

# Forced Migration to Bordering Countries



# Forced Migration to Bordering Countries:

*Intervention Strategies and  
Policies for Refugees*

By

Md Saiful Islam

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## PREFACE

In August 2017, while the Rohingya flowed into Bangladesh, I was preparing for my doctoral journey in Türkiye. I witnessed a significant influx of Rohingya people fleeing to Bangladesh, and this observation deeply touched my heart. Since starting my PhD study in Türkiye, I have regularly encountered refugees from Syria, Afghanistan, and Iraq in my daily life. Following the Russian invasion of Ukraine, I have observed another massive influx of Ukrainians to Europe. All these incidents had a psychological effect on me and motivated me to work on these issues in my PhD research. Finally, I have completed my doctoral degree, and this book is an edited version of my PhD dissertation.

I have seen that forced migration patterns frequently force individuals to relocate to bordering countries; however, the distribution of these forced migration influxes among bordering countries is uneven. The majority of these forced migrants relocate to a certain bordering country. This book focusses on clarifying the factors that attract and encourage forced migration to bordering countries, enabling forced migrants to select a specific bordering country. This book provides explanations for why Rohingya refugees escape to Bangladesh, Syrian refugees seek asylum in Türkiye, and Ukrainian refugees flee to bordering EU member states. Furthermore, I have observed that bordering countries tend to treat various refugees differently at their borders. This book seeks to analyse intervention strategies and policies for forced migration at bordering countries' borders. This book also examines the intervention strategies and policies implemented by Bangladesh, Türkiye, and the European Union at their respective borders in response to the influx of Syrian, Rohingya, and Ukrainian refugees.

This book offers a distinctive viewpoint by highlighting various factors that attract and encourage forced migration to bordering countries and their direct influence on forced migrants' decision to move to a particular bordering country. This book offers a unique analysis of intervention strategies and policies for forced migration at the borders of bordering countries, as well as their direct effects on the discriminatory treatment of refugees at the borders. This book enhances theoretical knowledge by

addressing gaps in the existing literature on migration and border studies, specifically by emphasising how diverse pull factors in bordering countries can attract and encourage forced migration as well as how various intervention strategies and policies for forced migration at borders can treat refugees differently at borders. The completion of this book would not have been possible without the support, guidance, and motivation of the individuals that I would like to acknowledge in this column.

First and foremost, I would like to express my deepest appreciation to all my family members for their priceless contributions to my life and the moral principles that they instilled in me right from the cradle, especially to my beloved late father, whom I lost several months ago before starting my PhD journey, and to my lovely mother, who allowed me to concentrate on my study despite we both missing each other most. I would like to mention the name of one of my elder brothers, Hafizur, who always encouraged me to try to achieve the highest degree at university and wanted me to have a doctorate degree.

I would like to seize this opportunity to express my profound gratitude to my esteemed supervisor, Prof. Dr. Ali ŞAHİN, for his unwavering dedication, constant support and guidance throughout the entire duration of my dissertation. I am profoundly appreciative of my supervisor, Prof. Dr. Ali ŞAHİN, for allowing me the autonomy to select this topic. Whenever I engaged in discussions over the topic and structure of the dissertation, Prof. Dr. Ali ŞAHİN always said that I have greater knowledge about migration issues than he did. I now recognise that this was merely one of his tactics to inspire me to excel. Prof. Dr. Ali ŞAHİN is an exceptional professor and scholar in my view.

In addition, I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to Dr. Vahap GÖKSU, a respected member of my dissertation monitoring committee, for his unwavering support and advice during the entire process. Throughout the process, he was always by my side. He first read and commented on my writings on this topic. Not only did he always provide me with what I requested, but he also provided me with something out of the ordinary, which greatly aided me in my work. Dr. Vahap GÖKSU has consistently wished for me to achieve success and excel in my endeavours.

Finally, I would like to express my gratitude for the encouragement and support that I received from my wonderful fiancée, Ahsen, throughout my PhD journey. She emerged as a redeemer in my life. During times of stress, she consistently supported me and urged me to focus on my work. Prior to

each meeting with my supervisor and dissertation monitoring committee, I conferred with her about the topic. Her Turkish cuisine was exceptional, and she made sure that I never felt alone in Türkiye. I am also grateful to Cambridge Scholars Publishing for publishing this book.

A diverse audience, including students, researchers, and professionals in migration, migration policy, and border studies, is the target audience for this book. The book provides an understandable and organised introduction to migration concepts and theories, rendering it a useful resource for undergraduate and graduate course levels. Researchers will discover comprehensive and comparative analyses that offer new perspectives on the topic, while professionals can implement practical examples and approaches in real-world contexts. This book serves as a comprehensive guide for newcomers seeking foundational knowledge on migration issues.

— **Md Saiful Islam**  
Karatay, Konya, Türkiye  
October 2024

# INTRODUCTION

About 69% of the current total of 110 million globally forcibly displaced people due to forced migration, which can be attributed to several factors, including persecution, war, violence, violations of human rights, or events that badly upset public order, are hosted in neighboring or bordering countries (UNHCR, 2023b). Influxes of forced migration to bordering countries are not a new trend; for example, in 1980, 1.3 million Afghans and 1.6 million Ethiopians were forced to flee to neighboring countries. In 1991, 1.4 million Iraqis fled to the Islamic Republic of Iran. In 1994, 2.3 million Rwandans fled to neighboring countries. The trend of influxes of forced migration is not equally distributed to bordering countries because a large number of forced migrants generally choose a particular bordering country, which creates an extra burden for that specific country. For example, since August 2017, after massive persecutions and armed attacks, nearly one million (889,775) people have moved to their bordering country, Bangladesh (UNHCR, 2021a, 2022b), whereas they have not migrated to other bordering countries, such as Laos, China, India, or Thailand, to the same extent. Since 2011, due to the civil war in Syria, over half of Syrian refugees (3.6 million) have migrated to its bordering country, Türkiye (UNHCR, 2022b), while the other half have dispersed throughout bordering countries such as Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Egypt, and other border countries. Because of the Russian invasion of Ukraine in February 2022, about 5.7 million Ukrainian refugees have fled to bordering countries of the European Union (EU). Most Ukrainian refugees sought refuge in European Union member states rather than in Ukraine's bordering countries, such as Moldova, Russia, and Belarus. Unless the trend of these refugee influxes is equally distributed, the global refugee crisis will ultimately become an unsettled issue forever. This book examines the factors that attract and encourage forced migration to bordering countries, allowing forced migrants to select a particular bordering country, with an emphasis on how these factors affect Rohingya refugees in choosing Bangladesh, Syrian refugees in opting for Türkiye, and Ukrainian refugees in selecting European Union (EU) member states.

Regardless of whether neighboring countries are signatories to the Refugee Convention of 1951 and the Protocol of 1967, or if they have laws and policies in place to protect refugees, numerous difficulties arise for these

countries when they host large numbers of forced migrants. These challenges include geographical limitations, the need to enact new laws and policies, and the activation of existing laws or policies. Therefore, the international refugee system inherently treats different refugees differently, applying various intervention strategies and policies at borders. In this context, Bangladesh is not a signer to the Refugee Convention of 1951 and the Protocol of 1967. But the government of Bangladesh permitted Rohingya refugees to enter designed camps; even the first intervention was to push back them at the border during August 2017, Myanmar army's brutal crackdown. With the support of the international humanitarian community, the intervention strategy and policy of the Government of Bangladesh has organized the temporary settlement of Rohingya refugees (UNDP, 2018). The authorities of the government of Bangladesh have denied them refugee status, and Rohingya refugees registered biometrically and issued a 'Myanmar National Registration Card' (Azad, 2017). The Government of Bangladesh is bound to protect Rohingya refugees because Bangladesh is a signatory of many international human rights treaties and conventions, Bangladesh's Constitution also protects the fundamental human rights of all. However, although there are no laws relating to safeguarding refugees in Bangladesh, protection is supplied through an "ad hoc, arbitrary, and discretionary approach" (Azad, 2016).

On the other hand, Türkiye is a signer and party of the Refugee Convention of 1951 and the Protocol of 1967, and consequently, the geographical limitation does not give the refugee status of those refugees from outside of Europe. However, it can provide 'conditional refugee status' along with 'refugee' and 'subsidiary' protection. Türkiye focused on humanitarian needs and responded to Syrian refugees with 'an open border and open-door approach.' Then in 2012, specific border gates and occasional temporary closures of the border occurred, and only a limited number of Syrian refugees were allowed to enter Türkiye. In 2014, the Turkish policy toward Syrian forced migrants was the construction of refugee camps (McClelland, 2014). Using the non-refoulement principles and enacting the Law on Foreigners and International Protection (LFIP) in 2013 and Temporary Protection Regulation (TPR) in 2014, Syrian forced migrants have been registered as "temporary refugees" or "guests" by the Turkish Government (Rottmann, 2020). From 2014 to 2015, the rise and expansion of the terrorists and ISIS with Kurdish movement in territories bordering Türkiye complicated the security issues. Although Türkiye intends to keep the border "open" for Syrian refugees, these security situations encouraged them to seal Turkish borders. Also, the installment of visa requirements for Syrian nationals (coming by sea or air) restarted in 2016 (Schmitt & Arango,

2015). In March 2016, the EU-Türkiye Statement introduced a new migration management policy in which Türkiye will manage and control the EU external borders and prevent Syrian refugees from entering the EU countries (Batalla & Tolay, 2018).

For the European Union (EU) perspective, all EU Member States are signatories of the Refugee Convention of 1951 and the Protocol of 1967. Responding to the Russian invasion of Ukraine, the EU Member States has immediately made the unprecedented decision to activate the Temporary Protection Directive (TPD) 2001, for Ukrainian refugees. In reverse, the European Union views this type of influxes of forced migration as a security threat, and it demands to keep them as far away as possible from Europe's borders; if necessary, the EU will establish refugee camps outside of the European Union (Conley & Ruy, 2018). Since the Schengen Agreement in 1985, the EU border policies have led many forcibly displaced migrants unable to enter Europe legally and pushed them to take even more risky routes to avoid violence and conflict. Since 2005, border externalization measures and agreements have developed by providing millions of euros to stop forced migration flows across the EU territories. For example, the Valletta Europe-Africa Summit in 2015 established the EU Emergency Trust Fund for Africa (EUTF) and the EU-Türkiye Statement in 2016 that formed the Migration Partnership Framework and the Refugee Facility for Türkiye.

Without bordering countries fulfilling their obligations to uphold the rights of refugees as outlined in international refugee and humanitarian laws, it is not feasible to implement effective and sustainable intervention strategies and policies for refugees. Consequently, this leads to discriminatory intervention strategies and policies at their borders, subjecting refugees to varying treatment as well as an uneven distribution of refugees among bordering countries. This book examines the intervention strategies and policies for forced migration at bordering countries' borders. By analysing the intervention strategies and policies implemented by Bangladesh for Rohingya refugees, Türkiye for Syrian refugees, and the European Union for Ukrainian refugees at their respective borders, this book contributes to a growing body of literature that seeks to understand how bordering countries treat refugees at their borders.

This book explores what are the factors that contribute to the common influxes of forced migration to bordering countries, and how these factors that attract and encourage forced migrants (e.g., refugees) to seek refuge in a particular border country, even when alternative bordering countries are

available? And what are the intervention strategies and policies implemented for Rohingya refugees at the Bangladeshi border, Syrian refugees at the Turkish border, and Ukrainian refugees at the borders of the European Union (EU)? The research posits that the uneven distribution of forced migration influxes to bordering countries is a result of a prevailing pattern of forced migration influxes to a certain bordering country. The book aims to identify and a better understanding of the factors that attract and encourage forced migration to bordering countries is therefore important for governing future influxes of forced migration and burden sharing in bordering countries. Furthermore, it argues that bordering countries provide disparate treatment to refugees as a result of the diverse range of intervention strategies and policies implemented at their borders. It also aims to examine the strategies and policies for managing forced migration at borders, which can either welcome them with openness or restrict them by denying, rerouting, pushing back, detaining, attacking, or even killing them, depending on the circumstances, which will aid in the implementation of future border strategies and policies for bordering countries to safeguard refugees in accordance with international refugee and humanitarian laws. This understanding can aid in identifying effective approaches for all bordering countries and other relevant parties to assist forced migrants in addressing the challenges posed by the global refugee crisis.

This book emphasises on the literature review method to understand the topics of migration and forced migration in bordering countries, and to identify the factors contributing to these influxes. In this context, I analyzed insights from various theories such as push-pull theory, migration network theory, the laws of migration theory, and intervening opportunities theory to identify the underlying factors that attract and encourage people to migrate, thereby simplifying the process of forced migration to bordering countries. The literature review comprehensively references relevant theory and research in the related topic, making linkages between the source literature and positioning the researcher and their studies within those materials (Ridley, 2012). I employed the MAXQDA Analytics Pro tool to conduct a literature review, with the aim of understanding the factors that drew Rohingya refugees to Bangladesh, Syrian refugees to Türkiye, and Ukrainian refugees to the European Union (EU). Seeking answers to research questions and making a deep analysis of the intervention strategies and border policies for forced migration necessitates in-depth information about documents relating to the intervention strategies and border policies; consequently, I employed document analysis. Document analysis is the process of examining all of the contextual factors surrounding a document's creation, implementation, and evaluation. The documents in question

encompass a wide range of written materials, including but not limited to policy declarations, edicts, legal papers, Acts of Parliament or other legislative documents, editorials, newspaper and magazine articles, research papers, bills of lading for cargo ships, and similar items (Zeegers & Barron, 2015). For document analysis, I used a comprehensive range of relevant documents, combining both primary and secondary sources. The primary sources consist of authentic documents derived from organisational and governmental bodies, such as annual reports, constitutions, conventions and treaties, rules and regulations, directives, and circulars.

For analysing the documents of intervention strategies and border policies for Rohingya refugees at the border of Bangladesh, I used the constitution of Bangladesh, general domestic (statutory) laws, international customary laws using international human rights instruments, and the principle of non-refoulement under international human rights law. For analysing the documents of intervention strategies and border policies for Syrian refugees at the border of Türkiye, I used the Constitution of Türkiye, the Law on Settlement, Passport Law, the Geneva Convention of 1951 and the 1967 New York Protocol, the Asylum Regulation, the Law on Foreigners and International Protection (LFIP), the Temporary Protection Regulation (TPR), the International Workforce Law, various Circulars, Directives, and Other Regulations, and the Universal Human Rights Instruments of Türkiye. The Convention and Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees, the Common European Asylum System (CEAS), the Temporary Protection Directive (TPD), and other important international human rights instruments were used to help me look at the documents of intervention strategies and border policies for Ukrainian refugees at the borders of the European Union (EU). Secondary sources refer to the interpretations of primary sources, encompassing studies and articles generated by research institutions and academics who analyse and assess the primary sources. Understanding highly specialised documents, such as laws and treaties, greatly benefits from the use of secondary sources created by experts. As a result of my research emphasis on intervention strategies and border policies, I have derived valuable insights from secondary materials authored by academic scholars and non-governmental groups, which have significantly contributed to my understanding of these documents. As this book is solely based on a literature review and a document analysis, no participants were involved. Therefore, the book poses no or minimal ethical issues. The findings do not reflect the views of either Bangladesh, nor Türkiye or the European Union (EU), but are solely based on facts that are uncovered. The research presented in this book reveals that “pull factors” attract and encourage forced migrants to flee to their bordering countries. Most of these forced

migrants move to a specific bordering country because they find the most “pull factors” there. Rohingya refugees flee to Bangladesh, Syrian refugees flee to Türkiye, and Ukrainian refugees flee to the EU member states because they also find the most “pull factors” in those bordering countries. The findings also indicate that bordering countries provide different treatment to different refugees due to diverse intervention strategies and policies for different refugees at the borders. In addition, the study finds similarities and differences in intervention strategies and policies at the borders of Bangladesh, Türkiye, and the European Union (EU).

This book comprises six chapters, each sequentially enhancing the overall discussion. **Chapter One** addresses the current literature on migration, highlighting different types and reasons for migration, along with migration theories, which will serve to foundation the subsequent chapters’ discussions. **Chapter Two** examines forced migration, borders, bordering countries, and the pull factors that attract and encourage forced migration in bordering countries, while also outlining the theoretical framework that underpins the analysis. **Chapter Three** offers a comprehensive examination of the pull factors that attract and encourage Rohingya refugees to Bangladesh, Syrian refugees to Türkiye, and Ukrainian refugees to the European Union (EU). **Chapter Four** succinctly explores the historical patterns of forced migration to Bangladesh, Türkiye, and the European Union (EU), together with their legal frameworks for forced migration, to base the analysis. **Chapter Five** examines the existing intervention strategies and policies in response to forced migration implemented by bordering countries around the world. **Chapter Six** analyses the intervention strategies and policies for Rohingya refugees at the Bangladeshi borders, Syrian refugees at the Turkish borders, and Ukrainian refugees at the European Union borders, grounded in their respective national and international refugee and humanitarian laws, with an emphasis on the similarities and differences. This book presents an overview of migration and forced migration, providing persuasive evidence that various pull factors can attract and encourage forced migration in bordering countries and their direct influence on forced migrants’ decision to flee to a particular bordering country. This book provides a distinctive analysis of intervention strategies and policies for forced migration at borders, along with their impact on the discriminatory treatment of refugees at bordering countries’ borders. As global attention intensifies on the issue of forced migration, the viewpoints presented herein are timely, providing a fresh perspective that bordering countries might use in developing new strategies and policies for welcoming refugees based on international refugee and humanitarian laws.

# CHAPTER ONE

## MIGRATION: CONCEPT, DRIVERS, TYPES, AND THEORIES

*“History in its broadest aspect is a record of man’s migrations from one environment to another.”*

—Ellsworth Huntington

Humans’ history is intertwined with migration. Also, in every era of the world’s past, there are remarkable accounts of migration. To date, no one has developed a definition or basis of migration that is universally applicable across all spatial units or levels (including local, regional, national, and global) and has established a proper definition of migration free from any type of controversy. This chapter aims to elucidate migration by examining the underlying reasons, classifications, and theories that explain these phenomena, which will underpin the subsequent chapters’ discussion.

### 1.1. Migration

Throughout history, people have migrated in quest of better living conditions for themselves and their families or to flee from tragic situations at home (Castelli, 2018). For example, throughout Islamic history, nearly all prophets encountered the practice of “migration” (hijra). Typically, the cultures or tribes that sent them enforced their migration. In 622, Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him), like past prophets, had to relocate from Makkah to Medina. This move was prompted by the escalating hostility and aggression directed at him and his followers (Acikgul, 2021). During the ancient era, over two millennia ago, Greek mariners established prosperous trading colonies along the peripheries of the Mediterranean and Black Seas. When they left, Rome was able to take over the nearby lands and turn them into a great empire. During the epoch known as “early modern” times, which spanned three centuries following Columbus’ voyage, approximately two million European settlers migrated across the Atlantic to establish residency in the Americas. During the aforementioned three centuries, a

substantial number of approximately eight million individuals of African descent were transported to the Americas, with the majority of them being subjected to enslavement (Manning & Trimmer, 2020). During the process of exploration and colonisation, the concept of migration also became prominent. Throughout history, individuals have engaged in migration as a means of exploring and experiencing new cultures, countries, and regions.

Migration practice continues to exist in modern times. Recent migration studies have primarily investigated flows from the south to the north in search of better living conditions (Aydin, 2016). Individuals change their geographical position, either permanently or temporarily, in order to move to a different location where they want to reside for all or a portion of their future existence. Also, various studies examining migration as an individual decision-making process make several assumptions: (a) migration is seen as an investment that involves costs but also generates a continuous stream of benefits; (b) potential migrants have access to only partial information about job opportunities; (c) both costs and benefits of migration include factors that are not purely financial; (d) migrants, when considering a move from a specific place of origin to specific destinations, form their own subjective predictions about their future income in their place of origin and potential destinations, and choose the region that maximises their overall gain; and (e) different migrants have different subjective predictions about future income (Schwartz, 1973). Migration is a critical factor in influencing the structure of our global society, so it falls under the purview of the social sciences. The phenomenon of migration has had a significant impact on not just cultures and civilizations, but also on states, leaders, and the global political landscape. It is exceedingly difficult to determine the definition of migration based on only one factor. Migration has had a significant impact on various domains, including the economy, sociology, international relations, and politics. Consequently, multiple definitions of migration have emerged.

However, migration usually involves a shift in residence from one administrative unit to another beyond minor differences (Hägerstrand, 1969). According to this concept, it would be inappropriate to include people like pastoral nomads, tourists, or commuters who are always on the move. The term “migration” refers, in its broadest sense, to a change of residence that may be permanent or semi-permanent (Lee, 1966). According to Lee’s definition, no boundaries are put on the distance of the movement, the type of conduct (voluntary or involuntary), or the difference between internal and external migration. Migration is the movement of individuals from one location to another, either temporarily or permanently, in search

of better living conditions, safety from persecution, or any number of other factors (Hagen-Zanker, 2008). Thus, moving across the hall from one flat to the other counts as migration. Still, not all sorts of spatial mobility fall under this definition, such as the continuous travels of nomads, for whom there is no long-term residency, and occasional moves, such as moving to the hills for the summer.

So, in a general sense, migration can be defined as the act of one or more people moving across a spatial boundary as part of a change in their place of residence (Kok, 1999). It also deals with only “spatial borders” and “changes of residency,” even though this concept seems to be quite clear. Because it doesn’t take the length of time into account, it leads to a lot of problems and a long theoretical debate. Migration is the process of people leaving their permanent home, either across international borders or within a single state (IOM, 2019a). Based on this definition, leaving one’s “permanent home/usual residence” has the sense of a permanent move. Also, borders between countries or inside a single country, refers to a certain region defined by a clear political, statistical, or geographical line or boundary. Migration is when people or groups of individuals move from one place to another, either temporarily or permanently (Hagen-Zanker, 2008). Migration is a crucial component of how mobile populations evolve in terms of both time and space. It differs from the process of mixing within a population that occurs after birth and from the movements between areas (Dingle & Drake, 2007). Like the above definitions, it places a focus on crossing geographical borders and adds information that it can be an individual or group move.

However, it is noted that there are questions and difficulties in precisely identifying migration components. For instance, moving from one apartment to another, or even to a townhouse just a block away, would this be considered a change in permanent residence? Not all moves, like commuting, count as migration. Only moves that encompass “moving house” meet the basic definition of migration. The concept of migration does not appear to be recognized when people have many places of residence. Then, how long must an individual expect to dwell in his or her new place of residence for it to be considered a migration? The amount of time spent at the destination can range anything from a few hours to several years. Over the course of time, migration takes place more or less continually. The interval may be precise, such as one year, five years, ten years, or the intercensal period, or it may be infinite, such as the lifetime of the population living at a given time (UN, 1970). Migration intervals vary by issue. Sometimes the period is short, sometimes long. Nevertheless, various sorts of movements exhibit

distinct dissimilarities, and the magnitude of the displacement is evidently crucial in the majority of situations. Individuals who relocate over a small distance typically maintain their previous lifestyle, whereas those who undertake a longer-distance relocation are more likely to undergo a significant transformation (Niedomysl, 2011).

It is clear from the foregoing that various scholars have taken various approaches to the definition of migration; however, there are some coherent components shared across these definitions. These include a change in residence (ideally a permanent one), travel distance, country of origin, type of border crossed, intent to stay, and duration of period managed to spend in the new residence area. Even though it's hard to define migration in a way that everyone agrees on, it can be explained in the following way, which will help clear up some of the confusion. Migration is the universal process of moving one person or a group of people from one space unit or place where they live (called the "origin place") to another (called the "destination place"), based on any kind of universally recognized geographical, political, or administrative border in space and time, which may be either permanent or semi-permanent or temporary. However, migration aspirations and migration abilities are critical variables for successful migration. People's overall life goals and perception of the opportunities available in different locations shape their migration aspirations. The ability to migrate depends on both positive liberties, which refer to the freedom to migrate, and negative liberties, which refer to the freedom from obstacles or restrictions that prevent migration (de Haas, 2014). A student who lives in a poor country always aspires to study in developed countries. If the student is meritorious, they have the opportunity to secure funding, which also enhances their ability to migrate. If the individual does not come from a wealthy family or cannot secure funding, these are the obstacles that prevent them from pursuing migration.

Again, how far do you have to go to make a move to become a migrant? Nevertheless, apart from the above discussion, there is a key concept related to migration that indicates a need for a deeper understanding of migration. No single definition of "migrant" has been agreed upon at the global level. Despite a clear legal distinction, mainstream media, academic discourse, and public discourse frequently use the terms "refugee" and "migrant" interchangeably (Stepanova et al., 2018). The political boundary between two spatial or enumeration units (place of origin or destination) determines the distance between them. No one in a similar administrative unit is a migrant, regardless of distance, because of not crossing a political boundary. A migrant, on the other hand, is someone who crosses a political border

between where they came from and where they are going, no matter how far it is. Sometimes a person has numerous residences in various administrative divisions, such as two or three districts or states. It would be tough to define him as a migrant. Thus, somehow, crossing a political boundary doesn't appear to be an accepted definition of migration (Sinha, 2005). Migrants can be defined based on their foreign birth, foreign citizenship, or relocation to a different nation, either for a temporary period (which can be as short as a year) or for a permanent settlement (Anderson & Blinder, 2011).

Also, the term 'migrant' is used to refer to a wide range of individuals, including refugees and those who qualify for legal protection according to EU and international law (Cummings et al., 2015). The UN Migration Agency, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) takes the inclusivist approach to defining migrant as

*"an umbrella term, not defined under international law, reflecting the common lay understanding of a person who moves away from his or her place of usual residence, whether within a country or across an international border, temporarily or permanently, and for a variety of reasons" (IOM, 2019a).*

Most of the time, there are two ways to explain what a "migrant" is: The inclusivist view says that migrants are individuals who have migrated away from where they usually live, no matter what their legal status is or why they moved. So, migrants include refugees, foreign workers, victims of human trafficking, trailing spouses, global students, and numerous other specific groups of people. The residualist view says that migrants are people who have migrated from where they usually live for any reason other than to escape war or persecution. From this point of view, they are a group of different people who don't qualify as refugees (Carling, 2017). The term refers to a variety of clearly defined legal categories of individuals, including migrant workers, individuals whose specific types of movements are legally defined, such as smuggled migrants, and people whose status or ways of moving are not clearly defined by international law, like international students. So, migration only happens when all the above-mentioned individuals travel to or change their habitual place of residence to a new location, either individually or in groups, permanently or temporarily, within the same country or across a country border.

However, in order to comprehend the concept of migration, it is important to have knowledge about the reasons behind people's decisions to migrate. Migration can commence for a multitude of reasons. Migration refers to the movement of individuals, couples, families, or groups from one 'place of

ordinary residence' to another, either over diverse distances or for a specific reason or a combination of reasons (Stillwell & Thomas, 2016). Migration is a mandatory action for those who have the ability to move in specific situations (Acikgul, 2021). The reasons that people move from one place to another are not the same as they were before the First World War, during the period when people were migrating across the ocean from Europe to America's Central and North, or after the Second World War, during the period when people were migrating to Northern Europe for work. A process linked to economic growth has led to new migration flows from Asia, Africa, and Latin America to industrialized economies (Hammar & Tamas, 2021). Migration from developing to developed countries is driven by the close economic and political linkages between the two (Sassen, 1992).

For example, the United States' initiatives to expand its national and other countries' economies to the inflow of capital, products, services, and information motivated individuals to migrate and create bridges for migration. Open labour markets also facilitate migration, and the openness of the U.S. labour market is an essential condition for migration (Sassen, 1992). It is said that foreign investment in poor countries helps to deter migration and a major effect of this type of investment is the migration of numerous small farms and factories. While doing so, it strengthens political, cultural, and trade relationships between donor and recipient nations. Migration is spurred on by these various circumstances.

International migration could accelerate in the future for a few reasons, such as a growing population, economic hardship, structurally caused unemployment and underemployment, political conflicts, or climate change that prompt people to leave their home nations. When mass migration began in the 1960s, most of Asia and the Caribbean Basin were mired in poverty and economic stagnation. As an additional point, not all nations that export migrants are poor. South Korea and Taiwan are two examples. In the 1970s, South Korea had one of the highest rates of GDP growth in the world, and it also had one of the highest rates of migration to the United States (Sassen, 1992). Rural residents migrate to urban areas where they consider employment opportunities to be more abundant (Perez-Crespo, 1991). Likewise, individuals hailing from impoverished and underdeveloped nations endeavour to migrate to industrialised ones in pursuit of improved living standards and economic progress. The decision to migrate in the modern era is fraught with complexities. There is strong evidence that migrants are motivated by factors other than the lure of a new career or a pleasant area to reside. When households decide to relocate, occupational prospects, family needs, neighborhoods, and lifestyles all compete for

attention. This has always been true for local moves, but it appears to be true for longer-distance moves as well. It shows that, while there is no doubt that job opportunities are a factor in migration decisions, non-economic factors like family dynamics, preferred ways of life, and housing needs also have a big impact on these decisions and often have big positive effects on the economy (Clark & Maas, 2015). So, two main factors caused migrations: either natural disasters or man-made events (such as persecution based on political or religious views) forced people to move, or better economic prospects in other regions attracted them (Dustmann & Glitz, 2011).

## 1.2. Drivers of Migration

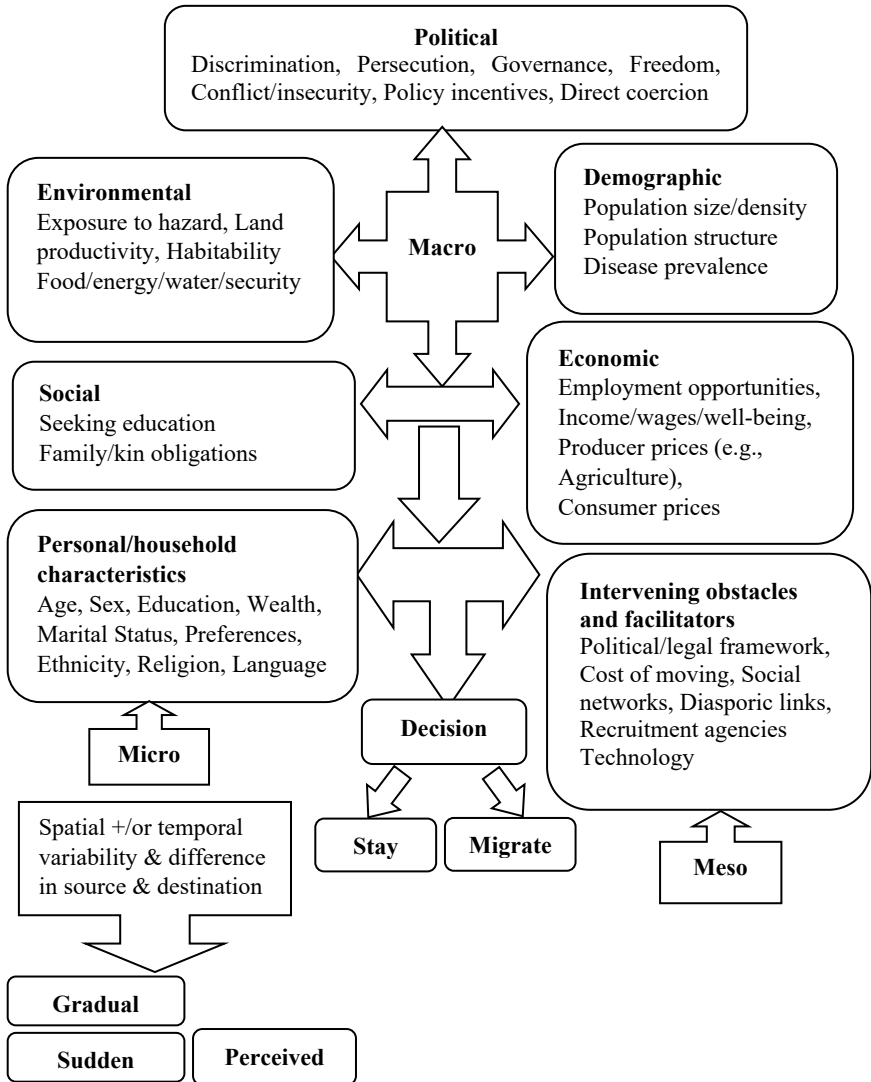
A more nuanced understanding of migration is a complex process. In migration studies, there are various drivers (macro, meso, and micro) that play together to explain the ultimate individual decision to migrate and attempt to explain the factors that both initiate and maintain migration. All around the world, people are moving away from their homes because of the drivers mentioned in this conceptual framework (see **Figure 1-1**). Macro-drivers, which are external to the individual and largely out of their control, meso-drivers, which are more closely related to the individual but still outside of the individual's control, and micro-drivers, which are internal to the individual (individual characteristics and behaviors) and have a much smaller impact on the decision (Castelli, 2018).

**i) Macro drivers:** Political, demographic, social, economic, and environmental conditions are all examples of “macro-drivers” that have a role in driving people to leave their homes. Due to political reasons, many parts of the world, on practically all continents, are home to violent wars, violent extremism, and social instability, characterized by armed parties at conflict with one another or rude dictatorships and autocratic leadership that refuse to allow their citizens basic human rights. As a result of the decade-long civil war in the Syrian Arab Republic, about 6.7 million people have been forced to from their homes. Afghanistan has remained a key source of refugees for almost 30 years, with the country being the world's second largest origin country, with 2.6 million refugees in 2020. Since widespread conflict broke out in the middle of 2016, South Sudan has been home to 2.2 million refugees, making it the third-largest origin country of refugees by the end of 2020 (Marie & Anna, 2021). Rakhine State in Myanmar saw tens of thousands of Rohingya evacuate their homes in August 2017 as a result of violent attacks, large-scale violence, and major human rights violations by the Myanmar government and military (UNHCR, 2022a). Nearly 12.7

million border crossings from Ukraine to other nations were documented by September 13, 2022, after Russia began its invasion of Ukraine on February 24, 2022, according to the United Nations (UN). There are currently an estimated 6.97 million people in Ukraine who are internally displaced, or around 16% of the total population, as of 23 August 2022 (IOM, 2022).

The size and structure of the population during the next few decades are largely the product of current demographic changes. In 2020, the United Nations estimated that 3.6% of the world's population, or about 281 million people, were international migrants. That's a relatively tiny percentage of the global population, thus living in one's nation of origin is still the norm. Most people move around within their own country, rather than between countries (Marie & Anna, 2021). The international migration of some countries is being significantly influenced by demographic shifts, while many others are experiencing the opposite thing. Over the next few decades, migration will drive high-income country population increase. In low- and lower-middle-income countries, population growth will continue to be dominated by births over deaths. Forty nations or regions saw net inflows of over 200,000 migrants between 2010 and 2021, with 17 seeing net inflows of over 1 million individuals during that time. Between 2010 and 2021, it is projected that more than a million people would have left 10 nations as migrants (Economic & Social Affairs, 2022). People's ability to make a living may be jeopardized by climate change, and one common solution has been to move away. In 2009, for instance, natural disasters displaced 17 million people; in 2010, that number jumped to 42 million (Foresight, 2011). Environmental disasters with a rapid onset, such as floods, tsunamis, landslides, earthquakes, wildfires, and volcanic eruptions are well-known causes of migration (Black et al., 2011). The likelihood of migration increasing or decreasing because of environmental change is roughly similar. Migration is expensive and has substantial "barriers to entry," according to data gathered in Uganda. Poor soil quality discourages migration in such a context because of its negative impact on crop yields and other forms of agricultural productivity. Case research conducted in Kenya between 2004 and 2005 revealed that for families whose agricultural revenue was negatively impacted by low soil quality, migration represented a significant form of income diversification (Foresight, 2011).

**ii) Meso drivers:** The political or legal framework, the expense of moving, social network diasporic linkages, and communication technologies are all examples of "meso-drivers" that can serve as either barriers or facilitators to migration. The presence of social networks contributes to the continuation of migration movements. To be more specific, social media encourages

**Figure 1-1: Drivers of Migration: Macro, Meso, and Micro Factors.**

**Source:** Modified from (Foresight, 2011).

people to leave their home countries by making them more aware of how people live in the developed world, even if this awareness is often greatly exaggerated.

Social media allows migrants to stay in touch with friends and family, facilitates communication—which can be useful during the migration process—creates new networks, and serves as a “rich supply of informal insider knowledge regarding migration.” The diaspora link also acts as a draw. The widespread availability and accessibility of information made possible by today’s communication technologies has a profound impact on how individuals think about migration and how open they are to the concept of leaving their current homes and starting over somewhere new (Cummings et al., 2015).

People and animals are on the move as they try to find a more hospitable climate due to a lack of water, food, and agricultural resources. For example, Lake Chad’s water used to cover almost 25,000 square kilometers, but now it only covers 20,000 square kilometers, which has a big effect on the fertility of the land around it (Castelli, 2018). The widespread food shortages and health crises caused by climate-induced land degradation are major motivators for human migration (Levy & Patz, 2015). A lack of economic opportunities in the home country and the promise of better opportunities in the new country are important drivers of people’s decisions to move. Many African countries saw exceptional economic growth throughout the first decade of the millennium, with GDP increases of 5 percent or more. Due to the global economic crisis that began in 2011, most African countries have seen their GDP grow by only 2% per year. On the other hand, most occupations in developing countries remain in the informal sector. As a result, low wages, and a lack of benefits in these jobs encourage people to look for employment opportunities elsewhere (Castelli, 2018). In social drivers, education plays a significant role at many different points throughout the migration process of an individual. Student migrations are one type of migration in which the sole motivation is furthering an individual’s education. Some countries, like the USA, UK, and Australia, and European countries, attract people from all over the world to move there for education. Getting an education overseas is more likely to help you get a job in your home country than anywhere else in the world. Another reason people move is because they have family or ethnic relationships in the country they move to. Duties and responsibilities between adult kins in the family are obligations that also play an important role in moving people.

**iii) Micro drivers:** Different factors motivate people to move, and numerous characteristics of individuals shape their decisions in this aspect. “Micro-drivers” are personal and household characteristics like a person’s gender, education level, marital status, ethnicity, religion, and language that have a big effect on whether or not they decide to move. For instance, married people are less likely to make illegal border crossings than single people. It has also been shown that persons with higher education are less likely to illegally migrate than those with only a high school diploma (Mbaye, 2014). There are significant gender variations that occur throughout the migration process. For instance, men are more likely to have the intention to migrate than women are (Cummings et al., 2015). People move for a variety of reasons, one of the most important of which is language. Those who are fluent in French are more likely to settle in French-speaking countries, while those who are fluent in English would rather go to English-speaking regions. From a religious point of view, Christians attract more individuals by assisting with migration through their churches than Muslims do around the world.

### 1.3. Types of Migration

The process of categorizing migrations is another significant component of migration research. Complex and multifaceted criteria are required for any attempt at a typological or classification scheme of migration. It’s challenging to categorize migrations of any nature because there are so many different criteria or motivating factors to consider. For example, migration can be divided into short-distance migration and long-distance migration based on the length of the distance. Migration can be broken down into high-quality migration, skilled migration, semi-skilled migration, and unskilled migration, depending on the emphasis placed on a particular set of skills by the migrating population. Due to rapid globalisation, there are a great number of different types of migration, including economic migration, irregular migration, labour migration, and return migration. In contemporary types of migration, “climate migration” is at the top of the list, which refers to the upheaval caused by, or the voluntary departure from, one’s usual place of residence within a state or across an international border by an individual or a group of people primarily because of sudden or progressive changes in the environment due to climate change (Chazalnoël & Ionesco, 2016). Another new type of migration in the migration study is “pandemic migration.” It can be defined as the permanent or temporary relocation of people by moving their living spaces from crowded cities to the countryside, from abroad to the country of origin, and their work offices in the city centre

to smaller settlements to protect them from the epidemic and to lead a healthier life (Şahin & Terlemez, 2020). However, the migration literature describes several types of migration, roughly classifying them based on factors such as whether they involve a change in political or administrative boundaries, their duration, the decision-making process, and the number of individuals involved.

### **1.3.1. Internal and International Migration**

Various forms of migration exist, each characterised by its distinct aim, extent, and procedure. Locations of origin and destinations are two of the most common ways in which migration is classed, with the types of political boundaries crossed (such as county lines, state lines, and international borders). In this way, based on the type of political or administrative boundary that is crossed, migration can happen as “village to village,” “block to block,” “district to district,” “state to state,” “country to country,” or even “continent to continent”. This classification often categorises the movement of people from abandoned and settled areas into two types: internal migration and international migration. The distinction between these types is based on the distance travelled and the boundaries crossed. Migration that takes place within a country and crosses administrative and political boundaries such as those between villages, blocks, districts, or states is referred to as national or internal migration. Migration that takes place across international borders, whether it be from one country to another or from one continent to another, is considered to be international migration (Sinha, 2005). “Internal migration” denotes the movement of individuals within a country’s territorial boundaries, whereas “international migration” refers to migration that involves crossing a national boundary (Açikel, 2016a). When people move from one region of a country to others within the same country, it is referred to as “internal migration,” and it is done with the intention of creating a new residence or with the result of creating a new residence. This migration could be short- or long-term (IOM, 2015). Internal migrants stay within the same country despite moving, for example, labor migrants from rural to urban migration.

In the context of migration history, the majority of migrations involve people moving across international borders. International migration has gained significant prominence in recent years, mostly as a result of globalization and economic restructuring. International migrations refer to the movement of people beyond the borders of a foreign country, whether it is for a permanent or temporary period, involving displacements and population mobility. International migration is defined as the movement of