51	100.0	165	100.0

Annex Table 3.21: Clothes Frequency

Frequency	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Once a year	18	31.6	34	82.9	52	53.1	22	95.7	6	75.0	28	90.3	40	50.0	40	81.6	80	62.0
Twice/Thrice a year	30	52.6	5	12.2	35	35.7	1	4.3	2	25.0	3	9.7	31	38.8	7	14.3	38	29.5
More	9	15.8	2	4.9	11	11.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	9	11.3	2	4.1	11	8.5
Total	57	100.0	41	100.0	98	100.0	23	100.0	8	100.0	31	100.0	80	100.0	49	100.0	129	100.0

Annex Table 3.22: Clothes Quality

Quality	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Appropriate	53	93.0	34	82.9	87	88.8	17	73.9	6	75.0	23	74.2	70	87.5	40	81.6	110	85.3
Poor	4	7.0	6	14.6	10	10.2	5	21.7	1	12.5	6	19.4	9	11.3	7	14.3	16	12.4
Same as family members	0	0.0	1	2.4	1	1.0	1	4.3	1	12.5	2	6.5	1	1.3	2	4.1	3	2.3
Total	57	100.0	41	100.0	98	100.0	23	100.0	8	100.0	31	100.0	80	100.0	49	100.0	129	100.0

Annex Table 3.23: Clothes Type

Type	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Used	16	28.1	6	14.6	22	22.4	2	8.7	0	0.0	2	6.5	18	22.5	6	12.2	24	18.6
New	39	68.4	34	82.9	73	74.5	15	65.2	7	87.5	22	71.0	54	67.5	41	83.7	95	73.6
Don't know	2	3.5	1	2.4	3	3.1	6	26.1	1	12.5	7	22.6	8	10.0	2	4.1	10	7.8
Total	57	100.0	41	100.0	98	100.0	23	100.0	8	100.0	31	100.0	80	100.0	49	100.0	129	100.0

Annex Table 3.24: Medical Treatment (timing)

Treatment timing	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
At once	36	97.3	13	100.0	49	98.0	6	100.0	8	88.9	14	93.3	42	97.7	21	95.5	63	96.9
Only in serious cases	1	2.7	0	0.0	1	2.0	0	0.0	1	11.1	1	6.7	1	2.3	1	4.5	2	3.1
Total	37	100.0	13	100.0	50	100.0	6	100.0	9	100.0	15	100.0	43	100.0	22	100.0	65	100.0

Annex Table 3.25: Treatment Means

Treatment provider	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Medicine through presumption	14	37.8	11	84.6	25	50.0	2	33.3	5	55.6	7	46.7	16	37.2	16	72.7	32	49.2
Treatment through quack	8	21.6	1	7.7	9	18.0	3	50.0	0	0.0	3	20.0	11	25.6	1	4.5	12	18.5
treatment through family doctor/clinic/hospital	15	40.5	1	7.7	16	32.0	1	16.7	3	33.3	4	26.7	16	37.2	4	18.2	20	30.8
Sent to home		0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0		0.0	1	11.1	1	6.7		0.0	1	4.5	1	1.5
Total	37	100.0	13	100.0	50	100.0	6	100.0	9	100.0	15	100.0	43	100.0	22	100.0	65	100.0

Annex Table 3.26: Scope of Recreation Time

Recreation	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	54	66.7	36	37.9	90	51.1	4	12.1	6	14.3	10	13.3	58	50.9	42	30.7	100	39.8
No	27	33.3	69	72.6	86	48.9	29	87.9	36	85.7	65	86.7	56	49.1	95	69.3	151	60.2
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.27: Recreation time

	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
Types	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Night	27	50.9	26	70.3	53	58.9	1	25.0	6	100.0	7	70.0	28	49.1	32	74.4	60	60.0
Afternoon	2	3.8	1	2.7	3	3.3	1	25.0		0.0	1	10.0	3	5.3	1	2.3	4	4.0
Evening	3	5.7	2	5.4	5	5.6	1	25.0		0.0	1	10.0	4	7.0	2	4.7	6	6.0
All time	4	7.5		0.0	4	4.4	0	0.0		0.0	0	0.0	4	7.0		0.0	4	4.0
When get time	15	28.3	8	21.6	23	25.6	1	25.0		0.0	1	10.0	16	28.1	8	18.6	24	24.0
As a family member	2	3.8		0.0	2	2.2	0	0.0		0.0	0	0.0	2	3.5		0.0	2	2.0
Total	53	100.0	37	100.0	90	100.0	4	100.0	6	100.0	10	100.0	57	100.0	43	100.0	100	100.0

Annex Table 3.28: Behavior of Employers Family Members)

Types	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Appropriate	71	87.7	90	94.7	161	91.5	27	81.8	38	90.5	65	86.7	98	86.0	128	93.4	226	90.0
Same as family member	7	8.6	2	2.1	9	5.1	5	15.2	3	7.1	8	10.7	12	10.5	5	3.6	17	6.8
Harsh (Physical, psychological, sexual)	3	3.7	3	3.2	6	3.4	1	3.0	1	2.4	2	2.7	4	3.5	4	2.9	8	3.2
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.29: Opportunity to Meet Other Persons

Freedom of Association	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
No opportunity to mingle	12	14.8	3	3.2	15	8.5	13	39.4	15	35.7	28	37.3	25	21.9	18	13.1	43	17.1
Only with other Domestic Workers	2	2.5	4	4.2	6	3.4	2	6.1	7	16.7	9	12.0	4	3.5	11	8.0	15	6.0
Free to Associate (Surrounding people, anybody)	67	82.7	88	92.6	155	88.1	18	54.5	20	47.6	38	50.7	85	74.6	108	78.8	193	76.9
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.30: Opportunity to Go Outside

Opportunity to go Outside	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Always	62	76.5	87	91.6	149	84.7	11	33.3	22	52.4	33	44.0	73	64.0	109	79.6	182	72.5
No	7	8.6	4	4.2	11	6.3	19	57.6	15	35.7	34	45.3	26	22.8	19	13.9	45	17.9
Occasionally	12	14.8	4	4.2	16	9.1	3	9.1	5	11.9	8	10.7	15	13.2	9	6.6	24	9.6
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 3.31: Locked from Outside During Home Alone

Whether locked from outside	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	8	9.9	4	4.2	12	6.8	2	6	7	16.7	9	12.0	10	8.8	11	8.0	21	8.4
No	73	90.1	91	95.8	164	93.2	31	94	35	83.3	66	88.0	104	91.2	126	92.0	230	91.6
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 4.1: Purpose of Migration

Migration Purpose	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Purpose of Work	29	35.8	33	34.7	62	35.2	21	63.6	25	59.5	46	61.3	50	43.9	58	42.3	108	43.0
Income Incensement	26	32.1	29	30.5	55	31.3	5	15.2	4	9.5	9	12.0	31	27.2	33	24.1	64	25.5
Family Reunion	8	9.9	15	15.8	23	13.1	1	3.0	6	14.3	7	9.3	9	7.9	21	15.3	30	12.0
Due Overcome	4	4.9	7	7.4	11	6.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	3.5	7	5.1	11	4.4
For Work	7	8.6	6	6.3	13	7.4	5	15.2	5	11.9	10	13.3	12	10.5	11	8.0	23	9.2
Family Violence	1	1.2	2	2.1	3	1.7	0	0.0	1	2.4	1	1.3	1	0.9	3	2.2	4	1.6
Others	6	7.4	3	3.2	9	5.1	1	3.0	1	2.4	2	2.7	7	6.1	4	2.9	11	4.4
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 4.2 Migration Period

Migration Period	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Financial Crisis	50	61.7	62	65.3	112	63.6	23	69.7	33	78.6	56	74.7	73	64.0	95	69.3	168	66.9
Natural Disasters	3	3.7	3	3.2	6	3.4	1	3.0	0	0.0	1	1.3	4	3.5	3	2.2	7	2.8
Lack of Security	2	2.5	4	4.2	6	3.4	1	3.0	1	2.4	2	2.7	3	2.6	5	3.6	8	3.2
Debt	3	3.7	11	11.6	14	8.0	1	3.0	0	0.0	1	1.3	4	3.5	11	8.0	15	6.0
Could not Response	23	28.4	15	15.8	38	21.6	7	21.2	8	19.0	15	20.0	30	26.3	23	16.8	53	21.1
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 4.3: First Job of Respondents

First Job of the Respondents	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Domestic Work	62	76.5	73	76.8	135	76.7	23	69.7	30	71.4	53	70.7	85	74.6	103	75.2	188	74.9
Business	3	3.7	0	0.0	3	1.7	2	6.1	0	0.0	2	2.7	5	4.4	0	0.0	5	2.0
Day Labour	2	2.5	3	3.2	5	2.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	1.8	3	2.2	5	2.0
RMG	8	9.9	14	14.7	22	12.5	3	9.1	1	2.4	4	5.3	11	9.6	15	10.9	26	10.4
No Response	0	0.0	1	1.1	1	0.6	5	15.2	8	19.0	13	17.3	5	4.4	9	6.6	14	5.6
Others	6	7.4	4	4.2	10	5.7	0	0.0	3	7.1	3	4.0	6	5.3	7	5.1	13	5.2
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Number of cases 251

Annex Table 4.4 Push Factors

Push Factors	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Lack of work	7	2.8	18	7.2	25	10.0	6	2.4	7	2.8	13	5.2	13	5.2	25	10.0	38	15.1
Live with family	2	0.8	5	2.0	7	2.8	1	0.4	8	3.2	9	3.6	3	1.2	13	5.2	16	6.4
Security	9	3.6	10	4.0	19	7.6	4	1.6	2	0.8	6	2.4	13	5.2	12	4.8	25	10.0
Family violence	2	0.8	2	0.8	4	1.6	1	0.4	0	0.0	1	0.4	3	1.2	2	0.8	5	2.0
Others	4	1.6	5	2.0	9	3.6	3	1.2	6	2.4	9	3.6	7	2.8	11	4.4	18	7.2
Financial Push factor	56	22.3	63	25.1	119	47.4	22	8.8	19	7.6	41	16.3	78	31.1	82	32.7	160	63.7

Number of cases 251

Annex Table 4.5: Pull Factors

Pull Factors	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Financial pull factor	66	26.3	83	33.1	149	59.4	27	10.8	26	10.4	53	21.1	93	37.1	109	43.4	202	80.5
Lack of work	0	0.0	1	0.4	1	0.4	1	0.4	4	1.6	5	2.0	1	0.4	5	2.0	6	2.4
Live with family	0	0.0	3	1.2	3	1.2	1	0.4	6	2.4	7	2.8	1	0.4	9	3.6	10	4.0
Security	0	0.0	1	0.4	1	0.4	2	0.8	0	0.0	2	0.8	2	0.8	1	0.4	3	1.2
Family violence	1	0.4	1	0.4	2	0.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.4	1	0.4	2	0.8
Others	6	2.4	4	1.6	10	4.0	3	1.2	5	2.0	8	3.2	9	3.6	9	3.6	18	7.2

Annex Table 4.6: Involvement Process in Domestic Work

Involvement Process	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Relative	27	33.3	32	33.7	59	33.5	3	9.1	11	26.2	14	18.7	30	26.3	43	31.4	73	29.1
Neighbors	26	32.1	19	20.0	45	25.6	8	24.2	12	28.6	20	26.7	34	29.8	31	22.6	65	25.9
Family Members	9	11.1	19	20.0	28	15.9	1	3.0	3	7.1	4	5.3	10	8.8	22	16.1	32	12.7
Experienced Workers	2	2.5	1	1.1	3	1.7	0	0.0	1	2.4	1	1.3	2	1.8	2	1.5	4	1.6
Unintended	4	4.9	5	5.3	9	5.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	3.5	5	3.6	9	3.6
Self	13	16.0	19	20.0	32	18.2	21	63.6	15	35.7	36	48.0	34	29.8	34	24.8	68	27.1
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 4.7: Pay Mediator for Employment

Payment to Mediator	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
No	80	98.8	93	97.9	173	98.3	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	113	99.1	135	98.5	248	98.8
Yes	1	1.2	2	2.1	3	1.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.9	2	1.5	3	1.2
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 4.8: Communication with Mediator by Respondents

Communication with Mediator	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
No	62	76.5	80	84.2	142	80.7	32	97.0	35	83.3	67	89.3	94	82.5	115	83.9	209	83.3
Yes	19	23.5	15	15.8	34	19.3	1	3.0	7	16.7	8	10.7	20	17.5	22	16.1	42	16.7
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 4.9: Reasons of Communication with Mediator

Reasons of Communication Mediator	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Neighbor	9	47.4	6	40.0	15	44.1	1	100.0	1	14.3	2	25.0	10	50.0	7	31.8	17	40.5
Social Relationship	8	42.1	8	53.3	16	47.1	0	0.0	5	71.4	5	62.5	8	40.0	13	59.1	21	50.0
Live to gather	1	5.3	1	6.7	2	5.9	0	0.0	1	14.3	1	12.5	1	5.0	2	9.1	3	7.1
Others	1	5.3	0	0.0	1	2.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	5.0	0	0.0	1	2.4
Total	19	100.0	15	100.0	34	100.0	1	100.0	7	100.0	8	100.0	20	100.0	22	100.0	42	100.0

Annex Table 4.10: Employers Communicate with Mediators

Employers' Communication with Mediator	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
No	76	93.8	92	96.8	168	95.5	30	90.9	40	95.2	70	93.3	106	93.0	132	96.4	238	94.8
Yes	5	6.2	3	3.2	8	4.5	3	9.1	2	4.8	5	6.7	8	7.0	5	3.6	13	5.2
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 4.11: Community Support

Community Support to Domestic Workers	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	38	46.9	43	45.3	81	46.3	26	78.8	34	81.0	60	80.0	64	56.1	77	56.2	141	56.2
No	14	17.3	12	12.6	26	14.9	4	12.1	7	16.7	11	14.7	18	15.8	19	13.9	37	14.7
Do not Care	29	35.8	40	42.1	69	39.4	3	9.1	1	2.4	4	5.3	32	28.1	41	29.9	73	29.1
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.6	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 4.12: Reasons to Think Community is Supportive

If Yes How	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Reduce Financial scarcity	34	89.5	41	95.3	75	92.6	23	88.5	21	61.8	44	73.3	57	89.1	62	80.5	119	84.4
Secured job	0	0.0	2	4.7	2	2.5	2	7.7	9	26.5	11	18.3	2	3.1	11	14.3	13	9.2
Would be good for family	1	2.6	0	0.0	1	1.2	1	3.8	3	8.8	4	6.7	2	3.1	3	3.9	5	3.5
No Response	3	7.9	0	0.0	3	3.7	0	0.0	1	2.9	1	1.7	3	4.7	1	1.3	4	2.8
Total	38	100.0	43	100.0	81	100.0	26	100.0	34	100.0	60	100.0	64	100.0	77	100.0	141	100.0

Annex Table 4.13: Reasons to Think Community is not Supportive

If No How	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Negative Comments	6	42.9	9	75.0	15	57.7	3	75.0	2	28.6	5	45.5	9	50.0	11	57.9	20	54.1
Family Obstruction	8	57.1	3	25.0	11	42.3	1	25.0	5	71.4	6	54.5	9	50.0	8	42.1	17	45.9
Total	14	100.0	12	100.0	26	100.0	4	100.0	7	100.0	11	100.0	18	100.0	19	100.0	37	100.0

Annex Table 4.14: Opportunity to Family Reunion

Family Reunion	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Regularly	31	38.3	33	34.7	64	36.4	27	81.8	39	92.9	66	88.0	58	50.9	72	52.6	130	51.8
Occasionally	41	50.6	49	51.6	90	51.1	3	9.1	2	4.8	5	6.7	44	38.6	51	37.2	95	37.8
Never	2	2.5	2	2.1	4	2.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	1.8	2	1.5	4	1.6
No Opportunity	3	3.7	3	3.2	6	3.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	2.6	3	2.2	6	2.4
No Response	4	4.9	8	8.4	12	6.8	3	9.1	1	2.4	4	5.3	7	6.1	9	6.6	16	6.4
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 4.15: Communication with Family Members

Communication with the Family Members	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
NO	12	14.8	17	17.9	29	16.5	21	63.6	26	61.9	47	62.7	33	28.9	43	31.4	76	30.3
Yes	69	85.2	78	82.1	147	83.5	12	36.4	16	38.1	28	37.3	81	71.1	94	68.6	175	69.7
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 4.16: Communication Mode

Communication Mode	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
By Mobile	12	17.4	13	16.7	25	17.0	2	16.7	0	0.0	2	7.1	14	17.3	13	13.8	27	15.4
Visit	3	4.3	2	2.6	5	3.4	6	50.0	16	100.0	22	78.6	9	11.1	18	19.1	27	15.4
Both by Mobile and Visit	54	78.3	63	80.8	117	79.6	4	33.3	0	0.0	4	14.3	58	71.6	63	67.0	121	69.1
Total	69	100.0	78	100.0	147	100.0	12	100.0	16	100.0	28	100.0	81	100.0	94	100.0	175	100.0

Annex Table 4.17: Money Sending Process to Home

Money Sending Process	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Mobile Banking	24	29.6	34	35.8	58	33.0	4	12.1	0	0.0	4	5.3	28	24.6	34	24.8	62	24.7
Self	11	13.6	11	11.6	22	12.5	17	51.5	15	35.7	32	42.7	28	24.6	26	19.0	54	21.5
By Person	7	8.6	6	6.3	13	7.4	1	3.0	1	2.4	2	2.7	8	7.0	7	5.1	15	6.0
Others	39	48.1	44	46.3	83	47.2	11	33.3	26	61.9	37	49.3	50	43.9	70	51.1	120	47.8
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 5.1 Education/Skill development

Education/Skill development	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	17	21.0	17	17.9	34	19.3	0	0.0	2	4.8	2	2.7	17	14.9	19	13.9	36	14.3
No	64	79.0	78	82.1	142	80.7	33	100.0	40	95.2	73	97.3	97	85.1	118	86.1	215	85.7
Total	81	100.0	95	100.0	176	100.0	33	100.0	42	100.0	75	100.0	114	100.0	137	100.0	251	100.0

Annex Table 5.2: Types of Education/Development

Types	Dhaka						Chittagong						Total					
	Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total		Permanent		Temporary		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Garments	7	41.2	8	47.1	15	44.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	7	41.2	8	42.1	15	41.7
Use of various instruments	0	0.0	1	5.9	1	2.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	5.3	1	2.8
small business	1	5.9	0	0.0	1	2.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	5.9	0	0.0	1	2.8
Cooking	9	52.9	8	47.1	17	50.0	0	0.0	2	100.0	2	100.0	9	52.9	10	52.6	19	52.8
Total	17	100.0	17	100.0	34	100.0	0	0.0	2	100.0	2	100.0	17	100.0	19	100.0	36	100.0