LABOR MIGRATION IN ASIA:

BUILDING EFFECTIVE INSTITUTIONS

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International Labour Organization

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FOREWORD

The large movements of workers between countries, both within Asia and between Asia and other regions, show no signs of abating. Indeed, six of the world's top 10 countries of net emigration are in Asia, including the top three. People are looking to improve their lives by finding work abroad. At the same time, evolving demographics in some medium- and high-income Asian countries have created a need to attract labor, including talented labor.

While these flows of labor migration are being generated by human aspirations and labor market dynamics, there is a keen recognition that the flows need to be organized. This means assisting workers in securing employment and ensuring that they are protected in the work they do. It also means that receiving countries can effectively pinpoint the types of workers and skills that are needed and offer decent work opportunities.

It is imperative for governments in labor-receiving countries to develop appropriate institutions and structures to assess the need for particular occupations and skill sets, set up mechanisms to secure appropriate workers from other countries, and ensure the fair treatment of those who come to work. The report illustrates the distinctive policies and institutions in three destination countries in Asia.

Governments in some labor-sending countries have been proactive in setting up institutions and structures to support and safeguard the welfare of their citizens working abroad. Key services to be considered and provided include providing timely information, facilitating appropriate predeparture orientation, ensuring that recruitment is conducted through honest recruiters who are connected to good employers, and providing assistance to workers in foreign countries. Support for returnees is also being developed in a few countries.

The institutions and structures developed by—and between—countries of origin and destination are diverse. There is much that countries can learn from each other. The lessons learned and diversity of experiences were discussed at the Fifth Roundtable on Labor Migration in Asia, titled "Building Effective Institutions and Structures for Migration Governance in Asia." The event was held in Shanghai, the People's Republic of China in January 2015 and hosted by the Asia-Pacific Finance and Development Institute. It brought together experts on migration with government officials working directly on migration policies and programs. The discussion was interesting, in-depth, and fruitful.

The annual Roundtable on Labor Migration in Asia has been organized since 2011 by the Asian Development Bank Institute and the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), and since 2013 also by the International Labour Organization (ILO). In recent years, the three organizations have worked together to produce a yearly report on the themes of each roundtable. We hope that this year's report, the fourth in the series, provides useful reading for experts, policy makers, and practitioners.

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CHAPTER 1

Trends in Labor Migration in Asia

Philippe Hervé and Cansin Arslan, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

1.1 Introduction

Migration is a global and growing phenomenon. Migration comprises different kinds of movements: for employment, for family reasons, for study, or forced migration as a result of conflict or natural disasters. In Asia, international migration is most often about seeking employment, although all kinds of movement can be found. This chapter focuses on labor migration in Asia and by Asians around the world. It also looks at migration of Asians for study, at the labor market situation of Asian emigrants, and at the remittances they send home.

Migration for employment follows trends related to global economic patterns, falling during global slowdowns and rebounding with recovery (OECD 2014). Most of Asia's labor migration occurs within the region and toward countries in the Arabian Peninsula, and mainly comprises lesser-skilled labor. Labor migration movements in Asia, as elsewhere, are highly sensitive to economic cycles in destination countries. When many labor migrants work in petroleum-based economies, their deployment is particularly sensitive to fluctuations in oil prices. When understanding migration to Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries, demographic factors need to be given more weight, since aging populations and shrinking cohorts of less qualified youth are contributing factors regardless of the economic cycle. The same is true for some smaller destination economies in Asia where the context is similar to that in a number of OECD countries.

This chapter presents the latest available data on the main trends in migration from and within Asia. The first section provides a discussion of labor migration flows to Asian and Middle Eastern countries. This is followed by a description of flows from Asia to OECD countries. International students—for which Asia is the fastest-growing region of origin—are then discussed, followed by the labor market outcomes of Asian migrants. Finally, an overview of trends in remittances is provided.

1.2 How Asia Fits into Global Migration Patterns

According to the United Nations definition, the stock of international migrants reached an estimated 232 million in 2013 (UNDESA 2013). Asia, the most populous continent, plays a major role in global migration. In 2013, there were 77 million Asian emigrants around the world, up by almost 50% on the 2000 figure. About 16 million of them were living in the Middle East, 14 million in North America, and 13 million in Europe.[1]

[1] This analysis differs from those published by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), because it excludes the Western Asian countries, which are included by UNDESA in its definition of Asia.

As a destination region, Asia hosts one in eight international migrants. Relative to its population size, however, Asia has less international migration than all other continents—only 1%, compared with 3% globally, 10% for Europe, and 15% for North America. However, Asian figures are partly lowered by the exclusion of enormous internal migration flows within the Asian countries with wide geographic extension and large demographic size. The People's Republic of China (PRC) alone had at least 145 million internal labor migrants[2] in 2010, more than 10% of its population (National Bureau of Statistics of China 2010). India's 2001 census counted 42 million interstate migrants, almost 5% of its population; survey data in 2007 found a similar interstate migration rate (NSSO 2010). Migration within these countries often involves crossing distances and language barriers comparable to those within Europe, for example, yet is not considered international migration.

Still, labor migration from and within Asia is a key component of international migration flows. Further, Asian migrants remain an essential element of labor markets in North America, Oceania, and Europe, to which they contribute significantly in the most-skilled categories: more than 8 million persons (OECD 2015a). Worker outflows from Asia have reached very high levels in recent years, but shadows over economies in the region (OECD 2015b) and oil-producing countries (IMF 2015) might change the story in the next few years.

1.3 Labor Migration Flows from Asia to Non-OECD Countries

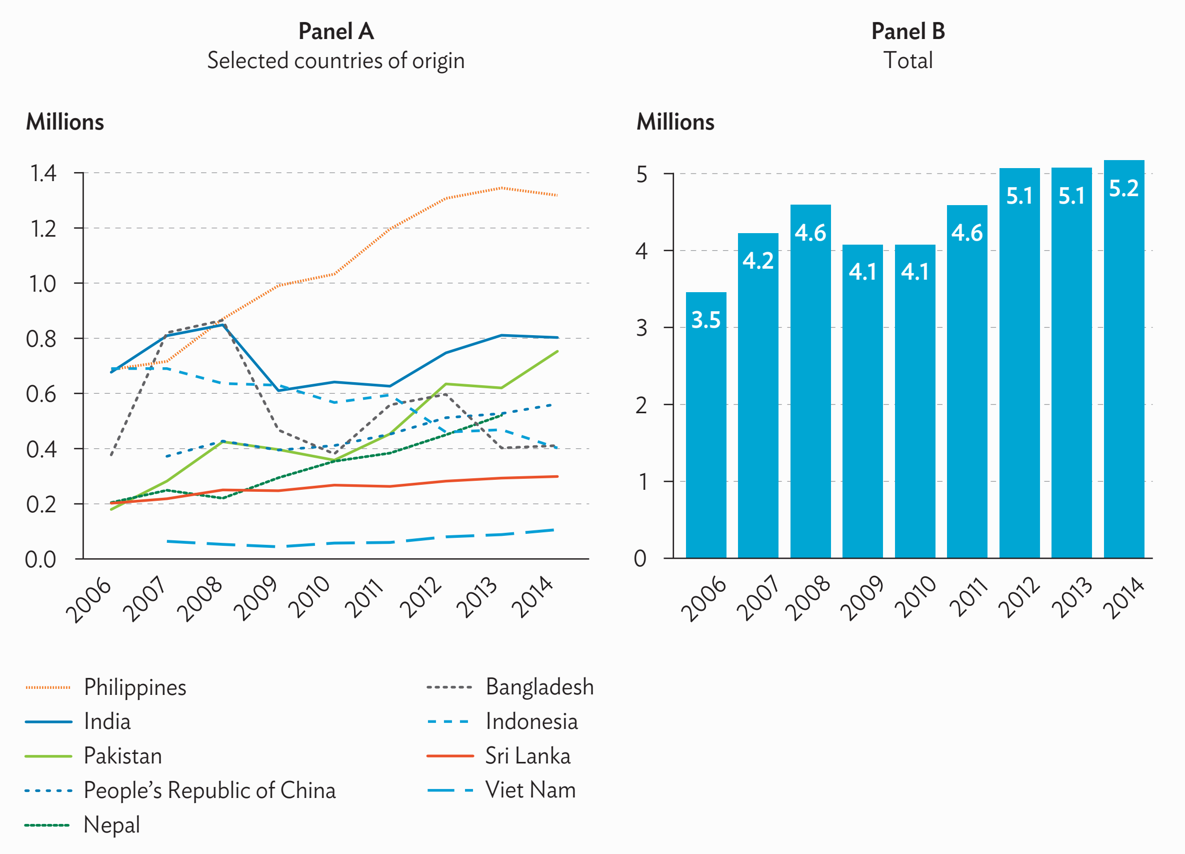
The main driver of migration in Asia is semi-skilled or low-skilled labor migration to the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries on the Arabian Peninsula or within the region. The Philippines has long been the largest country of origin, with more than 1.3 million emigrants in 2014 alone (Figure 1.1, panel A). Despite a 2% drop in 2014, it remains the leading source of labor migration, far ahead of India (800,000) and Pakistan (750,000). For Pakistan, 2014 represents a historical high and a 20% increase from 2013. After several years of steadily increasing labor emigration, the PRC saw a record high number of workers going abroad in 2014, with more than half a million. Following an opposite trend, labor migration from Indonesia, which was comparable to that from India and the Philippines in 2006, has been steadily decreasing over the last 10 years. In 2014, 430,000 workers left Indonesia, 16% fewer than a year earlier. According to the Indonesian national agency for placement and protection of Indonesian labor (BNP2TKI 2015), the deployment of women fell 12%, while the figure for men fell only 9%. The government has been discouraging the emigration of low-educated Indonesian women for a number of years, and the outflow of women has fallen more sharply than that of men. Emigration from Bangladesh amounted to 400,000 workers in 2014, similar to the previous year. This is a relatively low level for Bangladesh, which recorded much higher figures until Saudi Arabia imposed a recruitment ban in 2008 and the United Arab Emirates imposed a ban in 2012. The Saudi recruitment ban was lifted in 2015, so numbers may increase in the future. Nepal has become a major contributor, in spite of its relatively small population, with more than 500,000 workers departing in 2013, up from around 200,000 in the mid-2000s. This represents almost 2% of the

[2] Persons working outside of their hometown for at least 6 months.

population, and reflects the expansion of bilateral agreements with destination countries. The number of workers emigrating from Sri Lanka has increased steadily since 2006 and reached 300,000 in 2014, which places the country between Nepal and the Philippines in per capita terms. Viet Nam sent more than 100,000 workers abroad for the first time in 2014, a 20% increase from the previous year. The PRC sent more than 520,000 contract workers abroad in 2014, almost all for projects run by Chinese companies, but there is no information on the destination countries of these workers.

Total labor migration from these countries was stable in 2014, at 5.2 million workers (Figure 1.1, panel B). This is comparable to the levels in 2012 and 2013, but 50% higher than in the mid-2000s.

Figure 1.1: Outflows of Workers from Selected Asian Countries, 2006–2014

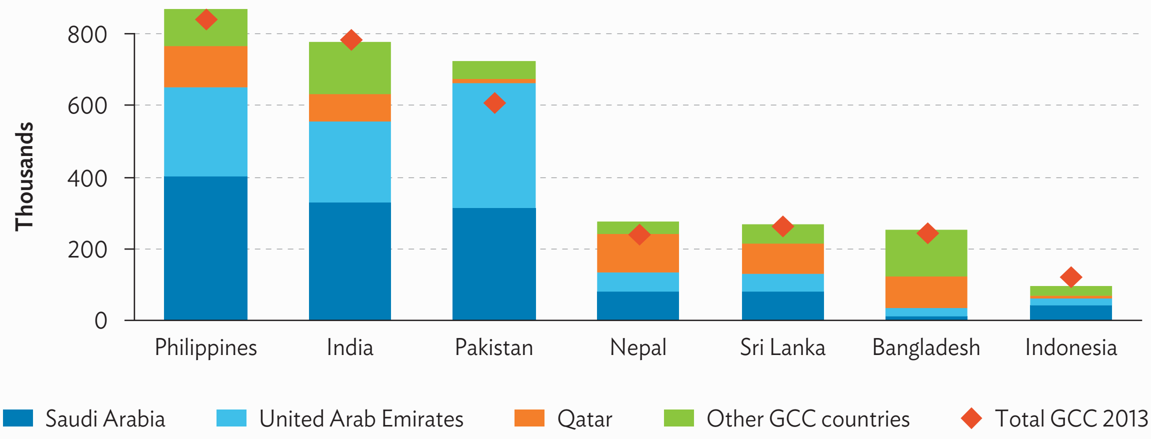


Source: National authorities.

The main destination for Asian workers remains the Middle East, in particular GCC countries. For the seven origin countries for which data are available, in 2014, the Gulf countries received 72% of all placements (compared with 70% in 2013).

Saudi Arabia alone received around 400,000 workers from the Philippines, and over 300,000 each from India and Pakistan (Figure 1.2). Another 350,000 Pakistani workers were dispatched to the United Arab Emirates (UAE), the number two destination for Asian workers in the GCC. In the last 2 years, following a

Figure 1.2: Flows of Workers to Gulf Countries, 2014



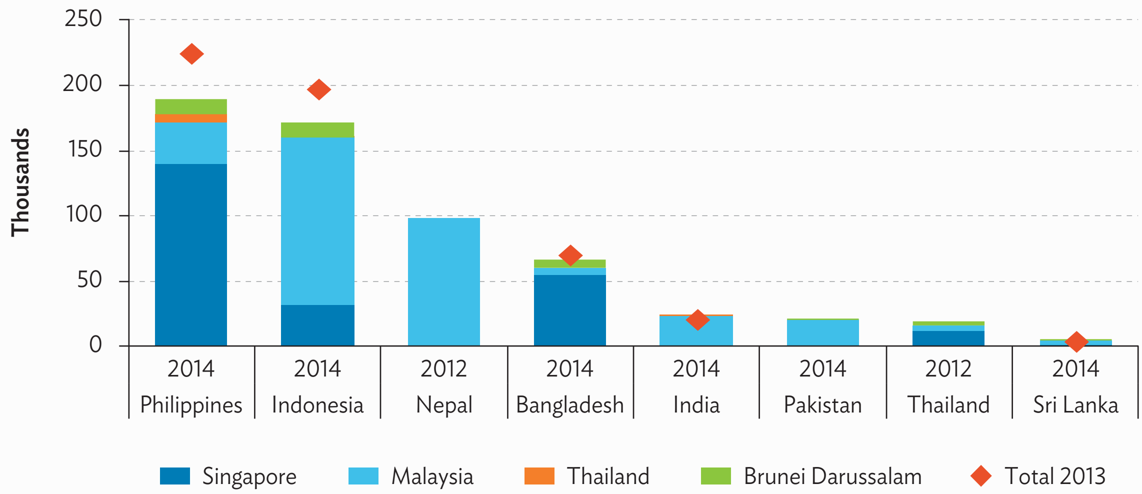
GCC = Gulf Cooperation Council, UAE = United Arab Emirates.
Note: Nepal figures are for 2012.
Source: National authorities of origin countries.

recruitment ban, Pakistan has replaced Bangladesh as the main Asian source of labor migration to the UAE. Qatar is a fast-growing destination for Asian workers, reflecting its sustained economic development. In 2014, the Philippines and Nepal each provided Qatar with more than 100,000 workers, and around 90,000 each came from Bangladesh and Sri Lanka, making labor migration from Asia to Qatar 50% higher than in 2011.

Intra-Asia labor migration declined slightly in 2014 but remains high due to wage and demographic differences among the countries. Singapore; Malaysia; and Hong Kong, China are still attractive economies for labor migrants, but some important corridors were less active in 2014 than in the previous year. For example, the Philippines sent only 140,000 workers to Singapore, a decline of 20% from 2013. A drop of similar magnitude has been observed concerning the Philippines–Hong Kong, China corridor, which was used by just over 100,000 workers in 2014. As a result, and unlike 2013, there were more Filipinos going to Qatar than to Hong Kong, China. There was also a 43% increase, to 60,000, in the number of Filipinos going to Taipei,China. Overall, 400,000 workers from the Philippines migrated to other Asian economies in 2014. The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) countries alone received 200,000 of them, a fall of 40,000 from the previous year and a return to the 2011 level.

The second main intraregional migration route connects Indonesia and Malaysia. In 2014, this route was followed by 130,000 Indonesian workers going to Malaysia, a 15% decrease from the previous year. All ASEAN countries received fewer Indonesian workers in 2014 from a year earlier, resulting in an overall reduction of worker outflow from Indonesia of –11%. One could have expected flows from Bangladesh to rise, to compensate for the recruitment bans in certain Gulf markets, but the number of workers from Bangladesh going to ASEAN countries has been relatively stable over the last 2 years, at around 65,000 people.

Figure 1.3: Flows of Workers to ASEAN Countries, by Origin and Destination, 2012–2014

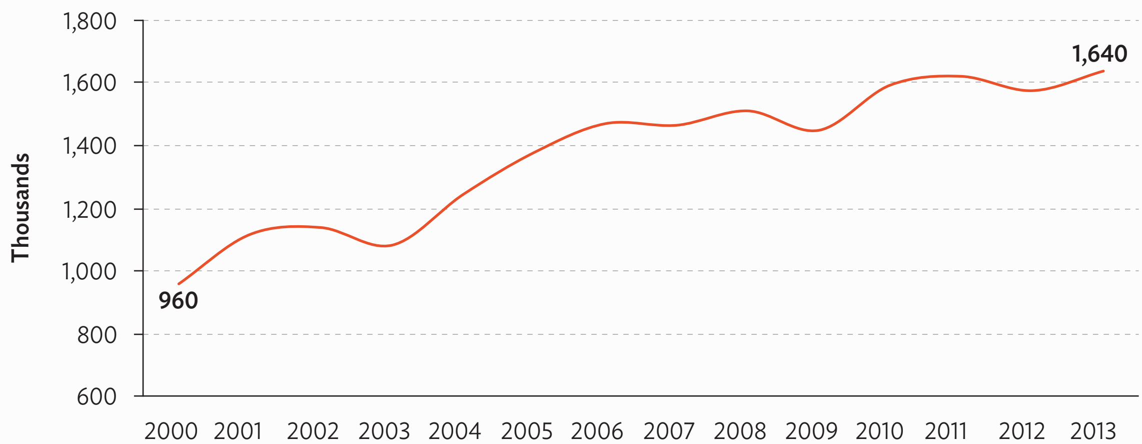


Source: National authorities of origin countries.

1.4 Migration Flows from Asia to OECD Countries

Migration from Asia has been a major component of overall migration to OECD countries for the last 10 years. Since 2006, around 1.5 million Asian citizens leave their country each year to live in an OECD country (Figure 1.4). In 2013, these flows reached a historical high of over 1.6 million and up 4% from the previous year. This means that in 2013, 3 out of 10 new immigrants to the OECD came from Asia.

Figure 1.4: Migration Flows from Asia to OECD Countries, 2000–2013



OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
Source: OECD International Migration Database.

The PRC has been the largest origin country for migration to OECD countries over the last 20 years, with the sole exception of Romania in 2007. The PRC, with more than half a million new immigrants in OECD countries in 2014, accounts for 10% of the total (Table 1.1). This is followed by Romania and Poland and then India.

Table 1.1: Top 15 Asian Countries of Origin for Migration to OECD Countries, 2013

	2013	Compared with 2012	% of Inflows to OECD	Rank	Compared with 2012	Per Thousand Inhabitants
China, People's Republic of	558,300	51,300	10.0	1	0	0.4
India	239,500	11,500	4.3	4	0	0.2
Philippines	150,100	–8,900	2.7	6	0	1.5
Viet Nam	102,500	8,500	1.8	12	2	1.1
Pakistan	75,200	–10,800	1.4	18	–2	0.4
Korea, Republic of	73,200	3,200	1.3	20	–1	1.5
Thailand	61,500	2,500	1.1	24	3	0.9
Bangladesh	42,500	500	0.8	36	–1	0.3
Nepal	39,800	6,800	0.7	38	7	1.4
Japan	37,500	1,500	0.7	40	–2	0.3
Indonesia	35,300	5,300	0.6	44	4	0.1
Sri Lanka	32,800	–1,200	0.6	47	–5	1.6
Afghanistan	31,600	–400	0.6	49	–2	1.0
Malaysia	23,400	3,400	0.4	58	3	0.8
Myanmar	23,000	–4,000	0.4	60	–11	0.4
Total Asia	**1,637,600**	**62,600**	**29.4**			**0.4**

OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
Source: OECD International Migration Database.

The Philippines is the sixth-largest sender with 150,000 despite a 6% decrease in 2014. Viet Nam is the only other Asian country that saw more than 100,000 of its citizens arriving in OECD countries. For these last two countries as well as Afghanistan, the Republic of Korea, and Nepal, emigration to the OECD area represents a sizable share of their population—more than 1 person per 1,000 population. Other major countries of origin for migration to OECD countries are Italy, Mexico, and the United States. Among smaller Asian origin countries, Thailand, Nepal, and Malaysia are increasing their rank every year.

The overall 4% increase of Asian migrants is slightly higher than that of overall immigration to the OECD. This increase is due to the larger number of those going to the Republic of Korea, notably from the PRC, and to a greater flow from India to Australia (Table 1.2). The two Asian OECD countries, the Republic of Korea and Japan, were the destination of 313,000 and 227,000 new Asian migrants, respectively, in 2013. In the Republic of Korea, the vast majority are Chinese (60%). In Japan, Chinese citizens also represent

Table 1.2: Top 15 OECD Countries for Asian Migration, 2013

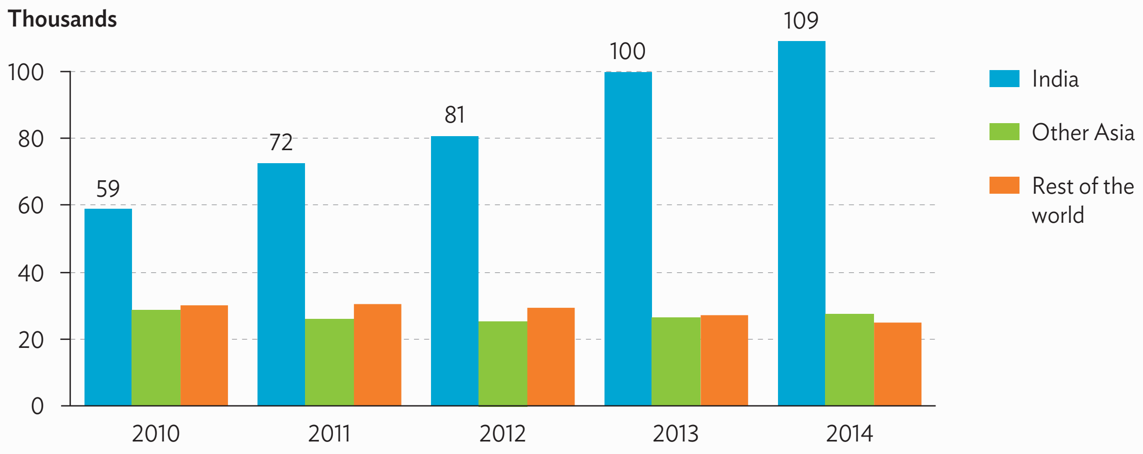
	Number of Migrants in 2013 (thousands)	Difference with 2012 (thousands)	% of Inflows from Asia to OECD	Main Asian Countries of Origin			
United States	348	−19	21	PRC (21%)	India (20%)	Philippines (16%)	Viet Nam (8%)
Republic of Korea	313	68	19	PRC (59%)	Viet Nam (7%)	Thailand (6%)	Philippines (4%)
Japan	227	2	14	PRC (41%)	Viet Nam (14%)	Rep. of Korea (11%)	Philippines (7%)
Australia	132	16	8	India (29%)	PRC (21%)	Philippines (8%)	Viet Nam (4%)
Canada	125	−3	8	PRC (27%)	India (24%)	Philippines (22%)	Pakistan (9%)
United Kingdom	122	−7	7	PRC (38%)	India (25%)	Pakistan (8%)	Malaysia (7%)
Germany	98	9	6	PRC (23%)	India (20%)	Afghanistan (9%)	Pakistan (8%)
Italy	64	−7	4	PRC (27%)	India (17%)	Bangladesh (16%)	Pakistan (12%)
Spain	35	−4	2	PRC (39%)	Pakistan (28%)	India (11%)	Philippines (7%)
New Zealand	29	1	2	PRC (28%)	India (25%)	Philippines (11%)	Japan (6%)
France	25	3	2	PRC (33%)	India (11%)	Sri Lanka (10%)	Japan (7%)
The Netherlands	17	1	1	PRC (28%)	India (26%)	Indonesia (8%)	Japan (6%)
Sweden	15	−2	1	Afghanistan (28%)	India (16%)	PRC (14%)	Thailand (12%)
Poland	12	−1	1	PRC (26%)	Viet Nam (24%)	India (10%)	Rep. of Korea (10%)
Switzerland	11	1	1	PRC (26%)	India (23%)	Thailand (8%)	Japan (7%)

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

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

a significant share of migrants from within the region, but Viet Nam, the Republic of Korea, and the Philippines are also important source countries. While around 25,000 Koreans immigrate to Japan every year, no more than 6,000 Japanese cross the sea in the other direction. The United States is the main OECD destination country globally and for Asians, but saw the number of new Asian immigrants decline 2 years consecutively by around 20,000 persons to stand at 350,000 in 2013. Half of the drop in 2013 was due to lower arrivals from the PRC and other countries including Myanmar (5,000 fewer) and the Philippines and Bangladesh (3,000 fewer each). There were almost as many new immigrants from India as from the PRC in 2013.

Figure 1.5: H-1B Visas Delivered, by Region of Origin, 2010–2014



Source: United States Department of State.

The above figures are for permanent entries, but the United States has been issuing an increasing number of H-1B visas for temporary employment to Asians (Figure 1.5). Almost 140,000 H-1B visas were issued to Asian citizens in 2014, up 10% from a year earlier. This represents more than 5 out of 6 of all H-1B visas issued. In particular, the number of Indian citizens who received these visas almost doubled between 2010 and 2014, to reach 110,000.

The United Kingdom, a long-standing destination for South Asian migrants, also recorded a second consecutive drop in immigration in 2013 and received only 10,000 migrants from Pakistan, the lowest level in 10 years. Figures for immigration flows from India, Japan, Sri Lanka, and Thailand are also down by around 5,000. The trend toward fewer entries reflects a more restrictive admission policy. In 2012, the United Kingdom witnessed the largest drop in Asian migration registered by an OECD country. Only 129,000 Asians emigrated there in 2012, down 30% from a year earlier. South Asian countries accounted for 90% of this drop, with India and Pakistan each sending 25,000 fewer citizens than the previous year. Bangladesh sent 7,000 fewer migrants, and Nepal 3,000. On the other hand, Asian emigrants appear to be increasingly attracted to Australia. More than 130,000 chose Australia as a destination in 2013, up from just over 100,000 in 2011. The number of Indians among these migrants doubled between 2011 and 2013, to stand at 40,000. India is by far the top source country for Australia's skilled labor migration program (25,000).

Despite a small drop in 2013, Asian migration to Canada is still high, especially labor migration. Around 80,000 Asian citizens immigrated to Canada as economic immigrants in 2013. In total, 125,000 Asian citizens immigrated to Canada in 2013, which represents half of all immigration flows to Canada, and the top four origin countries are all in Asia: the PRC, India, the Philippines, and Pakistan. In 2013, almost 100,000 Asian citizens immigrated to Germany, which is the only distant destination having witnessed a significant increase in the number of immigrants from Asia (10% higher). However, Germany has become a major migration destination overall, and the increase from Asia was smaller than the increase of total immigration to Germany, which leaped by 15%.

1.5 Labor Market Situation of Asian Immigrants in Australia, Europe, and the United States

The United States is the main OECD destination of Asian-born workers, and Australia is the fastest-growing one. Thus, it is interesting to look at how they fare on the labor market. In the United States, the situation of Asian-born immigrants was hardly affected by the global financial crisis. From 2009 to 2014, their employment rate fell by 1.4 percentage points (to 68.6%) but was still 2 points higher than that of native-born immigrants, and comparable to that of other foreign-born immigrants. Their unemployment rate went down by 2 percentage points, and fell to below 5% in 2014. In Australia, Asian-born immigrants' outcomes on the labor market are slightly weaker than those of the rest of the population, but the gap is narrowing. In 2014, their employment rate was 1.4 points higher than in 2009 (66.6%), and their unemployment rate (6.5%) was very close to that of the native-born immigrants (6.3%) and of foreign-born immigrants as a whole (6.1%).

Table 1.3: Labor Market Indicators for Native and Foreign-Born Immigrants in Australia and the United States Aged 15–64, 2009–2014 (%)

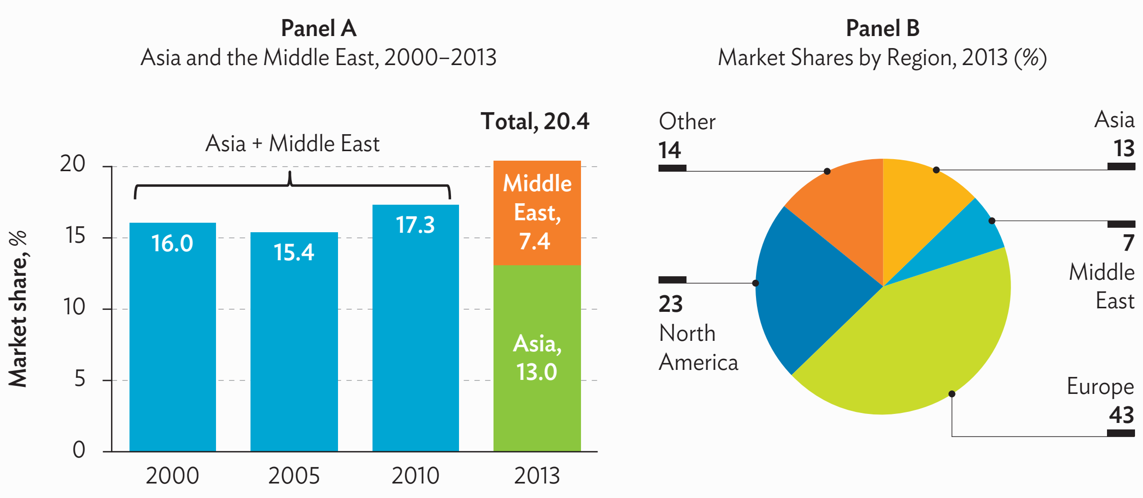
		Employment Rate			Unemployment Rate			Participation Rate		
	Region of Birth	2009	2014	Variation	2009	2014	Variation	2009	2014	Variation
Australia	Native-born	74.0	72.7	–1.2	5.3	6.3	0.9	78.1	77.6	–0.5
	Foreign-born	68.3	69.6	1.2	6.6	6.1	–0.5	73.2	74.1	0.9
	Asian-born	65.2	66.6	1.4	8.2	6.5	–1.6	71.0	71.3	0.3
United States	Native-born	66.1	66.5	0.4	9.4	6.5	–3.0	73.0	71.1	–1.8
	Foreign-born	67.7	69.1	1.4	9.7	5.8	–4.0	75.0	73.4	–1.7
	Asian-born	70.0	68.6	–1.4	6.7	4.9	–1.9	75.1	72.1	–3.0

Sources: Australia, labor force surveys; United States, current population survey.

1.6 International Mobility of Students to and from Asia

One long-term trend across the globe is the increasing size and policy relevance of international student mobility. Asia is an actor of growing importance, both as an origin and a destination region. This report provides new data on this phenomenon. Until 2015, comparable international data on student mobility generally covered foreign students, but the most recent set of data published by the OECD, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), and the European Union, in November 2015, refers to international students (OECD 2015c). This is an improvement in terms of data quality and relevance for policy purposes, as data on "international students" include only students who actually move to another country to study and not those who were already living in a foreign country before they started the school year. However, it makes comparison with previous data more difficult, and may not allow analysis to fully reflect Asia's growing place in the international education marketplace.

Figure 1.6: International Students: Market Shares, 2000–2013

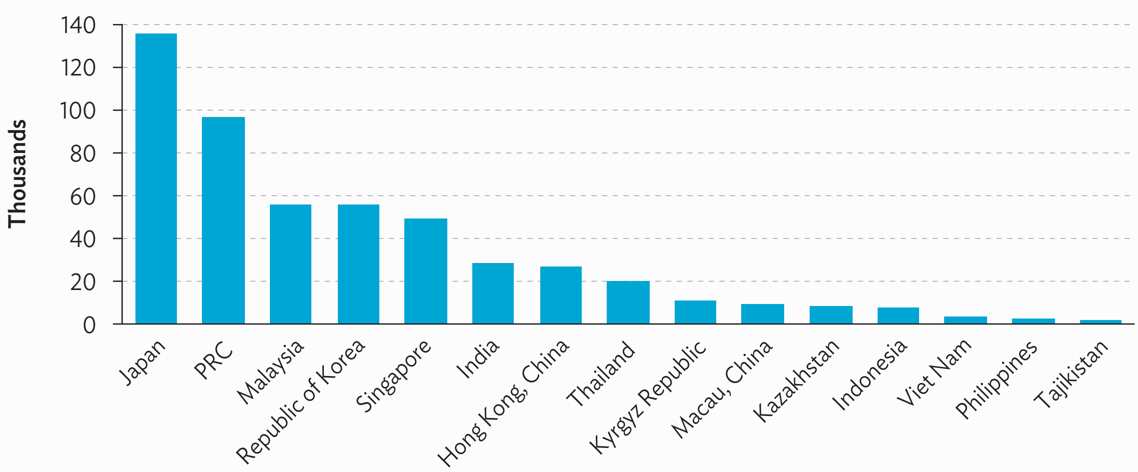


Note: 2013 data are not fully comparable with data for previous years.
Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) education database.

Nonetheless, according to the newly available data, in 2013, more than 20% of all international tertiary students were enrolled in institutions in Asia or the Middle East, up from 16% at the beginning of the 2000s (Figure 1.6). Asia alone has 13% of the international student market. However, Europe and North America still dominate the market, and, together, have attracted two-thirds of all international students.

Japan is the main Asian destination, with 135,000 international students, followed by the PRC; Hong Kong, China; and Macau, China, with a combined total of around 130,000. The Republic of Korea and Malaysia (56,000 each) and Singapore (49,000) are the other main destinations for tertiary students. Less than 30,000 international students were studying in India in 2013, making India only the sixth most attractive Asian destination economy (Figure 1.7).

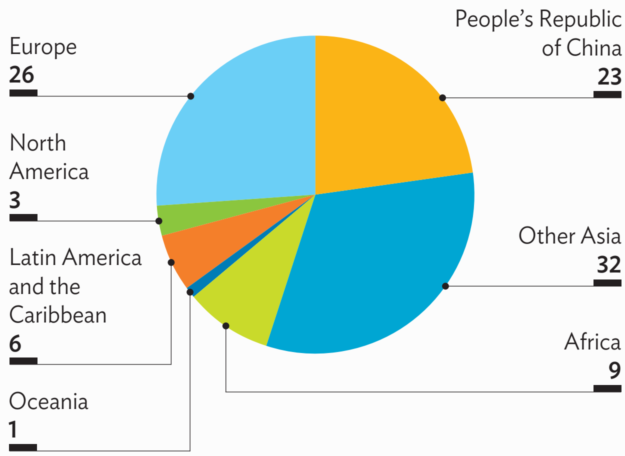
Figure 1.7: Top 15 Asian Destination Economies for International Students, 2013



PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) education database.

Asia is by far the main provider of international students in OECD countries. In 2013, more than 1.5 million students from Asia were enrolled at institutions in OECD countries, representing 55% of all international tertiary enrollment in these countries (Figure 1.8). Europe, the second main region of origin of those who study abroad, trails by 30 percentage points, at 26%, while Africa accounts for just 9%.

Figure 1.8: International Students in OECD Countries by Region of Origin, 2013 (%)

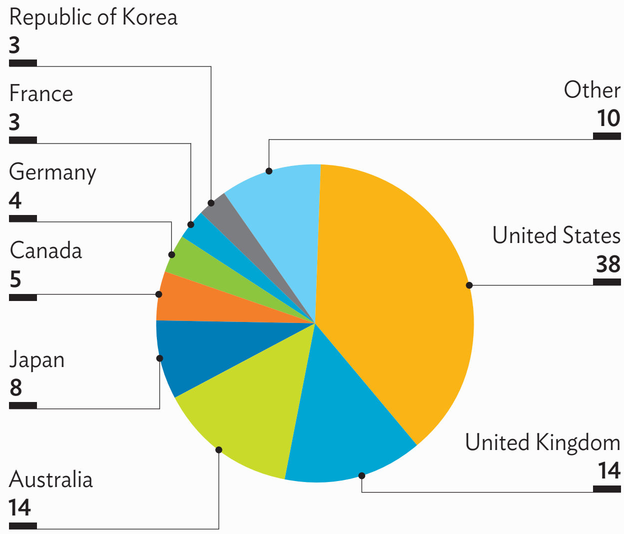


OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
Source: OECD education database.

The PRC is the giant in international study, as the leading origin country of international students, with almost 650,000 students enrolled in OECD universities. Its share of the global international student population rose by more than five percentage points in 5 years and stood at over 23% in 2013. India provides the second-largest cohort of international students to OECD countries (160,000) but saw its share fall to below 6% in 2013. The other main Asian countries of origin are the Republic of Korea (around 4% of the total) and Viet Nam (2%).

The United States is by far the favorite OECD destination country for students from Asia, with 38% of them enrolled in United States (US) institutions (Figure 1.9). It is followed by Australia and the United Kingdom (14% each) and Japan (8%). In particular, of all Indian students enrolled in OECD countries (160,000), 57% are in the United States.

Figure 1.9: Main OECD Destination Countries of International Asian Students, 2013 (%)



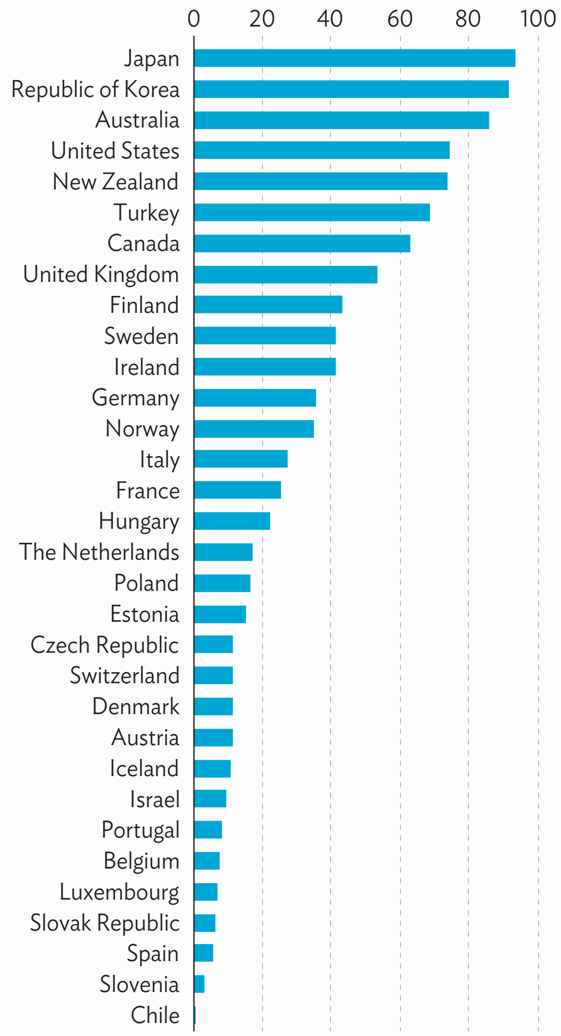
OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
Source: OECD education database.

In Japan and the Republic of Korea, more than two-thirds of international students come from the PRC, and more than 9 in 10 come from Asia. In Japan, the second main country of origin is the Republic of Korea, and in the Republic of Korea, it is Mongolia. Most English-speaking countries also host a large proportion of Asian students among their international students. They account for 86% of the total in Australia, 74% in the United States and in New Zealand, 63% in Canada, and 54% in the United Kingdom (Figure 1.10). The other countries with more than 40% of Asian students among the international enrollment are Turkey, Finland, Sweden, and Ireland.

1.7 Remittance Flows to Asia

High-skilled Asian emigrants typically settle in OECD countries. For instance, more than half of migrants to the OECD area originate from Asian economies with more highly educated populations, including Hong Kong, China; India; the Kyrgyz Republic; Malaysia; the Philippines; Singapore; and Taipei,China (Arslan et al. 2015). Those with lower educational attainment, on the other hand, tend to move and work within Asia or in the GGC countries. The Russian Federation is a major destination for migrants from Central and West Asia. Remittances per emigrant reflect the wage levels of professional and nonprofessional workers in these countries. Fewer high-skilled emigrants in high-wage countries produce on average more remittances than a larger number of low-skilled, low-wage emigrants, even if the latter are remitting a much larger share of their income (OECD 2012). Regardless of their skill level, however, Asian migrants around the world send home significant amounts of remittances. Remittances are very important in Central and West Asia and to a lesser extent in South Asia, although in a number of South Asian countries, remittances are very high relative to international reserves. In Pakistan, for example, the World Bank (2015) estimated that remittances were almost double international reserves in 2013, while in Bangladesh, Nepal, and Sri Lanka they were between 75% and 90% of international reserves. In developing East Asia, on the other hand, economic dependence on remittances is limited.

Figure 1.10: Students from Asia among International Students by Country of Destination, 2013 (%)



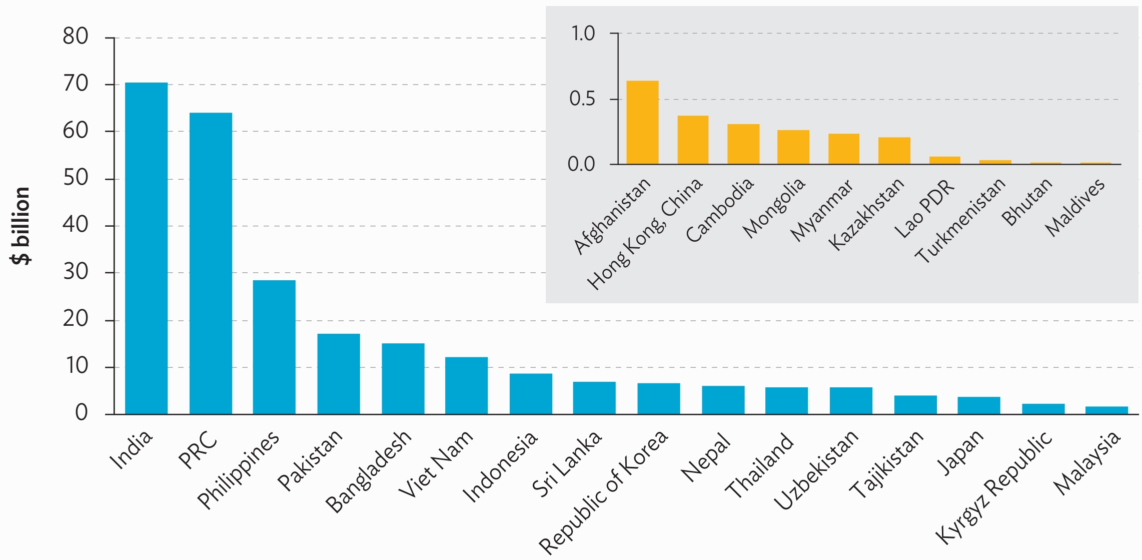
Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) education database.

Remittances follow a pattern similar to migrant flows. Indeed, in parallel with the increased migrant flows from Asia described above, remittances to Asia have grown steadily since 2000, with the exception of 2009 when the impact of the global crisis was felt. Asian remittances rose from $40 billion in 2000 to $264 billion in 2014. The latter figure represents a $25 billion increase from 2013. From 2000 to 2014, the highest growth in remittances was observed in the Kyrgyz Republic, which rose 250 times over that period. Similarly, remittances in the Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR) and Nepal increased by 80 and 50 times, respectively, over the same period. Mongolia and Pakistan are other countries with significant increases in remittances since 2000. In most Central and

West Asian countries, including Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, and Tajikistan, remittance flows have increased over time, but with ups and downs. Remittances to Central and West Asian countries decreased between 2013 and 2014.

Considering the size of migrant flows from India and the PRC, it is no surprise that these two countries receive the largest amounts of remittances in Asia. India received about $70 billion and the PRC $64 billion in 2014 (Figure 1.11). Remittances to these two countries alone make up more than half of all remittances in Asia. India has consistently been the leading Asian country in terms of remittances received and the figure has increased steadily since 2000. The PRC's level of remittances was about one-third of India's in 2000, but has grown quite rapidly since then and is now more than 90% of the Indian level. In 2000, the PRC was ranked lower than the Philippines, which is the third most important remittance-receiving Asian country, with $28 billion in 2014. Other main remittance recipients are Bangladesh, Pakistan, and Viet Nam, each receiving more than $10 billion.

Figure 1.11: Asian Remittance Recipients, 2014, estimated ($ billions)

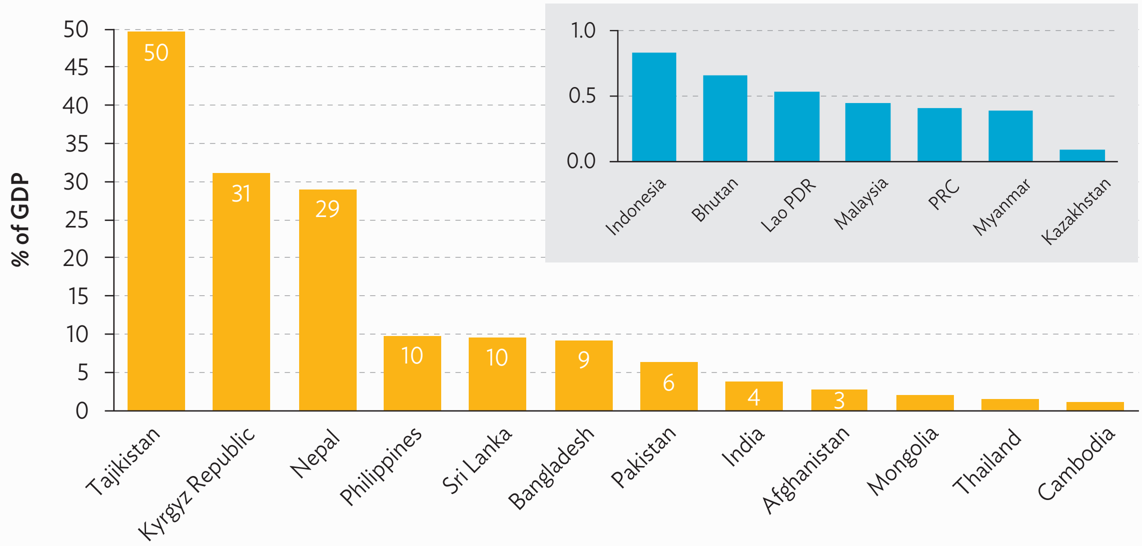


GDP = gross domestic product, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Source: World Bank staff calculation based on data from IMF Balance of Payments Statistics Database and data releases from central banks, national statistical agencies, and World Bank country desks.

The three countries with the greatest reliance on remittances in the world are from Asia. Remittances account for an incredible 51% of Tajikistan's gross domestic product (GDP) and about 30% in the Kyrgyz Republic and Nepal (Figure 1.12). Other Asian countries with relatively high levels of remittances are Georgia (12%), the Philippines (10%), Sri Lanka (10%), and Bangladesh (9%). At the other end of the spectrum, countries with lowest remittances-to-GDP ratios are Kazakhstan (0.1%), Myanmar (0.4%), and the PRC (0.4%). To give a general idea, the ratio of remittances to GDP is 0.3% on average in OECD countries and 0.7% globally.

Figure 1.12: Share of Remittances in Gross Domestic Product by Country, 2013



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

Source: World Bank staff calculation based on data from IMF Balance of Payments Statistics Database and data releases from central banks, national statistical agencies, and World Bank country desks.

OECD countries are the leading source of remittances in many countries in the world, including several in Asia. To illustrate, 95% of the remittances in Viet Nam are sent from those who reside in OECD countries and 87% from Hong Kong, China. Other countries that receive a significant share of their remittances from OECD countries are Thailand (72%), Maldives (66%), Mongolia (61%), the PRC (60%), and the Philippines (57%). The United States is a major destination for Asian migrants and the dominant source of remittances in several Asian countries. More than half of the remittances in Viet Nam come from the US, followed by Canada and Australia. Similarly, in Hong Kong, China, remittances come mainly from the US and Canada. Besides these three major sources, European countries, such as Germany, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom, matter in terms of the remittances received by the PRC, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, and Thailand. Japan and the Republic of Korea are also major sources of remittances in Asian countries such as Mongolia, the PRC, Indonesia, and Thailand.

Other main destinations for Asian migrants, and thus important sources of remittances for Asia, are the GGC countries of Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the UAE (Table 1.4). Of remittances to Nepal, 71% are from these countries, with Qatar and Saudi Arabia as the major sources. About 61% of remittances to Pakistan are also sent from these countries, especially Saudi Arabia and the UAE. Gulf countries provide more than half of the remittances to Bangladesh, India, and Sri Lanka. Gulf countries are increasingly popular for Asian migrants, as reflected in remittances. For example, the amount of remittances sent from Saudi Arabia to Indonesia more than tripled from 2012 to 2013, and remittances from Saudi Arabia to Bangladesh more than doubled. Such increases, albeit to a lesser extent, are also observed in Pakistan, India, and Afghanistan. Remittances to the Philippines are shifting from the US, a traditional source, to other countries including those in the Gulf States.

Table 1.4: Distribution of Sources of Remittances Received by Asian Economies, 2013 (%)

	OECD	Non-OECD Asia	GCC		OECD	Non-OECD Asia	GCC
Afghanistan	12.6	30.8	15.3	Malaysia	19.5	79.5	0.0
Bangladesh	10.4	33.0	56.2	Maldives	66.2	15.1	0.0
Bhutan	5.2	94.6	0.0	Mongolia	61.1	6.3	0.0
Cambodia	38.4	61.5	0.0	Myanmar	7.8	64.5	27.7
China, People's Rep. of	59.9	33.5	0.0	Nepal	10.2	18.6	71.2
Hong Kong, China	87.3	9.4	0.0	Pakistan	22.0	15.8	61.4
India	31.3	14.9	52.5	Philippines	56.7	10.0	31.7
Indonesia	11.3	35.5	51.9	Sri Lanka	38.3	9.0	51.2
Kazakhstan	23.3	4.1	0.0	Tajikistan	5.5	11.9	0.0
Kyrgyz Republic	14.5	4.1	0.0	Thailand	72.5	22.6	4.1
Lao PDR	27.5	72.4	0.0	Viet Nam	94.5	4.8	0.0

GCC = Gulf Cooperation Council, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

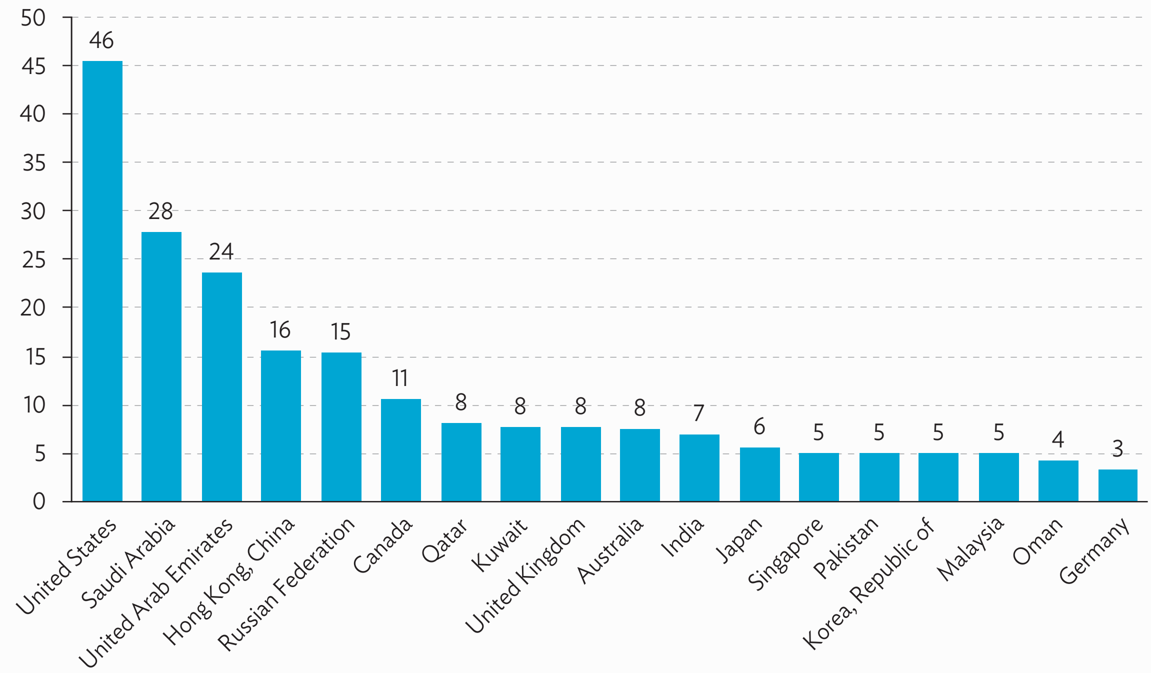
Note: Data not available for Brunei Darussalam, Singapore, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan.

Source: Bilateral Remittance Matrix, World Bank.

As mentioned above, Asian migrants with relatively low skills move mostly within Asia, and most remittances in some Asian countries are sent by those migrants. Bhutan, Cambodia, the Lao PDR, Malaysia, and Myanmar receive remittances chiefly from emigrants in other Asian countries. For instance, Nepal provides a huge part of the remittances to Bhutan; Malaysian remittances come mainly from Singapore; Thailand is the main source of remittances to Cambodia, the Lao PDR, and Myanmar; Hong Kong, China is a very important source for the PRC; and India is a main source of remittances for Bangladesh, Nepal, and Pakistan. Migrants from Central Asian countries mainly go to the Russian Federation and, in parallel, roughly a third of remittances to Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, and Tajikistan are sent from the Russian Federation.

Just over 37% of the $264 billion in remittances that Asia received in 2014 was sent from the OECD area. The US sent nearly half of all these remittances ($46 billion), which represents 37% of all remittances sent from the country in 2014. About half of the remittances sent from Canada and Australia flowed into Asia in 2014 ($11 billion and $8 billion, respectively). Japan and the Republic of Korea are also very important sources of remittances to other Asian economies, each providing the region with around $5 billion in 2014. Aside from these OECD countries, Gulf countries weigh heavily in terms of remittances to Asia: $28 billion from Saudi Arabia in 2014, $24 billion from the United Arab Emirates, and about $8 billion each from Kuwait and Qatar. Hong Kong, China ($16 billion) was another major remittance provider for the region in 2014. These economies exceed Malaysia and Singapore as sources of remittances, which were comparable to Japan and the Republic of Korea in value. The Russian Federation sent $15 billion, mostly to Central and West Asia.

Figure 1.13: Main Sources of Remittances Received by Asian Economies, 2014 ($ billions)



Source: Bilateral Remittance Matrix, World Bank.

1.8 Conclusion

Asia will continue to play a major role in global migration patterns, even if some variation might be seen in the short term. Migration from Asian countries remains high, but did not increase in 2014. Countries that are major players have seen steady deployment levels, and a few newer origin countries have seen sharp increases, particularly Nepal and Viet Nam. Bangladesh continues to suffer the effect of recruitment bans.

Buoyant demand in GCC countries appears to have flattened out in 2013, when oil prices were still high. Ongoing infrastructure investment in these countries has so far compensated for falling oil prices, although if these projects wind down and oil prices stay low, there may be a fall in demand, which will affect all major origin countries. A number of Asian countries are dependent on remittances from the GCC, which makes them vulnerable to a decline in demand, although some, such as the Philippines, send workers to many countries, limiting their exposure to risk. Likewise, demand for domestic workers—mostly women—is less cyclical than demand for construction workers—mostly male.

OECD countries continue to attract large numbers of Asian students, many of whom stay on to contribute to a population which is, relative to other regions of origin, well educated.

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CHAPTER 2

Labor Migration Infrastructure and Services in Countries of Origin in Asia

Nilim Baruah, International Labour Organization

2.1 Introduction

To protect citizens working abroad and optimize the benefits of labor migration, it is necessary for governments to build the institutional capacity and interministerial coordination for labor migration. This includes giving the management of labor migration due priority in social and economic development, in foreign policy, and in the allocation of resources.

Countries of origin in Asia comprise those with relatively well-developed legislation and mechanisms to govern labor migration (e.g., India, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Sri Lanka) and those that are fairly new to organized labor migration (e.g., Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar, and Nepal).

There is little research available on the financing of labor migration administration and on the institutional structures that have been developed to manage labor emigration. While information on support services provided by governments to migrant workers is available, it is more descriptive than analytical. The purpose of this chapter is to highlight and analyze some of the structures, services, and financing mechanisms that have been developed by the key labor-sending countries in Asia.

2.2 Labor Migration Policies

Labor migration policies may be stated in specific labor migration policy documents (e.g., Cambodia and Sri Lanka), as part of development and poverty reduction plans (e.g., Viet Nam), or in the aims and objectives of legislation (most countries). The labor migration policies of Cambodia and Sri Lanka have three priority areas: governance, protection and empowerment of migrant workers and their families, and linking migration and development (which includes foreign employment promotion).

A closer look at the policies and legislation across labor-sending countries in Asia highlights three policy areas:

(i) protection of migrant workers—through regulation of recruitment, exit controls to verify employment contracts, and support services including in destination countries;

(ii) employment promotion—including efforts to increase access to skilled jobs; and

(iii) return and reintegration—although this is nascent, with only the Philippines and Sri Lanka having programs.

Governments have also put measures in place to reduce remittance costs and promote flows through formal channels. The Pakistan Remittance Initiative is a key example.

Strategies to implement the policies include international cooperation, in particular bilateral memorandums of understanding (MOUs), and aspects of regional economic integration programs, as in the case of ASEAN. Regional and interregional forums have also developed (e.g., the Colombo Process and Abu Dhabi Dialogue), although their impact on actual policies has so far been limited.[3]

Social dialogue, which involves consultation among trade unions, employers, and civil society organizations in the formulation of labor migration policies, is institutionalized in some countries (e.g., Cambodia, the Philippines, and Sri Lanka) but weak in others.

The main policy goal in most labor-sending countries is the protection of migrant workers during recruitment and employment abroad. However, over the last 10 years, employment promotion has also emerged as a priority. Table 2.1 contains the vision and mission statements of three prominent countries of origin (India, the Philippines, and Sri Lanka).

Table 2.1: Vision and Mission Statements of Ministries Dealing with International Migration

Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs, India	**Vision:** Proactively engage with overseas Indians to meaningfully serve India. **Mission:** Establish a vibrant institutional framework based on three value propositions: through multi-skilled market-driven entities promoted by the ministry and managed by knowledge partners; policy coherence in strategic engagement with overseas Indians; and enlisting the states as partners in emigration management and overseas Indian-related initiatives.
Department of Labor and Employment, the Philippines[a]	**Vision:** Every Filipino worker attains full, decent, and productive employment. **Mission:** To promote gainful employment opportunities, develop human resources, protect workers and promote their welfare, and maintain industrial peace.
Ministry of Foreign Employment, Promotion and Welfare, Sri Lanka	**Vision:** To be the leading policy maker and implementer in the creation of gainful foreign employment opportunities while protecting the rights of migrant workers and ensuring their welfare. **Mission:** Realizing the importance of the contribution of labor migration to the national economy, to convert the entire sector into a demand-driven process and make it highly competitive by introducing required structural changes, together with undertaking the necessary promotional and welfare activities to meet the international market challenges.

[a] The department prioritizes labor and employment in the Philippines.

Source: S. K. Sasikumar, T. Rakhee, P. Ratnayake, and A. P. Ang. Forthcoming. *Labour Migration Structures and Financing in Asia.* Bangkok: International Labour Organization.

Regarding recruitment, United Nations Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon, at the United Nations General Assembly High-level Dialogue on Migration and Development in 2013, noted there are enormous gains to be made by lowering the costs related to migration, such as fees paid to recruiters, especially by low-skilled workers. Unfortunately, recruitment is characterized by rent-seeking behavior and corruption and there has been limited success in curbing abuses. Given that the supply of workers in lower-wage

[3] The Abu Dhabi Dialogue has recently made progress with the taking up of pilot projects in skills certification and recognition.

countries far outstrips the demand and that there are far more workers intending to work abroad than there are jobs, migrant workers are highly vulnerable to abuses during recruitment. Laws in origin and destination countries also lack coherence. There is now a renewed interest in ethical and fair recruitment on the basis of the International Labour Organization (ILO) Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 (Convention 181, which requires that workers do not pay recruitment fees). For many years, the Philippines has made efforts in regulating recruitment and this has included regulation of the recruitment industry, employment facilitation, and worker protection (Lanto 2015). In July 2015, the Ministry of Labour and Employment in Nepal announced a "free visa free ticket" policy for migrant workers, meaning that employers would need to bear these costs.

2.3 Structures

Administration of labor migration is usually governed by an emigration act or decree. Implementation of policies and legislation is usually the responsibility of the ministry of labor. However, three countries in South Asia (Bangladesh, India, and Sri Lanka) have established separate ministries for labor migration. Bangladesh established the Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment in 2001 and India created the Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs in 2004. These two ministries also deal with diaspora issues, which in other countries are addressed by the ministry of foreign affairs. In Sri Lanka, the Ministry of Foreign Employment Promotion and Welfare was created in 2007 and renamed the Ministry of Foreign Employment in 2015.

While policy objectives among countries of origin are similar—to protect workers, to expand employment, and to increase development impact—the nature and intensity of migration infrastructure and services vary.

The Philippines and Sri Lanka are at one end of the scale with more elaborate institutions and services. In the Philippines, three agencies under the Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE) play important roles in three different but complementary areas: regulation and promotion, welfare, and skills development. The Philippine Overseas Employment Administration (POEA) is responsible for the regulation of recruitment through a licensing and registration system. The POEA also undertakes the verification of employment contracts and the related issue of exit clearances, and campaigns to inform and educate migrant workers of their rights and the realities of overseas employment. It aims to secure the best possible terms and conditions of employment for the workers including in new markets. The Overseas Workers Welfare Administration is responsible for migrant welfare; provides benefit programs for migrants and their families; and offers on-site protection services, basic insurance coverage, emergency repatriation, and assistance to returnees. The Technical Education and Skills Development Authority develops and implements modules and programs for skills training and development and assesses and certifies workers' skill competency.

Besides DOLE and its three agencies, important roles are also played by the Department of Foreign Affairs, the National Reintegration Center for Overseas Filipino Workers, the Commission for Overseas Filipinos, and local government units. The Philippines has also established Philippine Overseas Labor Offices (POLOs). They are part of Philippine diplomatic missions and are headed by the labor attaché, who is usually assisted by welfare officers from the Overseas Workers Welfare Administration (OWWA) and technical support staff. The Philippine Overseas Labor Offices operate under the control of DOLE but are under the administrative supervision of the ambassador, who heads a "country-team approach."

In Sri Lanka, the Ministry of Foreign Employment (MOFE), Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment, and Sri Lanka Foreign Employment Agency are the three important institutions that administer labor migration. Established in 1985 and now under the purview of the MOFE, the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment is the regulatory authority for the foreign employment industry in Sri Lanka. The Sri Lanka Foreign Employment Agency, established in 1996, is the state recruitment agency, and also operates under the purview of the MOFE. Table 2.2 presents the key functions of each of these institutions.

Table 2.2: Key Functions of Migration-Related Agencies in Sri Lanka

Ministry of Foreign Employment	• Formulate policies, programs, and projects related to labor migration. • Provide public services under the purview of the ministry. • Promote the welfare of expatriate Sri Lankans and migrant workers. • Monitor and advise the foreign employment industry and their activities. • Offer guidance for the foreign employment sector. • Supervise organizations under the purview of the ministry, including the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment and the Sri Lanka Foreign Employment Agency.
Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment	• Regulate and supervise foreign employment agencies. • Provide protection and welfare for migrant workers and their family members. • Promote and develop foreign employment opportunities and markets for Sri Lankans. • Conduct specialized training and predeparture orientation programs to facilitate foreign employment. • Establish and maintain an information data bank to monitor the flow of Sri Lankans for employment outside of Sri Lanka. • Undertake research into employment opportunities outside Sri Lanka. • Implement an insurance scheme for Sri Lankan migrant workers.
Sri Lanka Foreign Employment Agency	• Explore foreign employment opportunities for Sri Lankans. • Recruit Sri Lankans for foreign employment and train them.

Source: S. K. Sasikumar, T. Rakhee, P. Ratnayake, and A. P. Ang. Forthcoming. Labour Migration Structures and Financing in Asia. Bangkok: International Labour Organization.

In addition, like the Philippines, various other ministries have important roles in migration governance and management. These include the Consular Affairs Division of the Ministry of External Affairs and the Ministry of Labour and Labour Relations. Several labor welfare officials are appointed to overseas missions from the Ministry of Labour and Labour Relations and the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment. The Ministry of Youth Affairs and Skills Development plays a role in developing human resources for labor migration, conducting vocational training programs for prospective migrants, and handling certification and accreditation of vocational skills (Sasikumar et al. forthcoming).

India is somewhat different from the Philippines and Sri Lanka in terms of institutional structure and the range and depth of services. The rigor of recruitment regulation is similar to that of the Philippines and Sri Lanka and is conducted by the Protector General of Emigrants and regional branches. India also places labor attachés abroad. However, apart from these mechanisms, there are fewer migrant support services, and less human resources are dedicated to migration governance. For example, there is no migrant welfare fund and there are no reintegration services. Also predeparture orientation is neither mandatory nor supported in the form of free courses or curriculum development. However, this deficit at the national level is made up to some extent by state-level activities and through insurance programs.[4] Low- and middle-skilled labor migration comes predominantly from only four of India's 29 states, and, as noted below, additional programs are offered at the state level.

At the national level, the Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs is divided into five broad departments or services (Sasikumar et al. forthcoming). Diaspora Services deals with matters relating to overseas Indians, comprising persons of Indian origin, overseas citizens of India, and nonresident Indians. Emigration Services deals with policy-related matters like the proposition of legislative changes, emigration management, the formulation of welfare schemes, and the promotion of bilateral and multilateral cooperation with destination countries. An important wing within Emigration Services is the Protector General of Emigrants, which administers the national legal framework for emigration and has offices in different parts of the country.

India with its federal system is unique in the level of services provided at the state level in high-emigration states. In Kerala, Overseas Development and Employment Promotion Consultants Limited is a recruitment agency set up in 1977 by the Government of Kerala. To ensure the welfare of nonresident Keralites, the Government of Kerala created the Non-Resident Keralites' Affairs Department (NORKA) in 1996. Furthermore, NORKA–Roots is a NORKA field agency established in 2002 to interface between the nonresident Keralites and the Government of Kerala. NORKA–Roots conducts predeparture orientation programs, recruits workers, facilitates the upgrading of skills, attests educational certificates of migrant workers, and resettles and reintegrates returnees (Sasikumar et al. forthcoming).

Both Bangladesh and Pakistan have institutions and services to support migrant workers. They both post labor attachés abroad and have created migrant welfare funds. Pakistan has seven Protector of Emigrants offices at the provincial level to regulate recruitment. The Bureau of Manpower and Employment in Bangladesh is responsible for, among other things, the regulation of recruitment and emigration clearance and has a district-level presence. Structures and services in Indonesia and Viet Nam are also fairly comprehensive. In the latter, predeparture orientation is provided by the recruitment agencies (not the government), but is based on a standard curriculum.

Afghanistan, Cambodia, Myanmar, and Nepal are low-income or least developed countries, and their labor migration programs receive much less financial support from the state. Structures and the number of professional staff dedicated to labor migration administration are quite limited in Cambodia and Myanmar; for instance, Cambodia does not post labor attachés to its embassies. Afghanistan has the lowest capacity and does not yet have regulations in place. Nepal has stepped up its operations since enactment of the Foreign Employment Act in 2007. Its Department of Foreign Employment was created in 2008 and a migrant welfare fund set up the year before.

[4] Two insurance schemes extend social security to India's "emigration check required" category of migrants: Pravasi Bharatiya Bima Yojana and Mahatma Gandhi Pravasi Suraksha Yojana.

2.4 Human Resources and Training

The availability of human resources who are trained and motivated to regulate migration and protect workers is a key factor that determines how effectively emigration is managed. Recent ILO research provides a picture of human resources allocated to labor migration administration in the Philippines and Sri Lanka, two countries with very comprehensive staffing (Sasikumar et al. forthcoming).

In the Philippines, DOLE has 16 regional offices; OWWA, which focuses solely on migration, has 17 regional offices based in each of the country's regional administrative capitals; and the Philippine Overseas Employment Administration has four regional extension offices and six satellite offices throughout the country. Most of the staff positions in charge of managing migration in the Philippines are in DOLE and its affiliated agencies (Table 2.3). Abroad, each POLO is headed by the labor attaché and is supposed to be staffed by about four personnel as follows: a foreign service officer from the Department of Foreign Affairs; a welfare officer from OWWA; a center coordinator from OWWA; and an interpreter, if necessary. In total, there were 230 overseas labor personnel staffing the 34 POLOs in 27 countries in 2007 (Sasikumar et al. forthcoming).

Table 2.3: Personnel of the Philippine Migration Agencies, 2007[a]

	Central Office	Regional Office	Overseas Office	Total
DOLE-POLO	–	–	230	230
POEA	425	21	–	446
OWWA	137	165	39	341
DFA-OUMWA	49	–	85	134
Total	**611**	**186**	**354**	**1,151**

DFA = Department of Foreign Affairs, DOLE = Department of Labor and Employment, OUMWA = Office of the Undersecretary of Migrant Workers Affairs, OWWA = Overseas Workers Welfare Administration, POEA = Philippine Overseas Employment Administration, POLO = Philippine Overseas Labor Offices.

[a] As of 30 June.

Source: S. K. Sasikumar, T. Rakhee, P. Ratnayake, and A. P. Ang. Forthcoming. Labour Migration Structures and Financing in Asia. Bangkok: International Labour Organization.

As mentioned above, Sri Lanka has created a ministry exclusively for foreign employment. The ministry has over 800 personnel and in 2012 recruited 1,182 graduates to create a new regional administration division (Sasikumar et al. forthcoming). In addition, the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment has 892 posts in 25 districts. This extensive staff is engaged in a host of activities ranging from predeparture orientation and complaints handling to welfare registration services and data collection.

The posting of personnel to embassies to deal specifically with migrant worker issues is commonly practiced in Asia. However, the numbers vary. Table 2.4 provides a comparative picture of deployment. Apart from the Philippines, gender balance in the posting of labor attaches appears to be heavily skewed towards males, even where the migration flows include many women.

Table 2.4: Labor Attachés Deployed

Country	Number of Labor Attachés	Locations of Assignment
Bangladesh	17	Middle East and Africa (11); Asia (5); Europe, Americas, and Trust Territories (1)
Indonesia	13	Brunei Darussalam; Hong Kong, China; Jordan; the Republic of Korea; Kuwait; Malaysia; Qatar; Saudi Arabia (2); Singapore; Syria; Taipei,China; the United Arab Emirates
Myanmar	2	Republic of Korea and Thailand
Philippines	50	Middle East and Africa (25); Asia (15); Europe, Americas, and Trust Territories (10)
Thailand	13	Brunei Darussalam; Germany; Hong Kong, China; Israel; Japan; the Republic of Korea; Malaysia; Saudi Arabia (2); Singapore; Taipei,China (2); Switzerland
Sri Lanka	18	Middle East (11); East Asia (4); East Africa (1); Europe (1); South Asia (1)
Viet Nam	9	Malaysia; Japan; the Republic of Korea; Taipei,China; Czech Republic; the United Arab Emirates; Libya; Qatar; Saudi Arabia
India	19	Middle East (19)
Pakistan	18	Republic of Korea, Kuwait, the United Arab Emirates (3), Oman, Saudi Arabia (4), the United States, Iraq, Spain, Qatar, the United Kingdom, Italy, Malaysia, Greece
Nepal	6	Middle East (6) (excluding two vacant positions in Qatar and Bahrain)

Note: Sri Lanka provides training on labor migration to newly appointed development officers in the Ministry of Foreign Employment. Training is also offered regionally by the ILO in a course for officials from Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) member states on ASEAN economic integration and labor migration.

Source: Ministry websites and personal communication with ILO national migration project officers.

2.5 Services

Support to migrant workers can include a variety of services, such as information, a contributory welfare fund to meet protection and emergency needs in the country of destination, insurance, posting of labor attachés to protect and assist workers abroad, and the provision of temporary shelters and migrant service centers as permitted in destination countries. It may be noted that host governments in the Middle East have some reservations about the establishment, by foreign governments, of shelter facilities for distressed migrant workers. In many instances, these shelters exist within migrant resource centers set up at embassies or consulates.[5]

2.5.1 Information Dissemination

Most governments in countries of origin have a mechanism to provide predeparture orientation. Good practice is to have a standard curriculum that is geared to specific occupations and destination countries. This is the practice in the Philippines, Sri Lanka, and Viet Nam. Special attention has been paid in recent years to orientation for domestic workers, which is delivered more in the form of training than as an orientation. In Sri Lanka, this orientation and training for domestic workers is linked to the national

[5] For the Philippines, they are termed Foreign Workers Resource Centers.

qualification framework and is offered for 21 days, much longer than the 1–2 day mandatory predeparture orientation for other types of workers. In the Philippines, orientation for domestic workers is for 1 week, but just 1 day for all others. The delivery of predeparture orientation varies. The delivery is left to recruitment agencies in Cambodia, Indonesia (partly), and Viet Nam. This approach is problematic if quality control is not exercised. The Philippines has accredited civil society organizations, recruiter associations, and training institutions to deliver training. In Sri Lanka, training is carried out by the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment and in some cases accredited recruitment agencies. An assessment of predeparture orientation courses found they should be decentralized geographically to be effective. A good practice identified was the utilization of migrants and returnees as a resource (Ali 2005). The cost of orientation and who pays is an important consideration. In the Philippines and Sri Lanka, apart from domestic workers, the costs of orientation are borne by the worker. In other countries that make orientation mandatory, the costs of orientation are generally borne by the worker. This adds to the migration cost.

Other critical forms of information dissemination involve generating awareness of the risks, benefits, and procedures for foreign employment so that job-seekers are well informed before deciding to migrate. In addition to campaigns, such information and advice can be built into the work of government employment services and centers run by civil society organizations and trade unions. The ILO helps trade unions, government job centers, and civil society organizations operate 23 migrant resource centers in the Greater Mekong Subregion. These centers have assisted over 50,000 migrant workers (40% women) and provide services that include counseling; information, education, and training; and legal assistance. An operations manual was developed for migrant resource center advisors and managers, which includes practical tools and templates for everyday use when providing and tracking services. The manual also includes suggested answers to questions frequently asked by potential and returned migrants, their families, and service providers about workers' rights and responsibilities and other aspects of living and working abroad. The manual discusses risks of migrating, and the requirements for legal migration. It also provides information about specific sectors; sending money home; culture, laws, and policies; and accessing support services and complaint mechanisms in the source and destination countries.

Post-arrival orientation of workers by employers or the state is not widely practiced except in the Republic of Korea and Singapore, but is just as important as predeparture orientation (see Chapter 3). The orientation of employers is also important.

2.5.2 On-Site Services

Ideally, the protection of migrant workers should be met entirely by the laws and services of the destination country. In reality, there are large gaps in these in a number of destination countries in Asia and the Middle East. As a result, on-site services are provided by countries of origin within the laws of the destination country. The intensity of such services varies depending on the funding available. Countries having a self-financed migrant welfare fund (the Philippines and Sri Lanka) or those better funded by the state budget (India) are able to provide superior services. For example, Sri Lankan embassies and consulates, in coordination with the host government, play a key role in responding to requests for assistance. Such assistance has included counseling, shelter, and repatriation (following rules of the host country); contacting employers or authorities on the payment of overdue wages; and legal assistance in criminal cases.

Constraints identified in an ILO study with regard to effective on-site assistance and resolution for Sri Lanka included a very low ratio of labor welfare officers to migrant workers, the need for expertise and formal training of the officers and better teamwork to reduce gaps in coordination with host authorities, and a lack of comprehensive written procedures[6] (ILO 2013b).

2.5.3 Return and Reintegration

Governments have given less priority to the return and reintegration of migrants, except when it concerns emergency returns. The chances of a successful return and reintegration can certainly be enhanced by the availability and provision of employment and business services, counseling, and advice. Guidelines on the return and reintegration of migrant workers participating in the Employment Permit System of the Republic of Korea were developed by the countries involved. The key element in the guidelines is the establishment of a national coordinating office for the return and reintegration of workers.

Box 2.1: Migrant Welfare Funds

Migrant welfare funds (MWFs) are implemented in several South and Southeast Asian countries and can be beneficial to the labor-sending countries. The funds provide protection to overseas workers, including health insurance, disability and death benefits, support for repatriation of remains, and travel costs for involuntary return. The funds also support workers and their families regarding redeparture orientation, support for education and training, and credit for various purposes (e.g., financing migration, housing, and small businesses). They are mainly financed by contributions from employers and/or workers fixed at about $25 per person, paid per duration of employment contract. Their principal objectives are similar, but the funds differ by country in their methods of delivering services and the benefits they provide, with some being more effective than others.

Membership with a welfare fund automatically includes insurance against accident, disability, and death. The fee is uniform for all labor migrants irrespective of variations in risk of death, disability, or expected income loss in specific professions or destinations. In Pakistan and Sri Lanka, migrant insurance, paid by the MWF, is channeled through state insurance companies, while the Philippines welfare fund handles insurance claims itself. Countries in Asia that have a MWF include Bangladesh, Pakistan, the Philippines, Nepal, and Sri Lanka. Nepal was the most recent country to introduce a MWF, which it did in 2008.

Depending on the circumstances, a welfare fund could generally be established as a component of a broader program for promoting the welfare of migrant workers (and indeed it has been in a number of Asian countries). However, objectives should be limited or at least focus on the core role: protection and services at the job site, and adequate insurance against death and disability. As an alternative to MWFs, India and Indonesia provide insurance coverage to migrant workers. In some cases there have been allegations of financial mismanagement[a] and it is imperative that the funds are independently audited.

[a] Jones, K. 2015. *Recruitment Monitoring and Migrant Welfare Assistance: What Works?* Dhaka: International Organization for Migration.

[6] An operations manual for labor sections in Sri Lankan diplomatic missions in destination countries has since been developed to address the latter problem.

2.6 Grievance Redress and Complaints

To address recruitment violations, it is important for countries of origin to establish a complaint mechanism. The ILO has assessed complaint mechanisms in Bangladesh, Cambodia, Sri Lanka, and Thailand. For the mechanism to be effective, some of the key factors needed are availability of gender-responsive support services to help workers use the mechanism (these can be provided by trade unions, civil society organizations, or the government); well-trained conciliation officers; and a unified approach to avoid duplication. With ILO technical assistance, Cambodia introduced legislation and set up a complaint mechanism in 2013. Concurrently, migrant worker resource centers were opened. This was followed by a high uptake of the complaint mechanism by migrant workers (ILO forthcoming). In Thailand, the average compensation received per person for outbound workers and the percentage received against the claim has been declining (to $492 and 26%, respectively, in 2010) (ILO 2013a). In Bangladesh, no cases have been filed as of the beginning of 2015 under the Overseas Employment and Migrants Act that came into force in January 2013 (Bangladesh Legal Aid and Services Trust 2015). In complaints by migrant workers made under other legislation, the amounts settled under arbitration are quite small and perhaps call for a revision in the rules. In Nepal, the Department of Foreign Employment has computerized its complaint system, leading to better monitoring and greater transparency.

The Philippines is the most active in the number of recruitment violation cases filed (nearly 12,000 in 2010–2014). This perhaps reflects better awareness and support services. In comparison, India, which sees a significant but smaller outflow of workers (and having common countries of destination but low deployment of female domestic workers), records far fewer cases and prosecutions (676 cases considered and 32 prosecutions sanctioned in fiscal years 2012–2013 to 2014–2015).

Overall, the number of complaints is small compared with the deployment of workers and the extent of issues revealed by research. ILO research has provided some insight into the reasons why more cases are not filed (Table 2.5).

Table 2.5: Reasons Why Migrant Workers Do Not Lodge Complaints

Reason for not filing complaint	Malaysia	Thailand
Have not encountered serious rights violation	40%	47%
Don't want to cause trouble	24%	23%
Don't know who to complain to or where to complain	19%	11%
Don't believe complaining can change anything	12%	6%
Don't know	6%	13%

Sources: International Labour Organization. 2011a. ILO TRIANGLE Baseline Survey Report, Thailand, Bangkok. Unpublished report; and International Labour Organization. 2011b. ILO TRIANGLE. Employment and Working Conditions of Migrant Workers in Malaysia, Report Kuala Lumpur. Unpublished report.

Penalties for recruitment violations can include compensation, criminal sanction (e.g., for trafficking), and suspension or cancellation of a recruiter's license. Regulators in the Philippines cancelled as many as 96 licenses and suspended 52 others in 2014. Currently, there are 828 licensed private recruitment agencies. Indian regulators have also taken measures resulting in 24 cancellations and 17 suspensions in 2014 among 1,347 agencies.

2.7 Financing

The structure in place to administer labor migration and the various services it offers are determined to a large extent by the financial resources at hand. An ILO study has looked at budget allocation and sources of funding for migrant protection and welfare services in India, the Philippines, and Sri Lanka (Sasikumar et al. forthcoming).

The budget for the Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs was $17.7 million, $16.9 million and $21.0 million per year in fiscal years ending 2011, 2012, and 2013. Actual expenditure was less than budgeted in all 3 years, possibly indicating capacity or service delivery problems. The source of funding was the national budget. The Philippines had more than double the expenditure at $38.4 million (Overseas Workers Welfare Administration [OWWA] and Philippine Overseas Employment Administration) in 2011 and $31.2 million (OWWA only) in 2012. For the OWWA, the funding source is the migrant welfare fund. For 2011, when expenditure figures for both the Philippine Overseas Employment Administration and the OWWA are included, the spending per worker deployed overseas was similar for both India and the Philippines at about $23. It fell in subsequent years in India, approximately, to $21 in 2012 and $15 in 2013. Moreover, as the Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs works across both labor migration and the diaspora, expenditure on labor migration per worker deployed can be considered less than in the Philippines. The Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment spent $12.6 million in 2011 and $15.1 million in 2012. These funds were entirely from the migrant welfare fund. The spending relative to worker outflow was highest in Sri Lanka at $48 in 2011 and $53.7 in 2012.

The Philippines and Sri Lanka both provide a wider range of services and have more migrants placed in a vulnerable occupation (domestic work, mainly done by women). The ILO study referred to has provided some indication of the effectiveness of the services and schemes. However, more research is needed in this area, including on the perceptions of migrant workers and employers from whom fees are charged.

Augmenting government funding for migration governance may be necessary, particularly for on-site protection and the training and orientation of domestic workers. In this regard, revenues from fee-based services provided by migrants and employers are an important source of income in the Philippines and Sri Lanka. However, there should be clear principles and guidelines for the charging of fees. Also, the effectiveness of services, such as the migrant welfare fund, should be routinely and independently monitored. It may be noted that the Philippine government revenues derived from the migration program (processing fees, passport fees, etc.) go directly to the treasury and are not used by the agencies involved in migration. This is a more unified and systematic approach and contrasts with practices in Sri Lanka and elsewhere.

At the same time, countries of origin need to allocate adequate budgetary resources to the protection of their migrant workers (the very same workers who are generating the remittances) and not rely on migrant welfare funds. It generally appears that countries of origin are under-budgeting state funds to foreign employment, with some possible exceptions like India and Viet Nam. It would be useful to draw up criteria and guidelines for such allocation.

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CHAPTER 3

Structures for the Governance of Labor Immigration in Japan, the Republic of Korea, and Singapore

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3.1 Introduction

This chapter compares the institutional arrangements established by the three most economically advanced countries in Asia for admitting and protecting foreign workers. The three countries—Japan, the Republic of Korea, and Singapore—are all strong modern states with a proven capacity for governance.

Distinct trends have been observed concerning low-skilled temporary labor migration in Asia. First, there has been a reluctance to admit low-skilled workers despite the fact that, especially in the countries observed in this chapter, they are needed to fill acute labor shortages.[7] Second, there is a hesitation to grant those workers the option of permanent residence and a path to citizenship (Lenard 2014).

The way these countries have approached the task of deciding how to respond to their economies' need for foreign labor, how these decisions have been translated into regulations and bureaucratic procedures for responding to employer requests, and what measures and services they have put in place for worker protection are examined with a view to drawing out useful lessons for other countries in the region and beyond. Of the three countries, the governmental structures in Japan and the Republic of Korea started off with many similarities. Being an open economy with a small population, Singapore has been more dependent on foreign labor than the other two countries and has developed its own unique migration infrastructure to meet its economic requirements.

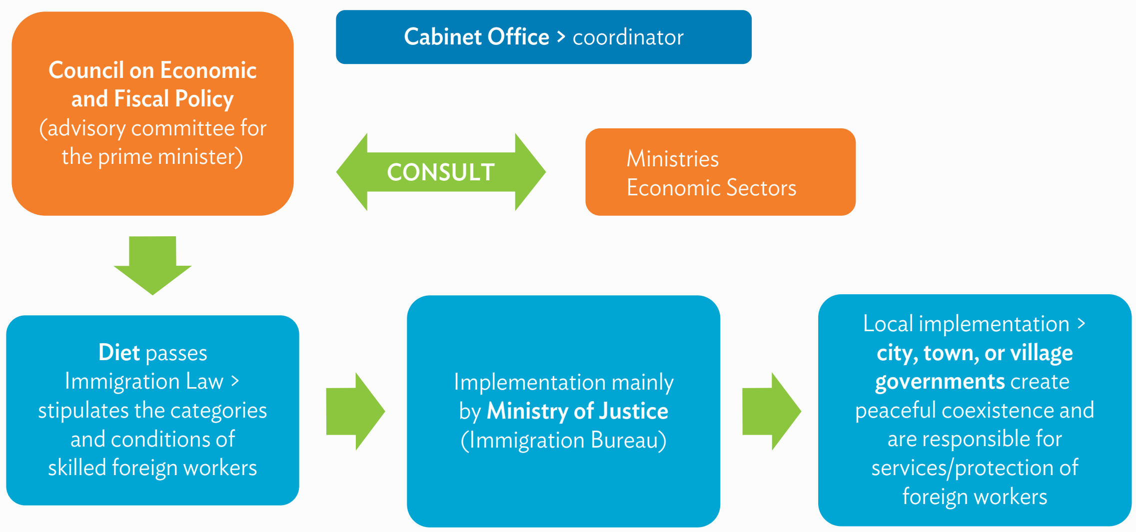
Although their policies have similarities, certain general features distinguish one from the other. In Japan, the admission system is clearly based on priorities established by law, and these exclude low-skill occupations. While the Republic of Korea initially had a very similar policy, the government introduced a major change in 2004 when it adopted a regular guest-worker program for low-skill occupations and negotiated agreements with source countries for a "state-organized" recruitment system. Singapore, on the other hand, has from the very beginning followed a "trust the employer" admission system while also adopting policies to attract highly skilled workers and limit the inflow of low-skilled workers.

[7] A study by Tunon and Baruah (2012) provides evidence of the broad public recognition of the need for foreign labor to fill niches in the labor market. In Singapore, 88% of respondents recognized this need and in the Republic of Korea 79% did. However, around 80% of respondents in Singapore also felt that the government should limit the admission of migrant workers. Native Singaporeans were less illiberal toward the immigration of skilled workers from ASEAN, with only 17% favoring a restriction. The vast majority—83% in the Republic of Korea and 78% in Singapore—shared the view that migrants make a positive net contribution to the national economy.

3.2 Japan: State-Prioritized Admission System

Japan's immigration policy has the most explicit statement of the occupational categories that foreign workers must belong to if they are to be admitted. These categories are decided on by the Japanese Diet, which enacts appropriate legislation following advice from the Council on Economic and Fiscal Policy, an advisory committee for the Prime Minister. The council consults with ministries for various economic sectors, a process coordinated by the Cabinet Office. The Revised Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Law stipulates the categories and conditions for admission. In addition, more than 10 ministries are involved in the process of setting guidelines and conditions for admission including the ministries of labor and social welfare, industry, health, education, construction, and agriculture. At present, employers may only apply for workers falling under one of 27 skilled worker categories.[8] The immigration and refugee law does not allow admission of foreign manual workers including agricultural workers, but does allow for the admission of "technical trainees," who are not considered workers.

Figure 3.1: Japan's Simple Infrastructure of State-Prioritized System



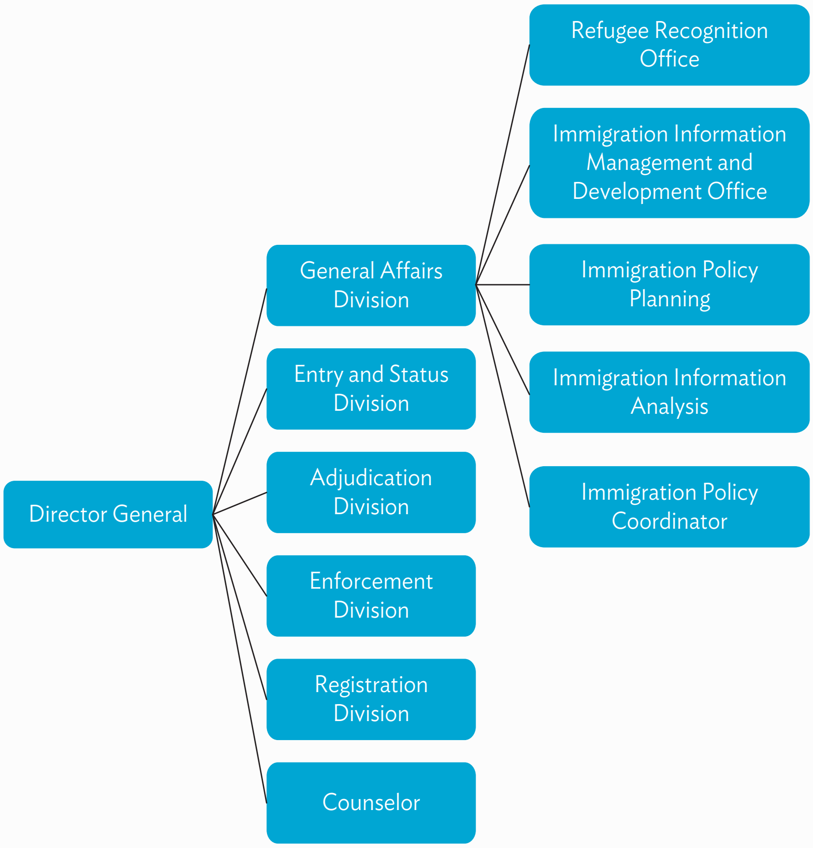
Source: Authors.

Several ministries are involved in the implementation of immigration law, but the Ministry of Justice bears the principal responsibility (Figure 3.1). The Immigration Bureau is the specific office under the ministry that has responsibility for the "entry" and "control of residence" of all foreign nationals including tourists, labor migrants, spouses of Japanese nationals, or Koreans who are offspring of those who moved to Japan before or during World War II (Figure 3.2).[9] The bureau receives the applications from employers wanting to hire skilled foreign workers and decides on the basis of conditions and guidelines previously agreed upon

[8] The 27 categories include diplomats, officials, professors, artists, entertainers, journalists, engineers, investors/business managers, legal and accounting services, medical services, specialists in humanities/international services, religious activities, intra-company transferees, researchers, instructors, skilled labor, and technical interns.

[9] The bureau has some 3,700 officials working in eight regional jurisdictions including detention centers.

Figure 3.2: Structure of Japan's Immigration Bureau by Function



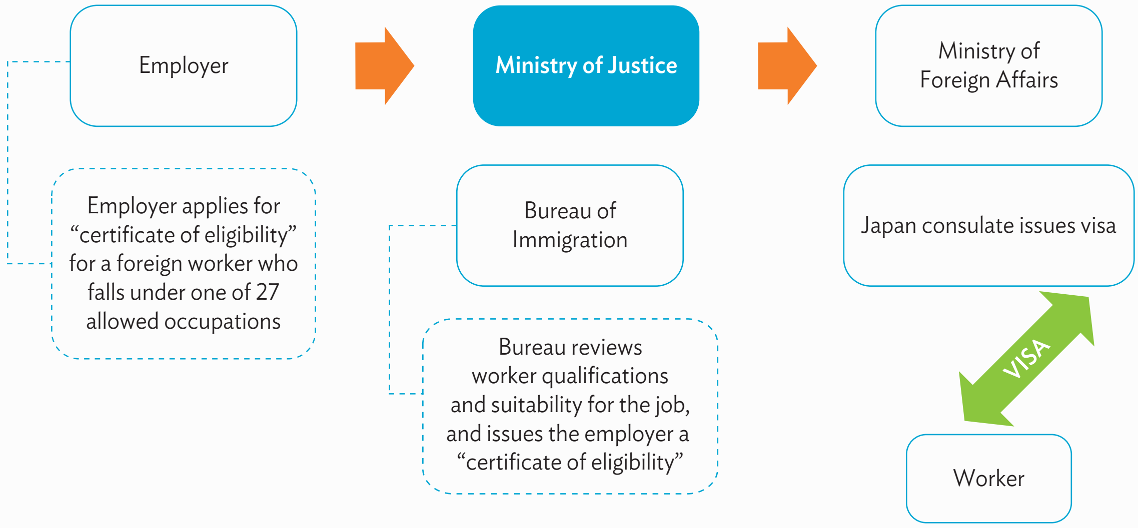
Source: Government of Japan, Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau. 2011. *2011 Immigration Control.* Tokyo.

with other concerned ministries (Figure 3.3). After reviewing the worker's qualifications and suitability for the job, the bureau issues a certificate of eligibility. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs is then informed, which in turn issues a work visa through its consulate in the worker's country.

A key ministry with respect to foreign workers once they are in Japan is the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, since it is responsible for labor-management administration. The information on labor market conditions that the ministry collects is clearly vital to the advisory council's task of recommending the occupations that should be open to admission, but its main tasks lie in enforcing regulations on the protection and nondiscriminatory treatment of foreign workers once they have been admitted. The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare requires all employers to report and register their foreign workers, and attends to complaints and disputes that may arise.

The "technical trainee" program was first established in 1993 to "provide training in technical skills, technology, knowledge from developed countries … in order to train personnel who will become the foundation of economic and industrial development in developing countries" (JITCO n.d.). The trainee program admitted individuals for placement with Japanese companies, and after 1 year as trainees, they could stay for an additional 2 years as interns. Initially, trainees were not covered by labor law during

Figure 3.3: Japan's Process for Admission



Source: Authors.

their traineeship, and thus not guaranteed a regular 40-hour work week, overtime pay, minimum wage, or compensation for workplace injuries. Further, trainees were not under the purview of labor inspectors. This led to some cases of abuse of workers. As a result, the Three-Year Plan for Promotion of Regulatory Reform (Revised) was approved by the cabinet in 2008 and called for the application of labor-related laws and regulations to trainees during their internship and the establishment of status of residence for technical interns. This was incorporated into legislation that was passed in 2010. About 40,000 to 50,000 foreigners per year have come to Japan under the program since 2011 with 70% of them from the People's Republic of China (JITCO 2015).[10]

The interns are admitted for a period of 3 years. However, given the lack of native construction workers, the post-disaster rebuilding efforts, and the 2020 Tokyo Olympics and Paralympics, the Japanese government decided in April 2014 to allow interns in this sector to come back to Japan as regular laborers for another 2–3 years (Harney and Slodkowski 2014). This signified the most liberal opening to foreign labor in many years. Yet, Prime Minister Abe's economic plan is careful to note that the extension of the program is not intended to constitute an "immigration policy" (Harney and Slodkowski 2014). The Japanese population largely opposes a more open immigration policy despite the long-established need for foreign workers.

Following several high-profile cases of abuse, evidence of severe workplace injury, and concerns raised both within and outside Japan, the Ministry of Justice created a panel of experts in 2013 to review the program and make recommendations. Under the current framework, Tokyo-based Japan International

[10] During a recent visit to Bangladesh, Japanese officials negotiated the recruitment of 10,000 Bangladeshi workers for the caregiving, nursing, and construction sectors. Currently, the Japanese government only accepts caregivers and nurses from Indonesia, the Philippines, and Viet Nam who undergo language training before and after their arrival in Japan. In 2014, Viet Nam signed an agreement with farm coop-eratives in one Japanese prefecture to increase the number of agricultural workers sent as "trainees."

Training Cooperation Organization supervises employers, but its warnings are not legally binding and its oversight is therefore ineffective. In response to concerns, the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare and the Ministry of Justice are planning to establish a new agency to supervise the system. In May 2014, the government announced a plan to overhaul the system by strengthening management and supervision of the trainee program, widening the job categories covered, extending the current period of 3 years to a maximum of 5 years, and expanding the annual admission quota.

Local governments play a crucial role in the implementation of foreign worker policies and in the protection of migrants' rights.[11] It is at the local level where policies on so-called "co-existence" with foreign nationals residing in Japan are actually most obvious. It is the local governments that fund and provide vital services to foreign workers such as emergency hospitalization, education for their children, language training, and in some cases housing. At the local level, civil society organizations and trade unions are providing a variety of services such as finding temporary shelter, providing facilities for migrants' association activities, and helping migrants access labor authorities in case of problems with their treatment during employment.

Each of the ministries involved maintains its own database to carry out its immigration-related functions, but no arrangements exist for pooling data into a common database. The sharing of personal data on foreign nationals working and residing in Japan is strictly regulated by Japan's privacy law and for this reason no common database exists that can be accessed by all ministries. The Ministry of Construction, for example, does not have access to information on which companies employ foreign engineers. The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare has such information but can only share it according to the provisions of the privacy law.

3.3 The Republic of Korea: State-Organized Recruitment System

In 2004, the Republic of Korea adopted a program for the admission of low-skilled foreign workers for the benefit of small companies that have difficulty recruiting local workers. The program, known as the Employment Permit System (EPS), aimed to replace the foreign worker trainee system, which proved to be problematic as it led to the overstaying of visas and a rapid expansion of the number of foreign workers in irregular situations. Such situations occurred because trainees were only given allowances instead of a regular wage. They could not earn enough, which prompted many to seek alternative employment even if it violated the terms of their visa.

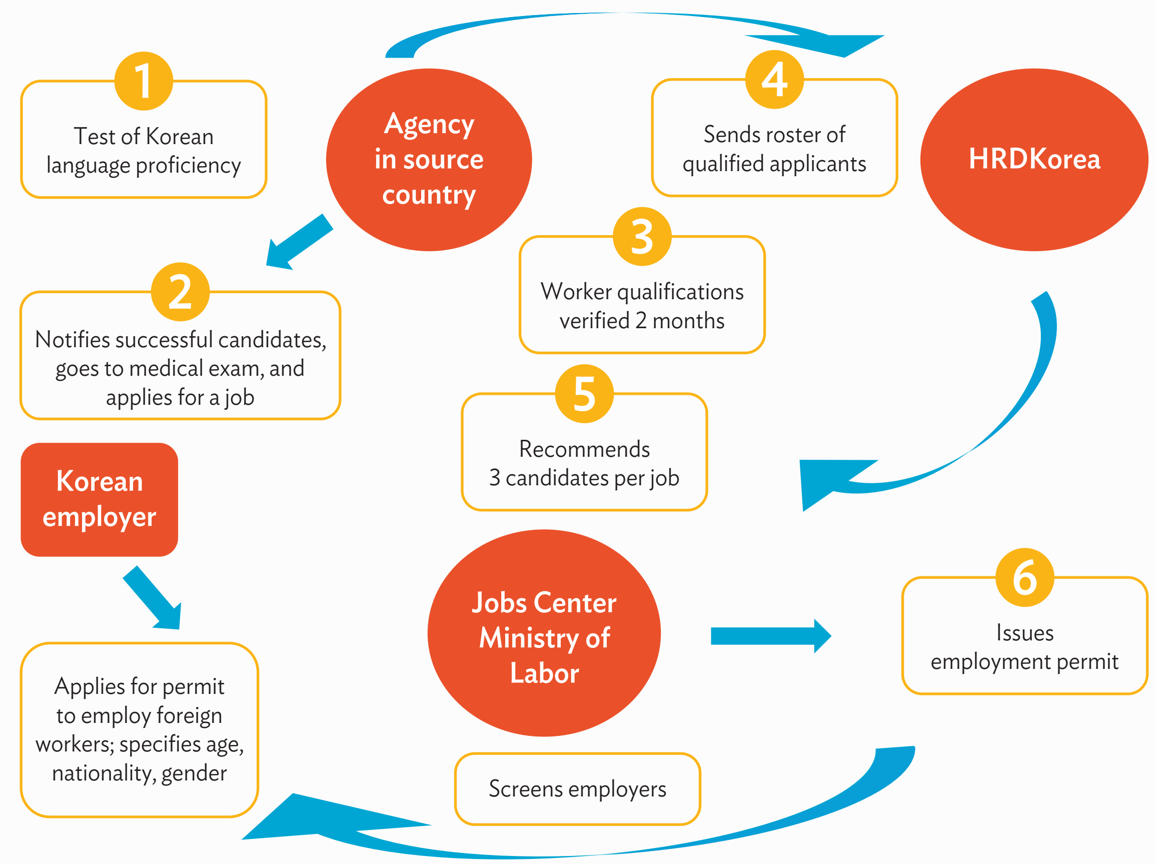
The law that created the EPS gave the newly established Human Resources Development Service of Korea (HRDKorea) principal responsibility for implementing and managing the new foreign worker program, including the principal features of (i) government-to-government agreements with source countries for recruitment, (ii) exclusion of private intermediaries, (iii) some proficiency in the Korean language acquired in the source country to qualify, and (iv) planned admissions using annual quotas.

[11] The Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communication created the Model Plan for the Promotion of Inter-cultural Cohesion in Local Communities (Tabunka Kyousei) in 2006.

The EPS law called for establishing bilateral agreements or memorandums of understanding with source country governments. These agreements required intensive consultations with counterpart government agencies, in most cases the ministry of labor, and considerable investment by HRDKorea to secure cooperation and reach agreement on the roles and responsibilities to be assumed by each side.[12] Under the agreements, source country authorities had to assume responsibility for co-organizing with HRDKorea the Korean language test (TOPIK), selecting applicants who pass it, and checking and validating the applicants' occupational qualifications.

Successful applicants are then entered into a roster, which the source country agency sends to HRDKorea. The information is passed on to the Job Center of the Korean Ministry of Labor, from which applicants may be referred to Korean employers who cannot find local workers to fill their job openings. Under the regulations, Korean employers must first try to find local workers by communicating job openings to the Job Center. If after 3 months they still cannot find suitably qualified workers, they can apply at the center for permission to employ foreign workers, specifying academic or vocational training level, experience, age, nationality, and gender (Figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4: The Republic of Korea's State-Organized Recruitment System



Source: Authors.

[12] The ILO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific assisted HRDKorea in organizing many of the bilateral negotiations with source countries.

Employers must meet certain conditions to be allowed to hire foreign workers. They must belong to certain industries and be small or medium-sized enterprises (employing fewer than 300 workers). They must not have laid off or transferred domestic workers and not delayed payment of wages to existing employees. Employers who pass this screening receive the names of candidates who satisfy their requirements, and when a selection is made the Job Center issues an Employment Permit. The employer has to obtain insurance for work accidents and insurance for failure of the worker to return to his or her home country upon completion of his or her contract, and must meet the cost of return.

The Ministry of Labor then advises the Immigration Office under the Ministry of Justice of the employer applications that have been approved. When the Immigration Office approves the visa application it issues a Certificate for Confirmation of Visa Issuance, provided the employer has not previously been found to be employing foreign workers illegally, and the foreign worker applied for has no record of unlawful residence in the Republic of Korea. The counterpart agency in the source country, which is usually the employment department of the labor ministry, is notified by HRDKorea of the candidates selected by Korean employers and it in turn notifies the candidates. Candidates who pass the medical exam will then register their acceptance by applying for the specific job. Selected job seekers will be personally contacted by the authority in the source country and asked to submit documents, such as a passport, required for visa issuance. The source country authority assists workers in submitting their visa applications. The EPS monitors the process and in case of delay asks the consulate for prompt issuance of a visa. Failure to submit an application within 3 months is regarded as non-acceptance of the employment offer.

If the application for the Certificate for Confirmation of Visa Issuance is turned down for reasons that have to do with the employer, the affected worker is automatically re-registered on the job seekers' roster. If the denial is due to some disqualification of the worker, such as failing a medical test, the worker will be deleted from the roster.

The whole recruitment process is supervised by both governments, particularly with a view to keeping out profit-seeking job brokers or "facilitators" and preventing employers from cutting deals with workers that do not meet the Republic of Korea's labor standards. As a safeguard, job seekers' personal information, such as addresses, are not sent to employers when HRDKorea first recommends certain workers. A new points system to reward good employers has recently been developed to facilitate the allocation of foreign workers to different sectors (agriculture and livestock, fishery, construction, manufacturing, and others) and to encourage employers to improve the working environment. Exemplary companies with no record of violating labor and immigration laws get more points. Foreign workers are assured of treatment that is roughly equal to that of national workers, except for limits on mobility in the labor market (prior approval of HRDKorea to change employers) and on family reunification. Upon their arrival in the Republic of Korea, foreign workers have to attend a 2-day briefing paid for by the employer to instruct them on their rights under Korean labor laws and how they can find assistance and remedies in case of violations.[13] HRDKorea has also designed a mandatory predeparture training program that covers similar topics as the post-arrival training, but costs are borne by the employee. Information brochures that outline their rights and obligations in the languages of the foreign workers' countries of origin are also available.

[13] Post-admission training is mandatory and covers an additional two hours on Korean language; two hours on Korean culture and customs; six hours on Korean immigration, labor, and grievance procedure laws; and six hours on industrial safety and skills.

The EPS aims to meet the needs of Korean employers, but it is subject to annual quotas set by the government. The Foreign Workforce Policy Committee, comprising representatives from 12 ministries or offices (at the vice-minister level), has been established to decide on the annual quota.[14] The annual quota for the E-9 visa (unskilled workers) was set at 55,000 for 2015. Surveys of the labor force and of specific industries provide the basis for the quota, which would typically provide for the replacement of workers who return to their countries and to fill additional demand.

HRDKorea provides institutional support to foreign workers during their stay through 48 job centers, 34 foreign worker support centers, and one foreign workforce counseling center, which was established in July 2011. The services provided include the following:[15]

- initial monitoring of immigration,
- resolution of workplace difficulties and conflict,
- integration of workers in the national community,
- assistance to workers in finding new jobs in cases where the employer faces difficulties or closes the business, and
- training to enhance skills and job competency (Kim 2015).

The protection of foreign workers is the responsibility of the Ministry of Employment and Labor, which regularly conducts workplace inspections and also checks on violations of immigration laws. In 2013, 952 out of 3,048 companies inspected were found to be in violation of the foreign worker employment law, while 207 companies were in violation of the minimum wage law.[16] Enterprises found violating these laws are not allowed to hire foreign workers again. The ministry works closely with the Ministry of Justice in strictly supervising the period of stay of foreign workers in the Republic of Korea.

3.4 Singapore: Trust the Employer Admission System

Of the three countries under review, Singapore has a long tradition of labor migration and first admitted workers, in an organized manner, from countries other than Malaysia in 1978 (Lenard 2015).

What distinguishes Singapore's system for foreign worker admission from those of Japan and the Republic of Korea is the large leeway given to employers to decide on what kinds of workers they can bring. The system is referred to as "demand-driven," but since the systems in Japan and the Republic of Korea are also demand-driven in many ways, we use the label "trust the employer" to distinguish it from the others and denote the large role played by employers. Singapore has developed a system purposefully aimed at allowing productivity and other market forces to determine who and how many are admitted for

[14] The committee consists of representatives from the Office of Government Coordination and the ministries of Strategy and Finance; Foreign Affairs; Justice; Public Administration and Security; Culture, Sports and Tourism; Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs; Forestry and Fisheries; Trade, Industry and Energy; Health and Welfare; Employment and Labor; Land, Infrastructure and Transport; and Small and Medium Business Administration.

[15] The centers receive telephone or in-person visits with interpretation provided in 10 different languages. See also Kim 2015.

[16] Information received from HRDKorea by the authors. See also data on infringement of contract terms encountered by EPS workers (Kim 2015).

employment in which sectors.[17] Unlike Japan, there is no predetermined list of occupations that foreign nationals may enter, and employers may bring in low-skilled workers. However, the number of foreign workers employed at an enterprise must not exceed a certain percentage as set by the government. This percentage, known as the dependency ceiling, varies by industry. Residents can also hire foreign domestic helpers. Unlike the Republic of Korea, Singapore has no government-to-government agreements for the import of foreign labor, and private job brokers are allowed to undertake recruitment and engage in the business for profit. Admission is through different doors depending on skills and qualifications, each door conferring on entrants a different set of rights and entitlements and permissible length of stay, including the possibility of permanent residence for professional and skilled workers.

While this is labeled as a "trust the employer" system, it would be wrong to assume that the government lets the market fully decide on the volume and composition of foreign worker admissions. The government actively manages immigration through measures that affect the costs to employers of employing foreigners as opposed to local labor. The key instruments of control are

(i) an *enterprise-level quota* expressed as a *dependency ceiling* (ratio of foreign to local workers),

(ii) a *levy on employment of foreign workers* that declines with higher skill levels and varies by industry, and

(iii) *types of work permit* (based on salary) with different rights attached to each.

The ceiling and the levies are periodically reviewed by the cabinet and adjusted as it sees necessary considering the macroeconomic goals of raising overall productivity and maintaining stable growth.[18] An example of recommendations of the cabinet-level Economic Strategies Committee set up in 2009 is shown in Table 3.1. Levies are structured in a way that forces enterprises to be more efficient in their use of foreign labor—they rise when the share of foreigners in the enterprise's workforce exceeds the ceiling set for firms in the industry (known as the dependency ceiling), but decline for higher-skilled foreign workers. Other more conventional forms of control are also employed, such as requiring employers to publish job openings on the online Jobs Bank of the Singapore Workforce Development Agency before applying for permission to hire foreign workers. Job openings must be advertised for a minimum of 14 days, except for jobs at small firms (25 or fewer employees), jobs that are to be filled by intra-corporate transfers (ICTs), jobs that are necessary for short-term contingencies (not more than 1 month), and jobs that pay a fixed monthly salary of 12,000 Singapore dollars (S$) and above (Figure 3.5).[19]

No levy is imposed when the foreign worker hired possesses a tertiary education degree and earns a monthly salary of S$3,000 or above. There are no quotas on such workers and they are granted an Employment Pass, which also entitles them to bring their families. Provided they meet certain conditions they may also apply for permanent residence. A levy is imposed for mid-level employees with diploma-level education and a monthly salary between S$2,000 and S$3,000. These workers are granted an S Pass. Their share cannot exceed 20% of an enterprise's workforce. Unskilled foreign workers earning less than S$2,000 a month are admitted with an R Pass work permit. S Pass and R Pass holders are not entitled to bring their families with them.

[17] For the government's official stance on labor migration, see Box 3.1.

[18] Skills shortages in industries are monitored through regular surveys of the labor market and reported in the Strategic and Skills-in-Demand list published by the Ministry of Labour.

[19] Intra-corporate transfers refers to those holding senior positions in the organization or who have an advanced level of expertise.

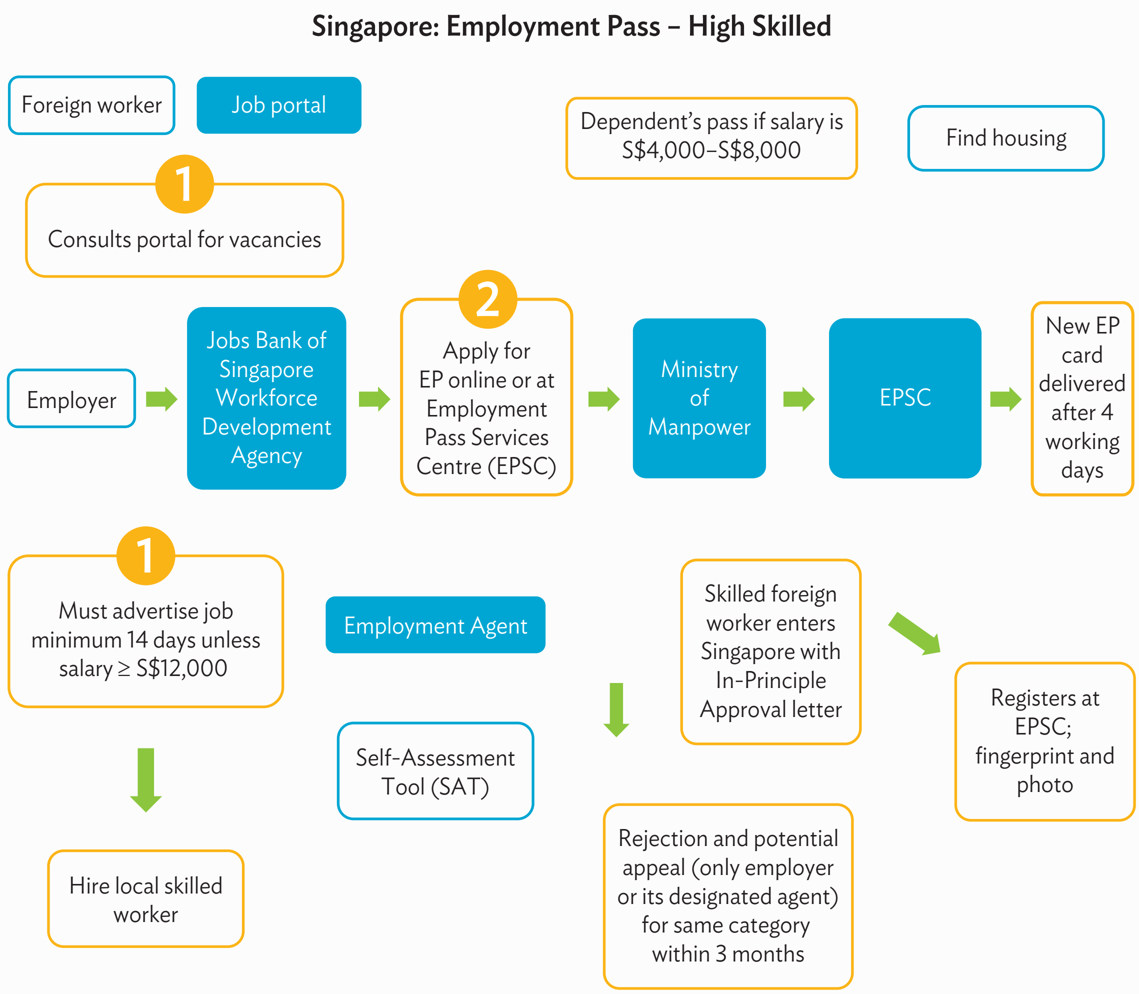
Box 3.1: Government of Singapore's Position on Labor Migration

"At our current low birth rate, our citizen population will age rapidly, and also start declining from 2025, if we do not take in any new immigrants. (...) To stop our citizen population from shrinking, we will take in between 15,000 and 25,000 new citizens each year. (...) We have tightened up significantly on the number of PRs [permanent residencies] granted each year. We have come down from a high of 79,000 new PRs in 2008 to about 30,000 each year currently.

We plan to maintain the current pace. This will keep a stable PR population of between 0.5 and 0.6 million, and ensure a pool of suitable potential citizens (...). We thus continue to need a significant number of foreign workers to complement the Singaporean core in the workforce. However, we cannot allow in an unlimited number of foreign workers. We do not want to be overwhelmed by more foreign workers than we can absorb, or to expand our total population beyond what our island is able to accommodate. Too many foreign workers will also depress wages and reduce the incentive for firms to upgrade workers and raise productivity."

Source: Government of Singapore. 2013. *A Sustainable Population for a Dynamic Singapore: Population White Paper.* http://population.sg/whitepaper/downloads/exec-summary-english.pdf

Figure 3.5: Singapore's Process of Hiring Highly Skilled Foreign Workers



Source: Authors.

The Ministry of Manpower is the principal government agency charged with implementing the foreign worker policy and establishing workplace standards. More specifically, the ministry enforces regulations to prevent the illegal employment of foreign workers, conducts regular labor and worksite inspections to monitor their employment conditions including accommodations, and checks on so-called "runaways" or those who abandon their employers. Within the Ministry of Manpower there are two divisions tasked with these responsibilities. The Work Pass Division facilitates and regulates the employment of foreign nationals and issues work permits and passes. The Foreign Manpower Management Division (FMMD) is in charge of the welfare and protection of foreign workers and the professionalization of the employment agency industry.[20] Within the FMMD, the Employment Inspectorate Department inspects worksites and housing dormitories.[21] The FMMD is also tasked with enforcing the Employment Agency Act, which governs the licensing and regulation of private employment agencies. Since private job brokers are allowed to recruit foreign workers, the existence of regulations and their enforcement to prevent abusive practices is extremely important for worker protection.

The processes for securing permits have in recent years been greatly simplified through the use of online systems. Employers can apply for employment permits online or at the Employment Pass Services Centre. An online service, Employment Standards Online, is a portal for organizations and individuals to communicate with the Labour Relations and Workplace Division of the Ministry of Manpower. It allows former employees to make claims to recover salaries and payment from their former employers, or to appeal against unfair dismissal. The Ministry of Manpower may forward the claims to the Labour Court for adjudication.

Recent years have also seen the establishment of support services for the large population of foreign workers in Singapore. The Migrant Workers' Centre, established in 2009 as a bipartite effort between the National Trades Union Congress and the Singapore National Employers Federation, has programs to promote responsible employment practices among employers, educate migrant workers on their employment rights, and enhance the social support infrastructure to help them better integrate into Singaporean society. It has recently added a mobile service to serve as a contact point for foreign workers and facilitates their harmonious "co-existence with locals" (Migrant Workers' Centre 2015).

3.5 How Effectively Have Infrastructures and Services Supported Policy Implementation?

Japan, the Republic of Korea, and Singapore are the wealthiest countries in the region with per capita incomes many times higher than those of neighboring countries. With fertility rates having declined to below replacement level, these countries are confronted with demographic aging and the prospect of shrinking national workforces. While they face migration pressures, they nonetheless have managed fairly

[20] The Ministry of Manpower aims to raise the professionalism of the employment agency industry by overseeing employment agency licensing rules and conditions, enforcing the Employment Agency Act and regulations, and developing and implementing the demerit points system.

[21] In 2012, the Ministry of Manpower conducted 865 housing inspections and dealt with 1,062 employers for housing their foreign workers in unacceptable conditions. Government of Singapore, Ministry of Manpower. 2013. Five Companies Convicted of Providing Unacceptable Accommodation—First Case in 2013. Press release. www.mom.gov.sg/newsroom/press-releases/2013/five-companies-convicted-of-providing-unacceptable-accommodation--first-case-in-2013

successfully to control their borders and to regulate or manage the immigration of foreign labor. To be sure, the scale of the migration management challenge differs among the three countries. Singapore admits a large number of foreigners relative to the size of its national workforce. In contrast, the number of workers able to enter Japan and the Republic of Korea every year is relatively insignificant relative to their respective native workforces, although foreign labor is important in certain sectors.

Japan has maintained its policy of keeping out unskilled foreign labor while opening up more doors for the entry of skilled workers, but the new policy thrust is not reflected in the size and composition of admissions due to the macroeconomic situation over the past decade. The growth of foreign workers recorded during the boom years of the late 1980s and the 1990s was later reversed because of the economic slowdown, with a steady decline in the number of foreign nationals entering the country each year for employment (from a peak of 162,000 in 1990 to 52,500 in 2010). The economic situation may also partly explain the drop in the undocumented population from well over 300,000 in the 1990s to around 50,000 in the past decade, although heightened enforcement and stricter admission criteria clearly played a role. Overall, the total population of registered foreigners in Japan has been declining from a peak of 2.2 million in 2008 (1.7% of the total population).

By contrast, the number of foreign workers admitted to both the Republic of Korea and Singapore has grown significantly. In Singapore, the number of foreign workers rose by 23% from 1.11 million in December 2010 to 1.37 million in June 2015. In order to make Singapore a serious player in the global knowledge-based economy, the government has used its immigration control measures as tools to pressure industries to upgrade their technologies. Singapore was able to use information provided by employers to adapt enterprise-level quotas to macroeconomic and other circumstances. The differential in the levy for employing low-skilled versus high-skilled foreign workers has been further widened. At the same time, the government has made it easier for employers to retain their experienced and skilled foreign workers. The aim is to increase productivity 2%–3% a year. These measures have already had a palpable impact on admissions. There has been a 76% increase in S Passes granted and a 26% increase in passes granted for those with higher education between December 2010 and June 2015 (Government of Singapore 2015).

Foreign workers totaled 747,902 in December 2014 and represented about 2.8% of the Republic of Korea's labor force of 26.5 million.[22] The adoption of the regular guest worker program in 2004 is, in part, a sign that the labor market has become very tight. The youngest cohort in the labor force has not grown, indicating that the workforce is aging fast. Although the female rate of employment is low by industrialized countries' standards, the rate of unemployment among women who join the labor force is very low at around 2.6% or lower than that for male workers. For these reasons one may expect that the government will allow the foreign worker program to expand in the coming years.

With the shift to the EPS, the Government of the Republic of Korea aimed to ease the economy out of "path dependence" on cheap foreign labor, a consequence of an earlier policy of allowing small and medium-sized enterprises to employ foreign workers as trainees. HRDKorea has negotiated agreements with the governments of 15 Asian source countries for the recruitment of foreign workers (Table 3.1). The exclusion of private intermediaries in recruitment and the use of a computerized system for exchanging information

[22] This is comprised of 230,336 workers on the E-9 visa and another 275,897 workers on the H-2 visa (the latter is for foreigners of Korean ethnic origin). The remainder is undocumented workers at 192,076 and professionals, managers, and investors at 49,593 (Soel 2015).

Table 3.1: Republic of Korea, E-9 Workers, by Sector and Country of Origin, March 2015 Cumulative

Country of Origin	Manufacturing	Agriculture	Fisheries	Construction	Service	Total
Viet Nam	23,984	3,301	593	2,797	7	30,682
Cambodia	17,542	8,412	15	1,383	3	27,355
Indonesia	24,122	40	1,912	338	22	26,434
Nepal	17,893	3,227	106	0	25	21,251
Sri Lanka	18,876	34	923	93	6	19,932
Thailand	16,502	1,392	3	921	2	18,820
Philippines	17,027	44	0	11	0	17,082
Uzbekistan	13,007	23	1	16	161	13,208
Myanmar	10,079	871	2	1,353	5	12,310
Bangladesh	7,998	38	23	48	9	8,116
Mongolia	3,913	16	4	21	28	3,982
Pakistan	3,057	24	80	49	2	3,212
People's Republic of China	927	40	56	37	3	1,063
Timor-Leste	437	37	388	0	0	862
Kyrgyz Republic	745	2	0	0	7	754
Total	**176,109**	**17,501**	**4,106**	**7,067**	**280**	**205,063**

Note: The E-9 employment visa is for unskilled workers.

Source: Seol, D.-H. 2015. Indicators Used in Determining Admissions for Foreign Workers in Korea. Presentation at the Regional Meeting to Validate the Guide on Measuring Migration Policy Impacts in ASEAN Member States, Bangkok, Thailand, 10-11 November.

with source country agencies (e.g., roster of qualified workers, list of selected workers) have greatly reduced the previously high costs that workers incurred to find jobs in the Republic of Korea. Although not enough time has elapsed to judge the full impact of the policy, it is already evident that the new system is a vast improvement over the previous trainee scheme. The government now exercises greater control of numbers by adjusting the quota depending on labor market conditions and by making entry through regular channels more attractive than going through irregular ones. Foreign workers legally admitted to the country already have basic command of the Korean language, are guaranteed minimum wages and equal treatment in employment, have health and medical insurance, and can access a variety of support services. The period of legal stay has also been extended to 4 years and 10 months, with possibility of an additional spell of employment.[23]

The three countries have followed different approaches to managing migration even though they are all strong capitalist states with high incomes, liberal economic systems, and the capacity to implement laws and regulations.

Admissions reflect the importance of economic factors in labor immigration. Singapore and the Republic of Korea offer a "revolving door" for low-skilled workers to meet their countries' labor needs. For high-

[23] From July 2012, migrant workers who have returned home upon expiry of their E-9 visa and whom employers wish to rehire may return to the Republic of Korea within 3 months of leaving and without needing to undergo the application and testing process for new EPS hires.

skilled workers, all three countries allow easy entry and the option of permanent residence, including family reunification.

Outcomes differ, however. Singapore was able to maintain high economic growth but could not escape growing dependence on foreign labor, whereas Japan has managed to avoid dependence on foreign labor, although it has not been able to harness migration to contribute significantly to its economic growth.[24] The Republic of Korea has succeeded in attuning admissions to shortages in the labor market and in controlling the appetite of small and medium-sized enterprises for cheap labor, but it is too early to say if path dependency will develop.

3.6 Good Practices and Lessons Learned

In this chapter we reviewed the migration infrastructures and services established by three countries in Asia to regulate the recruitment, admission, employment, and return of foreign workers. The three countries are economically advanced states facing common demographic challenges, but each has developed its unique response to the need to bring in foreign labor. The review describes how these responses have been translated into institutional frameworks for monitoring conditions in the labor market, deciding on applications for the admission of various categories and numbers of foreign workers, regulating their orderly recruitment and placement, protecting migrants against exploitation, and ensuring their orderly return.

From the cursory evidence on the outcomes of their policies and programs outlined in this chapter, certain lessons can be drawn that may be of interest to other countries, albeit keeping in mind the limits to “transferability” of practices and institutions across countries with different conditions and traditions.

- Many sectors have a stake in labor immigration, which are best taken into account through the creation of interministerial policy making or advisory bodies at the highest level.
- Regular surveys of labor market conditions are essential for establishing realistic quotas and for making sound decisions on the numbers and types of foreign workers to admit in which sectors.
- Online services should be used extensively at the various stages of the entire migration cycle; these can also serve as a tool for monitoring and documenting the actions of all parties, as practiced in Singapore.
- Bilateral labor agreements to engage source country authorities as co-managers of the migration process contribute to more orderly migration.
- Requiring migrant workers to possess basic language skills, as the Republic of Korea has done under the EPS and Japan has for nurses and caregivers from Indonesia and the Philippines under the Economic Partnership Agreement, helps address many of the common problems faced by migrants at work and in the communities in which they live.[25]

[24] Prime Minister Shinzo Abe recently announced an easing of temporary immigration of much-needed domestic and care workers in Japan.

[25] However, given that only a small number of workers will eventually go to the Republic of Korea to work—in part because of the challenges and difficulty of being selected for a job—a fairer sharing of test preparation costs might be considered. In addition to financial resources, students who do not pass waste time preparing for the test. Passing the EPS TOPIK test only gives the worker the opportunity to apply for an EPS job and does not guarantee employment in the Republic of Korea. In Japan, licensing exams for nurses are in the Japanese language and are difficult for foreigners to pass.

— Professionalization of recruitment practitioners, as in Singapore, can reduce malpractices.

— Regular labor inspections, as practiced in the Republic of Korea and Singapore and as envisioned by the Japanese government for the overhauled trainee program, help prevent discriminatory treatment of foreign workers and problems with illegal employment.

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CHAPTER 4

Institutions to Attract Talent to the People's Republic of China

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4.1 Introduction

The People's Republic of China (PRC) is facing key economic challenges for which the quality of the workforce is an important factor. The country is seeking to spur scientific and technological innovation, upgrade the processes and products produced, and develop entrepreneurship. For this, it is seeking to attract highly trained experts, notably in the scientific and technological fields. At the same time, many PRC students go abroad for an education and many stay abroad after graduation to work. This has created a loss of highly educated potential talent for the economy. This educated diaspora does, however, also provide the opportunity for the PRC to bolster its expertise in the scientific and entrepreneurial fields. For more than 3 decades, the PRC has been trying to attract the best and brightest back home. Since 2008, the programs of support have been stepped up and include attracting non-Chinese experts as well. The various programs designed to attract returnees constitute a "diaspora model" of institutional structures for the PRC as a labor destination country.

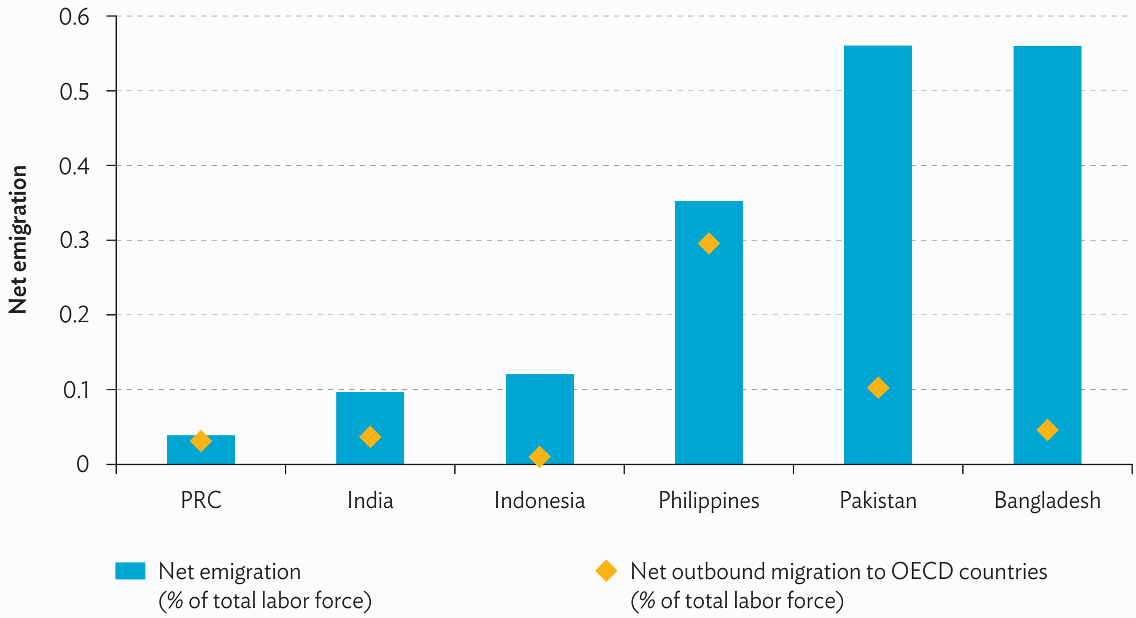
4.2 Demographics and Low Immigration

Debate continues as to whether the PRC has reached its "Lewis turning point" and exhausted the supply of surplus rural labor (Cai 2015). Employers in some coastal areas have found it difficult to secure an adequate supply of workers, and wages have seen large and consistent increases for more than a decade. There are also concerns of a skills mismatch between the skills possessed by new entrants to the labor market and those needed by employers (Chen, Mourshed, and Grant 2013; ILO 2015). These trends suggest a tightening of the labor market. However, there is little evidence of a national shortage of workers in terms of numbers and little pressure to encourage the immigration of foreign workers to fill jobs in manufacturing, construction, or domestic care services. Such pressures do exist in other upper-middle- and high-income countries in Asia such as Japan, the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, and Singapore. Various institutions, including bilateral labor agreements, have been developed in those countries to manage and encourage immigration.

The PRC's large general population and rural demographics have traditionally constrained any need to encourage immigration. Even in recent years, "[t]he enormous expansion of international trade and the growth of the Chinese economy" has resulted in little change in the "largely stable stock of foreign workers" (OECD 2012b). Quite the contrary, ensuring sufficient productive work for the resident population has been a greater preoccupation historically, and the periodic movement of workers across the country's external borders has been in the outward direction. Many Chinese have sought employment and entrepreneurial opportunities in Southeast Asia, the Americas, and other areas over the past century and more.[26]

In recent decades, large numbers have gone abroad to study along with others who have sought employment or joined families. The PRC is currently the joint fourth-largest country in the world in terms of net emigration.[27] However, given its large size, net emigration as a share of the workforce is smaller than other major Asian countries (Figure 4.1). Also, the PRC tends to send a larger share of migrants to OECD countries than do other Asian countries.

Figure 4.1: Net Emigration as a Share of the Labor Force



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

Note: Net emigration: 5-year average to 2012. Net outbound migration: 2012.

Sources: Data from World Bank. World Development Indicators Database. Net Migration. http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SM.POP.NETM; and OECD. International Migration Database. https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=MIG

Figures from the United Nations suggest that that the total foreign-born population in the PRC is relatively small at about 848,000, or about 0.06% of the population. This is small compared with other countries, regardless of size—the 2013 figure for India is 5.3 million, for Japan 2.4 million, and for the Republic of

[26] Depressed economic conditions and political instability prompted about 300,000 Chinese to immigrate to the United States (US) between 1850 and 1889. The US passed the Chinese Exclusion Act, 1882, barring labor migration and enacting prohibition on obtaining citizenship. The law was rescinded in 1943, but little Chinese immigration was allowed until the mid-1960s. For its part, the PRC liberalized emigration as part of general economic reforms from 1978 (Hooper and Batalova 2015).

[27] The other countries are, from largest, India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, and Syria (joint fourth with the PRC). Data is an average of 5 years up to and including 2012 (World Bank 2015).

Korea 1.2 million (UNDESA 2015). The subset of the foreign-born population in the PRC who are part of the workforce was about 246,000 in 2012. This is also small, especially relative to smaller, higher-income, and labor-scarce countries in Southeast Asia such as Malaysia, where the corresponding figure is 1.5 million, and Singapore, where it is 1.3 million (ADBI–OECD–ILO 2015).

The PRC has not developed an elaborate institutional structure to support and encourage the general inflow of foreign workers to the country. Where it has focused its efforts is on encouraging immigration of highly skilled experts and entrepreneurs, mostly returnee Chinese. Indeed, the PRC government has been described as "the most assertive government in the world in introducing policies targeted at triggering a reverse brain drain" (Zweig and Wang 2013).

4.3 Need for Expert Talent

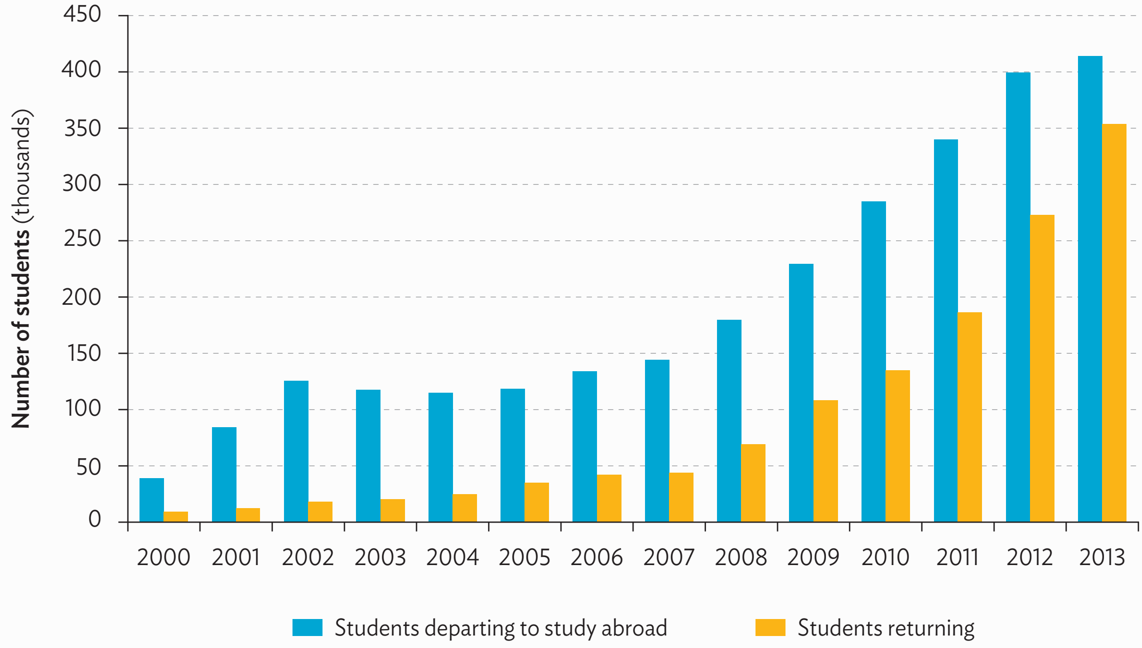
The PRC is at a crossroads in terms of economic development. Its investment-fueled growth strategy is under strain and the growth rate has been falling. It is now looking for a more balanced growth model and one that relies increasingly on quality production of higher-value goods and services. Rising labor costs have made the PRC a less attractive production base relative to other countries in the region, shaking its reputation as "Asia's factory" for mass-produced goods. According to a recent estimate, by 2020 there may be 23 million people lacking the education needed to fill the jobs on offer. At the same time, Chinese employers will demand 142 million more highly skilled workers (Chen, Mourshed, and Grant 2013).

The PRC has made significant investments in research and development (R&D) in an effort to become a global knowledge leader. Although investment in R&D as a share of national output, at 2.08%, is lower than in Japan or the Republic of Korea, the PRC's total investment of $318 billion is larger than that of its two neighbors combined (OECD 2015). Along with increased R&D, more highly skilled professionals are needed to conduct research and move new innovations to the commercialization stage and to market.

The PRC has been making great strides in terms of improving human capital. Higher education experienced a significant transformation with a major reform and expansion starting in 1999. The number of students enrolled in college increased 4.7 times between 1998 and 2005 (Li and Xing 2010) and gross enrollment in tertiary education increased from 17% to nearly 30% of the age cohort in 2004–2013 (UNESCO 2014). In addition, globally the PRC sends the largest number of students abroad to study, with 694,365 students pursuing higher education overseas in 2012. The top destinations are the United States (US) with 30% of the total and Japan with 14% (UNESCO 2014).

The large flow of Chinese students to other countries has been cited as the "the world's worst brain drain" (Dan and Yao 2013). In recent years, about 400,000 students have gone abroad annually to study (Figure 4.2). Many have the opportunity to stay following graduation to look for work and transition from a student to a work visa. For example, in Germany, where about 30,000 Chinese students are enrolled at universities, they are allowed to stay for 18 months after graduation to find work while keeping part-time student jobs to support themselves. In the United Kingdom, a major destination for Chinese students, the regulations are more restrictive, with graduates given only 4 months to find an employer that will sponsor their work visa.

Figure 4.2: Student Flows to and from the People's Republic of China



Source: National Bureau of Statistics of China. 2015. China Statistical Yearbook 2014. www.stats.gov.cn/tjsj/ndsj/2014/indexeh.htm

Many students do return, especially in recent years, with the backflow of students about 300,000 annually. A large share of the most educated tends to stay away, however. Up to 87% of the PRC's top specialists in science and engineering who went abroad to work or study indicated that they have no plans of returning (Dan and Yao 2013). The PRC represents the largest source of foreign doctorate recipients in the US, accounting for 4,121 doctorates or 34% of all temporary residents receiving doctorates in 2007–2011 (Finn 2014). The majority of those who earn their doctorate remain in the US following graduation. In 2001, 98% of Chinese students remained in the US 5 years after graduation, although the figure has since fallen (it was 94% in 2007 and 85% in 2011). It remains significantly higher than the average for other countries, which was 66% in 2011 (Finn 2014).

4.4 Early and Ongoing Initiatives

The PRC has attempted to increase the return flow of talent through various initiatives to attract talented Chinese individuals, including graduating students, scholars (professors), and entrepreneurs. The emphasis has been on enticing Chinese students to return after graduation. Until the mid-1980s, the government strongly controlled the outflow of students, with all overseas students chosen by either the Ministry of Education or the Chinese Academy of Sciences. Students were required to return and rejoin their previous employers or organizations. From 1985, the process was liberalized, with more institutions permitted to select and allow students to go overseas and more students self-funding their education abroad. Also, the requirement to return was relaxed (Zweig 2006).

A variety of programs were set up to entice students and researchers to return by offering financial incentives to do so. At the national level, these programs included the Financial Support for Outstanding Young Professors Program (1987), Seed Fund for Returned Overseas Scholars (1990), Cross Century Outstanding Personnel Training Program (1991), and National Science Fund for Distinguished Young Scholars (1994). A large number of local governments also set up programs to entice Chinese talent to return, with Shanghai at the forefront of these efforts.

Two other significant national programs emerged in the mid to late 1990s. One was the Hundred Talents Program, which was established by the Chinese Academy of Sciences in 1994 and is the precursor to the Thousand Talents Program, which is discussed below. The other key program was the Cheung Kong (or Changjiang) Scholars Program, which was set up in 1998 as a joint initiative of the Ministry of Education and a foundation of the Hong Kong, China businessman Li Ka-shing. The latter provides generous funding to secure professorship for Chinese scholars that are educated either domestically or overseas. It is designed to attract "the best of the best among Chinese researchers" (Li Ka Shing Foundation 2003). The program has sought top domestic and international talent to groom into pioneers of high-level disciplines. The Cheung Kong program continues to operate.

4.5 Institutions to Encourage Returnees

Along with offers of jobs and incentives, the government has over the years set up a number of mechanisms to encourage overseas graduating students to return to the PRC. By the early 2000s, there were 52 educational bureaus in its embassies and consulates in the nearly 40 countries where most Chinese students were located. The bureaus helped to form over 2,000 overseas student associations and 300 professional associations for overseas Chinese researchers (Zweig 2006).[28]

The annual Science and Technology Convention for Overseas Scholars has been organized in the PRC to keep Chinese scholars in touch with the homeland. Recruitment delegations have been sent from the PRC to cities with high concentrations of Chinese students. These visits are initially organized through the global network of service centers for overseas study of the Ministry of Education. In 2002, the government sought to bring together and better coordinate the efforts of various bodies by creating the Office for Work on Overseas Study and Returnees.

Returnee Industrial Parks and Business Incubators

A key institutional mechanism to lure returnee entrepreneurs—particularly those with scientific or technological expertise—is the creation of "scholar parks" or "pioneer parks," which are essentially industrial parks that act as business incubators for returnees. The first of these parks were established in the 1990s and there are now about 270 of them. The China Overseas Scholars Pioneer Park Alliance was formed in 2008 to discuss and champion common issues among the various parks (Wang 2015).

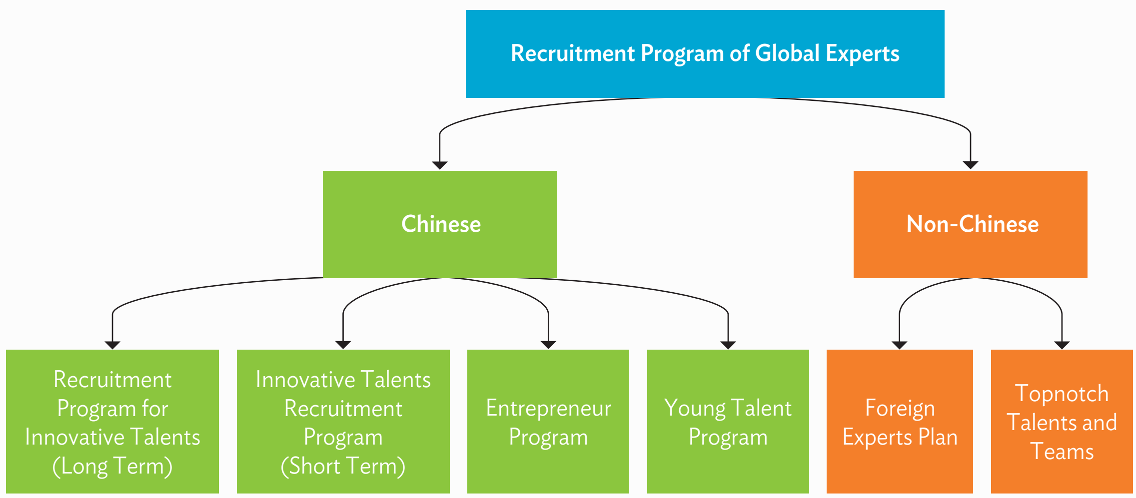
[28] The source for this and the following paragraph is Zweig (2006).

Because industrial parks are a responsibility of local government, city governments took the initiative, sometimes partnering with the national government. The incubators have supported the creation of an estimated 35,000 businesses over the years and the current number of returnee entrepreneurs operating in these parks totals about 40,000 (Wang 2015). Not only do the incubators support businesses in their initial stages of development, they help new entrepreneurs comply with regulations and otherwise facilitate interaction with government (Zweig 2006).

Recruitment Program of Global Experts

To increase the rate of return of talented Chinese scholars and entrepreneurs, but also to attract non-Chinese talent, the PRC created a new initiative in 2008 called the Recruitment Program of Global Experts (also known as the Thousand Talents Program). The objective of the program is to reverse the brain drain and improve the PRC's science and engineering capabilities. The program is implemented through six components that target particular categories of highly skilled professionals, mostly established researchers, but also younger experts and entrepreneurs (Figure 4.3). The individual secures a position at an employer and can be covered under the program if eligible. In fact, the process usually takes place simultaneously: individuals are recruited by employers with the understanding that they would qualify and be supported by the program.

Figure 4.3: Structure of Recruitment Program of Global Experts



Source: Recruitment Program of Global Experts. 2015. www.1000plan.org/en/

The six subprograms and their requirements and benefits are as follows:[29]

Recruitment Program for Innovative Talents (Long Term): The program is designed to attract overseas Chinese professionals (notably scientists) to return to the PRC to work on a full-time basis. The applicant is expected to hold a doctorate obtained abroad and to have worked as a professor or researcher overseas. Applicants may also include those who hold a senior position at an international company or financial institution. Successful recipients are designated as "National Distinguished Experts." They are to provide research leadership, including directing major research projects. They may also work in a commercial or financial company.

Recipients who retained their Chinese citizenship can return without requiring institutional support for obtaining a visa or a residence permit. Recipients are allowed to locate in the city of their employment (and need not return to their area of origin) and therefore are not constrained by the *hukuo* system of household registration. A recipient who obtained foreign citizenship or has a spouse or children who are foreign citizens can apply for permanent residence or obtain a visa of 2–5 years with multiple entries.

The expert is also provided with a lump sum grant of 1 million yuan (CNY), or about $160,000. The recipient and his or her family are provided with assistance to obtain social insurance, medical insurance, and work-related injury insurance. Housing and meal allowances, a home-leave subsidy, and children's education allowances are provided and deducted for income before taxes in accordance with relevant laws and regulations. Employers (mostly universities) are to offer job opportunities to spouses and guarantee school admission for children.

Innovative Talents Recruitment Program (Short Term): The short-term program is similar to the long-term program (described above) in terms of qualifications and many of the benefits. However, the work commitment in the PRC is shorter. The expert signs a contract with an employer in the PRC covering a period of 3 years or more during which he or she must work at least 2 months each year in the PRC. The lump sum grant is half of that of the long-term program (CNY500,000). The purpose of this program is to at least generate some benefit from Chinese experts abroad even if they cannot return full time. Many such experts will be tenured professors or otherwise have secure, well-paying positions at research institutes that they would be reluctant to forego. Under this program, they can work in the PRC during their nonteaching months.

Recruitment Program for Young Professionals: This program is similar to the two above but specifically targets young researchers. The recipient must be below the age of 40—for the two programs above there is only an upper age limit, set at 55. The recipient must possess a PhD from a prestigious overseas university and have 3 years of teaching, research, or work experience at a foreign university, institution, or enterprise. Young experts with a doctorate from a Chinese university and 5 years of overseas teaching or research experience are also eligible. In exceptional cases, recent PhD graduates of foreign universities can be admitted if they have demonstrated outstanding academic achievement in their studies. The successful applicant receives a lump sum of CNY500,000 and access to research funding of CNY1–3 million upon signing a full-time contract to work in the PRC.

[29] Unless otherwise indicated, the information about these programs is from Recruitment Program of Global Experts (2015).

Recruitment Program for Foreign Experts: The PRC has also implemented programs to attract prominent non-Chinese researchers to contribute to its science and technology capabilities. In other aspects, the program is similar to the long-term program for Chinese noted above. Recipients must be under the age of 65 and hold a doctorate from overseas. They are required to work in the PRC for a minimum of 9 months each year for 3 consecutive years. Along with targeting professors, researchers, and senior company officials, the program can include (i) a technical professional holding a senior position in a well-known cultural institution, news publisher, sports organization, or health organization; (ii) an entrepreneur with rights to intellectual property or key technologies with knowledge of an industry and international rules; or (iii) a professional with entrepreneurial or innovation expertise needed by the PRC. The lump sum grant is CNY1 million and there is an opportunity to apply for research funding of CNY3–5 million. There is also support for pensions and health insurance, housing, meals, subsidized education for children, and an allowance for home leave.

Recruitment Program for Entrepreneurs: Although the PRC has focused the majority of its efforts on professors and research scholars with PhDs in science and engineering, it is also trying to attract entrepreneurs. To be eligible, the individual should have a degree from a foreign country and have either set up a business in a country outside of the PRC or worked as a mid-level or senior manager at a known international firm for 3 years or more. The program is also open to those who started a business in the previous 5 years and own technology or patents that are needed in the PRC. The recipients are offered benefits similar to those of the Recruitment Program for Innovative Talents (Long Term), noted above.

Recruitment Program for Topnotch Talents and Teams: This program is for exceptional talents such as winners of prestigious international prizes including the Nobel Prize, the A.M. Turing Award, the Fields Medal, and others. It is also open to world-famous scholars at top universities and research institutes in Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States, and other experts who are urgently needed to support innovation and science in the PRC.

Liberalized Visa and Residence Requirements for Foreigners

The incentives provided under the Recruitment Program of Global Experts have been supported by the liberalization of visa and residence procedures. The Circular on Issues of Facilitating Visa and Residence Permits for Highly Qualified Foreigners' Entry into China (No. 57) was issued by the central government in 2012. Its chief feature is the creation of a multiple-entry, short-stay visa for expert foreigners that can be issued for 5 years. Each stay is limited to 180 days. Highly qualified talent interested in working for longer periods, including those with full-time jobs in the PRC, can apply for a work visa or residence permit of 2–5 years without the 180-day annual limit. There are also provisions for talented foreigners to obtain permanent residence.

In contrast, visas for foreign workers who are not deemed experts have not been liberalized. These workers are governed by the "Administration of Foreigners Working in China Provisions," which were designed in 1996 through collaboration among several ministries (Government of the PRC 2005). General requirements on workers are not particularly prohibitive—conditionality relates to age, work experience, and personal history and is broadly in line with that of other countries. However, the provisions are designed to satisfy short-term disequilibria in the labor market as opposed to facilitating long-term immigration and high-level talent. As stipulated under Article 6 of the provisions, "The position for which a foreigner is hired by the employing unit shall be a position for which there are special requirements, for which there is a temporary shortage of suitable candidates inside [the PRC] and which does not violate relevant state regulations." The reference to temporary shortages is in keeping with the reality of migration for these types of workers; in Shanghai and Beijing, for example, most foreign workers hold 1-year work visas (Government of Beijing 2015, Government of Shanghai 2015).

Foreigners wishing to work in the PRC must obtain an employment permit. The prospective employer applies for the permit by submitting an application to the labor administration authority governing its industry (Government of the PRC 2005). The application explains why the employer wants to hire a foreign worker and provides details of the business as well as the qualifications of the prospective employee. The labor administration authority assesses the application, and sends a notification directly to the foreign individual. The worker then proceeds to a Chinese consulate or embassy to officially apply for the visa, with the process confirmed upon arrival in the PRC. This procedure applies to most workers, with exceptions relating to employees at foreign companies in the PRC and the experts discussed above.

Effectiveness of the Recruitment Program of Global Experts

The Recruitment Program of Global Experts achieved its numerical target far ahead of schedule. The program sought to attract 2,000 experts over a 5–10 year period but was able to surpass that figure within the first 5 years. By mid-2014, it had supported a total of 4,180 experts (Wei and Sun 2012, Sharma 2013, Recruitment Program of Global Experts 2015). An assessment of the program in late 2011 suggested that the flow of expert returnees is of "historic proportions" and "may represent the largest influx of high quality talent over such a short period of time in China's history" (cited in Zweig and Wang 2013).

A deeper assessment suggests that the program may not have achieved some of its key objectives. First, the challenge was to attract the best overseas Chinese talent, and while some high-quality talent has been lured back, many of the very best remain abroad. Second, many of the "returnees" have in fact not fully returned but have taken the part-time or short-stay option. Zweig and Wang (2013) tracked some 486 awardees and found that 60% were part-time returnees. The benefit to Chinese science of experts who spend only a few months each year in the PRC is necessarily rather limited. The program would have been much less successful numerically if only full-time experts were accepted. Third, it is hard to assess "additionality"—that is, how many experts returned specifically because of the program and how many of those supported by the program would have returned anyway.

The reasons why the PRC is not able to attract the top experts and more full-time returnees may be less a function of the program itself and more related to the nature of the research environment in the PRC. Certainly the program design has it drawbacks. In particular, returnees are not provided with tenured positions but 5-year contracts. Top experts with tenure at universities in the US or other countries would be giving up considerable hard-earned employment security by moving back. The short-term option provides experts with the best of both worlds: they can retain their tenured positions but also get back in touch with the research community in their native country. But a more serious impediment may be the research environment in the PRC, something the program cannot control. That environment is generally more bureaucratic and based on established personal connections than it is in Western countries. This may affect experts' longer-term view of whether they would have the support and freedom to conduct high-quality research. While returnees were given funds to set up research facilities, they were less sure of gaining access to ongoing research funding.

4.6 Conclusion

Each year the PRC experiences a large outflow of young people to universities abroad. While many return, many others stay to earn PhDs and take teaching and research positions at universities or find employment in institutes or private companies. At the same time, the PRC is at a critical juncture in the development of its economy. It is hoping to move from a model based on mass production and low to intermediate links in global value chains to higher-value production. To improve science, innovation, and entrepreneurship, the government is encouraging a reverse flow of Chinese nationals to attract back top experts and businesspeople. Its immigration policy is therefore strongly focused on Chinese nationals and overseas Chinese. In recent years, it has also sought to encourage non-Chinese immigration, but again has focused very much on top experts.

The government has marshaled resources and created institutions to meet these objectives. The Recruitment Program of Global Experts is an important program in this regard. The program is also designed to encourage non-Chinese experts to work in the PRC and has been supported by liberalized measures on visas and residency. Other institutional mechanisms include the creation of pioneer parks to incubate new returnee businesses; and efforts of embassies, consulates, and other government branches operating abroad to encourage graduates to return. These combined instruments stand in contrast to the mechanisms to support the immigration of nonexpert, non-Chinese workers. Those mechanisms are less developed and focus on allowing foreigners to fill short-term labor deficits.

Many graduating students are returning to the PRC, but this may not be due to the specific programs of the government. It is more likely a legacy of the large number of students who went abroad in past years and their own intention to return. The extent to which the PRC's really top overseas talent is returning—and returning on a full-time basis—remains in question and attracting the top talent may require the creation of a more conducive domestic research environment.

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ANNEX 1

ECONOMY-SPECIFIC NOTES

BANGLADESH

KEY INDICATORS

	Population (Millions)	GDP per capita (Constant 2005 $)	GDP growth rate (Annual, %)	Labor market indicators (Percentages)	
2000	132.4	350	5.9	Employment / population ratio (15+), 2013	67.8
2013	156.6		6.0	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2013	4.3

Immigration in Bangladesh

	Stock of foreign-born population (0+)			Foreign-born population, 15 years old and over			
	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)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
	0.9	0.7	1.0	1.6				
Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**

Emigration from Bangladesh to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Bangladesh living in OECD countries	2000			2010/11		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	161.9	123.6	285.5	306.3	226.6	532.9
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	33.0	24.4	57.4	75.1	50.6	125.7
15–24 (% of population 15+)	17.2	23.1	19.7	12.9	14.7	13.7
25–64 (% of population 15+)	78.2	73.3	76.1	82.8	80.1	81.6
Total emigration rate (%)	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.5
Emigration rate for the high-educated (%)	2.7	2.0	2.4	3.6	3.6	3.6

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total	**42.8**	**34.7**	**40.9**	**51.0**	**49.5**	**49.7**	**41.8**	**43.4**
United States	14.6	12.1	11.8	16.7	14.8	16.7	14.7	12.1
Italy	5.6	5.2	9.3	8.9	9.7	10.3	10.1	10.9
Canada	3.8	2.7	2.7	1.9	4.4	2.5	2.5	3.6
Australia	1.7	2.4	2.8	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.9
United Kingdom	10.0	6.0	6.0	13.0	9.0	9.0	2.0	3.0

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total		**11.5**	**11.4**	**12.0**	**13.8**	**15.3**	**16.6**	**16.8**	**17.9**
United Kingdom	Nonresident students	2.2	2.7	2.8	3.5	4.1	4.1	3.8	4.2
United States	Nonresident students	2.7	2.5	2.3	2.7	2.6	2.8	3.2	3.7
Australia	Nonresident students	3.1	2.9	2.4	2.4	2.7	3.0	3.3	3.6

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total						**4,046.2**		
Saudi Arabia				1,000.0		1,315.6		
United Arab Emirates				500.0		1,176.5		
Malaysia					307.4	453.8		
Oman						226.7		
Kuwait						214.9		

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Total	**820.5**	**865.5**	**467.2**	**381.1**	**558.4**	**596.6**	**402.3**	
United Arab Emirates	226.4	419.4	258.3	203.3	282.7	215.5	14.2	24.2
Oman	17.5	52.9	41.7	42.6	135.3	170.3	134.0	105.7
Singapore	38.3	56.6	39.6	39.1	48.7	58.7	60.1	54.8
Qatar	15.1	25.5	11.7	12.1	13.1	28.8	57.6	87.6
Bahrain	16.4	13.2	28.4	21.8	14.0	21.8	25.2	23.4

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20	2020–25
	–0.435	–1.643	–1.199	–2.904	–4.854	–2.62	–1.94	–1.842
Remittance inflows (current $ million)	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014e**
	6,562	8,941	10,521	10,850	12,071	14,120	13,857	14,969

CAMBODIA

KEY INDICATORS

	Population (Millions)	GDP per capita (Constant 2005 $)	GDP growth rate (Annual, %)	Labor market indicators (Percentages)	
2000	12.2	330	8.8	Employment / population ratio (15+), 2013	82.3
2013	15.1	711	7.4	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2013	0.3

Immigration in Cambodia

	Stock of foreign-born population (0+)			Foreign-born population, 15 years old and over			
	Total ('000s)	% of population	% women	% 15–24	% 25–64	% low-educated	% high-educated
2000							
2010							

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	2012

Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012

Emigration from Cambodia to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Cambodia living in OECD countries	2000			2010/11		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)			239.1	127.3	150.0	277.3
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)			15.2	6.4	11.9	18.4
15–24 (% of population 15+)			11.8	5.2	5.3	5.3
25–64 (% of population 15+)			81.1	84.2	82.7	83.3
Total emigration rate (%)			3.2	2.6	2.9	2.8
Emigration rate for the high-educated (%)			52.7	13.0	17.5	14.7

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total	**9.9**	**8.6**	**9.2**	**8.8**	**9.2**	**11.6**	**14.4**	**15.7**
Republic of Korea	2.2	1.9	3.4	2.6	3.7	6.4	9.5	10.5
United States	5.8	4.2	3.7	3.8	3.0	2.7	2.5	2.6
Japan	0.7	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.3
Australia	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8
France	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total									**2.3**
Australia	Nonresident students								0.6
France	Nonresident students								0.4
United States	Nonresident students								0.4

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total								
Saudi Arabia								
United Arab Emirates								
Malaysia								
Oman								
Kuwait								

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total								
United Arab Emirates								
Oman								
Singapore								
Qatar								
Bahrain								

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–00	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20	2020–25

Remittance inflows (current $ million)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014e
	186	188	142	153	160	256	176	304

CHINA, PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF

KEY INDICATORS

	Population (Millions)	GDP per capita (Constant 2005 $)	GDP growth rate (Annual, %)	Labor market indicators (Percentages)	
2000	1,262.6	1,122	8.4	Employment / population ratio (15+), 2013	68.0
2013	1,357.4	3,619	7.7	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2013	4.6

Immigration in the PRC

	Stock of foreign-born population (0+)			Foreign-born population, 15 years old and over			
	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, 2012	**Total**
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	246.4
% of total employment	

Stock of international students ('000s)	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**
	141.1		195.5	223.5	238.2	265.1	292.6	328.3
Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	

Emigration from the PRC to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in the PRC living in OECD countries	**2000**			**2010/11**		
	Men	**Women**	**Total**	**Men**	**Women**	**Total**
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	976.3	1,089.8	2,066.1	1,650.1	1,981.8	3,631.9
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	217.0	250.7	467.7	352.3	439.2	791.5
15–24 (% of population 15+)	12.3	11.4	11.8	18.8	18.1	18.4
25–64 (% of population 15+)	73.1	73.4	73.3	68.7	69.7	69.3
Total emigration rate (%)	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3
Emigration rate for the high-educated (%)	1.5	2.3	1.8	1.4	2.2	1.7

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)		**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**
Total		**505.4**	**519.9**	**533.2**	**462.9**	**511.1**	**531.1**	**505.8**	**558.3**
Republic of Korea		161.2	177.0	161.7	117.6	155.3	149.2	127.3	184.8
Japan		112.5	125.3	134.2	121.2	107.9	100.4	107.0	93.0
United States		87.3	76.7	80.3	64.2	70.9	87.0	81.8	71.8
United Kingdom		23.0	21.0	18.0	22.0	28.0	45.0	41.0	46.0
Canada		33.1	27.0	29.3	29.0	30.2	28.7	33.0	33.9
Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**
Total		**374.1**	**379.7**	**409.2**	**451.9**	**500.5**	**580.5**	**624.8**	**643.2**
United States	Nonresident students	93.7	99.0	110.2	124.2	126.5	178.9	210.5	225.5
Japan	Noncitizen students	86.4	80.2	77.9	79.4	86.6	94.4	96.6	89.8
Australia	Nonresident students	42.0	50.4	57.6	70.4	87.6	90.2	87.5	88.0

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**
Total	**641.0**	**743.0**	**774.0**	**778.0**	**847.0**	**812.0**	**850.0**	**853.0**
Singapore	83.0	100.0						
Algeria	35.0			35.0				
Macau, China	33.0							
Russian Federation	25.0							
Hong Kong, China	21.0							
Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**
Total	**372.0**	**427.0**	**395.0**	**411.0**	**452.0**	**512.0**	**527.0**	**562.0**

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–00	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20	2020–25
	−0.042	−0.137	−0.096	−0.354	−0.281	−0.217	−0.212	−0.208
Remittance inflows (current $ million)	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014e**
	38,395	47,743	41,600	52,460	61,576	57,987	59,491	64,140

INDIA

KEY INDICATORS

	Population (Millions)	GDP per capita (Constant 2005 $)	GDP growth rate (Annual, %)	Labor market indicators (Percentages)	
2000	1,042.3	577	4.0	Employment / population ratio (15+), 2013	52.2
2013	1,252.1	1,165	5.0	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2013	3.6

Immigration in India

	Stock of foreign-born population (0+)			Foreign-born population, 15 years old and over			
	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

Stock of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
	1.3	12.4					27.5	31.5
Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**

Emigration from India to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in India living in OECD countries	2000			2010/11		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	1,027.6	943.0	1,970.6	1,914.3	1,700.5	3,614.8
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	264.2	226.6	490.8	487.6	399.0	886.5
15–24 (% of population 15+)	10.2	11.0	10.6	10.4	9.2	9.8
25–64 (% of population 15+)	80.0	77.7	78.9	78.6	78.7	78.7
Total emigration rate (%)	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Emigration rate for the high-educated (%)	2.9	3.8	3.2	3.1	4.1	3.5

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total	**205.9**	**213.9**	**219.7**	**232.6**	**256.1**	**244.7**	**228.3**	**239.3**
United States	61.4	65.4	63.4	57.3	69.2	69.0	66.4	68.5
Australia	15.2	19.8	22.7	25.3	23.5	21.9	27.9	38.2
Canada	30.8	26.1	24.5	26.1	30.3	25.0	28.9	30.6
United Kingdom	57.0	55.0	48.0	64.0	68.0	61.0	36.0	30.0
Germany	8.9	9.4	11.4	12.0	13.2	15.4	18.1	19.5

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	
Total		**131.6**	**145.1**	**162.7**	**181.1**	**186.3**	**181.6**	**168.3**	**163.2**
United States	Nonresident students	79.2	85.7	94.7	101.6	104.0	101.9	97.1	92.6
United Kingdom	Nonresident students	19.2	23.8	25.9	34.1	38.2	38.7	29.7	22.2
Australia	Nonresident students	22.4	24.5	26.5	26.6	20.4	14.1	11.7	16.2

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
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)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Total	**809.5**	**848.6**	**610.3**	**641.4**	**626.6**	**747.0**		
Saudi Arabia	195.4	228.4	281.1	275.2	289.3	357.5	354.2	329.9
United Arab Emirates	312.7	349.8	130.3	130.9	138.9	141.1	202.0	224.0
Kuwait	48.5	35.6	42.1	37.7	45.1	55.9	70.1	80.4
Qatar	88.5	82.9	46.3	45.8	41.7	63.1	78.4	75.9
Oman	95.5	89.7	75.0	105.8	73.8	84.4	63.4	51.3

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–00	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20	2020–25
	0.01	−0.028	−0.089	−0.355	−0.511	−0.369	−0.293	−0.18
Remittance inflows (current $ million)	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014e**
	37,217	49,977	49,204	53,480	62,499	68,821	69,970	70,389

INDONESIA

KEY INDICATORS

	Population (Millions)	GDP per capita (Constant 2005 $)	GDP growth rate (Annual, %)	Labor market indicators (Percentages)	
2000	208.9	1,086	4.9	Employment / population ratio (15+), 2013	63.5
2013	249.9	1,810	5.8	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2013	6.3

Immigration in Indonesia

	Stock of foreign-born population (0+)			Foreign-born population, 15 years old and over				
	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, and personal services			
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	102.3	26.6	12.4	21.0		12.4		
% of total employment								
Stock of international students ('000s)	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**
	2.0	4.7	5.3	5.3		6.4		7.2
Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**

Emigration from Indonesia to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Indonesia living in OECD countries	2000			2010/11				
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total		
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	162.3	177.3	339.6	158.6	196.5	355.0		
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	22.0	26.4	48.4	16.6	26.0	42.6		
15–24 (% of population 15+)	13.7	11.3	12.4	13.0	8.7	10.6		
25–64 (% of population 15+)	65.4	61.8	63.5	64.3	68.7	66.8		
Total emigration rate (%)	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2		
Emigration rate for the high-educated (%)	3.2	4.2	3.6	2.3	2.9	2.6		
Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**
Total	**30.7**	**26.8**	**31.8**	**22.6**	**24.9**	**28.8**	**30.5**	**33.1**
Republic of Korea	6.9	5.2	9.7	3.3	5.3	8.1	8.3	11.8
Japan	11.4	10.1	10.1	7.5	8.3	8.4	9.3	9.6
Germany	1.4	1.3	1.6	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.8
United States	4.9	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.0	2.9	2.6	2.7
Australia	3.3	3.2	3.2	2.9	2.4	2.9	2.5	2.5
Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**
Total	**23.3**	**24.1**	**24.4**	**24.5**	**24.6**	**24.5**	**25.4**	**27.5**
Australia — Nonresident students	9.1	10.5	10.2	10.2	10.1	9.7	9.4	9.5
United States — Nonresident students	7.8	7.5	7.7	7.4	6.9	6.8	6.9	7.3
Japan — Noncitizen students	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.2

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
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)	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**
Total	**690.4**	**636.2**	**629.6**	**567.1**	**594.2**	**459.9**	**468.7**	**429.9**
Malaysia	222.2	187.1	123.9	116.1	134.1	134.0	150.2	127.8
Taipei,China	50.8	59.5	59.3	62.0	78.9	81.1	83.5	82.7
Singapore	37.5	21.8	33.1	39.6	47.8	41.6	34.7	31.7
Hong Kong, China	30.0	30.2	32.4	33.3	50.3	45.5	41.8	35.1
Saudi Arabia	257.2	234.6	276.6	228.9	137.6	40.7	45.4	44.3
Net migration rate (per thousand)	**1985–90**	**1990–95**	**1995–00**	**2000–05**	**2005–10**	**2010–15**	**2015–20**	**2020–25**
	−0.25	−0.37	−0.20	−0.49	−0.64	−0.56	−0.53	−0.51
Remittance inflows (current $ million)	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014e**
	6,174	6,794	6,793	6,916	6,924	7,212	7,614	8,551

LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

KEY INDICATORS

	Population (Millions)	GDP per capita (Constant 2005 $)	GDP growth rate (Annual, %)	Labor market indicators (Percentages)	
2000	5.4	375	5.8	Employment / population ratio (15+), 2013	76.6
2013	6.8	751	8.1	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2013	1.4

Immigration in the Lao PDR

	Stock of foreign-born population (0+)			Foreign-born population, 15 years old and over			
	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	0.30	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	2012
	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.6

Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
							6.9	

Emigration from the Lao PDR to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in the Lao PDR living in OECD countries	2000			2010/11		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	132.8	131.4	264.1	127.9	134.8	262.7
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	4.4	5.8	10.2	2.4	4.9	7.3
15–24 (% of population 15+)	13.8	13.7	13.8	2.9	3.5	3.2
25–64 (% of population 15+)	81.2	79.0	80.1	88.0	86.4	87.2
Total emigration rate (%)	8.3	8.1	8.2	6.0	6.2	6.1
Emigration rate for the high-educated (%)	23.8	29.2	25.9	13.8	16.6	15.0

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total	**4.1**	**3.9**	**3.5**	**3.0**	**2.5**	**2.5**	**2.5**	**2.5**
United States	2.9	2.6	2.2	1.7	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.9
Japan	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9
Republic of Korea	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3
France	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Australia	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total		**0.62**	**0.68**	**0.72**	**0.69**	**0.75**	**0.73**	**0.73**	**0.72**
Japan	Noncitizen students	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.25	0.26	0.28	0.27	0.25
Australia	Nonresident students	0.11	0.13	0.16	0.16	0.17	0.16	0.17	0.18
France	Noncitizen students	0.15	0.14	0.13	0.10	0.12	0.10	0.11	0.11

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total								

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total						**8.4**	**8.1**	**13.6**
Thailand						8.4	8.1	13.6

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–00	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20	2020–25
	0.01	–1.98	–5.12	–6.17	–2.46	–2.24	–2.05	–1.89

Remittance inflows (current $ million)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014e
	6	18	38	42	110	59	60	60

MALAYSIA

KEY INDICATORS

	Population (Millions)	GDP per capita (Constant 2005 $)	GDP growth rate (Annual, %)	Labor market indicators (Percentages)	
2000	23.4	4,862	8.9	Employment / population ratio (15+), 2013	57.5
2013	29.7	6,990	4.7	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2013	3.2

Immigration in Malaysia

	Stock of foreign-born population (0+)			Foreign-born population, 15 years old and over				
	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, 2013	**Total**	Agriculture and fishing		Manuf.	Construction	Services	Domestic worker	
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	2,250.4	625.1		751.8	434.2	269.4	169.9	
% of total employment								
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			2010/11				
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total		
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	98.6	115.7	214.3	131.9	161.3	293.2		
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	16.9	18.8	35.7	28.0	32.9	60.9		
15–24 (% of population 15+)	23.9	19.0	21.2	18.6	14.8	16.5		
25–64 (% of population 15+)	71.2	75.3	73.5	72.8	76.4	74.8		
Total emigration rate (%)	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.4		
Emigration rate for the high-educated (%)	5.7	6.7	6.2	5.1	5.3	5.2		
Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**
Total	**12.7**	**21.1**	**25.0**	**20.8**	**22.5**	**17.8**	**20.8**	**23.3**
United Kingdom	0.0	8.0	11.0	7.0	9.0	4.0	6.0	9.0
Australia	4.8	4.8	5.1	5.4	4.9	5.0	5.4	5.6
United States	2.3	2.1	1.9	2.0	1.7	2.3	2.6	2.5
Japan	2.0	2.3	2.6	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.5	2.1
Republic of Korea	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.0
Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**
Total	**38.2**	**37.9**	**40.8**	**43.3**	**46.6**	**46.7**	**46.1**	**45.4**
Australia — Nonresident students	15.6	15.4	17.7	18.6	20.0	19.6	18.3	17.0
United Kingdom — Nonresident students	11.5	11.4	11.8	11.7	12.7	12.5	12.2	12.8
United States — Nonresident students	6.4	5.7	5.4	5.4	5.8	6.1	6.6	6.5

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**
Total								
Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**
Total								
Net migration rate (per thousand)	**1985–90**	**1990–95**	**1995–00**	**2000–05**	**2005–10**	**2010–15**	**2015–20**	**2020–25**
	5.13	3.07	3.60	3.99	4.79	3.06	1.58	1.48
Remittance inflows (current $ million)	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014e**
	1,556	1,329	1,131	1,103	1,211	1,320	1,396	1,565

MONGOLIA

KEY INDICATORS

	Population (Millions)	GDP per capita (Constant 2005 $)	GDP growth rate (Annual, %)	Labor market indicators (Percentages)	
2000	24.0	769	1.1	Employment / population ratio (15+), 2013	59.8
2013	28.6	1,777	11.6	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2013	4.9

Immigration in Mongolia

	Stock of foreign-born population (0+)			Foreign-born population, 15 years old and over			
	Total ('000s)	% of population	% women	% 15–24	% 25–64	% low-educated	% high-educated
2000							
2010							

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2011	Total	Agriculture and fishing	Manuf.	Construction	Services
Number of foreign workers ('000s)					
% of total employment					

Stock of international students ('000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012

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

Emigration from Mongolia to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Mongolia living in OECD countries	2000			2010/11		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)						
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)						
15–24 (% of population 15+)						
25–64 (% of population 15+)						
Total emigration rate (%)						
Emigration rate for the high-educated (%)						

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total	**15.1**	**15.4**	**15.5**	**9.3**	**9.9**	**8.8**	**10.4**	**9.0**
Republic of Korea	9.6	8.6	8.1	5.3	5.4	4.3	5.7	4.4
Japan	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.5
United States	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.7
Germany	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6
Sweden	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.4

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total									**6.6**
Republic of Korea	Nonresident students								2.5
United States	Nonresident students								1.3
Japan	Nonresident students								1.1

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total								

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total								

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–00	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20	2020–25

Remittance inflows (current $ million)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014e
	178	225	200	266	279	320	256	265

NEPAL

KEY INDICATORS

	Population (Millions)	GDP per capita (Constant 2005 $)	GDP growth rate (Annual, %)	Labor market indicators (Percentages)	
2000	23.7	290	6.2	Employment / population ratio (15+), 2011	81.1
2013	27.8	408	3.8	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2011	2.7

Immigration in Nepal

	Stock of foreign-born population (0+)			Foreign-born population, 15 years old and over			
	Total ('000s)	% of population	% women	% 15–24	% 25–64	% low-educated	% high-educated
2000							
2010							

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2011	Total	Agriculture and fishing	Manuf.	Construction	Services
Number of foreign workers ('000s)					
% of total employment					

Stock of international students ('000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013

Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013

Emigration from Nepal to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Nepal living in OECD countries	2000			2010/11		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)			23.9	86.0	66.6	152.5
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)			8.7	45.8	35.9	81.6
15–24 (% of population 15+)			24.0	25.4	26.6	25.9
25–64 (% of population 15+)			75.0	72.9	72.1	72.5
Total emigration rate (%)			0.2	1.0	0.8	0.9
Emigration rate of the high-educated (%)			2.2	7.5	11.9	8.8

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total	**14.3**	**17.3**	**18.9**	**23.5**	**25.0**	**30.2**	**33.4**	**37.6**
United States	3.7	3.5	4.1	4.5	7.1	10.2	11.3	13.0
Japan	1.6	2.2	3.6	3.6	2.9	3.5	4.8	8.3
Republic of Korea	1.1	0.8	2.4	2.6	2.7	4.3	6.9	6.0
Australia	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.3	2.1	2.5	4.1
Canada	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.3

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total									**23.9**
United States	Nonresident students								8.5
Australia	Nonresident students								7.2
Japan	Nonresident students								2.4

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total								

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total			**219.965**	**294.1**	**354.7**	**384.7**	**450.8**	**521.9**
Malaysia			29.2	111.4	106.0	96.3	157.2	206.7
Qatar			54.7	25.6	35.9	44.9	85.8	103.9
Saudi Arabia			45.0	59.5	62.5	68.1	86.1	75.0
United Arab Emirates			24.1	17.8	24.0	34.5	51.4	42.5
Kuwait			0.4	2.3	8.0	9.2	7.9	9.0

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–00	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20	2020–25

Remittance inflows (current $ million)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014e
	1,734	2,727	2,985	3,469	4,217	4,793	5,552	5,875

PAKISTAN

KEY INDICATORS

	Population (Millions)	GDP per capita (Constant 2005 $)	GDP growth rate (Annual, %)	Labor market indicators (Percentages)	
2000	143.8	597	4.3	Employment / population ratio (15+), 2013	51.6
2013	182.1	806	6.1	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2013	5.1

Immigration in Pakistan

	Stock of foreign-born population (0+)			Foreign-born population, 15 years old and over			
	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			2010/11		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	375.0	293.7	668.7	669.6	514.4	1183.9
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	79.8	60.4	140.2	147.6	105.4	253.0
15–24 (% of population 15+)	13.9	15.4	14.5	14.3	13.7	14.0
25–64 (% of population 15+)	80.3	78.2	79.3	79.5	79.0	79.3
Total emigration rate (%)	0.9	0.7	0.8	1.1	0.9	1.0
Emigration rate for the high-educated (%)	3.1	3.6	3.3	6.1	7.0	6.5

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total	**84.1**	**74.7**	**76.3**	**76.9**	**99.9**	**105.9**	**85.6**	**75.2**
United States	17.4	13.5	19.7	21.6	18.3	15.5	14.7	13.3
Canada	12.3	9.5	8.1	6.2	5.0	6.1	9.9	11.4
United Kingdom	31.0	27.0	17.0	17.0	30.0	43.0	19.0	10.0
Spain	8.2	10.6	13.4	10.6	21.7	16.9	12.0	9.9
Germany	2.0	1.7	2.2	2.8	3.3	5.4	6.5	8.0

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total		**17.4**	**18.9**	**20.6**	**23.2**	**25.8**	**27.3**	**28.1**	**26.5**
United Kingdom	Nonresident students	6.5	7.9	9.3	9.3	9.6	9.8	10.1	8.8
United States	Nonresident students	6.6	6.0	5.5	5.4	5.2	5.2	4.9	4.5
Australia	Nonresident students	1.3	1.5	2.1	2.5	2.8	3.1	3.1	3.8

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)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Total	**282.2**	**424.8**	**396.3**	**358.2**	**453.4**	**634.7**	**620.1**	
United Arab Emirates	139.4	221.8	140.9	113.3	156.4	182.6	273.2	350.5
Saudi Arabia	84.6	138.3	201.8	189.9	222.3	358.6	270.5	312.5
Oman	32.5	37.4	34.1	37.9	53.5	69.4	47.8	39.8
Qatar	5.0	10.2	4.1	3.0	5.1	7.3	8.1	10.0
Bahrain	2.6	5.9	7.1	5.9	10.6	10.5	9.6	9.2

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–00	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20	2020–25
	0.27	−2.36	−0.28	−2.33	−2.23	−1.81	−1.15	−0.75

Remittance inflows (current $ million)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014e
	5,998	7,039	8,717	9,690	12,263	14,006	14,626	17,060

PHILIPPINES

KEY INDICATORS

	Population (Millions)	GDP per capita (Constant 2005 $)	GDP growth rate (Annual, %)	Labor market indicators (Percentages)	
2000	77.7	1,061	4.4	Employment / population ratio (15+), 2013	60.6
2013	98.4	1,581	7.2	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2013	7.1

Immigration in the Philippines

	Stock of foreign-born population (0+)			Foreign-born population, 15 years old and over			
	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	

Stock 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	2013
	11.6	12.7	11.8	11.3	13.1	15.7	20.91	14.48

Emigration from the Philippines to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in the Philippines living in OECD countries	2000			2010/11		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	745.8	1,192.1	1,938.0	1,141.4	1,872.3	3,013.7
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	107.5	168.8	276.4	170.4	275.4	445.8
15–24 (% of population 15+)	13.9	9.6	11.3	12.6	8.0	9.7
25–64 (% of population 15+)	75.7	80.5	78.6	75.9	80.0	78.4
Total emigration rate (%)	3.1	4.8	3.9	3.6	5.8	4.8
Emigration rate for the high-educated (%)	5.3	8.1	6.8	6.2	9.6	8.1

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total	**174.1**	**168.9**	**158.9**	**163.8**	**165.2**	**160.1**	**158.4**	**148.2**
United States	74.6	72.6	54.0	60.0	58.2	57.0	57.3	54.4
Canada	17.7	19.1	23.7	27.3	36.6	35.0	32.7	27.3
Japan	28.3	25.3	21.0	15.8	13.3	13.6	15.4	16.4
Republic of Korea	17.9	12.2	9.1	8.9	9.1	9.6	9.9	12.0
Australia	5.4	6.1	7.1	8.9	10.3	10.7	12.8	11.0

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total		**6.7**	**7.1**	**7.1**	**7.8**	**8.8**	**9.8**	**10.3**	**9.7**
United States	Nonresident students	3.7	3.9	3.8	4.2	4.2	3.8	3.5	3.1
Australia	Nonresident students	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.6	2.1	2.4
United Kingdom	Nonresident students	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	1.1	1.8	1.7	1.3

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total	**2,366.0**	**2,476.2**	**2,812.5**	**2,965.3**	**3,198.9**	**3,624.8**	**3,850.9**	**3,238.0**
Saudi Arabia	976.4	1,001.3	1,046.1	1,072.5	1,138.6	1,482.2	1,530.2	1,159.6
United Arab Emirates	231.8	291.4	493.4	541.7	576.0	606.4	658.4	722.6
Qatar	78.0	115.9	189.9	224.0	258.4	290.3	329.4	172.0
Kuwait	103.1	133.4	129.7	136.0	145.2	160.6	180.1	207.1
Hong Kong, China	166.5	121.6	116.1	125.8	140.0	141.2	156.6	176.9

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Total	**716.4**	**870.4**	**991.1**	**1,032.6**	**1,196.2**	**1,307.3**	**1,345.1**	**1,318.2**
Saudi Arabia	238.4	275.9	291.4	293.0	316.7	330.0	382.6	402.8
United Arab Emirates	120.7	193.8	196.8	201.2	235.8	259.6	261.1	246.2
Singapore	49.4	41.7	54.4	70.3	146.6	172.7	173.7	140.2
Hong Kong, China	59.2	78.3	100.1	101.3	129.6	131.7	130.7	114.5
Qatar	56.3	84.3	89.3	87.8	100.5	104.6	94.2	105.7

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–00	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20	2020–25
	−1.03	−2.11	−2.11	−2.76	−2.75	−1.43	−1.13	−0.70

Remittance inflows (current $ million)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014e
	16,285	18,628	19,726	21,369	23,058	24,641	26,700	28,403

SINGAPORE

KEY INDICATORS

	Population (Millions)	GDP per capita (Constant 2005 $)	GDP growth rate (Annual, %)	Labor market indicators (Percentages)	
2000	4.0	24,288	9.0	Employment / population ratio (15+), 2013	65.9
2013	5.4	36,898	3.9	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2013	2.8

Immigration in Singapore

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

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2012	Total	Construction	Domestic workers
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	1,356	369	222.5
% of total employment			

Stock of international students ('000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
					40.4	48.6	47.9	53.0
Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**

Emigration from Singapore to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Singapore living in OECD countries	2000			2010/11		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	48.5	58.1	106.6	60.9	75.8	136.7
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	9.1	10.8	19.9	11.2	13.9	25.1
15–24 (% of population 15+)	19.3	17.0	18.0	18.2	16.2	17.1
25–64 (% of population 15+)	76.2	78.0	77.2	75.2	76.1	75.7
Total emigration rate (%)	3.0	3.6	3.3	2.9	3.4	3.2
Emigration rate of the high-educated (%)	8.6	11.3	9.9	8.3	10.9	9.5

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total		**7.1**	**6.7**	**6.6**	**5.4**	**6.7**	**9.1**	**9.5**	**6.2**
United Kingdom		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.0	4.0	2.0
Australia		3.6	2.5	2.4	2.1	1.9	1.5	1.8	2.0
United States		1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8
Republic of Korea		0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6
Japan		0.4	1.2	1.4	0.7	1.7	0.5	0.4	0.5
Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**
Total		**18.7**	**17.9**	**17.5**	**17.7**	**18.8**	**19.2**	**20.0**	**20.6**
Australia	Nonresident students	10.1	9.6	9.4	9.7	10.4	10.1	9.8	9.4
United Kingdom	Nonresident students	3.6	3.3	3.2	2.9	3.2	3.7	4.4	5.3
United States	Nonresident students	3.9	4.1	3.8	4.0	3.9	4.0	4.2	4.4

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total								
Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**
Total								

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–00	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20	2020–25
	8.37	15.32	13.80	20.71	18.77	14.96	10.28	4.84
Remittance inflows (current $ million)	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014e**
	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

SRI LANKA

KEY INDICATORS

	Population (Millions)	GDP per capita (Constant 2005 $)	GDP growth rate (Annual, %)	Labor market indicators (Percentages)	
2000	19.1	1,052	6.0	Employment / population ratio (15+), 2013	52.6
2013	20.5	2,004	7.3	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2013	4.2

Immigration in Sri Lanka

	Stock of foreign-born population (0+)			Foreign-born population, 15 years old and over			
	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	

Stock of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
			0.3	0.1			0.4	0.4

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			2010/11		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	169.2	147.7	317.0	303.4	275.1	578.5
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	26.7	30.5	57.2	54.8	54.3	109.1
15–24 (% of population 15+)	14.6	15.2	14.9	10.6	10.2	10.4
25–64 (% of population 15+)	79.8	76.8	78.4	82.5	80.7	81.7
Total emigration rate (%)	2.4	2.1	2.3	3.8	3.4	3.6
Emigration rate for the high-educated (%)	27.2	28.7	27.7	8.0	5.6	6.7

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total	**28.3**	**20.8**	**33.5**	**33.4**	**41.4**	**35.9**	**34.4**	**28.4**
Italy	3.7	3.8	6.6	6.3	7.1	6.8	7.1	5.9
Australia	3.3	3.8	4.8	5.3	5.8	4.9	6.1	5.7
Republic of Korea	4.1	2.5	4.8	1.7	4.2	5.9	4.7	5.3
France	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.9	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.5
Canada	4.5	3.9	4.5	4.3	4.2	3.1	3.2	2.2

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total		**8.3**	**9.3**	**11.1**	**12.2**	**13.2**	**13.4**	**13.2**	**12.5**
United Kingdom	Nonresident students	2.4	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.6	3.9	4.0	3.5
Australia	Nonresident students	2.1	2.5	3.6	4.1	4.3	4.2	3.8	3.4
United States	Nonresident students	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.8

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)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Total	**218.5**	**250.5**	**247.1**	**267.5**	**263.0**	**282.4**	**293.1**	
Saudi Arabia	60.5	67.4	77.8	70.8	68.6	98.0	80.8	80.5
Qatar	38.9	39.5	43.9	54.7	52.6	57.5	80.7	84.6
Kuwait	41.0	46.9	42.4	48.1	50.7	44.2	42.7	43.5
United Arab Emirates	39.0	51.2	39.6	42.3	39.3	38.3	48.5	50.2
Jordan	8.4	10.4	9.0	9.4	13.1	10.4	7.1	6.2

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–00	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20	2020–25
	−1.64	−2.88	−4.31	−1.03	−3.77	−2.99	−2.26	−2.20

Remittance inflows (current $ million)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014e
	2,507	2,925	3,337	4,123	5,153	6,000	6,422	7,036

TAIPEI,CHINA

KEY INDICATORS

	Population (Millions)	GDP per capita (Constant 2005 $)	GDP growth rate (Annual, %)	Labor market indicators (Percentages)	
2000	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	Employment / population ratio (15+), 2013	n.a.
2012	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2013	n.a.

Immigration in Taipei,China

	Stock of foreign-born population (0+)			Foreign-born population, 15 years old and over			
	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, 2014	Total	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Others
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	551.6	10.3	316.4	224.9
% of total employment				

Stock of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
		3.9	5.3	6.3	7.8	8.8	10.1	11.6
Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**

Emigration from Taipei,China to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Taipei,China living in OECD countries	2000			2010/11		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	191.6	238.3	429.9	203.6	266.8	470.4
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	42.5	54.0	96.4	42.9	58.9	101.8
15–24 (% of population 15+)	22.4	17.4	19.6	12.1	8.8	10.2
25–64 (% of population 15+)	73.7	78.5	76.4	79.4	83.7	81.8
Total emigration rate (%)	2.2	2.7	2.4	2.2	2.6	2.4
Emigration rate for the high-educated (%)	5.3	7.0	6.0	4.0	4.9	4.4

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total	**19.0**	**20.5**	**22.4**	**24.3**	**20.7**	**18.3**	**17.5**	**18.2**
Japan	4.5	4.9	5.5	5.4	6.6	5.6	6.6	6.6
United States	8.1	9.0	9.1	8.0	6.7	6.2	5.3	5.4
Republic of Korea	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.6	2.0
Canada	2.8	2.8	3.0	2.5	2.8	1.9	1.2	1.1
Australia	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.0

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
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	2012
Total								

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total								

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–00	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20	2020–25
	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Remittance inflows (current $ million)	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014e**
	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

THAILAND

KEY INDICATORS

	Population (Millions)	GDP per capita (Constant 2005 $)	GDP growth rate (Annual, %)	Labor market indicators (Percentages)	
2000	62.3	2,206	4.8	Employment / population ratio (15+), 2013	71.7
2013	67.0	3,438	1.8	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2013	0.7

Immigration in Thailand

	Stock of foreign-born population (0+)			Foreign-born population, 15 years old and over			
	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**	**2012**
	4.3	5.6	8.5	10.9	16.4	19.1	20.2	20.3
Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**

Emigration from Thailand to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Thailand living in OECD countries	2000			2010/11		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	90.8	180.0	270.8	147.9	374.7	522.6
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	15.8	33.9	49.7	22.7	82.9	105.7
15–24 (% of population 15+)	38.7	21.8	27.5	27.6	12.1	16.5
25–64 (% of population 15+)	59.6	76.3	70.7	68.9	84.8	80.3
Total emigration rate (%)	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.6	1.4	1.0
Emigration rate of the high-educated (%)	2.4	3.1	2.8	2.0	3.3	2.7

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**
Total	**51.9**	**48.5**	**47.7**	**47.6**	**50.4**	**53.7**	**58.9**	**57.0**
Republic of Korea	15.8	10.5	8.6	5.8	6.9	10.3	13.8	18.3
Japan	8.7	9.0	10.5	9.9	10.9	13.6	15.4	15.4
United States	11.8	8.8	6.6	10.4	9.4	10.0	9.5	7.6
Germany	4.2	3.6	3.2	3.4	3.3	3.2	3.3	3.2
Australia	2.0	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.5	2.7	3.1

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**
Total		**21.9**	**22.3**	**22.9**	**22.7**	**23.1**	**23.8**	**23.2**	**22.3**
United States	Nonresident students	9.0	9.1	9.1	9.0	8.6	8.5	8.1	7.4
United Kingdom	Nonresident students	3.9	4.2	4.5	4.2	4.7	5.4	5.8	6.1
Australia	Nonresident students	4.9	4.7	4.9	4.6	4.4	4.2	3.7	3.3

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**	**2013**
Total	**108.2**	**121.9**	**122.7**	**110.8**	**106.3**	**109.3**	**98.3**	**78.1**
Taipei,China	62.1	52.2	45.1	35.9	40.9	47.8	39.1	26.6
Singapore	15.1	16.3	14.9	14.0	12.7	11.5	11.9	2.2
United Arab Emirates	3.6	9.9	13.0	9.6	8.3	9.6	7.3	2.2
Malaysia	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.9	3.6	4.3	4.4	1.1
Qatar	7.5	5.8	10.7	10.4	6.1	3.4	2.6	1.3
Net migration rate (per thousand)	**1985–90**	**1990–95**	**1995–00**	**2000–05**	**2005–10**	**2010–15**	**2015–20**	**2020–25**
	1.86	−3.83	1.96	3.45	−2.15	0.30	0.29	0.28
Remittance inflows (current $ million)	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014e**
	1,635	1,898	2,776	3,580	4,554	4,713	5,690	5,655

VIET NAM

KEY INDICATORS

	Population (Millions)	GDP per capita (Constant 2005 $)	GDP growth rate (Annual, %)	Labor market indicators (Percentages)	
2000	77.6	475	6.8	Employment / population ratio (15+), 2013	75.9
2013	89.7	1,029	5.4	Unemployment (% of labor force), 2013	2.0

Immigration in Viet Nam

	Stock of foreign-born population (0+)			Foreign-born population, 15 years old and over			
	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	2012
	2.1		3.2	3.4	4.2	3.3	3.7	4.0
Inflows of foreign workers ('000s)	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**

Emigration from Viet Nam to OECD countries

Stock of persons born in Viet Nam living in OECD countries	2000			2010/11		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	747.4	768.6	1,515.9	922.8	1,016.1	1,938.9
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	63.0	86.1	149.1	55.1	85.1	140.2
15–24 (% of population 15+)	12.5	12.1	12.3	8.3	8.2	8.2
25–64 (% of population 15+)	81.1	79.9	80.5	81.3	80.5	80.9
Total emigration rate (%)	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.9	2.8
Emigration rate of the high-educated (%)	17.1	19.8	18.2	10.1	11.1	10.6

Legal migration flows to OECD (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total	**82.3**	**88.8**	**98.8**	**77.3**	**87.8**	**95.0**	**93.8**	**102.3**
Japan	8.5	9.9	12.5	10.9	11.9	13.9	19.5	31.7
United States	30.7	28.7	31.5	29.2	30.6	34.2	28.3	27.1
Republic of Korea	20.0	21.2	24.0	16.4	22.9	27.9	24.7	22.2
Australia	2.9	3.4	3.0	3.3	3.9	4.8	4.8	5.7
Germany	4.5	4.1	4.0	4.5	4.3	4.2	3.9	4.1

Stock of international students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total		**16.6**	**20.2**	**24.6**	**29.5**	**37.3**	**41.3**	**46.3**	**48.2**
United States	Nonresident students	3.8	4.8	6.2	8.8	12.6	13.0	14.6	15.1
Australia	Nonresident students	2.8	3.1	4.0	5.4	7.6	9.6	10.6	11.1
France	Noncitizen students	3.7	4.7	5.2	5.1	5.8	5.8	6.2	5.6

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total		**500.0**						
Taipei,China		90.0						
Malaysia		75.0			74.8			
Russian Federation		72.0						
Lao People's Democratic Republic		14.5						
Saudi Arabia		11.5						

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Total	**64.0**	**53.1**	**44.2**	**57.5**	**59.8**	**80.0**	**88.1**	**106.0**
Taipei,China	23.6	31.6	21.7	28.5	38.8	14.0	46.4	
Malaysia	26.7	7.8	2.8	11.7	10.0	3.6		
Lao People's Democratic Republic	3.1	3.1	9.1	5.9	4.3			
Saudi Arabia	1.6	3.0	2.5	2.7	3.6			
Macau, China	2.1	3.0	3.3	3.1	2.0			

Net migration rate (per thousand)	1985–90	1990–95	1995–00	2000–05	2005–10	2010–15	2015–20	2020–25
	−1.02	−1.09	−0.82	−1.86	−2.02	−0.44	−0.42	−0.41
Remittance inflows (current $ million)	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014e**
	6,180	6,805	6,020	8,260	8,600	10,000	11,000	12,000

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 2013 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 postsecondary nontertiary education (ISCED 3/4). “High-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 countries is only for degree programmes (undergraduate and upwards) and does not include short-term language courses.
7. Stock of foreign workers 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 IMD. The only exception is in case of countries IND, MYS, LKS, THA) where important individual country data was missing, and so this data was 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 [economy] 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)
Stock of international students	UIS database (except for Taipei,China)
Legal migrant flows	OECD International Migration Database (IMD)
International students from [economy] 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 Attache 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)
China, People's Republic of		
Stock of foreign workers		Country presentation at ADBI–OECD roundtable (Ministry of Human Resources and Social Security)
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
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 Attache of the respective Middle East country)
Flows of workers deployed to non-OECD countries		Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs (MOIA, Annual Report 2012–13)
Indonesia		
Stock of foreign workers	Trade includes wholesale and retail trade, hotels and restaurants	Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration
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	All totals include the category "others"	BNP2TKI
Lao People's Democratic Republic		
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; Department of Skills Development and Employment

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
Pakistan		
Stock of workers in non-OECD countries		Amjad et al. 2012: "Explaining the Ten-fold Increase in Remittances to Pakistan 2001–2012", PIDE/IGC preliminary study
	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.	Ministry of Overseas Pakistanis
Flows of workers deployed		Bureau of Emigration and Overseas Employment
Philippines		
Inflows of foreign workers	Number of alien employment permits issued	Department of Labour and Employment
Stock of workers in non-OECD countries		POEA
Flows of workers deployed to non-OECD countries	Only landbased overseas Filipino workers deployed abroad. 2012 total may include flows to OECD countries and thus be overestimated.	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)
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	2012 figures are provisional	SLBFE; Annual Statistical Report on Labour Employment 2012
Singapore		
Stock of foreign workers	End of December 2012	Yearbook of Manpower Statistics 2013
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
Inflows of foreign workers		Migration Information System in Asia (original source: Office of Foreign Workers' Administration)
Stock of workers in non-OECD countries	Includes 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		Department of Labour, MOLISA; country presentation

ANNEX 2

COMPARATIVE TABLES

Table A2.1: Inflows from Asia to the OECD by Nationality ('000)

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Afghanistan	17	20	15	13	13	16	15	11	13	18	24	29	32	29
Azerbaijan	1	2	5	4	4	4	5	3	3	3	6	4	4	4
Bangladesh	23	24	19	22	30	37	42	34	40	50	50	50	42	40
Bhutan	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	9	14	13	11
Brunei Darussalam	0	0	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	15	16
PRC	282	334	335	322	367	438	503	518	530	460	508	531	507	557
Georgia	1	2	7	7	8	11	10	9	8	8	8	9	10	9
Hong Kong, China	10	12	13	12	10	8	10	8	8	6	9	7	6	7
India	113	151	161	145	192	213	206	213	215	227	253	243	228	240
Indonesia	29	32	33	31	27	35	30	27	31	22	25	29	30	33
Japan	34	38	39	35	36	42	34	32	29	34	32	34	36	32
Kazakhstan	5	4	17	15	12	9	8	7	7	7	8	9	7	8
Korea, Republic of	59	69	62	54	57	66	68	72	79	78	76	71	70	72
Kyrgyz Republic	1	1	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	3	3	3
Lao PDR	2	2	2	1	2	2	4	4	3	3	3	3	2	2
Malaysia	11	14	12	13	16	11	12	20	24	20	22	17	20	23
Maldives	0	0	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	10	9
Myanmar	2	3	3	3	3	5	11	10	10	23	19	24	27	23
Nepal	4	3	5	6	8	9	14	17	19	23	25	30	33	38
Pakistan	54	59	49	47	73	74	83	74	76	77	100	106	86	75
Philippines	165	188	195	192	211	192	173	169	158	164	168	161	159	148
Singapore	6	6	6	5	6	7	7	7	7	5	7	9	10	6
Sri Lanka	23	21	22	24	23	28	28	21	33	33	41	36	34	28
Tajikistan	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Taipei,China	16	21	21	15	20	17	32	33	22	24	20	18	17	18
Thailand	32	35	34	35	36	47	51	48	47	47	50	53	59	57
Turkmenistan	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1
Uzbekistan	8	6	8	11	8	9	11	12	20	13	16	16	19	19
Viet Nam	52	60	64	55	66	78	82	88	98	76	87	95	94	102
Total	**960**	**1,117**	**1,139**	**1,083**	**1,245**	**1,379**	**1,470**	**1,465**	**1,511**	**1,449**	**1,593**	**1,621**	**1,575**	**1,614**

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

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

Table A2.2: General Characteristics of Emigrants from Asia in the OECD, 2010–2011

Country of Origin	Emigrant Population 15+ ('000)	Women (%)	Low Educated (%)	Highly Educated (%)	15–24 (%)	65+ (%)	Recent (<5yrs) (%)
Afghanistan	394	43.3	45.3	23.0	24.6	5.9	19.7
Azerbaijan	86	56.6	22.1	43.6	17.0	11.4	17.9
Bangladesh	533	42.5	37.0	37.9	13.7	4.7	23.3
Bhutan	7	45.9	58.0	18.2	22.6	4.3	67.9
Brunei Darussalam	13	50.6	9.3	52.4	29.6	3.9	31.3
Cambodia	277	54.1	46.2	19.2	5.3	11.4	7.1
China, People's Rep. of	3,632	54.6	27.3	43.8	18.4	12.3	21.3
Georgia	180	58.7	28.2	33.2	11.0	13.1	20.0
Hong Kong, China	296	52.7	12.8	56.8	12.4	8.9	9.2
India	3,615	47.0	17.8	62.7	9.8	11.5	24.3
Indonesia	355	55.3	19.8	44.4	10.6	22.6	12.7
Japan	654	63.3	8.3	55.9	11.1	12.1	23.7
Kazakhstan	1,007	53.3	34.2	16.1	16.4	10.7	2.8
Korea, Republic of	1,773	57.3	13.8	48.0	13.5	13.3	14.2
Kyrgyz Republic	18	65.8	14.6	54.3	19.1	2.7	30.6
Lao PDR	263	51.3	41.2	19.9	3.2	9.6	3.4
Malaysia	293	55.0	12.9	59.4	16.5	8.7	22.1
Maldives	2	38.4	16.8	31.4	13.0	7.2	43.8
Mongolia	23	62.5	16.0	46.3	24.6	1.5	45.8
Myanmar	125	49.9	38.6	35.1	15.0	13.2	36.2
Nepal	153	43.6	21.7	45.8	25.9	1.5	60.7
Pakistan	1,184	43.5	37.4	38.8	14.0	6.7	21.7
Philippines	3,015	62.1	13.2	52.3	9.7	11.8	15.0
Singapore	137	55.4	13.4	55.8	17.1	7.2	19.6
Sri Lanka	579	47.6	31.7	35.3	10.4	7.9	19.0
Tajikistan	13	53.0	13.7	46.7	18.8	7.0	9.7
Taipei,China	470	56.7	6.9	71.5	10.2	7.9	21.4
Thailand	523	71.7	35.3	31.5	16.5	3.3	21.9
Turkmenistan	12	64.3	26.3	38.9	19.9	7.7	36.4
Uzbekistan	149	54.5	16.0	47.0	16.3	10.7	12.4
Viet Nam	1,939	52.4	33.5	28.5	8.2	10.9	8.1
Total	**21,720**	**53.7**	**23.6**	**45.3**	**12.8**	**10.8**	**18.0**

Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Source: OECD Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries (DIOC) 2010–2011.

Table A2.3: Emigration Rates to the OECD by Level of Education, 2000–2001 and 2010–2011

	Total (%)		Highly Educated (%)	
	2010–2011	2000–2001	2010–2011	2000–2001
Afghanistan	2.0	1.1	5.7	3.2
Azerbaijan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Bangladesh	0.5	0.4	3.5	2.6
Bhutan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Brunei Darussalam	4.1	3.7	16.8	15.4
Cambodia	2.7	3.1	14.8	52.7
China, People's Republic of	0.4	0.3	1.9	2.1
Georgia	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Hong Kong, China	4.4	6.6	12.9	16.5
India	0.4	0.3	3.5	3.0
Indonesia	0.2	0.2	2.6	3.6
Japan	0.6	0.5	0.9	0.9
Kazakhstan	8.0	3.8	7.0	4.8
Korea, Republic of	4.2	3.8	4.5	4.4
Kyrgyz Republic	0.4	1.2	1.7	2.2
Lao People's Democratic Republic	6.1	8.0	14.9	25.3
Malaysia	1.5	1.4	5.2	6.3
Maldives	0.6	0.3	10.2	6.9
Mongolia	1.1	0.3	2.9	1.3
Myanmar	0.3	0.2	1.5	1.5
Nepal	0.8	0.2	8.9	2.2
Pakistan	1.0	0.8	6.5	3.3
Philippines	4.8	3.9	8.1	6.8
Singapore	3.4	3.3	9.6	9.9
Sri Lanka	3.4	2.1	6.7	4.1
Tajikistan	0.3	0.5	1.8	2.3
Taipei,China	2.4	2.4	4.4	6.0
Thailand	1.0	0.6	2.7	2.8
Turkmenistan	0.3	n.a.	1.0	n.a.
Uzbekistan	0.7	n.a.	2.1	n.a.
Viet Nam	2.8	2.8	10.6	18.3
Average	**2.1**	**2.0**	**6.2**	**8.0**

n.a. = not available, OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Source: OECD Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries (DIOC) 2000–2001 and 2010–2011.

Table A2.4: Outflows of Workers from Asia, by Destination

	Bangladesh				India				Indonesia				Nepal		Pakistan				Philippines				Sri Lanka				Thailand			
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2011	2012	2013	2014	2011	2012	2013	2014	2011	2012	2011	2012	2013	2014	2011	2012	2013	2014	2011	2012	2013	2014	2011	2012	2013	2014
Gulf Cooperation Council countries																														
UAE	282,739	215,452	14,241	24,232	138,861	141,138	202,016	224,033	39,917	35,571	44,505	17,962	44,464	54,482	156,353	182,630	273,234	350,522	235,775	259,546	261,119	246,231	39,320	38,234	48,502	50,192	9,569	7,312	2,235	1,798
Saudi Arabia	15,039	21,232	12,654	10,657	289,297	357,503	354,169	329,937	137,835	40,655	45,394	44,325	71,116	80,455	222,247	358,560	270,502	312,489	316,736	330,040	382,553	402,837	68,552	97,993	80,887	80,539			17	14
Oman	135,265	170,326	134,028	105,748	73,819	84,384	63,398	51,318	7,306	8,836	10,719	19,141	2,442	3,163	53,525	69,407	47,794	39,793	15,029	16,048	16,577	15,880	5,379	4,889	5,317	5,750			25	40
Kuwait	29	2	6	3,094	45,149	55,868	70,072	80,419	2,723	2,518	2,534	1,714	15,187	24,575	173	5	229	132	65,603	75,286	67,856	70,098	50,635	44,229	42,740	43,528	2,786	1,792	479	305
Bahrain	13,996	21,777	25,155	23,378	14,323	20,150	17,269	14,220	4,379	6,328	5,384	5,472	4,647	5,865	10,641	10,530	9,600	9,226	18,230	22,271	20,546	18,958	5,423	4,533	4,547	3,972		1,100	222	170
Qatar	13,111	28,801	57,584	87,575	41,710	63,096	78,367	75,935	16,616	20,380	16,237	7,862	102,966	105,681	5,121	7,320	8,119	10,042	100,530	104,622	94,195	114,511	52,743	57,478	80,724	84,571	3,366	2,629	1,331	1,113
Other Middle East																														
Jordan	4,387	11,726	21,383	20,338	1,413	1,819	1,462	2,133							178	279	345	328	2,867	3,025	2,223	3,393	13,112	10,387	7,060	6,175			10	1
Lebanon	19,169	14,864	15,098	16,640	534	288	281	313					151	243	30	23	15	57	896	1,227	2,874	3,010	5,153	3,945	3,537	3,057			12	3
Israel													273	574					4,741	4,582	4,385	4,590	1,481	1,768			9,333	5,059	6,008	5,015
Asia, OECD																														
Japan	770	420	41	55					2,508	3,293	3,042	2,428	603	1,144	48	62	44	69	9,285	9,947	10,936	12,815	99	112			9,302	8,596	5,693	95
Rep. of Korea	2,021	1,447	2,121	1,748					11,390	13,593	15,374	11,848	3,728	5,627	12	7	12	46	10,943	8,979	11,664	11,958	7,406	5,629	5,402	6,684	10,964	10,329	7,964	4,482
Asia, non-OECD																														
Singapore	48,667	58,657	60,057	54,750					47,786	41,556	34,655	31,680			62	47	42	76	146,613	172,690	173,666	140,205	1,078	,980	1,265	1,462	11,461	11,864	2,155	865
Malaysia	742	804	3,853	5,134	17,947	21,241	22,388	22,926	134,120	134,023	150,236	127,827	105,906	98,367	2,092	1,309	2,031	20,577	16,797	38,407	34,088	31,451	2,459	2,691	3,297	3,308	4,321	4,441	1,141	963
Taipei,China									78,865	81,071	83,544	82,665							41,896	41,492	41,145	58,681					47,839	39,128	26,592	
Thailand					27	9	15	53	1,113	1,035	1,041	717							6,445	9,204	8,659	6,653	2	2						
Hong Kong, China									50,301	45,478	41,769	35,050			26	17	20	38	129,575	131,680	130,686	105,737	366	449	513	466	2,834	2,533	570	95
Brunei Darussalam	22,593	5,038	5,971	6,633					10,804	13,146	11,269	11,616			79	74	67	48	15,406	14,907	17,000	11,478	12	11	15	12	3,354	2,697	486	317
Indonesia					22	11	38	29											4,793	5,166	5,489	5,007							814	694
India									519										929	759	741	594	85	97			2,619	2,391	544	417
PRC									1,072	1,967	2,055	915			180	220	155	98	9,670	9,969	9,829	6,229	5	6					835	694

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

Source: National sources.

Table A2.5: Migrant Remittance Inflows in Asia, 2004–2014 ($ million)

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014e
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	104	152	331	247	385	385	636
Azerbaijan	57	104	182	171	228	623	790	1,268	1,518	1,255	1,410	1,893	1,990	2,194	1,898
Bangladesh	1,968	2,105	2,858	3,192	3,584	4,315	5,428	6,562	8,941	10,521	10,850	12,071	14,120	13,776	14,969
Bhutan	...	...	...	...	...	...	2	3	4	5	8	10	18	19	14
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	..
Cambodia	121	133	140	138	177	164	184	186	188	142	153	160	256	278	304
PRC	4,822	6,539	10,293	14,542	19,578	23,626	27,565	38,395	47,743	41,600	52,460	61,576	57,987	60,000	64,140
Georgia	209	222	230	236	303	446	627	883	1,065	1,112	1,184	1,547	1,770	2,056	2,065
Hong Kong, China	136	153	121	120	240	297	294	317	355	348	340	352	367	388	373
India	12,883	14,273	15,736	20,999	18,750	22,125	28,334	37,217	49,977	49,204	53,480	62,499	68,821	69,969	70,389
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	7,212	7,614	8,551
Japan	1,374	1,984	1,821	1,078	931	905	1,177	1,384	1,732	1,595	1,684	2,132	2,540	2,651	3,729
Kazakhstan	122	171	205	148	166	62	84	143	126	198	226	180	171	221	209
Korea, Rep. of	4,858	4,832	5,530	6,304	6,570	6,505	6,054	6,599	9,074	7,278	7,058	8,373	8,474	8,765	6,481
Kyrgyz Republic	9	11	37	78	189	313	473	704	1,223	982	1,266	1,709	2,031	2,290	2,246
Lao PDR	1	1	1	1	1	1	4	6	18	38	42	110	59	64	60
Malaysia	342	367	435	571	802	1,117	1,365	1,556	1,329	1,131	1,103	1,211	1,320	1,443	1,565
Maldives	2	2	2	2	3	2	3	8	6	5	3	3	3	3	3
Mongolia	12	25	56	129	203	180	181	178	225	200	266	279	320	343	265
Myanmar	102	116	105	84	117	129	115	81	55	54	115	127	127	127	232
Nepal	111	147	678	771	823	1,212	1,453	1,734	2,727	2,985	3,469	4,217	4,793	5,210	5,875
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	14,006	14,626	17,060
Philippines	6,961	8,769	9,735	10,243	11,471	13,561	15,239	16,285	18,628	19,726	21,369	23,058	24,641	25,351	28,403
Singapore	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	..
Sri Lanka	1,166	1,185	1,309	1,438	1,590	1,976	2,167	2,507	2,925	3,337	4,123	5,153	6,000	6,690	7,036
Tajikistan	...	...	79	146	252	467	1,019	1,691	2,544	1,748	2,306	3,060	3,626	3,960	3,835
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.	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	4,554	4,713	5,555	5,655
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	30
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5,588
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	11,000	12,000
Total	**40,558**	**45,996**	**57,515**	**69,551**	**75,719**	**92,062**	**108,535**	**137,694**	**173,043**	**167,921**	**19,1691**	**222,309**	**235,749**	**244,978**	**263,613**

... = data not available, e = estimate, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, n.a. = not available, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Note: All numbers are in current $.

Source: Bilateral Remittance Matrix. 2014. *Migration and Remittances Data.* World Bank.

Table A2.6: Net Migration Rate (per 1,000 population)

	1980–1985	1985–1990	1990–1995	1995–2000	2000–2005	2005–2010	2010–2015	2015–2020
Afghanistan	–55	–25.1	30.9	–4.2	7.3	–5.2	3.1	–1.2
Azerbaijan	–1.3	–3.4	–2.8	–3.0	0.3	–2.2	–0.3	–0.7
Bangladesh	–1.9	–0.4	–1.5	–1.2	–2.5	–4.8	–2.8	–1.9
Bhutan	0.4	0.6	–32.9	0.1	11.5	4.9	2.7	0.0
Brunei Darussalam	1.8	0.2	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.0	0.8
Cambodia	–2.5	–1.9	8.3	6.1	–0.6	–4.3	–2.0	–1.9
PRC	–0.1	0.0	–0.1	–0.1	–0.3	–0.3	–0.3	–0.2
Georgia	–0.7	–2.3	–20.7	–15.9	–13.4	–13.3	–14.4	–2.5
Hong Kong, China	3.2	5.7	5.2	17.0	–1.2	1.3	4.2	4.0
India	0.1	0.0	–0.1	–0.1	–0.4	–0.5	–0.4	–0.3
Indonesia	–0.1	–0.2	–0.4	–0.3	–0.8	–1.0	–0.6	–0.5
Japan	0.4	–1.0	0.7	0.0	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.4
Kazakhstan	–5.2	–8.1	–18.6	–17.2	0.6	–0.4	1.9	0
Korea, Republic of	1.6	2.1	–2.9	–1.3	1.0	1.7	1.2	0.8
Kyrgyz Republic	–2.1	–5.7	–12.1	–1.4	–6.9	–2.9	–4.0	–3.2
Lao PDR	–2.0	0	–2.0	–5.1	–6.3	–3.9	–3.6	–2.1
Malaysia	2.1	5.1	3.1	3.6	4	4.8	3.1	1.6
Maldives	0	–2.5	–2.6	–0.8	–0.1	0	0	0
Mongolia	0	0	–7.9	–4.5	–1.2	–1.1	–1.1	–1.0
Myanmar	–0.3	–1.0	–3.2	–2.3	–5.6	–5.8	–1.8	–0.2
Nepal	–1.3	–2.4	0.8	–4.1	–7.5	–7.8	–2.7	–2.2
Pakistan	3.2	0.3	–2.0	–1.1	–1.2	–1.6	–1.2	–0.7
Philippines	–0.7	–1.0	–1.5	–2.1	–2.7	–4.1	–1.4	–1.1
Singapore	10.8	8.4	15.3	13.8	20.7	18.8	14.9	10.3
Sri Lanka	–5.1	–1.6	–2.9	–5.0	–4.7	–5.2	–4.7	–3.6
Tajikistan	–1.0	–1.5	–10.4	–10.9	–3.0	–1.8	–2.9	–2.2
Taipei,China	n. a.	n. a.	n. a.	n. a.	n. a.	n. a.	n. a.	n. a.
Thailand	1.4	1.9	–2.8	2.3	3.4	–2.6	0.3	0.3
Turkmenistan	–1.6	–2.0	2.2	–2.8	–5.0	–2.3	–1.0	–0.9
Uzbekistan	–1.3	–4.0	–3.7	–2.5	–3.6	–2.2	–1.4	–1.6
Viet Nam	–1.1	–1.0	–1.1	–0.6	–1.9	–2.0	–0.4	–0.4

Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, n.a. = not available, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Source: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. *World Population Prospects: The 2015 Revision.*

Labor Migration in Asia: Building Effective Institutions

This report analyzes the institutions and structures that govern labor migration in Asia. It considers the important role of governments and other stakeholders in both labor-destination countries such as Japan, the Republic of Korea, and Singapore, and labor-sending countries such as India, the Philippines, and Sri Lanka. Key issues are the extent to which these structures provide an orderly process for the movement of people between countries and whether the rights and the welfare of workers are protected.

The four chapters capture the ideas, insights, and discussions from the "Fifth Roundtable on Labor Migration in Asia: Building Effective Structures and Institutions for Migration Governance" that was hosted by the Asia-Pacific Finance and Development Institute in Shanghai in January 2015. The event brought together regional experts and policy makers and was co-organized by the Asian Development Bank Institute, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, and the International Labour Organization.

The report's introductory chapter reviews recent regional trends, and two statistical annexes offer detailed coverage of migration flows within Asia and between Asia and other regions.

Asian Development Bank Institute

ADBI, located in Tokyo, is the think tank of the Asian Development Bank (ADB). ADBI's 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 globally. ADBI's activities are aligned with ADB's strategic focus, which includes poverty reduction and inclusive economic growth, the environment, regional cooperation and integration, infrastructure development, middle-income countries, and private sector development and operations.

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Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

The OECD provides a forum in which governments work together to seek solutions to common problems, share experiences and identify best practices to promote better policies for better lives. The OECD supports policy makers in identifying challenges and addressing them through appropriate policies. It is also one of the world's largest sources of comparable statistical data on economics, trade, employment, education, health, social issues, migration, the environment and many other fields. The OECD includes 34 member countries and collaborates with more than 100 other economies.

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International Labour Organization

The ILO is devoted to promoting social justice and internationally recognized human and labour rights. The ILO helps advance the creation of decent work for all women and men. Its main aims are to promote rights at work, encourage decent employment opportunities, enhance social protection and strengthen dialogue on work-related issues. Its tripartite structure provides a unique platform for promoting decent work. Making fair migration a reality is high on the ILO agenda, at the global level and in the Asia-Pacific region.

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