Labor Migration, Skills & Student Mobility in Asia

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This publication was jointly prepared by the Asian Development Bank Institute (ADBI), the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), and the International Labour Organization (ILO). It was edited by Yuqing Xing (ADBI), Jean-Christophe Dumont (OECD), and Nilim Baruah (ILO, Bangkok), with contributions from Philippe Hervé (International Migration Division, OECD, Paris), Thomas Liebig (International Migration Division, OECD, Paris), and Jonathan Chaloff (International Migration Division, OECD, Paris).

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Foreword

Free trade, free capital flows, and free labor mobility are the eventual objectives of globalization. Among these, free labor mobility is the most challenging one, due to culture, politics, and sovereignty. To promote labor mobility in Asia and improve the welfare of migrant labor globally, the Asian Development Bank Institute (ADBI) and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) have been holding an annual Roundtable on Labor Migration in Asia since 2011. As a new partner, the Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific of the International Labour Organization (ILO) joined the 2013 Roundtable "Assessing Labor Market Requirements for Foreign Workers and Developing Policies for Regional Skills Mobility" held in Bangkok on 23–25 January 2013. The participation of the ILO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific further strengthened the influence and visibility of the roundtable. Experts on labor migration from various organizations and government officials in charge of labor migration from both Asian and non-Asian countries participated. Besides a general analysis on labor migration trends in Asia, the 2013 roundtable focused on issues related to skilled migrants. This report summarizes major policy issues raised during the roundtable and future challenges for enhancing skilled labor mobility and protecting the rights of low-skilled migrant workers.

Migrants from Asia remain a major and rising component of migration flows to OECD countries. Their number rebounded significantly after the moderate fall triggered by the global financial crisis. In 2011, 1.6 million Asian nationals migrated to the OECD area, accounting for one third of all migrants to OECD countries. The United States remains the major destination country of Asian migrants, followed by the Republic of Korea and Japan. The People's Republic of China (PRC), India, and the Philippines are the leading origin countries of migrant flows to OECD countries. Asian migrant workers not only alleviated the structural labor shortages in the host countries, but also contributed significantly to the economy of their home countries. Remittances of migrants have been a major income source for many developing countries in Asia. They accounted for more than 10% of gross domestic product in Bangladesh and in the Philippines.

Pursuing higher education abroad is considered an effective channel to emigrate to industrialized countries for Asian youths. It is estimated that 15%–30% of international students in OECD countries eventually stay on in the country where whey graduated. Students from Asia now make up 52% of all international students in OECD countries. More than three quarters of Asian students are concentrated in only four countries: the United States, Australia, the United Kingdom, and Japan. English-speaking countries have a natural advantage in attracting international students. Some Asian countries, such as the PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea have been catching up by offering programs in English, as well as scholarships and work opportunities to international students during and after their studies. Globally, the PRC has emerged as the second most important destination country of Asian students after the United States.

Highly educated and skilled workers play a critical role in economic development and technological innovations. Despite various institutional restrictions on cross-border labor mobility, the global competition for talent has accelerated skilled labor mobility. More than half of the recent Asian migrants in OECD countries are highly educated and they represent an important contribution to the skilled workforce in OECD countries. For instance, Asian migrants accounted for more than 70% of skilled workers under the United States H-1B specialty program. In recent years, some Asian countries have joined the competition for global talent. To retain foreign talent, the Government of Japan has accelerated access to permanent residence for qualified and skilled foreign workers; the Government of the PRC has introduced a number of policy initiatives such as the "1,000 Talents Plan" to attract overseas highly educated Chinese as well as foreign experts. Within Asia, the most important initiative in the area of skills mobility has been undertaken by the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), which decided in 2007 to achieve a regional ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) by 2015. In the AEC blueprint, the fifth of five pillars is the free mobility of skilled workers within ASEAN.

The experiences of European countries suggest that free mobility of skilled workers gives rise to positive economic benefits. To further enhance the mobility of skilled workers in Asia, it is crucial to expand the coverage of skilled workers, increase mutual recognition of professional qualifications, and streamline the immigration procedures.

A statistical overview of international migration within and from Asia, which compiles updated data from several sources, is provided at the end of this report. The statistics outline the basic picture of labor migration in the region and provide useful information for both policy makers and scholars to better understand international migration in Asia.

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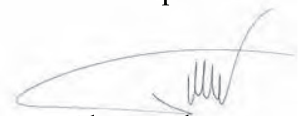

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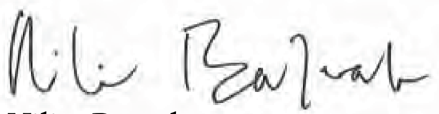

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I. Trends and Outlook for Labor Migration in Asia

Labor migration from and within Asia is a key and growing component of international migration flows, and the joint roundtable by the Asian Development Bank Institute (ADBI), the International Labour Organization (ILO), and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) on labor migration in Asia bears witness to this. In recent years, Asia has provided a large part of the more skilled migration inflows to OECD countries, even as the global competition to attract skilled and talented workers has intensified. Most of the flows, however, are intra-Asian, and consist mainly of lesser skilled labor.

Migration Flows from Asia to OECD Countries

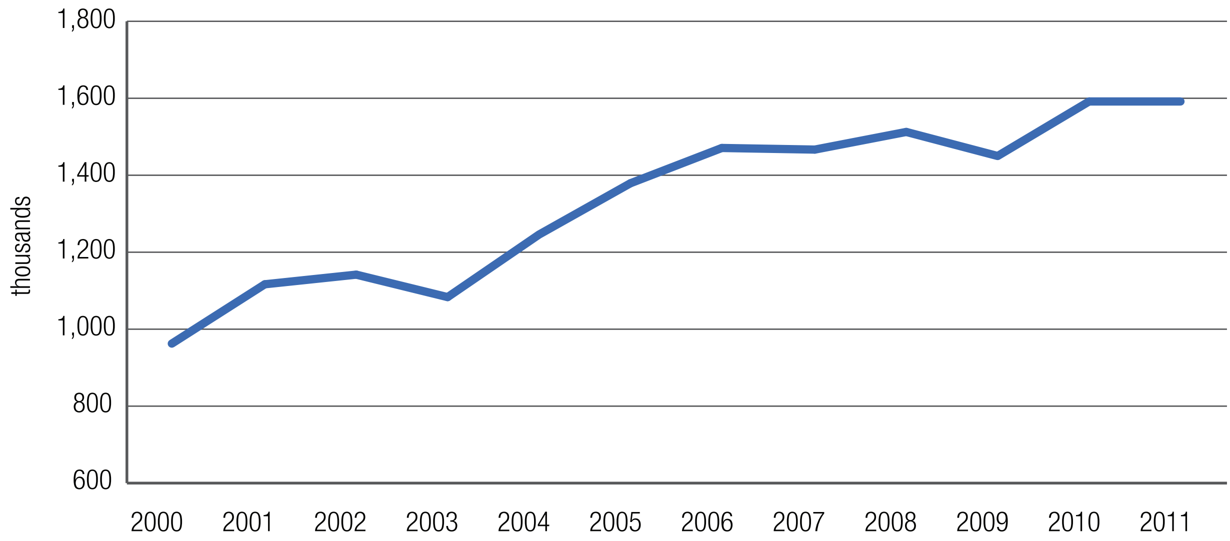
Migration from Asia is a major and growing component of migration flows to OECD countries. In 2011, 1.6 million Asian nationals migrated to one of the OECD countries. This represented a third of all migrants to OECD countries. Including countries in West Asia, Asia is now at par with Europe as the principal region of origin of migration to the OECD area.

The People's Republic of China (PRC) is the main country of origin of migration flows to the OECD area, accounting for more than 1 in 10 immigrants, followed by Romania, Poland, India, Mexico, and the Philippines.

The global decrease in international migration observed in 2009, as a consequence of the financial crisis, also affected Asia, but to a more limited extent (Figure 1.1). Moreover, since this fall in global migration flows to the OECD area, those originating from Asia strongly rebounded in 2010, increasing by almost 10% (compared with an overall rise of less than 2% in the total inflows to OECD countries). In 2011, migration from the region remained stable compared with 2010. Between 2010 and 2011, the increase in immigration from countries such as the PRC (+20,000) and Viet Nam (+7,000) was counterbalanced by a decline from countries such as Myanmar (–13,000) and India (–12,000), so the overall flows from the region to the OECD area remained stable.

Indeed, already the increase since 2009 was mainly driven by the PRC, who saw the number of its nationals migrating to OECD countries rise from 460,000 in 2009 to 500,000 in 2010 and 530,000 in 2011, a historical high.

Figure 1.1 Migration Flows from Asia to OECD Countries



OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

The situation is different concerning the two other main origin countries from Asia, India and the Philippines (Table 1.1). About 240,000 Indian nationals migrated to OECD countries in 2011. While this represents a high level, it was 5% below the peak reached the previous year. The number of migrants from the Philippines has been relatively stable over the recent years, even slightly declining in 2011, and currently stands at about 160,000.

Besides the PRC, nine other countries also saw a record number of their citizens emigrating to an OECD country in 2011. These countries are Pakistan (105,000 emigrants), Thailand (52,000), and Bangladesh (50,000), followed by Nepal, Afghanistan, Bhutan, Cambodia, Singapore, and Tajikistan. Although the numbers of migrants are not of the same order of magnitude as those coming from the large countries of the region, they bear witness to an emerging diversification of origin countries.

Destination Countries

Apart from intra-European Union (EU) labor mobility, migrants from Asia are the most important source of migration for employment in the OECD area. This particularly concerns the PRC, India, and the Philippines, where most migrants to OECD countries are labor migrants. As a result, these three countries are among the five main origin countries in the three OECD countries with large managed discretionary labor migration programs, i.e. Australia, Canada, and New Zealand. These three countries now rely heavily on labor migration from Asia. In total, including also non-labor migration, these three countries hosted 242,000 migrant inflows from Asia in 2011. In the United

Table 1.1 Main Asian Origin Countries of Migration to the OECD, 2011

	Immigration into OECD countries (thousands)	Rank	% of total OECD inflows	Expatriation rate (per million population)
People's Republic of China	529	1	10.3	394
India	240	4	4.7	196
Philippines	159	6	3.1	1,702
Pakistan	105	11	2.0	605
Viet Nam	94	13	1.8	1,072
Asia	**1,597**		**35.6**	**414**

OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

Table 1.2 Main Destination Countries of Asian Migration to the OECD

	Immigration from Asian countries	% of inflows from Asia to OECD
United States	373	23.4
Republic of Korea	254	15.9
Japan	200	12.5
United Kingdom	196	12.3
Canada	119	7.5
Australia	105	6.5
Germany	88	5.5
Italy	68	4.3
Spain	48	3.0
France	19	1.2
New Zealand	19	1.2

OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

States, where the predominant category for permanent migration is nevertheless family migration, all three countries—the PRC, India, and the Philippines—also figure among the top five. The United States also remains the main destination in absolute numbers, with 373,000 inflows from Asia in 2011, almost a quarter of the total Asian migration to the OECD (Table 1.2). If temporary migration were included, this figure would be even higher, since many skilled temporary labor migrants are from Asia. For example, in 2011, 71% of the highly-skilled H-1B temporary labor migration visas went to Asian nationals. The two Asian OECD countries, the Republic of Korea and Japan, are the second and third main destinations, accounting for almost 16% and 13% of the flows, respectively. A large part of migration to these countries, however, consists of temporary migration flows. If only permanent migration flows were considered, these countries would rank behind Australia and Canada. In both the Republic of Korea and Japan, the PRC is the main origin country of migrants. For both countries, migration from Viet Nam, Thailand, and the Philippines is also important.

After the United States, the Republic of Korea, and Japan, the United Kingdom is the fourth main destination. In the United Kingdom, three Asian countries—India, the PRC, and Pakistan—are the main origin countries of new inflows, accounting for about a third of the total. Finally, for several other OECD countries, including Finland, Italy, the Netherlands, and Spain, the PRC is among the three main origin countries.

Labor Migration Flows from Asia to Non-OECD Countries

Migration from Asia represents a significant share of migration flows to the OECD area, including in terms of labor migration. However, many more workers from Asian countries emigrate to non-OECD countries, mainly within the region. Whereas labor migration to OECD countries is mainly highly skilled, labor migration to non-OECD countries is generally of a lesser skilled nature.

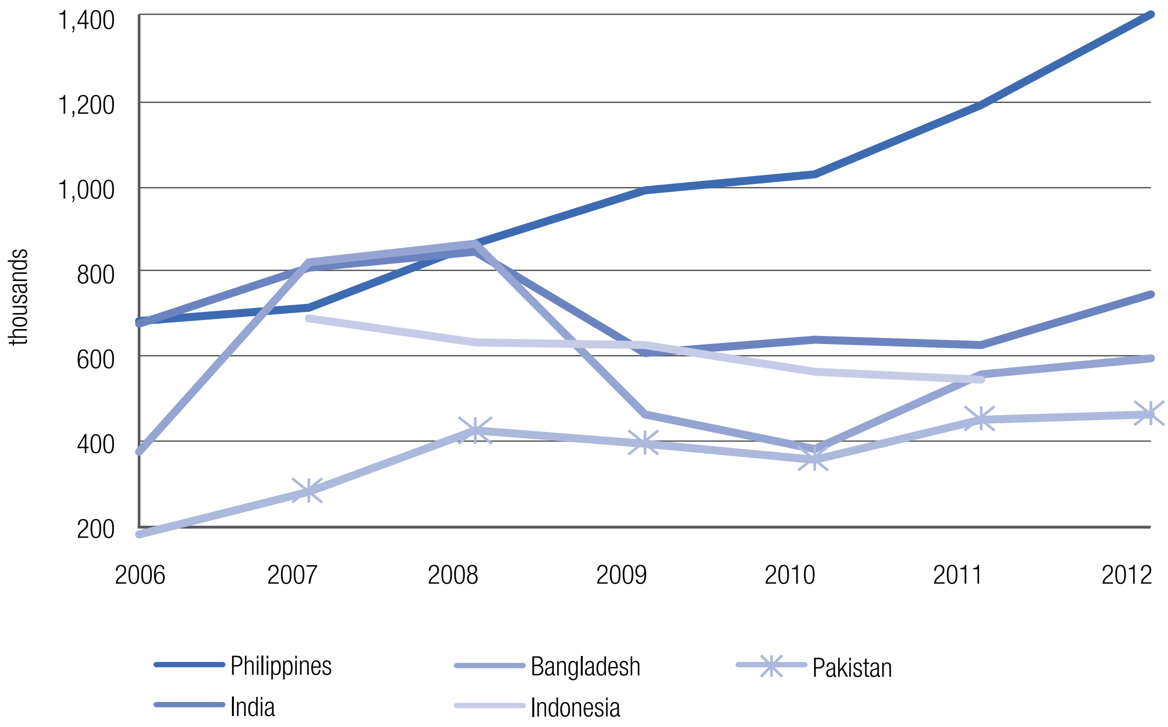
In 2012, more than 1 million Filipino nationals left the country to work in a country of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), in Singapore, or in Hong Kong, China. Labor migration from India to non-OECD countries amounted to 750,000 workers, and Bangladesh, Indonesia, and Pakistan saw half a million or more of their domestic workforce emigrate to non-OECD economies. More than 250,000 workers from Sri Lanka and 100,000 from Thailand have been leaving their country every year since 2008.

There has been a strong increase in labor migration flows to non-OECD countries for the Philippines, with flows steadily and rapidly increasing from 2006 to 2012 (Figure 1.2). On the other hand, flows from Indonesia have tended to decline somewhat throughout the period. In Bangladesh, India, and, to a lesser extent, Pakistan, patterns of labor migration to non-OECD countries have been less stable. A robust growth from 2006 to 2008 has been followed by a sharp drop with the global economic crisis. Currently, a new upward trend can be observed.

The drop during the global economic crisis is attributable to a collapse of the flows toward the United Arab Emirates, traditionally a main destination for lesser skilled labor migration. Indeed, the United Arab Emirates, as well as Saudi Arabia and other GCC countries are major destinations for workers from South Asia. Virtually all labor migrants from India and Pakistan, as well as about 80% of those coming from Sri Lanka and 75% of those from Bangladesh, headed toward a Gulf country in 2012.

These countries also receive a non-negligible share of workers from other countries of the region—25% of Indonesia's migrant workers and about 10% of Thailand's migrant workers. Despite the fact that the United Arab Emirates is also a top destination for Filipino workers, no drop was observed, certainly because they work mainly in domestic services and thus are not employed in the same sectors as those from the other countries. Labor migration from Indonesia to the main destination countries—Saudi Arabia and Malaysia—were 260,000 and 220,000, respectively, in 2007, i.e. prior to the outbreak of the global economic crisis. By 2011, these flows had decreased markedly, standing just above 130,000 each. By contrast, Taipei,China (74,000 Indonesian migrant workers), Hong Kong, China (50,000), and Singapore (48,000) saw flows from Indonesia increase to a new peak in 2011.

Figure 1.2 Labor Migration Flows from Selected Asian Countries to Non-OECD Countries



OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Source: National authorities of the countries concerned.

Foreign Workers in ASEAN Member States

Apart from the Gulf countries, the main destinations for labor migrants from Asia are the developing Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) member states, i.e. Malaysia or Thailand. The stock of foreign workers in Malaysia is over 1.5 million, accounting for 13% of total employment. Half of these come from Indonesia, although there are also significant numbers of nationals from Nepal, Myanmar, and Bangladesh working in Malaysia. They are employed mostly in the manufacturing sector (37%). The second main sector is agriculture (29%), where they account for a third of total employment. In Singapore, the 1.2 million foreign workers represent 35% of the labor force, of which 14% are skilled workers.

In Thailand, the unemployment rate stands between 1% and 2% of the labor force, with less than half a million workers out of a job. The recourse to labor migration is seen crucial to fill labor market needs, especially for lower skilled jobs. A total of 1.3 million workers—not counting the undocumented—coming mostly from Myanmar, were employed in Thailand in 2010. Of these,10% were domestic workers, representing 35% of employment in the sector.

Outside of the ASEAN region, foreign workers are also important in Taipei,China and Hong Kong, China. Half of the health and social services jobs in Taipei,China are occupied by foreign workers. Hong Kong, China receives mainly foreign domestic workers from the Philippines and Indonesia.

A large part of labor migration in the region continues to be irregular. The absence of legal status places undocumented migrants at risk of abuse, in terms of living conditions, working conditions, or wage. Attempts in combating irregular labor have been made, for example through regularization programs and cooperation between origin and destination countries, and may have reduced the magnitude of the phenomenon. However, the number of irregular migrants remains substantial.

Labor Market Outcomes of Asian Migrants

Overall unemployment in the OECD increased from 5.6% to 8% between December 2007 and November 2012, corresponding to a 42% growth. Although there is wide dispersion in the labor market situation across OECD countries, labor market outcomes of migrants have deteriorated both in absolute terms and relative to the native-born in almost every country. The unemployment rate of the foreign-born increased on average by 5 percentage points between 2008 and 2012, 2 points more than for the native-born.

Migrants from Latin America and North Africa seem to be the most heavily affected. Mexicans in the United States have the lowest employment rates today among the foreign-born in the country, a result driven by their strong presence in the two sectors heavily hit by the crisis (construction and manufacturing) and their overrepresentation among the low-skilled. Migrants from North Africa in Europe have also experienced enormous employment losses, reaching a record high unemployment of 26.6% in 2012.

In comparison, Asian immigrants in OECD countries did rather well, notably in Europe and in the United States, where their employment rates decreased less than for other foreign-born migrants and also for the native-born (see Table 1.3). The situation is, however, less clear-cut in Australia and Canada where migrants originating from Asia account for a large share of the total migrant population. In the case of Australia for example, the employment rate of Asian migrants decreased by almost 1 percentage point, while the unemployment rate was also decreasing. This could be due to a so-called "discouraged worker effect," i.e. persons dropping out of the workforce, as the participation rate has also strongly declined for Asian migrants compared with other groups.

Differences in labor market outcomes by country of destination are partly due to differences in the composition of migration across destination countries. Decomposing the results by gender and economy of origin, large differences become apparent both in the United States and in Europe (see Figures 1.3 and 1.4).

First, there are large differences across countries of origin, with a few migrant groups benefitting from better labor market integration (e.g. Japanese and Jordanian women), while for others, the situation changed little (e.g. migrants from the Republic of Korea) or deteriorated strongly (e.g. Japanese and Jordanian men, Malaysian and Indonesian women, and migrants from Bangladesh). Second, for some countries of origin, the evolution differs between the United States and Europe.

Table 1.3 Labor Market Indicators for Native and Foreign-Born in Selected OECD Countries, 2008–2012 (percentages)

		Employment rate			Unemployment rate			Participation rate		
		2008	2012	Variation	2008	2012	Variation	2008	2012	Variation
Australia	Native-born	75.0	73.7	-1.3	4.2	5.3	1.1	78.3	77.8	-0.5
	Foreign-born	69.8	69.9	0.0	4.6	5.4	0.7	73.2	73.9	0.6
	Asian-born	**67.6**	**66.9**	**-0.7**	**5.8**	**5.7**	**-0.1**	**71.7**	**70.9**	**-0.8**
Canada	Native-born	74.4	72.8	-1.6	6.0	7.0	1.1	79.1	78.3	-0.8
	Foreign-born	70.7	70.1	-0.6	7.2	8.5	1.3	76.2	76.6	0.4
	Asian-born	**68.6**	**68.0**	**-0.6**	**7.6**	**9.0**	**1.4**	**74.2**	**74.8**	**0.5**
OECD Europe	Native-born	65.6	63.4	-2.2	6.4	10.8	4.4	70.1	71.0	0.9
	Foreign-born	65.2	60.0	-5.1	10.2	17.3	7.1	72.6	72.6	0.0
	Asian-born	**63.1**	**61.8**	**-1.3**	**6.5**	**10.1**	**3.5**	**67.5**	**68.7**	**1.2**
United States	Native-born	70.3	65.6	-4.7	4.9	8.3	3.4	73.9	71.5	-2.4
	Foreign-born	71.8	67.7	-4.1	4.4	8.1	3.8	75.1	73.7	-1.4
	Asian-born	**70.9**	**67.1**	**-3.9**	**3.4**	**6.3**	**2.9**	**73.4**	**71.6**	**-1.9**

OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Source: OECD. 2013. *International Migration Outlook.* Paris: OECD Publishing.

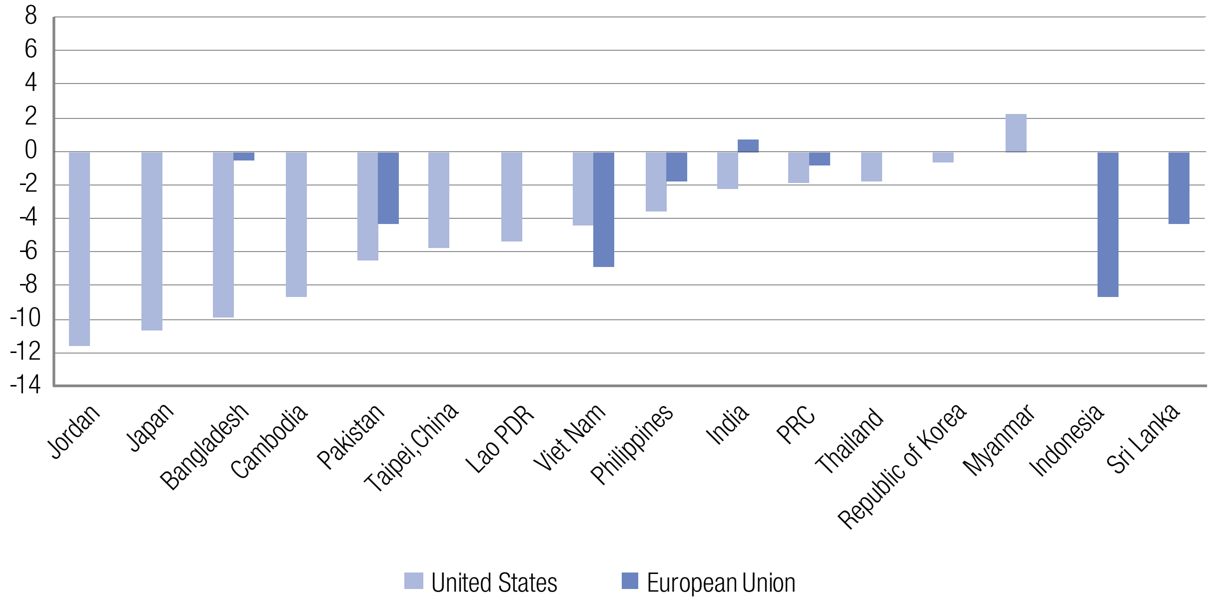
The employment rate of Indian migrants decreased in the United States but increased in Europe. A similar finding holds, for example, for Pakistani and Bangladeshi women. Finally, important differences by gender for specific countries of origin and destination are also noticeable. This applies, for example, to Japanese, Jordanian, or Vietnamese migrants. All of these differences can be largely explained by the characteristics of different migration corridors in terms of seniority of migration waves, migrant categories, skill level, and occupation/sector specificities.

Remittance Flows to Asia

The remittances sent by Asian migrants to their origin countries reached US$240 billion in 2012, accounting for 60% of all remittance flows toward developing countries, up 7.3% (or US$16 billion) from 2011 (Figure 1.5, left). Remittance flows to Asia have seen a constant year-on-year increase since 2000, when they stood at US$40 billion. In the period preceding the global recession of 2009, growth rates even reached very high levels, exceeding 25% per year in 2007 and 2008. After a pause in 2009, remittances have renewed their upward trend, albeit at a slower pace. The Indian subcontinent countries greatly contributed to the rise in 2012. Altogether, they received US$12 billion more than in 2011. On the other hand, remittances toward the PRC declined for the first time in 2012 (-1.8%), which explains why the total growth for Asia is the lowest recorded since 2000, aside from 2009.

The three largest recipient countries in the world are Asian countries. India and the PRC have been leading since 2006, and, with migrant remittances amounting to US$24 billion in 2012, the Philippines has taken over the third position from Mexico. Together with Bangladesh and Pakistan, these countries make up three quarters of the total remittance inflows to the region (Figure 1.5, right). This distribution within the region has remained relatively stable since 2007.

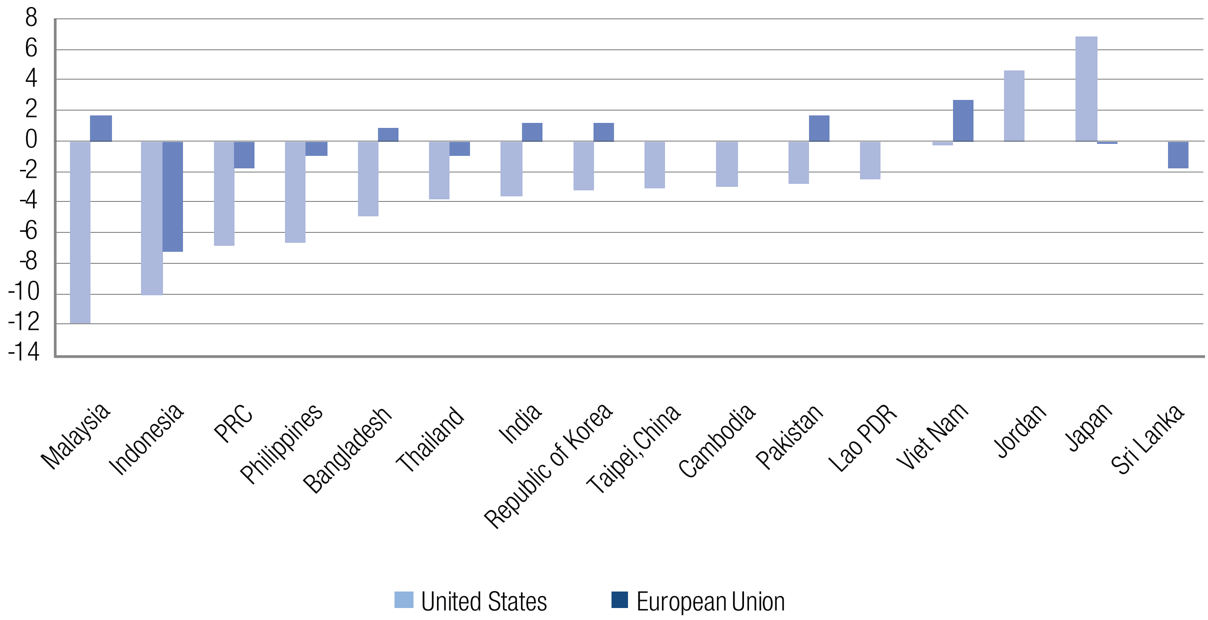
Figure 1.3 Changes in Employment Rate of Foreign-Born Men from Selected Asian Economies in the United States and in Europe between 2008 and 2012 (percentage points)



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Sources: EU Labour Force Survey; Current Population Survey (United States).

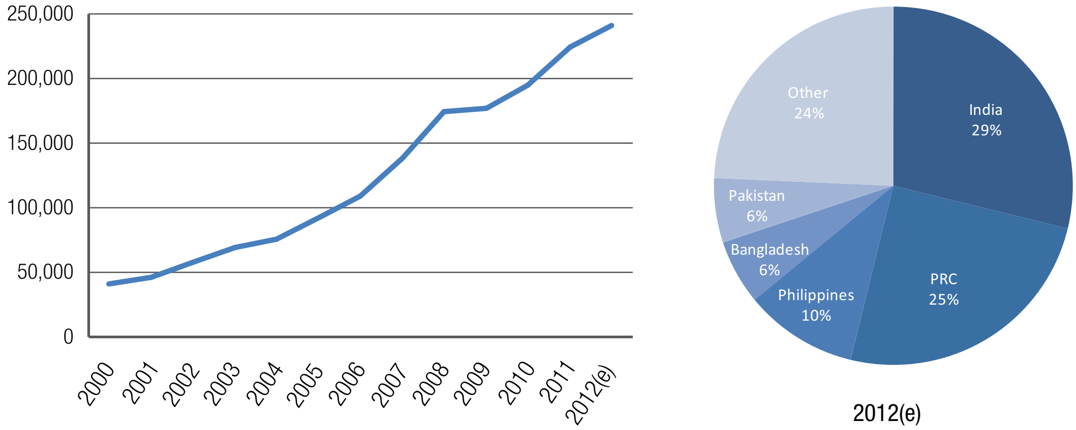
Figure 1.4 Changes in Employment Rate of Foreign-Born Women from Selected Asian Economies in the United States and in Europe between 2008 and 2012 (percentage points)



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Sources: EU Labour Force Survey; Current Population Survey (United States).

Figure 1.5 Remittance Flows to Asian Countries (US$ million and distribution by country)



PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: World Bank Remittances Database.

For a number of countries, remittances often represent a significant share of gross domestic product (GDP). This is especially the case for Tajikistan and the Kyrgyz Republic, which ranked first and third in the world in terms of remittances as a share of GDP in 2011, with 47% and 29%, respectively. With 22%, Nepal ranks seventh in the world by this measure. Aside from these extreme outliers, a few other countries of the region rely heavily on remittances. Migrant remittances exceed 5% of GDP in Bangladesh (11%), the Philippines (10%), Sri Lanka (9%), Viet Nam (7%), and Pakistan (6%).

The United States is by far the main sender for the region. About US$50 billion in remittances left the country to be transferred to Asia in 2011. Hong Kong, China follows, and in third and fourth place are the United Arab Emirates and Saudi Arabia, respectively.

That the Gulf countries constitute an important source of remittance flows to the Indian subcontinent is hardly surprising, considering the fact that they are a major destination for migrant workers from the region. Indeed, the increase in migration flows from India, Bangladesh, and Pakistan to the region, combined with favorable economic conditions in the oil countries in 2012 (with GDP growing at a rate of 4%–7% depending on the country), has played a major part in the increase in remittance flows to South Asia.

Among the other top 10 origin countries, four are Asian countries: India, Japan, Malaysia, and Singapore. Major intra-Asia corridors are India to Bangladesh, Japan to the PRC, Malaysia to Indonesia—representing more than half of Indonesia's remittance inflows—and Singapore to the PRC. The only other significant sending countries that are neither within the region nor oil-producing are Canada and the United Kingdom.

Projections for remittance inflows to the region suggest that the 2013 growth rate will be similar to that observed in 2012. No reversal of this trend is expected in 2014 or 2015, and the region is predicted to have slightly higher growth rates for remittance inflows than the rest of the world.

Special Focus: Migration of Women in and from Asia

The number of migrant women in the world is steadily increasing. There are now 111 million migrant women in the world, 25 million more than in 2000. However, their share in the global migrant population has decreased slightly, from 49% to 48%, as the world counts 31 million more migrant men now than in 2000. Although women have been participating in the increase of the global migrant stock, they have done so to a lesser extent than their male counterparts.

Interestingly, what happened in Asia explains most of this phenomenon. Indeed, between 2000 and 2013, the share of women among migrants in Asian countries has decreased by almost 4 percentage points to 42%, while other parts of the world displayed only small variations in the share of women—below 1.5 percentage points over the period.

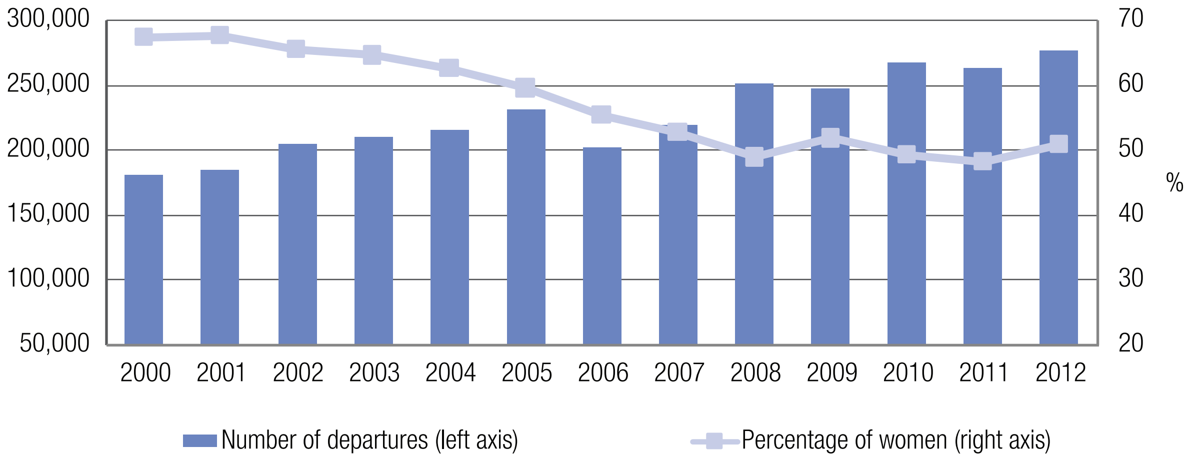
The number of migrant women in Asia has increased by 6 million over the period, from 23 million to 29 million, while the number of migrant men has increased by almost 50%, from 28 million to 41 million. This sharp increase in the number of migrant men, especially to countries in West Asia, has led to a substantial decline in the share of women in the four main receiving countries of the region, i.e. from 29% to 25% in the United Arab Emirates, 33% to 29% in Saudi Arabia, 27% to 21% in Qatar, and 39% to 30% in Kuwait. For West Asia as a whole, the share of women in the migrant population fell from 41% to 34%.

This is particularly visible in the case of migrants from Sri Lanka. Countries in the Middle East—Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, the United Arab Emirates, and Qatar—are the major labor-receiving countries, accounting for 59% of the Sri Lankan migrant workers. Participation in the departures for foreign employment fell from 67% in the beginning of the 2000s to around 50% in 2008 and reached a historical low in 2011, at 48% (Figure 1.6). A similar trend is observed regarding migration from the Philippines where men outnumber women among the temporary overseas workers since 2009.

In contrast, a feminization of migration has been observed in other parts of Asia, especially in East Asia. The share of women among migrants in that region now reaches 54%, up 1.2 percentage points from 2000 and 4.5 points from 1990. In Japan, there are now 450,000 more immigrant women than in 2000 and the share of women among immigrants increased by 2.6 percentage points from 2000, and currently stands at 55%. Hong Kong, China is another destination that has attracted a high number of migrant women over the last 20 years. The share of women went up from 49% in 1990 to 54% in 2000 and 59% most recently.

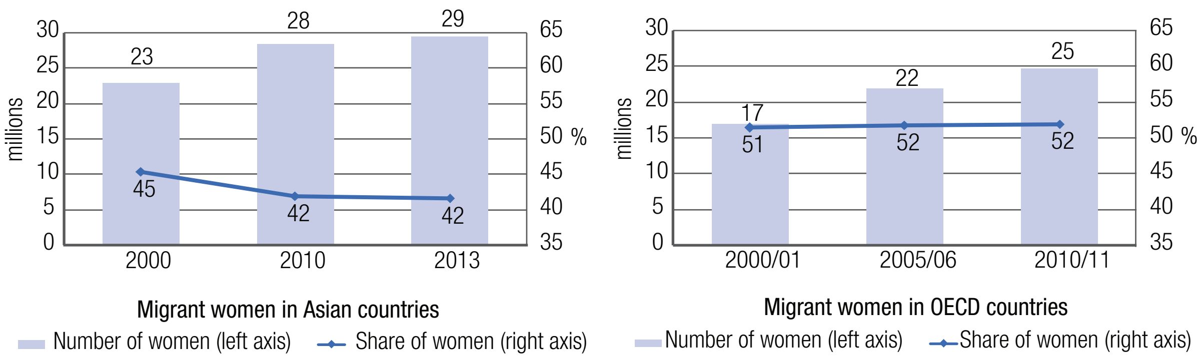
Significant increases in the number of immigrant women have also been recorded in Singapore and in Thailand, but their shares have only risen slightly, from 0.3 and 0.9 percentage points, respectively. However, the numbers of migrants concerned are not of the same order of magnitude as those recorded in West Asia and cannot counterbalance the overall decline in the share of women that is driven by those countries.

Figure 1.6 Departures for Foreign Employment from Sri Lanka, 2000–2012



Source: Sri Lanka Foreign Employment Agency.

Figure 1.7 Migrant Women (15+) Living in Asian Countries and Migrant Women from Asia in OECD Countries



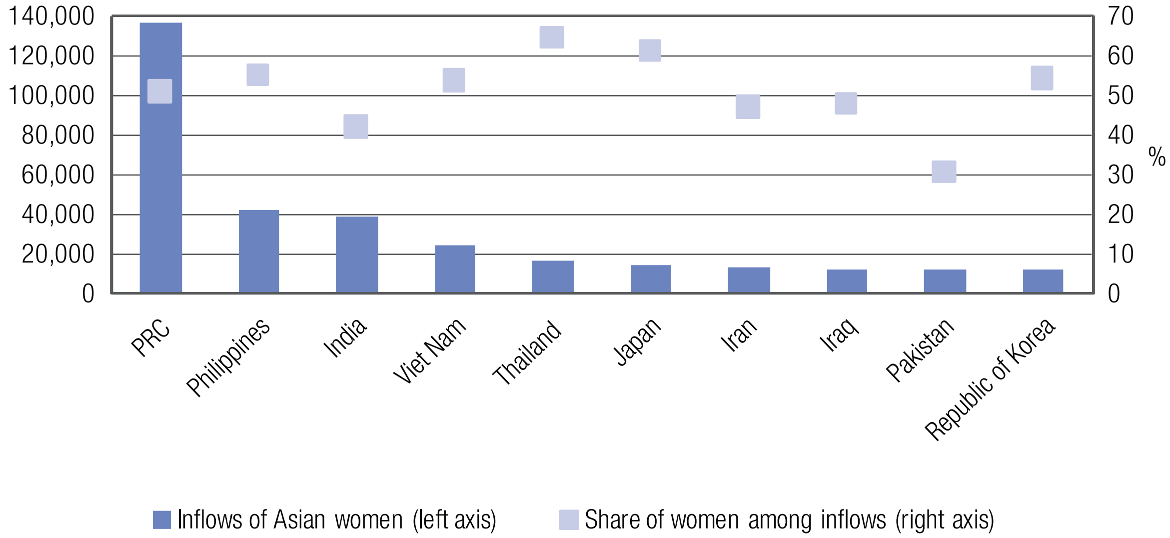
OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Sources: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Trends in International Migrant Stock: Migrants by Age and Sex; OECD, Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries (DIOC).

Migrant Women in OECD Countries

The number of Asian migrant women aged 15 and above in the OECD has risen from 17 million to 25 million over the last decade. In contrast to what is observed in Asia, the share of women among Asian migrants aged 15 and above in the non-Asian OECD area has been increasing slightly, from 51% to 52% (Figure 1.7).

Figure 1.8 Top 10 Origin Countries of Flows of Migrant Women from Asia and Share of Women among Total Flows to the OECD, 2011



OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Source: OECD, International Migration Database.

In 2011, women represented 47% of Asian migration flows to the OECD countries for which data are available by gender and country of origin. Migration flows originating from Thailand, the Philippines, Japan, and the Republic of Korea consist mainly of women (Figure 1.8), while only a third or less of migrants coming from Pakistan, Bangladesh, or Sri Lanka are women. Globally, a consistently smaller share of migrant women from Asia is observed among the flows than among the stocks of migrants, suggesting that they stay longer on average than their male peers. This seems partly linked with the fact that women are more often found among family migrants who tend to settle in the host country.

Labor Market Outcomes of Migrant Women from Asia

With a participation rate of 59%, an employment rate at 54%, and an unemployment rate below 8%, Asian migrant women living in the OECD displayed relatively favorable labor market outcomes in 2005/06. For those with a tertiary education, these figures were 70%, 66% and 6.0%, respectively.

The situation of women from the Philippines in OECD countries' labor markets was particularly favorable, with only 4.6% unemployed and a participation rate of 81%. The unemployment rate of women from the PRC was in line with the Asian average, but employment and participation rates were 5 percentage points above average. In contrast, the labor market integration of women born in Pakistan and in Bangladesh appears to be more difficult with unemployment rates around 15% and participation rates below 40%. This is clearly linked with the fact that few women from these countries arrived for employment, in contrast to women from the Philippines.

A recurring issue concerning female migrants in Asia is that they are often employed in sectors that are not always adequately covered by the legal framework, or are difficult to inspect. For example, 88% of female migrant workers from Sri Lanka are employed as housemaids. This can put them in a vulnerable position with respect to the working conditions or the payment of their wages.

Conclusion

Labor migration from and within Asia is of growing importance to meet labor needs both within the region and in non-Asian OECD countries. Although in terms of global migration flows to the OECD, intra-European migration is still somewhat more important in number, Asia is clearly the number one source region for managed labor migration flows, and its importance has steadily grown in recent years. In particular, the PRC has shown significant growth in recent years as an origin country, and 1 in 10 new immigrants to the OECD is Chinese. Other key origin countries are the Philippines, Pakistan, and Viet Nam. Especially the OECD settlement countries—Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States—host significant numbers of skilled labor migrants from Asia.

Intra-Asian migration to non-OECD countries is still largely of a different nature, mainly low-educated and often of irregular nature. Despite a decline in 2009–2010, the countries of the Middle East are still the major destination for South Asian migrant workers, especially the less skilled. A number of rising economies in the region, such as Malaysia, Singapore, Taipei,China, Thailand, and Hong Kong, China, are attracting a growing share of workers from other parts of Asia. These economies often show low unemployment and labor shortages and tend to fulfill their labor market needs with migrant workers from the other economies in the region with which the wage gap is still substantial. These links in terms of labor migration between Asian economies motivate the reinforcement of migration management policies which countries have been putting in place over the recent years, in order to maximize the benefits of labor migration for both origin and destination economies, and for the individuals. The planned development of a free mobility area for skilled labor migration within ASEAN can be expected to have a significant impact, both on the size and composition of the flows within the region and also to OECD countries.

Migration patterns of migrant women from and within Asia have shown diverging trends in recent years. Whereas the migrant populations in East Asia and to non-Asian OECD countries show some indications of feminization, the opposite is observed in West Asia, where a strong decline in the share of women among the immigrant population has been observed. Even among the former, one also sees little feminization among recent flows in contrast to what is observed regarding the migration stocks. This is partly due to the fact that migrant women are more often family migrants who stay longer.

II. The International Mobility of Students and Its Links with Labor Migration

International student migration is high on the policy agenda in many countries, and there are several reasons for this. First, international students are an increasingly important part of temporary migration movements and the number of international students has grown since 2005 in virtually all countries without exception. Asia has been a main driver behind this growth, and its importance as an origin and also increasingly as a destination region has grown steadily. As destinations have diversified, competition on the international student market has also increased.

Second, a growing number of countries consider international students as a source of labor migration. The background is that there is ample evidence that foreign education is often discounted on the host country's labor market, particularly if the foreign education has been obtained in a country where the overall development level is lower. More generally, there is often uncertainty by employers about the value of foreign degrees. In contrast, international students have, upon graduation, a domestic tertiary degree that is easily "recognized" by employers. There is thus no uncertainty regarding actual value or other recognition issues.

Third, facilitating student mobility is often seen as an important element in a broader strategy to promote skills development and mobility. This is a particularly important issue in free mobility areas, such as the European Union (EU)/European Free Trade Association (EFTA) and the developing Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Economic Community, where a free mobility area for skilled labor is scheduled to be introduced by 2015.

Fourth, and closely linked with the second point, there has been some concern about potential abuse of the student channel as an easy and less controlled "backdoor" for labor migration.

Last, the international student market is also of growing importance as an economic factor, with export education being a key source of foreign exchange, particularly in countries where both tuition fees and numbers of international students are high.

Trends in International Student Migration

International study continues to draw a considerable number of students from around the world to other countries. In Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and Asian non-OECD countries for which data are available, their number is now well above 3 million, an increase of more than a third since 2005 (Table 2.1). Note that these figures refer to students in full-degree programs, i.e. they do not include the many students who study abroad for just a semester or two and get credit for this in their home university. Here, too, there have been significant increases in recent years. Such rather short-term student movements are facilitated by scholarships, such as the Erasmus Programme in Europe, and other instruments such as the ASEAN University Network in Asia, which includes a credit transfer mechanism.

Note also that such increases in the stocks of international students often reflect much stronger increases in new inflows of international students—for which data, however, are scarce—since international student data refer to students studying in full-degree programs which generally last several years. In addition, some countries, such as the Republic of Korea, New Zealand, the Czech Republic, and the Slovak Republic have seen much greater increases. The strongest relative growth has been observed in the Republic of Korea and the Slovak Republic, where international student migration grew more than fourfold over the period 2005–2011.

In absolute numbers, the United States is the most important destination country, hosting 25% of all international students in the OECD, followed by the United Kingdom (15%), France (10%), and Australia (9%). There is thus significant concentration in the English-speaking countries. Japan and the Republic of Korea have market shares of 5% and 2%, respectively. The Republic of Korea's market share has increased ninefold since 2000, by far the strongest of any country. Relative to the total tertiary student population, however, the Republic of Korea still has relatively few international students (Figure 2.1). With about 2% international students, it ranks lowest among the top 10 destination countries. The highest proportions are found in Australia and Austria, with 20%, followed by the United Kingdom (17%).

Among Asian non-OECD countries, the People's Republic of China (PRC), Malaysia, and Singapore are also major receiving countries. With almost 300,000 international students in 2011, the PRC now ranks as the third main destination country for international students worldwide. It has more than doubled its number of international students since 2005. In 2010, Singapore hosted 92,000 foreign students, closely followed by Malaysia, with 90,000 foreign students. Malaysia has seen a strong increase in the number of its foreign students in recent years, with a doubling in 5 years. A further emerging destination country is Thailand. Although its importance still lags well behind that of the PRC, Malaysia, and Singapore, the numbers have nevertheless more than tripled since 2005.

In the OECD area, international students from Asia now account for 52% of all international students, with their total number approaching almost 1.5 million. Asia as an origin region has seen disproportionate growth over the past 5–10 years. Its importance relative to other origin regions has increased in all of the top 10 destination countries for international students with the exception of

Table 2.1 International Tertiary-Level Students in OECD and Selected Non-OECD Asian Countries

	Actual years		Definition of international student	Number of international students		End of period relative to beginning of period	Average annual growth rate	Value relative to population 20–24 x 100	% of total tertiary enrollment	Percentage relative to the percentage of foreign-born in the population	% of international students from Asian countries	
				2005	2011						2005	2011
Australia	2005	2011	N	177,000	262,600	1.48	6.8	16.3	19.8	0.74	78.5	80.7
Austria	2005	2011	F	34,500	70,600	2.05	12.7	13.4	19.5	1.22	14.1	11.9
Belgium	2005	2011	N	21,100	37,900	1.80	10.3	5.5	8.2	0.55	7.3	9.6
Canada	2006	2011	N	75,500	106,300	1.41	7.1	4.4	7.4	0.37	51.0	54.1
Chile	2009	2011	N	2,200	2,900	1.32	14.8	0.2	0.3	..	1.4	0.8
Czech Republic	2005	2011	F	18,500	38,000	2.05	12.7	5.6	8.5	1.34	8.9	9.8
Denmark	2005	2011	N	10,300	20,300	1.97	12.0	5.9	7.8	0.99	13.4	11.6
Estonia	2005	2011	N	900	1,400	1.56	7.6	1.3	2.0	0.13	9.8	14.5
Finland	2005	2011	F	8,400	15,700	1.87	11.0	4.8	5.1	1.03	29.3	38.1
France	2005	2011	F	236,500	268,200	1.13	2.1	6.9	11.9	1.02	16.9	21.8
Germany	2008	2011	N	177,800	176,700	0.99	-0.2	3.5	6.4	0.49	33.0	31.4
Greece	2005	2011	F	15,700	32,800	2.09	13.1	5.5	5.0	0.75	83.4	46.1
Hungary	2009	2011	N	14,500	16,500	1.14	6.7	2.6	4.3	0.91	18.5	22.3
Iceland	2008	2011	N	700	1,100	1.57	16.3	4.6	5.8	0.54	8.9	13.3
Ireland	2008	2011	N	12,800	12,700	0.99	-0.3	4.3	6.5	0.39	27.5	20.0
Israel	2010	2011	F	2,900	3,900	1.34	34.5	0.7	1.1	0.04	4.6	4.4
Italy	2005	2011	F	44,900	73,500	1.64	8.6	2.3	3.7	0.41	10.2	22.8
Japan	2005	2011	F	125,900	151,500	1.20	3.1	2.4	3.9	..	94.2	93.3
Republic of Korea	2005	2011	F	15,500	62,700	4.05	26.2	1.9	1.9	..	92.1	94.1
Luxembourg	2006	2010	F	1,100	2,800	2.55	26.3	8.9	..	..	2.5	5.1
The Netherlands	2005	2011	N	26,400	38,400	1.45	6.4	3.7	4.9	0.43	15.3	15.9
New Zealand	2005	2011	N	40,800	40,900	1.00	0.0	12.6	15.6	0.66	76.6	67.9
Norway	2005	2011	F	10,200	16,600	1.63	8.5	5.1	7.2	0.58	20.0	20.4
Poland	..	2011	N	..	20,700	..	..	0.7	1.0	0.56	..	17.9
Portugal	2008	2011	N	8,100	13,400	1.65	18.3	2.3	3.4	0.41	2.8	4.8
Slovak Republic	2005	2011	N	1,600	8,700	5.44	32.6	2.2	3.8	..	21.7	6.8
Slovenia	2005	2011	N	1,100	2,000	1.82	10.5	1.6	1.9	0.17	1.7	3.8
Spain	2005	2011	N	17,700	62,600	3.54	23.4	2.5	3.2	0.22	3.0	4.4
Sweden	2005	2011	N	18,900	36,500	1.93	11.6	5.6	7.9	0.52	3.1	46.0
Switzerland	2008	2011	N	31,700	41,800	1.32	9.7	8.6	16.2	0.59	10.1	10.5
Turkey	2005	2011	F	18,200	31,100	1.71	9.3	0.5	0.8	..	53.7	57.0
United Kingdom	2005	2011	N	318,400	419,900	1.32	4.7	9.8	16.8	1.40	46.3	51.9
United States	2005	2011	N	590,200	709,600	1.20	3.1	3.2	3.4	0.26	63.2	71.7
OECD				**2,080,000**	**2,800,300**	**1.35**	**6.1**	**3.3**	**4.8**	**0.38**	**48.9**	**52.0**
OECD averages						**1.82**	**11.5**	**4.8**	**6.7**	**0.62**	**28.8**	**29.8**
PRC	2005	2011	F	141,100	292,600	2.07	12.9	0.2	0.9	18.69	..	87.4
Indonesia	..	2010	F	..	6,400	..		0.0	0.1	2.39	..	92.4
Saudi Arabia	..	2011	F	..	34,900	..		1.4	3.4	0.12	..	47.6
Malaysia	2006	2012	F	44,400	90,000	2.03	12.5	3.2	..	..	..	..
Singapore	2005	2010	F	66,000	91,500	1.39	6.8	27.5	..	..	..	..
Thailand	2005	2010	F	5,400	17,200	3.19	26.1	0.4	..	..	..	..

F = foreign students, N = nonresident students, OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Notes: For definition of "international students," see Box 2.1. The data cover international students enrolled in full-degree programs. Information on data for Israel: http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602.

Source: OECD Education database except for Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand (national sources). For the PRC, calculations are based on Project Atlas.

Box 2.1. Definition of "International Students"

Because of data limitations, the precise magnitude of international student migration is still somewhat uncertain, although the orders of magnitude are well known. Data on *foreign students* have been collected for well over a decade, but these numbers often include a considerable number of students who either migrated with their parents before taking up their studies or, in some cases, have even been resident in the host country since birth. This is notably the case in countries such as Germany with long-standing immigrant populations and which do not provide automatic citizenship to native-born offspring of immigrants. The students who are of interest in the context of international migration, however, are those who have migrated for the purpose of taking up studies. Such *international students* are identified in national statistics either as nonresident students or as students who obtained their prior education in a different country. In either case, the statistics on international students include a small group of nonresident nationals who have returned to their country of citizenship to study, but the error as a consequence of including these is far less important than that made by adopting the "foreign-student" definition. In this chapter, the concept of "international student" is the one retained for analysis, keeping in mind that for some countries or over some periods, the statistics referred to will actually be for foreign students. This is notably the case for the Republic of Korea and Japan, where nevertheless the vast majority of foreign students are international students, since migration to these countries is a rather recent phenomenon.

Austria and Germany. Japan is also among the exceptions, but Asian migrants still account for more than 9 out of 10 international students in that country.

Table 2.1 provides a measure of the relative importance of international study, namely the number of international students in relation to the resident population of 20–24-year-olds, the source population of most tertiary students. This measure is close to or exceeds 10% in only a handful of countries, namely the United Kingdom, Australia, Austria, New Zealand, and Singapore. It averages about 4.8% of the resident population of 20–24-year-olds and provides an indication of the possible increase in the size of this age group if all international students were to stay on. In practice, as will be seen in more detail in the next section, only about one fourth appear to do so on average, so that the increase actually observed is closer to about 1% of the size of this age group. In contrast, there has been a 2.3% increase in the total foreign-born population on average over the past decade. Thus, at current stay rates, the incidence of international study would still need to increase substantially in order to become a significant source of migration in many countries.

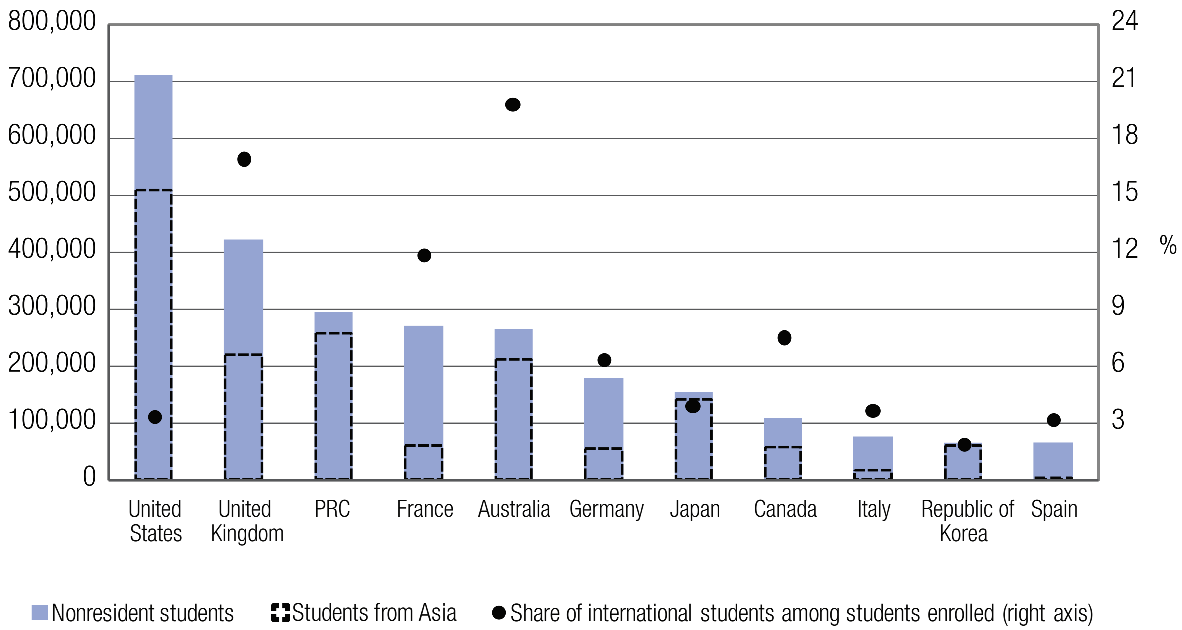
An alternative measure is given by the share of international students relative to the overall share of the foreign-born in the population. This ratio is larger than 1 in only a few OECD countries, namely Austria, Finland, France, Japan, and the United Kingdom. Asian countries, and the PRC in particular, have the largest ratios, indicating a rather significant internationalization of their tertiary education sector relative to the overall population.

Destination Countries of Asian Students

Although some diversification regarding destination countries is on track, more than three quarters of Asian students found themselves in only four host OECD countries: the United States (36%), Australia (16%), the United Kingdom (15%), and Japan (10%).

Figure 2.1 shows the numbers of Asian students among the main destination countries of international students in the OECD and in the PRC. As is also visible in Table 2.1, in the PRC,

Figure 2.1 Top 10 Destination Countries of Nonresident Students



PRC = People's Republic of China.

Note: For Japan, the Republic of Korea, and Italy, data refer to noncitizen students. For the PRC, data on the share of students from Asia are based on 67% of the foreign students.

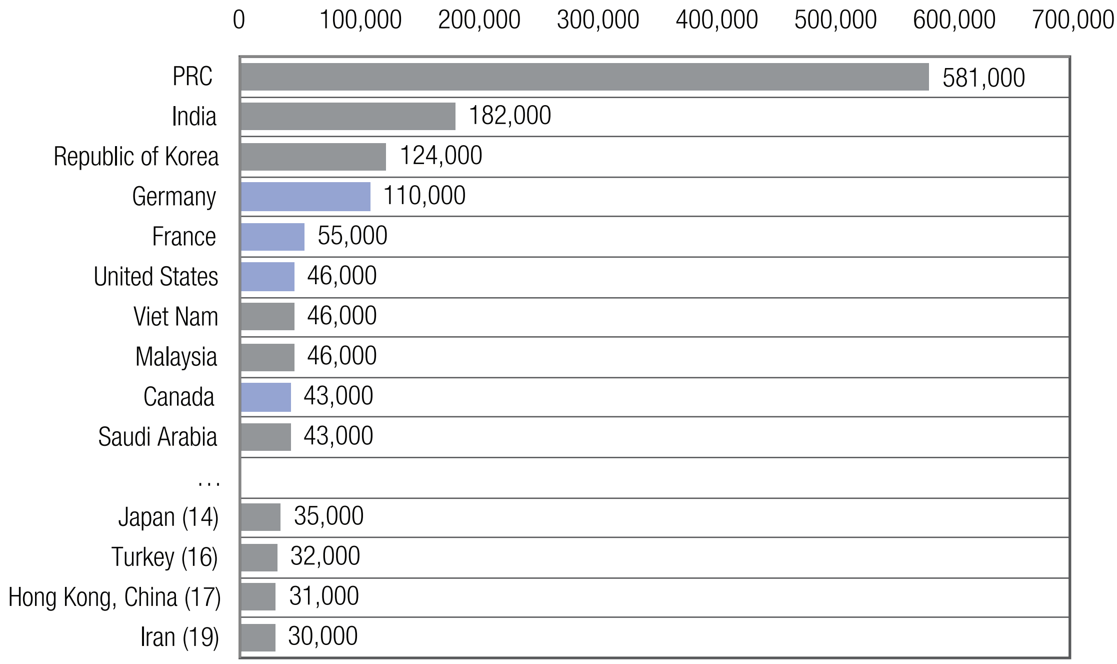
Source: OECD Education Database. For the PRC, calculations are based on Project Atlas.

the Republic of Korea, and Japan, the overwhelming majority of international students are from other Asian countries. Globally, the PRC is now the second most important destination country of Asian students after the United States, where students from Asia account for almost three quarters of all international students. The shares are also high in Australia, where Asian students account for the majority of international students. In contrast, in most European countries, students from Asia account for only a small part of the international student population.

Origin Countries

The predominance of Asia in the international student market is also obvious with respect the main origin countries of student migration. The top three are Asian countries. In 2011, there were more than half a million international students from the PRC in the OECD alone, accounting for one in five of the total. India and the Republic of Korea followed, with considerable distance, in second and third place, respectively. With Viet Nam, Malaysia, and Saudi Arabia, three further Asian countries are among the top 10 origin economies of international students (Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2 Top 10 and Top 10 Asian Origin Economies among Nonresident Students in OECD Countries, 2011



OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Note: For Austria, the Czech Republic, Finland, France, Greece, Japan, the Republic of Korea, Israel, Italy, Norway, and Turkey, data refer to noncitizen students.

Source: OECD Education Database.

Students from the PRC represent by far the largest group, with 21% of all international students enrolled in the OECD area. The second largest proportion of international students comes from India (6.5%).

Whereas Chinese students are now significantly present in all major destination countries, there is a strong concentration of Indian students in just a few countries. A total of 46% of Indian students abroad are enrolled in the United States and a further 22% in the United Kingdom.

Tuition Fees

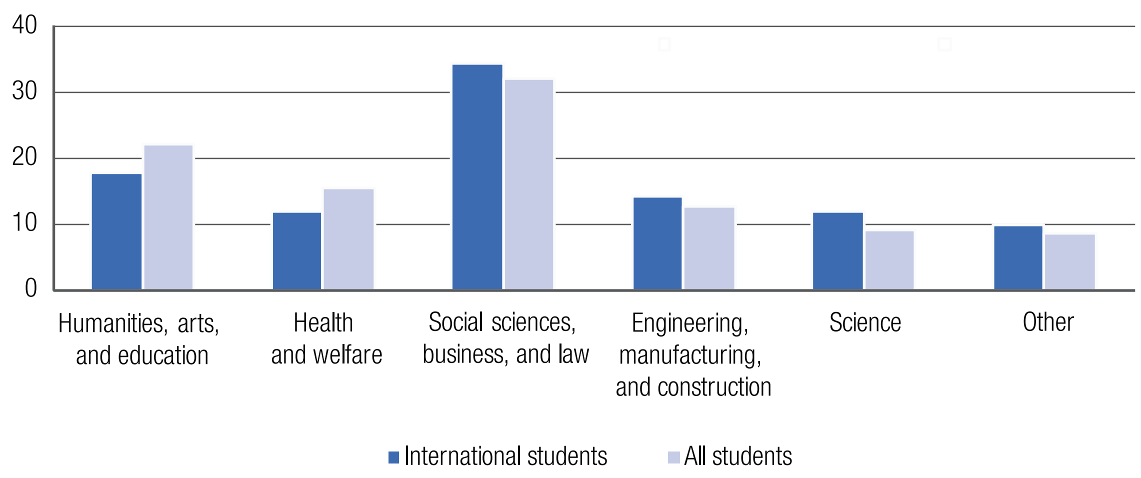
Tuition fees for international students vary widely. Many countries charge higher fees for international students and it is not uncommon for yearly fees to reach more than €10,000. Some countries, namely the Czech Republic and Finland, do not charge fees for students if they study in the host country's language but do so otherwise. In countries such as Australia, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom, high tuition fees coupled with significant numbers of international student have made education an important economic sector as well.

Denmark is an interesting case (OECD 2013a). Having introduced tuition fees for international students in 2007, it saw a strong decline in the number of international students enrolled in degree programs in 2008, from 12,700 to 6,400, but an immediate rebound to the 2007 level the very next year and a further increase to 20,300 in 2011.[1] The fall in enrollments as a result of the introduction of tuition fees thus seems to have been merely an interlude. Some major destination countries which charge little to no tuition fees, such as France and Germany, have seen much lower growth in student numbers than some of those countries which do, suggesting that the link between the level of tuition fees and a country's "attractiveness" for international students is small. Nevertheless, this seems to be at least in part linked with language issues, as English-speaking countries have a natural advantage.

Fields of Study

International students are well represented in all major fields of study and the differences in terms of specialization compared with the total student population are generally not large—at least not at the aggregated level (Figure 2.3).[2] Compared with the total student population, they are more often found in the social sciences and business, as well as in the sciences and in engineering. In contrast, they are underrepresented in the humanities, where full mastery of the host country's language is particularly important. International students are also underrepresented among the students in the health and welfare areas.

Figure 2.3 Main Fields of Study of International Students, 2009



Source: OECD Education Database.

[1] Of the decline in 2008, 90% occurred among students from OECD countries. The majority of the rebound was attributable to this same group.

[2] Unfortunately, there are no data available on field of study by origin region, to see how extensively the fields of study chosen by Asian students differ from those of students from other regions.

Attracting International Students

A number of countries have specific programs in place to attract international students. Japan, for example, introduced a plan in 2008 with the objective to have 300,000 foreign students by 2020. The plan includes five pillars: (i) promotion of studying in Japan; (ii) facilitations regarding entry and enrollment; (iii) globalization of Japanese universities; (iv) creating a better studying environment for international students; and (v) possibilities for status changes after graduation. Among the measures that have been taken in this context are information campaigns about studying in Japan; promotion of student exchange/international credit transfers and joint degree programs; scholarships and housing for foreign students and support for job searching after studies. In terms of language, Japan has taken a dual approach. On the one hand, the strategy includes the promotion of Japanese language education abroad and training courses in Japanese language for international students. At the same time, there is also an extension of full-degree programs in English and an internationalization of the teaching staff.

The PRC has also taken significant efforts to internationalize its tertiary education sector. Particular effort has been placed on attracting post-graduates (Box 2.2).

Box 2.2 Programs to Attract Foreign Talent into the Tertiary Education Sector in the People's Republic of China

In recent years, the People's Republic of China (PRC) has introduced a number of financial incentive tools to attract researchers from abroad. The 1000 Talent Plan provides, under certain conditions, leading researchers in the domains of science and technology with a lump-sum subsidy of CNY1 million (about €120,000) and a research subsidy between CNY3 million and CNY5 million, in addition to the regular salary. Since 2008, there have been more than 2,700 participants in this initiative. While the 1000 Talent Plan is not specifically focused on the university sector, other instruments, such as the Chang Jiang Scholars Program are more targeted. The program provides a bonus of CNY200,000–CNY360,000 (€24,000–€44,000) for foreign university professors; more than 1,800 scholars had taken part in this program by 2011. The Chinese Academy of Sciences provides for the sponsorship of young academics with high potential through its 100 Talent Plan. These are eligible for a CNY100,000–CNY200,000 installment allowance and further special allowances. More than 2,600 scholars have benefited from this initiative since its start. Finally, the State Fund of Natural Sciences has created a National Science Fund for Outstanding Young Scholars, providing financial support for research projects. By 2011, more than 2,600 persons had received funding under this fund.

Source: Wang Shi-ping and Yu Ping. 2013. Speech on Labor Immigration in Asia. Presentation given by Yu Ping at the 3rd Roundtable on Labor Migration in Asia. Bangkok, Thailand, 23–25 January 2013. http://www.adbi.org/files/2013.01.24.cpp.sess5.2.ping.labor.immigration.asia.pdf

International Students as a Source of Labor

International study is often the first step toward eventual settlement in the host country. However, many international programs are being given in English, and graduating students do not necessarily have a broad range of employment opportunities in a country of study where English is not commonly spoken in the workplace. In countries where a large proportion of the population speaks English, the latter can serve as a transition language while the immigrant learns the language of the country, which will most likely be necessary for full integration into the host country.

In recent years, a growing number of countries have sought to attract international students as sources of labor, both by allowing them to work during studies and by providing them with opportunities to change status after their studies and to become labor migrants.

Work during Studies

Most study destinations now allow students to work during studies, generally between 20 and 24 hours a week during each term. Often, there are specific provisions for additional work during the semester break. In Japan, for example, students may work for a maximum of 28 hours per week or 8 hours per day during the summer and winter breaks. In Taipei,China, international students can work 16 hours per week during their studies. Although student employment may not necessarily help in finding work later, it does provide the student with some familiarity regarding the local labor market and practices. Work within one's field can be particularly important for increasing the likelihood of finding employment after graduation.

Quite often, however, student work is in lower-skilled occupations. On the one hand, this nevertheless provides students with financing and first contact with the labor market, and therefore enhances the probability to remain in the country. On the other, these are the types of jobs where competition with low-educated native-born youths is most likely, and there may be concern about a negative impact on their labor market chances. Nevertheless, the few available studies suggest that such a negative impact tends to be small, even in countries where there are many international students.[3]

Particularly in the non-English speaking European countries, provisions for the labor market access of international students have been liberalized significantly over the past few years. At the same time, there has also been increased concern about compliance, in particular with respect to students working rather than studying.

Status Changes after Graduation

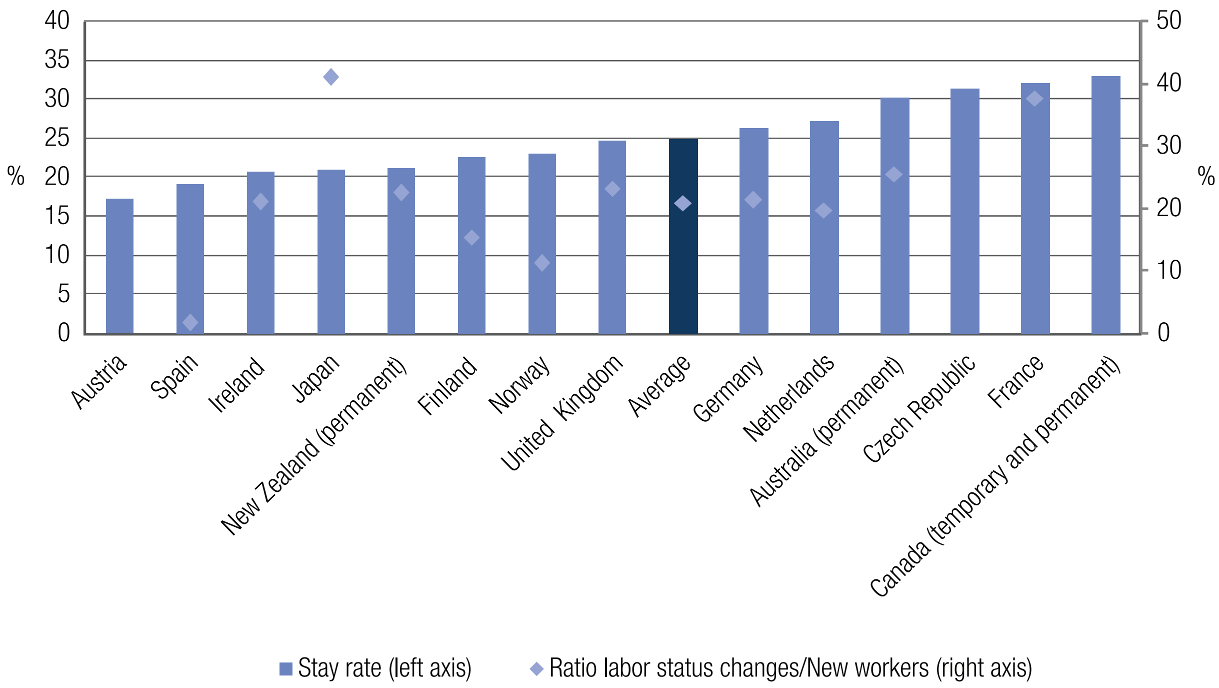
For the student, studying in a foreign country provides the opportunity to acquire country-specific knowledge and to adjust to the country's society before making a longer-term commitment regarding staying in the host country. For employers, after study, such graduates have a local degree readily recognized in the host country's labor market. Such recognition issues are still a major obstacle for international labor migration of persons with foreign degrees, in spite of efforts to facilitate recognition, such as in the ASEAN region. Having a host country degree also tends to be associated with better mastery of the host country's language, although this is not necessarily the case when the study language was a foreign language. In addition, it may also signal other qualities about the potential immigrant, including perseverance, self-management, and willingness to adapt to the host country's environment. Persons having studied in the country have also generally acquired some knowledge of job search techniques and work practices in the country of study, facilitating successful

[3] In New Zealand, for example, where international students make up 2.5% of the working-age population, McLeod and Maré (2013) did not find much evidence of a negative impact.

transition into the workforce. Finally, student migrants are young, which means in practice that the fiscal returns to their education accumulate over their entire working life.

OECD estimates suggest that about 15%–30% of international students stay on in their country of study (Figure 2.4), either for family-related reasons, such as marriage to a resident, or for work reasons.[4] In Japan and France, almost half of all new permanent labor migration comes directly from the study route.

Figure 2.4 Share of International Students Who Change Status and Remain, and the Percentage of New Labor Migration Coming from the Student Channel, Selected OECD Countries, around 2008



OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Source: Adapted from OECD. 2013. *Recruiting Immigrant Workers: Germany.* Paris: OECD Publishing.

[4] These estimates tend to give a distorted and indeed conservative picture of the percentage of graduates who stay on, because they are calculated as a percentage of students who do not renew their student visas, and this may occur because a student fails to complete a study program and returns home. Stock-to-flow ratios for student visas, which provide an approximate indication of average study duration of exiting students, tend to give values of between 1 and 2 years, which seem short compared to the usual duration of an undergraduate study program. This may imply that the programs in which they are enrolled are short or that many international students drop out before completion. Student visa data systems do not normally carry information on whether or not a student has successfully completed a program of study.

Not long ago, status changes of international students were often prohibited. This was sometimes motivated by a desire to protect the domestic workforce against competition. More often, however, it was deemed that international students, in particular those from developing countries, should return to their origin countries after their studies, to avoid a brain drain.

This perspective has changed since and some specific tools have been developed to facilitate the study-to-work transition of international students, which will be discussed in turn.

Job Search Visa for Graduates

The job search visa for graduates is the most common policy, and often embedded in facilitated pathways to residence. Many countries allow international students to remain after graduation and seek a job. The maximum duration varies from 3 years in Canada to 6 months in most European countries. Japan has recently increased the duration from 6 months to 1 year. Some countries, including the Republic of Korea, have job search durations that vary with the level of study, with the longest job search duration given to students with the highest level (i.e. doctorate) degrees.

Waiver of Labor Market Test

Many countries admit foreign workers only if no domestic candidate is available, and a so-called "labor market test" applies to this effect. One way of facilitating study-to-work transitions for international students is to waive this labor market test for international students. This is, for example, the approach taken in Germany.

Bonus Points for Domestic Qualifications in Countries with Points Systems

Several countries have points-based systems, which select immigrants on the basis of a range of characteristics (e.g. age, language knowledge, qualifications, work experience, job offer, etc.), each attributed a certain number of points; immigrants above the threshold are generally admitted. Most countries that have such systems provide bonus points for persons with host country degrees. This is notably the case in Australia, Canada, and New Zealand, which have long-standing systems in this respect, but also in more recently established points systems in European countries such as Austria.

Facilitations in Access to Permanent Residency or Citizenship

Finally, in countries where duration of residence criteria apply for access to permanent residency, years of study can be given a higher weight. Often, this is rather implicit, for example by counting twice the years of residence before a certain age, as has been the case in Switzerland. Likewise, having a domestic degree may be considered favorably in applications for citizenship. The PRC provides facilitated access to citizenship for migrants who benefited from the 1000 Talent Plan (see Box 2.2).

Specific Quotas in Standard Migration Programs

Finally, there is the possibility to set aside specific quotas for international students in standard labor migration programs. In the United States, for example, apart from the highly-skilled H1-B visa that has a 65,000 cap, an additional 20,000 places a year are set aside for international students who have graduated with a Masters or higher level degree from a US university or college.

Conclusion

International students are an increasingly important part of international migration movements, and have notably been a driver of skilled migration within and from Asia. More generally, Asia's role in international education is growing, both as an origin and increasingly also as a destination region. The Republic of Korea is a prime example in this respect, as it had the strongest growth in the numbers of international students since 2005 of any country. Other Asian countries have also emerged as important destinations of intra-Asian student migration, in particular the PRC, but also Malaysia, Singapore, and other ASEAN member states. Indeed, Asian countries have generally seen much larger increases in their international student numbers than non-Asian destinations.

The growing interest in international students is closely linked with the fact that they have become a key source of foreign labor, both during and after their studies. Labor migration systems tend to favor international students because they are "pre-integrated" in many ways. Nevertheless, there has also been some concern about abuse in the international student sector.

At the same time, there are also potential trade-offs involved between attracting international students and other policy objectives. For example, international students tend to be particularly attracted by English-language programs, although it is conceivable that students in non-English-speaking countries who study in the domestic language, rather than in English, are more likely to stay. Some countries have reacted to this by introducing higher fees for studies in foreign languages.

A further challenge is a possible negative impact on the labor market chances of lower-skilled native-born youths when international students have work rights. On the one hand, providing international students with work rights during studies is an important means of attracting international students, as it helps them to finance their studies overseas. On the other, the sectors and occupations in which international students work often tend to be just those types of jobs where competition with low-skilled native-born youths is most likely.

A closely related issue is one of compliance. With the growth in international student numbers, there has been increasing concern that some students are taking advantage of international study opportunities to pursue other objectives, notably work. This has caused many countries to tighten their conditions on entry and stay, as well as to increase oversight over educational institutions, in particular private providers.

The pressures of recession on the domestic workforce have also led to some reassessment of post-study entry into the labor market by international graduates, with countries putting some effort into avoiding that international study is used as an easy "backdoor" for labor migration. Many countries notably require correspondence between field of study and the job taken after graduation. In practice, it is not always easy to establish such a correspondence. Such a requirement may also tend to favor broad studies (e.g. management) over more specialized ones. Globally, however, more liberal approaches regarding work rights and stay opportunities are still on the ascendency. At the same time, there is an ongoing move toward studies in English, which is further contributing to the diversification of destination countries, and more broadly to competition for international students.

III. Skilled Labor Mobility in Asia

The mismatch between supply and demand for labor is one of the main drivers for international migration, especially as globalization leads to greater economic specialization and accelerated evolution. These trends are particularly evident in Asia, where many countries have seen rapid development and remarkable changes in the educational composition of youth, as well as profound shifts in their role in the global economy. The agriculture sectors in developing Asian countries have been shrinking and the productivity in the industry sector rising, raising new demand for skills. The international competition for skills, already a policy concern in most Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries, involves Asian economies as well.

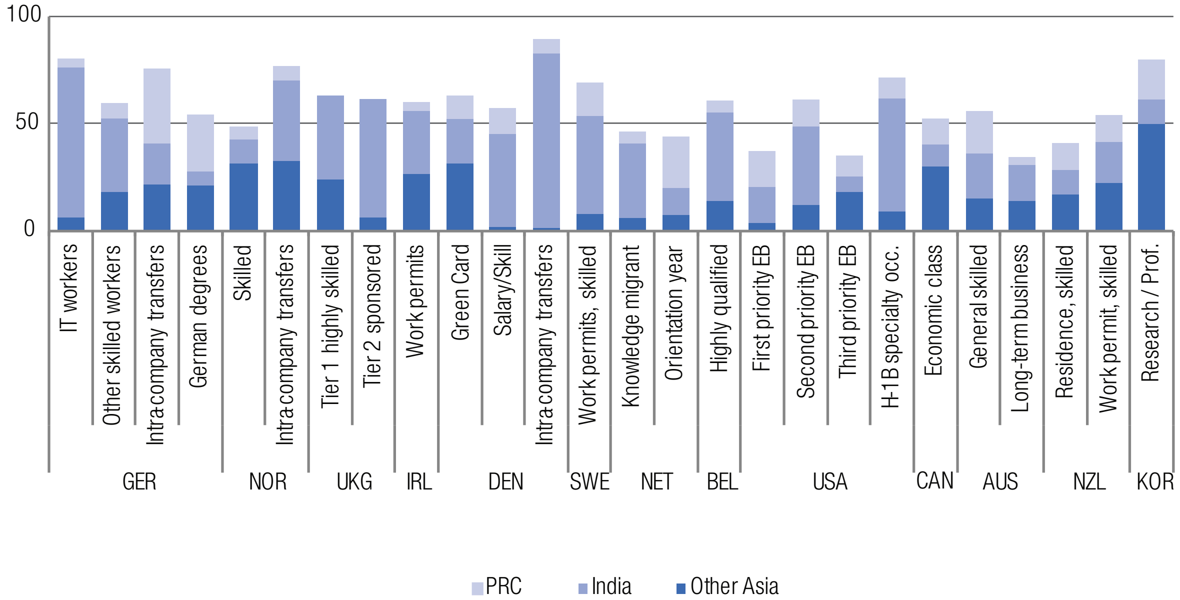
While free movement of goods in the region and with other regions has increased, the free movement of labor is not as simple to achieve, and matching supply and demand is complicated not only by difficulty in recognizing opportunities and finding compatibilities, but also by the emigration regimes in the origin country and the immigration system in the destination country.

In light of these considerations, this chapter first discusses the role of Asia in skilled migration to OECD countries, and the weight of skilled migration from Asian countries. Then, it looks at how both origin and destination countries assess labor market requirements for skilled migrant workers and finally discusses policy developments in this area.

Skilled Migration from and within Asia

Asia, as noted in the first chapter, holds a large share of migration to OECD countries, accounting for one third of all migrants to OECD countries in 2011. Asian migrants are relatively better educated than other migrants: in the mid-2000s, more than 50% of recent Asian migrants in OECD countries were highly educated, compared with less than 30% of migrants from other regions (OECD 2012a). These highly educated Asian migrants represented an important contribution to the skilled workforce in OECD countries, with 80% of highly educated Asian migrant men and 66% of women employed.

Figure 3.1 Share of Skilled Migrants in Selected OECD Countries by Permit Program, 2010–2012



IT = information technology, OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Note: For Denmark, Asia includes only Bangladesh and Pakistan. For the Netherlands, Asia is Japan only (HQ) and Indonesia only (OY, 2009–2010). Data for Sweden are based on ISCO classification 1–2. For Norway, Asia is geographical Asia; other countries exclude Southwest and Central Asia.

Source: OECD. 2012. The Changing Role of Asia in International Migration. In *International Migration Outlook 2012*. Paris: OECD Publishing, except Germany (2011) and Denmark and Norway (pooled 2011–2012).

In OECD countries, skilled migration programs largely comprise migrants from Asia, led by India and the People's Republic of China (PRC). In fact, most of the channels devoted to highly skilled migrants (those with at least some tertiary-level education) see Indian and Chinese workers receiving the bulk of permits (Figure 3.1). This is particularly the case for information technology (IT) workers, who are often Indian, whether they enter under a specific category, as in Germany, or as intra-company transfers, as in Denmark or Norway, or as specialty workers, as under the United States H-1B specialty worker program. In the United States, Asians would represent an even larger share of the employment-based green cards issued for permanent residence if a country cap were not in place. The waiting list for Indian and Chinese workers who have applied and met the conditions of a green card, in fact, is much longer than for other nationalities. In many countries, such as Canada and the United States, the main nationality of Asian immigrants, along with the PRC and India, is the Philippines.

From the perspective of Asian countries of origin, skilled migrants still appear to represent only a small share of total labor migration outflows. This is related to large-scale temporary migration of unskilled and semi-skilled workers to the Middle East (primarily the Gulf), to Southeast Asia, and, to a small extent, to certain East Asian economies. Skilled migration tends to be toward OECD countries, especially in North America, Western Europe, and Oceania. The share of skilled workers among those going abroad for employment varies from one Asian country to another. In the Philippines, more than 10% of overseas workers are professionals. By contrast, in Pakistan, the outflows of labor migrants in 2012 saw little more than 2% in professions, with more than half in very low-skilled occupations and the remainder in various trades. Indonesia, which sends more than half a million workers annually, sees very few placements of skilled workers.

Within developing Asian economies, the need for international skills has increased. Thailand is one example, as there has been a shortage of skilled labor in some sectors, and the skilled labor available through the domestic Thai market is insufficient both in terms of quantity and quality (NESDB 2013). Increased dependency on foreign technologies and limited promotion of science and technology development have led Thai production sectors to rely on foreign technologies and to import expertise and professionals from overseas. Furthermore, the increasing number of foreign companies in Thailand has led to the migration of skilled labor, especially in the managerial and technical positions.

Viet Nam encourages the dispatch of high-skilled workers for overseas employment in some foreign labor markets. Measures to encourage the dispatch of workers with professional and technical skills for overseas employment have focused on a number of sectors and regions. Viet Nam sends skilled construction workers and engineers to the Middle East; the Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs of Viet Nam has sent engineers and other high-skilled workers to Japan and the Republic of Korea. With Africa, bilateral agreements are in place to supply medical doctors; also in Africa, with the involvement of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), Viet Nam has trilateral agreements to supply agricultural engineers.

Migration trends in developing and developed Asian economies are related not only to skills imbalances and changing economic profiles but also to the profound demographic transformation underway, with developed countries seeing rapidly aging populations, and many developing countries in the heart of demographic transition. The working-age population in Japan has been declining since 1995, and that of the Republic of Korea peaked around 2010. The PRC's working-age population is expected to decline from 2015.

In aging societies, the demand for health care services in particular has been increasing at a time when fewer youths are available to provide care. In Singapore and Taipei,China, this has been associated with a reliance on foreign workers in institutional care: 90% of the workers are foreign in Singapore and 50% in Taipei,China, although these are often deskilled jobs and few nursing tasks are assigned to foreign workers (Asato 2013). In Japan, where qualification levels are higher for institutional work, the up-skilling and qualification of foreign care workers under the Economic Partnership Agreements with Indonesia and the Philippines has faced enormous difficulty and low success and retention rates. This points to the challenge of skilled mobility in the region where national qualifications and language requirements may be a barrier, especially in health care.

Assessing Labor Market Requirements for Foreign Workers

The existence of labor shortages is not an absolute but depends to some extent on a judgment call or assessment relative to benchmarks. Vacancies in and of themselves are not an indicator of shortages; for example, they may be due to insufficient wages or poor working conditions rather than the absence of available labor. Most developed countries, however, analyze and evaluate labor shortages, and, for skilled workers, such findings of shortages are often linked to requirements under migration systems.

Shortage lists are used in a number of OECD countries to determine eligibility for migration or to facilitate international recruitment for certain occupations. The methodologies for determining shortage lists vary, but generally include consideration of a number of labor market indicators such as registered unemployment, vacancy rates and duration, and consideration of qualitative factors such as stakeholder testimony or negotiation with employers and employee representatives. This is the model used by the United Kingdom's independent Migration Advisory Committee, for example. Outside of OECD countries, there is relatively little experience using shortage lists for skilled workers, and they have not been broadly applied in developing Asian countries.

Waiting for employers to initiate a recruitment procedure is one way to fill skills shortages through migration. Another route is to admit individuals without a job offer in hand, based on their personal characteristics and the likelihood they will find employment. A common means for choosing likely successful migrants is to rank them according to different parameters (education, experience, age, etc.) under a points-based system, and to accept those scoring highest. This system has been in place in Australia since the 1960s and has been used extensively in Canada and New Zealand, as well as adopted to a lesser extent in other countries. Points-based systems, however, did not always provide workers who fit into the labor market as expected, often because their credentials on paper did not translate into real returns in employment.

One area of skilled migration in which origin country institutions can play a role is recognition of qualifications. Wherever labor market assessment is among the grounds for admission of foreign skilled workers, the recognition of qualifications is a key procedural element. Processing times and accessibility of international recruitment depend on the recognition procedure and the actors involved. For example, Australia, which uses shortage occupation lists in its admission system, assigns the recognition of foreign credentials to 36 national and 18 state authorities, and assessment must be completed before application.

Institutions in origin countries can play an important role in promoting skilled migration and in assessing labor market qualifications of workers. In Pakistan, for example, the Overseas Employment Corporation (OEC) promotes employment in foreign countries of professionals and highly skilled workers, as well as other workers. A vocational training and certification body, the National Vocational and Technical Training Commission (NAVTTC), aims to eventually grant workers qualifications which are recognizable to employers and destination countries in the international labor market.

Origin countries looking to increase the mobility of their skilled labor force must also look abroad at the shortages and at the requisites of destination countries for skills. One example of this analysis comes from India, where the Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs (MOIA) has undertaken a Labour Market Assessment study with specific reference to several European Union (EU) countries—Sweden, Denmark, France, the Czech Republic, Poland, and Romania (MOIA 2012). The focus was to identify emerging sectors—and within those sectors the required skills—and to analyze the educational and skills benchmarks required (qualifications and recognition of qualification and skills). The objective is to identify India's competitive advantage and the skills development requirements to fill these needs, and to develop a standardized skills training framework. The study identified different opportunities according to the country examined, ranging from the traditional field of information technology to health care and construction, but also drew attention to the inadequacies of the current Indian qualifications framework. Non-standardized and insufficient training as well as the reluctance of European stakeholders to accept Indian qualifications were two major obstacles. The Government of India is taking steps to address these obstacles through a national qualifications framework and coordination with destination countries.

In India, the relevance of skills assessments is to map skill sets in which India has a competitive advantage in the context of migration. This requires understanding demand overseas, through engagement with strategically important destinations, and identifying skill gaps with respect to the skills in demand overseas.

For skilled migrants, relative to low-skilled migrants, state actors may play a much smaller role in matching employers in destination countries with workers in origin countries. The movement of highly skilled workers is often through intra-corporate transfers, recruitment through headhunters or other agencies, or on their own initiative. While bilateral agreements for the migration of less skilled workers are common, those for skilled workers are much less common.

Policies to Favor Regional Skills Mobility

As the international competition for talent has intensified, so have policy initiatives to make it easier for skilled workers to move.

In the Republic of Korea, favorable visa conditions for highly skilled workers have not attracted large numbers of foreigners. Most of the skilled workers receiving visas are actually language instructors or specialty chefs rather than engineers or scientists. In part, this reflects little demand from enterprises in the Republic of Korea, since they must offer the skilled foreigner a job in order for the visa to be issued.

In Japan, strategies to facilitate highly qualified immigration have been adopted since 2010. A points-based system was introduced in 2012 to grant accelerated access to permanent residence and additional privileges to holders of the permit and their spouses. Uptake has been limited, however, with most of those receiving the permit already in Japan under another work permit rather than attracted from abroad.

Both Singapore and Taipei,China have favorable conditions for the recruitment of skilled workers and allow long-term stay. In Singapore, the number of skilled workers—those on an Employment Pass—rose from about 100,000 in December 2007 to 175,000 in 2011. In Taipei,China, the number of "white collar" or skilled foreigners reached 27,000 in 2012, although one in four was a language teacher.

The PRC has introduced a number of policy initiatives to attract skilled foreigners. For example, the Recruitment Program of Global Experts ("1000 Talent Plan") offers a subsidy to qualified foreign experts and entrepreneurs, and accelerated access to permanent residence and naturalization for themselves and their families.

One example from OECD countries of a broader attempt to create a regional instrument for skilled mobility is the EU Blue Card, introduced in 2009 by Council Directive 2009/50/EC and transposed into the legislation of 24 participating EU countries (three, including the United Kingdom, opted out). The directive aims to create a permit with harmonized admission conditions and derivative rights, in terms of family reunification and access to the labor market of family members. The Blue Card also grants facilitations in movement from one EU country to another following admission, subject to appropriate employment. The purpose of the Blue Card was twofold: to send a signal abroad that the EU welcomes highly educated and skilled workers; and to establish the EU as a single attractive destination. Issuance of Blue Cards has lagged behind predictions, and their relevance for intra-European mobility has yet to be tested.

Within Asia, the most important initiative in the area of skills mobility has been undertaken by the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), which decided in 2007 to achieve a regional ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) by 2015. In the AEC blueprint, the fifth of five pillars is the "free flow of skilled labor." While this is still far from the free flow of labor in the European Economic Area—under which no skill threshold is applied—it is a bold step toward creating the institutions and mechanisms for governing mobility in the region. The European example of positive impact of free mobility for skilled workers suggests that gains are to be had from mobility, even where concerns must be addressed (see Box 3.1). In practical terms, the AEC should facilitate the issuance of visas and employment passes for ASEAN professionals and skilled labor engaged in cross-border trade and investment-related activities. The definition of "skilled labor" is limited to seven professions, generally licensed in ASEAN member states: engineers, architects, nurses, doctors, dentists, accountants, and surveyors.

Even for this restricted list of professions, recognition of professional qualifications remains an obstacle to realization of free movement. ASEAN is working on the completion of mutual

Box 3.1 Circulation and Its Role in Meeting Labor Needs – the Case of Switzerland

Switzerland, although not a member of the European Union (EU), has gradually introduced free mobility with the EU, as part of a broader package of agreements with the EU and its member countries. Starting 1 June 2002, Switzerland opened its labor market to nationals from the then 15 EU member countries, originally by means of numerical limits which were abolished after a transition period of 7 years in June 2009. Free mobility was subsequently extended to nationals from the countries which joined the EU in 2004 and 2007; for the latter, i.e. Romania and Bulgaria, a transition period with numerical limits applies until 31 May 2015.

The right of free movement is complemented by the mutual recognition of professional qualifications, by the right to buy property, and by the coordination of social security systems. The same rules also apply to citizens of member countries of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA). To avoid negative effects on the Swiss labor market, such as wage dumping, a number of accompanying measures were introduced.

Since the gradual introduction of free mobility, Switzerland experienced high inflows of migrants from the EU, and per capita inflows were among the highest in Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries (OECD 2013). In 2011, there were almost 97,000 permanent free mobility flows into Switzerland, accounting for 78% of total immigration to the country and 1.2% of its population. Migrants are attracted both by the high salaries and favorable labor market conditions—Switzerland has one of the highest gross domestic product (GDP) per capita and one of the lowest unemployment rates in the OECD. The largest group is migrants from neighboring Germany, followed by those from Portugal, France, and Italy.

Overall, recent free mobility migrants—that is, with less than 5 years of residence in Switzerland—have very favorable labor market outcomes. A recent OECD report (2012) has shown that 83% of these recent migrants in working age were in employment, a higher figure than that of the native-born (81%). More than half had a tertiary education. The rate of overqualification—that is, the percentage of the employed who are in jobs below their formal qualification level—was only 11%, which is low in international comparison and suggests that free mobility migration in Switzerland meets actual labor needs.

To further analyze the effects that migration, and in particular free mobility, had on the Swiss labor market, the Swiss federal government mandated its administration in 2011 to prepare an in-depth report on these issues. The findings were that free mobility contributed to economic growth and the provision of a qualified labor force meeting labor needs (Federal Council 2012). However, there was also some concern about pressure on the housing market and on public infrastructure.

The report also highlighted that migration flows in a free mobility environment are driven by labor market conditions and employer hiring decisions; the actual regulation of free mobility flows is thus largely in the hands of employers.

Sources: Federal Council. 2012. *Bericht des Bundesrates über die Personenfreizügigkeit und die Zuwanderung in die Schweiz.* Berne: Federal Council; OECD. 2012. *Jobs for Immigrants (Vol. 3) – Labour Market Integration in Austria, Norway and Switzerland.* Paris: OECD Publishing; OECD. 2013. *International Migration Outlook.* Paris: OECD Publishing.

recognition agreements (MRAs) in priority service sectors and subsequently the development of core competencies in these sectors by 2015. MRAs have been signed among ASEAN member states and are already in place for engineers, architects, and several “business-related” services such as IT, health care, accounting, and surveying. All MRAs for professional services are expected to be ready by 2015.

Roadblocks to the implementation of MRAs may exist in national legislation. For example, the Philippines’ restrictions on the practice of professions require a law specifying exemptions for ASEAN member states. Current licensing requirements for these professions vary among countries.

The creation of an ASEAN skills recognition framework is one step in the direction of realizing the MRAs. The approach taken is incremental, starting with the establishment of national skills frameworks, included under the ASEAN Labour Ministers' Work Programme 2010–2015. Nonetheless, ASEAN member states still use very different systems and standards for labor skills regulations and certification.

The ASEAN qualifications reference framework is being developed in conjunction with the ASEAN+1 free trade agreements (FTAs). The mutual recognition of national qualification frameworks (NQFs) is promoted under a specific project of the ASEAN–Australia–New Zealand FTA (AANZFTA). AANZFTA provides capacity building for NQFs as a means to enhance education and training governance. A multi-sectoral working group was established in 2012 to design an ASEAN Qualifications Reference Framework (AQRF).[1]

Nonetheless, not all ASEAN member states have moved to create NQFs. In order to proceed at different speeds, an "ASEAN-minus-X formula" is applied, under which joint work toward mutual recognition of labor skills frameworks may proceed even when not all ASEAN member states have NQFs in place, which may require coordination across national agencies and bodies.

This is still an important hurdle to overcome, but which would have major implications for the free mobility area. The success of workers exercising mobility using the Trans-Tasman Travel Arrangement (see Box 3.2) may be in part attributed to the MRA between the two participating countries.

In the meanwhile, the ASEAN Agreement on the Movement of Natural Persons (2012) allows temporary movement of skilled workers across companies within ASEAN member states, although permanent settlement is not allowed under the agreement. Furthermore, the agreement covers only executives and professionals such as business visitors, contractual services, and intra-company transfers. Even with this agreement, issuance of visas and employment passes for skilled workers engaged in cross-border trade and investment has not been standardized in terms of speed and simplicity of procedures.

The ASEAN 2015 free mobility goal also has implications for national human resource strategies. In Thailand, the training and qualifications framework under the 11th National Economic and Social Development Plan (2012–2016) takes into account both the opportunities for greater mobility by nationals in the professions covered, and the potential challenges of increased competition in these areas, including brain drain.

Not all countries are well positioned to see flows under such an area. Indonesia, for example, has not been able to take full advantage of the MRAs as yet, since its recognition system is incomplete both nationally and internationally. Few Indonesian institutions have adopted international competency standards. In light of a general domestic skills gap—many of the skills, such as computer and

[1] The working group comprises officials from the AANZFTA Committee on Trade in Services; staff from education, labor, and manpower development ministries; as well as from other ministries and agencies involved with labor qualification.

Box 3.2 The Trans-Tasman Travel Arrangement between Australia and New Zealand

Under the Trans-Tasman Travel Arrangement (TTTA), Australians and New Zealanders who meet health and character requirements are allowed to travel to and live and work in both countries indefinitely. The TTTA was formalized in 1973. It is not a binding bilateral treaty but operates as a string of procedures in immigration policies. The TTTA is linked to the Closer Economic Relations (CER) agreement between the two countries with the objective of freedom of travel within the free trade area, for labor market and social reasons. Since the TTTA was first established, a number of procedural changes have been made to address specific concerns. While employment and labor market access are reciprocal, benefit access differs from one country to the other. On arrival to Australia, New Zealand citizens are granted a special category visa (SCV). While New Zealanders have immediate access to child-related social security payments and medicare in Australia, since 2001, they are not eligible for social welfare benefits unless they apply for and are granted permanent residence or citizenship in Australia. In contrast, Australian citizens and permanent residents are automatically granted a visa on arrival to New Zealand, and, after 2 years, enjoy the same access to social security entitlements as permanent residents. Further, they are granted immediate access to publicly funded health and disability services if they can demonstrate intent to stay for at least 2 years.

A number of factors contribute to the success of the TTTA in facilitating labor mobility between the two countries. The recognition of qualifications is one. With a Trans-Tasman Mutual Recognition Arrangement and a shared classification system (Australia and New Zealand Standard Classification of Occupations), formal qualifications are mutually recognized. The two countries have cost-sharing social security arrangements (such as superannuation). Finally, Australian employers have shown a preference for New Zealand workers over other foreign workers, due to linguistic and cultural proximity as well as the formal facilitations listed above.

Flows between the two countries have been lopsided. Since the late 1960s, there has been a strong increase in the number of New Zealanders living in Australia. In the past 10 years, 64% of New Zealand citizen departures have been to Australia. These flows are not matched by equal growth in the number of Australians living in New Zealand, and the contribution of migration to population growth is higher for Australia (45%) than for New Zealand (25%).

The movement of New Zealanders to and from Australia is highly related to economic conditions in both countries, and the recent strength in the Australian labor market relative to that of New Zealand is likely encouraging trans-Tasman migration. The numbers departing on a permanent and long-term basis over the last 2 years have increased, but the actual size of migration flows to Australia relative to New Zealand's population is less than in the 1970s.

Overall, migration flows between the two countries—and consequent improvements in allocation of labor—have been associated with a 5% employment gain in 2004–2012 for Australia and a 2% employment gain for New Zealand over the same period.

Source: Ministry of Business, Industry and Employment, Government of New Zealand. 2013. The Trans-Tasman Travel Agreement and Skills Mobility. Presentation given by Sankar Ramasamy at the 3rd Roundtable on Labor Migration in Asia. Bangkok, Thailand, 22–25 January 2013. http://www.adbi.org/files/2013.01.23.cpp.sess2.2.ramasamy.skills.mobility.pdf

English language skills, are considered by businesses to be insufficient in the current labor force—substantial outmigration of skilled Indonesian workers through the ASEAN free mobility area is unlikely in the short term.

Conclusion

The international mobility of skills can be spontaneous, but institutions play a role as gatekeepers, facilitators, and promoters at different points. There are many means for assessing demand, and origin countries can work with destination countries to ensure that recognition systems are appropriate and that information about opportunities is correct and reaches potential migrants. The doors are increasingly open to the highly educated, across the region, even if other factors such as language and employer aversion to foreign qualifications and experience may be a greater brake on movement than admission policy.

A number of structural challenges to mobility remain. Economic cycles in the region have often seen boom and bust. Where migration is used to meet labor demand, it may be difficult to reconcile with such a cycle. Migrant workers are more mobile than local workers, but not all may pack up and leave when cycles change. This is always a challenge for migration policy.

Skills mobility not only means the ability to migrate, but also the opportunity to return home again during or after a spell abroad. There is growing interest in the potential synergies to be gained from "brain circulation" and from the skills, competences, and networks acquired by migrants. Even so, the characteristics of returning migrants and their behavior in the region are little understood.

Finally, free mobility zones can lead to better allocation of skills across borders and mutual benefit, and the development of free movement for professionals within ASEAN will put the international standards of some of the institutions and training systems in the region to the test.

IV. Managing Low-Skilled Labor Migration and Fostering Decent Work in Asia

While labor migration in Asia generates substantial benefits for countries of origin in terms of jobs and remittances (and for countries of destination, in human resources), abuses during recruitment and employment are quite common and have been well documented. They include high costs and fees, misrepresentation, failure to meet placement obligations, and contract substitution. Private recruitment agencies play a primary role in matching job seekers and employers. The high recruitment costs combined with low wages have led to heavy debt burdens for workers. Women face barriers in finding overseas employment, and female domestic migrant workers are among the most vulnerable.

During employment overseas, migrants are often concentrated in sectors with inadequate labor legislation and enforcement. Abusive practices include the withholding of wages, retaining passports or identity documents, and threats of denunciation to the authorities. Female domestic workers in private households and male migrants working on fishing boats or in agriculture are the least protected from abusive practices. Women more often than men hold jobs that leave them unprotected by laws that cover other workers.

The increasing importance of labor migration in the region has raised the issue of social protection, including access to essential health care and income security. Social protection schemes are often limited to the formal sector and non-migrant population. In Asia, the majority of the working population, including migrant workers, is employed in informal sectors not fully covered by labor laws or social protection measures. A particular challenge for women migrants is that most countries in the Middle East and Asia have yet to extend the same minimum protections that apply to workers generally to domestic workers (ILO 2013a).The recent extension of weekly rest to migrant domestic workers in Singapore and Thailand might be an indication of future efforts, stimulated by the new

International Labour Organization (ILO) Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189), toward better legal protection.

Memorandums of understanding (MOUs) have not always adequately served their purpose.

Although national legislation in East and Southeast Asia generally provides for equal treatment between nationals and migrants in terms of remuneration and labor protection, and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) has recognized the importance of the protection of migrant workers' rights, some of the main problems that remain for migrant workers in Asia are:

- Tying of migrant workers' contracts to employers makes the worker vulnerable to abuse and the risk of becoming undocumented.
- Migrant workers in such occupations as fishing and domestic work are either not covered by labor legislation or enforcement is weak.
- Trade union rights are restricted in some countries (and do not exist in some Gulf countries) so migrants in low-wage sectors are often not organized.
- Social security is generally not available and not portable.
- There is a high proportion of undocumented migrant workers in some countries.
- Levels of support services in the country of origin vary.
- Public attitudes toward low-skilled migrant workers are generally not supportive (ILO 2011a).
- Migrant workers may lack protection and fair treatment during crises and emergencies.

The following sections highlight some of the key areas for the better governance of low-skilled labor migration and decent work.[1]

International Legal Framework for the Protection of Migrant Workers

The protection of the rights of workers employed outside their countries of origin has been the subject of increasing concern throughout the United Nations system. An array of international instruments exists to provide standards for human and labor rights. The rights and freedoms stipulated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) apply equally to migrants as to any other individual, as do the provisions of the human rights instruments which have subsequently been developed by the United Nations. International instruments protecting migrant workers, however, do not generally restrict the sovereign right of states to regulate the admission of migrant workers into their territory.

[1] This chapter uses the OECD (2008) definition of "low-skilled," which can be based either on the skills required for the job performed, or according to the education level of the worker—i.e. low-skilled is either a characteristic of the job or a characteristic of the worker.

The respect for human rights of all migrant workers and family members and implementation of international labor standards is essential for managing low-skilled labor migration and fostering decent work.

The ILO fundamental principles and rights at work apply to all workers and cover four areas: elimination of all forms of forced and compulsory labor; effective abolition of child labor; elimination of discrimination in employment and occupation; and freedom of association and right to bargain collectively (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Ratification of ILO Core Conventions, by Region

	Freedom of association		Forced labor		Discrimination		Child labor	
Region	**C87**	**C98**	**C29**	**C105**	**C100**	**C111**	**C138**	**C182**
Total: 185 member states	152	163	177	174	171	172	165	177
Africa (54)	48	53	54	54	52	54	52	52
Americas (35)	33	32	34	35	33	33	30	34
Arab States (11)	3	6	11	11	7	10	10	11
Asia (34)	18	21	27	23	28	24	22	29
Europe (51)	50	51	51	51	51	51	51	51

ILO = International Labour Organization.

Source: ILO NORMLEX.

The International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, 1990 is the most comprehensive instrument on rights of migrant workers and family members, and extends the rights of irregular migrant workers. Along with Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143), it contains provisions intended to ensure that all migrant workers enjoy a basic level of protection whatever their status. These instruments, however, are not ratified by countries of destination in Asia even though they provide a benchmark for the development of national legislation and practices.

The ILO Convention on Private Employment Agencies, 1997 (No. 181), the applicable international labor standard for recruitment, has been ratified by 26 countries globally including two in Asia and the Pacific. The convention prohibits the charging of recruitment fees to job seekers. Governments in Asia have, however, generally opted to allow the charging of fees within a ceiling.

The most recent ILO Convention is the Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189), which recognizes domestic work as work and provides a historic opportunity to make decent work a reality for domestic workers. The Philippines has been among the first in the world to ratify the convention. Thailand has recently enacted a new regulation on domestic work that extends some new rights and protections provided under the Labour Protection Act to domestic workers.

The Need for Well-Conceived Admission Policies

Labor Market Assessment for the Requirement of Foreign Workers

Perceived labor shortages are the *raison d'être* for creating a labor migration system. However, labor shortages are not easy to predict or forecast. A recent ILO paper (Ducanes 2013) conducted a desk review of practices in East and Southeast Asia to assess demand for foreign workers.

Singapore closely monitors labor market imbalances through the Labour Market Survey conducted by its Ministry of Manpower every quarter. Indicators to measure labor shortage or mismatch are job vacancies, the job vacancy rate, and the job vacancy to unemployed ratio. Singapore collects these data by industry and occupational group.

The extent of labor shortage (and the quota for foreign workers) is determined annually by the Government of the Republic of Korea through the Foreign Workforce Policy Committee (FWPC), which comprises different ministries. The quota for foreign workers is a judgment call by the FWPC based on economic growth forecasts and the stated demand of small and medium-sized enterprises that mainly host the workers. The quota was 62,000 in 2013 and 57,000 in 2012 (HRD Korea 2013).

In Malaysia, there is a revealed labor shortage, meaning that, even though there does not appear to be, at least in the past, any systematic attempt to measure or estimate the extent of the labor shortage in Malaysia, the fact is that strong demand from firms in the manufacturing, agriculture, and construction sectors has resulted in a large inflow of foreign workers.

Thailand is similar to Malaysia in that there does not appear to be any systematic attempt to measure the extent of the labor shortage in the country (and to try to control the number of foreign workers based on that measure). Rather, labor shortage has directly manifested itself in the huge absorption of foreign workers, mainly from neighboring countries, in Thai manufacturing, agriculture, and services. Thailand is also similar to Malaysia in that it shares porous borders with poorer neighboring countries.

Apart from Singapore, therefore, countries of destination in the region appear to be relying on one source of information (employer applications for hiring migrant workers) for assessing labor market requirements. A more accurate estimate of labor market requirements for foreign workers can, however, be derived from a variety of sources: employer requests, labor force surveys, vacancy data, and economic growth. Indicators to measure labor shortages, based on these sources, would be in the areas of labor demand and supply and matching.

Admission Policy

There are two main features of admission policies of countries of destination in Asia. First, countries of destination have developed temporary labor migration regimes for low-skilled migration and have often entered into bilateral agreements or MOUs with countries of origin. Second, countries in ASEAN are moving toward the free movement of professionals.

The MOUs, in the case of Thailand at least, have not adequately served their purpose. More migrant workers enter undocumented than through the MOUs, although the number entering via the MOUs is increasing. This is partly explained by slow emigration procedures in the countries of origin. Nevertheless, MOUs or bilateral labor agreements (BLAs) are an important tool in Thailand and Malaysia (and the Republic of Korea) to both put order in the migration process and agree on standards for the employment of migrant workers. Countries of origin are keen to pursue and review BLAs that protect their migrant workers and provide admission.

Bangladesh and Malaysia entered into an MOU in 2013 on the recruitment and admission of migrant workers. The MOU stipulates that recruitment shall only be government-to-government and excludes the participation of private recruitment agencies; demand for workers will be placed through the Bangladeshi mission in Malaysia; recruitment fees, including airfares, shall be capped at US$500; and employment contracts shall be for 2 years with the provision of a 2+1-year extension (MEWOE 2013).

Labor Market Information

An informed and transparent labor market information system linked to requirements in the destination country is one of the ways that well-managed labor migration is promoted and abuses reduced. Migrant workers, however, do not receive timely and accurate information on overseas employment opportunities and usually the public employment services (PES) do not have information on overseas placement or links with overseas private recruitment agencies. Public employment services or job centers in some countries (e.g. Viet Nam) have been invested in and are providing a range of integrated services (for both national and foreign labor markets) for job seekers, partnering with private recruitment agencies.

Social Dialogue

Social dialogue—that is, consultation by governments with representative employers' and workers' organizations—is indeed essential to the development of sound labor migration policy, given that employers and workers are direct stakeholders in the labor migration process and outcomes.

Protection of Migrant Workers

Countries of Origin

A priority concern for all labor-sending governments should be to ensure that, as far as possible, vulnerable (low-skilled) women and men migrant workers are not exploited during recruitment and employment, and to secure decent employment and working conditions.[2]

Regulation of Recruitment (Countries of Origin and Destination)

Regulation of recruitment agencies is often ineffective, timely information on job opportunities not readily available, and recruitment options largely limited to private recruitment agencies. Emerging good practices have included efforts to regulate subagents and develop a rating mechanism (Sri Lanka), the development of codes of conduct for its members by associations of recruitment agencies (Viet Nam), and recruitment by public placement agencies (MOUs with the Republic of Korea). There are some examples of direct recruitment by accredited employers in the region (Malaysia), and there is potential for employers' organizations to undertake recruitment for its members (like Unio de Pagesos in Spain). Such methods have reduced costs. In Cambodia, recruitment is regulated through Sub-Decree 190, issued in August 2011, on "Management of Sending Khmer Migrants to Work Abroad through Private Recruitment Agencies" (MOLVT 2013).[3]

At different international forums on international labor migration in Asia—the multi-stakeholder ASEAN Forum on Migrant Labour (AFML) and the inter-state Abu Dhabi Dialogue (ADD) covering the Gulf Cooperation Council, and South and Southeast Asia—"improving the recruitment process" (ADD) and recommendations on concrete actions toward "effective recruitment practices and regulations" (AFML) have been a top item on the agenda. Realistic and easy-to-understand maximum recruitment fees, incentives for good performance for private employment agencies, and good labor market information have been put forward as agreed guidelines in the ADD. The AFML has put forward a wider range of recommendations including an accreditation system of foreign employers for direct recruitment, heavy penalties for infringements, positive ratings for ethical recruitment, monitoring of recruitment agencies by stakeholders (in addition to regulators), transparency and affordability of costs, streamlining of emigration procedures, information dissemination, and establishment of effective complaints mechanisms and support services.

2 Decent work is defined in the ILO Multilateral Framework on Labour Migration as access to freely chosen employment; recognition of fundamental rights at work; income to meet basic needs and responsibilities; and adequate level of social protection.

3 In February 2013 and September 2013, eight *prakas* (ministerial orders) were passed to supplement Sub-Decree 190 to better protect men and women migrant workers. These *prakas* cover "Private Recruitment," "Recruitment Process and Pre-Departure Orientation Training," "Use of the Standard Service Contract," "Private Recruitment Agencies On-site Services and Repatriation," "Inspection of Private Recruitment Agencies," "Receiving Complaints Mechanisms for Migrant Workers," and "Reward and Penalty to Private Recruitment Agencies."

Support Services

The provision of support services to labor migrants can extend from information provision and pre-departure orientation, a contributory welfare fund to meet protection and emergency needs in the country of destination, provision of insurance coverage, posting of labor attachés to protect and assist workers abroad, and—subject to the laws of the destination countries—the operation of shelters and migrant service centers.

Migrant welfare funds (MWFs): MFWs can be an innovative and financially sustainable means of providing support services to vulnerable migrants and those migrants who are in distress. MWFs are implemented in a range of South and Southeast Asian countries and have the potential to be of value to all labor-sending countries. The principal objectives of the funds are to provide protection to overseas workers on the job site and promote their welfare; provide health insurance, including benefits and services in case of disability or death; and offer financial support for repatriation of remains and fares for involuntary return. The funds provide other services for workers and their families, including pre-departure orientation, support for education and training, and credit for various purposes (e.g. financing migration, housing, and small businesses).

MWFs are administered by public or semi-public agencies; for example, the Overseas Pakistanis Foundation (OPF), the Philippine Overseas Workers Welfare Administration (OWWA), and the Sri Lanka Overseas Workers Welfare Fund (OWWF). They are financed by contributions from employers and/or workers fixed at about US$25 per person.

In addition to the MWF, Bangladesh in October 2011 established an expatriates' welfare bank, Probashi Kallayan Bank, a specialized financial institution that, among other services, provides low-interest migration loans. Over 1,200 loans have been granted (MEWOE 2013).

Posting of labor attachés: Labor attachés are usually posted in areas with a high concentration of migrant workers who may need government assistance on problems arising out of employee–employer relationships. Given the numbers involved, it is often a real challenge for labor attachés or embassy officers to look after the welfare of their nationals.

Grievance and complaints mechanisms: Countries of origin in Asia with more mature labor migration regimes have established a complaints mechanism relating to perceived abuses during recruitment and employment. Recently, the ILO and Sri Lanka's Ministry of Foreign Employment Promotion and Welfare undertook a review and analysis of complaints mechanisms in Sri Lanka (ILO 2013b).

Constraints identified in the study with regard to effective on-site assistance and resolution included a very low ratio of labor welfare officers to migrant workers; a need for expertise and training among the officers; and better team work. Gaps were found in the coordination with host authorities and there was an absence of comprehensive written procedures. The latter has now been developed in the form of an Operational Manual for Labour Sections in Sri Lanka Diplomatic Missions in Labour Receiving Countries.

Finally, countries of origin need to allocate adequate budgetary resources to the protection of their migrant workers, as it is these very same workers who are generating the remittances. Furthermore, in order to set an example and as countries of origin are often to some extent also countries of destination, the adoption and implementation of international human rights and labor standards relevant to migrant workers is equally important. In this respect, the Philippines, with its proactive and comprehensive policies to protect women and men migrant workers, and its broad ratification of international human rights and labor standards, clearly stands out.

Countries of Destination

Post-admission policies in countries of destination are concerned with a number of interrelated elements for regulating the labor market, ensuring protection of workers, and supporting integration. Important measures are generally required in:

- labor market regulation, including access, mobility, and recognition of qualifications;
- protection of migrant (and national) workers in the employment context, including remuneration, working conditions, trade union rights, social security (including health), access to remedies in law, access to suitable housing, and access to vocational training, language and integration courses;
- social and civil rights, in particularly measures to facilitate family unification and visits, children's education, and transfer of funds to the home country; and
- preparation for return and reintegration (for temporary labor migrants) and measures to address overstay.

In the case of the latter, while generally accepted principles of international law permit expulsion and deportation of noncitizens in certain circumstances, and recognize the competence of the state to control and regulate the movement of people across its borders, international human rights and labor standards are quite explicit that basic human rights of all migrants should be respected, there is due process for each individual case, and there are no mass expulsions.

The protection of migrant workers while working in the destination country is best secured by the legislation of that country, whether this is by the labor code, employment legislation, or other rules concerned with the regulation and protection of foreign workers, which applies and builds on the minimum norms accepted at the international and regional level (OSCE, IOM, and ILO 2006).

ILO surveys in Thailand and Malaysia have found that even where they have equal protection under the labor laws, aggrieved migrant workers are often reluctant to complain about their employers or do not know where to complain (ILO 2011b).

Promoting International Cooperation and Partnerships in Addressing International Labor Migration

Despite the strenuous efforts made by some sending countries to protect migrant workers, they continue to experience numerous problems in destination countries, particularly vulnerable groups such as female domestic workers and lower-skilled workers. There are clear limits to what a state can do to protect its migrant workers without the active cooperation of the countries of employment. In addition to the protection and welfare of migrant workers, inter-state and international cooperation is essential in expanding organized labor migration and curbing irregular movement.

Cooperation at the Subregional Level

The adoption of the ASEAN Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers in January 2007 was a milestone. While implementation of the declaration is a work in progress, the obligations of labor-sending and -receiving states provides a good framework for action. ASEAN has also institutionalized a tripartite (plus civil society organization) forum, the AFML, which provides a platform to gauge the implementation of the declaration and share good practices. The AFML has been supported by the ILO and IOM since its inception.

Collaboration at the ASEAN level is also being undertaken by employers' and workers' organizations, although this is at an early stage. At both the regional and the subregional levels, NGO networks and forums on protection of migrant workers are generally well established.

Bilateral Cooperation

Bilateral cooperation on international labor migration can take place to benefit both sending and receiving countries by providing a framework for orderly and equitable migration management, and it is an important mechanism for ensuring migrants' rights and protection. The cooperation may be formalized through MOUs. The Republic of Korea, Malaysia, and Thailand, with varying degrees of success, address their low-skilled labor needs through this mechanism.

Inter-country trade union collaboration is another form of bilateral cooperation that is promoted by the ILO. Trade unions in countries of origin and destination have entered into agreements or MOUs on the protection of migrant workers and in some cases are actively implementing the agreements. For example, the General Federation of Nepalese Trade Unions (GEFONT) and the Korean Confederation of Trade Unions (KCTU) have entered into an Inter-country Trade Union Collaboration in the Protection of Migrant Workers.

Addressing Irregular Migration

Large irregular migration flows in the region are fairly common between neighboring countries with differing levels of economic development and a long, open land border. Irregular migration channels may be less cumbersome, or legal migration channels may not exist. In addition, regularly admitted migrants may lose their regular status by breaching the terms of their work permits or overstaying their visas.

Thailand signed MOUs with Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, and Myanmar in 2002 and 2003, but of the estimated 2.5 million–3 million migrant workers in the country, both regular and irregular, as of April 2013, 109,320 had entered through the MOU channels and possessed a valid work permit and 963,243 were irregular migrants who had completed the regularization process and possessed a valid work permit (IOM 2013). The remainder are either irregular or in the process of regularization. In Thailand, there have been seven rounds of registration between 2004 and 2012.

In Malaysia, the government issued amnesties in 1999 and 2004 that allowed undocumented migrants to leave without being prosecuted, and return if their employer wanted to recruit them legally. In 2011, a broader 6P Programme, which included measures for amnesty, registration, legalization, supervision, enforcement, and deportation of migrants, was implemented. While 2.3 million migrant workers registered (1 million regular and 1.3 million irregular workers), many felt that there was insufficient information provided ahead of a short registration window and that the process was complex and costly.

In most destination countries in Asia, there is insufficient deterrent to the brokers and employers who recruit irregular migrants. The Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143) calls on states to do more to penalize these actors, rather than migrants. In Singapore, the amendment of the Employment of Foreign Manpower Act in 2012 further strengthens the powers of the Ministry of Manpower to sanction errant employers. Similar laws exist in Thailand and Malaysia, but the extent of enforcement is not apparent. In Malaysia, 112 employers were found hiring irregular migrants between mid-2002 and mid-2004, but none had been convicted as of December 2006 because of a lack of evidence and constant postponement of trials (Kanapathy 2010).

Economic growth, demographic changes, labor shortages, and wage differentials among countries of origin and destination are expected to continue to drive labor migration in Asia. Such labor migration largely occurs under temporary migration regimes and for "low-skilled" work. The development contribution that migrant workers make to their host and origin countries is better recognized, and migration helps to improve the quality of life of many migrants and their families in Asia. Most migrants are filling a niche in the destination country labor markets by doing jobs that nationals do not want or cannot fill. Still, many migrant workers are subject to labor exploitation and abuse. This chapter has listed some of the main challenges faced by low-skilled migrant workers in Asia and the decent work deficit, even though national legislation in East and Southeast Asia generally provides for equal treatment between nationals and migrants. In response to these challenges, key areas for better governance of low-skilled labor migration and to foster decent work have been highlighted. These include respect for human rights of all migrant workers and family members and implementation of international labor standards, the need for well-conceived admission policies, enhanced support services for migrant workers, effective bilateral and subregional cooperation, and addressing irregular migration.

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Annex I

Economy-Specific Notes

Bangladesh

Key indicators

	Population	GDP per capita	GDP growth rate	Labor market indicators	
	Millions	Constant 2005 US$	Annual, %	Percentages	
2000	132.4	350	5.9	Employment/population ratio (15+), 2011	67.6
2012	154.7	597	6.3	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2009	5.0

Immigration in Bangladesh

Stock of foreign-born population (0+)				Foreign-born population (15+)			
	Total ('000s)	% of population	% women	% 15–24	% 25–64	% low-educated	% high-educated
2000	988	0.76	14	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
2010	1,085	0.73	14				

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2010	Total
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	
% of total employment	

Stock of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011

Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011

Emigration from Bangladesh to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Bangladesh living in OECD countries	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	161.9	123.6	285.5	222.3	176.1	398.5
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	33.0	24.4	57.4	46.1	40.7	86.8
15–24 (% of population 15+)	17.2	23.1	19.7	13.0	15.7	14.2
25–64 (% of population 15+)	78.2	73.3	76.1	80.3	79.8	80.1
Total emigration rates (%)	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	2.7	2.0	2.4	4.1	3.2	3.7

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	**37.3**	**41.9**	**34.1**	**40.4**	**50.3**	**49.5**	**49.8**
United States	11.5	14.6	12.1	11.8	16.7	14.8	16.7
Italy	5.4	4.8	4.5	8.6	8.5	9.7	10.3
United Kingdom	10.0	10.0	6.0	6.0	13.0	9.0	9.0
Canada	3.9	3.8	2.7	2.7	1.9	4.4	2.5
Australia	1.4	1.7	2.4	2.8	2.2	2.1	2.3

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total		**11.1**	**11.5**	**11.4**	**12.0**	**13.8**	**15.3**	**16.6**
United Kingdom	Nonresident students	2.0	2.2	2.7	2.8	3.5	4.1	4.1
Australia	Nonresident students	3.4	3.1	2.9	2.4	2.4	2.7	3.1
United States	Nonresident students	2.9	2.7	2.5	2.3	2.7	2.6	2.8

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total							**4,046.2**
Saudi Arabia					1 000.0		1,315.6
United Arab Emirates					500.0		1,176.5
Malaysia							453.8
Oman							226.7
Kuwait							214.9

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total	**377.3**	**820.5**	**865.5**	**467.2**	**381.1**	**558.4**	**596.6**
United Arab Emirates	130.2	226.4	419.4	258.3	203.3	282.7	215.5
Oman	8.1	17.5	52.9	41.7	42.6	135.3	170.3
Singapore	20.1	38.3	56.6	39.6	39.1	48.7	58.7
Qatar	7.7	15.1	25.5	11.7	12.1	13.1	28.8
Bahrain	16.4	16.4	13.2	28.4	21.8	14.0	21.8

Net migration rate (per thousand)

	1985–90	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20
	-0.4	-1.6	-1.2	-2.9	-4.9	-2.6	-1.9

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012(e)
	5,428	6,562	8,941	10,521	10,850	12,068	14,060

People's Republic of China

Key indicators

	Population	GDP per capita	GDP growth rate	Labor market indicators	
	Millions	Constant 2005 US$	Annual, %	Percentages	
2000	1,262.6	1,122	8.4	Employment/population ratio (15+), 2011	70.9
2012	1,350.7	3,348	7.8	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2011	4.1

Immigration in the People's Republic of China

Stock of foreign-born population (0+)				Foreign-born population (15+)			
Total ('000s)		% of population	% women	% 15–24	% 25–64	% low-educated	% high-educated
2000	508	0.04	50	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
2010	686	0.05	50				

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2010	Total
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	231.7
% of total employment	

Stock of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
	141.1		195.5	223.5	238.2	265.1	292.6
Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**

Emigration from the People's Republic of China to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in the People's Republic of China living in OECD countries	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	976.3	1,089.8	2,066.1	1,254.1	1,470.4	2,724.5
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	217.0	250.7	467.7	298.9	355.7	654.6
15–24 (% of population 15+)	12.3	11.4	11.8	16.6	15.1	15.8
25–64 (% of population 15+)	73.1	73.4	73.3	69.1	70.4	69.8
Total emigration rates (%)	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	1.5	2.3	1.8	1.4	2.2	1.7

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	**437.8**	**503.3**	**518.3**	**529.9**	**460.1**	**508.3**	**529.4**
Republic of Korea	115.8	161.2	177.0	161.7	117.6	155.3	149.2
Japan	105.8	112.5	125.3	134.2	121.2	107.9	100.4
United States	70.0	87.3	76.7	80.3	64.2	70.9	87.0
United Kingdom	22.0	23.0	21.0	18.0	22.0	28.0	45.0
Australia	15.2	17.3	21.1	20.7	22.9	25.0	29.0

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total		**357.2**	**374.1**	**379.7**	**409.2**	**451.9**	**500.5**	**580.7**
United States	Nonresident students	92.4	93.7	99.0	110.2	124.3	126.5	178.9
Australia	Nonresident students	37.3	42.0	50.4	57.6	70.4	87.6	90.2
United Kingdom	Nonresident students	52.7	50.8	49.6	45.4	47.0	55.5	65.9

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total	**641.0**	**743.0**	**774.0**	**778.0**	**847.0**	**812.0**	**850.0**
Singapore	83.0						
Algeria	35.0						
Macao, China	33.0						
Russian Federation	25.0						
Hong Kong, China	21.0						

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total		**372.0**	**427.0**	**395.0**	**411.0**	**452.0**	**512.0**

Net migration rate (per thousand)

1985–90	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20
0.0	-0.1	-0.1	-0.4	-0.3	-0.2	-0.2

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)

2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012(e)
27,440	38,587	48,407	48,852	53,038	61,365	60,246

India

Key indicators

	Population	GDP per capita	GDP growth rate	Labor market indicators	
	Millions	Constant 2005 US$	Annual, %	Percentages	
2000	1,042.3	577	4.0	Employment/population ratio (15+), 2011	53.6
2012	1,236.7	1,107	3.2	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2010	3.5

Immigration in India

Stock of foreign-born population (0+)				Foreign-born population (15+)			
Total ('000s)		% of population	% women	% 15–24	% 25–64	% low-educated	% high-educated
2000	6,411	0.61	48	9.8	90.2	73.1	3.0
2010	5,436	0.44	49				

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2001	Total
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	452.0
% of total employment	0.14

Flows of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
	13.3	14.5	18.4	21.2	21.8		
Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**

Emigration from India to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in India living in OECD countries	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	1,027.6	943.0	1,970.6	1,469.5	1,305.7	2,775.2
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	264.2	226.6	490.8	417.2	362.9	780.1
15–24 (% of population 15+)	10.2	11.0	10.6	9.8	9.8	9.8
25–64 (% of population 15+)	80.0	77.7	78.9	79.7	78.4	79.1
Total emigration rates (%)	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	2.9	3.8	3.2	4.0	4.5	4.2

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	**218.3**	**205.9**	**212.7**	**214.9**	**227.4**	**250.8**	**239.7**
United States	84.7	61.4	65.4	63.4	57.3	69.2	69.0
United Kingdom	47.0	57.0	55.0	48.0	64.0	68.0	61.0
Canada	33.1	30.8	26.1	24.5	26.1	30.3	24.9
Australia	12.8	15.2	19.8	22.7	25.3	23.5	21.9
Germany	8.4	8.9	9.4	11.4	12.0	13.2	15.4

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total		**130.8**	**131.6**	**145.1**	**162.7**	**181.1**	**186.3**	**181.6**
United States	Nonresident students	84.0	79.2	85.7	94.7	101.6	104.0	101.9
United Kingdom	Nonresident students	16.7	19.2	23.8	25.9	34.1	38.2	38.7
Australia	Nonresident students	20.5	22.4	24.5	26.5	26.6	20.4	14.1

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total							
Saudi Arabia					1,500.0		
United Arab Emirates					1,300.0		
Kuwait					491.0		
Bahrain					105.0		

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total	**676.9**	**809.5**	**848.6**	**610.3**	**641.4**	**626.6**	**747.0**
Saudi Arabia	134.6	195.4	228.4	281.1	275.2	289.3	357.5
United Arab Emirates	254.8	312.7	349.8	130.3	130.9	138.9	141.1
Oman	68.0	95.5	89.7	75.0	105.8	73.8	84.4
Qatar	76.3	88.5	82.9	46.3	45.8	41.7	63.1
Kuwait	47.4	48.5	35.6	42.1	37.7	45.1	55.9

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20
	0.0	0.0	-0.1	-0.4	-0.5	-0.4	-0.3

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012(e)
	28,334	37,217	49,977	49,468	54,035	63,011	69,350

Indonesia

Key indicators

	Population	GDP per capita	GDP growth rate	Labor market indicators	
	Millions	Constant 2005 US$	Annual, %	Percentages	
2000	208.9	1,086	4.9	Employment/population ratio (15+), 2011	62.7
2012	246.9	1,732	6.2	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2011	6.6

Immigration in Indonesia

Stock of foreign-born population (0+)				Foreign-born population (15+)			
	Total ('000s)	% of population	% women	% 15–24	% 25–64	% low-educated	% high-educated
2000	292	0.14	48	19.6	66.0	33.0	46.0
2010	123	0.05	45				

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2010	Total	Manuf.	Construction	Trade	Community, social & personal serv.
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	102.3	26.6	12.4	21.0	12.4
% of total employment	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1

Stock of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
		6.0					

Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011

Emigration from Indonesia to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Indonesia living in OECD countries	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	162.3	177.3	339.6	152.8	183.2	336.0
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	22.0	26.4	48.4	17.6	26.5	44.0
15–24 (% of population 15+)	13.7	11.3	12.4	12.8	9.2	10.9
25–64 (% of population 15+)	65.4	61.8	63.5	64.0	64.9	64.5
Total emigration rates (%)	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	3.2	4.2	3.6	3.4	4.1	3.7

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	**35.0**	**30.4**	**26.6**	**31.4**	**22.2**	**24.7**	**28.4**
Japan	12.9	11.4	10.1	10.1	7.5	8.3	8.3
Republic of Korea	10.2	6.9	5.2	9.7	3.3	5.3	8.1
United States	3.9	4.9	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.0	2.9
Germany	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.6	1.8	1.8	2.0
Netherlands	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.3

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total		**23.6**	**23.3**	**24.1**	**24.4**	**24.5**	**24.6**	**24.5**
Australia	Nonresident students	9.3	9.1	10.5	10.2	10.2	10.1	9.7
United States	Nonresident students	8.1	7.8	7.5	7.7	7.4	6.9	6.8
Japan	Noncitizen students	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.2

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total		**2,700.0**		**4,300.0**			**3,256.0**
Saudi Arabia							1,500.0
Malaysia		1,300.0					917.9
Taipei,China							146.2
Hong Kong, China							140.6
Singapore							106.0

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total		**690.4**	**636.2**	**629.6**	**567.1**	**546.2**	**172.4**
Malaysia		222.2	187.1	123.9	116.1	134.1	46.3
Taipei,China		50.8	59.5	59.3	62.0	73.5	30.7
Singapore		37.5	21.8	33.1	39.6	47.8	20.4
Hong Kong, China		30.0	30.2	32.4	33.3	50.3	18.2
Saudi Arabia		257.2	234.6	276.6	228.9	137.6	11.8

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20
	-0.3	-0.4	-0.2	-0.5	-0.6	-0.6	-0.5

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012(e)
	5,722	6,174	6,794	6,793	6,916	6,924	7,207

Lao People's Democratic Republic

Key indicators

	Population	GDP per capita	GDP growth rate	Labor market indicators	
	Millions	Constant 2005 US$	Annual, %	Percentages	
2000	5.4	375	5.8	Employment/population ratio (15+), 2011	76.9
2012	6.6	707	8.2	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2005	1.4

Immigration in the Lao PDR

Stock of foreign-born population (0+)				Foreign-born population (15+)			
	Total ('000s)	% of population	% women	% 15–24	% 25–64	% low-educated	% high-educated
2000	22	0.41	48	21.5	70.4	49.5	8.2
2010	19	0.3	48				

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2010	Total
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	200.0
% of total employment	

Stock of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011

Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
							6.9

Emigration from the Lao PDR to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in the Lao PDR living in OECD countries	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	132.8	131.4	264.1	126.4	129.7	256.1
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	4.4	5.8	10.2	4.2	6.5	10.7
15–24 (% of population 15+)	13.8	13.7	13.8	3.3	3.8	3.5
25–64 (% of population 15+)	81.2	79.0	80.1	88.5	86.3	87.4
Total emigration rates (%)	8.3	8.1	8.2	7.0	7.0	7.0
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	23.8	29.2	25.9	24.4	25.2	24.8

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	**1.7**	**4.1**	**3.8**	**3.5**	**3.0**	**2.5**	**2.5**
United States	1.2	2.9	2.6	2.2	1.7	1.2	1.0
Japan	n.a.	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8
Australia	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3
Republic of Korea	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
France	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total		**0.62**	**0.68**	**0.72**	**0.69**	**0.75**	**0.73**	**0.73**
Australia	Nonresident students	0.12	0.13	0.16	0.16	0.17	0.06	0.17
France	Noncitizen students	0.15	0.14	0.13	0.10	0.12	0.10	0.11
United States	Nonresident students	0.07	0.07	0.05	0.07	0.08	0.06	0.05

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total							

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total						**8.4**	**8.1**
Thailand						8.4	8.1

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20
	0.0	-2.0	-5.1	-6.2	-2.5	-2.2	-2.0

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012(e)
	4	6	18	38	42	110	117

Malaysia

Key indicators

	Population	GDP per capita	GDP growth rate	Labor market indicators	
	Millions	Constant 2005 US$	Annual, %	Percentages	
2000	23.4	4,862	8.9	Employment/population ratio (15+), 2011	58.6
2012	29.2	6,765	5.6	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2010	3.4

Immigration in Malaysia

Stock of foreign-born population (0+)				Foreign-born population (15+)			
	Total ('000s)	% of population	% women	% 15–24	% 25–64	% low-educated	% high-educated
2000	1,554	6.7	45	23.0	70.6	91.3	5.9
2010	2,358	8.4	45				

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2011	Total	Agriculture and fishing	Manuf.	Construction	Services
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	1,573.0	451.4	580.8	223.7	132.9
% of total employment	12.8	32.0	26.1	19.7	2.0

Stock of international students ('000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
	44.4	47.9	69.2	80.8	86.9		90.0

Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011

Emigration from Malaysia to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Malaysia living in OECD countries	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	98.6	115.7	214.3	108.9	137.1	245.9
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	16.9	18.8	35.7	22.7	28.3	51.0
15–24 (% of population 15+)	23.9	19.0	21.2	19.3	16.1	17.5
25–64 (% of population 15+)	71.2	75.3	73.5	73.0	76.5	74.9
Total emigration rates (%)	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.6	1.4
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	5.7	6.7	6.2	5.1	6.3	5.6

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	**16.5**	**19.5**	**20.2**	**24.3**	**20.0**	**22.0**	**17.1**
Australia	4.7	4.8	4.8	5.1	5.4	4.9	5.0
United Kingdom	5.8	7.0	8.0	11.0	7.0	9.0	4.0
United States	2.6	2.3	2.1	1.9	2.0	1.7	2.3
Japan	n.a.	2.0	2.3	2.6	2.3	2.3	2.2
Germany	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.7

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total		**38.2**	**37.9**	**40.8**	**43.3**	**46.6**	**46.7**	**46.1**
Australia	Nonresident students	15.6	15.4	17.7	18.6	20.0	19.6	18.3
United Kingdom	Nonresident students	11.5	11.4	11.8	11.7	12.7	12.5	12.2
United States	Nonresident students	6.4	5.7	5.4	5.4	5.8	6.1	6.6

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total							

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total							

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20
	5.1	3.1	3.6	4.0	4.8	3.1	1.6

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012(e)
	1,365	1,556	1,329	1,131	1,102	1,198	1,272

Pakistan

Key indicators

	Population	GDP per capita	GDP growth rate	Labor market indicators	
	Millions	Constant 2005 US$	Annual, %	Percentages	
2000	143.8	597	4.3	Employment/population ratio (15+), 2011	50.7
2012	179.2	802	4.2	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2000	7.2

Immigration in Pakistan

Stock of foreign-born population (0+)				Foreign-born population (15+)			
	Total ('000s)	% of population	% women	% 15–24	% 25–64	% low-educated	% high-educated
2000	4,243	2.9	45	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
2010	4,234	2.3	45				

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2010	Total
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	
% of total employment	

Stock of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011

Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011

Emigration from Pakistan to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Pakistan living in OECD countries	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	375.0	293.7	668.7	471.9	371.2	843.1
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	79.8	60.4	140.2	109.7	80.3	190.0
15–24 (% of population 15+)	13.9	15.4	14.5	13.0	14.4	13.7
25–64 (% of population 15+)	80.3	78.2	79.3	80.9	78.2	79.7
Total emigration rates (%)	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.8
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	3.1	3.6	3.3	5.4	6.4	5.7

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	**73.6**	**83.3**	**74.1**	**75.6**	**77.1**	**100.0**	**105.6**
United Kingdom	16.0	31.0	27.0	17.0	17.0	30.0	43.0
Spain	12.4	8.2	10.6	13.4	10.6	21.7	16.9
United States	14.9	17.4	13.5	19.7	21.6	18.3	15.6
Italy	5.5	3.4	3.0	5.4	8.4	10.7	7.5
Canada	13.6	12.3	9.5	8.1	6.2	5.0	6.1

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total		**17.4**	**18.9**	**20.6**	**23.2**	**25.8**	**27.3**	**28.2**
United Kingdom	Nonresident students	6.5	7.9	9.3	9.3	9.6	9.8	10.1
United States	Nonresident students	6.6	6.0	5.5	5.4	5.2	5.2	5.0
Australia	Nonresident students	1.3	1.5	2.1	2.5	2.8	3.1	3.1

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total					**3,290.5**		
Saudi Arabia				1,200.0	1,500.0		1,700.0
United Arab Emirates				738.0	1,014.1		1,200.0
Oman				152.0	162.7		200.0
Kuwait				150.0	149.1		150.0
Qatar				83.0	85.0		n.a.

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012 (Jan–Sep)
Total	**179.5**	**282.2**	**424.8**	**396.3**	**358.2**	**453.4**	**467.3**
Saudi Arabia	45.6	84.6	138.3	201.8	189.9	222.3	264.6
United Arab Emirates	100.2	139.4	221.8	140.9	113.3	156.4	130.6
Oman	12.6	32.5	37.4	34.1	37.9	53.5	53.9
Bahrain	1.6	2.6	5.9	7.1	5.9	10.6	8.4
Qatar	2.3	5.0	10.2	4.1	3.0	5.1	6.0

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20
	0.3	-2.4	-0.3	-2.3	-2.2	-1.8	-1.2

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012(e)
	5,121	5,998	7,039	8,717	9,690	12,263	14,010

Philippines

Key indicators

	Population	GDP per capita	GDP growth rate	Labor market indicators	
	Millions	Constant 2005 US$	Annual, %	Percentages	
2000	77.7	1,061	4.4	Employment/population ratio (15+), 2011	59.9
2012	96.7	1,502	6.6	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2011	7.0

Immigration in the Philippines

Stock of foreign-born population (0+)				Foreign-born population (15+)			
	Total ('000s)	% of population	% women	% 15–24	% 25–64	% low-educated	% high-educated
2000	323	0.4	49	30.3	63.0	54.8	11.9
2010	435	0.5	51				

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2010	Total
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	
% of total employment	

Flows of international students ('000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
						4.3	3.3

Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012 (Jan-June)
	11.6	12.7	11.8	11.3	13.1	15.7	8.01

Emigration from the Philippines to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in the Philippines living in OECD countries	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	745.8	1,192.1	1,938.0	966.5	1,535.8	2,502.3
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	107.5	168.8	276.4	164.1	256.4	420.5
15–24 (% of population 15+)	13.9	9.6	11.3	11.8	8.0	9.5
25–64 (% of population 15+)	75.7	80.5	78.6	76.4	79.6	78.4
Total emigration rates (%)	3.1	4.8	3.9	3.5	5.4	4.4
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	5.3	8.1	6.8	6.2	9.6	8.0

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	**192.2**	**172.9**	**168.8**	**157.5**	**163.9**	**167.6**	**160.8**
United States	60.7	74.6	72.6	54.0	60.0	58.2	57.0
Canada	17.5	17.7	19.1	23.7	27.3	36.6	35.0
Japan	63.5	28.3	25.3	21.0	15.8	13.3	13.6
Australia	4.8	5.4	6.1	7.1	8.9	10.3	10.7
Italy	5.4	4.3	3.8	7.1	9.5	10.7	10.4

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total		**6.7**	**7.1**	**7.1**	**7.8**	**8.8**	**9.8**	**10.3**
United States	Nonresident students	3.7	3.9	3.8	4.2	4.2	3.8	3.5
Australia	Nonresident students	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.6	2.1
United Kingdom	Nonresident students	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	1.1	1.8	1.7

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	2,366.0	2,476.2	2,812.5	2,965.3	3,198.9	3,624.8	3,850.9
Saudi Arabia	976.4	1,001.3	1,046.1	1,072.5	1,138.6	1,482.2	1,530.2
United Arab Emirates	231.8	291.4	493.4	541.7	576.0	606.4	658.4
Qatar	78.0	115.9	189.9	224.0	258.4	290.3	329.4
Kuwait	103.1	133.4	129.7	136.0	145.2	160.6	180.1
Hong Kong, China	166.5	121.6	116.1	125.8	140.0	141.2	156.6

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total	**686.8**	**716.4**	**870.4**	**991.1**	**1,032.6**	**1,196.2**	**1,409.9**
Saudi Arabia	223.5	238.4	275.9	291.4	293.0	316.7	330.0
United Arab Emirates	99.2	120.7	193.8	196.8	201.2	235.8	259.6
Singapore	28.4	49.4	41.7	54.4	70.3	146.6	172.7
Hong Kong, China	96.9	59.2	78.3	100.1	101.3	129.6	131.7
Qatar	45.8	56.3	84.3	89.3	87.8	100.5	104.6

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20
	-1.0	-2.1	-2.1	-2.8	-2.8	-1.4	-1.1

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012(e)
	15,251	16,302	18,642	19,765	21,423	23,065	24,453

Singapore

Key indicators

	Population	GDP per capita	GDP growth rate	Labor market indicators	
	Millions	Constant 2005 US$	Annual, %	Percentages	
2000	4.0	24,288	9.0	Employment/population ratio (15+), 2011	63.6
2012	5.3	33,989	1.3	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2011	2.9

Immigration in Singapore

Stock of foreign-born population (0+)				Foreign-born population (15+)			
	Total ('000s)	% of population	% women	% 15–24	% 25–64	% low-educated	% high-educated
2000	1,352	33.6	55.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
2010	1,967	40.7	56.0				

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2012	Total	Construction
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	1,268.3	293.4
% of total employment	37.7	66.4

Stock of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
	66.0				87.5	91.5	

Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011

Emigration from Singapore to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Singapore living in OECD countries	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	48.5	58.1	106.6	54.5	64.8	119.3
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	9.1	10.8	19.9	11.4	13.8	25.2
15–24 (% of population 15+)	19.3	17.0	18.0	19.7	14.8	17.1
25–64 (% of population 15+)	76.2	78.0	77.2	74.4	78.2	76.5
Total emigration rates (%)	3.0	3.6	3.3	3.0	3.6	3.3
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	8.6	11.3	9.9	7.7	11.0	9.1

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	**7.4**	**7.1**	**6.6**	**6.6**	**5.3**	**6.7**	**5.0**
Australia	4.1	3.6	2.5	2.4	2.1	1.9	1.5
United States	1.2	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7
Germany	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5
Canada	0.6	0.4	1.2	1.4	0.7	1.7	0.5
Republic of Korea	0.7	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total		**18.7**	**17.9**	**17.5**	**17.7**	**18.8**	**19.2**	**20.0**
Australia	Nonresident students	10.1	9.6	9.4	9.7	10.4	10.1	9.8
United Kingdom	Nonresident students	3.6	3.3	3.2	2.9	3.2	3.7	4.4
United States	Nonresident students	3.9	4.1	3.8	4.0	3.9	4.0	4.2

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total							

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total							

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20
	8.4	15.3	13.8	20.7	18.8	15.0	10.3

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012(e)
	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

Sri Lanka

Key indicators

	Population	GDP per capita	GDP growth rate	Labor market indicators	
	Millions	Constant 2005 US$	Annual, %	Percentages	
2000	19.1	1,052	6.0	Employment/population ratio (15+), 2011	52.7
2012	20.3	1,884	6.4	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2010	4.9

Immigration in Sri Lanka

Stock of foreign-born population (0+)				Foreign-born population (15+)			
Total ('000s)		% of population	% women	% 15–24	% 25–64	% low-educated	% high-educated
2000	395	2.1	50	18.1	63.8	41.8	13.4
2010	340	1.7	50				

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2010	Total
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	
% of total employment	

Flows of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1			

Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011

Emigration from Sri Lanka to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Sri Lanka living in OECD countries	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	169.2	147.7	317.0	227.2	206.0	433.2
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	26.7	30.5	57.2	38.7	42.2	81.0
15–24 (% of population 15+)	14.6	15.2	14.9	14.0	15.1	14.5
25–64 (% of population 15+)	79.8	76.8	78.4	79.6	76.8	78.3
Total emigration rates (%)	2.4	2.1	2.3	3.1	2.7	2.9
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	27.2	28.7	27.7	33.6	35.2	34.2

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	**28.2**	**27.9**	**27.0**	**33.4**	**33.1**	**41.4**	**35.3**
Italy	3.9	3.5	3.7	6.1	6.2	7.2	6.8
United Kingdom	6.0	6.0	6.1	5.0	7.0	11.0	6.0
Republic of Korea	5.0	4.1	2.5	4.8	1.7	4.2	5.9
Australia	3.0	3.3	3.8	4.8	5.3	5.8	4.9
Canada	4.7	4.5	3.9	4.5	4.3	4.2	3.1

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total		**8.3**	**9.3**	**11.1**	**12.2**	**13.2**	**13.4**	**13.2**
United Kingdom	Nonresident students	2.4	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.6	3.9	4.0
Australia	Nonresident students	2.1	2.5	3.6	4.1	4.3	4.2	3.8
United States	Nonresident students	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.9	2.9	2.9

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	**1,221.8**	**1,446.1**	**1,642.5**	**1,800.0**			
Saudi Arabia	380.8		517.7		600.0		
Kuwait	202.1		308.5		200.0		
United Arab Emirates	171.6		238.6		150.0		
Qatar	118.6		133.4				
Lebanon	93.4		117.0				

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total	**201.9**	**218.5**	**250.5**	**247.1**	**267.5**	**263.0**	
Saudi Arabia	61.4	60.5	67.4	77.8	70.8	68.6	
Qatar	35.9	38.9	39.5	43.9	54.7	52.6	
Kuwait	36.2	41.0	46.9	42.4	48.1	50.7	
United Arab Emirates	36.4	39.0	51.2	39.6	42.3	39.3	
Jordan	8.3	8.4	10.4	9.0	9.4	13.1	

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20
	-1.6	-2.9	-4.3	-1.0	-3.8	-3.0	-2.3

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012(e)
	2,185	2,527	2,947	3,363	4,155	5,193	6,312

Taipei,China

Key indicators

	Population	GDP per capita	GDP growth rate	Labor market indicators	
	Millions	Constant 2005 US$	Annual, %	Percentages	
2000	n.a.	n.a.		Employment/population ratio (15+), 2011	n.a.
2012	n.a.	n.a.		Unemployment (% of labor force), 2011	n.a.

Immigration in Taipei,China

Stock of foreign-born population (0+)				Foreign-born population (15+)				
	Total ('000s)	% of population	% women		% 15–24	% 25–64	% low-educated	% high-educated
2000	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
2010	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.				

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2012	Total	Agri, forestry & fishing	Manuf.	Construction	Health & social services
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	445.6	9.3	230.6	3.0	202.7
% of total employment	4.1	1.7	7.8	0.4	48.3

Stock of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
		3.9	5.3	6.3	7.8	8.8	10.1
Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**

Emigration from Taipei,China to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Taipei,China living in OECD countries	2000				2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total		Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	191.6	238.3	429.9		194.7	246.8	441.4
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	42.5	54.0	96.4		26.7	38.3	65.0
15–24 (% of population 15+)	22.4	17.4	19.6		13.5	10.7	11.9
25–64 (% of population 15+)	73.7	78.5	76.4		79.3	82.0	80.8
Total emigration rates (%)	2.2	2.7	2.4		1.0	1.3	1.2
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	5.3	7.0	6.0		2.2	2.9	2.5

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	**17.0**	**18.6**	**19.9**	**22.0**	**23.9**	**20.3**	**17.8**
United States	9.2	8.1	9.0	9.1	8.0	6.7	6.2
Japan	n.a.	4.5	4.9	5.6	5.4	6.6	5.6
Canada	3.1	2.8	2.8	3.0	2.5	2.8	1.9
Republic of Korea	1.6	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.6
Australia	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.8

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	**32.9**	**34.8**	**31.0**				
United States	15.5	16.5	14.9				
United Kingdom	9.2	9.7	7.1				
Australia	2.7	2.9	2.6				

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total							

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total							

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20
	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012(e)
	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

Thailand

Key indicators

	Population	GDP per capita	GDP growth rate	Labor market indicators	
	Millions	Constant 2005 US$	Annual, %	Percentages	
2000	62.3	2,206	4.8	Employment/population ratio (15+), 2011	71.2
2012	66.8	3,351	6.4	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2011	0.7

Immigration in Thailand

Stock of foreign-born population (0+)				Foreign-born population (15+)			
	Total ('000s)	% of population	% women	% 15–24	% 25–64	% low-educated	% high-educated
2000	792	1.3	48	16.8	56.9	84.7	9.9
2010	1,157	1.7	48				

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2010	Total	Agriculture and fishing	Construction	Services	Domestic workers
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	1,335.2	359.6	223.4	243.5	129.8
% of total employment	3.5	2.1	10.7	25.9	35.1

Stock of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
	5.4	7.6	10.0	13.7	16.1	17.2	

Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011

Emigration from Thailand to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Thailand living in OECD countries	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	90.8	180.0	270.8	113.0	233.9	346.9
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	15.8	33.9	49.7	19.4	59.2	78.6
15–24 (% of population 15+)	38.7	21.8	27.5	30.8	16.0	20.8
25–64 (% of population 15+)	59.6	76.3	70.7	66.1	80.6	75.9
Total emigration rates (%)	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.9	0.7
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	2.4	3.1	2.8	1.9	2.9	2.5

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	**46.6**	**56.5**	**47.5**	**46.8**	**46.6**	**50.1**	**52.8**
Japan	9.0	8.7	9.0	10.5	9.9	10.9	13.6
Republic of Korea	13.7	15.8	10.5	8.6	5.8	6.9	10.3
United States	5.5	11.8	8.8	6.6	10.4	9.4	10.0
Germany	4.7	4.2	3.6	3.2	3.4	3.3	3.2
United Kingdom	4.0	n.a.	3.0	4.0	4.0	6.0	3.0

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total		**21.9**	**22.3**	**22.9**	**22.7**	**23.1**	**23.8**	**23.2**
United States	Nonresident students	9.0	9.1	9.1	9.0	8.6	8.5	8.1
United Kingdom	Nonresident students	3.9	4.2	4.5	4.2	4.7	5.4	5.8
Australia	Nonresident students	4.9	4.7	4.9	4.6	4.4	4.2	3.7

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total			**450.0**				

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total	**108.2**	**121.9**	**122.7**	**110.8**	**106.3**	**109.3**	**98.3**
Taipei,China	62.1	52.2	45.1	35.9	40.9	47.8	39.1
Singapore	15.1	16.3	14.9	14.0	12.7	11.5	11.9
United Arab Emirates	3.6	9.9	13.0	9.6	8.3	9.6	7.3
Malaysia	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.9	3.6	4.3	4.4
Qatar	7.5	5.8	10.7	10.4	6.1	3.4	2.6

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20
	1.9	-3.8	2.0	3.4	-2.2	0.3	0.3

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012(e)
	1,333	1,635	1,898	2,776	3,580	3,994	4,124

Viet Nam

Key indicators

	Population	GDP per capita	GDP growth rate	Labor market indicators	
	Millions	Constant 2005 US$	Annual, %	Percentages	
2000	77.6	475	6.8	Employment/population ratio (15+), 2011	75.3
2012	88.8	931	5.0	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2011	2

Immigration in Viet Nam

Stock of foreign-born population (0+)				Foreign-born population (15+)			
Total ('000s)		% of population	% women	% 15–24	% 25–64	% low-educated	% high-educated
2000	56	0.07	37	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
2010	69	0.08	37				

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2011	Total
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	78.4
% of total employment	

Stock of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011

Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011

Emigration from Viet Nam to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Viet Nam living in OECD countries	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	747.4	768.6	1,515.9	854.6	903.1	1,757.7
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	63.0	86.1	149.1	59.0	97.6	156.6
15–24 (% of population 15+)	12.5	12.1	12.3	8.6	8.2	8.4
25–64 (% of population 15+)	81.1	79.9	80.5	82.3	81.1	81.7
Total emigration rates (%)	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	17.1	19.8	18.2	14.5	16.6	15.4

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	**77.9**	**81.8**	**88.0**	**98.0**	**76.3**	**87.2**	**94.3**
United States	32.8	30.7	28.7	31.5	29.2	30.6	34.2
Republic of Korea	18.0	20.0	21.2	24.0	16.4	22.9	27.9
Japan	7.7	8.5	9.9	12.5	10.9	11.9	13.9
Australia	2.5	2.9	3.4	3.0	3.3	3.9	4.8
Germany	4.9	4.5	4.1	4.0	4.5	4.3	4.2

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total		**16.6**	**20.2**	**24.6**	**29.5**	**37.3**	**41.3**	**46.2**
United States	Nonresident students	3.8	4.8	6.2	8.8	12.6	13.0	14.6
Australia	Nonresident students	2.8	3.1	4.0	5.4	7.6	9.6	10.6
France	Noncitizen students	3.7	4.7	5.2	5.1	5.8	5.8	6.2

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total			**500.0**				
Taipei,China			90.0				
Malaysia			75.0				
Russian Federation			72.0				
Lao PDR			14.5				
Saudi Arabia			11.5				

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total		**64.0**	**53.1**	**44.2**	**57.5**	**59.8**	
Taipei,China		23.6	31.6	21.7	28.5	38.8	14.0
Malaysia		26.7	7.8	2.8	11.7	10.0	3.6
Lao PDR		3.1	3.1	9.1	5.9	4.3	
Saudi Arabia		1.6	3.0	2.5	2.7	3.6	
Macao, China		2.1	3.0	3.3	3.1	2.0	

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20
	-1.0	-1.1	-0.8	-1.9	-2.0	-0.4	-0.4

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012(e)
	3,800	6,180	6,805	6,020	8,260	8,600	10,000

General Notes

1. All tables with top three/five destinations are ranked by decreasing order of frequency for the last year available.
2. Data on remittances for 2011 are estimates.
3. "n.a." data not available.
4. Educational attainment levels are defined according to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 1997). "Low-educated" persons have completed at best lower secondary education (ISCED 0/1/2). "Medium-educated" have completed at best post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED 3/4). "Highly-educated" persons hold at least a first stage tertiary degree (ISCED 5/6).
5. The definition of noncitizen students was only used for the countries for which no data on nonresident students were available.
6. Data on international students in the Asian economies are only for degree programmes (undergraduate and upwards) and do not include short-term language courses.
7. Legal migrant flows to the OECD are from Diaspora notes and include estimates for the United Kingdom.
8. Stock of foreign workers in [economy] by sector reports figures for the four largest employers of foreign workers.

In general, the totals for legal migrant flows differ slightly from what was printed in the last publication, because these have been sourced from the International Migration Database. The only exception is in case of India, Malaysia, Sri Lanka, and Thailand where important individual country data were missing, so these data were taken from the Diaspora publication and the totals changed accordingly.

Data Sources

Data	Source
Immigrant population in [economy]	
Total immigrant population 0+ (thousands)	UN International Migrant Stock, the 2008 Revision
% of total population 0+	UN International Migrant Stock, the 2008 Revision and World Population Prospects, the 2010 Revision, national data sources were used for the United Arab Emirates, Bahrain, and Qatar
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	UN International Migrant Stock, the 2008 Revision and UN World Population Prospects, the 2010 Revision
Age structure (2000, %) (population 15+):	DIOC-E 2000
Education (2000, %) (population 15+):	DIOC-E 2000
Emigrant population: persons born in [country] living abroad	DIOC-E 2000, DIOC 2000, DIOC 2005/06, UN World Population Prospects, the 2006 Revision, Barro and Lee (2010) and Lutz et al. (2010)
Legal migrant flows	OECD International Migration Database (IMD)
International students from [country] in OECD countries	UNESCO/OECD/Eurostat (UOE) Database
Net migration rate	World Population Prospects (2012 Revision), United Nations
Remittance inflows	World Bank

Metadata

Emigration to non-OECD destinations	Comments	Source
Bangladesh		
Stocks of workers overseas in non-OECD countries		Population and Housing Census 2011; "Policy on Labour Migration for Cambodia", ILO and Department of Employment and Manpower Cambodia, June 2010 (original source: Community Welfare Attaché of the respective Middle East country)
Flows of workers deployed to non-OECD countries	All totals include the category "others"	Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training (BMET)
People's Republic of China		
Stock of foreign workers		News report citing official in the Ministry of Human Resources and Social Security, available at http://www.chinadaily.com.cn/china/2011-06/29/content_12797988.htm
Stock of international students		Project Atlas
International students in OECD	Figures include those for Taipei,China	
Stock of workers in non-OECD countries	Figures for 2006 are up to June 2006. The total number at the end of 2006 was 675,000. Figure for 2008 is approximate, based on information on the Ministry of Commerce website	Country report, Asian and Pacific Migration Journal, Vol.17, Nos.3-4 (2008) (original source: Ministry of Commerce)
Flows of workers deployed to non-OECD countries		Ministry of Commerce
India		
Stock of foreign workers		2001 Census
Inflow of international students	2009 refers to 2008/09 academic year	Association of Indian Universities (2009), as cited in Kumar and Kumar: "Migration of Students: A case of BRIC countries"
Stocks of workers overseas in non-OECD countries		"Policy on Labour Migration for Cambodia", ILO and Department of Employment and Manpower Cambodia, June 2010 (original source: Community Welfare Attaché of the respective Middle East country)
Flows of workers deployed to non-OECD countries		Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs (MOIA, Annual Report 2011-12)
Indonesia		
Stock of foreign workers	Trade includes wholesale and retail trade, hotels, and restaurants	Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration
Stock of international students		Quoting an official of the Ministry of Education, available at http://edukasi.kompas.com/read/2011/05/23/08323981/Foreign.Students.in.Indonesia.Mostly.Malaysians

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Metadata continued

Emigration to non-OECD destinations	Comments	Source
Stock of workers in non-OECD countries		(i) ILO news 17 December 2010, based on BNP2TKI available at http://www.ilo.org/jakarta/info/public/pr/WCMS_150358/lang--en/index.htm, (ii) Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration, cited in IOM Report (2010) "Labour Migration from Indonesia", (iii) World Bank presentation "Malaysia-Indonesia Remittance Corridor"; news reports
Flows of workers deployed to non-OECD countries		BNP2TKI
Lao PDR		
Stock of foreign workers		IOM, available at http://www.iom.int/cms/en/sites/iom/home/where-we-work/asia-and-the-pacific/lao-pdr.html
Inflows of foreign workers	Number of work permits issued in 2011	Department of Skills Development and Employment, Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare
Flows of workers deployed to non-OECD countries	2012 refers to 2011/12	Country presentation at ADBI-OECD roundtable
Malaysia		
Stock of foreign workers	Figure for agriculture includes plantation	Country presentation at ADBI-OECD roundtable; presentation by Deputy Director-General, Labour Department, Malaysia "Migration of Labour to Malaysia", presentation to the ASEAN Services Employees Trade Union Council (ASETUC) at the National Advocacy Workshop: "ASETUC for ASEAN Community - From Vision to Action", 8-9 June 2010, Kuala Lumpur; LFS Malaysia 2011
Stock of international students		Ministry of Higher Education; Project Atlas; Speech by Minister of Education, 30 October 2012
Pakistan		
Stock of workers in non-OECD countries	Figures are for stocks of Pakistanis overseas (including workers, students and other categories). We assume that for the Gulf countries, most of this figure represents migrant workers.	Amjad et al. (2012): "Explaining the Ten-fold Increase in Remittances to Pakistan 2001-2012", PIDE/IGC preliminary study Ministry of Overseas Pakistanis
Flows of workers deployed	Figures for 2012 are only until September	Bureau of Emigration and Overseas Employment
Philippines		
Inflows of foreign workers	Figure for 2012 is only from January–June 2012	Department of Labor and Employment
Inflow of international students	Number of new student visas issued	Bureau of Immigration
Stock of workers in non-OECD countries		POEA

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Metadata continued

Emigration to non-OECD destinations	Comments	Source
Flows of workers deployed to non-OECD countries	Only land-based overseas Filipino workers deployed abroad	POEA
Sri Lanka		
Inflows of foreign workers	Number of visas issued to foreigners working in Sri Lanka	Institute of Policy Studies (2008): "International Migration Outlook, Sri Lanka" (original source: Department of Immigration and Emigration)
Inflow of international students		Institute of Policy Studies (2008): "International Migration Outlook, Sri Lanka"
Stock of workers in non-OECD countries		Institute of Policy Studies (2008): "International Migration Outlook, Sri Lanka" (original source: Bureau of Foreign Employment); "Sri Lanka Country Study" by Judith Shaw (original source: SLBFE 2005); "Policy on Labour Migration for Cambodia", ILO and Department of Employment and Manpower Cambodia, June 2010
Flows of workers deployed to non-OECD countries	2011 figures are provisional	SLBFE; Annual Statistical Report on Labour Employment 2011
Singapore		
Stock of foreign workers	End of December 2012	Yearbook of Manpower Statistics 2013
Stock of international students		WENR, Migration Information Source
Taipei,China		
Stock of foreign workers	Health and social services includes nursing and home-maids	Bureau of Employment and Vocational Training
Stock of international students		Ministry of Education
International students in OECD countries	Number of students obtaining visas from foreign nations	Ministry of Education
Thailand		
Stock of foreign workers		Department of Employment, Ministry of Labour
Stock of international students		Office of the Higher Education Commission
Inflows of foreign workers		Migration Information System in Asia (original source: Office of Foreign Workers' Administration)
Stock of workers in non-OECD countries	Figures include illegal workers	Bank of Thailand (2009): "Thailand's Experiences on Compilation of Compensation to Employee and Workers' Remittance Statistics", presentation, available online
Flows of workers deployed to non-OECD countries		Asian Research Centre for Migration (original source: Department of Employment)
Viet Nam		
Stock of foreign workers		MOLISA
Stock of workers in non-OECD countries		MOLISA, country presentation at ADBI-OECD roundtable
Flows of workers deployed to non-OECD countries	2012 figures only until June 2012	Department of Labour, MOLISA; country presentation

Annex 2

Comparative Tables

Table 1: Inflows from Asia to the OECD ('000s)

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Afghanistan	17	20	15	13	13	16	15	11	13	18	24	27
Azerbaijan	1	2	5	4	4	4	5	3	3	3	6	4
Bangladesh	23	24	19	22	30	37	42	34	40	50	50	50
Bhutan	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	9	14
Brunei Darussalam	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cambodia	4	5	5	5	6	7	11	9	10	9	10	12
People's Republic of China	282	334	335	322	367	438	503	518	530	460	508	529
Georgia	1	2	7	7	8	11	10	9	8	8	8	7
Hong Kong, China	10	12	13	12	10	8	10	8	8	6	9	7
India	113	151	161	145	192	213	206	213	215	227	253	241
Indonesia	29	32	33	31	27	35	30	27	31	22	25	28
Japan	34	38	39	35	36	42	34	32	29	34	32	33
Kazakhstan	5	4	17	15	12	9	8	7	7	7	8	8
Republic of Korea	59	69	62	54	57	66	68	72	79	78	76	71
Kyrgyz Republic	1	1	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	3
Lao PDR	2	2	2	1	2	2	4	4	3	3	3	3
Malaysia	11	14	12	13	16	11	12	20	24	20	22	17
Maldives	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mongolia	6	6	4	7	8	11	15	15	15	9	10	9
Myanmar	2	3	3	3	3	5	11	10	10	23	19	7
Nepal	4	3	5	6	8	9	14	17	19	23	25	29
Pakistan	54	59	49	47	73	74	83	74	76	77	100	105
Philippines	165	188	195	192	211	192	173	169	158	164	168	159
Singapore	6	6	6	5	6	7	7	7	7	5	7	9
Sri Lanka	23	21	22	24	23	28	28	21	33	33	41	35
Taipei,China	16	21	21	15	20	17	32	33	22	24	20	18
Tajikistan	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	4
Thailand	32	35	34	35	36	47	51	48	47	47	50	52
Turkmenistan	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	2	1
Uzbekistan	8	6	8	11	8	9	11	12	20	13	16	16
Viet Nam	52	60	64	55	66	78	82	88	98	76	87	94
Total	**960**	**1,117**	**1,139**	**1,083**	**1,245**	**1,379**	**1,470**	**1,465**	**1,511**	**1,449**	**1,593**	**1,591**

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

Table 2: General Characteristics of Emigrants from Asia in the OECD, 2005/06

	Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	% men	Low educated (%)	High educated (%)	15–24 (%)	65+ (%)
Afghanistan	259.7	54.8	44.2	23.5	26.2	4
Azerbaijan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Bangladesh	398.5	55.8	37.7	37.8	14.2	5.7
Bhutan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Brunei Darussalam	9.8	47.6	17.8	51.2	23.6	2.7
Cambodia	254.5	46.9	45.4	19.7	6.2	10
People's Republic of China	2,724.5	46.0	26	44.7	15.8	14.4
Georgia	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Hong Kong, China	577	48.0	16.3	53.8	15.9	6.9
India	2,775.2	53.0	16.6	63.3	9.8	11.1
Indonesia	336	45.4	17.9	41.9	10.9	24.6
Japan	606	37.8	7.9	54.5	11.7	11.7
Kazakhstan	701.2	47.5	38.2	14.7	19.9	15
Republic of Korea	1,652.5	43.4	15	45.1	14.8	11.8
Kyrgyz Republic	13.3	46.2	17.9	47.7	23.6	2.7
Lao PDR	256.1	49.4	41.1	19.7	3.5	9.1
Malaysia	245.9	44.3	11.6	58.4	17.5	7.6
Maldives	1	50.0	7.6	70.9	15.5	0.1
Mongolia	13.5	36.5	17.4	46.9	27.6	0.9
Myanmar	78.4	48.2	25.3	44.3	9.8	18
Nepal	62.1	60.8	17.5	46.9	21	0.9
Pakistan	843.1	56.0	34.5	39.3	13.7	6.6
Philippines	2,502.3	38.6	13.7	51.9	9.5	12.2
Singapore	119.3	45.7	16.3	52.7	17.1	6.5
Sri Lanka	433.2	52.4	29.2	34.2	14.5	7.2
Taipei,China	441.4	44.1	7.1	69.8	11.9	7.2
Tajikistan	12.3	46.9	20	48.3	22.5	8.3
Thailand	346.9	32.6	30.6	33.4	20.8	3.3
Turkmenistan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Uzbekistan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Viet Nam	1,757.7	48.6	33.5	27.7	8.4	9.9

Source: OECD Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries (DIOC) 2005/06.

Table 3: Emigration Rates to the OECD, by Education Level, 2005/06

	Total (%)	Low educated (%)	Intermediate educated (%)	High educated (%)
Afghanistan	1.9	1.1	3.3	6
Azerbaijan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Bangladesh	0.4	0.2	0.3	3.7
Bhutan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Brunei Darussalam	3.6	1.7	2.1	17.2
Cambodia	2.8	1.5	6.0	43.7
People's Republic of China	0.3	0.2	0.1	1.7
Georgia	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Hong Kong, China	8.8	4.6	5.0	25.8
India	0.4	0.1	0.2	4.2
Indonesia	0.2	0.0	0.3	3.7
Japan	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.9
Kazakhstan	5.7	22.7	3.7	5
Republic of Korea	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.8
Kyrgyz Republic	0.4	0.2	0.2	1.5
Lao PDR	7	4.3	9.7	24.8
Malaysia	1.4	0.5	0.7	5.6
Maldives	0.5	0.1	0.3	24.5
Mongolia	0.7	0.5	0.3	2.4
Myanmar	0.2	0.1	0.5	1.3
Nepal	0.4	0.1	0.5	6.2
Pakistan	0.8	0.4	0.7	5.7
Philippines	4.4	1.8	3.9	8
Singapore	3.3	1.2	2.6	9.1
Sri Lanka	2.9	2.0	1.8	34.2
Taipei,China	1.2	0.8	1.1	2.5
Tajikistan	0.3	0.4	0.1	3
Thailand	0.7	0.3	0.9	2.5
Turkmenistan	n.a.	0.6	0.1	0.8
Uzbekistan	n.a.	2.4	0.3	2.3
Viet Nam	2.9	1.4	4.2	15.4

Source: OECD Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries (DIOC) 2005/06.

Table 4: Outflows of Workers from Asia, by Destination ('000s)

	Bangladesh		India		Indonesia		Lao PDR		Nepal		Pakistan		Philippines		Sri Lanka		Thailand		Viet Nam	
	2011	2012	2011	2012	2010	2011	2011	2012	2010–2011	2011–2012	2010	2011	2011	2012	2010	2011	2011	2012	2011	2012*
Gulf Cooperation Council countries																				
United Arab Emirates	282.739	215.452	138.861	141.138	37.337	39.857			44.464	54.294	113.312	156.353	235.775	259.546	42.198	39.339	9.569	7.312	1.160	
Saudi Arabia	15.039	21.232	289.297	357.503	228.89	137.643			71.116	80.380	189.888	222.247	316.736	330.040	70.896	68.637			3.627	
Oman	135.265	170.326	73.819	84.384	9.259	7.292				2.352*	37.878	53.525	15.029		6.370	5.382				
Kuwait	0.029	0.002	45.149	55.868	0.563	2.723			15.187	23.790	0.153	0.173	65.603	75.286	48.105	50.657	2.786	1.792		
Bahrain	13.996	21.777	14.323	20.15	4.844	4.375				4.543*	5.877	10.641	18.230	22.271	7.057	5.429		1.100		
Qatar	13.111	28.801	41.71	63.096	13.559	16.578			102.966	103.371	3.039	5.121	100.530	104.622	53.632	52.553	3.366	2.629	0.007	
Other Middle East																				
Jordan	4.387	11.726		1.819	5.695	1.413					0.172	0.178			9.446	13.144				
Lebanon	19.169	14.864		0.288							0.021	0.03			6.062	5.147				
Israel																1.481	9.333	5.059		
Asia, OECD																				
Japan	0.77	0.420			0.233	2.508	0.136	0.078			0.03	0.048	9.285		0.123	0.099	9.302	8.596	6.985	3.982
Republic of Korea	2.021	1.447			7.596	11.39				1.939*	0.251	0.012	10.943		5.257	7.411	10.964	10.329	15.214	7.561
Asia, non-OECD																				
Singapore	48.667	58.657			39.623	47.781					0.058	0.062	146.613	172.690	1.041	1.076	11.461	11.864		
Malaysia	0.742	0.804		21.241	116.056	134.108			105.906	98.339	3.287	2.092	16.797	38.407	3.690	2.461	4.321	4.441	9.977	3.568
Taipei,China					62.048	73.498							41.896	41.492			47.839	39.128	38.796	14.005
Thailand			0.027	0.009		1.113	8.386	8.105							0.006	0.002				
Hong Kong, China					33.262	50.283					0.033	0.026	129.575	131.68	0.306	0.366	2.834	2.533		
Brunei Darussalam	22.593	5.038			7.36	10.805					0.062	0.079	15.406		0.013	0.012	3.354	2.697		
Indonesia			0.022	0.011																
India					0.012	0.519									0.090	0.085	2.619	2.391		
People's Republic of China											0.191	0.18				0.005				

* first semester only

Table 5: Migrant Remittance Inflows in Asia, 2000–2012 (US$ million)

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012(e)
Afghanistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	106	233	462	462	445
Azerbaijan	57	104	182	171	228	693	813	1287	1554	1274	1432	1915	1804
Bangladesh	1,968	2,105	2,858	3,192	3,584	4,315	5,428	6,562	8,941	10,521	10,850	12,068	14,060
Bhutan	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	3	4	5	8	10	10
Brunei Darussalam	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cambodia	121	133	140	138	177	200	297	351	321	335	318	245	257
People's Republic of China	4,822	6,539	10,293	14,542	19,578	23,478	27,401	38,186	47,492	47,930	52,269	61,365	60,246
Georgia	209	222	230	236	303	346	485	695	732	714	806	1110	1061
Hong Kong, China	136	153	121	120	240	297	294	317	355	348	340	357	377
India	12,883	14,273	15,736	20,999	18,750	22,125	28,334	37,217	49,977	49,468	54,035	63,011	69,350
Indonesia	1,190	1,046	1,259	1,489	1,866	5,420	5,722	6,174	6,794	6,793	6,916	6,924	7,207
Japan	1,374	1,984	1,821	1,078	931	1,080	1,380	1,577	1,929	1,776	1,802	2,298	2,728
Kazakhstan	122	171	205	148	166	178	186	223	192	261	291	240	162
Republic of Korea	4,858	4,832	5,530	6,304	6,570	6,509	6,180	6,812	10,732	8,913	8,725	10,391	11,042
Kyrgyz Republic	9	11	37	78	189	322	481	713	1,232	991	1,275	1,724	2,024
Lao PDR	1	1	1	1	1	1	4	6	18	38	42	110	117
Malaysia	342	367	435	571	802	1,117	1,365	1,556	1,329	1,131	1,102	1,198	1,272
Maldives	2	2	2	2	3	2	3	8	6	5	3	3	3
Mongolia	12	25	56	129	203	180	181	178	225	200	277	279	288
Myanmar	102	116	105	84	117	129	115	81	55	54	115	127	566
Nepal	111	147	678	771	823	1,212	1,453	1,734	2,727	2,986	3,469	4,217	4,953
Pakistan	1,075	1,461	3,554	3,964	3,945	4,280	5,121	5,998	7,039	8,717	9,690	12,263	14,010
Philippines	6,961	8,769	9,735	10,243	11,471	13,566	15,251	16,302	18,642	19,765	21,427	23,065	24,453
Singapore	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Sri Lanka	1,166	1,185	1,309	1,438	1,590	1,991	2,185	2,527	2,947	3,363	4,155	5,193	6,312
Tajikistan	..	..	79	146	252	467	1,019	1,691	2,544	1,748	2,306	3,060	3,739
Taipei,China	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Thailand	1,697	1,252	1,380	1,607	1,622	1,187	1,333	1,635	1,898	2,776	3,580	3,994	4,124
Turkmenistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uzbekistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Viet Nam	1,340	1,100	1,770	2,100	2,310	3,150	3,800	6,180	6,805	6,020	8,260	8,600	10,000
Total	**40,558**	**45,996**	**57,515**	**69,551**	**75,719**	**92,245**	**108,834**	**138,014**	**174,596**	**176,363**	**193,956**	**224,230**	**240,610**

Note: All numbers are in current US dollars.

Source: World Bank.

Table 6: Net Migration Rate (per 1,000 population)

	1980–1985	1985–1990	1990–1995	1995–2000	2000–2005	2005–2010
Afghanistan	-51.00	-23.14	51.19	-3.53	7.65	-2.58
Azerbaijan	-3.35	-4.36	-3.09	-3.21	1.28	1.20
Bangladesh	-2.17	-0.59	-1.86	-1.55	-2.21	-4.02
Bhutan	0.35	0.61	-37.53	0.05	11.37	4.86
Brunei Darussalam	3.57	2.20	3.10	3.53	2.04	1.84
Cambodia	0.00	3.44	3.01	1.58	-1.83	-3.71
People's Republic of China	-0.05	-0.04	-0.14	-0.11	-0.36	-0.29
Georgia	-0.83	-2.40	-20.67	-15.90	-13.40	-6.80
Hong Kong, China	3.15	5.72	5.22	17.04	-0.33	5.08
India	0.10	0.00	-0.03	-0.10	-0.35	-0.51
Indonesia	-0.10	-0.30	-0.75	-0.75	-1.08	-1.11
Japan	0.36	-1.04	0.73	0.03	0.08	0.43
Kazakhstan	-5.36	-7.37	-18.60	-17.10	-2.93	0.09
Republic of Korea	1.63	2.08	-2.89	-2.27	-0.42	-0.13
Kyrgyz Republic	-3.75	-7.38	-12.15	-1.13	-9.98	-5.07
Lao PDR	-2.04	0.01	-1.34	-3.46	-4.16	-2.51
Malaysia	2.40	5.43	3.31	3.82	3.20	0.62
Maldives	0.00	-2.57	-2.63	-0.84	-0.07	-0.04
Mongolia	0.00	0.00	-7.86	-4.90	-1.21	-1.13
Myanmar	-0.32	-0.73	-0.62	0.02	-4.38	-2.12
Nepal	-1.27	-1.61	-0.99	-0.86	-0.77	-0.70
Pakistan	3.06	0.27	-2.51	-0.28	-2.31	-2.41
Philippines	-0.70	-1.03	-2.13	-2.12	-2.77	-2.76
Singapore	12.08	8.48	14.26	13.72	11.36	30.87
Sri Lanka	-5.06	-1.64	-2.88	-4.33	-1.04	-2.46
Taipei,China	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Tajikistan	-1.75	-3.37	-10.69	-11.16	-13.36	-8.88
Thailand	1.37	1.85	-3.80	1.94	3.40	1.45
Turkmenistan	-2.25	-2.01	2.55	-2.30	-4.91	-2.23
Uzbekistan	-1.92	-4.66	-3.13	-3.36	-5.96	-3.88
Viet Nam	-1.14	-1.04	-0.90	-0.75	-1.07	-1.01

Source: World Population Prospects: The 2010 Revision (UNDESA).

Labor Migration, Skills & Student Mobility in Asia

This report is a summary of the major policy issues raised at discussions among experts and practitioners from various international organizations and several Asian countries at the “Third Roundtable on Labor Migration: Assessing Labor Market Requirements for Foreign Workers and Policies for Regional Skills Mobility.” The roundtable was co-organized by the Asian Development Bank Institute (ADBI), the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), and the International Labour Organization (ILO) in Bangkok from 23 to 25 January 2013.

The report highlights the trends and outlook for labor migration in Asia and assesses the labor market requirements for foreign workers. It also focuses on building a mobility area for skills to help create a “free flow of skilled labor” among the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) member states, gaining from skills portability and links between education and migration, as well as managing low-skilled migration and promoting decent work opportunities for labor migrants.

The annex of the report includes a compilation of updated data on the international migration flows within and from Asia to provide a better understanding of the labor migration trends in the region.

About the Asian Development Bank Institute (ADBI)
ADBI, located in Tokyo, is the think tank of the Asian Development Bank. Its mission is to identify effective development strategies and improve development management in ADB’s developing member countries. ADBI has an extensive network of partners in the Asia and Pacific region and beyond. ADBI’s activities are guided by its three strategic priority themes of inclusive and sustainable growth, regional cooperation and integration, and governance for policies and institutions.

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