Establishing a Blended Finance Mechanism Involving Climate Funds in Bangladesh

Opportunities and Challenges

Fahmida Khatun
Wasel Bin Shadat
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ESTABLISHING A BLENDED FINANCE MECHANISM INVOLVING CLIMATE FUNDS IN BANGLADESH

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CPD Working Paper 141
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In collaboration with

PROMOTING KNOWLEDGE FOR ACCOUNTABLE SYSTEMS (PROKAS)
Climate Induced Migration Issue Based Project
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The present paper titled Establishing a Blended Finance Mechanism Involving Climate Funds in Bangladesh: Opportunities and Challenges has been authored by Dr Fahmida Khatun, Executive Director, CPD., Dr Wasel Bin Shadat, former Visiting Research Fellow, CPD and Mr Foqeruddin Al Kabir, Programme Associate, CPD.

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Executive Summary

1. Bangladesh is one of the most vulnerable countries to the effect of climate change for its terrestrial and demographic features. In recent times, climate displacement and internal migration to the big city slums for employment opportunities have been critical problems for the country hindering the attainment of a number of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Given the social and economic background, the country needs to find an alternative solution to stop internal migration by creating employment opportunities. Moreover, several estimates suggest that there prevails a large finance gap in terms of achieving the SDGs both globally and locally. In this regard, blended finance can play a crucial role in mobilising funds from various sources, especially green climate funds (GCF). However, a prudent framework is required to operationalise a blended finance mechanism in Bangladesh. Therefore, the objectives of the study are to identify the opportunities and challenges of the blended finance mechanism involving climate funds and to recommend a generic blended finance framework with suggested key activities at different stages.

2. The blended finance mechanism has become a new and evolving concept in development finance to attain the SDGs in developing countries, having some key characteristics as follows—(i) combination of public and private finance, (ii) involves of both concessional and non-concessional funds, (iii) investment friendly, and (iv) allows stakeholder’s participatory consultation. The mechanism has critical implications for addressing the substantial resource gap to implement development projects. This mechanism can play an exceptionally crucial role in financing ongoing as well as new projects in the post-COVID era in view of the unprecedented pressure facing global economies due to the COVID-19 crisis. With policy guidelines and support, blended finance can contribute to poverty reduction, job creation, small and medium-sized enterprises (SME) development, clean energy, women empowerment, gender equality, and supporting the public health system, for inclusive, resilient and sustainable development aligned with national development priorities. However, lack of regulation, inadequate financing opportunities, identifying development objectives with credible estimation of financing gap, failure to attract private investment, ethical issues, lack of education, and low level of skills are the challenges for establishing a blended finance mechanism in Bangladesh.

3. In this report, a generic and conceptual framework of blended finance is proposed for Bangladesh which has four key stages: diagnostic stage; fund mobilisation stage; risk management stage; and fund transfer, disbursement and repayment stage. The successful mobilisation of funds and sustainable implementation of blended fund interventions crucially depends on the existence of a proper policy as well as on regulatory, institutional and legal frameworks addressing governance and accountability issues. Therefore, each stage suggests certain vital activities and separate governance and monitoring and evaluation mechanism to oversee under a sound policy framework. Besides, the government should engage, consult and collaborate with other stakeholders in a participatory manner while developing these frameworks and mechanism. Regulatory bodies (i.e., Bangladesh Bank and other relevant government organs) need to work simultaneously in a coordinated manner to ensure accountability and transparency, and to consistently monitor and evaluate the credit disbursement process (including beneficiary selection) and repayment procedure. The proposed framework is a flexible and dynamic one that involves feedback loops allowing to make necessary revisions with reflections of stakeholders’ opinions and suggestions.

4. Migration to overcrowded and unsafe urban slums in big cities is one of the damaging consequences of natural disasters and climate change. The marginal people living in the disaster-prone areas are more likely to migrate to other big cities in search of shelter, employment and livelihood which put pressure on the cities. With a limited access to basic amenities—water, sanitation, electricity, transportation, basic medication, education, etc.—cities like Dhaka and Chattogram are unable to serve the purpose of this huge population. As a result, the significant rise in the number of climate displaced people in Bangladesh raises concern as this may lead to increased urbanisation and adverse impact on environment.
5. The study suggests the following interventions: facilitating the cottage, micro, small and medium enterprises (CMSMEs) improved access to finance by providing credit from the formal financing (banking and non-banking) channel; using a blended finance mechanism with contributions from the climate fund; and promoting employment-generating green growth in disaster-prone areas/selected regional growth hub with appropriate geographical and sub-sectoral targeting at the implementation stage. The study also recommends that creating alternative employment opportunities by providing CMSMEs improved access to finance in selected geographical locations and promoting employment-rich green growth can be a high-impact intervention to address the problem.

6. This scoping study attempts to connect three important and vast topics: blended finance; development challenges imposed by climate migration to urban slums; and CMSMEs improved access to finance as a possible intervention to address the challenges. The aim of this report is to introduce and socialise these ideas among policymakers and other stakeholders with a framework to discuss and develop further.
List of Annex Tables, Figure and Box

Annex Table 1: Unified MSME Definition Adopted under the 2016 Industrial Policy 26
Annex Table 2: Number of People Displaced Newly by Different Disaster from 2008 to 2020 27
Annex Table 3: List of Low Carbon to Medium Carbon Enterprise List 28
Annex Table 4: Demand for Loans among Microenterprises 29
Annex Table 5: Loan Supply for Microenterprises 29
Annex Table 6: Total Additional Cost for SDGs in FY 2025 and FY 2030 29

Annex Figure 1: Top Ten Countries with the Newest Displacements by Disaster in 2020 26

Annex Box 1: Case Study on Yoma Bank Agribusiness Finance Programme 31
### Acronyms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CMSME</th>
<th>Cottage, Micro, Small and Medium Enterprise</th>
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<tr>
<td>DRR</td>
<td>Disaster Risk Reduction</td>
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<tr>
<td>EGM</td>
<td>Expert Group Meeting</td>
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<td>IsDB</td>
<td>Islamic Development Bank</td>
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<td>KII</td>
<td>Key Informant Interview</td>
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<td>LDC</td>
<td>Least Developed Country</td>
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<td>LLF</td>
<td>Lives and Livelihood Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoEF</td>
<td>Ministry of Environment and Forest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M&amp;E</td>
<td>Monitoring and Evaluation</td>
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<tr>
<td>NPL</td>
<td>Non-Performing Loan</td>
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<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>ODA</td>
<td>Official Development Assistance</td>
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<tr>
<td>PPP</td>
<td>Purchasing Power Parity</td>
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<tr>
<td>SIR</td>
<td>Self-Insured Retention</td>
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<tr>
<td>SDG</td>
<td>Sustainable Development Goal</td>
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<tr>
<td>SME</td>
<td>Small and Medium Enterprise</td>
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<td>SHS</td>
<td>Solar Home System</td>
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1. INTRODUCTION

Bangladesh is one of the most at-risk countries in the world to climate change with regular and frequent exposure to natural hazards. Due to geographical location, low-lying topography, and high population, density disasters pose considerable challenges to livelihoods, economy and development of the country. One of major consequences of natural disasters and climate vulnerability of Bangladesh is climate displacement and forced migration to overcrowded urban slums in big cities, directly hindering achieving several Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). It is important to prioritise investments in high-impact interventions to address the climate vulnerability and associated development challenges, including climate displacement.

Several estimates suggest that there is a large financing gap prevails for achieving SDGs both globally and locally. For example, implementing the SDGs globally by 2030 will require an annual investment of USD 3.3-4.5 trillion with a financial gap of USD 2.5 trillion (UNCTAD, 2014), for Asia-Pacific the annual financing gap to achieve SDG targets estimated at USD 1.5 trillion annually (UN-ESCAP, 2019), and for Bangladesh the estimated annual gap is USD 144.81 billion (GoB, 2016). Furthermore, the COVID-19 crisis has deepened the development challenges of developing countries by the shrinkage the domestic fiscal space and by the increased competition for official development assistances (ODA). Bangladesh's transition of graduating from Least Developed Country (LDC) to middle income country pose additional challenges to secure ODA (Khatun et al., 2018; Khan and Kamal, 2018; Rahman and Bari, 2018).

Against this backdrop, Bangladesh needs to explore alternative financing options and mechanisms, such as blended finance, to attract ODA and private capital in its development activities. The overarching objective of this study is to explore the possibilities and challenges of the introducing blended finance in Bangladesh in addressing climate vulnerabilities, with a possible contribution from the Green Climate Fund (GCF). Being a relatively new concept in the development finance literature but with massive potential to fund high-impact, sustainable development projects, this study first discusses key characteristics, opportunities and challenges in a general context. The fact that there is no framework in place to operationalise a blended fund in Bangladesh and acknowledging the gap in research, the first major contribution of this study is to conceptulaise a generic blended finance framework.

To illustrate the framework, climate displacement to urban slums from the rural areas and its damaging consequences is identified as a substantial multidimensional development challenge. In order to address this problem, Cottage, Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises’ (CMSMEs’) improved access to finance is selected as a high-impact, scalable and commercially viable intervention that can be financed by blended fund. Finally, this study attempts to identify key issues and constraints to operationalise the proposed blended finance to this particular intervention and provides policy recommendations.

In this study, to generate and validate information on various related issues an extensive literature survey including country specific case studies, a number of Key Informant Interviews (KII) and brain storming sessions with experts were conducted. To summarise, the key contributions of the study are:

1. To analyse characteristics, applications, potentials and challenges blended finance mechanism.
2. To develop a generic BF framework for Bangladesh with suggested key activities categorized in several stages.
3. To provide an anatomy of the climate displacement problem, drivers and consequences. This will help to identify development challenges with underlying structural/root problems.
4. To design an intervention (Employment-rich CMSME growth by providing improved access to finance) to tackle the problem, with rationale and a simplified theory of change.
5. An application of the proposed blended finance framework with an illustration to the SME financing context.

2. BLEND FINANCE: CONCEPT, OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES

“The strategic use of development finance and philanthropic funds to mobilise private capital flows to emerging and frontier markets” - OECD/WEF, 2015.

In recent time blended finance - a new and evolving concept in development finance - has become a trending term for accomplishing the SDGs in developing countries (Pereira, 2017). This has critical implications for financing the substantial resource gap to implement development projects with high impact. In fact, when the global economies are facing unprecedented pressure steaming for the COVID-19 crisis, this financing mechanism can play exceptionally crucial role in financing on-going and new projects in the post-COVID era. In this chapter, some key features of a blended finance mechanism, along with its challenges and opportunities, are discussed.

2.1 Blended Finance Mechanism: Key Characteristics

Broadly speaking, blended finance aims to generate fund by engaging potential investors and donors, and mobilising capital to finance aid for development in a commercially viable way applying various risk management tools. Some key features of this mechanism are:

1. A combination of public and private finance in the presence of official development assistance (ODA).
2. Development finance and philanthropic funds are strategically used to mobilise private capital flow. The strategies are devised such as different financial and regulatory tools help to attract capital from different commercial sources towards development projects that contribute to achieve SDGs, while de-risking the investment and providing financial returns to investors.
3. The blended finance can involve both concessional (such as, lower interest rate, longer maturity etc.) and non-concessional funds. In non-concessional form, investors will lend the money at market rate, or if needed with subsidised rate (Quak, 2019). Examples of other types of financing are syndicated loan1 and a credit line2.
4. Risk management using financial engineering, modelling and other policy tools and supports to de-risk the investment and creating a favourable risk-return environment. Innovation and learning from experiences are two essential components in managing risk successfully. Some examples of de-risking financial instruments include equity, debt-to-equity ratio, partial risk/loss financing, partial shared risks (Box 1). Instead of entirely profit maximization, a balance between development outcomes and commercial returns should be emphasized in the risk management stage.
5. Prudent investor-friendly, yet accountable, regulatory framework to ensure the governance of the fund.

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1A group of investors work together to provide funds for a single for a single borrower such as corporation, a large project, or a sovereign government (Ivanov & Wang, 2019 and Honorine & Emmanuelle, 2019).
2An open-ended and revolving loan that a borrower may access on demand (de Rugy & Kling, 2020)
6. A flexible framework allowing stakeholder’s participatory consultation, reflection and revision, as much as possible.

**Box 1: Some De-risking Instruments for Risk Management**

**Equity:** It is typically referred to as shareholders’ equity (or owners’ equity for privately held companies), represents the amount of money that would be returned to a company’s shareholders if all of the assets were liquidated and all of the company’s debt was paid off in the case of liquidation (Neeraja & Dhilip, 2020).

**The Debt-to-Equity (D/E) Ratio:** is used to evaluate a company’s financial leverage and is calculated by dividing a company’s total liabilities by its shareholder equity.

**Partial Risk financing:** is a risk financing term referring to an organization’s retention of a portion of the risk and transfer of the remaining portion (Li et al., 2018).

**Partial Shared Risk:** This also known as “risk distribution,” risk sharing allocates risks (premiums and losses) of each member of a group of policyholders according to a predetermined formula/rule.

**First loss financing:** is an insurance against a loss which guarantees compensations to lenders by a third party if the borrower defaults.

Other risk management criterion such as political risk guarantee, quasi-sovereign guarantee, and any other uncertainties can be considered in financial engineering. Usually, successfully mobilising blended funds require innovative combinations of different instruments.

**2.2 Possibilities and Some Applications of Blended Finance**

Blended finance uses public-sector development finance and ODA to attract supplementary private investment in a proposition to achieve development goals; such as reducing poverty promoting economic growth and creating jobs (Attridge & Engen, 2019). It can be used to mitigate existing and emerging risks and threats in achieving SDG targets by attracting required investments and has tremendous potentials to finance the sizeable SDG investment gap in developing countries. In particular, the inbuilt de-risking apparatus enables this approach to attract private capital flow to finance “risky” interventions with an unfavourable risk-return investment profile - that would not have been possible in the absence of such mechanism (IFC, 2016).

Policy guideline and support are required to apply blended finance for sectors that are crucial for inclusive, resilient and sustainable development aligning with national development priorities such as poverty reduction, job creation and SME development, clean energy, women empowerment and gender equality, supporting public health system (OECD, 2020). Some applications of the blended finance mechanism are given below.

- One of the operational examples of syndicated financing is the lives and livelihood fund by Islamic Development Bank (IsDB). On September, 2016, with a joint goal to raise the poor to out of poverty, the Islamic Development Bank (IsDB) and development cooperation partners launched a USD 2.5 billion Lives and Livelihoods Fund (LLF) in IsDB member countries.³
- Tonkonogy et al. (2018) identifies that with strong institutions and investment and climate friendly policy settings, blended finance will have more than USD 360 billion investment in clean energy by 2030 in Sub-Saharan Africa and South and East Asia.
- Rode et al. (2019) states that investment opportunities rarely meet the financial requirements of [3For more detail, please see: https://www.isdb.org/llf](https://www.isdb.org/llf)
commercial investors and thus, the study illustrate that the Unlocking Forest Financing (UFF) in three sub-nations as an example of sustainable landscape financing. The dominant sectors that deal with blended finance are agriculture, energy, and transport (Kasirye and Lakal, 2019).

- In Myanmar, Livelihoods and Food Security Trust Fund (LIFT) and Yoma Bank’s 3 years Agribusiness Finance Programme (AFP) is a prime example of successful implementation of blended fund to achieve development objectives, and going beyond, with innovative applications of various de-risking instruments. (See Box-2).

### Box 2: Case Study on Yoma Bank Agribusiness Finance Programme

In December 2015, Livelihoods and Food Security Trust Fund (LIFT) and Yoma Bank signed a 3 years Agribusiness Finance Programme (AFP) where LIFT contributed **USD 18.07 million** with an aim to increase agricultural productivity and improve rural livelihoods in Myanmar. To de-risk the perceived risky investment in agricultural markets, a **first loss financing** instrument was applied to buffer the risk of Yoma bank with the contribution of LIFT.

Under the AFP- Hire Purchase (HP), the client’s minimum down payment is reduced to 10 percent from previous 30 percent, with bi-annual repayment cycles in order to accommodate farmers’ seasonal cash flows replacing mostly monthly repayments with typical tenor of one year. LIFT’s contribution was to absorb part of the increased risks through a **USD 56.65 million** first loss buffer and to cover most of the operating expenses of rolling out the programme.

There are four semi-secured products under the AFP, namely, **borrowing base, payable finance, seasonal overdraft for corn, and MFI lending** where the first three product benefit from 100 percent protection from the first loss buffer (the buffer size is limited to USD 3 million) and MFI lending is covered for 10 percent of the principal.

The results over the lifetime of the programme have strongly outperformed the targeted goal, with **USD 93.40 million** worth of agricultural equipment financed in three years’ time. This translates into 6,530 assets, comprising 4,002 tractors, 967 (combine) harvesters, 272 tillers and 1,289 transport vehicles. Besides, the average asset price that was financed under the AFP increased from **USD 12.25 million** in 2016 to **USD 16.84 million** in 2018.

The financing had wide impact on families that depend on agriculture reaching to an estimated number of 200,000 of families. The success in terms of rate of return was outstanding as end of 2018, a total of **USD 42.87 million** had been repaid by borrowers in terms of loan instalments and, the cases of full loan repayments were 2,637.

*Source: Yoma Bank Agribusiness Finance Programme: Narrative Progress Report ([206-2018] and Belton et al., (2021).*

### 2.3 Key Challenges of Establishing a Blended Finance Mechanism

A number of studies have pointed out several challenges and critical issues to operationalize and realizing the potentials of blended finance in pursuit of achieving SDGs. Jung (2019) identifies that lack of expertise, transparency, governance and methodological challenges, and the selection of projects/interventions are the critical five factors for blended finance mechanism in the context of Korean economy. Rahman & Bari (2019) assert that without cautionary measures blended finance may lead to market distortion undermining the local financial market and regulatory and institutional frameworks in Bangladesh should be strengthened to address the challenges for blended finance mechanism. Some studies have also raised concerns that blended finance and related financial mechanism (such as climate or forest bonds) may introduce “financialisation” and “neo-liberalisation” of conservation and development agendas by the commodification of nature (Jung, 2019; Murray & Spronk, 2019).

In this paper we have categorized the challenges associated with operationalization of a blended finance mechanism into the following five broad sets:

1. The first set of challenging issues relate to establish a prudent, investor and development friendly regulatory and institutional framework to ensure the governance and accountability of the mobilized fund. In the absence of a transparent and effective monitoring and evaluation
process, potential investors become less interested in financing development interventions due to increased investment risks and asymmetric information.

2. The second set of challenges deals with the identification, prioritization, and selection of development problem and intervention to address the problem; with a credible estimate of finance gap to implement the intervention. These are critical issues in achieving the expected development outcome using a blended finance framework and requires a consultative framework that allows evidence and research-based identification of the development problem, and judicious selection of scalable and commercially viable interventions/projects with a sound underlying theory of change.

3. The third set of challenges focus on the fund mobilization issues, such as, identification of and reaching out to potential donors, private investors and public institutions, socializing the development impact with the commercial viability of the intervention to motivate them and negotiating the size and type of contribution to the mobilized fund.

4. Next set of challenges is efficient and transparent application of innovative financial modelling and engineering tools to manage financial risks and appropriate policy support to mitigate political and environmental risks that are associated with the choice of intervention. Debt management and debt servicing should be carefully be monitored. The dearth of required technical skills is a major hinderance to address this challenge.

5. The fifth and final set of challenges involve various issues that are related to developing a sustainable, transparent and speedy fund transfer (to financial institutes and beneficiaries) and repayment framework.

In the above, challenge sets (2)-(5) are directly related to diagnostic of problem(s), selection of intervention(s), mobilization and implementation of the blended finance framework. It is important to emphasize that each of these four sets has its own governance and M&E issues that overlaps and interacts with the regulatory reform and governance related challenges.

A generic model for blended finance mechanism will be discussed in the next chapter outlining the different stages to operationalize the mechanism that may help to mobilise additional finances through unlocking public and private sources in Bangladesh.

3. CONCEPTUALISATION OF A GENERIC BLENDED FINANCE FRAMEWORK FOR BANGLADESH

In view of the worsening SDG finance gap due to COVID-19 pandemic and shrinking fiscal space, it is of critical importance for Bangladesh to explore alternative financing options and attract private capital flows to invest in its efforts to achieve SDG targets. Blended finance, as discussed earlier, presents a bright prospect for Bangladesh to secure additional finances for achieving SDGs. The key issue is the absence of a generic model to operationalize blended finance in Bangladesh. In the absence of a universally applicable and practiced framework and mechanism, a generic framework for blended finance should be contextualized, customized and tailored to accommodate country-specific and problem specific requirements.

Noting this important gap, this chapter outlines a generic, sustainable, transparent, and accountable blended finance framework that would cover both key operational and regulatory issues. Indeed, this locally contextualized generic framework does not cover all relevant issues at this stage in a holistic way, rather the model is developed as a prototype to initiate discussions among policymakers, academics and other stakeholders and subject to revision to reflect expert opinions.
Figure 1: A Generic Conceptual Model

Diagnostic and Implementation Stages

- Identifying Development Goals and (high level) changes needed.
- Selecting Key Development Challenges
- Estimating Credible Investment Gap
- Designing Scalable and Commercially Viable Intervention(s)

Suggestive Activities and Issues

- Review and contextualising the regulatory and policy framework
- Identifying and reaching out potential investors (Climate fund, Donor Agencies, Private Sector, Local FIs)
- Socialising and consultation with reflection
- Fund negotiation and commitment with clearly defined concessionary components

Governance and Accountability

- Developing Financial Engineering and De-risking Instruments
- Developing Contingency Plan
- Innovating Financial Model
- Other Risk Management Strategies

Sustainable Development Goals

Source: Author’s Own Illustration.
A Generic Framework for Blended Finance

A generic, conceptual framework of blended finance is proposed for Bangladesh and presented in Figure 1. It has four key diagnostic and implementation stages, each having certain key activities, and a separate governance and M&E mechanism to oversee and administer these stages under a sound policy framework. It is to be emphasized that activities grouped under these four stages are neither strictly sequential nor mutually exclusive, rather these are often complimentary - synchronisation and coordination between activities are essential. The proposed framework is a flexible and dynamic one that involve feedback loops between activities of different stages and stakeholder’s consultation processes from the early stage. This allows to make corrections/revisions where necessary by reflecting stakeholders’ opinions and suggestions, and from the lessons learnt while implementing the interventions.

Four Key Implementing Stages

3.1 Identification of the Development Challenges and Selection of Interventions

To manage the limited financial resources efficiently by funding high impact projects, it is crucial to identify and prioritise areas to intervene based on research and evidence. Therefore, the first stage requires, through a rigorous 3R (Rationale, Research, and Reflection) process, to identify key challenges and obstacles in achieving development goals and targets, and then to design efficient, scalable, and commercially viable intervention(s) with large developmental impact to address the identified challenges.

The successful implantation of the interventions depends on a credible estimation of the financing gap between the demand and supply side (Ojo & Ayanwale, 2019; Veiga & McCahery, 2019; Lopez-de-Silanes et al., 2018). The estimation of finance requirement should be based on updated data and preferably under alternative scenarios.

To have a sense of shared ownership, identified development objectives and interventions should go through a stakeholder participatory consultation process to reflect their inputs and forming a basis of consensus among different stakeholders.

3.2 Possible Financing Sources: Identification and Engagement

Successful mobilisation of the fund depends on identifying and engaging potential financing partners and stakeholders. At the onset of fund mobilization stage, a regulatory framework needs to be established (if there is none in place) or reviewed for possible reforms to ensure the transparency and accountability of fund mobilization, utilization and repatriation.

The rational of the interventions and its possible impact needs to be introduced and socialised with a particular reference to commercial viability (by managing risks, discussed next) and sustainability of the proposed interventions (Schmalz et al., 2018 and Clark et al., 2018). The possible financing sources can be donor countries, climate fund, commercial fund and other specialised funds (Lee, 2021 and Nigohosyan & Vutsova, 2018). All interested financers should negotiate and commit the size of contributions to this stage.
3.3 Risk Management: Developing de-risking Instruments for Fund Management

In this stage, financial risk will be managed by identifying, analysing and mitigating the uncertainty associated with the projects. To mitigate the extent of risks, sophisticated financial engineering is required to design and implement innovative financial models, tools and products by exploring new financial opportunities with a de-risking mechanism in place to reduce the risk of investment.

The financial risk management can include a variety of instruments such as partial risk financing, partial shared risk coverage, and supplementary non-exclusive guarantees. Different combination of these instruments can be applied innovatively to incentivise and motivate the private sector investors to invest in risky projects (i.e., debt-equity mix, equity and partial risk management).

Determination of the interest rate changed at various stage of fund flow is another key aspect that should be considered at this stage.

3.4 Fund Transfer and Credit Disbursement and Repayment

In the final stage, the fund is transferred to the financial institutes to disburse to selected projects/beneficiaries with a sustainable repayment system in place. Thus, this stage comprises of three important components:

i) A fund transfer mechanism to ensure a speedy yet transparent flow of mobilised fund to the financial institutions.

ii) A guideline for the FIs to disburse credit among the selected recipient along with technical support and training where required. This is a crucial stage in determining the impact of the interventions. An effective targeting of the beneficiary projects and assessment of credit worthiness is a paramount importance. For some interventions, socialization and sensitization campaign may be revived to create interest and demand among the targeted beneficiaries.

iii) A framework of repayment procedure (i.e., frequency and size of repayment instalments, defaulter penalty/fees and mitigating measures etc.) should be in place to monitor and manage debt burden within an acceptable limit.

Governance, Accountability and M&E Mechanism

The successful mobilisation of funds and sustainable implementation of blended funded interventions crucially depends on the existence of a proper policy, regulatory, institutional and legal frameworks addressing governance and accountability issues. The impact of the development fund in the root level depends on proper regulatory and risk management frameworks (Sinclair, 1994 and Chatterjee, 2014). In fact, these frameworks are necessary to create an enabling environment and to instil investors confidence to invest in developmental projects. The clarity of responsibilities of different stakeholders, including public institutions with clearly defined goals, power and authority should be established.

A reliable, dynamic and responsive monitoring, evaluation, and learning mechanism is an integral part to ensure accountability and to detect risks and warning signs at early stage. This will help to trigger appropriate responses and contingency plan to offset the risks in a timely manner.
Government should engage, consult and collaborate with other stakeholders in a participatory manner while developing these frameworks and mechanism. Regulatory bodies (i.e., Bangladesh Bank and other relevant government organs) need to work simultaneously in a coordinated manner to ensure accountability and transparency, and to consistently monitor and evaluate the credit disbursement process (including beneficiary selection) and repayment procedure.

4. VILLAGE TO CITY SLUM: AN ANATOMY OF BANGLADESH’S CLIMATE DISPLACEMENT CRISIS AND SEARCHING AN IMPACTFUL INTERVENTION

Bangladesh is considered one of the most vulnerable countries to climate change in the world. The country is a low-lying delta in South Asia that has been hit by natural disaster almost every year due to climate change causing damages to land, livelihood, crops, and livestock (Chiba et al., 2018; Haque et al., 2019; Aktar & Rahman, 2019). Disasters, and in particular, cyclones and floods, cause significant economic losses in Bangladesh particularly in the disaster-prone coastal and haor area (Shadat, 2021 and Shahid, 2012). Migration to overcrowded and unsafe urban slums in big cities is one of the damaging consequences of natural disasters and climate change. In this chapter, following an overview of Bangladesh’s risk and vulnerability to natural disasters in Section 4.1, the consequences and a diagnostic of the critical factors of Bangladesh’s climate and disaster induced urban slum migration problem is presented in Section 4.2. Based on this analysis, in Section 4.3 an intervention is proposed to tackle this substantial development challenge.

4.1 Natural Disasters in Bangladesh: Increasing Risks and Vulnerability

Due to increase number of adverse climate events and its consequences, Bangladesh stood among the 10 most climate change affected countries across the world from 2000 to 2019 where the country ranked at number 7 (Global Climate Risk Index, 2021).

Both the frequency and severity of adverse climate events have increased in recent years due to climate change in Bangladesh (see Table 1). The country has suffered 185 extreme weather events during the period of 2000 to 2019 (Global Climate Risk Index, 2021). Besides, seasonal flood has been a recurring issue for the country for recent years. The frequency of flood incidence has increased from the year 2010 and, on an average, 21 per cent of total land inundated from 1985 to 2018 (see Figure 2). In the last 5 years, a total number of 3.05 million of people were affected due to multiple flood events each year (on an average 2 floods in a year) (The International Disaster Database, CRED, 2021). There had also been 9 severe cyclones from 2007 to 2020 in Bangladesh which caused damages to both livelihood and wealth (Bangladesh Meteorological Department, 2020). During the period 2000 to 2019, the estimated climate induced damages was USD 1.86 billion (equivalent to 0.41 per cent of the GDP) (Global Climate Risk Index, 2021). The adverse climatic events have severe compact on environment because of the destruction of assists, salinity and river erosion (Bangladesh Climate Change Strategy Action Plan, 2009). The marginal people living in the disaster-prone areas are more likely to migrate to other big cities in search of shelter, employment and livelihood which put pressure on the cities.

4.2 Climate Induced Displacement to Urban Slums: A Critical Development Challenge

The recurring natural disaster in Bangladesh damages household's assets, reduce household's overall wealth including future productive capacity and affects households’ consumption behaviour and decision. As a consequence, household’s livelihood security, both in short and long term, is
compromised and in the absence of adequate alternative employment opportunities in the locality lead to internal migration (Shadat, 2021; Petrova, 2021; Kabir et al., 2018).

In recent years, disaster displacement has been an alarming issue for Bangladesh posing serious threat in the pursuit of attaining SDGs. During 2008 to 2020, a total number of 15.42 million people had been displaced by disasters with a yearly average of 1.2 million people (see Figure 4.2). An alarming jump has been observed in 2019 (4.1 million or 2.5 per cent of total population) and in 2020 (4.4 million or

Figure 2: Per cent of Land Inundated During Flood Seasons in Bangladesh (1985-2018)

Source: Annual Flood Report by Flood Forecasting and Warning Centre Bangladesh (2018).

Figure 3: The Overview of Disaster Displacement in Bangladesh (2008-2020)

Source: Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (2020).
2.7 per cent of total population) that makes the country top ranked in South Asia and 3rd globally (see Figure 3). The significant rise in the number of climate displaced people in Bangladesh raises concern as this may lead to increased urbanisation and adverse impact on environment.

**Consequences and Development Challenges**

Spatial distribution shows that the major destinations of disaster or climate displaced people are slums of big cities like Dhaka, Chattogram, and Rajshahi etc. (Khan et al., 2021 and Ahsan, 2019). People living in the coastal and cyclone prone areas of south-east and south-west of the country (Noakhali, Bholu, Shatkhira, Bagerhat, Khulna, Barguna) and Brahmaputra-Jamuna flood plain areas (Chilmari, Kurigram, Gaibandha, Jamalpur, Sariakandi, Kazipur, Sirajganj, Lauhajang Chandpur, Bholu) faces the severe brunt of the adverse climatic events resulting to loss of land and livelihood and migration to big cities (see Map 1) (Zaman, 2019; Arsenault et al., 2015; Islam, 2015). As a result, the pressure of human habitation is increasing day by day in the big cities like Dhaka and Chittagong (Khan et al., 2021).

The alarming upward trend of migration to big cities puts tremendous pressure on the presently overcrowded, unsafe, and unhealthy city slums and significantly contribute to the high urbanisation growth in Bangladesh. Over the last 20 years, the trend growth rate of urbanization was 3.25 per cent on an average which is one of the highest in the world (Hassan, 2017). Though the percentage of people living in urban slum has decreased from 55.10 per cent in 2015 to 47.20 per cent in 2020, the total number of people living in urban slum has increased from 29.54 million in 2015 to 29.67 million in 2020 (see Figure 4). With a limited access to basic amenities like water, sanitation, electricity, transportation, basic medication, and education etc. cities like Dhaka and Chattogram are unable to serve the purpose of this huge population. Moreover, the urban migration leads to critical environmental consequences such as water and air pollution and jeopardise a city’s ability to plan for future.

**Figure 4: Trend of Urbanisation in Bangladesh**

(In Million)

The problem of internal disaster displacement to urban slums in big cities has massive implications for the specific development objectives and goals of the country. Achieving at least 9 SDGs are directly threatened by the observed upward trend of internal migration to big cities. These are SDG 1 (No poverty), SDG 2 (Zero hunger), SDG 3 (Good health and well-being), SDG 6 (Clean water and sanitation), SDG 8 (Decent work and economic growth), SDG 11 (Sustainable cities and communities), SDG 12 (Sustainable consumption and production patterns), SDG 13 (Climate action) and SDG 15 (Life
and land). It is, therefore, crucial to search the solution to minimise the level of internal migration to big cities.

**Driving Factors for Climate Induced Big City Migration**

In general, the disaster affected people in Bangladesh prefer to stay close to their ancestral root and most of the migration decisions are forced as they lack alternative options to secure post-disaster livelihood in their locality.

The migration decision of disaster-hit people depends on their assessment of the situation (extent of the damages and losses) and the options (choice set) available to them to cope and recover from the shock. An affirmative decision favouring migration, presents the next crucial decision question: where to migrate (migration destination). The decisions on both these are driven by a complex interplay of a number of structural problems. The observed centralized and urban-centric (mostly in big cities) growth mechanism in Bangladesh has resulted in inadequate employment and lower amenities and quality of life for citizens living in small towns and rural areas. Given the low level of education, skills, and endowment of the poorest segment of the society, another important contributing factor to migration decision is the belief and perception of better earning opportunities for low-skilled population in big cities. Often, this (mis)perception is built and propelled by networks of family and friends who have already migrated to cities. As a result, they end up in overcrowded city slums (Roy & Sultana, 2010 and Kolmannskog, 2008).

Table 1 lists a number of economic, environmental, social and political drivers that can potentially contribute to the climate induced migration to big cities. After a careful scrutiny of the literature and observations, this study argues that **household’s compromised livelihood security and scarcity of decent income generating activities in local area** can be identified as out as **underlying and structural cause** for the incidence of internal migration.

**Table 1: Drivers of Climate Induced Migration in Bangladesh**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Drivers</th>
<th>Reasons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>• Loss of income generating activities due to hazards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Impact on traditional livelihood strategies (i.e., agriculture, fishing) by increasing climatic stresses and shocks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Poverty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Seasonal circular migration during harvest and sowing seasons from rural-to-rural area for livelihood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Due to loss and damage of homestead and arable land in the river erosion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• No agricultural work available during the off-season (Monga period)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Lack of roads and means of transportation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>• Higher frequency and unpredictability of natural hazards (Flooding, cyclones, riverbank/coastal erosion, salinization, water-logging, drought/lack of rain, erratic rainfall, cold waves)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Declining land fertility and reduced crop yields</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>• Unsecured life and livelihoods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• High dependence on agriculture for livelihood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Local food crises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Absence or lack of services (health, education, electricity, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political</td>
<td>• Conflicts and violence related to land</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Absence of police or other government structures for enforcement of the law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Corruption of local authorities and no transparency in the process of land acquisition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Risk of eviction by landowners or the government</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Poncelet et al. (2010); Kälin (2010); Graya & Muellerb (2012).*
4.3 Conceptualisation of an Impactful Intervention to Address the Problem

Following the preceding discussion and identification of an underlying ground-level problem, it is clear that providing choices for disaster hit people by creating sustainable, green and decent livelihood opportunities in the locality and nearby city centres can potentially solve the problem in a holistic way. In particular, our search for a high-impact intervention aims to boost sustainable, green, and employment generating economic growth in disaster-prone areas. Due to the labour-intensive nature of the CMSMEs, the sector is capable of creating jobs and promote localised growth. The intervention should operate in a limited scale with appropriate targeting at initial stage, but should be scalable to increase the coverage. Therefore, to address the internal migration to slums in big city, this scoping study conceptualise an intervention involving sustainable expansion of the SME sector.

CMSMEs in Bangladesh: Importance and Challenges

In Bangladesh, CMSMEs, a labour-intensive sector, play an important role in socioeconomic development through various channels such as job creation, poverty reduction, gender equality and women empowerment, and improved standard of life. At present, SMEs in Bangladesh contributes 25 per cent of the GDP and 45 per cent of manufacturing value addition and 90 per cent of total industrial units and (Ministry of Planning, 2019). This sector accommodates about 25 per cent of the total labour forces and 80 per cent of industrial employment.

However, the existing policy measures for expansion of CMSME in Bangladesh are partially unsuccessful due to some root level blockages (Rahman & Kabir, 2021). Box 3 presents the major obstacles for the expansion of the CMSME sector. A number of studies reveal that the high cost of capital and access to financing from formal banking channel is the major obstacle to SME growth in Bangladesh (Rahman & Kabir, 2021; Rahman & Majumder, 2020; Parvin & Rahman, 2012). Moreover, CMSME is among the most hardly hit sectors due to the socio-economic shocks induced by the COVID-19 and associated containment measures. The allocation, implementation and disbursement processes of GoB’s stimulus package has once again demonstrated the extent and gravity of CMSME’s problem in accessing finance from the formal channels, highlighting both demand and supply side constraints.

Box 3: Major Obstacles for CMSME Development in Bangladesh

Most of the entrepreneurship in Bangladesh and their economic opportunities are city oriented while rural entrepreneurship are still in its nascent stage having some socioeconomic obstacles (Rahman & Kabir, 2021). The major obstacles include:

- access to financing from formal banking channel (Hassani-Mahmooei & Parris, 2012; Cattaneo et al., 2019; Rahman & Majumder, 2020).
- poor quality of collateral, inadequate documentation and ill-defined business plans, limited capacity, short duration of business, business knowledge and lack of management skill (Andrianaivo et al, 2018; Chowdhury and Alam, 2017).
- Lack of appropriate interventions, financial inventions and evolving ideas to boost the SME sector in Bangladesh to address the insufficient domestic financing problem (Qamruzzaman & Jianguo, 2019 and Rahman et al., 2020).
- Estimating the demand for credit by SMEs is difficult due to data constraints (Andrianaivo et al., 2018).
A Proposed Intervention

We argue that promoting sustainable growth of the CMSMEs (both firm and non-firm) by facilitating improved access to finance would be an impactful intervention to significantly reduce disaster driven displacement to big cities. The employment and livelihood opportunities - generated through sustainable expansion of CMSMEs in targeted smaller and remote cities, towns and regional growth hubs - will provide disaster-hit people a much-needed choice in their migration decision making process. Availability of a job nearer home in a known environment is more likely to discourage them taking a migration decision to big cities. To address the critical issue of financing modality this study explores the possibility to use a blended finance mechanism involving GCF and other potential investors. For illustrative purpose, Figure 5 presents a simplified and partial theory of change.

With this rationale, this study broadly conceptualizes the following intervention:

*Facilitating SME’s improved access to finance by providing credit from the formal financing (banking and non-banking) channel, using a blended finance mechanism with contributions from the climate fund, and with appropriate geographical and sub-sectoral targeting at implementation stage to promote employment generating green growth in disaster-prone areas/ selected regional growth hub.*
Figure 5: A Simplified and Partial Theory of Change

**Natural Disaster**
Reduction in Overall Wealth and Compromised Livelihood Security

**Lack of Decent Job in Locality**
- Urban Centric Growth
- Low Skill and Endowment Level of the Most Disadvantage

**Development Challenge**
Internal Migration from Village to Big City Slums

**Required High-level Change**
Sustainable Employment Generation by SME Growth

**Underlying & Structural Problem for SME Growth:**
Access to Finance from Formal Banking and Non-Banking Channels

**Intervention**
- Improve SME’s Access to Finance from Formal Banking and Non-Banking Channels
- Fund Mobilisation with Appropriate Risk Management Process through Blended Finance to Make Investment Commercially Viable
- Financing Risky Investment

**SDGs**

- SDG 1
- SDG 2
- SDG 3
- SDG 4
- SDG 5
- SDG 6
- SDG 7
- SDG 8
- SDG 9
- SDG 10
- SDG 11
- SDG 12
- SDG 13
- SDG 14
- SDG 15
- SDG 16
- SDG 17

**Reduction of Disaster Driven Internal Migration to Big City Slums**

**Creating Livelihood Choices through Regional and Localised Growth with Mass Employment**

**Geographical Targeting (Disaster Prone Areas) and Sub-sectoral Prioritisation (green sectors) for SME Financing**
4.4 An Illustration of the Blended Finance Framework: Some Key Issues with CMSME Intervention

To address this significant development challenges posed by climate migration, the proposed blended finance framework can be applied to explore possible financing solutions. Some key issues and challenges for these particular interventions are summarized below:

- The intervention needs to be fine-tuned to identify green CMSME sub-sectors and to select appropriate geographical locations. This requires more focused and serious research.
- A credible and updated estimation of SME’s demand for credit, and thereby of resource gap, is crucial. IFC (2011) projected SME financing gap amounting USD 1.8 billion while Institute for Inclusive Finance and Development (2016) estimated a gap of USD 1.07 billion. These estimates are dated and underestimated to some extent as the growth of the sector was not considered. (See Box 4)
- The GCF can play a significant role in mobilising the fund. Some examples of other potential financing sources include: World Bank IFC, World Bank SME Finance, Bangladesh Climate Change Trust Fund, Bangladesh Bank Disaster Management and Corporate Social Responsibility Fund. (See Box 5)
- To attract private capital flow, efficient risk management using innovative financial and non-financial instruments is a pre-requisite. To de-risk the investment, institutional expertise and skills are required to be developed and strengthened.
- A balance between development outcome and return from investment is important.
- Deciding the role of local financial institutes (i.e., whether intermediary only or Investor and intermediary) is another key issue.
- Determination of concessional lending rate, longer tenure and favourable repayment schemes for beneficiaries is important to realise the expected development outcome.
- Minimising operational and transaction costs of financial institutes by adapting innovative technologies.
- Women entrepreneurs should be prioritized in approval stage. A certain proportion of disbursed credit may be reserved for eligible women entrepreneurs.
- Training and technical support should be integrated in the intervention to beneficiaries to develop demand side capacity such as managerial capacity, transparent accounting, banking support, business idea generation and expansion, etc.
- Well-designed skills training programmes need to be introduced in targeted areas to re-skill, to up-skill and to provide new skills to prepare the workforce for the selected CMSME subsectors.
- Easy, less bureaucratic and user-friendly application procedure need to be in place with required support for beneficiaries.
- Quick and transparent approval, credit allocation and credit disbursement to beneficiaries.

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4This exercise also allows to examine the applicability, usefulness and shortcomings of the proposed generic framework.
Box 4: Credible and Updated Estimation of Financing Gap is Crucial

A substantial amount of financing gap exists between the demand for credit and supply of credit to the SMEs in Bangladesh but estimating the demand for credit by SMEs is difficult due to data constraint. International Finance Corporation projected an estimate of the SME financing gap in Bangladesh in 2011 to be USD 1.8 billion combined with an estimated total number of SME enterprises of 804041 (IFC, 2011). A comprehensive survey by Institute for Inclusive Finance and Development in 2016 based on 600 microenterprises estimated the total demand for loan is USD 4.57 billion against the supply of USD 3.50 billion resulting a gap of USD 1.07 billion (InM, 2016). Since the SME growth was not considered over time, this figure should be considered to be underestimated (see Annex Table 4 and Table 5).

A large number of SMEs is still outside the coverage of formal banking sector implying that they have no credit history or relationship with banks. Due to data constraint and inability of financial institutions to assess the risk and credit worthiness of SMEs the contribution (share) of formal banking sector in total SME credit disbursement stands at very lower rate (11.1 percent in 2016) while the MFIs disbursed the bulk of SME loans (86.8 percent in 2016).

Box 5: The Green Climate Fund in Bangladesh

The Green Climate Fund (GCF) was formally established at the 16th Conference of Parties in 2010 (COP16), under the Cancun Agreement as part of the Convention’s financial mechanism and within the United Nations Framework Convention for Climate Change (UNFCCC), to contribute developing countries response to climate change challenges. Initial resource mobilization of the fund was launched in 2014, and rapidly gathered pledges worth USD 10.3 billion. Currently, there are 177 ongoing project that attracts USD 8.8 billion of GCF financing commitment to mitigate 1.8 billion tonnes of carbon and contribute to build resilience for 500.5 million of people, with 70 percent of implementation rate (USD 6.1 billion).

Unfortunately, Bangladesh’s success rate with regard to submitting feasible climate change-oriented project proposals and obtaining external finance from various international funds is quite low. There are 6 ongoing climate projects in Bangladesh with USD 368.6 million of GCF financing. These are promoting private sector investment through large scale adoption of energy saving technologies and equipment for textile and readymade garment (RMG) sectors of Bangladesh (USD 340.5 million), extended community climate change project-flood (ECCCP-Flood) (USD 13.3 million), global clean cooking program – Bangladesh (USD 40.0 million), enhancing adaptive capacities of coastal communities, especially women, to cope with climate change induced salinity (USD 33.0 million), climate resilient infrastructure and instreaming (CRIM) (USD 81.0 million), and cooling facility (USD 879.8 million).\(^5\)

For the seven readiness activities in Bangladesh, USD 3 million has been disbursed out of USD 5.1 million approved support. Bangladesh has also managed to obtain external financing of USD 320.18 million from 2009 to 2018 for climate change-oriented projects from various international funds.


5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

This scoping study attempts to connect three important and vast topics: blended finance, development challenges imposed by climate migration to urban slums, and CMSME’s improved access to finance as a possible intervention to address the challenges. The aim of this report is to introduce and socialise these ideas among policymakers and other stakeholders with a framework to discuss and develop further.

In view of the sizeable SDG financing gap, shrinking fiscal space due to the pandemic and Bangladesh’s graduation to middle-income country, the blended finance mechanism can be extremely useful to attract private capital flows and funding from donors in the coming days. Noting the gap, a generic framework to operationalize blended finance in Bangladesh is conceptualized and key activities under

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\(^5\)The project values are the total of global allocation for the respective projects.
four diagnostic and implementing stages are suggested. However, a transparent and accountable regulatory framework is the first thing to focus in order to ensure the governance of the fund. The identification of development challenges and underlying causes, and the selection of the intervention should follow a rigorous 3-R (rationale, research, and reflection) process to have the desirable development outcome. Innovative de-risking instruments via financial engineering and modelling and making the development intervention commercially viable is a pre-requisite to attract investors and mobilise fund. Prudent guidelines, framework and policies for beneficiary selection, fund allocation, fund transfer, and repayment process are essential for the successful implementation of the project.

Climate change and natural disasters are posing increasingly higher level of threat to Bangladesh’s growth and development endeavour. Climate migration to the urban city slums due to the compromised livelihood security by disasters is on the rise in recent times and has critical development and environmental consequences that directly threaten achieving at least seven SDGs. This study argues that creating alternative employment by providing CMSME improved access to finance in selected geographical location and promoting employment-rich green growth can be a high-impact intervention to address the problem. To finance this intervention, the proposed blended finance mechanism can be used to mobilise funds. A number of issues have been identified that require further research and fine-tuning to operationalise the framework in Bangladesh and to implement the proposed CMSME financing intervention.
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The International Disaster Database, CRED, (2021)


World Development Indicator by World Bank (2020).


ANNEXES

Annex Table 1: Unified MSME Definition Adopted under the 2016 Industrial Policy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Industry</th>
<th>Amount of Investment in Tk (Replacement Cost and Value of Fixed Assets, excluding Land and Factory Buildings)</th>
<th>Number of Employed Workers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cottage Industry</td>
<td>Below 1 million</td>
<td>Maximum 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Micro Industry</td>
<td>1 to 7.5 million</td>
<td>16-30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Industry</td>
<td>Manufacturing: 7.5 to 150 million</td>
<td>31-120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Service: 1 to 20 million</td>
<td>16-50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium Industry</td>
<td>Manufacturing: 150 to 500 million</td>
<td>121-300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Service: 20 to 300 million</td>
<td>51-120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The MSME definition set by the 2016 Industrial Policy is now broadly accepted as a unified definition at the policy level. It is based on the value of fixed assets (excluding land and buildings) and/or the number of employees. This unified national definition should be followed by all government entities.
## Annex Table 2: Number of People Displaced Newly by Different Disaster from 2008 to 2020

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Flood</th>
<th>Storm</th>
<th>Wet Mass Movement</th>
<th>Dry Mass Movement</th>
<th>Earthquake</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>59000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>61000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Khulna, Shatkhira</td>
<td>500000</td>
<td>842000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1342000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>512000</td>
<td>45000</td>
<td>12000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>569000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>400000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>400000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>600000</td>
<td>51000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>651000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>Kurigram, Brahmanbaria, Thakurgaon, Gaibandha, Dinajpur Panchagarh, Nilphamari, Lalmoihrat, Jamalpur, Sirajgonj, Patuakhali, Cox’s Bazar, Barguna, Noakhali</td>
<td>22000</td>
<td>1137000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1159000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>Netrokona, North-Wester Region</td>
<td>542000</td>
<td>10000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>543000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>Teknaf, Cox’s Bazar, Bandarban, Chittagong, Sylhet, Bogra, Northern District</td>
<td>104000</td>
<td>426000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>530100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Sandwip, Hatia, Kutubdia, Sitakundu, Feni, Jessore</td>
<td>118000</td>
<td>496000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>614000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>Chittagong, Cox’s Bazar, Pabna, Rangpur, Rajshahi, Mymensingh, Sylhet, Dhaka, Khulna, Moulibazar, Sunamganj, Habiganj, Netrokona, Kishoreganj</td>
<td>448000</td>
<td>490000</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>6000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>946000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018</td>
<td>Bagerhat, Sylhet, Moulibazar, Maheshkhali, Cox’s Bazar, Dighinala, Khagrachari, Gaibandha, Bogra, Jamalpur, Tangail, Barisal, Bhola, Jhalakathi, Rupganj, Feni, Sunamganj</td>
<td>30200</td>
<td>584</td>
<td>46017</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>76801</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2019</td>
<td>Lalmonirhat, Cox’s Bazar, Munshiganj, Dhaka, Manikganj, Jashore, Chudanga, Shariatpur, Kushtha, Bagerhat, Bamna, Pathorghata, Barguna, Joypurhat, Panchbibi, Dinajpur, Parbatipur, Khulna, Rangamati, Dinajpur, Rangpur</td>
<td>307200</td>
<td>3777505</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4085155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2020</td>
<td>Thakurgaon, Cox’s Bazar, Brahmanbaria, Lalmonirhat, Rangpur, Kurigram, Chittagong, Dhaka, Tangail, Gaibandha, Barisal, Tangail</td>
<td>1925000</td>
<td>2511250</td>
<td>6621</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4442871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Number of People Displaced by Different Category</td>
<td>5567400</td>
<td>9777339</td>
<td>69088</td>
<td>6000</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>15419927</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC).
### Annex Table 3: List of Low Carbon to Medium Carbon Enterprise List

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SME Group (Low Carbon)</th>
<th>Gender Group (Male/Female)</th>
<th>SME Group (Medium Carbon)</th>
<th>Gender Group (Male/Female)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural Product Processing</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Making Fishing Boat</td>
<td>Mostly Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural Activities</td>
<td>Mostly Male</td>
<td>Bakery</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weaving and Nakshi Katha</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Hatchery</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Seed Preservation</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Dry Fish Processing</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information and Technology Activities</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Cyber Cafe</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horticulture, Flower Harvesting and Processing</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Entertainment, Documentary Making and DVD Making</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile Phone Accessories</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Hospital and Clinic</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Renewable Energy</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Hotel, Restaurant and Tourism</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Light Engineering</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Printing and Packaging</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cosmetic and Toiletries</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Producing Puff Rice</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beauty Industry</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Rice Machine</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handicraft</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Agricultural Machine Accessories Business</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Herbal Product</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Iron and Cement Trading</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jute Product</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>LP Gas Business</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stationary Product</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Jewelry Shop</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iodised Salt</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Diagnostic Centre</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whole Sale and Retail Shop</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Making Toys</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmacy Shop</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Ice Factory</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone and Fax</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Dairy and Fish Feed</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile Banking Shop</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Candle and Agarbati</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile and Accessories Shop</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Exportable Soil Made Handicraft</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fabrics and Shoe Business</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Food Processing</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Tailoring</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Oil and Grain Mill</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardware Business</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Mini Sugar Mill</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grocery and Grain Business</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Welding Industry</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial Tree Plantation</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Digital Color Lab</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photography</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Partex Industry</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silk and Cocoon Industry</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Biogas Plant</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boutiques Shop</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Poultry and Dairy</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intelligence and Skill Based Business (Consultancy)</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mushroom Cultivation</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eco Friendly Transportation</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khadi Industry</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spice Processing</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Call Centre</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bamboo and cane Industry</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wood and Steal Business</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice and Paddy Business</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Annex Table 3 contd.)
Establishing a Blended Finance Mechanism

Annex Table 3 contd.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SME Group (Low Carbon)</th>
<th>Gender Group (Male/Female)</th>
<th>SME Group (Medium Carbon)</th>
<th>Gender Group (Male/Female)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cool Carpet (Shitol Pati)</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursery</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweet Business</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisheries</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lime Making from Oysters</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fruit Processing</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Producing Seed by Tissues Culture</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Annex Table 4: Demand for Loans among Microenterprises

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Total Loan Demand (BDT Billion)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cottage</td>
<td>186.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Micro</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Annex Table 5: Loan Supply for Microenterprises

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supply Source</th>
<th>Total Amount Disbursed in 2015-16 (BDT Billion)</th>
<th>Amount Disbursed to Microenterprises (BDT Billion)</th>
<th>Percentage Share</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Banks</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Institutions</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MFIs</td>
<td>955.8</td>
<td>491.6</td>
<td>86.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1030.7</td>
<td>566.5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Credit and Development Forum (2016).

Annex Table 6: Total Additional Cost for SDGs in FY 2025 and FY 2030

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SDGs</th>
<th>Total Additional Costs (USD Billion)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FY 2025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDG 1: No Poverty</td>
<td>1.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDG 2: Zero Hunger</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDG 3: Good Health and Well-being</td>
<td>7.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDG 4: Quality Education</td>
<td>7.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDG 5: Gender Inequality</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDG 6: Clean Water and Sanitation</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDG 7: Affordable and Clean Energy</td>
<td>3.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDG 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth</td>
<td>35.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDG 9: Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure</td>
<td>19.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDG 10: Reduced Inequalities</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDG 11: Sustainable Cities and Communities</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDG 12: Responsible Consumption and Production</td>
<td>1.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Annex Table 6 contd.)
There is a large financing gap prevails for achieving SDGs both globally and locally. The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) estimated that implementing the SDGs by 2030 will require an investment of USD 3.3-4.5 trillion annually. However, there will be a financial gap of USD 2.5 trillion annually to achieve the SDGs. The United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) has addressed that the developing countries in Asia and Pacific is not on track to achieve the targeted development goals as there is a financing gap of USD 1.5 trillion annually for the region. Bangladesh as an emerging country, will require a total additional cost of USD 92.33 billion and USD 144.81 billion per year by 2025 and 2030 respectively to achieve the SDGs (Planning Commission, GoB, 2016).

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For more details, please see: https://unctad.org/press-material/developing-countries-face-25-trillion-annual-investment-gap-key-sustainable.

The cost of achieving SDGs is estimated by using various sources of data that are common in case of several goals. For more details, please see: https://www.sdg.gov.bd/resource/80/0#1.
Annex Box 1: Case Study on Yoma Bank Agribusiness Finance Programme

In December 2015, Livelihoods and Food Security Trust Fund (LIFT) and Yoma Bank signed a three-year Agribusiness Finance Program (AFP) in which LIFT donated USD 18.07 million to increase agricultural productivity and improve rural livelihoods in Myanmar. As funding for various agricultural products and their various components is associated with higher risk, the first funding tool has been used to curb the risk of Yoma Bank with LIFT contribution.

Under AFP, Yoma Bank reduced interest rates by 10 percent, allowed long-term employers and provided additional loans at twice-the-year cycles to meet the annual cash flow of farmers. The contribution of LIFT was to recover part of the increased risks with the first buffer of losses of USD 56.65 million and to cover the many operating costs of the program roll-out.

One of the goals of LIFT - the partnership of Yoma Bank to increase the provision of unsecured loans (loans) in the agri chains in Myanmar. AFP has tried to break the mold with the help of technology to the Yoma Bank and the first refuge for loan losses obtained in the agricultural sector. There are four products that are less secure under AFP and that is borrowing, fees, overtime payments on corn, and MFI loans where the first product gains 100 percent protection from the first loss buffer (buffer size is limited to USD 3 million) and MFI loans accounted for 10% of the principal.

Borrowing Base: The product of the Borrowing Foundation is originally intended for the value chain of agri inputs (e.g. seeds, fertilizers), but can also be widely used to cover any operating costs. In the import product in Myanmar, the major suppliers usually operate through a network of vendors, who act as distributors to farmers. Yoma Bank adds liquidity to the system by lowering the sales slip for top input suppliers. As such, this debt enables the importer to increase sales, resulting in higher prices flowing to farmers / producers. For each supplier, Yoma Bank authorizes a certain number of merchants with a non-discounted acquisition.

Payable Finance: Providing shares by providing an overdraft to a major supplier is straightforward, as one partner can earn significant money to solve the problem of identifying each potential customer. The paid channel is not complicated and there is little need for automation. Payment Product is structured in such a way that retailers, rather than suppliers, become bank customers. The business case is exactly the same as under a Borrowing Fund product: sellers buy farm implants on credit from a supplier, and then sell this to small retailers and / or farmers. By giving money to sellers, they can pay the supplier in cash when he delivers the goods and then sell the items on credit to the farmers.

MFI Lending: Eager to diversify the loan book and use a channel that can see that funds reach the depths of Myanmar, Yoma Bank developed a financing product specifically for MFIs. Product features include a tenor for up to three years and a USD 40% of the total loan amount. In addition to meeting the financial need, the unique loan structure allows MFIs to secure their access to the MMK - USD exchange rate by promising their dollar and / or equity debt to Yoma Bank. In exchange, Yoma Bank uses a mortgage. 2.5 times, allow MFI that they borrowed from MMK while risking their foreign exchange rate.

(Annex Table 1 contd.)
The results during the lifetime of the program have achieved much of what was intended, with agricultural equipment costing USD 93.40 million over three years. The translation into 6,530 goods, including 4,002 tractors, 967 (combined) harvesters, 272 tillers and 1,289 transport vehicles. In addition, the estimated price of subsidized under AFP increased from USD 12.25 million in 2016 to USD 16.84 million in 2018.

Funding has had a significant impact on families relying on agriculture to reach an estimated 200,000 households. Successful repayment rate remains at the end of 2018, amounting to USD 42.87 million has been repaid by borrowers in terms of loan installments and, 2,637 total loan repayments.

One of the major challenges of Yoma Bank’s digital strategy in general and the Personal Development Account (IDA) in particular is how to simplify Cash-In Cash-Out (CICO). The people of rural Myanmar, far from banks and ATMs, need to be able to convert their money into a digital savings balance on their phone (and on the go) at their leisure, without significant travel, time or cost restrictions. In a world that relies heavily on money, with a limited banking network but a massive smartphone penetration, solving the CICO challenge is the key to reaching millions of unregistered people. Imagine a farmer in front of his home in North Shan province, holding ten-thousand-kyat notes in one hand and his smartphone in the other. The challenge is to build a network that allows people to spend money easily.
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